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I. Walker, D. Chan, M. Nagami, C. Bourguignon (Eds.)

NEW PERSPECTIVES ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNICATIVE AND RELATED COMPETENCE IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

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Izumi Walker, Daniel K.G. Chan, Masanori Nagami, Claire Bourguignon (Eds.)

New Perspectives on the Development of Communicative and Related Competence in Foreign Language Education

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Preface

Competence is built upon a range of knowledge and skills, and enables one to perform tasks successfully and effectively. In language education, communicative competence has long been identified as a major objective of learning. Reflecting the intricacies of human interactions and communication, communicative competence is a highly complex construct encompassing an array of sub-competencies such as linguistic skills and proficiencies, knowledge of sociocultural and sociopragmatic codes, and the ability to engage in textual and conversational discourse. Findings from research in second language acquisition, linguistics, cognitive psychology and other related disciplines have also pointed to the significance of other factors that can contribute to the attainment of communicative competence or are themselves desirable objectives of foreign language learning. These include such notions as autonomy, learning and metacognitive competence, intercultural competence, digital literacy, and teacher/learner beliefs and assumptions.

The theme for CLaSIC 2014 was "Knowledge, Skills and Competencies in Foreign Language Education". This conference provided a platform for researchers, scholars, practitioners and developers in the area of foreign language education to share and discuss findings and insights pertaining to the role and development of communicative competence, as well as other critical forms of knowledge, skills and competencies for foreign language teaching and learning.

The CLaSIC series of biennial conferences, organised by the Centre for Language Studies (CLS) of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, National University of Singapore (NUS) since 2004, provides a platform for the dissemination of current research and the sharing of innovative practices in foreign language education. CLaSIC 2014, which took place on 4–6 December, 2014, at the University Town – Town Plaza at the NUS campus, brought together over 200 scholars, researchers and practitioners in the field of foreign language education and its feeder disciplines from around the world for three invigorating days of lectures, presentations and academic discourse.

The papers collected in the current volume were selected from the 140 presentations at CLaSIC 2014 after two rounds of intensive reviews by the editors of the book and a panel of international experts from four different continents, namely, Asia, Australasia, Europe and North America. Then the name of the book, *New Perspectives on the Development of Communicative and Related Competence in Foreign Language Education*, was decided based on the themes and contents of the selected papers. The members of this distinguished panel, to whom we owe an immense debt of gratitude, were Anna Chamot (George Washington

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University, USA), Tony Cripps (Nanzan University, Japan), Rod Ellis (Curtin University, Australia), Richard Harrison (Kobe University, Japan), Larry Kimber (Fukuoka University, Japan), Michael Levy (University of Queensland, Australia), Naoki Sugino (Ritsumeikan University, Japan), Naoko Taguchi (Carnegie Mellon University, USA) and Swathi Vanniarajan (San Jose State University, USA).

We would also like to thank many others for having contributed to the success of CLaSIC 2014 and the preparation of this book. They include especially the following people and institutions: the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, NUS, for a generous grant (Project No. N-127-000-012-021) in support of the conference; our other sponsors and partners, including the Char Yong (DABU) Clan Association Singapore, the Lee Foundation, the Japan Foundation, and the Chinese Language Teaching and Research Fund administered jointly by CLS and the Department of Chinese Studies at NUS; the anonymous re-viewers and editors from De Gruyter Mouton; and Brinda Balasubramaniam, Grace Chong Si En, and Yeo Rei Chi Lauren for their assistance in proofreading and formatting the manuscript. Finally, we would like to express our appreciation for the hard work and dedication of our colleagues in the CLaSIC 2014 Organising Committee and the CLS' administrative support team, without whom the Conference would not have been possible.

We would like to express our deepest regret at the passing of Professor Anna Uhl Chamot and would like to acknowledge, with warmest appreciation, the contribution of her dedicated support for CLaSIC from the inaugural conference in 2004 and up to 2014, as a Plenary Speaker as well as a member of the Scientific Committee. We are truly honored to present one of her last manuscripts in Chapter 3 of this book.

Izumi Walker, Daniel Kwang Guan Chan, and Masanori Nagami
Singapore, May 2018

Contents

Izumi Walker, Daniel Kwang Guan Chan and Masanori Nagami

1 New perspectives on the development of communicative and related competence in foreign language education: An introduction to the book

1 Communicative competence in foreign language education

The ability to communicate in foreign languages undeniably plays a key role in today's era of globalisation. In fact, *communication in foreign languages* is one of the eight key competences "individuals need for personal fulfilment and development, active citizenship, social inclusion and employment" under the European Reference Framework (ERF), established in 2006 in response to the challenges brought about by globalisation. The ERF highlighted the need for people to develop "a wide range of key competences to adapt flexibly to a rapidly changing and highly interconnected world" (European Union 2006: L.394/13). Specifically, "communication in foreign languages" is defined in the ERF as follows (European Union 2006: L.394/14):

> Communication in foreign languages broadly shares the main skill dimensions of communication in the mother tongue: it is based on the ability to understand, express and interpret concepts, thoughts, feelings, facts and opinions in both oral and written form (listening, speaking, reading and writing) in an appropriate range of societal and cultural contexts (in education and training, work, home and leisure) according to one's wants or needs. Communication in foreign languages also calls for skills such as mediation and intercultural understanding. An individual's level of proficiency will vary between the four dimensions (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and between the different languages and according to that individual's social and cultural background, environment, needs and/or interests.

It is made quite clear in this definition that communication in a foreign language involves not only linguistic or grammatical competence (i.e. the four basic language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing), but also the ability to use the language appropriately depending on the context of language use or purpose of communication and additionally, the capacity to deal with and act skilfully in the light of intercultural differences.

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The complex nature of communicative competence is also recognized in the National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project (NSFLEP 2015), which sets the benchmarks for the performance outcomes of foreign language learners in the United States. Identified as the first of five key areas of achievements (commonly referred to as the 5 Cs), *communication* – together with *cultures*, *connections*, *comparisons* and *communities* – is a goal that enables foreign language learners to become world-ready educated citizens with the ability to communicate and interact effectively with local and global communities, in different types of situations and for various purposes. Under the NSFLEP, the "communication" goal is measured by three standards, corresponding to three communicative modes, contexts or purposes. These include the foreign language learner's ability to:

- interact and negotiate meaning in spoken, signed or written conversations to share information, reactions, feelings and opinions (NSFLEP 2015, "Interpersonal Communication")
- understand, interpret and analyze what is heard, read or viewed on a variety of topics (NSFLEP 2015, "Interpretive Communication")
- present information, concepts and ideas to inform, explain, persuade and narrate on a variety of topics using appropriate media and adapting to various audiences of listeners, readers or viewers (NSFLEP 2015, "Presentational Communication")

The crucial role of communicative competence in the teaching and learning of languages can be traced back to the 1960s. The term "competence" first emerged in a dichotomy made by Chomsky (1965: 4) between "a speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language" (competence) and his "actual use of language in concrete situations" (performance). As Hymes pointed out, such a dichotomy between language knowledge and language use fails

> to account for the fact that a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when not and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner. In short, a child becomes able to accomplish a repertoire of speech acts, to take part in speech events and to evaluate their accomplishment by others (Hymes 1972: 277).

In response to the inadequacy of Chomsky's dichotomy, Hymes (1971, 1972, 1973, 1974) coined the term "communicative competence" to include not only grammatical competence (the ability to use language correctly), but also the (sociolinguistic) ability to use grammatical competence in different communicative situations (including the ability to know when, how and to whom language can be used appropriately). He defined "communicative competence" as "the most general term for the speaking and hearing capabilities of a person" (Hymes 1971: 16). He makes a distinction between competence and performance: the former depends “upon both (tacit) knowledge and (ability for) use” (Hymes 1972: 282), while performance “takes into account the interaction between competence (knowledge, ability for use), competence of others and cybernetical and emergent properties of events themselves” (Hymes 1972: 283).

Half a century later, Hymes’ concept of communicative competence continues to be fine-tuned and still influences research areas in language teaching and learning, while helping to shape the objectives of foreign language education. As shown with the ERF and the NSFLEP, attempts have been made to formalize the theoretical construct of communicative competence so that reference frameworks can establish instructional objectives and standards for the measurement of foreign language learners’ proficiency levels. Other earlier examples include Canale (1983), who examined how a theoretical framework of communicative competence is instrumental in designing and implementing a testing programme for students learning French as a second language in some Canadian elementary and secondary schools. Similarly, Bachman (1990) used a “communicative language ability” framework to develop language tests that demonstrate reliability of test scores and validity of test use. Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell (1995), motivated by the practical needs for language teaching and teacher training, also argued for the need to have a comprehensible and accessible description of components of communicative competence so as to serve as an elaborated ‘checklist’ that practitioners can refer to (see Section 2).

In sum, communicative competence is a relevant and crucial concept in foreign language education, especially in the ERF and the NSFLEP, two of the most influential reference frameworks and benchmarks in foreign language education. To better understand the complexities of communicative competence, it is useful to recall why and how the theoretical construct of communicative competence has evolved over the past few decades, as well as its impact on foreign language education. This in turn puts the chapters in this volume into perspective and context.

2 Theoretical developments of the communicative competence model and their impact on foreign language education

In this section, we present some of the more well-known theoretical models of language ability and how they have developed over the past decades. We then discuss their impact on foreign language education in today’s contexts.

2.1 Canale and Swain (1980)/Canale (1983)

For Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983), communicative competence is viewed as a synthesis of underlying knowledge and skills that are required for communication. Knowledge is understood as an individual's (conscious or unconscious) knowledge about language and other aspects of language use. Based on the ideas of Hymes (1971, 1972, 1973, 1974) mentioned above, Canale and Swain (1980: 27–31) first produced a model of "communicative competence" involving just three types of knowledge:
– Knowledge of grammar, lexis, morphology, syntax, semantics and phonology ("Grammatical competence")
– Knowledge of sociocultural rules of language use and rules of discourse ("Sociolinguistic competence")
– Knowledge of how to compensate for breakdowns when faced with difficulties in communication ("Strategic competence")

In the later model by Canale (1983), rules of discourse were separated from sociolinguistic knowledge, leading to four competence areas of communicative competence:
– Grammatical competence: the mastery of the language code (verbal or non-verbal) including features and rules of the language such as vocabulary, word formation, sentence formation, pronunciation, spelling and linguistic semantics.
– Sociolinguistic competence: the knowledge of sociocultural rules of language use. It addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts depending on contextual factors such as status of participants, purposes of the interaction and norms or conventions of interaction.
– Discourse competence: the mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text in different genres. Unity of a text is achieved through cohesion in form and coherence in meaning.
– Strategic competence: the knowledge of how to overcome problems when faced with difficulties in communication.

2.2 Bachman (1990)/Bachman and Palmer (1996)

Bachman (1990) proposed a more comprehensive model of communicative competence by building on Canale and Swain's (1980) model with three components relating to language ability: (1) language competence, (2) strategic competence and (3) psychophysiological mechanisms. His model, known as the *communicative language ability*, is different from earlier models as it clarifies two things, which were left unclear in that of Canale and Swain's. Firstly, it clearly distinguishes what constitutes *knowledge* from what constitutes a *skill*. Secondly, it explicitly "attempts to characterize the processes by which the various components interact with each other and the context in which language use occurs" (Bachman 1990: 81). Communicative language ability by Bachman (1990) is composed of the following components:

- Language competence: "a set of specific knowledge components that are utilized in communication via language".
- Strategic competence: "the mental capacity for implementing the components of language competence in contextualized communicative language use", which relates to both language competence (knowledge of language) and sociocultural knowledge (knowledge of the world).
- Psychophysiological mechanism: "the neurological and psychological processes involved in the actual execution of language as a physical phenomenon [such as] sound [and] light".

The interplay between Bachman's components of communicative language ability is illustrated in Figure 1.

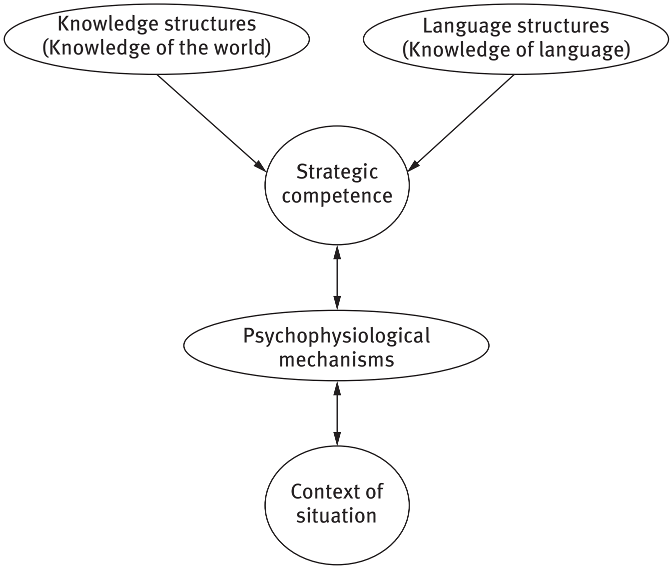

Figure 1: Components of communicative language ability (Bachman 1990: 85).

The model in Figure 1 was amended and restructured by Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model, which is significant in at least two ways. Firstly, strategic competence has been revised as "a set of metacognitive components or strategies, which can be thought of as higher order executive processes that provide a cognitive management function in language use, as well as in other cognitive activities" (Bachman & Palmer 1996: 70). Secondly, it includes personal characteristics of the individual language learner, such as *topical knowledge* and *affective schemata* ("the affective or emotional correlates of topical knowledge" [Bachman & Palmer 1996: 72]). The addition of affective schemata in Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model is seen as an important step towards the incorporation of Hymes' (1972) notion of "ability for use" and expands on the model of language performance by including non-linguistic elements (such as personality and emotional states).

In this model, language ability is viewed in terms of language knowledge and strategic competence. The former consists of two sub-components (organisational knowledge and pragmatic knowledge), which are complementary to each other in achieving effective language use in communication. The sub-components of language knowledge are shown in Figure 2.

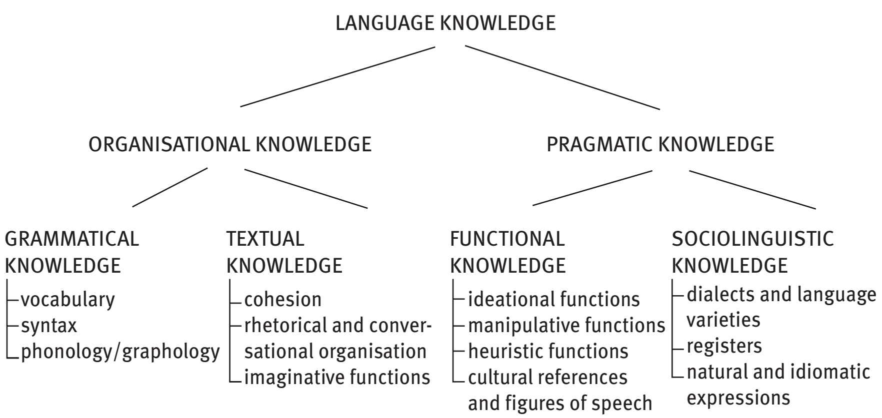

Figure 2: Areas of language knowledge (Bachman and Palmer 1996: 68).

2.3 Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell (1995)

Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell (1995) proposed another model, which includes actional competence, which is related to the understanding of speakers' communicative intent by performing and interpreting speech act sets. In this model, the discourse component is in the central position where the linguistic elements, the actional skills of communicative intent and the sociocultural context work interact together to form the discourse, while the latter also contributes to shaping those three components. This is illustrated in Figure 3.

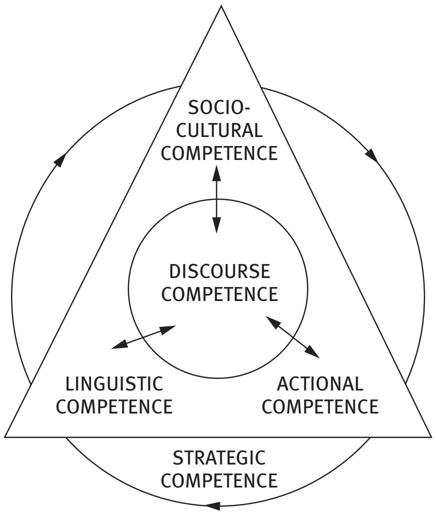

Figure 3: Schematic representation of communicative competence.

The comparison of the model by Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell (1995) and those of Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1980) are illustrated in Figure 4.

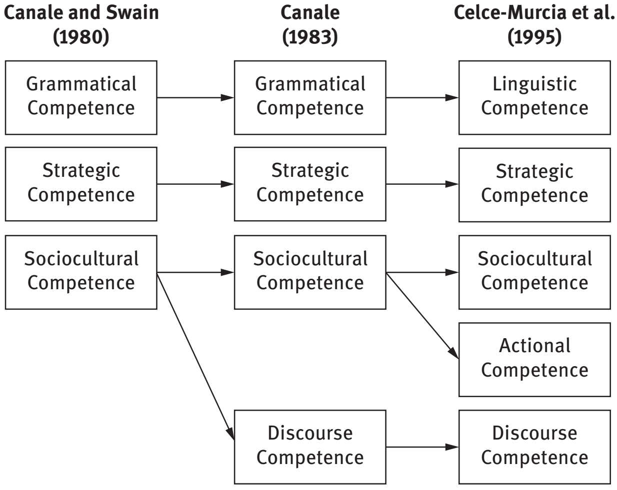

Figure 4: Comparison of the models by Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983) and Celce-Murcia et al. (1995).

2.4 Impact of the communicative competence model on foreign language education and criticisms of the model

The concept of communicative competence resulted in a major paradigm shift in foreign language education. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emerged as the most influential theory of language teaching, starting from a communicative model of language and language use in the 1970s. Richards and Rodgers (2014: 65) traces the rapid development of CLT as follows:

> The work of the Council of Europe; the writings of Wilkins, Widowson, Candlin, Christopher Bruimfit, Keith Johnson and other British applied linguists on the theoretical basis for a communicative or functional approach to language teaching; the rapid application of these ideas by textbook writers; and the equally rapid acceptance of these new principles by British language teaching specialists, curriculum development centres and even governments gave prominence nationally and internationally to what came to be referred to as the Communicative Approach, or simply Communicative Language Teaching (CLT).

The CLT movement began as a largely British and European innovation before expanding to the United States and other parts of the world. CLT places great value on teaching language skills with the goal of enabling learners to communicate meaningfully both inside and outside the classroom. The three underlying principles of CLT are (1) the Communication Principle ("Activities involving real communication promote learning"); (2) the Task Principle ("Activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning"); and (3) the Meaningfulness Principle ("Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process"). Based on such principles, a variety of teaching approaches have been developed, such as the Natural Approach, Cooperative Language Learning, Content-Based Instruction, Strategies-Based Instruction and Task-Based Language Teaching.

Although these approaches are still widely used in foreign language education, there have been some criticisms to this conception of communicative competence. One notable criticism, made by scholars with a particular interest in the social context of speech and how communication is understood, is that communicative competence is limited to "static, cognitive properties of individuals" (Hall & Doehler 2011: 4). Instead, they proposed the concept of *interactional competence* (Hall 1993, 1995, 1999; Young 2000, 2003). The origin of interactional competence can be traced to Kramsch (1986), who argued that talk is co-constructed by the participants in communication and that responsibility for talk therefore cannot be assigned to a single individual. This notion gave a significantly new perspective to language competence and became the theoretical rationale for the communicative approach and speaking tests.

Another model that arose as an improvement over the CLT theory is that of *Intercultural Communicative Competence* (ICC), proposed by Byram and Zarate (1997), who argued against the adopting of linguistic and cultural norms based on the native speaker. Instead, they proposed the notion of an intercultural speaker as a goal for second and foreign language education. Byram and Zarate consider the intercultural speaker as someone who "crosses frontiers and who is to some extent a specialist in the transit of cultural property and symbolic values" (Byram and Zarate 1997: 11). Today, ICC has become the key stream for second and foreign language education. For more discussion on ICC, see Chan et al. (2015).

More recently, some researchers and practitioners have tried to adopt a more complex and dynamic view on communicative competence. Kramsch (1986), for example, criticized the oversimplification of communication in the model of communicative competence and proposed interactional competence as the skill necessary for successful communication. This idea is further elaborated as *symbolic competence* in Kramsch (2006, 2011) to better explain the complex nature of communication in the era of globalisation. Kramsch (2006) argues that the learner now needs to understand not only how to communicate meaning, but also the practice of meaning-making itself. Kramsch and Whiteside (2008) define symbolic competence as "the ability to shape the multilingual game in which one invests – the ability to manipulate the conventional categories and societal norms of truthfulness, legitimacy, seriousness, originality – and to reframe human thought and action" (Kramsch & Whiteside 2008: 667). The concept of symbolic competence has great potential to impact foreign language teaching practices and teacher education since "the symbolic dimension of intercultural competence calls for an approach to the training of language teachers that is discourse-based, historically grounded, aesthetically sensitive and one that takes into account the actual, the imagined and the virtual worlds in which we live" (Kramsch 2011: 366).

The result of all of these developments in the research on communicative and related competence in foreign language education is the concept of *communicative competence*, which has now emerged as a highly complex and multi-faceted construct encompassing an array of sub-competence such as linguistic competence, sociocultural competence, discourse competence, strategic competence, pragmatic competence and so on. Findings from research in second language acquisition, linguistics, cognitive psychology and other related disciplines have also pointed to the significance of other factors that can contribute to the attainment of communicative competence or are themselves desirable objectives of foreign language learning. These include notions such as autonomy, learning and metacognitive competence, intercultural competence, digital literacy and teacher/learner beliefs and assumptions.

This volume contributes to the on-going discussion and debate on the importance of *communicative competence* and other related sub-competence in foreign language education through fifteen chapters, presenting new perspectives and original research on key areas related – directly or indirectly – to communicative competence.

In the following section, we present the structure and contents of the book in greater detail.

3 Structure and contents of this book

As mentioned, this book presents new perspectives and original research on key areas related to communicative competence. The fourteen chapters that follow this introduction are organized in three main parts: (1) Theoretical and pedagogical issues in the development of competence; (2) Empirical research on the acquisition of competence; and (3) Practices in developing competence.

3.1 Theoretical and pedagogical issues in the development of competence

Part 1, "Theoretical and pedagogical issues in the development of competence" provides new perspectives by leading scholars on the development of foreign language competence, as well as teaching approaches to develop such a competence. It also discusses related contemporary issues such as curriculum design, teacher education in foreign language education and the development of skills for business communication in a foreign language.

The first three chapters of Part 1 look at how different kinds of foreign language competences can be developed.

In Chapter 2, "*Taking the critics to tasks: the case for task-based teaching*", Rod Ellis addresses misconceptions about Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) as an approach to develop communicative competence. He argues that all form-focused language instruction involves an attempt to intervene in the process of learning a second language (L2), either directly or indirectly. Direct intervention involves providing learners with explicit information about the target of the instruction together with opportunities to practice the target (i.e. explicit instruction). It invites intentional language learning on the part of the learner. Indirect intervention involves setting up opportunities for learners to learn without specifying what the target of the instruction is (i.e. implicit instruction). In other words, there is no explicit teaching of the target feature although there are opportunities to engage in the use of it. Implicit instruction caters to incidental language learning on the part of the learner. These two types of intervention assume different positions regarding the interface between explicit and implicit knowledge of a second language (i.e., a non-interface, a strong interface and a weak interface position). In particular, Ellis considers these interface positions through an examination of recent research that investigated the effects of explicit and implicit instruction on second language acquisition.

In Chapter 3, "*Developing self-regulated learning in the language classroom*", Anna Chamot contributes to the understanding and the facilitating of self-regulated learning, one of the relatively newer concepts in foreign language education. She defines self-regulation as a key factor for developing communicative competence in language learners at all levels. She argues that many foreign language learners must not only develop their communicative competence in the target language, but must also learn new content information through the medium of a new language. She examines the construct of self-regulation as applied to second and foreign language learners as well as related useful constructs that can help foreign language teachers support learners in undertaking challenging learning tasks. The components of Content-Based Language Instruction (CBI) and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) models are described, while Understanding by Design (UbD) is suggested as a vehicle for explicitly developing self-regulated learning in CBI and CLIL classrooms.

Chapter 4, written by Naoko Taguchi, entitled "*Pragmatic competence in foreign language education: Cultivating learner autonomy and strategic learning of pragmatics*", also discusses self-regulated learning, but this time, as a potential tool for overcoming the challenges of learning pragmatics (an important component of communicative competence) through strategy instruction. The author points out two existing problems in pragmatic instruction. One is the limited opportunities for pragmatic-focused input and practice in the classroom and the other is the restricted coverage of pragmatic features in the syllabus. To address these concerns, she discusses autonomous learning and strategy training as a model of pragmatic pedagogy. Based on data collected from Japanese students of English as a Second Language (ESL) in an immersion setting (Taguchi 2012), she illustrates a case of a strategic learner who cultivated a variety of self-directed resources for pragmatic learning, which led to a strong development of pragmatic competence. Based on the case study and drawing on the recent model of strategic self-regulation (Oxford 2011), the author suggests that strategy training can be an alternative form of formal instruction, assisting learners to take initiative in learning pragmatics from everyday non-pragmatically-focused materials.

There is much research in the current literature on the development of communicative competence, but less on the kind of competence required by teachers to achieve this, or on competence graduates need to be able to communicate effectively in the business world that encompasses foreign language culture. Chapters 5 and 6 attempt to fill this gap by focusing on language competence for professional purposes: teacher competence in the context of English language teaching and business competence in Japanese business contexts.

In Chapter 5, "*Teaching English to young learners in Japan: Teacher competence and classroom reality*", Brian Gaynor reports on how the new English curriculum in Japan has impacted Japanese elementary schools and highlights the importance of developing the relevant communicative competence of teachers to match the curriculum change. After a discussion about the competence required of teachers for successful teaching, the reality of the Japanese teachers' skills in Japanese elementary schools is analyzed and several suggestions for improvements are provided. It then concludes with a guiding principle: "competence begets competence: having a competent teacher in charge of the classroom is the most important factor in developing a communicatively competent learner" (Gaynor 90).

In Chapter 6, Izumi Walker, Akiko Ito and Etsuko Ishihara raise the thought-provoking question of "*What competence is necessary to be able to work successfully in Japan-related workplaces?*". Presenting a needs-based analysis of Business Japanese Competence (BJC) for Singaporean Business Persons (SBP) in Japan-related companies and identifying problems faced in Business Communication in Japanese, they report on a study conducted in response to an increasing demand for Japanese-speaking graduates from Japanese companies in order to accelerate their level of globalisation by opening up more positions for foreign employees. The study revealed that Japanese is used on limited occasions and business is conducted mainly in English. However, most SBP have various culture-related problems because they perceive that a monolingual native speaker of English is the norm in that company. Based on that, the chapter suggests the importance of cultivating intercultural communicative competence from an early learning stage of Japanese language education.

3.2 Empirical research on the acquisition of competence

Part 2 of this book focuses on empirical research on foreign language learners' acquisition of foreign language communicative competence, including linguistic knowledge, grammatical competence, character knowledge and oral communication skills through experimental studies and classroom discourse analysis.

Chapter 7, by Miho Mano, Yuko Yoshinari and Kiyoko Eguchi, looks at "*The effects of the first language on the description of motion events: focusing on L2 Japanese learners of English and Hungarian*". This chapter demonstrates how the comparison of language forms in two languages can be a good way to learn a new language. The authors argue that learning another language requires not only acquiring the grammatical sentence structures of the L2 but also learning the appropriate and natural verbalisation patterns of the target language. They report on a cross-linguistic experimental study on motion event descriptions, which are one of the most basic structures in a language. They conclude that understanding the coding patterns of complex events of both the native speakers and learners are meaningful for foreign language education.

Chapter 8, written by Takako Kondo and Tomohiko Hirakata, "*Explicit instruction on English verb structures in L2 classrooms*", gives an example of how some grammatical competence need to be taught explicitly. The purpose of their study is to demonstrate that proactive, deductive and explicit instruction is effective for Japanese learners of English (JLEs) in the university level to notice and comprehend linguistic differences between Japanese and English verbs. They conducted an experimental study on the effectiveness of explicit instruction on the transitive and intransitive verb distinction and found that the explicit instruction on verb structures to adult L2 learners is at least effective in helping them to notice and comprehend the grammatical items that are being taught. It then discusses pedagogical implications for the context of teaching English in Japan.

In Chapter 9, "*Character knowledge and reading stages of Chinese as a foreign language*", Sun-A Kim and Jeong-Ah Shin shed light on how non-native learners develop key competence in Chinese-character reading. They claim that learning how to read is more than just recognising the composition of words; it also means developing orthographic and phonetic strategies. They investigated whether adult learners of Chinese as a foreign language (CFL) also pass through the three reading stages of native Chinese children: visual, phonetic and orthographic. The results suggest that adult CFL learners bypass the visual stage to proceed directly to the phonetic stage, followed by the orthographic stage, and that Chinese-character knowledge plays a significant role in enabling learners to progress to the orthographic stage.

Chapter 10, by Yona Gilead, "*Developing communicative competence: The role of handover in scaffolding oral communication*", discusses how teachers can support learners in their acquisition of communicative competence, or their ability to "interact with other speakers, to make meaning". The author critically examines the concept of handover and scaffolding in foreign language education. Based on an ethnographic case study of a Modern Hebrew classroom at a university, three major types of handovers are found in classroom oral communication activities. She found that consistent handovers, at various levels, provide a major pedagogical tool in scaffolding learners' oral communicative competence. She describes learners' experiences in classrooms in a detailed way and also proposes future research that focuses on learners' attitudes and perspectives on the target language and their learning.

3.3 Practices in developing competence

Part 3 reports on two major practices for developing communicative and related competence in foreign language education: study abroad programs and the impact of ICT tools (e.g. digital corpora, digital storytelling and digital communities).

Study abroad, "pre-scheduled, temporary stays in a foreign country for educational purposes" (Taguchi 2015: 4), has received much attention from practitioners and researchers. Many researchers have suggested that study abroad is beneficial for developing communicative competence and have argued that it is especially helpful for sociolinguistic competence, pragmatic competence and intercultural competence (Kinginger 2011). Taguchi (2016) also reports that study abroad provides contexts in which "learners are exposed to a community full of linguistic and sociocultural practices" (Taguchi 2016: 4). While it is widely accepted that study abroad is useful for language learning, significant individual differences exist in terms of the development of general proficiency (Kinginger 2009). In order to understand the differences, Kinginger (2011) pointed out that more qualitative research on language learning in study abroad programs would be desired. Jackson (2017) proposed interventions that are necessary in the practice of study abroad through her research and practice. In relation to this, Chapters 11 and 12 of this volume are of significant interest. In particular, they shed light on the growing concern regarding the impact of study abroad programmes on the development of pragmatic and intercultural communication competence in a second or foreign language.

In Chapter 11, Gia Anh Le Ho and Thi Thuy Minh Nguyen examine the "*Pragmatic development in the study-abroad context*" and present a case study of the impact of a cross-cultural pragmatic strategies intervention. They report on a case study that investigates the impact of an intensive cross-cultural training program for pragmatic strategies on study abroad students' ability to produce and recognize socially appropriate language use in a second language – Vietnamese. The intervention was designed to raise the learners' intercultural sensitivity, particularly with regard to the way requests are performed in various social scenarios in the target language and to encourage social contact between the learners and native speakers. Using various sets of data (questionnaires, interviews, journal entries, and tasks), they found that the intervention showed some positive effects on the learners' acquisition of requests in Vietnamese. Just like in Chapter 4 of this volume by Taguchi, Gia Anh Le Ho and Thi Thuy Minh Nguyen propose that systematic and explicit instruction and strategy training are necessary to develop not only pragmatic knowledge but also pragmatic fluency.

In Chapter 12 "*Intercultural communication competence and possible L2 selves in a short-term study abroad program*", Matthew Apple and Jonathan Aliponga report on a study about language learning in the context of overseas study programmes with reference to intercultural communication competence, speaking confidence and the possible materialisation of L2 selves. An analysis of questionnaires and interviews reveals that going abroad appears to be a key factor, not only in learning another culture but also in developing communicative skills. They underline the fact that a language, set in context, needs to make sense to the learner so that his ability to learn may be developed. The authors also discuss implications for evaluating a study abroad program and helping students improve their intercultural communication competence.

The last three chapters of this final section deal with one of the most contemporary issues of foreign language education: the use of technological tools, particularly in enabling the development of communicative competence and generally in the enhancement of foreign language learning. From the days of Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL), defined by Levy (1997: 1) as "the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning", to the current movement of Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL), which is "an approach to language learning that is assisted or enhanced through the use of a handheld mobile device" (Valarmathi 2011: 2), technology has been affording both foreign language teachers and learners the amazing ability to perform increasingly complex tasks, which not only makes language learning much easier, but also more engaging, enjoyable and ubiquitous.

One such technological tool is digital corpora, or collections of texts that can be easily accessed and searched using a computer to find samples of *real world* uses of a particular word, phrase or expression. Corpora are particularly useful for understanding an area of language through frequency counts, phraseology and collocations (Hunston 2002). As demonstrated in Chapter 13, "*Corpora as an L2 writing reference tool: classroom practice and student response*" by Cynthia Quinn, digital corpora can be useful in an EFL writing course. In particular, she reports on a study of intermediate-level Japanese EFL students' perceptions towards a writing skills course that incorporates the use of digital corpora as a writing reference tool. Based on a questionnaire and teacher-student writing consultations, the author discusses students' self-reported beliefs and attitudes on their writing. The students strongly agreed that a corpus was an important tool to the writing process and realized the benefits of corpora. However, many learners still persisted with their dictionaries as their primary reference tool, revealing a gap between their beliefs and actual practice. They claim that learner perception data is an essential resource for guiding the design of corpus-integrated L2 writing curricula.

Another technological tool that is extremely popular in contemporary foreign language classes is digital storytelling software. Its popularity can be accounted for by the fact that the creation of digital stories has been made relatively easy and effortless even for the least technologically savvy person. As a result, this tool has great potential in motivating foreign language learners through interactive, engaging and compelling digital storytelling. Chapter 14, "*Effects of digital storytelling on Japanese EFL learners: Focus on anxiety and PBL skills*", by Yuichi Ono, contributes to the study of this technology by exploring the benefits of a Computer-Mediated Project-Based Learning (PBL) approach to making academic digital stories in a Japanese EFL presentation course. Foreign language anxiety is one of the factors that hinder learner's attitudes and development. Making digital stories has been shown to have an effect on cognitive development, self-authoring and other PBL skills as well as linguistic skills. Based on pre- and post-test scores of questionnaires as well as open-ended feedback, the author suggests that the PBL approach to digital movie presentation is effective to reduce foreign language anxiety and to foster PBL skills and reflections.

Just as it has become uncomplicated to tell stories through easy-to-use digital media, video creation can also now be done by anyone and everyone with just their personal devices (mobile phones, laptops and so on). Furthermore, thanks to the internet, such digital stories and videos can be shared with the World Wide Web through file-sharing websites like Dropbox, or video sharing platforms such as YouTube. Video creation and sharing by foreign language learners over the Internet formed the research focus of Etsuko Toyoda and Richard Harrison in Chapter 15, "*Evaluation of two communities of inquiry*". In particular, they study the effectiveness of video creation and sharing tools for learning Japanese based on the theoretical framework of Community of Inquiry (CoI), which itself stems from the social constructivist perspective. The authors report on a collaborative blended learning project based on the CoI framework. Undergraduate students in Australia created videos on contemporary issues in Japan and uploaded them to YouTube. They discuss the problems that were encountered in implementing such a learning project and suggest factors that must be considered for collaborative blended learning to be improved and become more effective in the future.

4 Conclusion

On the whole, the chapters in this book are related either directly or indirectly to communicative competence, which has become a central paradigm in foreign language education for the past few decades. In particular, this volume:

- Gives new and comprehensive views of pedagogical approaches in developing communicative and related competence. (Chapters 2, 3 and 4).
- Proposes additional concepts of competence necessary for professional purposes (Chapters 5 and 6).
- Provides empirical evidence to help us better understand the acquisition process of foreign language competence (Chapters 7, 8, 9 and 10).
- Reports on current practices in developing competence beyond the classroom (Chapters 11 and 12).
- Illustrates how technological tools can be used to enhance the teaching and learning of foreign language competence (Chapters 13, 14 and 15).
- Includes research on less commonly taught foreign languages, such as Hungarian (Chapter 7), Hebrew (Chapter 10), Vietnamese (Chapter 11) and Thai (Chapter 12).

In sum, the volume discusses not only theoretical issues but also unique and original teaching practices and empirical studies relating to communicative and related competence in foreign language education that could be useful for the language practitioners, theorists as well as applied linguists.

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Part I: Theoretical and pedagogical issues in the development of competence

Rod Ellis

2 Taking the critics to task: The case for task-based teaching

1 Introduction

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) has received support from both teacher educators (Willis 1996) and from second language acquisition (SLA) researchers (Ellis 2003; Long 2015; Skehan 2011). In TBLT the aim is to attract attention to form as learners engage in performing tasks and in so doing cater to incidental/implicit language learning which is seen as essential for enabling the development of the implicit knowledge that is fundamental to competence in a second language (L2). Implicit knowledge is knowledge that is intuitive and automatic and thus available for use in everyday face-to-face communication. It contrasts with explicit knowledge, which is conscious and can only be used with controlled processing. Traditional approaches to teaching emphasize explicit language instruction and according to advocates of TBLT such as Long, Skehan and Ellis, explicit language instruction results in explicit knowledge and thus fails to ensure that learners develop full competence in an L2. Not surprisingly, then, TBLT has been subjected to considerable criticism from educators such as Sheen (1994) and Swan (2005) who favor more traditional approaches such as presentation-practice-production (PPP). The purpose of this chapter is to examine these criticisms and offer a response to them and thus emphasize the importance of TBLT for achieving true competence in an L2.

One of the problems of the criticisms that have been levelled at TBLT is that they assume that there is a single method called task-based language teaching and ignores the fact that TBLT is not a well-defined *method* but rather a general *approach* to teaching languages (Richards & Rogers, 2001). I will start therefore by pointing out some of the key differences in proposals that have emanated from both teacher educators and SLA researchers.

2 Differences in approach to TBLT

A basic distinction can be made between task-based and task-supported language teaching. The former requires a syllabus where the content is specified entirely in

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terms of the tasks to be performed (i.e. the tasks serve as the basis for an entire language curriculum). The latter is based on a linguistic syllabus. That is, tasks serve as a means of providing opportunities to practice pre-determined linguistic items. Such tasks will, by necessity, be of the focused kind (see below). However, rather than serving as stand-alone activities, they fit into the production phase of a traditional present-practice-produce (PPP) methodology, serving as an add-on to an otherwise synthetic syllabus. Task-supported teaching certainly has its advocates (Müller-Hartman & Schocker von Ditfurth, 2011). It should be noted, however, that this distinction is not a watertight one. This is because some proponents of task-based teaching advocate the pre-teaching of language in the pre-task phase of a lesson, which results in a type of task-supported language teaching, especially if the linguistic items to be taught are drawn from an *a priori* grammatical syllabus.

I distinguish different versions of TBLT in terms of seven key characteristics, which will be summarized in Table 1.

2.1 Natural language use

All four versions see tasks as creating contexts for the natural use of language (i.e. where language is treated as a tool rather than as an object for study and where, therefore, meaning rather than linguistic form is primary). This is arguably the one unifying characteristic of all the versions. In this way, TBLT caters to incidental rather than intentional language learning.

2.2 Type of task

Tasks can be classified in a number of ways but two are of particular importance and clearly distinguish different approaches. First, following Nunan (1989), tasks can be "real-world" or "pedagogic" (1989: 40). Real-world tasks aim at both situational and interactional authenticity in that they mirror the actual tasks that learners may have to perform in real life (e.g., ordering a meal in a restaurant). Pedagogic-tasks aim only at interactional authenticity (i.e., they do not correspond to real life events but still generate natural language use). Spot-the-difference is a classic example of a pedagogic task. Long (2015) and Willis (1996) both emphasize real-world production tasks. Long (2015) sees conducting needs-analysis as an essential preliminary step for developing a task-based syllabus. In contrast, all of Skehan's tasks (Skehan 2011) have been pedagogic in nature. The second distinction concerns whether the task is designed to elicit production from the learners or only requires them to process input. Skehan clearly favors production tasks. However, Ellis (2001) argued that input-based tasks have an important role to play in TBLT.

2.3 Linguistic focus

Tasks can be unfocused or focused. An unfocused task has not been designed with any particular linguistic focus in mind although, as Skehan (1998) points out, it is likely that any task will invite the use of a limited cluster of linguistic features. A focused task has been designed to create a context for a pre-determined linguistic feature – for example, a specific grammatical structure or a set of vocabulary items. Focused tasks are required for task-supported language teaching but can also figure in TBLT, the difference being that in the former learners perform the task knowing what the focus is whereas in the latter they do not and thus are more likely to engage with the target feature in natural language use. Both Ellis (2003) and Long (2015) see a role for both unfocused and focused tasks. In contrast, Skehan (2011) and Willis (1996) appear to prefer only unfocused tasks.

2.4 Linguistic support

Linguistic support refers to the teaching of *useful* language for performing the task in the pre-task phase of a lesson. This can involve both grammar and vocabulary but, by and large, advocates of TBLT prefer linguistic support to be directed at useful vocabulary for performing a task whereas proponents of task-supported teaching focus on grammar. Neither Long (2015) nor Skehan (2011) view linguistic support as a desirable feature of TBLT. In contrast, Willis (1996) considers it desirable, while Ellis (2003) sees it as being optional.

2.5 Focus on form

Focus on form is defined as the pedagogic strategy for attracting attention to form while learners are primarily focused on meaning as they perform the task. SLA researchers such as Ellis (2003), Long (2015) and Skehan (2011) see focus on form as an essential element in TBLT. In contrast, a common pedagogic position, reflected in Willis (1996), is that no attempt should be made to focus learners' attention on form during the performance of the main task on the grounds that this will detract from "fluency". One of the main ways of achieving a focus on form is through corrective feedback.

2.6 Learner-centeredness

TBLT is generally seen as a learner-centred way of teaching language as it emphasizes the performance of tasks in pair- or group-work. A brief look at both the pedagogic and research literature reveals how central small group-work is to TBLT. This is reflected in the general positions of Willis (1996), Long (2015) and Skehan (2011), all of whom view tasks as instruments for generating talk between learners. Ellis (2003), however, has taken a different stance, arguing that tasks can also be implemented in teacher-class interaction. Indeed, in the case of input-based tasks they need to be. He considers a teacher-class participatory structure as the ideal way for introducing TBLT in contexts where both teachers and students are not familiar with it.

2.7 Rejection of traditional approaches

By *traditional approach* I refer to both grammar-translation and to presentation-practice-production (PPP). There is always a tendency when a "new" approach

Table 1: Differences in four versions of TBLT.

Characteristic	Willis (1996)	Long (1985; 1991; 2015)	Skehan (1998; 2011)	Ellis (2003)
Natural language use	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Type of task	Real-world production tasks	Real-world production tasks	Pedagogic production tasks	Both pedagogic and real-world input-based and production tasks.
Linguistic focus	Primarily unfocused tasks	Both unfocused and focused tasks	Only unfocused tasks	Both focused and unfocused tasks
Linguistic support	Yes	No	No	Possibly
Focus on form	In the pre-task and post-task phases but not in the main task phase	In the main-task phase	Mainly in the pre-task phase	In all phases of a lesson
Learner-centeredness	Yes	Yes	Yes	Not necessarily
Rejection of traditional approaches	Yes	Yes	Yes	No

appears on the horizon to present it as an alternative to older, established approaches. This has certainly been the case with TBLT, with Long (2015), Skehan (2011) and Willis (1996) all offering arguments for abandoning traditional approaches. Ellis (2003) has taken a different stance, recognizing that older approaches may be well adjusted to the contexts in which they are used and also demonstrably effective in promoting learning. His position is to propose a modular curriculum consisting of both a synthetic component (as in traditional approaches) and an analytic component (as in TBLT). Ellis (2002) outlined how such a modular approach might be designed for students of different proficiency levels.

3 Misconceptions about TBLT

I will now turn to consider some common misconceptions about TBLT (see also Ellis 2009a, 2012). As will become clear, many of these misconceptions originate in the mistaken belief that there is a single, uniform approach called TBLT.

3.1 'Task' is an ill-defined construct

Widdowson (2003) argued that "the criteria that are proposed as defining features of tasks are … so loosely formulated … that they do not distinguish tasks from other more traditional classroom activities" (2003: 126). He seizes on the definition provided by Skehan (1998), according to which:

- meaning is primary;
- there is a goal that needs to be worked towards;
- the activity is outcome-evaluated; and
- there is a real-world relationship.

He argued, with some justification, that Skehan's use of the term *meaning* is indeterminate, as it does not distinguish semantic and pragmatic meaning. He claimed that it is not clear what Skehan means by "goal" and that the nature of the "real-world relationship" is not specified. He dismissed the third criterion on the grounds that that a successful outcome to a task may not result in any learning if only minimal language use is involved. Finally he questioned whether the kinds of tasks that Skehan mentioned (e.g. completing a family tree) have any relationship to the real-world.

The problems Widdowson pinpoints lie in part in the nature of Skehan's definition. Elsewhere (Ellis 2009a), I have argued that my own definition does provide a basis for distinguishing a *task* from an *exercise*. I identify four key characteristics of a task:

1. The primary focus is on message.
2. There is some kind of gap.
3. Learners need to use their own linguistic and non-linguistic resources.
4. There is an outcome other than the display of language.

In many respects, the key criterion is the third characteristic. An exercise involves text-manipulation of some kind (e.g. filling in gaps in sentences; performing a scripted dialogue; substituting words in a model sentence/dialogue). In contrast, a task involves text-creation (i.e. learners have to use whatever means they have to process input or to create their own utterances in order to achieve the outcome of the task). Text-creation involves decoding or encoding messages that have both semantic and pragmatic meaning. It is motivated by the need to close the *gap* by supplying relevant information or by expressing an opinion about some issue. The goal of a task is to achieve a communicative outcome; the goal of an exercise is to display correct use of the target feature. The "real-world relationship" that Skehan refers to does not mean that a task must have situational authenticity, as Widdowson seems to assume, but that it should result in the kind of language behavior found in the real-world (i.e. it must have interactional authenticity). The linguistic resources that learners draw on to achieve the outcome of a task may or may not be minimal, depending on the nature of the task and the learners' level of proficiency.

Seedhouse (2005) critiques *task* as a construct on different grounds. He argues that it is impossible to predict the activity that results from the performance of a task and therefore tasks cannot serve as units for planning a language course. In part, he is right. Sociocultural theorists have made a similar point and shown that the same task performed by different people–or even by the same person at different times – can result in very different kinds of activities (Coughlan & Duff 1994). However, Seedhouse overstates his case. Tasks can be designed and implemented in ways that make the nature of the activity predictable, at least to a degree, as Skehan's own research has shown (Skehan 2001). One might ask, however, whether it matters if the language use emanating from a task is not entirely predictable. It only matters if the intention is to use tasks to teach a structural syllabus – as in task-supported language teaching. If the aim is to create contexts for natural language and incidental acquisition, then, arguably, prediction is not necessary.

3.2 Indexical and minimal use of the L2

Seedhouse (1999) was also critical of TBLT on the grounds that the performance of tasks results in indexicalized and pidginized language because learners are over reliant on context and thus do not need to stretch their linguistic resources. Widdowson (2003) made a similar point, claiming that learners may be successful in achieving the communicative outcome of a task without any need to attend to their actual use of the L2. Seedhouse (1999) provided the following example of the kind of impoverished interactions that he claimed result from the performance of tasks. In this example, the students were required to complete and label a geometric figure:

L1: What?
L2: Stop.
L3: Dot?
L4: Dot?
L5: Point?
L6: Dot?
LL: Point, point, yeh.
L1: Point?
L5: Small point.
L3: Dot
(From Lynch, 1989: 124; cited in Seedhouse, 1999).

Clearly a task can result in language consisting of single words and formulaic chunks, especially if learners are beginners as they were in Seedhouse's example. However, there is also plenty of evidence to show that tasks can give rise to much more complex and accurate use of the L2. Much depends on the nature of the task and the way it is implemented. Opinion-gap tasks can elicit more complex language use than information-gap tasks (Rulon & McCreary 1986). Giving learners opportunities to plan before they perform the task also has a notable effect on the complexity – and in some cases accuracy – of the language used (Ellis 2009b). Thus, the claim that tasks will inevitably result in impoverished learner output is unjustified. Much of the research on tasks has been directed at identifying the design features and implementation options that will attract learners' attention to form.

3.3 Task-based language teaching is not suited to beginner-level learners

This critique derives from the assumption that TBLT involves only the use of speaking (or writing) tasks and that learners cannot be expected to speak in an L2 until they have acquired some resources in the language. Thus, it is claimed (e.g. Littlewood 2007) that learners need to be taught some language before they can take part in a task.

This critique has some legitimacy but only if TBLT is equated with the use of production tasks. In Table 1 we saw that, in fact, many of the versions of TBLT do assume that *task* means a *production task*. However, as Table 1 also shows, Ellis (2003) argued that this is not a necessary feature of TBLT and that input-based tasks also have a place. Shintani (2012, 2013) showed that input-based tasks can be used very effectively with beginner level learners. She experimented in using TBLT with 6–7 year old Japanese children who were complete beginners. The tasks she developed required the learners to listen to commands and display their understanding by selecting cards that matched her instructions. What was interesting about her study was that although there was no requirement that learners speak in English, over time the children did begin to do so in order to negotiate their understanding of the teacher's commands. Her study provides clear evidence that TBLT is possible even with beginner learners.

The use of input-based tasks provides a way of introducing learners to the L2 in much the same way as they learned their L1. In L1 acquisition, children do not begin the process of acquiring their L1 by speaking it. They spend a considerable amount of time listening to input and matching what they hear to objects and actions around them. TBLT provides an opportunity for beginner learners to learn in the same, natural way. Asking beginner learners to try to speak from the start is unnatural and can be anxiety provoking – even if their production is carefully scaffolded as in presentation-practice-production (PPP). It should be noted, however, that input-tasks do not prohibit learners from speaking so those beginner learners who are natural risk-takers and are keen to speak as well as listen are free to do so.

3.4 There is no grammar in task-based language teaching

Sheen (2003) claimed that in task-based language teaching there is "no grammar syllabus" and went on argue that proponents of TBLT "generally offer little more than a brief list of suggestions regarding the selection and presentation of new language" (Sheen: 226). He was also critical of the fact that in TBLT any treatment of grammar only takes the form of quick corrective feedback allowing for minimal interruption of the task activity. In a similar vein, Swan (2005) insisted that TBLT outlaws the grammar syllabus.

In fact, in one way or another there is plenty of grammar in TBLT. First, even though there is no grammatical syllabus, there is the possibility of designing focused tasks to address specific grammatical problems that learners demonstrate they have. Of the different versions of TBLT summarized in Table 1, only Skehan (2011) claims that tasks should be of the unfocused kind. A focused task aims to create a context in which the use of a specific grammatical structure is “natural”, “useful” or “necessary” in order to achieve the outcome of the task (Loschky & Bley-Vroman 1993, page number).

Attention to grammar can be achieved in all the phases of task-based lesson. Guided pre-task planning allows learners the opportunity to consider what grammar they will need before they start to perform the task. In the main-task phase, focus-on-form (Long 1991) can be achieved in various ways. There is now a wealth of research (see Ellis & Shintani 2014) to show that the corrective feedback learners receive while they are performing a task not only helps to draw their attention to specific grammatical forms but also facilitates acquisition. Swain and her co-researchers (e.g., Swain & Lapkin 1995) have shown that when learners perform a focused task in pairs or small groups “language related-episodes” occur frequently and that these are often successfully resolved and contribute to learning. Finally, in the post-task phase, there is an opportunity to focus explicitly on a grammatical form and provide practice in using it correctly.

Perhaps this misunderstanding – that there is no grammar in TBLT – originates in Willis’ (1996) version of TBLT. Willis did reject focusing on form during the main task phase, arguing that to do so would interfere with fluency. However, all the other versions of TBLT see attention to grammatical accuracy as a desirable and even a necessary feature of task performance. TBLT is not just directed at developing communicative skills; it is also a means for developing linguistic (including grammatical) competence.

In short, there is plenty of *grammar* in TBLT. What is missing, however, is the explicit teaching of grammar. TBLT is predicated on the theoretical claim that grammar is best learned in flight while learners are struggling to communicate, as in this way learners discover the grammatical forms that they need for the specific meanings that they are attempting to understand or express.

3.5 TBLT is an entirely learner-centred approach

Given that learner-centeredness is generally viewed as desirable in language pedagogy, it seems somewhat strange to find that some critics of TBLT object to its learner-centeredness. However, to an extent, I am sympathetic to this critique. Swan (2005) complained that “the thrust of TBLT is to cast the teacher in the role of manager and facilitator of communicative activity rather than an important source of new language” (Swan: 391). Swan bases this claim on the fact that TBLT is implemented through small group work, rather than teacher-centred instruction. Carless (2004) also questioned the value of the group work he witnessed in the implementation of TBLT in Hong Kong, but for a different reason. He noted that in the primary school classes he observed, the learners frequently performed tasks in their L1 rather than in English (the L2).

There are some obvious advantages of group-work as Long and Porter (1985) pointed out:

– Group work increases language production opportunities.
– Group work improved the quality of student talk.
– Group work helps individualize instruction.
– Group work promotes a positive affective climate.
– Group work motivates learners.

Group work is also strongly recommended in teacher guides (e.g., Hedge 2000; Ur 1996).

However, the claim that TBLT requires the performance of tasks in groups is mistaken. It has probably arisen from the fact that much of the research has investigated speaking tasks, which learners perform in pairs or in groups. In fact, group work is not an essential characteristic of TBLT. Prabhu (1987), for example, argued that effective task-based teaching needs to expose learners to good models of the L2 and argued that this requires that the teacher take charge of the task in a whole-class context. Input-based tasks such as those used in Shintani's (2013) study actually require a teacher-class participatory structure; the teacher provides the input in these tasks and the learners respond non-verbally to demonstrate that they have understood. Even speaking tasks can be carried out with the teacher interacting with the whole class. In an information-gap task, for example, the information can be split between the teacher and all the students. Nor is the teacher just a "manager and facilitator of communicative activity". The teacher serves as a major source of input in TBLT. Shintani used the metaphor of "navigator" to describe how the teacher skilfully assisted the students to understand the commands in her listen-and-do tasks (page number). Other studies (e.g., Lyster 2004) have shown that the teacher has a major role to play in providing corrective feedback while students are performing a task. At times, as in Samuda's (2001) account of the "things-in-pocket" task, the teacher may need to step outside the task to provide some brief explicit instruction in order to guide learners to make the link between a grammatical form and its meaning. In fact, in TBLT, the teacher needs to perform multiple roles.

TBLT does cater to learner-centeredness – group work is clearly desirable – but it also requires that the teacher is active in ensuring that a task is performed in ways that will foster learning and, at times, this will require teacher behavior that is more closely associated with teacher-centred teaching.

3.6 Tasks must be performed entirely in the L2

A further common misunderstanding is that TBLT requires both the teacher and students to perform tasks only in the L2 and that it outlaws the use of the L1. This has been seen as problematic. Carless (2004) reported that elementary level students in Hong Kong experienced difficulty in speaking in English (the L2) when they performed tasks and for this reason argued that TBLT was not suited to learners with limited L2 proficiency.

In fact, though TBLT does not prohibit use of the L1, sociocultural theorists have argued that the L1 can serve as a mediating tool for performing tasks in the L2. Anton and DiCamilla (1998) reported that the university students they investigated made effective use of their L1 (English) to solve linguistic problems that arose during group work when completing a writing task in the L2 (Spanish). From this perspective, use of the L1 can serve to scaffold production in the L2. Thus, while TBLT aims to provide contexts for the meaningful use of the L2, recognition is given to the desirability of students sometimes drawing on their L1. In this respect, good practice in TBLT reflects current views about the value of the L1 for performing functions such as task management, task clarification, discussing vocabulary and meaning and even presenting grammar points (Cook 2001). It acknowledges the naturalness of code-switching when there is a shared L1 (Macaro 2001).

Teachers, however, do expect that learners will use the L2 in TBLT as much as possible. In some contexts, this expectancy is also found in students. Shintani (2011) found that when her beginner level learners performed a task for the first time, they naturally drew on their L1 but over time as the task was repeated and the children grew familiar with both the procedures and the language (English) needed to perform the task, they began to increasingly use English. Shintani's study suggests two important principles that can inform the use of the L2 in TBLT. First, teachers should start with input-based tasks that make minimal demands on learners' need to speak in the L2. This ensures that while the input is mainly in the L2, learner output can initially be in the L1. Second, repeating a task will develop both the confidence and language that learners need to perform in the L2.

There are also ways in which learners can be helped to use the L2 in task-based group work. One way is to allow opportunity for pre-task planning. If learners have the opportunity to plan before they speak they are more likely to try to use the L2 when they start the task. In pre-task planning learners may draw on their L1 to help them both conceptualize what they want to say and to formulate how they will say it in the L2. It will help to give them confidence to speak in the L2. There is now a wealth of research that shows that pre-task planning enhances the fluency and complexity (and sometimes also the accuracy) of learner production in the L2 (Ellis 2009b).

3.7 TBLT is not suited to "acquisition-poor" environments

Swan (2005) claimed that TBLT is not suited to "acquisition-poor" environments, by which he meant foreign-language contexts, where learners are dependent on the classroom for learning a language. He argued that in such contexts, learners need a more structured approach to ensure that they have the grammatical resources needed for communicating. However, while grammar is certainly helpful for communicating, it is not essential. Research on early L2 acquisition both outside the classroom (e.g. Klein & Perdue 1997) and inside (e.g. Ellis 1984) has shown that learners manage to communicate with no or very minimal grammar. They draw on a limited range of formulaic expressions and vocabulary in conjunction with context to say what they want to say. Grammar, in fact, comes later, driven by the need to express more complex ideas that require more complex language. This well-attested feature of L2 acquisition led me to propose a modular curriculum based on tasks in the initial stage with the kind of structured approach that Swan favours, which is delayed until students have developed a basic ability to communicate (Ellis 2003). In other words, as shown in Table 1, I do not see TBLT as replacing more traditional forms of language teaching but being used alongside them in a complete curriculum.

Nevertheless, Swan's critique is reflected in the argument I often hear from teachers in countries such as China, Korea and Japan – namely, that there is not sufficient teaching time to ensure that learners learn all the grammatical structures in the syllabus if they adopt a task-based approach and that, for this reason, it is necessary to rely on explicit grammar teaching. It might be possible to wed a task-based approach to a structural syllabus by means of focused tasks. This was the approach that Takashima (2000) adopted in Japan. However, I remain doubtful of such a solution. It leads to a task-supported rather than a task-based approach with the risk that the focus remains primarily on form rather than on message-making when such tasks are performed. Also, as Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993) pointed out, it is very difficult to design focused tasks that make the use of a pre-determined grammatical feature "essential" rather than just "natural" or "useful". The fundamental problem remains, namely the assumption that teaching needs to be based on a grammatical syllabus. In effect, this is likely to lead to prioritizing explicit knowledge and accuracy over implicit knowledge and fluency. The solution lies in acknowledging that if the aim is to develop the interactional competence and confidence required for using an L2 in communication, this cannot be achieved through a complete reliance on a grammatical syllabus. Countless students in East Asian countries who have experienced such an approach have failed to achieve any ability to communicate in an L2 even after six years of instruction. Ultimately, the issue is what the goal of the language program should be and how this goal can be best achieved.

3.8 TBLT is promoted on the basis of theory only

Swan (2005) coined the phrase "legislation by hypothesis" to refer to what he saw as an attempt by SLA researchers to foist TBLT on the language teaching profession. By this, he meant that researchers have staked out the case for TBLT on the basis of untested theoretical premises and, in fact, there is no evidence to suggest that TBLT is more effective than more traditional approaches such as PPP. Sheen (1994, 2003) presented similar arguments. He emphasized the need for comparative method studies that investigated the relative effectiveness of TBLT and more established methods.

In fact, Swan and Sheen are incorrect in claiming that there is no empirical evidence to support the theoretical underpinnings of TBLT. One of the key hypotheses that Swan objects to is the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt 2001). This claims that for learning to take place learners need to pay conscious attention to exemplars of linguistic features as these occur in the input they are exposed to. It is this hypothesis that underlies the importance that TBLT attaches to "focus on form" as a means of attracting learners' attention to features in the input. There is now ample research to show that *noticing* does go on both when learners perform tasks in small groups and, perhaps even more so, when they perform them with the teacher.

Swan and Sheen have a point, though; advocates of TBLT do need to provide evidence that TBLT is more effective than traditional methods (e.g., PPP) and so it is clearly important to conduct studies that compare the effects of these different approaches on L2 learning. There have in fact been relatively few such studies, in part, because of the problems associated with comparative method studies (see Ellis 2012). Sheen (2005) attempted such a study. He compared the effects of FonF (i.e. instruction involving corrective feedback while students perform tasks) and FonFs (i.e. instruction based on a structural syllabus and involving PPP) on the acquisition of question forms and adverb placement by grade six elementary French students. The results he reported were clearly in favour of the FonFs. However, the design of the study clearly favoured the FonFs group as there was no attempt to ensure that the target features were systematically attended to in the FonF group. In other words, the task-based instruction was not implemented in accordance with the need to ensure a focus on form when it was implemented – a key feature of TBLT.

Two studies that focused on vocabulary reported results in favour of TBLT. In de la Fuente (2006), the TBLT students (elementary learners of L2 Spanish) completed a restaurant task in pairs where they needed to negotiate the meaning of the target words to complete the task (i.e. ordering food). The PPP learners received 50 minutes of instruction consisting of explanation of the new words (presentation), controlled oral and written production exercises (practice) and a role-play performed in pairs (free production). No difference in vocabulary learning was evident in an immediate post-test, but in a delayed test completed one week after the instruction, the learners in the TBLT group outperformed those in the PPP group. In other words, TBLT resulted in more durable learning. Shintani (2011) compared TBLT involving input-based tasks and PPP. She found no difference between the two groups in the case of a set of target nouns, but a clear superiority was observed for the TBLT group for adjectives. Both of these studies also investigated the process features of the two types of instruction, demonstrating clear differences. In the TBLT classes there was evidence of a focus on the target items when comprehension failed and the learners negotiated for meaning. This occurred only rarely in the PPP classes.

Shintani (2013) also looked at the effects of the same two types of instruction on the incidental acquisition of plural –s. This feature was not directly taught to either the PPP or TBLT groups but opportunities for their incidental acquisition occurred through exposure to it in the classroom interactions. The main findings were that incidental acquisition of plural –s occurred in the TBLT class but not in the PPP class. Shintani argued that this was because only task-based instruction created a functional need to attend to the structures.

There is still too little evidence to satisfy the doubts of Sheen (1994) and Swan (2005) but the research to date suggests that TBLT, when properly implemented, holds advantages for both adult and child learners and that these are evident for both vocabulary and grammar.

4 Conclusion

In addressing these misconceptions about TBLT, I do not wish to suggest that there are no real problems in implementing TBLT in instructional contexts in Asia and elsewhere. These problems can be grouped according to whether they concern the teacher, the students, or structural issues within the education system. It is important to note, however, that many of these problems will be found no matter what approach to teaching is adopted.

4.1 Problems involving teachers

(1) The teachers limited proficiency in the L2 and, in particular, their lack of confidence in speaking in the L2.
(2) TBLT requires teachers to abandon their traditional roles as "knower" and "transmitter of knowledge" and to take on the roles of "participant" and "co-learner". This has led some commentators (e.g. Samimy & Kobayashi, 2004) to claim that TBLT imposes western educational values on systems that are not culturally suited to them.
(3) Teachers are often not clear of what constitutes a *task* and are unable to make a clear distinction between a task and an *exercise*.
(4) Teachers experience problems in managing task-based lessons in large classes, especially when the students work in small groups (Carless 2004).

4.2 Problems originating in students

Many of the problems involving students are perceived rather than real. For example, a common perception among teachers is that TBLT is not possible with students who possess limited communicative abilities. As I have already pointed out, this can be addressed through the use of input-based tasks, which provide a foundation for speaking, later. A more real problem is how students orientate to learning an L2 in the classroom. If they are accustomed to treating language as an object rather than as a tool, they may fail to see the point of performing tasks that cater to incidental rather than intentional language learning.

4.3 Structural problems

The greatest impediment to the introduction of TBLT is a number of structural problems in educational systems that teachers are largely powerless to change. Two problems in particular make TBLT problematic for teachers:
(1) Teachers may be required to teach a syllabus that specifies what is to be learned in terms of lists of words and grammatical structures. As a result, they prefer to base their teaching directly on the items listed in the syllabus rather than on tasks that only have an indirect relationship to the linguistic content of the syllabus.
(2) Many Asian countries that have mandated the use of TBLT continue to assess learning by means of indirect, system-referenced tests (Baker 1989) that measure learners' linguistic accuracy in ways that encourage the use of

explicit rather than implicit L2 knowledge. As a result, teachers feel the need to focus on accuracy and encourage students to develop an explicit understanding of grammatical rules. This leads to resistance to using tasks.

These are all problems that will need to be addressed if TBLT is to be used effectively (see Ellis 2009a, for some suggestions) and achieve its goal of helping learners develop the competence needed to make effective use of the L2 in real-world communicative situations. One solution might be to adapt TBLT to the local context through task-supported teaching. Littlewood (2007), for example, proposed that learners should be inducted into performing tasks by means of activities that lead them from traditional form-focused exercises through activities of an increasingly communicative nature. But this is likely to result in a return to traditional methodology of the presentation-practice-production (PPP) kind and result in explicit rather than implicit L2 knowledge. A better solution is to set about addressing the problems that teachers and learners face in implementing TBLT and to work at convincing educational authorities to make the structural changes needed. For both motivational and proficiency reasons, a curriculum that prioritizes TBLT remains the best hope if the educational goal is that of achieving real communicative ability in learners.

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3 Developing self-regulated learning in the language classroom

1 Introduction

This chapter addresses the volume's theme of key competencies by explaining how the construct of self-regulation can be activated in the second or foreign language classroom to help language learners become self-motivated and independent in their language development.

Using the psychological prism of self-regulation, in which individuals establish their own learning goals, make a plan for achieving their goals, decide how to monitor their progress and finally evaluate how well they have achieved their goals, the chapter identifies a program model and instructional guidelines that can be used by language teachers to foster their students' self-regulation strategies.

The chapter begins with a definition of self-regulation in language learning, followed by an explanation of how programs focusing on content through language, rather than language alone, are more likely to facilitate the development of self-regulation. Next, the chapter describes an instructional design for planning actual lessons in the content and language classroom that can accommodate objectives for content, language and self-regulation strategies.

The chapter concludes with suggestions for research directions to explore how theory, curriculum design and instruction can achieve the goal of developing thoughtful, goal-oriented and motivated language learners.

2 Self-regulation in language learning

The concept of self-regulation for academic learning originated in the field of educational psychology (see Schunk & Zimmerman 1998; Zimmerman 1998; Zimmerman & Schunk 2001) to describe learners who learn for their own purposes in spite of often adverse circumstances. Zimmerman (1998), for example, cites young Asian immigrants in the United States who, despite experiencing daunting economic, cultural and linguistic challenges, have succeeded academically. Second language

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acquisition theorists have discussed self-regulation as a broader construct than language learning strategies (Cohen & Macaro 2007; Dörnyei 2005; Oxford 2011, 2016; Oxford & Schramm 2007). Generally, self-regulation is described as learners' efforts to direct their own learning by setting goals, planning how to achieve them, monitoring the learning task, using learning strategies to solve problems and evaluating their own performance. Thus, self-regulation involves a number of processes and understandings, including autonomy (Benson 2011; Cotterall 2008), learning strategies (Chamot 2013; Cohen 2011; Griffiths 2013; Oxford 2011), metacognition (Anderson 2008; Chamot 2009; Vandergrift & Goh 2012), motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011) and self-management (Rubin 2001, 2005).

Thus, self-regulation can be considered a key competence for language learners at all levels. The question then is, how can language teachers foster the development of self-regulation strategies in their students?

3 Content through language/language through content

One way to encourage self-regulation in language learners is to provide a curriculum or syllabus conducive to the practice of self-regulation strategies. Such a curriculum should be intellectually challenging, intrinsically interesting to students and perceived as relevant to their own lives. Such a curriculum should go beyond teaching students how to listen/talk/read/write in the L2 about what they already know in the L1 by also teaching them how to learn new information, express their opinions and think critically in the new language. Two similar innovative program models fit this description: Content-based Instruction (CBI) and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL).

Content-based Instruction (CBI) is an increasingly widespread model in the United States that advocates introducing English learners to content subjects by teaching the academic language, discourse and content information of disciplines such as history, literature, mathematics, and science (Chamot 2009; Kaufman & Crandall 2005). Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has many similarities to CBI in that a second language is taught through content subjects. The main differences between the two models are the instructional goals and the learners. In CBI, the goal is to prepare English learners for successful participation in the English-medium curriculum as the learners are from immigrant families speaking a variety of first languages.

In CLIL, on the other hand, the goal is to prepare students for a globalized world by developing their skill in using the target language in an academic setting

(Bentley 2010; Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010; Dalton-Puffer 2011); the learners are speakers of the same first language and share the same cultural values. Thus, although CBI and CLIL share many objectives, the students served have differing needs. Immigrant students in the United States need to become proficient in the academic language required for success in school and beyond. In countries where English is taught as a foreign language or as a lingua franca, CLIL provides students with learning experiences that help them use English in a globalized international context. CBI aims to help students be successful in an English-speaking environment and CLIL aims to equip students with the linguistic skills needed to participate in the global economy (Bentley 2010; Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010).

Thus, both CBI and CLIL provide language learners with authentic and convincing reasons to learn the new language, which can increase students' motivation to apply thoughtful self-regulation strategies to their content and language learning. But how can teachers develop actual lessons that advance these goals?

4 Understanding by Design

One way language teachers can construct lessons that provide specific goals for learning content information, developing language skills and practicing self-regulation strategies, is by adopting instructional guidelines that focus on all three objectives, including the assessment of each objective.

Understanding by Design (UbD) is an instructional model that aims to improve teaching by focusing on more important concepts rather than collections of facts, planning assessment prior to learning tasks, or developing students' ability to engage in higher level thinking (Wiggins & McTighe 2005). UbD has been widely adopted in U.S. primary and secondary schools as an effective route to meeting national and state standards for student achievement. More recently, second language educators have also begun to advocate using UbD to design instruction that incorporates the standards developed by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL 2006) and the more recent *World Readiness Standards for Learning Languages* (The National Standards Collaborative Board 2015), pointing out that the UbD framework is an effective vehicle for planning standards-based lessons and units in the foreign language classroom (Eddy 2012; NCLRC 2014; NFLC 2014).

Figure 1, adapted from Chamot (2009), McTighe & Wiggins (2013), Tomlinson & McTighe (2006) and Wiggins & McTighe (2005), provides a template for the three stages of instructional planning using the UbD model. In Stage 1, teachers establish the desired results of the lesson or unit, including Curriculum Standards (national and/or local learning standards), Big Ideas (major concepts), Essential Questions (questions that lead students towards the major concepts), and Objectives (what students will learn). The examples of Big Ideas and Essential Questions in Stage 1 for both content and language demonstrate that both must be addressed in CBI and CLIL programs, as both integrate content and language instruction.

Stage 1 – Desired Results

Established Goals (Content Standards and Language Standards)

Big Idea(s) for Content and Language	**Essential Question(s) for Content and Language**
Examples for Content: – *The myths and fables of different cultures help us understand people's values and beliefs.* – *Changes in climate have affected where people can live, the work they can do and the food they can eat.*	*Examples for Content:* – *Why are myths and fables important in different cultures?* – *How have changes in climate affected people's lives in the past?*
Examples for Language: – *Myths and fables use imaginative language to explain natural phenomena or teach a lesson.* – *Informational texts use facts and scientific observations to explain causes and effects of natural or man-made phenomena.*	*Examples for Language:* – *How is the language used to tell a myth or fable different from the language of other types of stories?* – *What are three characteristics of informational texts such as geography and history?*

What will students learn? (Objectives)

Content Knowledge and Use	**Language Awareness and Use**	**Self-regulation Strategies**
Example: Students will be able to describe the effects of climate change on humans in three different historical eras.	*Example: Students will be able to write a short essay describing of the effects of climate change on humans in three different historical eras using appropriate organization, vocabulary and style, language usage and mechanics.*	*Example: Students will be able to plan their short essay, monitor the writing process, solve language and content problems as needed and evaluate/edit their essay prior to submitting it.*

Figure 1: Instructional guidelines for integrating UbD, CBI/CLIL and self-regulation strategies (Part 1).

UbD emphasizes that Big Ideas must not be trivial facts, but rather designed to develop an Enduring Understanding of the concept (Wiggins & McTighe 2005). For example, a point of grammar can never be a Big Idea because grammar is a means to understanding an important concept, not an end in itself. Similarly, Essential Questions cannot be answered with a simple "yes", "no", or statement of a fact (McTighe & Wiggins 2013). An Essential Question should elicit more than one answer so that students develop their metacognition as they engage in higher level thinking (McTighe & Wiggins 2013). The UbD design is modified in Figure 1 by the addition of objectives for self-regulation strategies that can assist students in mastering both the content and language objectives.

In Stage 2 (Figure 2), the teacher plans how students will demonstrate what they have learned and provides the rubrics that will be used to evaluate student learning. Again, since assessment evidence should reflect what students have been taught, in CBI and CLIL contexts, this evidence should include both content and language assessment. Suggestions for assessment of the self-regulation strategies instructed are also provided in Figure 2.

Stage 2 – Assessment Evidence

How will students be assessed?

– **Performance Assessment(s)**	– **Other Evidence**
Examples: Demonstrations, Presentations, Oral Interviews, Projects, Role Playing, Essays, Reports, Questionnaires and Learning Logs	*Examples: Work Samples, Self-evaluation Checklists, Standardized Tests and Teacher Tests*

Rubrics/Criteria

– **For Content Assessment**	– **For Language Assessment**	– **For Self-regulation Strategies Assessment**
Based on Big Ideas, Essential Questions and Objectives for Content	*Based on Big Ideas, Essential Questions and Objectives for Language*	*Based on Objectives for Self-regulation Strategies*

Figure 2: Instructional guidelines for integrating UbD, CBI/CLIL and self-regulation strategies (Part 2).

Finally, in Stage 3 (Figure 3), the teacher develops the actual learning activities for the lesson or unit. Having thought through the goals, objectives and the assessments that will demonstrate the degree to which students have attained them, teachers can devise targeted learning activities that will help students actually reach the desired objectives. In Figure 3, these learning activities are described in the five learning phases of the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) (Chamot 2009; Chamot & O'Malley 1994).

Stage 3 – Learning Plan

Materials Needed
Examples: Realia, video clips, Internet sources, readings, performance examples, worksheets, etc.

Five Lesson Phases
- **Preparation (how students get ready to learn):** Teacher provides in advance an organizer of learning objectives, asks Essential Questions about the topic and elicits students' additional questions (what they want to learn about the topic). Students identify their prior knowledge/ experiences related to the content topic and related language, decide on own content and language learning goals (in addition to those required by curriculum or standards) and choose potential learning strategies. Students and teacher decide if any concepts, vocabulary/ language structures, and/or learning strategies need to be reviewed or pre-taught.
- **Presentation (how students access new information, language and self-regulation strategies):** Teacher provides a variety of information resources, both print and non-print, as well as choices of tasks and assessments that can help students understand and interpret the Big Idea(s), while taking care to relate the Big Idea to students' prior knowledge and interests. This can be set up in the form of learning stations. Teacher and/or students model self-regulation strategies as appropriate.
- **Practice (how students practice the new information, language and self-regulation strategies):** Students complete tasks and assessments they have chosen. Teacher organizes independent small groups and/or individuals, reminds students of Essential Question(s) and provides both individual and group assistance as needed. Teacher coaches students on self-regulation strategies and suggests ways to apply them to the task.
- **Self-evaluation (how students assess their own learning):** Students reflect on and assess their own learning of content, language and self-regulation strategies by: stating the Big Idea(s) in their own words, learning logs, small/large group discussion, *I can* … statements with documentation, performance measures, exit slips, etc. Students use self-evaluation to set their personal learning goals.
- **Expansion (how students apply the lesson to their own lives and personal backgrounds):** Student are challenged to connect the Big Idea(s) of this lesson to their own lives and identities through a choice of individual or collaborative projects. Parental involvement is recommended.

Figure 3: Instructional guidelines for integrating UbD, CBI/CLIL and self-regulation strategies (Part 3).

While the UbD template of instructional objectives, assessments and activities in a CBI/CLIL lesson may seem fairly straightforward (though the balance between content and language and assessment of each are not always self-evident), the instruction and assessment of self-regulation strategies may not be as clear. Effective learners have often developed self-regulation strategies on their own, while less-effective learners need more explicit instruction. The next section suggests ways in which language and content teachers can incorporate explicit instruction in an assessment of self-regulation strategies in their CBI/CLIL classroom.

5 Developing self-regulation in the CBI/CLIL classroom

As shown in the examples provided in Figures 1, 2 and 3, self-regulation strategies are added to each phase of UbD planning. This is because learning both content and language in the CBI/CLIL classroom is challenging. Understanding and remembering new content taught in a second language is difficult because students must process new conceptual knowledge simultaneously with the language needed to comprehend and express it. To successfully meet this challenge, students need tools that enable them to learn strategically and independently. Teachers can help language learners become self-regulated learners who can approach complex tasks with useful strategies to help them manage planning how to carry out the learning task, how to monitor the task while being engaged in it and how to evaluate their performance on the task with a view to improving it the next time (Chamot, 2009). How can the language teacher help learners acquire these tools?

5.1 Goal-setting and planning

The teacher helps students think about what they expect to be able to learn and be able to do in the target language within a short time period of one to two weeks. Establishing personal goals helps students focus on practical and specific actions that they can undertake in a specified time period to improve their language and content learning. Teachers can explore with students their plans for reaching the goal(s) they have set. It can be helpful for teachers and individual students to decide together on a written plan that can be used as a detailed action plan to reach the desired goal(s). Students can then use the written action plan to remind themselves of the steps and procedures to accomplish their goal(s) and to make any needed adjustments.

5.2 Monitoring

An effective technique for helping students become more aware of how a task is progressing while they are working on it is for the teacher to model the process by thinking aloud. For example, teachers can show a text on the screen and tell students to voice their thoughts about it as they read through it, pausing for questions and comments such as: “Is this making sense? What’s the main idea here?

I'm not sure what this word means – should I just read on, make a good guess, or look it up? Oh, I need to go back to the beginning of this paragraph to re-read so that I'm sure I understand. Hmm, this is difficult to understand – I think I should start taking notes."

Similarly, teachers can model the writing process by thinking aloud as they write on the board. They can hesitate, cross out a word or phrase, rewrite and use arrows to rearrange what they have written. Self-questions and comments might be: "Am I expressing my ideas clearly? Will my reader understand what I'm trying to say? Am I following my plan or outline? If not, do I need to make a new plan? How could I clarify my intended meaning? This is it! Exactly the right word/phrase!"

During the reading or writing process, it can be helpful for students to make notes of their monitoring process by writing or recording their reactions to a text to indicate their understanding of the main idea, questions they have and personal opinions. For listening and speaking tasks, monitoring usually consists of awareness of the effectiveness of the communication.

5.3 Problem-solving

The greatest benefit of helping students develop the ability to monitor their performance on a task in progress is that they can identify problems as they arise and take immediate steps to solve them. For example, once a student identifies a difficulty in comprehending a written text, he or she can try a number of self-regulation strategies to solve the problem. These might include strategies such as making logical inferences, summarizing the difficult text in his or her own words, or using resources such as a more knowledgeable peer or instructor, a dictionary, or the Internet. Descriptions of a variety of task-based language learning strategies are provided by various researchers in this area (see, for example, Chamot 2009; Cohen 2011; Griffiths 2013; Oxford 2011; Vandergrift & Goh 2012).

5.4 Evaluating

Most students believe that their teachers are solely responsible for evaluating students' work. This belief often hinders students from taking active responsibility for their own work. Naturally, teachers are responsible for assessing and evaluating student achievement, but when students learn to self-evaluate, they develop the ability to reflect on whether they have met the goals they established during the planning phase of the learning task and, if not, what corrective actions they might take. By evaluating their own work before submitting it to their teacher, students begin to learn some of the critical thinking skills needed for independent and self-regulated learning. Self-evaluation activities can include checklists that provide students with criteria for examining their work, summaries of texts read or listened to, developing and responding to self-questions and seeking feedback from a peer. When students practice evaluating their own language performance, they develop the ability to analyze the successful and less successful features of their communication, then formulate plans to improve the less successful features – in other words, to begin the next cycle of goal-setting and planning. Self-evaluation of their own work helps students learn how to become self-regulated learners (Chamot 2009).

5.5 Self-management

Finally, students need to understand how to manage their own individual learning approach. This can range from relatively straightforward activities such as time management ("I know I tend to procrastinate, so I need to make a personal schedule of internal deadlines") to an understanding of one's own learning time cycle ("I learn better in the early morning" or "My best learning time is in the late afternoon"). As language learners increase their accuracy in organizing their own language learning tasks and experiences, they acquire the tools needed for managing their own learning. In fact, self-management can be seen as more-or-less synonymous with the concept of self-regulation (see Rubin 2001, 2005).

Thus, becoming self-regulated learners is a process undertaken by students, often with a teacher's guidance, that culminates in the ability to learn autonomously. In language learning, students set goals by deciding on why they want to learn the language and what they plan to do with the language. They plan how to accomplish the language tasks that will develop their desired proficiency in the new language. As they work on these language tasks, they constantly monitor how they are progressing, making adjustments as they progress, identifying problems that arise and seeking strategies to solve them. After completing the learning task, they carefully evaluate it to see if they have attained their original goals and if they need to make corrections. During this whole process, learners use their knowledge about themselves and their own learning preferences to regulate their learning processes.

6 Conclusion and future directions

This chapter has identified self-regulated learning as a key competence for second and foreign language learners and has argued that a curriculum that includes content combined with language instruction provides students with multiple opportunities to use self-regulation strategies to complete intrinsically interesting content tasks through the medium of the new language. In addition, teachers may find that the Understanding by Design (UbD) instructional model is a useful framework for planning lessons that integrate content, language and self-regulation strategies instruction and assessment.

However, much additional research remains to be done in order to fully operationalize this new perspective in language education. Classroom-based research is needed to explore and identify the conditions and factors that sustain or hinder a teacher's success in helping students to learn both content and language more effectively through sustained and thoughtful use of self-regulation strategies.

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Naoko Taguchi

4 Pragmatic competence in foreign language education: Cultivating learner autonomy and strategic learning of pragmatics

1 Introduction

Pragmatics involves a complex interplay among linguistic forms, context of use and social actions. Crystal (1997) defines pragmatics as "the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication" (Crystal: 301). In order to be pragmatically competent, L2 learners must attend to multipart mappings of form, meaning, force and context. They need to know how to say what they want to say with the level of formality, politeness and directness required in a situation, or sometimes not to speak at all and communicate intention only non-verbally. Basic parameters of context, such as speakers' relationship, role, setting, topics, assumptions about what speakers already know or do not know and perceived impact of their language on the listener guide L2 learners' linguistic choice.

In this chapter, I discuss self-regulated learning strategies as potentially useful tools for overcoming the challenge of learning pragmatics. I argue that by directly teaching students how to pay attention to pragmatics and how to monitor, control and evaluate their own learning processes, teachers can prepare students to develop pragmatic awareness and knowledge on their own. My chapter has two parts. In the first part, I present findings from my previous study to illustrate a case of a successful L2 learner who showed strong pragmatic development by cultivating a range of self-learning strategies. In the second part, I present the taxonomy of pragmatics learning strategies to illustrate how strategy instruction can be usefully implemented for teaching pragmatics. Then I conclude this chapter with implications of the taxonomy and future directions.

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2 Strategic pragmatics learning: A case study

The difficult and slow-developing nature of pragmatic competence has been documented in several longitudinal studies that traced the same learner(s) over time to document their patterns of pragmatic development (for a review, see Taguchi 2010). As a case in point, Taguchi (2012) assessed 48 Japanese English as a second language (ESL) students in an English-medium university in their abilities to produce two speech acts – requests and opinions – over one academic year. Students completed a 12-item spoken discourse completion test (DCT) delivered via computer in which they read a situational scenario and produced the target speech acts. The DCT had two types of situations. One situation type depicted a formal situation where the speech act involved a high degree of imposition and was addressed to a person of a higher rank and power (e.g. expressing concerns to a teacher about his/her class), whereas the other illustrated an informal situation where the speech act involved a low degree of imposition and was produced for a person in an equal relationship (e.g. passing a frank opinion to a friend about clothes). See the sample item of a formal situation below:

> Situational scenario (formal):
> You're a student in Professor Young's French Culture class. You like the professor, but she talks about French history most of the time and doesn't address current events. You're more interested in French pop culture and music. One day after class she says, "What do you think about the class?" What do you say to Professor Young?

Four native speakers evaluated students' speech acts on a 5-point scale for overall appropriateness. The results showed that the production of informal, low-stake speech acts showed more appropriate responses, but the ability to perform formal speech acts were generally limited because students rarely used syntactic and lexical mitigations to soften the tone of speech.

However, individual-level data collected from a subset of eight participants revealed considerable variations among students. Mitsu (pseudonym) was one of the few students who showed strong progress with formal speech acts. Although he initially had a below-average score at the beginning of the study, he made a significant progress after a semester and surpassed the group mean by almost one point on a 5-point rating scale, while the average score increase of the entire group (48 participants) was only 0.3 points. He continued to improve afterwards and achieved a perfect score after the second semester.

Qualitative data from interviews and class observations revealed that Mitsu's attention to the sociocultural aspect of language, combined with his use of self-directed strategies for learning pragmatics, contributed to this development. In the interview, Mitsu mentioned that, whether in English or

Japanese, people vary their ways of speaking according to the context in order to encode different levels of politeness and directness. He gave a Japanese example of honorifics, which often signals age and rank differences between interlocutors. He said that, when asking for a favor from a close friend, people say *yatte kureru?* (do + donative auxiliary verb *kureru* in the informal form), but *yatte moraemasenka?* (do + donative auxiliary verb *moraeru* in the formal negative form) is more appropriate when speaking to someone older and of higher status. Mitsu acknowledged that such formal versus informal speech variations also exist in English. He said that *"can you" + verb* is the equivalent of Japanese *yatte kureru,* while *"could you/would you" + verb* is the equivalent of *yatte moaremasenka?* Mitsu was trying to understand dissimilar social meanings that different pragmalinguistic expressions convey. He was able to articulate these differences verbally and use the pragmatic knowledge to guide his linguistic choice in the given situation.

Mitsu's pragmatic awareness became evident in the interview data. The researcher conducted introspective interviews with individual participants by asking them to report their thought processes upon producing the target speech acts. Mitsu produced a formal and informal request and provided an account of his pragmalinguistic choices (Taguchi 2012: 212).

> Informal request (asking a friend for a pen):
> *Hey Ken, I forgot my pen. Can I use yours?*
>
> Formal request (asking a teacher for an extension of an assignment):
>
> *Excuse me, I have something to tell you. Actually, I have a cold and I did, I did my homework, but I'm afraid I need more, two extra days, so is it possible to put off my deadline?*
>
> Interview excerpt: The second one is to a professor, so I was careful not to use casual language. I tried to add more words so that it sounds softer. I explicitly said the reason, "I caught a cold". I probably won't give a long excuse like this if I were talking to a friend. I compared the expressions "I think" and "I'm afraid" to frame "I need two extra days". I decided to use "I'm afraid" because it conveys a regret and it's politer than "I think". I learned it after I entered the university through an English conversation book published from NHK (Japanese Broadcasting Corporation). I didn't know that "I'm afraid" had a meaning of regret before I saw it in the book. I used the expression "Is it possible?" because "Can I?" didn't sound right here. I thought that "Is it possible?" is more formal and polite, but now I feel that I could have used "Would it be possible?" to make it even politer.

This interview excerpt presents evidence of Mitsu's sociopragmatic awareness and conscious assessment of pragmalinguistic forms. Mitsu used different expressions of request when speaking to a friend than he did when speaking to a professor, reflecting his awareness of situational differences. He used a syntactic mitigation "I'm afraid" in the formal request, which he learned from his self-study material and he was able to articulate how it is different from another seemingly equivalent form, “I think”, on the level of politeness cost. He also re-evaluated the request-making form “Is it possible to?” that he used. He said that it could be further mitigated by using the modal “would” as in “Would it be possible to?” These multiple layers of knowledge and thoughtful analysis of target form-function-context mappings are an indication of Mitsu’s pragmatic awareness. He was able to identify and use appropriate lexical and syntactic devices that could alleviate the potential face-threat of a formal speech act.

Mitsu’s attention to pragmatics was triggered by an instance that occurred when he participated in the North-East Asian Students Conference. A group of Korean students had a debate with a group of Japanese students on a variety of international issues. During the event, he met a senior business major Japanese student, who had been to Korea several times. The senior student lamented that very few Japanese students can speak proper, appropriate English in professional business meetings. This incident triggered Mitsu to apprehend the concept of situationally appropriate language use. Since then, he became conscious about register variation in English and started to pay attention to the sociocultural meaning behind linguistic expressions. For example, one day he found the expression “I’m afraid” in a conversation book with a footnote indicating that the expression is more formal than “I think”. He made note of this information so that he could use it to mitigate disagreement in a class discussion. While watching a movie, he heard the expression “Is there any reason for that?” and memorized it as a useful expression to soften the tone of disagreement, which he used in the DCT task. In addition, whenever he looked up an unfamiliar word in the dictionary, he developed the habit of looking for usage notes. If the dictionary indicated that the word has a formal usage, he made note of it and then used it in a formal situation, such as when presenting in class.

As shown in these descriptions, Mitsu was clearly a strategic learner. He was consciously directing his attention to pragmatic functions of everyday language use and making mental notes as he encountered them. This self-directed learning habit helped him notice and mentally rehearse target pragmalinguistic forms and he was committed to actually testing them when opportunities arose. Mitsu’s case suggests that if learners have strategies for learning pragmatics, they can turn everyday materials into opportunities for pragmatics practice. They can look for pragmatic information behind the ordinary usage of the forms or analyze different forms for their underlying function and impact on the listener. These pieces of information that learners accumulate elsewhere over time produce a body of pragmatic knowledge, which becomes available for retrieval on occasion, as shown in Mitsu’s strong progress with speech acts.

In the next section, I present the taxonomy of pragmatic learning strategies. Although Mitsu was an exceptional student, effective provision of strategy training could develop any students' self-learning strategies, which essentially helps to improve their pragmatic knowledge. Building on Oxford's (2011) framework, I will illustrate how such strategy training can be usefully conducted.

3 Taxonomy of pragmatics learning strategies

The case history described above underscores the usefulness of autonomous learning for pragmatics and prompts us to consider strategy instruction as an alternative approach to pragmatics teaching. Strategy instruction offers solutions to two existing problems in pragmatics instruction. One problem is the paucity of pragmatics-focused input and opportunities for pragmatic practice in a classroom. A general consensus in the literature is that classroom learning is a poor environment for pragmatics learning. Previous studies, mainly textbook analyses, found that classroom discourse involves a restricted range of communicative situations and registers, as well as a limited amount of authentic information about pragmatics norms and variations (Bardovi-Harlig 2001; Diepenbroek & Derwing 2013; Nguyen 2011; Vellenga 2004).

Direct pragmatic instruction, however, has its own problem when the coverage of target pragmatic features is concerned. Taguchi (2015) conducted a review of instructional intervention studies in pragmatics published from the 1990s until 2014. A tendency that emerged in this analysis was the narrow scope of pragmatic features taught in these studies: out of 58 studies, only five of them taught more than one pragmatic target (e.g. a request and an apology). This tendency presents a question about the usefulness of pragmatic instruction. Instruction can be effective in generating pragmatic knowledge, but we do not know whether or not learning one pragmatic feature can facilitate the learning of another. A more efficient approach would be a method that can promote transfer of learned pragmatic knowledge from one domain to another.

Strategy instruction could be a solution to these problems of classroom pragmatics and instructional studies. Learning strategies are defined as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations" (Oxford 1990: 8). By developing learners' self-directed strategies for dealing with pragmatics, learners can gain autonomy and take initiative and responsibility for their own learning. Strategy training can enhance efficiency and productivity in learning because strategies can transfer to different settings and different learning targets. Cohen (1998: 70) observes the following:

> The strategy training movement is predicted on the assumption that if learners are conscious about and become responsible for the selection, use and evaluation of their learning strategies, they will become more successful language learners by … taking more responsibility for their own language learning and enhancing their use of the target language out of class. In other words, the ultimate goal of strategy training is to empower students by allowing them to take control of the language learning process.

Four decades after Rubin's (1975) seminal work on learning strategies of good language learners, research in language learning and language use strategies has multiplied in a number of directions, including taxonomies and models of learning strategies, assessment of strategies and strategy instruction (for a review, see Chamot 2001; Cohen 1998; Cohen & Macaro 2007; Manchon 2008; Oxford 2011; Oxford & Griffiths 2014). In the substantial amount of existing publications, however, we find very little literature on pragmatics. To my knowledge, Cohen (2005) is the only publication that presented a taxonomy of strategies dedicated to pragmatics learning. He provided a list of speech act learning strategies encompassing three categories: strategies for the initial learning of speech acts (e.g. gathering information about speech acts), strategies for using learned speech acts (e.g. using a memory aid to remember speech act expressions) and meta-pragmatic strategies (e.g. monitoring and evaluating their own speech act performance).

The following is an effort to succeed this pioneering work by presenting a model of strategic learning of pragmatics with concrete tactics and guidelines. Drawing on Oxford's (2011) strategic self-regulation model, I will illustrate how learning strategies can be implemented in the area of pragmatics to enhance learners' pragmatic awareness.

3.1 Strategic self-regulation

Oxford (2011) introduced the strategic self-regulation model (S^2R) as a model in which learners can actively and constructively use strategies to manage their own learning process. This model draws on the concept of self-regulation. Self-regulated learning means that a learner approaches a language-related task by selecting the tactics most suitable to the situation and using them effectively to cope with the task (Winne & Perry 2000). In this sense, learning involves two independent but intertwined dimensions: performing the task and overseeing the learning process. Self-regulated learning strategies involve conscious, deliberate and goal-oriented attempts to manage and control efforts to learn the target language (Afflerbach, Pearson, & Paris 2008).

The S^2R model presents strategies in three dimensions: cognitive, affective and sociocultural-interactive strategies. The cognitive dimension deals with the process of constructing, transforming and applying L2 knowledge, while the affective dimension deals with the mental aspect of learning, i.e. creating positive emotions, attitudes and motivation. The sociocultural-interactive dimension, in contrast, is dedicated to the areas of communication, sociocultural contexts and identity that facilitate learners' interactions with the community and the learning of the target culture. Each of these dimensions comprises of a set of metastrategies and specific strategies. Metastrategies help manage and control L2 learning

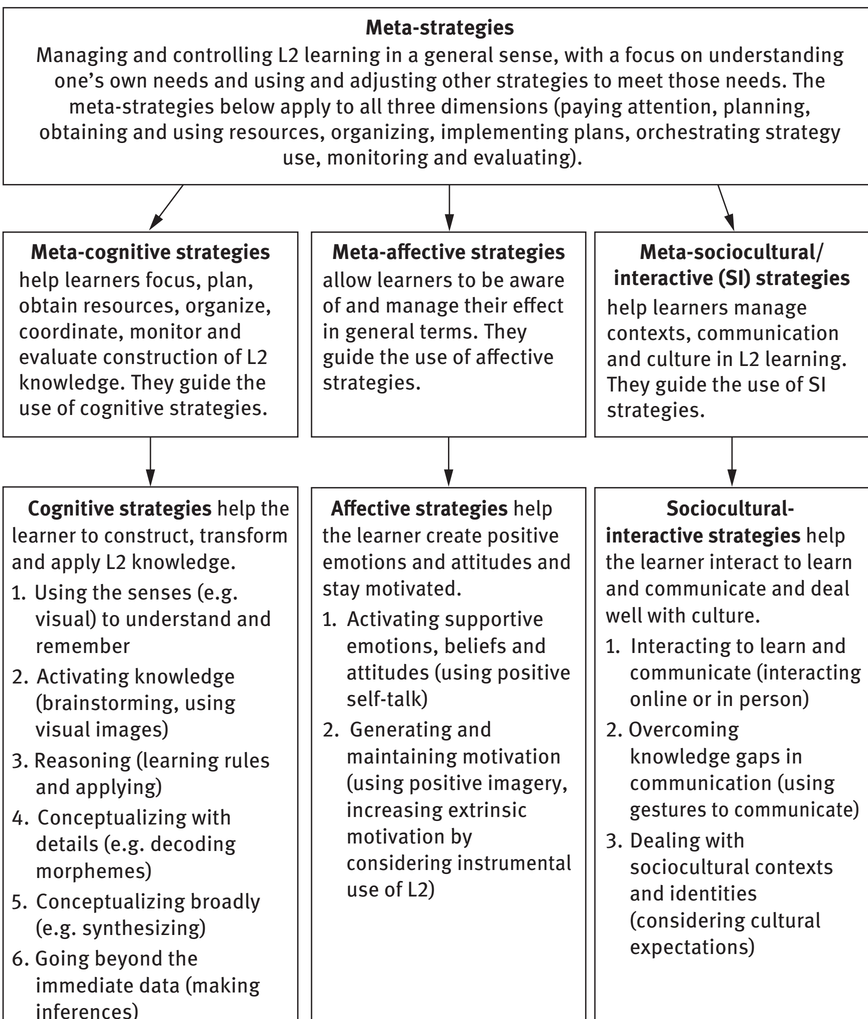

Figure 1: Structure of metastrategies and strategies in the S²R model (adapted from Oxford, 2011).

in general terms and manage the use of specific strategies. They assume the executive-control functions such as planning, obtaining resources, implementing plans, monitoring, and evaluating. For instance, meta-affective strategies help learners become aware of affective strategies, manage their effects and regulate the use of specific affective strategies, i.e. activating positive emotions and generating motivation.

The structure of the S^2R model with example tactics is displayed in Figure 1 (adapted from Oxford, 2011: 24). In the next section, I will elaborate on the S^2R model and present a preliminary list of pragmatics learning strategies with examples and suggested tactics. I will focus on the metacognitive and cognitive strategies.

3.2 Strategic self-regulation model as applied to pragmatics

Oxford (2011) refers to metacognitive strategies as a construction manager who manages and controls the knowledge-building dimension of learning in general. These strategies help learners focus, plan, obtain resources, organize the environment, coordinate, monitor and evaluate the process of knowledge construction. She presented eight types of metacognitive strategies with sample functions, which I grouped into three categories, as shown in Table 1. The first two columns display the metacognitive strategies and basic functions adapted from Oxford (2011: 102–107). The third column shows the basic functions as applied to learning pragmatics.

Table 1: Metacognitive strategies and functions for learning pragmatics.

Strategy	Basic function	Basic function as applied to pragmatics
Focus and plan	Pay attention to specifics and general Set goals and plan	Pay attention to pragmatics-related concepts and set goals in attending them
Obtain resources, arrange environment and implement plans	Obtain resources Organize the learning environment and materials Put the plan into action	Obtain resources for observing communicative acts Obtain opportunities for participating in communicative acts
Monitor and evaluate	Monitor and evaluate performance and strategy use	Monitor and evaluate the process of performing and interpreting communicative acts

3.2.1 Metacognitive strategies for leaning pragmatics

As shown in Table 1, the first group of metacognitive strategies involves paying attention to general and specific aspects of language and setting goals as to where the focus should be. In pragmatics, this indicates that learners are encouraged to look at language through pragmatic lenses. Learners can be introduced to key concepts and frameworks of pragmatics so they can apply those concepts when observing language use and participating in communicative practices. The concept can be introduced as two layers of meaning involved in utterances. According to Thomas (1995), meaning has two levels: the utterance meaning referring to the literal meaning of an utterance and the speaker meaning referring to the speaker's intention behind the utterance. For example, if someone says "It's dark in here", it could mean that they are referring to the actual brightness of the room. But it could also suggest the speaker's intention of asking someone to turn on the light, which is an indirect speech act of request. L2 learners are probably more accustomed to comprehending literal information through classroom instruction, so it is important to direct their attention to both layers of meaning – utterance meaning and the communicative act that the utterance intends to perform (e.g. request).

Once learners are taught the form-function relationship, the next step is to introduce its connection with context. Linguistic forms in communicative acts – grammar, lexis or semantic moves – are anchored in the context of use. As a listener, we need to understand the speaker's intention by interpreting both verbal and non-verbal contextual cues. As a speaker, we need to decide which forms to use to convey our intentions at the level of formality and politeness required in a situation. Our linguistic choice is guided by our understanding of parameters of context, such as speakers' relationship and identity, role, setting, topics and shared assumptions. Our use of language is also bound by consequentiality. What we say and how we say it has direct impact on the listeners' interpretation of the message, impression that they form about the speaker, context, or interaction, as well as their subsequent actions. See the example:

> Sign here, please.
> Could I have your signature here?

These utterances involve the same communicative act of asking for a signature, but we choose one form over the other depending on the context. For example, the first form would be appropriate when a signature is required for a bank transaction. In contrast, when we are asking a professor to sign an override form, we are likely to use the second form because there is a certain degree of imposition posed in the request.

Gee (2005) contends that discourse has both linguistic and sociocultural aspects, with the former referring to language in use, while the latter refers to the discourse situated in a given place and time. He summarizes six elements of context: (1) the social identity of the speaker in a particular sociocultural setting (power, relationship and social distance); (2) the social activity that he/she is trying to accomplish (degree of imposition involved in the act); (3) the setting where the activity is done (type of interaction); (4) prior communication; (5) shared assumptions and knowledge; and (6) the social, cultural, cognitive, material and political effects of all of these elements. These can be brought to the learners' attention so they can observe these contextual elements and linguistic choices across contexts. Some of the guiding questions in the observation process include: (1) What does the speaker say?; (2) What does the speaker mean by saying it?; and (3) What contextual features are associated with the form and meaning? Learners can practice with these questions using language samples in their native language.

The next group of metacognitive strategies includes obtaining resources, arranging the learning environment and implementing plans. Once learners understand what to focus on and how and set the goals of attending to them consciously when observing and performing communicative acts, they can search for materials that allow them to implement their plans. If learners are in the target language community, field observation and interaction with local community members could provide such opportunities. Learners can act as amateur ethnographers and collect information about pragmatics. If they are in a foreign language context, then films, TV dramas and video clips are useful resources because these sources depict everyday social interactions and are readily available in a foreign language context. Contextual information such as the speaker, setting, social activity and prior communication are visually accessible without much explanation. Subtitles could help learners extract language and other non-verbal cues (e.g. facial expressions, gaze, gestures) used to convey intentions.

Social networking sites are another set of resources that provide authentic interactional opportunities. Social computing has proliferated as a promising platform for L2 practice with Web 2.0 applications. Computer-mediated communication (CMC) occurring in social networking sites provides an invaluable context for learning pragmatics because learners gain opportunities to engage in meaningful intercultural interaction (for a review, see Taguchi & Roever 2017). E-mail, blogs, messengers and voice chat, online gaming, discussion forums and video-conferencing (e.g. Skype) provide a context-rich, high-stakes environment where learners can practice pragmatic aspects of language with target language speakers.[1]

The last group of metacognitive strategies refers to monitoring and evaluating performance and strategy use. Learners can revisit the pragmatic concepts from the planning stage and use them as criteria in assessing their own interpretation and performance of communicative acts. Sample reflective questions include: (1) Do I understand the connection between form and function?; (2) Do I understand contextual information?; (3) What did I say when I performed a communicative act and why?; (4) Was I able to convey my intention successfully? What was the listener's reaction?; (5) Are there other forms that I could have used? These questions can help learners stay focused on the key concepts of pragmatics (form, function, context). They also allow learners to apply those concepts to their immediate situations. These experiences help learners reflect on their own communicative acts from the point of appropriateness and acceptability, as well as from their impact on the listener. Thus, the concepts go beyond the level of abstract objects; they give relevance and meaning to learners' lives.

3.2.2 Cognitive strategies for leaning pragmatics

While metacognitive strategies are for managing and controlling L2 use in general, cognitive strategies help construct, transform and apply L2 knowledge with the explicit goal of learning the knowledge. Oxford (2011) calls cognitive strategies construction workers who are responsible for information processing and knowledge building. Table 2 displays cognitive strategies and their basic functions adapted from Oxford (2011: 108–113). Basic functions and tactics for pragmatics learning appear in the last column.

The first metacognitive strategy is activating knowledge. In pragmatics, knowledge of first language pragmatics can be extremely useful. Adult L2 learners are in a unique position because of the co-existence of L1 and L2-based pragmatic systems. Unlike children, whose pragmatic and linguistic competence develop simultaneously, adult learners are already competent in the pragmatics of their native language, having developed a rich foundation of universal pragmatic knowledge within their native culture (Mey 2001). They already possess implicit knowledge of communicative functions such as greeting and leave-taking. They

1 The following are sample social networking sites: Mixxer (http://www.language-exchanges.org), Wespeke (http://en-us.wespeke.com), Busuu (http://www.busuu.com/enc/), Language Exchange (http://www.mylanguageexchange.com), Ling (http://www.lingq.com), Lang-8 (http://lang-8.com), Lingualia (https://www.lingualia.com/en/social/) and Tounguetide (http://www.tonguetide.com).

are familiar with the concepts of politeness and face-saving and how these social concepts are expressed in their native language. They are also exposed daily to different communicative situations as well as variations of language use across situations. Taking advantage of this situation of adult pragmatic acquisition, we can activate learners' L1 pragmatic knowledge first as a strategy. Learners can analyze L1 pragmatic data by paying attention to contextual factors that influence communicative behavior. Then, they can reflect on how a communicative act in a similar situation can be performed in their L2.

People may argue that activating L1-based pragmatic knowledge may not be applicable to all pragmatic features. This is because certain pragmatic features may be L2-specific and thus do not allow for the transfer of L1 pragmatic knowledge. However, this problem can be minimized by focusing on the higher-order category of concepts and principles of pragmatics, rather than specific pragmalinguistic or sociopragmatic features. Pragmatic concepts and principles are often shared universally across languages; languages differ in the types of linguistic resources used to encode those principles. For instance, the principle of politeness exists both in Japanese and English, but these languages use different means to practice politeness in social interactions. As Kasper and Rose (2002) argue, there is a list of *universal pragmatic principles* that comprise a variety of communicative practices. Those principles include rituals of conversation such as turn-taking and repair (Goffman 1976), inferencing heuristics (Grice 1975), routine formulae (Kecskes 2003) and discursive construction of social identity (Bakhtin 1986). We can focus on these over-arching principles instead of language-specific details. By activating learners' L1 knowledge on these principles, we can help learners think about L2 pragmatic rules using these principles.

The next cognitive strategy is reasoning. Oxford (2011) distinguishes two types of reasoning: deductive and inductive. Deductive reasoning occurs when learners are provided with explicit information about pragmatics and then they apply the information to analyze examples and data. Learners can apply learned pragmatics expressions to real-life situations by using them in communication or collecting samples of the same expressions through observation. An example of this is illustrated in the case of Mitsu, discussed in the previous section. He learned the expression of mitigation, "I'm afraid", in the self-study material and consciously used it in class discussion when he had to disagree with his classmates' opinions. Learners can also consider other situations where the same expressions might apply and create imaginary scenarios using the expressions. On the other hand, inductive reasoning occurs when learners self-discover rules and norms of pragmatic behavior by analyzing data. They can analyze samples of communicative acts by identifying contextual factors and the speaker's intention and explain the pragmatic rules, i.e. what linguistic forms are used to convey what kind of intentions and why.

Table 2: Cognitive strategies and functions for learning pragmatics.

Strategy	Basic function	Basic function as applied to pragmatics
Activate knowledge	Brainstorm what is already known	Activate pragmatic knowledge in L1 – how a certain communicative act is performed in L1. Reflect on how the same communicative act might be performed in L2.
Reasoning	Use inductive and deductive reasoning	<u>Inductive reasoning</u> Analyze a communicative act by identifying contextual factors and the speaker's intention. Explain why certain forms are used in a given situation. <u>Deductive reasoning</u> Apply pragmatic expressions to practice. Think about other contexts where the same expressions might apply.
Conceptualize in detail and broadly	Make distinctions, compare and categorize Synthesize information	Categorize expressions by function and situation. Conduct a cross-cultural comparative analysis of a communicative act.

The last cognitive strategy involves conceptualizing in detail and broadly, which mainly deals with organizing information and making it available for deeper-level understanding. Conceptualization can happen at the level of detail by analyzing and decoding units of information, making distinctions among the units, categorizing and sequencing them in hierarchies and comparing and contrasting across languages. In pragmatics, this is accomplished by categorizing expressions by function and situation. Not all expressions carry the same degree of pragmatic force. In some expressions, the speaker's intention is direct, explicit and straightforward, but other expressions may convey the intention indirectly with hedging and circumlocutions. Mitsu distinguished between the expressions "I'm afraid" and "I think" as the former conveying regret but not the latter. Learners can focus on variant forms and classify them according to how they differ in terms of their context of use and the social meaning that they create. Those forms can be ordered and sequenced according to different communicative situations, as well as the perceived level of directness or indirectness and the different degrees of impact on the listener.

Distinction and classification of form and function lead to the next level of conceptualization – conceptualizing broadly, which involves synthesizing across several sources and combining/linking similar items. In pragmatics, the observation and analysis of a communicative act presents a task of synthesizing because learners inevitably assemble multiple dimensions of information – form, function, context, and consequence of communication. Extracting different linguistic forms for performing the same communicative function (e.g. different forms of opening and closing a phone conversation) can be elevated to the level of broad conceptualization if learners can create a semantic map linking similar expressions and their contexts of use.

There are several additional methods of synthesizing. After formulating a hypothesis of how to say things in what situation and why, based on the analysis of available samples, learners can test the stability of the hypothesis by collecting information from other sources, e.g. interviews with native speakers or people who have spent time in the target community, posting questions on the discussion board, or asking classroom instructors. By synthesizing information collected from multiple sources, learners might find a common pattern in the hypothesis by combining/linking similar patterns together, or they might realize that they have to modify the hypothesis to accommodate different patterns. In addition, a cross-linguistic comparison of how a specific communicative act can be performed in L1 and L2 could help learners synthesize materials across two different language systems. They can again combine and link similar cross-linguistic patterns and classify different patterns and reflect on larger cultural values and norms that might govern the similarities and differences.

4 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the potential usefulness of self-regulation and strategy instruction in developing L2 learners' metapragmatic knowledge and awareness. The chapter closely corresponds to the theme of this volume, *knowledge, skills and competencies in foreign language education,* as strategy training is the fundamental dimension of foreign language learning. This chapter has emphasized that the acquisition of linguistic knowledge and skills comprise only a portion of language learning. Equally important is the acquisition of learning strategies, i.e. how to access, expand and cultivate linguistic knowledge and skills.

The taxonomy of pragmatics learning strategies presented in this chapter is a preliminary effort and needs to be validated in future studies. Two central questions remain in the validation effort: (1) Are L2 learners able to utilize the strategies and what kind of support do they need to understand and apply the strategies in their practice?; and (2) Does strategy instruction actually help prepare learners with the ability to pick up pragmatics nuances of everyday language use to the extent that it leads to development of pragmatic knowledge? In investigating these questions, several issues and challenges may become evident.

One major challenge is material development. The taxonomy I have presented here is at the level of list of ideas and suggestions. They have not been materialized in a format of guidebooks, textbooks, or syllabus and thus much work needs to be done in the actual process of material development.

Second, pragmatics involves a complex connection between language, function and context of use, which is not easily observable. It is not certain whether learners are able to attend to the connection in input and extract it for recording and analysis. In addition, a communicative act can be difficult to identify in a naturalistic interaction. It is not always expressed in a straightforward, one-to-one correspondence between form and function. Rather, it is often interactive and dynamic and is jointly constructed between the speaker and hearer and negotiated over turns. For these reasons, threshold level proficiency might be the pre-requisite to strategy instruction. Similarly, to make strategy use manageable, teachers need to organize observation and recording in a structured manner. For example, teachers can use e-journals, blogs and diaries with a set of guiding questions so that learners are constantly reminded of what to attend to. Teachers can be instrumental by providing a list of pragmatic functions and features, such as specific speech acts, terms of address, conversation starters and discourse markers and fillers so that students can identify what to focus on.

Finally, strategy instruction can be particularly challenging in pragmatics because it is an underrepresented area of learning. Most previous studies on strategy training were conducted in four skill areas, along with vocabulary and grammar. Because these areas are emphasized in classroom teaching and curriculum, the usefulness of strategies might be relatively transparent to students. However, pragmatics is a rather invisible dimension of language learning and thus the importance of strategies for learning pragmatics may not be obvious to all students. This is a potential problem because self-regulated learning draws on the idea that a learner is an active participant who takes initiative and responsibility in learning. Because learners' attitudes and beliefs are critical for successful strategy instruction, cultivating learners' interest and motivation toward learning pragmatics is critical in order to attach value to strategy instruction.

As described, there is an assortment of challenges and problems with the actual implementation of learning how to teach pragmatics. Although still in uncharted territory, strategy instruction has tremendous potential to provide an array of opportunities for autonomous, independent learning in a way that traditional classroom or instructional studies cannot. Whether strategy training proves to be a useful option for pragmatics teaching remains a question for future empirical research.

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Brian Gaynor

5 Teaching English to young learners in Japan: Teacher competence and classroom context

1 Introduction

When we discuss competence in relation to teaching English to young learners (TEYL) education we inevitably focus on the learner and the learning process. This is particularly the case with *communicative competence* as it is the learner whom we want to achieve this competence. Thus, our efforts, both in terms of teaching and research, have rightfully focused on how the learner can best become an effective communicator in English.

However, during the 1990s the importance of teaching and the teacher began to receive increasing attention as can be witnessed by the number of seminal publications on the issue (Hayes 1997; Medgyes & Malderez 1996; Richards 1998; Richards & Lockhart 1994; Richards & Nunan 1990; Roberts 1998; Wallace 1991; Wallace 1998). Such a development was inevitable as it is now widely accepted that the quality of learning is directly affected by the quality of teaching. Therefore, when we consider communicative competence in the field of English as a foreign language it is not just the learner we must consider, but also the competence the teacher brings to the classroom. Or rather, the range of competencies the teacher must bring. This chapter will argue that the effective teacher must be adept in a diverse set of skills that incorporate issues of English language proficiency, pedagogy, classroom management, curriculum design and evaluation, to name but a few.

This chapter is therefore concerned with examining competence in terms of the theoretical knowledge and practical skills the teacher of English to young learners needs to possess. To this end, this chapter will attempt to provide some possible answers to the two following questions:

(1) What is the nature of the competence – the skills and knowledge – needed by the teacher?
(2) What are the contextual issues that either promote or inhibit the teacher's acquisition of these necessary competencies?

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The teacher after all does not operate in a vacuum but is subject to an array of forces that, for better or worse, shape the nature of her teaching.

In attempting to answer these two questions the chapter begins with an examination of the literature on teacher competence and highlights some of the main findings from previous research. In particular, it focuses on the general pedagogical competencies a teacher needs to have in the TEYL classroom and the still unresolved issue of what English language proficiency the non-specialist primary school teacher should possess. The chapter then moves on to consider the broader contextual issues surrounding TEYL. To do this, it draws upon findings from a two-year longitudinal study of early English language education in Japanese elementary schools. Hence, the focus of this chapter is on non-native, non-specialist teachers teaching compulsory English to young foreign learners in primary school. This is a very different context from, for example, university students taking an advanced academic writing course at a specialized foreign language department in a liberal arts university.

Space does not permit a detailed exploration of all the interlinked variables that affect classroom teaching. Thus, out of necessity only four topics will be addressed, but even these should be sufficient to give a clear indication of the complexity surrounding the subject of teacher competence. Finally, the chapter provides some proposals on how best to equip non-specialist teachers with the competencies they need to effectively teach English as a foreign language in the primary classroom.

2 Competence and teaching English to young learners

Competence in teaching is rather akin to the apocryphal definition of great art: it is nigh impossible to objectively define, but nevertheless we recognize competent teachers when we observe their classrooms. There is an underlying assumption that the characteristics of good and effective teachers are known and recognisable, albeit difficult to articulate in a manner compatible with evaluation and emulation. This in turn highlights the diverse yet complex interplay of factors that influence teaching. Such factors include: the subject matter; students' ages and proficiency levels; pre-determined curriculum; institutional resources; student-teacher ratios; and the cultural values of the educational system. All belie the notion that a good teacher is simply an inherently *good* teacher. Rather, a competent teacher is a teacher who can marshal all these forces into a pedagogical approach that best improves her students' learning (Nunan 2003).

Acheson and Gall (1997) have identified the following characteristics of successful teachers:
- clarity
- use of varied materials and methods
- enthusiasm
- task orientated, professional approach to teaching
- avoidance of harsh criticism
- indirect teaching (learners don't know they are learning)
- emphasising content covered on achievement tests
- use structuring statements to provide an overview for what is about to happen
- use questions at many cognitive levels
- know their students
- know their limitations (Acheson & Gall: 25–26)

However, as any experienced teacher will testify, this list is not exhaustive nor do all the characteristics carry equal weight in every teaching situation. The concept of an objectively rated *ideal* teacher "resists clear-cut definitions, because there are too many variables to consider" (Medgyes 2001: 440). Again, if we consider the vast range of EFL situations that teachers may find themselves in, we would have to concur with Strevens' (1989) observation that, "informed teaching in the primary school calls for many differences in practice as compared with, for example, teaching English for specific purposes to mature adults" (Strevens: 84).

This is not to say that no criteria can be applied to gauge effectiveness in teaching. Such criteria may not be measurable but they are, for the most part, observable and can be used as a basis for assessing and improving teaching. To return to Strevens (1989), he states that "a set of regularly co-occurring features can be identified so that one may refer to informed teaching as the type of instruction and learning/teaching conditions that commonly produce effective learning" (Strevens: 73). He identified six features of informed teaching:
(1) The teacher has specialized training and experience.
(2) The methodology and materials employed are varied, interesting and perceived by the learners as relevant.
(3) The teacher maintains a high intention to learn on the part of the learners.
(4) The teacher promotes good relations with the learners and makes special efforts specifically for them.
(5) There are ample opportunities for practising the target language, in learner-centred and communicative ways.
(6) Whenever possible teaching and learning are conducted at a high rate of intensity (20–25 hours per week).

These, though, are aspirational ideals and perhaps focus too closely on the teacher as the principal facilitator of *effective learning*. To take (6) as an example, the proposed weekly time given to teaching English would, at the Japanese primary school level, necessitate that almost all daily class time is assigned to English lessons. In the Japanese context, the other extreme is in fact the default position. English lessons are assigned to one 45-minute period in a week which has obvious (and detrimental) effects on learners' ability to achieve communicative competence.

3 How competent in the English language do teachers need to be?

As the literature on teaching English to young learners repeatedly shows, the aspirational ideals of Strevens *informed teacher* (1989) are immensely difficult to reconcile with the demands of a nationally mandated school curriculum (Enever 2011; Baldauf et al. 2011; Rich 2014). Indeed, the emphasis by Strevens on the conditions the teacher needs to possess obscures the practical necessities of the classroom. Rather, the question should really be one of degree in relation to competence; the language demands placed on a teacher of an advanced level university academic writing class will be very different to that of a teacher of beginner learners in primary school. Therefore, we first need to take account of the language needed by learners in order to proscribe the linguistic and pedagogical competencies their teachers need.

Yet, even here the literature proves contentious. Hayes (2014), in an overview of the requirements for successful English language teaching at the primary level, recommends that teachers should have a language ability equivalent to C1 on the European Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) scale. Bondi and Poppi (2007), in their proposal for a language certificate for teaching primary school English, recommended a B1 level as the minimal level of language competence needed for teachers. However, Garton and Copland (2011) in their comprehensive survey of primary school English teaching in 144 countries, contend that the issue may not be the teachers' lack of proficiency, "but rather a lack of confidence predicated on the belief that native-like competence is required to teach ... successfully" (Garton & Copland: 6).

This lack of consensus is perhaps indicative of the different contexts in which different teachers must work. No two classrooms are the same and such differences are magnified many times over at the national level. Yet, some form of standardization is necessary. It is unfair, not to say unprofessional, to expect non-specialist primary school teachers to teach a language with no clear indication of how proficient in the language they should be. However, this raises further questions of how these standards are formulated and, in turn, how they are implemented. These are policy and practice questions. The following case study of the formal introduction of English language teaching at the primary level in Japan provides an instructive example of how difficult it is to answer these questions.

4 Elementary school English education in Japan

Since April 2011, all public elementary schools in Japan now officially include in their proscribed curriculum for fifth and sixth grade students a course of study entitled “Foreign Language Activities”. This is best understood as official policy catching up with actual practice, as prior to 2011 more than 95% of public schools already had some form of foreign language education in place (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science and Technology [MEXT] 2009).

However, Foreign Language Activities should not simply be equated with the teaching of English to primary school students. The official course of study document (MEXT 2009) does state that English is the preferred language of instruction, but describes such instruction in terms of activities rather than the teaching of the language per se. In addition, although compulsory, Foreign Language Activities is not deemed an academic subject in the same way Japanese, Maths, or Social Studies are. Rather, it comes under the domain of “general integrated studies”, akin to art and music, and accordingly is limited to a total teaching time of 35 hours for each grade during one full school year. (The basic features of English instruction in the Japanese elementary school curriculum are summarized in Table 1).

What these issues highlight is how policy decisions very much determine the nature of the teaching and learning experience in the classroom. Without a clear understanding of the contexts in which these polices are formulated at the national and local levels, we cannot truly assess the impact of such policies on the actual practice of language learning and teaching.

To give one example of this effect of context on pedagogy: in Hokkaido prefecture, in northern Japan, all public elementary schools are compelled by the prefectural Board of Education to participate in the annual *National Assessment of Academic Ability* undertaken by the Ministry of Education. These tests assess 6th grade students’ knowledge of Maths and Japanese. Based on the results, schools, administrative areas and prefectures are all ranked. Hokkaido has consistently been placed at the bottom of the national prefectural table,

Table 1: Features of English education in elementary school in Japan.

Status of English in the curriculum	A compulsory subject.
Age at which English instruction starts	Compulsory from 5th grade/age 11+. Many schools have occasional classes for lower grades.
Curriculum	Emphasis on speaking and listening communicative activities. No literacy teaching.
Instruction time	One 45-minute class per week, 35 times a year.
Class teacher	Generalist homeroom teacher and/or Assistant Language Teacher (ALT).
Teaching methods	Not mandated. At the discretion of the teacher.
Assessment	No formal assessment.
Expected learner achievement level in English.	Not specified.
Teaching-learning materials	A free course book is supplied by MEXT but schools free to choose their own.
Teacher qualifications	4-year degree in primary teaching. Teaching English to young learners an optional component.
Teacher's required English language proficiency	Not specified.
Professional teacher development	Mandatory teacher license renewal course every 10 years. Teaching English to young learners an optional component where offered. No national standardized in-service English teaching courses offered to teachers.

which has led to demands, particularly from parents, for steps to improve their children's scores (Asahi Shimbun 2011). The implication here is that both the problem and solution to the low test scores are found in the school system. In response, the prefectural Board of Education has initiated a series of classroom policies and professional teacher development programmes to try and improve scores in the test.

All this in turn has a number of implications for the teaching of English. Foremost is the importance attached to Japanese and Maths within the overall curriculum. English, as a non-academic, unevaluated subject, is not integral to students' (and schools') academic standing and thus is not prioritized by schools, teachers, students and parents. In addition, the emphasis placed on teacher's professional development in teaching Japanese and Maths by the Hokkaido Board of Education crowds out what little time there is available for development in English language teaching. Finally, the presence of native speaking assistant language teachers (ALTs) in the majority of English lessons means that available financial resources are allocated to them (in the form of salaries), rather than the homeroom teacher (in the form of in-service professional development courses).

5 Case studies

To better understand how the wider educational context affects English language teaching in the classroom, the author undertook a series of longitudinal case studies of four elementary schools in northern Japan from 2011 to 2013. Over two consecutive school years, a total of 191 classes taught by nineteen teachers were observed. Formal interviews with both teachers and school principals, along with a much larger number of informal interviews with teachers, students and parents were also conducted. In addition, a significant number of documents, from official MEXT-issued policy statements to students' self-evaluations of their English classes, were collected and examined. Data analysis was based on a social-constructivist perspective that examined how the new curriculum was enacted within teachers' existing professional and personal frameworks (Graves 2008). Using a constant comparison process, the data from the observations, interviews and assembled documents, were coded and categorized in order to elicit significant themes and underlying patterns (Fram 2013). The accumulation of both longitudinal and cross-sectional data along with an extensive literature review enabled both time and space triangulation of the findings (Cohen et al. 2007), though, as with all qualitative case study research, care must be taken when generalising from these findings (Duff 2008).

Drawing on this research, the following discussion will examine four of the key findings from the project in order to illuminate the interlinked issues surrounding teacher competence in teaching English to young language learners. These are:

(1) Teacher's English language proficiency
(2) Pedagogical competence
(3) Professional teacher development opportunities
(4) Competence and teacher motivation

5.1 Teacher's English language proficiency

In her comprehensive research project investigating primary school English language education in Europe (Enever 2011), the author found that the favoured model for most countries was a generalist primary school teacher trained in language teaching with good language skills. The language levels that teachers of English were required to have, where they were specified, ranged from B1 to B2 on the CEFR. The author concluded that, "observation evidence from the ELLiE study indicates that a minimum entry level of B1 is needed, with a desirable level of C1 for a teacher to be fully functional in the informal and incidental language regularly required in the primary classroom" (Enever: 26).

Unfortunately, in the case of the present research, such English language proficiency levels were a long way from being met. Echoing concerns repeatedly raised in the literature on Japanese elementary school English (Benesse Educational Research and Development Centre [BERDC] 2008; Gaynor 2014), the teachers in this study highlighted their own English language deficiencies and how this affected their teaching. For one teacher, it was simply a case of, "I can't teach English because I am very bad at English". For another teacher, the English she had learned in her own schooling had hitherto never been needed and so her ability in it had lapsed:

> I learned English in junior high school and high school and university, but then I stopped … I became an elementary school teacher and I didn't need it … I forgot it and now, what, 20 years later, I can't remember the English I learned.

What none of the teachers did though was clearly articulate what level of English ability was needed to teach the class. Many of their evaluative criteria for language competence were linked to issues of pronunciation or English vocabulary knowledge. This, perhaps, resulted from the presence of an ALT (in all the schools observed a native English speaker) in the classroom and the teachers unwittingly measuring themselves against this perceived native-speaker ideal. One teacher described her desired competence as:

> I know it is only beginner's English but a teacher should be able to pronounce words correctly and explain what different words mean and answer students' questions about how you say a Japanese word in English.

This could be seen as a problem of professionalism rather than simply language competence per se. As educated and experienced generalist teachers, their professional role as teachers encompasses teaching a variety of different subjects along with nurturing the personal development of their students. Much of their status and authority as teachers is based upon their professional expertise in educating their students. Their lack of English language *expertise* undermines their sense of professionalism, particularly when the comparison with an expert language user, in the form of the ALT, consistently highlights their linguistic shortcomings.

5.2 Pedagogical competence

In all of the case studies the differing language capabilities of the nineteen teachers observed, both self-perceived and actual, affected how they taught lessons. Teachers with confidence in their pedagogical abilities were less reliant on the MEXT-supplied course book and accompanying teachers' guide. Of the teachers observed only one teacher had received any formal training in teaching English to young learners. She had completed a twelve-month correspondence course offered by a large Japanese educational publishing company. As it is a private company the qualification she received is not officially recognized by MEXT. However, from the point of view of the local board of education and her own school it was accepted as proof of competence to teach young learners. The knowledge she had acquired was evident in her year-long curriculum where she "cherry-picked" her way through the curriculum suggested by the course book. Even in those classes where the teacher did use the textbook, she did so selectively, often only using the course book for its listening activities and then using her own expansion activities to practice and reinforce the language learned.

However, this teacher was very much the exception. The majority of the teachers in the four schools closely followed the lesson plans detailed in the teachers' guide to the course book. Such reliance was not surprising. Teachers who do not have any kind of background in language learning are going to need an easily-comprehended, structured guideline to English language teaching. This is exactly what the official teachers' guide does. It provides a comprehensive lesson plan for each unit (in Japanese). It details what is to be taught, how it is to be taught and in what order. The guide also provides clear instructions on the teachers', students' and ALTs' roles and the expected English usage from each of them. In addition, for each lesson the guide explains a number of background linguistic and cultural points to provide a richer understanding for students.

Although the teachers' guide explicitly states that it should not be used as the only basis for teaching, the day-to-day realities of homeroom teachers overrule that stipulation. The teachers in the study (with the exception noted above), faced with the ongoing and ever-changing demands of teaching a diverse array of subjects, general administrative tasks, and, most importantly, the responsibility for the care and welfare of their students, were utterly dependent on the teachers' guide. This dependency was best summed up by one of the teachers who said, "the guide makes it much easier to teach the class … if I didn't have [the teachers' guide] it would be impossible".

5.3 Professional teacher development opportunities

The lack of qualified teachers means that Japan, as with many other countries at the primary school level (see Garton & Copland 2011), has to rely on existing *generalist* homeroom teachers who are not trained to teach TEYL. This in turn has an impact on learner outcomes and demands a realistic assessment of what can be achieved in elementary school. In Japan, there is the added concern that successful classroom initiatives and effective methodology are often the result of the efforts of these individual generalist homeroom teachers rather than specialized school programmes. Such a situation results in quality teaching being personalized rather than institutionalized so that when that teacher leaves the school (teachers are usually transferred every six years) much of the English programme leaves with her.

Shortfalls exist too in the provision of both pre-service and in-service teacher training. As English is not an academic subject there is no specific qualification in TEYL offered at any of the 56 national educational universities in the country. The non-academic status of English also affects in-service training opportunities for teachers; greater emphasis is placed on career training in teaching Japanese, maths and science (Izumi 2006). The result is that with the limited time they have for in-service training, teachers understandably opt for training in those courses upon which they and their students are formally evaluated. Furthermore, in-service training is for the most part conducted by local boards of education (BoE); there are no set standards for such courses and the quantity and quality of provision is very much subject to the resources available to the individual areas (Benesse Educational Research and Development Centre [BERDC], 2010). Thus, whereas a BoE in a large urban area situated close to a national university of education can call upon such expertise, such an option is not available in distant rural areas.

In the case studies only two of the nineteen teachers observed during the two-year-long research period voluntarily attended a professional development course for teaching English. However, they found the workshop to be of little practical benefit as the activities were focused on the junior high school English curriculum. The teachers were aware of other workshops and courses on teaching English offered by both the Hokkaido Board of Education and the Hokkaido University of Education. However, these were not particularly accessible to teachers working in distant rural areas far from the city.

> These courses are always held in Sapporo[1] … If they are on a workday we can't go and if they are on the weekend it means spending the whole day travelling there and back for only a few hours of the course … For teachers based in Sapporo it is much easier to attend, but coming from [our town] it is impossible.

1 Sapporo is the prefectural capital of Hokkaido.

The rather ad hoc nature of professional development is also reflected in the provision of mandatory teacher license renewal courses overseen by the Ministry of Education. Although this renewal course is compulsory for all teachers working in public schools, the courses themselves are not standardized but left to individual prefectures. This means that courses on teaching English to young learners are (a) not universally available but at the discretion of the regional universities that provide the courses; (b) not standardized in form or content; and (c) not mandatory for elementary school teachers but offered as an optional course. It is indicative of the neglect at the policy level that the only professional development options in TEYL available to current teachers are those offered by private companies, the expense of which must be borne by the teachers themselves (Akiyama 2010).

5.4 Competence and teacher motivation

A final issue that is sometimes overlooked is the rather uncomfortable fact that many elementary school teachers in Japan do not want to teach English (Shinato 2012). This was reflected in the comments and behaviour of the nineteen teachers in the study. As homeroom teachers, they were already extremely busy with the academic and administrative demands of their jobs and adding an additional subject, particularly one for which they have received no formal pedagogical training, was something many of them resented.

Comments by a number of the teachers made this connection explicit. For one teacher, it was a case of “I don’t speak English … so how can I possibly teach English? [It’s] impossible”. Similarly, for another teacher “teaching English is just too difficult. I don’t know what to do … and I don’t have the time to learn. I am so busy already”. Another teacher emphasized their lack of training; “I am not trained to teach English. I didn’t get training in university to teach English. I learned English grammar and we translated sentences, but that’s no help”.

Implicit examples of teacher demotivation often manifested themselves in classroom instructional approaches, where for some teachers their sole aim was to just get through the 45-minute English lesson. This often resulted in an over emphasis on games, teacher-centred Japanese language explanations, late starts and early finishes so that the duration of the class was considerably shortened and little consistency from one lesson to the next. All of these manifestations of *weak* competence were directly a result of equally weak motivation. For many of the teachers observed in the four case studies, elementary school English was regarded as an unnecessary burden rather than a rewarding challenge.

6 Towards teacher competence – some modest proposals

Resolving such problems requires a considerable increase in the quantity and quality of both pre-service and in-service teacher training. Butler (2005), in a comparative review of elementary school teachers in Japan, Korea and Taiwan, identified similar problems with teacher's attitudes to TEYL, their English language ability and methodological competence. To alleviate these problems, she suggested that teachers should receive comprehensive instruction in all areas related to child L2 learning along with systematic support in improving their English language ability. This is a call that has been echoed by many others (Edelenbos et al. 2007; Enever 2011; Garton & Copland 2011; Hayes 2014), yet in the case of Japan, such teacher support systems are not in place.

It is easy to find fault with the current programme of elementary school English education in Japan. Both at the national and local level, the educational authorities deliberate ambiguity towards specifying teacher competence and defining measurable learning outcomes for students is particularly disingenuous. Less easy to do though is to provide workable solutions. Calls for greater resources, more qualified teachers, better pre- and in-service training, are matched by calls for similar provisions for other subjects in the curriculum along with greater investment in school facilities, particularly in information technology. These competing claims have to be reconciled somehow. Politics is after all the art of compromise and such compromises manifest themselves in official language education policy.

Compromise though shouldn't constrain possibility. In Japan, there is significant emphasis placed on the lack of teachers' English ability and thus their ability to teach the language (Butler 2005). The issue then is to consider what can be done given present circumstances rather than what could be done under ideal circumstances. One such opportunity, requiring little in the way of language ability or specific training, would be to integrate TEYL with other subjects across the curriculum. Unlike the specialized and distinct EFL courses at the secondary level, the elementary school is institutionally structured to facilitate the natural diffusion of English learning across the whole curriculum and indeed, into most aspects of non-academic school life too. Within her classroom, the homeroom teacher could conduct many of the usual routines such as taking attendance or assigning cleaning chores in English. At a more academic level, English could be easily incorporated in other subjects such as numbers and calculations in maths, nomenclature in science, geographical features in social studies and so on (for details, see Edelenbos et al. 2007). Such an approach could draw upon various initiatives developed under the auspices of Content and Integrated Language Learning (CLIL) with an emphasis on developing teachers' skills in mediating between languages, curriculum content and the development of inquiry and research skills in children (Arnold & Rixon 2008). None of this requires expertise in English, but rather a willingness to both instigate and maintain such approaches so that the students become used to such linguistic transference and eventually consider them an integral part of their entire learning experience at school. As Sharpe (2001) rightly notes, "[students] are at an age to be taken along by a committed and enthusiastic presentation without the vulnerable self-consciousness of adolescents. The foreign language is in this way 'normalized'" (Sharpe: 16).

Such an approach would also bring into focus the competencies teachers need to effectively teach English at the primary level. To return to the case of Japan, all elementary school teachers will have received a minimum of eight years of English language education prior to joining the profession. They are, therefore, equipped with a foundation of linguistic knowledge, which can be built upon. And given appropriate opportunities, resources and most importantly, the time to avail of them, both pre- and in-service teachers could acquire the necessary knowledge, skills and understanding to effectively teach the mandated English curriculum. A corresponding requirement would be to have a clearly focused and closely defined curriculum that specifies the content and communicative skills learners are expected to master and at each stage of their progression through elementary school. Doing this would then greatly facilitate the development of a teacher's competence in TEYL as she would then know:

- what language needs to be taught and to what level
- what level of language she needs to successfully master
- the range of associated linguistic competencies (grammatical, discursive, sociolinguistic and strategic) needed to successfully teach the language
- what is required to effectively diffuse English education across other subjects in the curriculum

What then are the core competencies a teacher of English to young learners should possess? Drawing upon the work of Sharpe (2001), Pinter (2006), Garton and Copland (2011), Maynard (2012), Hayes (2014) and Gaynor (2014), I tentatively propose the following criteria for both pre-service and in-service teachers:

- The development of teachers' English language proficiency in all areas of communication, with special emphasis on developing oral proficiency sufficient to teach English to students at the primary level. Rather than aiming for more general level proficiency as measured on scales like CEFR or TOEFL, teachers should be specifically taught "English for Teaching" (Freeman et al.

2015). This can be best understood as a form of English for Specific Purposes where the emphasis is on the actual English teacher's need to effectively teach the language in their classrooms.

- An understanding of second language acquisition in childhood and its relation to first language development.
- Knowledge of appropriate TEYL methodology.
- Knowledge of appropriate assessment and evaluation techniques.
- The ability to integrate English into the teaching of other subjects across the curriculum.
- Instilling in teachers a positive attitude towards English and teaching the language. This in turn will influence children's motivation to learn, their enjoyment of their English classes and, ultimately, their achievement.
- Teachers should be willing to undertake both English language study and professional development courses in TEYL.

There should not, however, just be a sole focus on what the teacher needs to do. Educational authorities and policy makers have an equal role to play in developing teacher competence. It is their responsibility to ensure that the resources, both financial and professional, are provided to ensure a high standard of teacher development. Thus, in addition to the above recommendations concerning teacher competence, the following recommendations would also be made for designing and implementing a system for professional teacher development. These are:

- The provision of ongoing English for Teaching language courses for all teachers. These should be sustained, not merely once-off.
- The provision of a systematic professional development course for teachers that incorporates both TEYL theory and practical pedagogical approaches. Such courses should not be mere once-off workshops offering "tips and tricks" for the classroom. Rather they should be ongoing and include classroom observations and feedback.
- Both of the above courses should be standardized across Japan and made an official part of elementary school teachers' ongoing professional development.
- Training should be provided by teacher trainers whose expertise is in TEYL education and who are knowledgeable about current instructional approaches and issues.
- The provision of specialist development courses for teacher trainers in TEYL with the ultimate aim of having a minimum of one specialist teacher trainer in each education district across all of Japan.

Our guiding principal should be that *competence begets competence*: having a competent teacher in charge of the classroom is the most important factor in developing a communicatively competent learner.

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6 What competence is necessary to be able to work in Japan-related workplaces? A survey of Singaporean business persons

1 Introduction

Since gaining independence in 1965, the Singaporean economy has been growing rapidly. According to Forbes magazine (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Singapore, 2015), it is the third-richest country per capita in the world, behind Qatar and Luxembourg. Such rapid economic growth in Singapore has been supported by other countries such as Japan and both Japan and Singapore still enjoy a strong economic partnership. For example, in 2015, Japan was Singapore's 8th largest trading partner and 2nd largest investor, while Singapore was Japan's top Asian and 5th largest foreign direct investor. (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Singapore, 2015).

Since Singapore is strategically located at the crossroads of East-West trading routes and offers access to fast-growing markets such as China and India, it has become a key base from which Asian companies can internationalize and gain a foothold in the global market. Recognizing this, an increasing number of Japanese companies have established regional offices and key manufacturing plants in Singapore to bring their most competitive products to the global market. An increasing number of trading houses have also moved their regional headquarters to Singapore. Moreover, there is a growing interest among Japanese companies in partnering with local Singaporean companies in new business areas and sectors. As a result, the number of Japanese companies in Singapore has been increasing significantly.[1]

Despite such developments, it has become increasingly difficult to employ Japanese nationals in Singapore, as government policy has tightened with regard to foreign employment. The government has ruled that companies must advertise

1 According to JETRO (2015), the number of Japanese companies that are registered with the Chamber of Commerce sharply increased from 719 in 2009 to 829 in 2014. This number is estimated to be over 2,000 in 2015, if non-registered companies are included.

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positions locally before recruiting workers from abroad or employing foreigners, so that more job opportunities will be available to Singaporeans (Wong 2013).

On the other hand, as business declines, particularly due to the shrinking and ageing population, Japanese companies in Japan are under pressure to make the transformation into globally focused companies. Japanese companies are accelerating their globalisation by creating positions for foreign employees and an increasing number of Japanese companies are approaching universities, particularly in the Association of South-East Asian Nations (ASEAN) countries, to recruit new graduates to work in their headquarters and branches in Japan.

Above all, non-Japanese employees with Japanese language proficiency are in high demand in Japan-related companies, both in Japan and Singapore. Cultivating students' business Japanese competence (BJC) has, thus, become a major challenge for Japanese language education in Asia, including Singapore.

However, no studies have been carried out on how the Japanese language is used by Singaporean business persons[2] (SBP), what competence is necessary to be able to work for Japan-related companies, what types of problems SBP face when they communicate in Japanese and so on. In order to address such issues, the Japanese Language Teachers' Association in Singapore (JALTAS), which the authors belong to, conducted a nation-wide survey with non-native speakers of Japanese, mainly graduates from universities in Singapore who are now working in Japan-related companies. The present study reports on the findings of the survey and discusses what competence is necessary to be able to work in Japan-related workplaces. It then discusses the teaching implications for Japanese language teachers.

2 Definition of and issues related to business Japanese competence

The present study investigates the BJC required for SBP in Japan-related companies and identifies the problems they face in business communication. Nishio (1994) defined *business communication* as communication that enables business persons to create and maintain good relationships with other people so that they can successfully carry out their business. Based on this definition, this chapter presupposes that business communication includes communication for business

2 SBP (Singaporean business persons) refers to graduates from universities in Singapore in this chapter and may include other nationalities.

purposes, such as dealing with clients and conducting formal meetings, as well as casual conversations with colleagues, which may not necessarily be related to business, but function to create and maintain good relationships between employees. The competence that enables business persons to successfully carry out business communication in Japanese are referred to as BJC. The BJC necessary for SBP to work successfully for Japan-related companies mainly located in Singapore is investigated in the current study. The rationale behind this investigation is that there is a huge gap between the BJC suggested by the Japanese government and that required by Japanese companies.[3] For example, while the Japanese government suggests that advanced communication and discussion skills are necessary, many Japanese companies and recruiters who come to universities in Singapore say that simple conversation skills are enough or even state that Japanese language ability is not required at all if the SBP can speak English. Let us examine in greater detail what the Japanese government states regarding the competence necessary for working for Japanese companies.

Kyōikukikan no tame no gaikokujin ryūgakusei syūsyokushien gaido [*Guidebook of Business Japanese Education for Foreign Students for Japanese educational institutions*], published by the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry (METI) (2011), presents a comprehensive framework for BJC. According to this, BJC covers the following three areas:

– Business Japanese Proficiency required for working in Japan: Advanced communication skills for smooth communication and advanced discussion skills;
– Knowledge and understanding of Japanese corporate culture: How to work in Japan, Japanese business culture, knowledge about business fields and professional development;
– Fundamental competence for working people: Cooperation, teamwork and the ability to fit into Japanese organisations.

Figure 1 displays METI's definition of the three fundamental competencies and 12 competency factors for working persons.

These references suggest that not only a high proficiency level in Japanese but also various other abilities are necessary for foreign business persons to successfully communicate in Japanese companies.

As can be seen, there is a gap between what the Japanese government suggests and what Japanese companies are actually looking for. Why does such a gap exist? Which is true? Neither view seems realistic, because graduates from

3 The advertisements for major job fairs such as the one held by Nikkei Human Resources and TOP CAREER International indicate that there are a few major Japanese companies who only require Japanese skills at the basic conversational level.

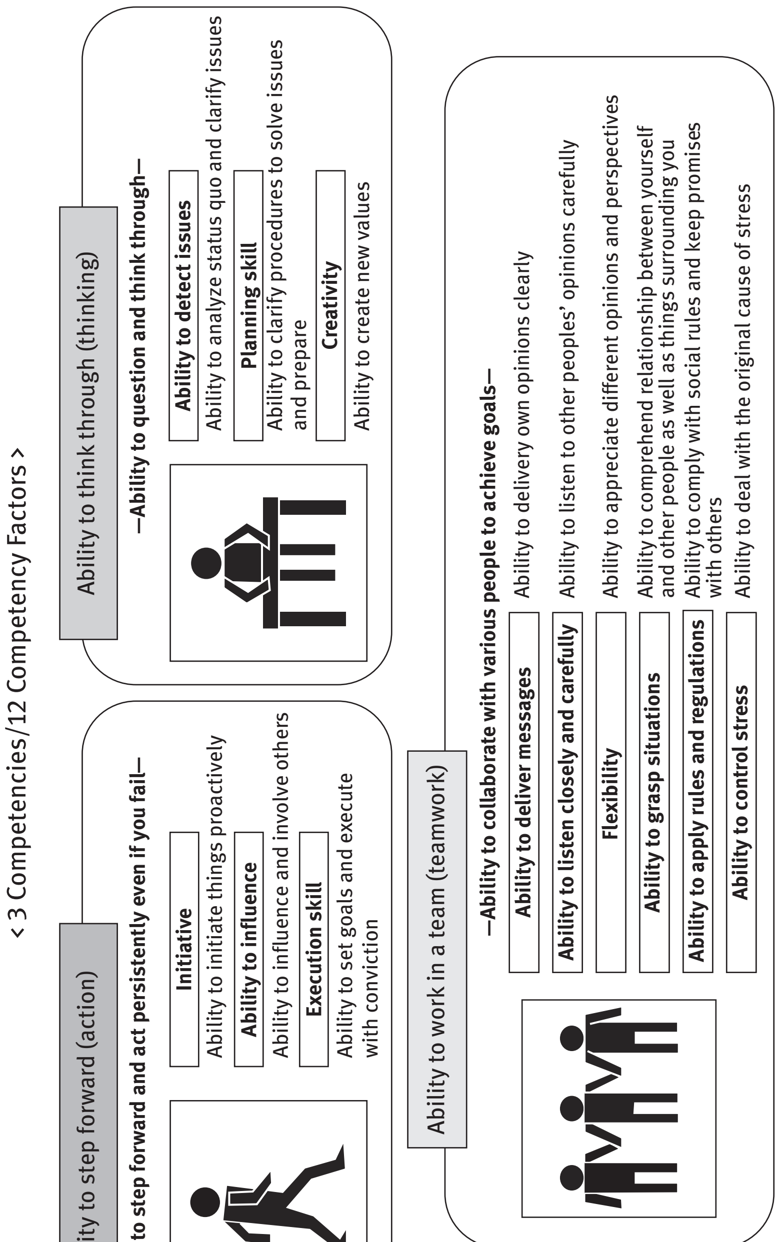

Figure 1: Fundamental competence for working persons.

overseas universities such as Singapore, where there is no educational institution where students can major in Japanese language. Therefore, students cannot achieve the advanced level of Japanese proficiency suggested by the government. On the other hand, the latter sounds too optimistic, because at least some communication skills must be necessary to be able to work for Japanese companies, as many Japanese employees have limited English abilities.[4] It is vital to have clear and realistic goals for business Japanese education in order to plan and implement it effectively. The current study thus investigates what is actually happening in Japan-related companies where SBP are employed. Prior to that, previous studies reporting on BJC are reviewed.

2.1 Previous studies related to BJC

Arguably the earliest business Japanese education was established in 1952 by Eleanor Jorden for the U.S. Foreign Services Institute. Takamizawa (1987) called the Japanese language program for American diplomats at the Institute ‘job-oriented training’ and claimed that business Japanese communication is a complex mixture of Japanese language incorporating the Japanese way of human relationships and business. Subsequently, research has been conducted on business Japanese, including business communication by foreign business persons, research on interactions between Japanese business persons and foreign business persons and reports on business Japanese curricula and teaching practice.

Most of this early research focused on the business Japanese curricula for American business persons at business school in the U.S. (Tamaru 1994) or on preparatory programs for future American business persons (Sano 2000). In the late 1990s, the research focus shifted to Asian countries. Shimada and Shibukawa (1999) investigated the Japanese language requirements of Japanese companies in five Asian cities, namely, Seoul, Dalian, Kuala Lumpur, Hong Kong, and Bangkok. The researchers found that the locations could be grouped into three different categories based on the amount of Japanese required to work for Japan-related companies. For the first group, which included Seoul and Dalian, the use of Japanese was in high demand and non-native business persons (NNBP) reported that they used Japanese a lot. For example, more than 90% of NNBP in Seoul received telephone calls in Japanese and more than 80% of NNBP did most of their business in Japanese. Similarly, more than 80% of NNBP in Dalian received

4 According to *Sekai no gengobetsu TOEFL sukoa rankingu 2014* (TOEFL Score Ranking by languages of the world 2014), the average score of Japanese native speakers was ranked 105th out of 115 nationals in the world and 26th out of 31 nationals in Asia.

telephone calls in Japanese and more than 60% conducted most of their business in Japanese. For the second group, which included Hong Kong and Bangkok, Japanese companies did not expect much use of Japanese by NNBP, who reported that they only used it sometimes. In these locations, the use of Japanese varied significantly depending on the job requirements, ranging from 20% (giving presentations) to 60% (reading faxes).[5] For the third group, which included Kuala Lumpur, Japanese companies did not require a high Japanese proficiency level among NNBP, despite the NNBP reporting its regular use.

Harada (2004) focused on Bangkok and analyzed the expectations of Japanese companies and their Thai employees and reported that the amount of Japanese needed depended on the scale of the company: English was used in large companies where highly educated graduates were working, while Japanese was commonly used in small- and medium-size enterprises. The common findings from these studies suggest that there are gaps between the expectations of Japanese companies and their foreign employees and that the use of Japanese is required more than Japanese companies expect or realise.

In Indonesia, Efi (2004) conducted a needs analysis by interviewing Indonesian business persons in Jakarta and found that 27 out of 31 respondents wished to communicate in Japanese with their Japanese supervisors to earn their trust and maintain better relationships with them. This study thus implied that the most important language skill for Indonesian business persons was oral communication for internal use rather than for external purposes.

Horii (2011) investigated business Japanese requirements in Hanoi, Vietnam by interviewing company executives and employees and argued that in business communication, not only communication skills but also problem-solving skills and intercultural competence are necessary. However, these skills tend to be neglected in current business Japanese education.

In addition to needs analysis, an increasing number of studies about intercultural issues or communication conflicts between Japanese business persons (JBP) and NNBP have been conducted. Sei (1995) reported that JBP with advanced-level Japanese competence faced problems with the speech styles they used for speech acts, such as stating opinions and refusing. Sei (1997) conducted a survey of 142 employees, both JBP and NNBP and examined the causes of barriers in business communication. Sei (1997) found that NNBP had many barriers, both linguistically and psychologically; the linguistic barriers were due to their lack of skills in assessing situations correctly and assuming the appropriate speech register, while the

5 According to Shimada and Shibukawa (1999), fax usage is in the range of 80% to 90%, except in Bangkok, while that of email is up to 40%. This, however, is outdated and email has likely replaced fax.

psychological barriers included difficulties in dealing with the prejudices of the JBP. Kondo (1998) claimed that the four major problems NNBP had at work were 1) unreasonable treatment, 2) inefficiency of work, 3) differences in business customs and 4) cultural differences. Kondo (2007) further studied the communication conflicts between JBP and NNBP and concluded that the conflicts NNBP from Asian countries experience are stronger than those from western countries and become even stronger after five years of working. Son et al. (2009), who investigated Chinese business persons (CBP), claimed that they tended to have problems with the salary and decision-making systems of Japanese companies. Aibara (2009) reported, based on her interviews with both Hong Kong business persons (HBP) and JBP in Hong Kong, that there were differences in perceptions between them regarding job responsibilities and communicative behaviour due to pragmatic differences. Aibara (2012) further examined the perceptions between HBP and JBP who were working in Hong Kong and suggested that in order to define the scope of business Japanese education, it is important to exclude general business skills from Japanese language competence, or carefully judge what kind of business skills should be included. Tachikawa (2013) investigated how CBP employed by Japanese companies in Japan deal with intercultural conflicts that arise in the workplace. Based on the findings, Tachikawa (2013) concluded that use of avoidance and accommodation were the most effective strategies employed by CBP in conflict management.

This review of the literature indicates the following two points: first, there are regional differences that affect BJC. Second, communicative competence (Canale & Swain 1980) is the fundamental competence for BJC, but other competence, such as intercultural communicative competence (Byram, 1997) and pragmatic competence (Rose & Kasper, 2001; Taguchi, 2009) are also important for BJC. Therefore, the findings of the previous studies signal the need to investigate the BJC required by SBP in Japan-related companies and identify the problems they incur in business communication, as no studies have previously been conducted in Singapore. The findings will also provide useful implications for the development of business Japanese education.

3 Methods

3.1 Objectives

As discussed, a number of studies have been conducted from various perspectives, and recent studies tend to focus on communication conflicts or intercultural problems. However, since this is the first study conducted in Singapore, it was decided that the present study should aim to obtain primary data, that is, the use of Japanese in workplaces where SBP are employed and then identify the problems they experience in business communication.

Therefore, the following three questions were investigated in the current study:

- How much Japanese is used by SBP in the workplace?
- What are the major occasions for SBP to use Japanese at work?
- What are the problems SBP experience in terms of business communication in Japanese?

The first two questions are based on the studies of Shimada and Shibuya (1999) and Aibara (2009). These questions are important for understanding the fundamental BJC required by SBP. The third question is related to several more recent studies (Aibara 2009, 2012; Kondo 2007; Sei 1995, 1997; Tachikawa 2013) that investigated communication conflict issues between JBP and NNBP that traverse language proficiency issues. The authors assumed, based on the results of previous research, that SBP sometimes experience communication problems or conflicts and exploring such problems would also be relevant in understanding what SBP are required to do in order to successfully work for Japanese companies in Singapore.

3.2 Instruments

To achieve the objectives, an online questionnaire was designed based on the frameworks used by Shimada and Shibuya (1999) and Aibara (2009). The reasons for applying these frameworks are that, firstly, both investigated the language situation in workplaces in Hong Kong, a city that shares many similarities with Singapore. Both are multilingual and multicultural cities where English and Chinese are used as official languages. Furthermore, both have many Japanese companies and are home to more than 25,000 Japanese nationals. Secondly, both studies used a skill-based comprehensive framework that includes detailed occasions regarding speaking, reading and writing, which helps to identify the competence necessary to work for Japanese companies. It was also hoped that applying a similar framework would allow a comparison between Singapore and other countries.

The questionnaire used in the current study (see Appendix) consisted of both close-ended and open-ended questions. The close-ended questions included both yes/no and multiple-choice questions and the open-ended questions were used to collect SBP's perceptions of Japanese business communication.

3.3 Procedure

The present study is based on a nation-wide survey conducted by JALTAS, consisting of survey questions developed by the executive committee of the Association to which the three authors belong. After the completion of the paper version, it was re-designed as an online questionnaire and distributed to graduates from universities in Singapore by the JALTAS executive committee members. The respondents were requested to send the survey to other alumni who are working for Japanese companies. The reason for targeting university graduates was that the ultimate goal of this study is to improve Japanese language curricula at the tertiary level.

3.4 Data analysis

The current study used a mixed research method that included the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data. The qualitative data was used to complement and strengthen the quantitative data through the collection of the respondents' experiences and explanations.

For the methodology of the data analysis, the quantitative data was analyzed using Adobe Forms Central, while the qualitative data from the survey was analyzed blindly by the three authors. In this process, each author coded the data, paying close attention to the reliability of their interpretation. Then, the findings were compared and amendments were made to ensure accuracy. Regarding culture-related problems, one more step was added. After the three authors coded the data individually and then re-evaluated them, the authors attempted to compare the results of the current study with those of Kondo (1998), who investigated communication conflicts between JBP and NNBP working in Japan.

4 Results

4.1 Participants' details

The Association received 49 responses, mainly from SBP currently working for Japan-related companies in Singapore and those who use Japanese for business purposes. They were all graduates from universities in Singapore. Out of them, 41 participants (93%) were under 30 years old. The nationality of 34 participants (69%) was Singaporean, while that of the other 15 participants (31%) included

Malaysian, Indonesian, Chinese, Taiwanese, Thai and Korean. The present study refers to all participants as SBP. Thirty-seven participants (76%) had passed the Japanese Language Proficiency Test (JLPT) N1 or N2, which are the two highest levels of the standardized benchmark test that is widely used to measure Japanese language proficiency across the world. Thirty-seven participants (75.5%) were working in Singapore and 12 (24.5%) had worked in Japan or were working in Japan when the survey was conducted. The industries in which the participants worked varied and included banking and financial services, computers and IT, products and services, education and training, human resources and personnel recruitment, hospitals, manufacturing, printing and publishing, schools, travel and tourism, and others. Table 1 gives a summary of the participants' details.

Table 1: Participants' details.

Age	Under 30: 41 30–39: 6 Above 40: 1
Gender	Male: 16 Female: 33
Study period	Less than 1 year: 0 1–2 years: 5 2–3 years: 13 More than 3 years: 31
Language qualification: Japanese Language Proficiency Test	JLPT N1: 18 JLPT N2: 19 JLPT N3: 2 JLPT N4 / N5: 0 Never taken JLPT: 10
Company location	Singapore: 39 Japan: 10

4.2 Major occasions to use Japanese

Figures 2 to 5 summarize the major occasions in which the participants reported using Japanese. Figure 2 summarizes the major occasions for using Japanese when SBP speak or listen to Japanese. According to the data, the most frequently occurring occasion for Japanese use was 'casual conversation with Japanese colleagues' (77%). The second-most frequently occurring occasion was 'greetings' (69%), the third was 'interpreting for simple casual conversations' (65%), while the fourth was 'work-related conversation with Japanese colleagues' (63%).

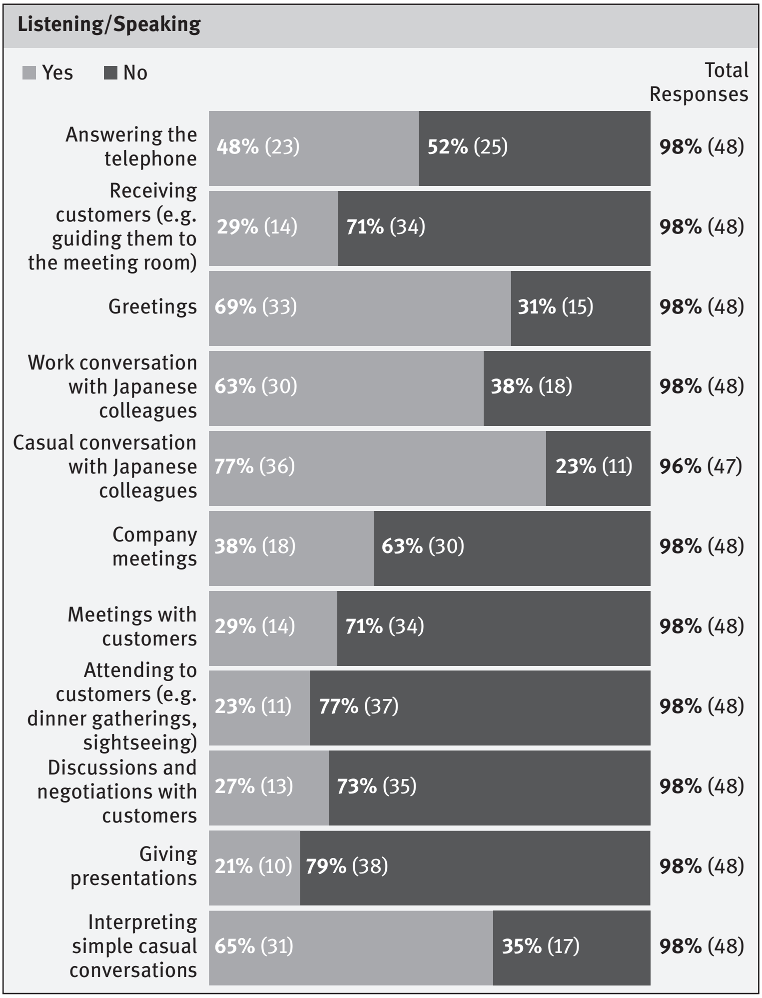

Figure 2: Occasions for Japanese use when listening or speaking.

On the other hand, Japanese was used less often in the following situations: ‘giving presentations’ (21%), ‘attending to customers’ (23%), ‘receiving customers’ (29%) and ‘meeting customers’ (29%). These results imply that use of Japanese by SBP is aimed more at communication with internal parties rather than external parties such as clients or business partners. These findings are consistent with that of Efi’s (2004) study conducted in Indonesia, as discussed in Section 2.2. Thus, the major purpose of the use of Japanese may be for creating and maintaining good relationships with colleagues. Furthermore, ‘interpreting simple casual conversations' (65%) was also rated high, which implies that participants serve as bridges between Japanese speakers and non-Japanese speakers in the workplace.

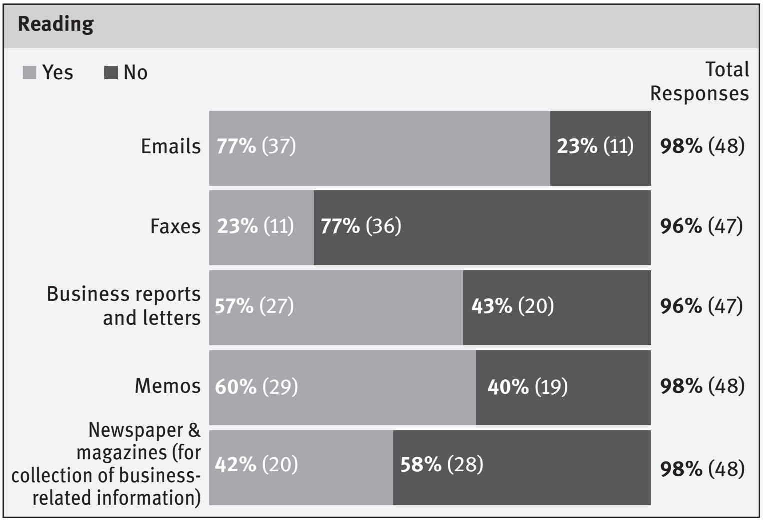

Figure 3: Occasions for reading in Japanese.

Figure 3 shows a summary of the major occasions for reading in Japanese. The most popular purpose was 'reading emails' (77%), followed by 'reading memos' (60%) and 'reading business reports and letters' (57%). This indicates that while emails are used as the major communication tool, Japanese is also useful for obtaining information and carrying out daily business. On the other hand, only 42% of the respondents 'read newspapers and magazines for collecting business-related information'. This may be because of the complexity of the Japanese writing system as an in-depth knowledge of a large number of Japanese characters is required in order to read newspapers and magazines easily and thus requires an advanced level of Japanese proficiency.[6] Many of the participants in the study did not have sufficient language proficiency for this.

6 According to the *Can-Do Self Evaluation List* developed based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) by the Japan Foundation, 'I can understand the main points of articles on politics, economics, etc., in newspapers and magazines' is listed as the most difficult level in reading. Furthermore, only 25–50% of the highest qualification (N1) holders of the Japanese Language Proficiency Test, which is the most widely used benchmark test for Japanese language learners, claim that they can do this.

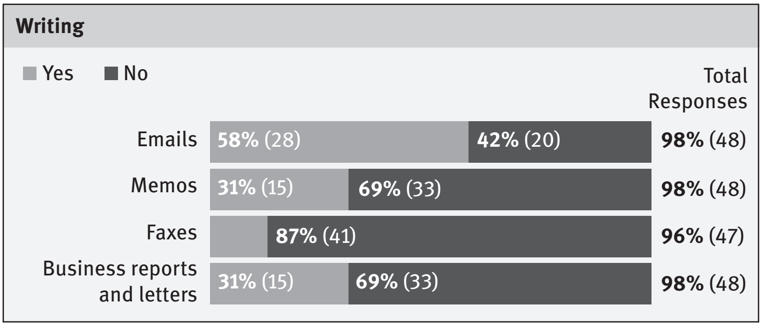

Figure 4: Occasions to use Japanese when writing.

Figure 4 shows the major occasions the SBP reported using Japanese for writing.

The most frequent response was ‘writing emails’ (58%), followed by ‘writing memos’ (31%) and ‘business reports and letters’ (31%). Both Figures 3 and 4 indicate that communication through email is ranked as the most frequent occasion for using Japanese. Interestingly, 77% of participants read emails in Japanese, while only 58% of participants write emails in Japanese.

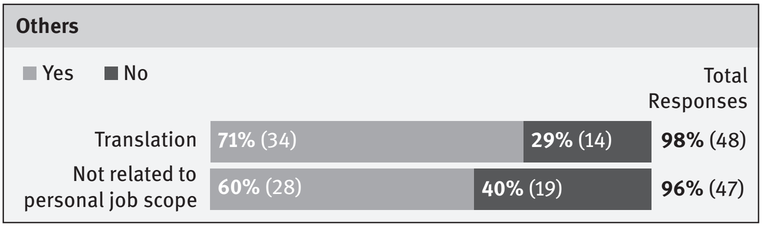

Figure 5: Other occasions to use Japanese.

Finally, Figure 5 displays the summary of using Japanese for other occasions. It is remarkable that 34 participants (71%) responded that they engage in translation. This implies that the participants play active roles in connecting Japanese speakers and non-Japanese speakers in the workplace. It has been reported in previous studies that the volume of business correspondence written in Japanese is far greater than that in English and this is one of the major complaints from the NNBP working for Japanese companies. For example, Kobayashi (1994) claimed, based on research conducted with approximately 400 business persons working for Japanese companies in 11 countries such as the USA, Europe, Australia, Thailand, Malaysia and Singapore, that the top complaint from NNBP was the lack of information, because most of the correspondence was written in Japanese. However, 20 years have passed since Kobayashi's (1994) study and the situation has likely improved accordingly with the use of advanced information technology as well as the increase in NNBP with Japanese proficiency. If that tendency still remains, occasions to translate from Japanese to the local language must be numerous. Therefore, with 71% of SBP engaged in translation, SBP with Japanese proficiency would certainly be helpful to share the business correspondence written in Japanese with colleagues or clients who cannot read Japanese. However, further studies are necessary to clarify what kind of translation work they are conducting in the workplace.

The following sections report the findings obtained from the survey questions about problems the SBP experience when they use Japanese in the workplace in terms of knowledge and skills.

4.3 Problems with using Japanese at work

Thirty-two of the participants (68%) responded 'Yes' to the question 'Have you encountered any problem(s) in using Japanese at work?' They were also requested to write detailed descriptions about what kind of problem(s) they had experienced with respect to using Japanese at work. The comments are coded and summarized in Figures 6 to 10.

4.3.1 Problems due to a lack of knowledge

Figure 6 indicates that the major problem SBP have is a lack of knowledge in Japanese.

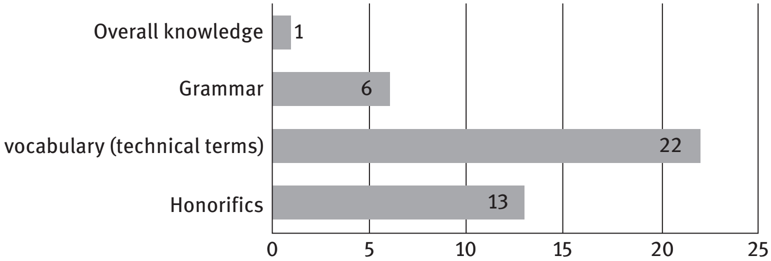

Figure 6: Problems due to a lack of knowledge (n = 49).

The following are comments from participants; comments are included as they were received, complete with typological and linguistic errors:

- Vocabulary is a struggle as well, especially if I do not have a dictionary with me and it is doubly difficult if technical terms are being used. (#7)
- Being confused with honorifics such as using 謙譲語 [humble expressions] when I was supposed to use 尊敬語 [honorific expressions]. (#5)
- Honorifics are difficult to grasp because I have a hard time figuring out who is should be in my inner circle and who isn't. (#7)
- Difficulties encountered when using honorifics (had forgotten most of them since honorific terms were seldom used). (#13)
- Not proficient in *keigo*, which caused some misunderstanding with customers during phone conversations. (#23)

The most frequently occurring response was 'vocabulary'. Nearly half of the respondents commented that they encountered difficulty with technical terms. The first barrier that recent Japanese graduates face in the workplace is learning job-related vocabulary and technical terms. Thus, it is not surprising that SBP find this difficult too. The next problem is related to honorifics, or *keigo*.[7] Honorifics are known to be one of the most difficult linguistic devises that encode politeness linguistic items for Japanese language learners to learn. The results show that the difficulties with honorifics are not just due to linguistic complexity, but also due to many other factors such as difficulty in judging the context appropriately, as one participant responded: "Honorifics are difficult to grasp because I have a hard time figuring out who is in my inner circle and who isn't" (#7). As it is claimed, being able to judge the context correctly in terms of the interlocutors' social status, age, social and psychological distance, *uchi* (inner) and *soto* (outer) relationship and the formality of the situation and then to select the right honorifics according to the context, which can be fluid from time to time, is not easy even for native speakers of Japanese. However, such skills are essential to behave appropriately and politely. Even if honorifics are grammatically correct, if the speaker selects honorifics that are to be used for an *uchi* group instead of a *soto* group, his/her behaviour can appear inappropriate and rude. On the other hand, excessive use of honorific expressions between socially equal and close colleagues makes it seem as though the speaker is trying to keep his/her distance. Consequently, inappropriate use of honorifics can also harm relationships and may affect the success of the business, as comments like #23 indicate.

7 There are several types of polite expressions in Japanese such as honorific expressions, humble expressions and beautified expressions – all are often considered 'honorifics' or 'honorific expressions' in literature. This chapter discusses them as 'honorific expressions.'

4.3.2 Problems with listening

Figure 7 indicates the major problems SBP have when they are listening.

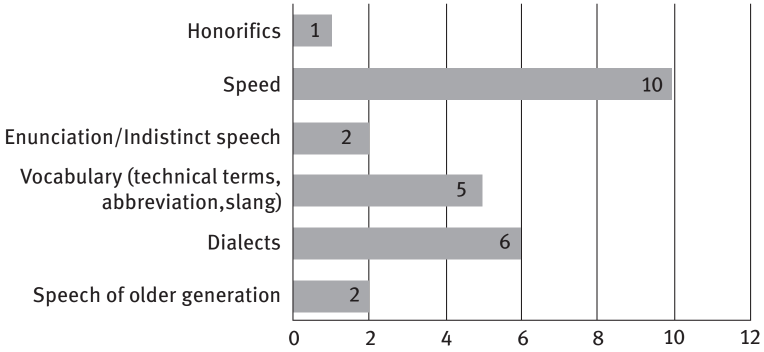

Figure 7: Problems with listening (n = 49).

- I have problems understanding if the Japanese person speaks too quickly or unclearly. (#6)
- Speed – require slower conversation to comprehend. (#12)
- Find certain dialects/accents very difficult to understand. (#9)
- As the company is based in Osaka, many of my colleagues use the Kansai dialect and it is hard to catch exactly what is said when they speak fast. (#19)
- Cannot catch very thick Kansai ben [direct], otherwise can still understand most of the time. (#23)

The most frequently occurring response was that native speakers speak too fast. The next problem was ‘dialect’. It is understandable that SBP working in local areas of Japan like #19 have difficulties, because some dialects have very different structural and phonological features from standard Japanese, which is commonly used in teaching materials and spoken by teachers. However, it is surprising that quite a few respondents who are working in Singapore also raised this issue. This implies that native speakers of Japanese from Japan are still speaking regional dialects in Singapore. If the whole group or a majority of the company employees are from the same region and they speak with each other as a group, it may be difficult to speak in standard Japanese only when addressing SBP.

4.3.3 Problems with speaking

Figure 8 shows the summary of the responses to a question about the problems SBP have when expressing themselves in conversation.

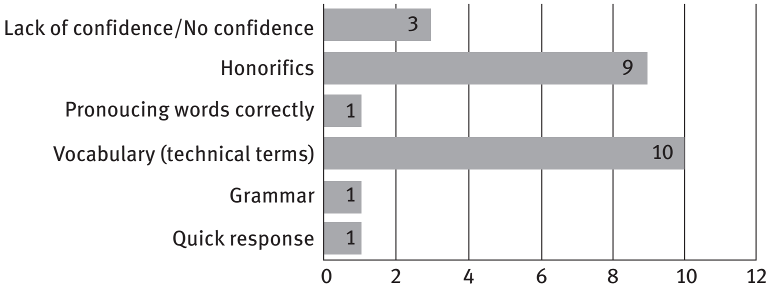

Figure 8: Problems with speaking (n = 49).

- Insufficient vocabulary knowledge. (#7)
- Specialized technical terms for certain industries. (#9)
- Mixing up polite terms with slang terms during conversations with Japanese co-workers. (#3)
- Would be worried during conversation that an inappropriate word/description is used. (#11)
- Accidentally mix formal and casual forms. (#13)
- Accidentally using informal form during conversations with senior colleagues. (#21)

The results were very similar to the question about perceived lack of knowledge, although the number of respondents who answered each item were lower. The most frequently occurring problem was the lack of vocabulary and technical terms and the second was honorifics. The most common response was accidentally mixing up formal and informal or casual forms. This implies that SBP not only feel that they lack knowledge about honorifics, but also that they cannot use honorifics appropriately in practice, even though they know how to use them in theory. While respondents may be aware of the importance of honorifics, they expressed their anxiety about their unintentional misuse.

4.3.4 Problems with writing

Figure 9 indicates the problems SBP have with writing in Japanese.

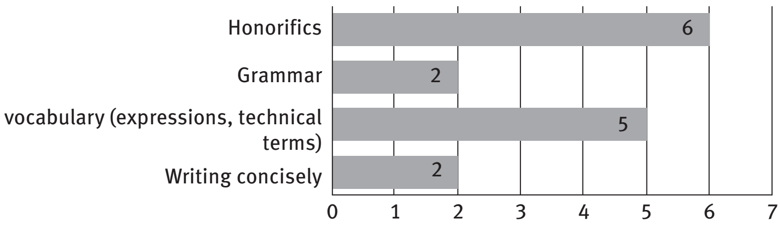

Figure 9: Problems with writing (n = 49).

- Usage of honorifics as well as when requesting information. (#12)
- So far ok, there are more or less standard formats/fixed phrases and I'm very used to them already. (#13)
- ...and also take a long time deciding which one is better between xx 取締役 and 取締役 xx 様 (when I know both is are correct). (#9)
- It is hard to find the equivalent technical terms in Japanese. (#11)

The respondents again claimed that honorifics and vocabulary are the two most problematic items in writing. However, the number of responses was nearly half of those who had problems with speaking. The reason for this may be due to SBP using Japanese less for writing than for speaking. Another reason may be due to the nature of the acts of writing and speaking. When writing, it is usually possible to check and revise carefully before showing or sending it to someone, but speaking is spontaneous and it is usually difficult or impossible to revise before verbalising, especially in conversation. Furthermore, on the subject of writing business emails, one respondent wrote, "So far ok, there are more or less standard formats/fixed phrases and I'm very used to them already". Business documents such as emails and letters have a standardized format and include formulaic expressions. Consequently, it can be easier for SBP to use honorific expressions in this context. However, care must be taken because what is written in an email cannot be revised easily once it is sent.

4.3.5 Problems with work culture

Various problems with work culture have been reported by previous studies. However, work culture, which can include the beliefs, thought processes, employee attitudes, ideologies and principles of the organisation can be vague and difficult to understand completely. Thus, to elicit qualitative responses, the survey questions were constituted from the following three points of view: cultural factors (e.g. misunderstanding Japanese customs and habits), work-related cultural differences (e.g. hierarchical issues, work flexibility) and difficulty fitting in with Japanese colleagues. A total of 36 comments, mostly negative ones, were received from 20 respondents on the topic of work culture. This translates to roughly two-fifths of the respondents having problems with work culture in Japan-related companies. This is a relatively low figure, but respondents provided very detailed and lengthy comments which implies that the problems can be quite serious. Figure 10 summarizes all the comments given in response to these questions.

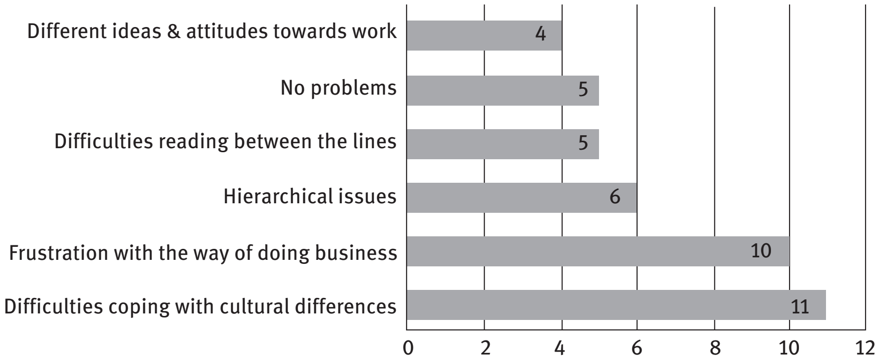

Figure 10: Culture-related problems (n = 49).

The most frequently occurring response was ‘difficulties coping with cultural differences’. The comments from the participants were as follows:

- There is a big difference in working culture with Japan. Misunderstanding occurs often for local staff who don’t understand Japan and its culture (and vice versa) and being the middle person was a challenge. In most cases, local staff chose to try and challenge norms, while Japanese counterparts chose to abide and follow higher-level decisions. Compromise is usually needed somewhere.
- Japanese are pretty inflexible when it comes to changing their working culture to fit Singapore. Even though we are located in Singapore, many things are still done the Japanese way.
- Very different cultural practices and environment.
- Misunderstandings related to Japanese customs and habits

This would suggest that there are large cultural differences and SBP find them difficult to understand or get used to. It is also noted that SBP in Singapore expressed difficulties not only in dealing with JBP, but also acting as mediators between JBP and the local staff in Singapore, as indicated by the following comment: "Misunderstandings occur often for local staff who don't understand Japan and its culture (and vice versa)". Furthermore, SBP describe situations such as the following: "In most cases, local staff chose to try and challenge norms, while Japanese counterparts chose to abide and follow higher-level decisions. Compromise is usually needed somewhere". This clearly explains how SBP, who understand both languages and cultures, can often get stuck in the middle. Since they understand both sides, it adds further evidence to suggest that they can be placed in awkward situations where they have to resolve the conflict between the two sides.

The next most frequently occurring response was, 'frustration with the way of doing business'.

– Very slow decision-making process with many layers of command and control – not a language proficiency issue but a corporate culture issue.
– Some staff are very inflexible, only stick to what they knew and cannot act fast when the situation demands. I used to propose some ideas that can save lots of money and efforts, but it's not what the office usually does, so my ideas got turned down. They'd rather waste money and effort than take responsibility for something new.

SBP also indicated frustration with the "very slow decision-making process with many layers of command and control" and the fact that "some staff are very inflexible, only stick to what they know and cannot act fast when the situation demands it". Since these phenomena are commonly reported in other studies (Aibara 2009; Kobayashi 1994; Kondo 2007), they can be regarded as typical characteristics of Japanese business culture.

The next most frequently occurring response was 'hierarchical issues', as SBP working in both countries claimed "Problems [are] arising from unreasonable demands of the Japanese superior pertaining to work". Comments pertaining to hierarchical issues were as follows:

– Have gotten used to the strict hierarchy in a Japanese work environment, the boss must always be aware of an exchanges in email between you and their reporting employee.
– Problems arising from unreasonable demands of the Japanese superior pertaining to work.

From a language-related perspective, it is worth noting that SBP claim that the "Japanese way is to express ideas and concepts indirectly" and one participant,

with JLPT1, commented that "'No' is still hard to discern". These comments imply that the ability to read the social cues behind words is still difficult, even for SBP with advanced Japanese language proficiency. Comments pertaining to difficulties reading between the lines were as follows:
– Japanese way of expressing ideas and concepts indirectly.
– 'No' is still hard to discern sometimes.
– Unable to read between the lines to tell what Japanese colleagues really want.

Finally, comments about 'Different ideas and attitudes towards work' were also given:
– Overtime and life-work balance. There is a lack of life-work balance in Japanese working culture.
– I don't like nomikai [drinking parties] or other get togethers after work. I want to spend more time with my family.

Additionally, as many as 75% of the participants who used to work in Japan or are currently working in Japan commented on Japanese work culture and customs, whereas only 29.7% of participants who are working in Singapore did so. This must be because SBP working in Japan are surrounded by Japanese colleagues, clients and customers and as a minority, they are more likely to be affected by the Japanese work culture and customs than SBP working in Singapore.

5 Discussion

This section summarizes the findings of the research questions and discusses the characteristics of the use of Japanese in business communication in Singapore, as well as the competence necessary in Japan-related workplaces, through a comparison with the results of previous studies. It then discusses the teaching implications of the results.

5.1 Characteristics of the use of Japanese in business communication in Singapore

The first and second questions researched were 'How much Japanese language is used by SBP in the workplace?' and 'What are the major occasions for SBP to use the Japanese language at work?'. This line of inquiry was to better understand the perceptions of SBP.

The results showed that Japanese language is used mostly for internal purposes such as casual conversation with Japanese colleagues (77%), reading emails (77%) and translation (71%) and that it is hardly used for external purposes or major business purposes such as company meetings, meetings with customers, discussions and negotiations with customers, and giving presentations. From this, it can be concluded that the BJC necessary for the majority of SBP is limited to internal use.

However, there were other responses that indicated that Japanese is used extensively for various business purposes. Why do such variations exist? This could be because the mode in which Japanese is used in the workplace depends on various factors, including the scale of the company, the composition of the employees, the major business strategy of the company, the position and roles of the SBP.

Harada (2004) discovered from the analysis of situations in Bangkok that the working language in well-established, large companies tend to use English because the employees are highly educated and can speak English. Conversely, Japanese is commonly used in smaller or middle-scale enterprises where English is not always spoken by Thai employees. The scale of the company can certainly be a major factor for the use of Japanese in Singapore as well, but the English proficiency is not likely to be a major factor in Singapore because English is one of the country's official languages. Thus, there are additional factors that influence the use of Japanese. For example, it depends on the state of localisation and globalisation of the company. In other words, if the company is very localized and many local people are employed, even as managers, or the business is globally established, English would be the common language in the company and the use of Japanese would be limited. However, if the company is relatively new and a majority of the employees are Japanese with few local employees, or the major business is in dealing with Japanese clients, etc., Japanese would be more widely used in the company. The position and roles of SBP are another important factor. Even if SBP work for large and well-established companies, if they work closely with the executives, Japanese would be important, as nearly all senior executives of Japanese companies are Japanese and are not necessarily able to speak English well. Even if they speak English confidently, Japanese would still be used when they deal with Japanese staff in Japan or receive guests from Japan. SBP would need to use Japanese in such contexts.

The results also imply that the characteristics of BJC in Singapore seem to fall into the second group – Hong Kong and Bangkok where Japanese companies don't expect much use of Japanese by NNBP – among the three groups proposed by Shimada and Shibukawa (1999). The situation in Singapore seems to be especially similar to that in Hong Kong. Therefore, let us examine more closely the situation in Hong Kong. Based on Aibara (2009), the general characteristics of common situations for Japanese use are similar between the two city-states, but there are several significant differences. A gap exists regarding interpretation and translation between the countries: 65% of SBP reported engaging in interpretation, while only 11% reported doing so in Hong Kong. Moreover, 71% of SBP reported engaging in translation, while only 40% reported doing so in Hong Kong. Why are there such differences? There are two possible reasons. One reason may be due to the language background of the Singapore and Hong Kong employees; the main language used in the workplace in Singapore is English and the number of employees with Japanese proficiency is limited; thus, interpretation and translation may be one of their main duties in Singapore. On the other hand, the Japanese-speaking environment is more established in workplaces in Hong Kong and thus, interpretation and translation are not as necessary. Another reason may be due to differences in the job positions and roles of respondents between the two studies. This information was not indicated in Aibara (2009); however, most of the respondents in the present study were junior employees with only a few years of work experience after graduation. Therefore, they may be in assistant-type roles, where interpretation and translation are involved. However, further investigation is necessary to confirm this.

The finding that one of the major roles of SBP is to translate and interpret implies that SBP play an important role as mediators between Japanese-speaking and English-speaking employees. This is not an easy task, as a vast amount of linguistic knowledge and skills are required to manage such roles and various inter-cultural problems can also occur, as has been revealed in this study.

5.2 Linguistic and cultural problems for SBP

The last area under investigation concerns the problems SBP perceive in terms of business communication in Japanese. The results indicate that most SBP experience both linguistic and cultural difficulties working for Japan-related companies.

The major linguistic difficulties SBP reported were with vocabulary and honorifics. Nearly half of the respondents expressed difficulties with vocabulary. Many SBP also expressed difficulties with honorifics. This must be because the difficulties with honorifics are not solely due to linguistic complexity as many additional factors impact communication. Furthermore, whether one can use honorifics appropriately or not is largely concerned with *taigu communication* (Kabaya 2013; Walker 2011) and *pragmatic politeness* (Usami 2001). *Taigu* literally means ‘treatment of others’ and *taigu communication* is a term in which the honorific style is understood in terms of a speaker’s comprehensive attention to the appropriate link between one’s linguistic behaviour and each situation, such as human relationships and settings, speakers' and listeners' intentions, message content and linguistic forms. *Pragmatic politeness* is defined as language manipulation that works to create and maintain good human relationships (Usami 2004). Both terms describe the broader socio-pragmatic dimension of honorifics and emphasize that appropriate use of honorifics can be realized with socio-culturally appropriate and culturally meaningful behaviour, including topic initiation and the appropriate use of back-channels, speech-level shifts, indirect or incomplete utterances, context-dependent use of particles, appropriate speech acts, meta-language behaviour, etc. This is not only difficult to achieve, but also extremely important for SBP in order to settle into their jobs at the company, get the necessary support from others such as supervisors and colleagues, learn and grow and eventually succeed in the business. Therefore, it is essential that SBP learn to use honorifics correctly.

The current study also revealed various cultural and intercultural issues encountered by SBP working in Japan-related workplaces. Many of these issues were also found in previous studies, including the extensive study conducted by Kondo (2007), who investigated communication conflicts between JBP and NNBP working in Japan and identified four major factors that caused communication conflicts: 1) unreasonable treatment, 2) inefficiency of work, 3) differences in business customs and 4) cultural differences. While factors 2–4 were found to be major issues identified by SBP in the current study, factor 1) was not found. Instead, the participants in the current study cited hierarchical issues as a major problem in the workplace. This is interesting because Singaporean society is also quite hierarchical, including teacher-student relationships in schools and officer-soldier relationships in the Singapore Army. One established website describes the hierarchy as follows:

> Work culture in Singapore is of a high-power distance, which means there are clear authority structures and social status is defined by your position in the society and workplace. People at lower levels respect higher authorities. Respecting elders and seniors comes from Confucianism that still exists in the Chinese culture and Asian cultures. In such a hierarchical society or workplace, juniors do not openly question or argue with superiors. Using surnames or titles while addressing is also important like in any other Asian country. (Amruta, 2011)

Therefore, SBP should be familiar with the structure of a hierarchical society. Why then did this emerge as a major problem for SBP? There are two possible reasons for this. The first possibility is that the Japanese hierarchy system is stronger than that of Singapore. The second possibility relates to the composition of the participants of the current study: the majority are in relatively junior positions. Since they have little work experience, they may feel a strong resistance to the hierarchy system in their workplace, perceiving it as a part of Japanese work culture. The resistance may be reduced once they understand that it is similar in local companies, or as they receive promotions. Above all, the present study revealed that there are many common culture-related problems for NNBP in Japanese companies across the world, regardless of the various different conditions in each country.

5.3 Teaching implications for Japanese language curricula

The present study revealed that SBP face both linguistic and cultural or intercultural problems. These results offer some significant pedagogical implications. First, although vocabulary is one of the major problems encountered by SBP in Japan-related workplaces, it is perhaps something that is best learned on the job, as vocabulary can vary greatly depending on the companies sector of operation and the employee's position within the company. Furthermore, increasing work-related vocabulary in addition to the general vocabulary introduced in textbooks will simply increase students' workloads. Thus, it is best if SBP learn the required vocabulary upon entering their company. However, what can be taught in university Japanese language courses includes self-regulated learning strategies, such as how to set one's own learning goals, planning and organising a learning task, monitoring the task in progress, identifying problems and seeking solutions, accurately evaluating completed tasks, and so on (Chamot 2014). Instruction in such strategies would help SBP to better cope with the task of learning business- and industry-related vocabulary once they start their new career.

Second, unlike vocabulary, honorifics can be incorporated into the Japanese language curriculum from an early stage, even though the topic is not usually introduced until the end of beginner textbooks. Moreover, socio-cultural competence can be developed gradually. In fact, this can start from the first lesson, when greetings are introduced. For example, in teaching the expression 'Good morning', the teacher can explain that a senior person can say 'おはよう(ohayō)' to a junior person, but a junior must say 'おはようございます (ohayō gozaimasu)' to a senior. Similarly, for 'Thank you', a senior can say 'ありがとう(arigatō)', but a junior must say 'ありがとうございます (arigatō gozaimasu)' to a senior. Students can practice using these expressions correctly through role-playing a variety of contexts where people in different social ranks exist. It is important to help learners understand why different expressions are used in certain ways and how Japanese people would feel if such socio-cultural norms were ignored. As learning progresses, contexts requiring more complicated honorific expressions can be introduced.

In addition to verbal practice, honorifics can be taught through various reading and writing activities. For example, reading and writing real emails, such as sending emails to a teacher to inform him/her of absences, to apologize for late arrival to class, to request a recommendation letter, to borrow a book, etc., would provide realistic and practical training in the proper use of honorifics. Depending on the learners' level, the task complexity can be modified. Therefore, by developing socio-cultural competence step-by-step, both orally and through reading and writing skills, a good foundation can be built that will aid SBP in appropriate and effective business Japanese communication.

Finally, the current study revealed the following culture-related problems encountered by SBP in Japan-related workplaces: difficulties coping with cultural differences, frustration with the way of doing business, hierarchical issues, difficulties in reading between the lines and different ideas and attitudes towards work. Since the data was collected only from SBP, these difficulties appear to be caused by problems with the Japanese side. Such problems may be reduced if localisation or globalisation progresses in Japanese companies. However, it should be said that globalisation is a work-in-progress in many companies at the moment, which may be moving slower than SBP wish. Thus, if SBP are to successfully work for Japan-related companies, they need to adapt to Japanese cultural norms.

In order to help SBP with this process, what can be done in Japanese language education? Broadly speaking, culture is one of the main issues in language education because language and culture are interconnected and interdependent. For example, socio-cultural competence was proposed by Canale and Swain (1980), who emphasized the importance of raising socio-cultural awareness. In recent years, some scholars have argued that learners should not uncritically adopt native speakers' linguistic and cultural norms. For example, Kramsch (1998) suggested that foreign language teachers should reconsider the common practice of making the native speaker the norm in language learning. Byram (1997) introduced the concept of the intercultural speaker. An intercultural speaker is the language learner who is allowed to retain his or her social, linguistic and cultural norms and is not required to imitate the native speaker and abandon that which makes him or her unique. Fostering intercultural communicative competence or enhancing the ability to speak to people with different cultural identities, social values and behaviours is indeed an important part of Japanese language education. However, it is not certain that a company that has strong cultural norms will appreciate it if SBP challenge such norms. Would such a challenge be appreciated by a traditional Japanese executive or clients? Would it instead isolate the SBP from other colleagues who try to avoid confrontation? Are Japanese companies really becoming more multicultural? Is it too risky to abandon the strengths that brought economic success to Japan over the past few decades? The answers to these questions are beyond the scope of this chapter, but work culture is something that evolves and changes over time. For example, some leading Japanese companies are trying hard to educate their employees to be globalized.

Mr. Masayuki Shimura, the managing director of the Asia-Pacific Division of Sumitomo Mitsui Banking Corporation, who manages 12 Asia-Pacific regions with 1,700 local staff, states in his interview in a magazine, 'Spring' (2013), that Japanese employees often complain about non-Japanese business persons, such as "they are not punctual", "what we ordered is not served properly", etc.[8] However, Mr. Shimura asserts that such JBP who only use 'Japanese common sense' will not be able to succeed in business outside Japan and that it is very important to reflect on oneself calmly and objectively and not to insist on Japanese logic. He further states that while strong and harmonious family-like bonds among employees is the strength of the Japanese work culture, the seniority system will need to be changed for those who expect a performance-first policy in order to employ first-rate foreign business persons.

As stated, Japanese companies are making efforts to globalize and work culture can evolve and change over time. Nevertheless, cultivating intercultural communicative competence is one important aspect of Japanese language education for future SBP. In order to help develop the necessary competence, it is important to develop the skills and knowledge needed to communicate appropriately in a wide range of situations. With effective language and cultural education, students will be able to deepen their understanding of the Japanese culture, mind-set and behaviour and develop respect, tolerance and ultimately a positive orientation towards cultural differences. On the other hand, Japanese companies employing SBP should strive to cultivate generous, open and flexible workplace environments.

6 Concluding remarks

The present study investigated the needs and problems of Singaporean business persons (SBP) working for Japan-related companies and the business Japanese competence (BJC) required of them. The results indicate that BJC necessary for the majority of SBP tend to be mostly for internal use. The most frequently used skills are speaking and listening, followed by reading, which is consistent with the findings of previous studies. However, this does not mean that only limited knowledge and skills are necessary for SBP, since approximately 70% of the participants reported that they also engage in interpretation and translation.

Another important finding of the current study is that SBP encounter various culture-related problems, which is also consistent with the findings of previous

8 Sumitomo Mitsui Banking Corporation is one of the three largest banks in Japan. It was established in Singapore in 1963, before Singapore became an independent nation.

studies. However, this study also revealed the major characteristics of SBP. That is, SBP often play the role of mediator between Japanese employees and the local Singaporean staff. Therefore, intercultural competence in addition to linguistic competence and socio-cultural competence are required of many SBP working in Japan-related workplaces. Based on such findings, several suggestions can be made for Japanese language education at the tertiary level, which will contribute not only to business Japanese education, but also towards Japanese language education in general. This is because this study provides a clearer picture of how Japanese language learners are using Japanese and what problems they are facing in the workplaces after learning the language.

Some limitations of the study must, however, be acknowledged. One of these limitations pertains to the methodology of the study. Only an online survey was used and many questions remain unanswered. Interviews with some of the subjects would have been helpful to collect richer data. Furthermore, the participants were restricted to young SBP with only a few years of work experience after graduating from universities in Singapore; thus, the results may be affected by this fact. A survey of Japanese business persons working with SBP would allow analysis of both sides. Nevertheless, it is hoped that the present study provides enough evidence to suggest that from the very first Japanese lesson, educators should keep in mind that Japanese language learners have the potential to become global business persons in the future.

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Appendix: Questionnaire for Japanese Language Users in the Workplace

The purpose of this questionnaire is to find out how people who are learning, or have learned Japanese, use the language in the workplace. All findings and responses will be kept confidential. They will only be used for research purposes to contribute new ideas to the teaching of the Japanese language.

Only the executive committee members and core researchers will have access to identifiable information provided by the participants. This information will not be released to anyone else, including other members of the Japanese Language Teachers' Association in Singapore (JALTAS).

The results of the questionnaire will be presented in the JALTAS workshop scheduled for November 2013 and possibly in other related events. However, no identifiable information will be used in any related publication or presentation. All research data will be coded at the earliest possible stage of the research and deleted once the research is completed.

1. Gender
☐ Male ☐ Female

2. What is your age?
☐ Below 25 ☐ 25–30 ☐ 31–40 ☐ 40 and above

3. Nationality
☐ Singaporean ☐ Malaysian ☐ Indonesian ☐ Thai ☐ Others (Please specify)

4. Email address:

5. How long have you been studying/ studied Japanese?
☐ Less than 1 year ☐ 1–2 years
☐ 2–3 years ☐ More than 3 years

6. Where did you have your Japanese language classes? (Please mark where applicable.)
☐ Secondary School ☐ Junior College ☐ Polytechnic
☐ University ☐ Language school ☐ Others (Please specify)

7. Please rate your proficiency level of the languages that you know, including Japanese.

7.1 First Language: ______________________________

Listening	☐ Fluent (Native)	☐ Advanced	☐ Intermediate	☐ Basic
Speaking	☐ Fluent (Native)	☐ Advanced	☐ Intermediate	☐ Basic
Reading	☐ Fluent (Native)	☐ Advanced	☐ Intermediate	☐ Basic
Writing	☐ Fluent (Native)	☐ Advanced	☐ Intermediate	☐ Basic

7.2 Second Language: ______________________________

Listening	☐ Fluent (Native)	☐ Advanced	☐ Intermediate	☐ Basic
Speaking	☐ Fluent (Native)	☐ Advanced	☐ Intermediate	☐ Basic
Reading	☐ Fluent (Native)	☐ Advanced	☐ Intermediate	☐ Basic
Writing	☐ Fluent (Native)	☐ Advanced	☐ Intermediate	☐ Basic

7.3 Third Language: ______________________________

Listening	☐ Fluent (Native)	☐ Advanced	☐ Intermediate	☐ Basic
Speaking	☐ Fluent (Native)	☐ Advanced	☐ Intermediate	☐ Basic
Reading	☐ Fluent (Native)	☐ Advanced	☐ Intermediate	☐ Basic
Writing	☐ Fluent (Native)	☐ Advanced	☐ Intermediate	☐ Basic

7.4 Fourth Language: ______________________________

Listening	☐ Fluent (Native)	☐ Advanced	☐ Intermediate	☐ Basic
Speaking	☐ Fluent (Native)	☐ Advanced	☐ Intermediate	☐ Basic
Reading	☐ Fluent (Native)	☐ Advanced	☐ Intermediate	☐ Basic
Writing	☐ Fluent (Native)	☐ Advanced	☐ Intermediate	☐ Basic

8. Have you taken the Japanese Language Proficiency Test (JLPT)?
☐ Yes ☐ No (Please skip to Q.11.)

9. What is the highest level of JLPT you have passed?
☐ N5/N4 (Old Level 4) ☐ N3 (Old Level 3)
☐ N2 (Old Level 2) ☐ N1 (Old Level 1)

10. When did you pass the above stated level of JLPT?
☐ 2012 ☐ 2011 ☐ 2010 ☐ 2009
☐ 2008 ☐ 2007 ☐ 2006 ☐ Before 2006

11. Please write the location of the company (e.g. Japan, Tokyo) that you have worked at/are currently working for.

12. Which industry does the company belong to?

13. Please write your job title and responsibilities.

14. How long have you worked/been working in this company?
☐ Less than 1 year ☐ 1–2 years
☐ 2–3 years ☐ More than 3 years

15. When did you join this company? (e.g. June 2010)

16. What is the approximate percentage of time that you use Japanese for work-related matters?

Activities during office hours (including casual conversation with colleagues)
☐ 80–100% ☐ 50–79% ☐ 20–49% ☐ Less than 20%

Activities after office hours (e.g. attending to customers, work discussion with colleagues)
☐ 80–100% ☐ 50–79% ☐ 20–49% ☐ Less than 20%

Listening/Speaking
☐ Picking up the telephone
☐ Receiving customers (e.g. guiding them to the meeting room)
☐ Greetings
☐ Work conversation with Japanese colleagues
☐ Casual conversation with Japanese colleagues
☐ Company meetings
☐ Meetings with customers
☐ Attending to customers (e.g. dinner gatherings, sightseeing)
☐ Discussions and negotiations with customers
☐ Giving presentations
☐ Interpretations (for simple casual conversations)

Reading
☐ Emails
☐ Fax
☐ Business reports and letters
☐ Memos
☐ Newspapers & magazines (for collection of business-related information)

Writing
☐ Emails
☐ Memos
☐ Fax
☐ Business reports and letters

Others
☐ Translation
☐ Not related to personal job scope

17. Did you encounter any problem(s) in using Japanese language at work?
☐ Yes ☐ No (Go to Question 19)

18.1 Not knowing the Japanese language well enough to perform effectively at work (e.g. vocabulary, technical terms, grammar and honorifics – Please describe in detail.)

18.2 Listening (e.g. speed, colloquial spoken forms, use of dialects)

18.3 Expressing yourself in conversations (e.g. use of inappropriate words, negotiating in Japanese)

18.4 Writing (e.g. email to customers, business reports)

18.5 Others (Please elaborate)

19.1 Cultural factors (e.g. misunderstanding Japanese customs and habits)

19.2 Work-related cultural differences (e.g. hierarchical issues, work flexibility)

19.3 Inability to fit in with Japanese colleagues.

19.4 Others (Please describe.)

20. Would you consider taking courses to further enhance your Japanese language or related skills?
☐ Yes ☐ No

If your answer is "Yes" for the above, please rank your preferences accordingly for the type of language or business skills that you are interested in. (1 being the least preferred and 10 being the most preferred).

☐ Grammar	☐ Vocabulary
☐ Listening	☐ Speaking
☐ Writing	☐ Reading
☐ Cultural knowledge	☐ Technical expressions
☐ Business manners	☐ Others (Please specify)

For others, please write the type of language or business skill that you would like to learn.

21. If you have anything that you would like to share with us which is not covered in this survey, please write your comments in the below provided space.

22. If invited, would you be interested to share your experiences with us personally at the workshop?
☐ Yes ☐ No

Thank you for participating in this questionnaire.

For any enquiries or clarifications, please email:
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Part II: **Empirical research on the acquisition of competence**

Miho Mano, Yuko Yoshinari and Kiyoko Eguchi

7 The effects of the first language on the description of motion events: Focusing on L2 Japanese learners of English and Hungarian

1 Introduction

Each language has its own vocabulary, its own way to form clauses, and its own sentence patterns to express events. It is also well known that each language has several ways to express the same event, although there is a particular tendency for certain structures to be preferred. In an increasingly diversified language environment, language teachers are expected to teach learners with diverse language backgrounds and they are required to be aware of the preferred and frequent structures in the target language. By analysing learner languages from various perspectives, we will show where and how the L1 influence is observed. In addition, we will note the common tendencies of learners in language acquisition, regardless of their L1, by comparing several target languages. Understanding both these points will be beneficial to language teachers.

The cross-linguistic experimental study on motion event descriptions in this chapter reveals the properties of motion events in three languages – Japanese, English and Hungarian – when expressing complex motion events. Motion event expressions are one of the most basic and indispensable constructions in language learning since they are not only used frequently, but also have diverse expressions, including change of state meanings (e.g. *John ran into trouble*). Motion events include several semantic components such as Figure, Path, Manner, and Ground. Talmy presented the most influential studies (1985, 1991, 2000). He suggested a typology of motion event descriptions based on the patterns by which the language codes the Path of motion. Here he classified languages into satellite-framed languages (S-languages) that express Path outside the verb and verb-framed languages (V-languages) that express Path through the verb. This classification has influenced subsequent linguistic studies and also acquisition studies, as we will outline in Section 2.

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Based on this typology, the present study examines how the motion description type of the L1 influences the event descriptions in the L2. We will focus on three different types of languages as the target language: Japanese (V-language), English (S-language), and Hungarian (S-language). Japanese is classified as a V-language because it tends to use Path verbs as underlined in (1a), while English and Hungarian are the S-languages, wherein the underlined main verb expresses Manner and Path is described outside the verb, i.e. by the particle *out* in (1b) and the preverb *ki-* and the case affix *-ból* in (1c), respectively.

(1) a.

Tomodati-ga	*hasit-te*	*heya-kara*	*de-ta.*	(Japanese)
friend-NOM	run-CONJ	room-from	move.out-PST	

“The friend ran out of the room.”

b. My friend ran out of the room. (English)

c.

A	*barát-om*	*ki-fut-ott*	*a*	*szobá-ból.*
the	friend-POSS.1SG.NOM	out.to-run-PST.3SG	the	room-ELA

“My friend ran out of the room.” (Hungarian)

Several studies on the L2 acquisition of motion descriptions have been conducted (see Section 2.2), but there are few studies that focus on more than one target L2 language. This is problematic because it is not possible to make conclusions regarding L1 influence without comparing more than one target L2 language with the same L1. In other words, there still remains a possibility that the observed properties are common in learner languages regardless of their L1.

Moreover, most of the previous studies have been dedicated to self-motion events, in which the moving object moves somewhere using his or her body autonomously, but we believe that more complex event descriptions will reveal learner properties in greater detail. Several studies on interlanguages since Selinker (1972) have shown that learners use simplified structures instead of complex ones, which is called “simplification,” and that complex structures are learned later than simple structures (Pienemann 1998). Moreover, learners tend to express fewer semantic components compared to native speakers, as we saw in our previous study (Yoshinari, Eguchi & Mano 2013; Yoshinari, Eguchi, Mano & Matsumoto 2016). Therefore, it is assumed that learners will use simple structures and express fewer semantic components when describing complex events, which is our target event in this study. Additionally, this study also aims to explore L1 influence on L2 acquisition.

We concentrate on native Japanese speakers’ acquisition of either English or Hungarian as their L2. As a result of the research, we suggest that the L1 influence is observed in the frequent use of deictic expressions and that the learners have a tendency to divide complex events and motions into simpler ones and express them using more basic structures.

2 Previous studies and remaining issues

2.1 The typology of motion event descriptions

There are at least four basic semantic components related to motion events: Figure, Ground, Manner, and Path, which are summarized in (2).

(2) a. Figure: the entity that moves
 b. Ground: the spatial reference entity of the motion
 c. Path: the trajectory of motion of a Figure
 d. Manner: the way that a Figure moves

As shown in Section 1, Talmy (1985, 1991, 2000) pointed out the typology of motion event descriptions based on the fact that languages differ in the way that they express the Path component. In English, Path is expressed by prepositional phrases or particles, i.e. “satellite” elements in Talmy’s terminology, as in (3a), rather than through the verb. Other Germanic languages such as German and Danish also have the same properties and are classified as S-languages. On the other hand, Romance languages such as Spanish and Italian express Path in the main verb as in (3b), so they are V-languages, as is Japanese (cf. (1a)).

(3) a. The bottle floated out (of the cave). (Talmy, 1985, p. 69)
 b. *La bottella salió de la cueva flotando.*
 the bottle went.out from the cave floating
 “(lit.) The bottle exited from the cave, floating.”

We focus on not only Path, but also other semantic components including Manner and Deixis and examine their frequency, because recent studies have noted their importance. Slobin (1996, 2000, 2004, 2006) focused on the prominence of the Manner component in each language in addition to Path, suggesting descriptions of Manner are influenced by the lexicalization patterns of the language. Several studies (Slobin 2000, 2004) pay attention to the frequency of each semantic component, because most languages have more than one of these types to describe motion events. In order to examine how languages differ in motion event descriptions, some studies employ the “frog story” (Berman & Slobin 1994; Ibarretxe-Antuñano 2004; Slobin 2004) or other illustrations including motion events (Inagaki 2001, 2003, 2004, 2010), and others use a video-based production experiment (Spring & Horie 2013; Yoshinari 2016). The differences between languages can be considered to exist in the frequency of each type. Although there are opposing viewpoints, we basically follow Talmy's (1985, 1991, 2000) typology and employ his terminology, "S-languages" and "V-languages," because our aim is not to elaborate the typology but to examine the acquisition of the motion event descriptions.

Deixis, which is one type of Path noted by Talmy (2000), expresses motions toward the speaker and away from the speaker, e.g. *go* and *come* in motion events. According to Matsumoto (2017) and Koga, Koloskova, Mizuno, and Aoki (2008), Deixis is suggested to have a special position in motion event descriptions in various languages. Korean, for example, has a special slot for Deixis and there is a slot specifically for deictic prefixes in German (Matsumoto 2017). In addition, Koga et al. (2008) pointed out that Japanese mentions Deixis more often than Russian (S-language), English, and German and tends to use deictic verbs. Likewise, Yoshinari et al. (2013, 2016) obtained the same results for Japanese through production experiments and encouraged further study of deictic Path. Therefore, we divide Path into "deictic Path" (simply called "Deixis") and "non-deictic Path" ("Path," henceforth) and analyze them separately in this study.

In addition to self-motion events, more complex motion events, such as caused motions, are also common. Caused motion events such as "putting event" have a simple motion event (movement of the Figure) and a causal event (e.g. Causer's agentive action "putting") as their sub-events, so they are considered more complex motion events than self-motion events. They usually allow more varieties of expressions than self-motions cross-linguistically (Goldberg 1995; Kopecka & Narasimhan 2012; Talmy 2000) and the extent to which one simple sentence can describe complex events also differs across languages.

English is well known for expressing complex motion events in one simple sentence with one verb, as in (4), but this is not always true for Japanese, as in (5). Therefore, Japanese learners may not be able to use the simple sentence structure to express complex events in English.

(4) a. She wiped the crumbs off the table onto the floor.
(Matsumoto, 1997, p. 156)
b. Sam carefully broke the eggs into the bowl. (Goldberg, 1995, p. 21)

(5) a. *Kanozyo-wa* *pankuzu-o* *teeburu-kara* *yuka-ni*
3SG.F-TOP crumb-ACC table-from floor-to
*{*hui-ta/ ??huki-otosi-ta}*.
wipe-PST/ wipe-drop-PST
"(lit.) She {wiped/wiped off} the crumbs from the table to the floor."

b. *Samu-wa* *tyuuibukaku* *booru-ni* *tamago-o* *{*wat-ta/*
Sam-TOP carefully bowl-to egg-ACC break-PST/
wari-ire-ta}.
break-put.in-PST
"(lit.) Sam carefully {broke/broke in} the eggs into the bowl."

Several verbs that do not originally express motion events can be used in English to express caused motion events, such as *allow, ask, call, let, invite*, etc. (Matsumoto, 1997: 157), as shown in (6). These sentences express motion events caused by indirect causes.

(6) a. Sam asked John into the room.
b. The policeman waved the people away.
c. He called Mary into the room.

Our target event is a "call-induced motion event" described in (6c) that includes two sub-events: one is a calling event (we call it a "causal event" henceforth) wherein somebody calls someone to come and the other is a "motion event" that is caused by the calling event. This "call-induced motion event" is a complex event in that it can include several semantic components: Cause, Manner, Path, Deixis, Causer, Causee (Figure of motion), and Ground. The description patterns differ among languages, as Matsumoto, Akita, Eguchi, Kahumburu, Mano, Morita, and Takahashi (2015) found.[1] Therefore, its verbalization is considered to be difficult for L2 learners. We can predict that they will try to describe the complex event by using several strategies and various description patterns, which will clarify the structural features of learner languages.

2.2 Motion event descriptions in L2 and present issues

Several L2 acquisition studies have been conducted on motion event descriptions and most of the studies are based on Talmy's (1985) typology shown in 2.1 and Slobin's (1996) 'thinking for speaking' theory, which maintains that the speakers' L1 coding patterns learned in their childhood influence restructuring in adult L2 acquisition. Many problems remain unsolved, however.

One problem is related to the methodology. Many subsequent studies have examined L2 output from learners whose L1s are of different types from Talmy's

1 Matsumoto et al. (2015) suggested relative independence of causation and motion events as crucial, because complex constructions tend to be used for verbal causation, while simplex construction is used for manipulative causation across different language types.

typology and these studies are either unidirectional or bidirectional dealing with one native language and one target L2 language of a different type (e.g. L1 Japanese and L2 English), or two L1s and two L2s (e.g. L1 Japanese and English and L2 English and Japanese), respectively. They verify the 'thinking for speaking' theory by confirming the L1 transfer in motion event description patterns by the learners (Brown & Gullberg 2011; Cadierno 2004; Cadierno & Lund 2004; Cadierno & Ruiz 2006; Hendriks & Hickmann,2011; Iakovleva 2012; Inagaki 2001; Montrul 2001; Navarro & Nicoladis 2005; Stam 2006). Since those studies dealt with one native language group learning one target L2, it cannot be definitely concluded that the characteristics of the learner languages are caused by the L1 transfer. There still remains a possibility that they are characteristics of learners' interlanguages (Selinker 1972).

Recently, some studies that examine one target L2 language learned by groups of two different L1 languages have emerged (Cadierno 2010; Cadierno & Robinson 2009; Jessen & Cadierno 2013), revealing L1 influence more conclusively. For instance, Cadierno & Robinson (2009) examine motion event descriptions in L2 English by Japanese (V-language) and Danish (S-language) learners and show that Danish learners' description patterns more closely resemble those of native speakers of English as compared to Japanese learners. This confirms the presence of L1 influence on motion event descriptions. Still, there seem to be few studies that compare the learners' expressions in more than two target L2 languages with one L1, but such studies are indispensable to distinguish the L1 influence from general characteristics of learner languages.

The second problem concerns the target language, because a majority of studies are on European languages such as English, Danish, Spanish, or French (V-language). Although there are a few studies on Japanese learners, their target language is also limited to English. Inagaki (2001, 2003, 2004, 2010) showed that L1 influence is observed when an argument structure in the L2 constitutes a subset of its counterpart in the L1 using a grammaticality judgment task with pictures (to Japanese learners of English and English learners of Japanese in Inagaki 2001). Since Japanese and English differ with regard to whether Manner verbs can appear with a goal phrase or not, Inagaki hypothesized that Japanese learners would learn the structure allowed in English from positive evidence, but English learners would have difficulty learning the ungrammaticality of the structure in Japanese without input. It remains unclear, however, whether this difference will be observed in output. Spring and Horie (2013) conducted a production experiment on Japanese and Chinese (equipollently-framed language[2]

2 Slobin (2004) added one more type, "equipollently-framed languages," in order to account for the languages (such as Chinese and Thai) that have serial verb constructions.

in Slobin 2004) learners of English (L2) and showed that Chinese learners use more S-language-type expressions than Japanese learners because they use more Manner verbs in their native language, Chinese, than do Japanese. These studies suggest L1 influence, but as we pointed out above, it is necessary to consider more target L2 languages.

The third problem concerns the target event, as most of the previous studies of motion event descriptions in L2 only examine self-motion events. As pointed out in the previous section, caused motion events that include more semantic components will show us more characteristics of learner languages. Moreover, there are few SLA studies that focus on deictic expressions in motion event descriptions except for Yoshinari et al. (2013, 2016), though Deixis seems to behave uniquely compared to non-deictic Path.

To conclude, previous studies have confirmed the L1 effect in motion event descriptions by L2 learners, but there are limited studies examining the common problems that learners of different L1 backgrounds share. In order to shed light on these remaining problems, this study focuses on two target languages, English and Hungarian, as it is necessary to compare more than one target language to confirm the influence of the L1. We examine three semantic components (Path, Manner, and Deixis) by using a complex "call-induced motion event," as it is also important to examine more complex caused motion events to comprehend learner strategies.

2.3 Features of the three languages

In this section we explain the basic information and features of motion expressions in the three languages: English, Hungarian, and Japanese.

2.3.1 English

English (S-language) conflates motion and its Manner in the main verb and Path is expressed by particles that accompany the verb like "*He ran out,*" or prepositional phrases like "*She walked into the room.*"

English has several forms to express the semantic components of motion events, such as verbs, adverbs, prepositions, and particles. As path verbs (e.g. *enter, climb*) and deictic verbs (e.g. *go, come*) can also achieve the main verb slot, either of them can fulfil that slot. English speakers favour more verbs of motion encoding Manner in the main verb, which is an S-language-specific pattern (Akita, Matsumoto & Ohara 2010; Berman & Slobin 1994; Hendriks & Hickmann 2011), as in (7a). Deixis tends to be expressed with prepositional phrases, as in (7b).

(7) a. John ran into the room.
    b. John ran into the room towards me.

Typically, motion events are described in a simple sentence like (8), regardless of self-motions (8a) and caused motions (8b).

(8) a. John walked into the living room from the kitchen.
    b. John kicked the ball into the goal.

2.3.2 Hungarian

Hungarian is a member of the Finno-Ugric language family and classified as an agglutinative language, i.e. grammatical functions are expressed by case affixes. The word order is flexible in general, but there are strict rules based on information structure: the focused element must be placed in front of the verb, allowing the order of the other elements to be relatively free, as in (9).

(9) a. *Erika* *a* *bank-ba* *ment.*
    Erica.NOM the bank-ILL go.PST.3SG
    "Erica went to the bank." (=The place where Erica went to is the bank.)
  b. *A* *bank-ba* *Erika* *ment.*
    the bank-ILL Erica.NOM go.PST.3SG
    "Erica went to the bank." (=The person who went to the bank is Erica.)

The position of the preverb in neutral sentences (i.e. without focused elements) differs from that of sentences with focused elements. In the former case, the preverb usually precedes the verb, as shown in (10a) and the arguments of the verb follow the verb. In the latter case, however, the focused element occupies the preverbal position and the preverb follows the verb, as in (10b).

(10) a. *Erika* *be-ment* *a* *szobá-ba.*
    Erica.NOM into-go.PST.3SG the room-ILL
    "Erica went into the room."
  b. *A* *szobá-ba* *Erika* *ment* *be.*
    the room-ILL Erica.NOM go.PST.3SG into
    "Erica went into the room." (=The person who went into the room is Erica.)

Hungarian (S-language) encodes Path in "satellite" elements: preverbs, adverbs, case affixes, and postpositions. Hungarian can also describe motion events like self-motions (11a) and caused motions (11b) in a simple sentence, like English. It is notable that all of these sentences share the same form of the "satellite" element that encodes Path.

(11)	a.	*Erika*	*be-fut-ott*	*a*	*szobá-ba.*			
		Erica.NOM	into-run-PST.3SG	the	room-ILL			
			Path-Manner(Main V)		Path			
		"Erica ran into the room."						
	b.	*Erika*	*be-rúg-ta*	*a*	*labdá-t*	*a*	*kapu-ba.*	
		Erica.NOM	into-kick-PST.3SG.DEF	the	ball-ACC	the	goal-ILL	
			Path-Cause(Main V)				Path	
		"Erica kicked the ball into the goal."						

An important difference compared to English is that Hungarian often expresses Path in more than one slot, as shown in (11a). We call this a "double marking" of the same Path element.

(12)	*Erika*	*a*	*szobá-ba*	*fut-ott.*
	Erica.NOM	the	room-ILL	run-PST.3SG
			Path	Manner(Main V)
	"Erica ran (in)to the room."			

The difference between (11a) and (12) is that the sentence with a preverb, (11a), means the Figure moved inside the room, but this is not necessarily the case in (12). The illative case affix *-bA*[3] takes a closed space as its Ground and in many cases it implies a motion inside of the space. It is important that in Hungarian, each case affix referring to Path (i.e. source FROM, goal TO) should also express positional relations with a particular shape of the Ground, e.g. *-bA* (IN.TO), *-rA* (ON.TO), *-hVz* (AT.TO). The Ground in (12) is a room, which is a closed space, so *-bA* is appropriate, but not *-hVz*.

Hungarian has deictic verbs, such as *megy* 'go,' *jön* 'come,' *visz* 'take,' and *hoz* 'bring' that can be used as head verbs in a sentence, and either Manner or Deixis can occupy this position. Contrary to English, deictic verbs are more often used as a main verb for the description of walking events in Hungarian (Matsumoto 2014),

3 Hungarian words can be divided into three types according to the vowels they contain: front, back, and mixed vowel words. They often receive endings as an agglutinative language. Most of these endings have two or more forms so that the vowel of the affix must harmonize with the vowels of the word it is added to. In this article, A indicates that it has two allomorphs: e/a and V indicates that it has three allomorphs: o/ö/e.

as shown in (13–14). In this case, Manner is not expressed. This is a remarkable difference between English and Hungarian.

(13)	*Erika*	*fel-jött*	*a*	*lépcső-n.*
	Erica.NOM	up-come.PST.3SG	the	stairs-SUP
		Path-Deixis(Main V)		

“Erica came up the stairs.”

(14)	*Erika*	*be-vitte*	*a*	*szék-et*	*a*	*szobá-ba.*
	Erica.NOM	into-take.PST.3SG.DEF	the	chair-ACC	the	room-ILL
		Path-Deixis(MainV)				Path

“Erica took the chair into the room.”

Furthermore, Hungarian has various ways to express Deixis other than verbs; it can be expressed doubly and trebly using preverbs (*ide-* ‘hither,’ *oda-* ‘thither’), adverbs (*ide* ‘hither,’ *oda* ‘thither’), case affixes for the first person, and postpositions (*hozzá-m* ‘to me,’ *felé-m* ‘toward me’), as shown in (15).

(15)	*Erika*	*fel-jött*	*ide*	*hozzá-m*	*a*	*lépcső-n.*
	Erica.NOM	up-come.PST.3SG	hither	ALL-1SG	the	stairs-SUP
		Path-Deixis(Main V)	Deixis	Deixis		

“(lit.) Erica came up the stairs hither to me.”

2.3.3 Japanese

Japanese is an agglutinative language and the word order is normally subject-object-verb with particles marking the grammatical function. Japanese (V-language) typically encodes Path in the main verb. In the case of self-motion events, Path is typically coded in the main verb and the Manner in the subordinate form as shown in (16a), as it is for most caused motion events, as in (16b).

(16)	a.	*Zyon-ga*	*[hasit-te]*	*heya-ni*	*hait-ta.*
		John-NOM	run-CONJ	room-to	enter-PST
			Manner	Path	Path(Main V)

“John entered the room running.”

	b.	*Zyon-ga*	*heya-ni*	*booru-o*	*nage-ire-ta.*
		John-NOM	room-to	ball-ACC	throw-put.in-PST
			Path		Cause-Path(Main V)

“John threw the ball into the room.”

Japanese expresses semantic components of motion events using verbs, adverbs, locative nouns, and postpositional particles. Japanese has many ways of expressing motion through verbs. In the head position, not only simple verbs are used (e.g. *hasiru* 'run,' *hairu* 'enter,' *kuru* 'come'), but also combined forms such as compound verbs (e.g. *kake-agaru* [run-ascend] 'run up'), and complex predicates including the *-te* participial form like *hasit-te hairu* [run-CONJ enter] 'run into.' In the head-external position, the verb is used as a subordinate form (*-nagara* participial form as in *aruki-nagara* 'walking' and *-te* participial form as in *aruite* 'walking').

Sentences describing motion events are generally composed of one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses in brackets like (16a). One of the specific features of motion expressions in Japanese is that they almost invariably encode Deixis. Japanese has the main verb slot reserved for deictic information and tends to encode it frequently (Koga et al. 2008), although it is not an obligatory element. Yoshinari (2014) argued that L1 Japanese speakers preferred to encode Deixis in the final head verb of complex predicates in describing motion events, as in (17).

(17)	*Zyon-ga*	*hasit-te*	*heya-ni*	*hait-te*	*ki-ta*.
	John-NOM	run-CONJ	room-to	enter-CONJ	come-PST
		Manner	Path	Path	Deixis(Main V)

"John came into the room running."

2.3.4 Summary and descriptions of our target event

Table 1 summarizes the features of the three languages, highlighting the typical constituent(s) in which each language expresses semantic components of a motion event.

Table 1: Summary of the features in motion event descriptions.

Language / Semantic component	Typical constituent(s) to describe each component		
	Japanese (V-language)	**English (S-language)**	**Hungarian (S-language)**
Manner (the way that a Figure moves)	CONJ V	**Main V**	**Main V**
Path: non-deictic Path (the trajectory of motion of a Figure)	**Main V**	PP, particle	PV, Case affix, PP
Deixis: deictic Path (the trajectory of motion of a Figure toward/away from the speaker)	**Main V**	PP	PV, Case affix, PP

It should be noted that all of the three languages have three types of constructions to express the "call-induced motion event": a simple sentence as in (18a–20a), a complex sentence (the subordinate clause in brackets) as in (18b–20b) and a coordinate sentence as in (18c–20c).

(18) English
a. A friend called Maria into the pavilion.
b. My friend walked into the pavilion [when called].
c. My friend called Maria and she walked into the room.

(19) Hungarian

a.
A	*barát-om*	*be-hív-ta*
the	friend-POSS.1SG.NOM	into-call-PST.3SG.DEF

Máriá-t	*a*	*szobá-ba*.
Maria-ACC	the	room-ILL

"My friend called Maria into the room."

b.
A	*barát-om*	*ki-szól*	*Máriá-nak*
the	friend-POSS.1SG.NOM	out.to-call.3SG	Maria-DAT

[aki	*be-jön]*.
who.NOM	into-come.3SG

"(lit.) My friend calls out to Maria, who comes in."

c.
A	*barát-om*	*hív-ta*
the	friend-POSS.1SG.NOM	call-PST.3SG.DEF

Máriá-t	*és*	*Mária*	*be-ment*	*a*	*szobá-ba*.
Maria-ACC	and	Maria.NOM	into-go.PST.3SG	the	room-ILL

"My friend called Maria and Maria went into the room."

(20) Japanese

a.
Tomodati-ga	*Maria-o*	*heya-ni*	*yobi-ire-ta*.
friend-NOM	Maria-ACC	room-to	call-put.in-PST

"The friend called Maria into the room."

b.
Maria-ga	*[tomodati-ni*	*yob-are-te],*	*heya-ni*	*hait-ta*.
Maria-NOM	friend-by	call-PASS-CONJ	room-to	enter-PST

"Maria entered the room when called by her friend."

c.
Tomodati-ga	*Maria-o*	*yon-de,*	*Maria-wa*
friend-NOM	Maria-ACC	call-CONJ	Maria-TOP

heya-ni	*hait-ta*.
room-to	enter-PST

"The friend called Maria and Maria entered the room."

By analyzing the call-induced motion event descriptions in learner data, this study aims to examine the presence or absence of L1 influence on L2 learners and explore the properties of learner languages.

3 Research design and methodology

The present study adopts a production experiment using video clips as the stimuli, in order to see and compare the frequent description patterns in each L1 and L2 language.

3.1 Method

The data was gathered using a video-based experiment.[4] The participants individually watched 52 clips of various motion events including not only call-induced motions but also self-motions and other caused motions on a computer screen in a quiet room. The length of each audiovisual clip was between two to eight seconds.

The participants were asked to imagine that they were located in the scene and to verbally describe what they had seen. There was no time limit and they could start and pause the clip by clicking the button on the screen. They were allowed to watch a clip as many times as they wanted, but once they had moved on to the next clip, they could not return to the previous clip. After each clip, the participants told the experimenter what they had seen and their utterances were recorded and subsequently transcribed for analysis. All the instructions were shown on the screen in the target language.

The process of data coding was based on the specific criterion for comparison of various languages as described in Section 3.4.

4 The data for this research were gathered using the video stimuli from a collaborative research project of the National Institute for Japanese Language and Linguistics under the title "Japanese and Typology of Linguistic Expressions for Motion Events: A Cross-linguistic Experimental Study with a Focus on Deixis (Yo Matsumoto, project leader)." We owe all L1 data to the project members. The investigators of each L1 data are as follows: E-L1 (Kimi Akita, Yo Matsumoto, and Miho Mano), J-L1 (Hiroaki Koga and Yuko Yoshinari), H-L1 (Kiyoko Eguchi). L2 data were gathered by the authors using the same stimuli as a part of the project: E-L2 (Miho Mano) and H-L2 (Kiyoko Eguchi).

3.2 Participants

Five groups of participants took part in the present study: native speakers of Japanese (J-L1), English (E-L1) and Hungarian (H-L1), and Japanese learners of English as L2 (E-L2) and Hungarian as L2 (H-L2). Each group consisted of 15 participants, whose attributions are summarized in Table 2. The J-L1 and E-L1 data were obtained from undergraduate and graduate students in Japan and the U.S. and the U.K. The H-L1 data was gathered from adult L1 speakers in Hungary. The E-L2 and H-L2 data were also from undergraduate and graduate students studying English and Hungarian, respectively, at Japanese universities.

Table 2: Attributions of the participants.

Language / Group attribution		Japanese	English		Hungarian	
		J-L1	E-L1	E-L2	H-L1	H-L2
sex	M	6	6	8	7	4
	F	9	9	7	8	11
age		20's–50's	20's	18–20's	20's–60's	20's
language proficiency		(native)	(native)	intermediate[1]	(native)	intermediate

[1] The language proficiency of the L2 learners was evaluated by the authors (English by Mano and Hungarian by Eguchi) as B1 according to CEFR, i.e. intermediate level, since all of the learners were students attending English language classes taught by Mano, or Hungarian language classes taught by Eguchi.

3.3 Materials

We analyzed the data of three call-induced motion events in which a woman called her friend (Maria) by her name and she walked into a pavilion. Here, the Manner is "walking" and the Path is "into." There are three video clips that are different in the deictic directions: "toward the speaker (Twrd S)", "away from the speaker (Awyfrm S)," and "neutral (Neu)", wherein the viewpoint was from a neutral position, as shown in Figure 1. Clip (A) is the scene toward the speaker (/Twrd S/). It shows a woman in the pavilion where the camera (speaker) is. The woman calls Maria in the pavilion and Maria then enters, coming towards the camera. In Clip (B), the scene away from the speaker (/Awyfrm S/), the camera (speaker) is outside the pavilion and it films the acting from where Maria started, outside the pavilion. She walks away when called by a woman inside the pavilion. In Clip (C), the neutral scene (/Neu/), the camera is in front of the pavilion and films Maria walking by.

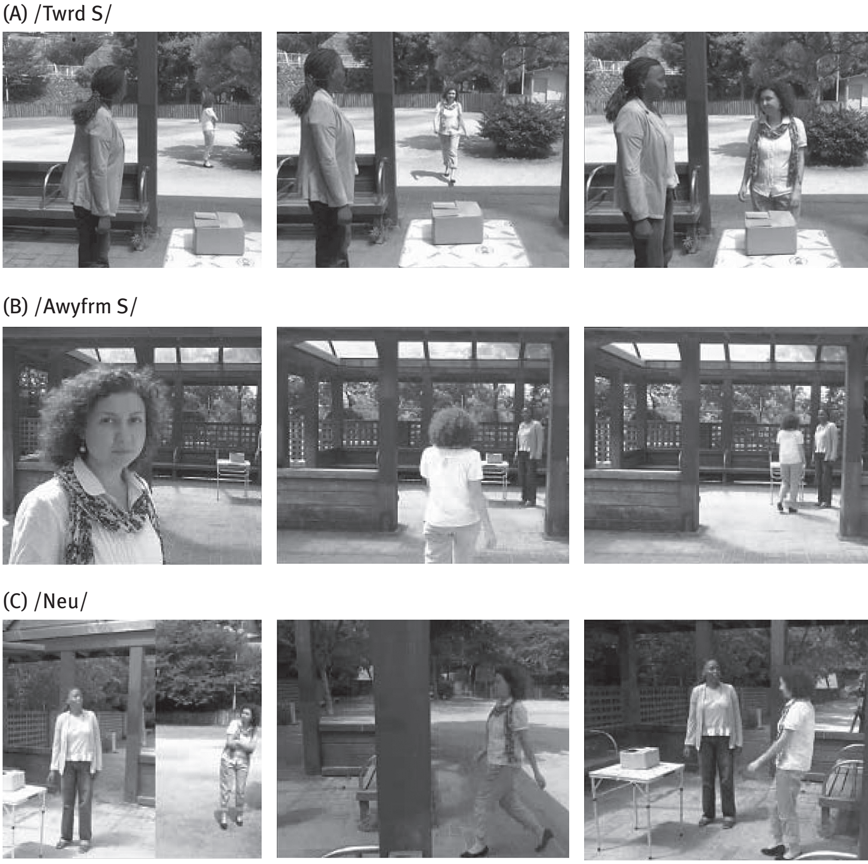

Figure 1: Sample scenes of the video clips for the “call-induced motion events”.

3.4 Coding

We analyzed and coded the data in three levels: the event level, the sentence structure level, and the semantic component level. First, in the event level, we examined what sub-event(s) was/were described, i.e. the causal event (Cause) and/or the motion event (Motion). For example, (21a) mentions both sub-events, but (21b) and (21c) only mention Cause or Motion, respectively. Each sentence was divided into these three types and we calculated the ratio of each pattern.

(21) a. My friend calls Maria and Maria walks into the building. (Cause and Motion)
b. She is calling Maria. (Cause only)
c. Maria walked into the pavilion past me. (Motion only)

Next, we also considered the sentence structure of the sentences that mention both sub-events, i.e. Cause and Motion, to see how the speaker describes two sub-events in one sentence and calculated the ratio of each structure. Since each language allows the three types of sentence structures for a description of call-induced motion events, the output was divided into simple sentence, complex sentence and coordinate sentence, as shown in (22–24a–c), respectively. The following examples are from the L1 groups and show samples of the coding.

(22) a. My friend called Maria into the pavilion. (E-L1)
Cause Path

b. Maria walked into the pavilion [when called].
Manner Path Cause

c. My friend calls Maria from inside the pavilion, and she
Cause Path
goes inside.
Deixis Path

(23) a. *A barártnő-m be-hív-ja*
the friend.F-POSS.1SG.NOM into-call-3SG.DEF
Path-Cause
Máriá-t a pihenőhely-re. (H-L1)
Maria-ACC the pavilion-SUB
Path
"My friend called Maria into the pavilion."

b. *A barátnő-m be-hív-ta*
the friend.F-POSS.1SG.NOM into-call-3SG.DEF
Path-Cause
Máriá-t a pihenőhely-re, [aki
Maria-ACC the pavilion-SUB who.NOM
Path
be-sétál-t].
into-walk-PST.3SG
Path-Manner
"My friend called Maria into the pavilion, who walked in."

c. *Egyik barátnő-m hív-ta*
One.of friend.F-POSS.1SG.NOM call-PST.3SG.DEF
Cause
a másik-at és be-jött hozzá-nk.
the another-ACC and into-come.PST.3SG ALL-1PL
Path-Deixis Deixis
"(lit.) One of my friend called the other one and came in to us."

(24) a. *Maria-ga* *yuuzin-ni* *yob-are-te* *kyuukeisyo-ni*
Maria-NOM friend-DAT call-PASS-CONJ pavilion-to
Cause Path
hait-te *it-ta.* (J-L1)
enter-CONJ go-PST
Path Deixis
"Maria was called by her friend and went into the pavilion."

b. *[Yob-are-ta]* *tomodati-wa* *kyuukeisyo-ni* *hait-te*
call-PASS-PST friend-TOP pavilion-to enter-CONJ
Cause Path Path
ki-ta.
come-PST
Deixis
"The friend who was called came into the pavilion."

c. *Yuuzin-ga* *Maria-o* *yobu-to,* *Maria-wa*
friend-NOM Maria-ACC call-then Maria-TOP
Cause
yukkuri *yuuzin-no* *moto-ni* *arui-te* *it-ta.*
slowly friend-GEN place-to walk-CONJ go-PST
Path Manner Deixis
"A friend called Maria and Maria walked to the friend slowly."

Lastly, we provided a detailed analysis of each constituent, looking at which elements express the semantic components of events (i.e. Cause, Manner, Path, and Deixis), as shown in (22–24), and their types such as Path(into) or Path(to).

It should be noted that the L2 data included ungrammatical sentences and they were also analyzed and coded in consultation with the three co-authors. For example, the sentence in (25a) from E-L2 is analyzed to refer to only the causal event and to describe it in a simple sentence and the sentence in (25b) from H-L2 is analyzed to refer to both sub-events in a coordinate sentence.

(25) a. *My friend, Maria, is said by another friend of mine. (E-L2)
Cause
"(intended) My friend, Maria, is called by my other friend."

b. **Egy* *nő* *fel-hív-ott*[5] *a* *másik*
a woman.NOM up-call-PST.3SG the another
Path-Cause

5 Though the preverb, *fel*, is inappropriate to express this calling event, some of the learners use it. It is assumed that they remember *fel-hiv* as a set of the expression, because the phrase is frequently used to express "to phone-call."

lány-t	*és*	*ő*	*jött*	*hozzá.*	(H-L2)
girl-ACC	and	3SG.NOM	come.PST.3SG	ALL.3SG	
			Deixis	Path	

"(lit.) A woman called up another girl and she came to her."

The coded data was used to calculate the frequencies and average reference ratio in the three levels and then statistical analysis (chi-squared test and residual analysis) was used to see the differences among the groups, which will be discussed in the next section.

4 Results

4.1 Sub-events

First, we examined to what extent each group referred to each sub-event of the complex event. Speakers may describe both of the sub-events or only a part of the event without mentioning all of the sub-events, as explained in the previous section (see (21)). All the utterances were divided into three types, i.e. Cause only, Motion only, or Cause and Motion, depending on which sub-event (or both) was/were mentioned and then the ratio of each pattern in the utterance was obtained. The types observed in the three video clips (/Twrd S/, /Awyfrm S/, and /Neu/) did not show much difference, so we show the results as a whole. Figure 2 shows the reference to the sub-events by each L1 group and the difference can be seen even among L1 groups.

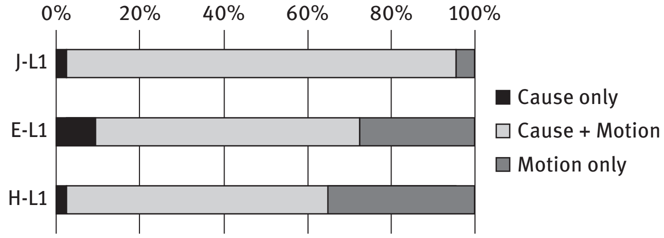

Figure 2: Reference to the sub-events in the L1 groups.

Since the result of the chi-square test showed a significant difference ($\chi 2 = 17.325$, $df = 4$, $p < .005$, $\varphi = .360$), residual analysis was conducted. It revealed that the J-L1 group described both sub-events more often than E-L1 and H-L1 ($p < .001$) and that H-L1 tended to express only the motion event ($p < .01$).

Next, we compared these results to the results of the L2 groups shown in Figure 3. However, no significant difference was observed (E-L1 and E-L2: χ2 = 3.246, df = 2, p = .197, φ = .191 / H-L1 and H-L2: χ2 = 4.002, df = 2, p = .135, φ = .212).

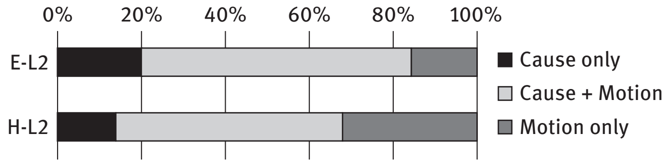

Figure 3: Reference to the sub-events in the L2 groups.

4.2 Sentence structures

Next, we examined the structures of the sentences that refer to both sub-events (Cause + Motion). Three types of structures were distinguished in each target language: simple sentence (Simple S), complex sentence (Complex S), and coordinate sentence (Coordinate S) (See (22–24) in Section 3.4). It should be noted that the sentences describing either of the sub-events, i.e. Motion only and Cause only, were excluded here because our aim is to see how each group describes the complex event with two sub-events. The sentence structures observed in the three video clips (/Twrd S/, /Awyfrm S/, and /Neu/) did not show much difference, so we show the results as a whole. Figure 4 shows that each L1 group uses different sentence structures to express the event.

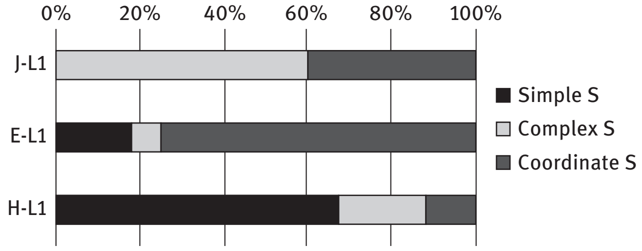

Figure 4: Sentence structures of L1 groups (Cause + Motion).

Here the chi-square test shows a significant difference (χ2 = 54.441, df = 4, p < .001, φ = .745) in the preferred sentence structure to describe an event by each L1 group. Residual analysis indicates that J-L1 significantly (p < .001) used complex sentences, English coordinate sentences (p < .001) and Hungarian simple sentences (*p* < .001). It is clear that each language has a preference for different sentence structures, even though all of the languages have the same structures as shown in (22–24).

Next, we compared the L1 groups to L2 groups. Figure 5 shows which sentence structures E-L1 and E-L2 groups use to express the event.

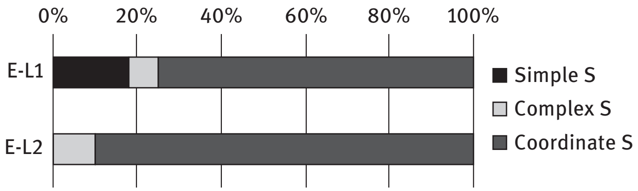

Figure 5: Sentence structures of E-L1 and E-L2 groups (Cause + Motion).

There was no significant difference between E-L1 and E-L2 ($\chi 2 = 5.716$, df =2, $p = .057$, $\varphi = 0.317$). It should be noted that no learner described both sub-events in a simple sentence. (26) shows examples observed in E-L2.

(26) a. She called Maria [to come to her]. (Complex S)
b. My friend called Maria and she came here. (Coordinate S)

On the other hand, a significant difference was observed between H-L1 and H-L2 ($\chi 2 = 24.806$, df = 2, $p < .001$, $\varphi = .691$), as can be easily seen in Figure 6.

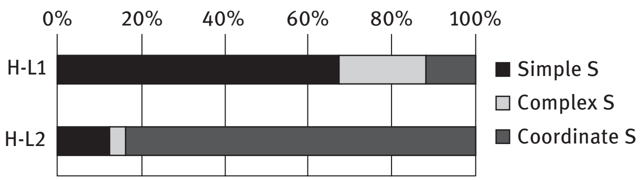

Figure 6: Sentence structures of H-L1 and H-L2 groups (Cause + Motion).

According to the results of residual analysis, H-L2 used coordinate structures as in (27b-c) more frequently than H-L1 ($p < .001$) and less simple sentences as in (27a) ($p < .001$).

(27) a. **Az egyik* *barátnő-m* *hív-ta*
the one.of friend.F-POSS.1SG.NOM call-PST.3SG.DEF
másik *barátnő-m-et* *a* *pihenőhely-re.*
another friend.F-POSS.1SG-ACC the pavilion-SUB
"(lit.) The one friend of mine called another friend of mine to the pavilion." (Simple S)

b. *Egy lány el-ment a másik
a girl.NOM away-go.PST.3SG the another
lány-hoz, [aki hív-ott ő-t]. (Complex S)
girl-ALL who.NOM call-PST.3SG 3SG-ACC
"(lit.) A girl went away to the girl who called her."

c. *Egy nő Máriá-t hív-ott és
a woman.NOM Maria-ACC call-PST.3SG and
Mária nő-hez megy (Coordinate S)
Maria.NOM woman-ALL go.3SG
"(lit.) A woman called Maria and Maria goes to woman."

These results show that although both target languages (English and Hungarian) have a simple sentence structure to express the complex event as shown in (22a) and (23a), respectively, the L2 learners rarely used it.

4.3 Semantic components of the event

This section focuses on the ratio of referring to each semantic component in all the motion events, whether the sentence refers to both or either of the sub-events. Figures 2 and 3 in Section 4.1 show to what extent each sub-event is mentioned. Yet, each sub-event includes several semantic components, particularly concerning the motion event, which involves Manner, Path, and Deixis. Some sentences mentioned all of the components, but others did not, as shown in (22–24). Since each video clip is designed to contain one Manner, one Path, and one Deixis, we can obtain the ratio of the reference examining whether the utterance mentions the component or not. It is essential to see how these semantic components were referred to in the data and whether there were different tendencies between the groups or not.

First, we examined descriptions of all three scenes, focusing on the three semantic components included in each scene: Manner (walking), Path (into), and Deixis (Twrd S, Awyfrm S). Figure 7 shows how L1 speakers refer to these components and we found a significant difference among the groups ($\chi2 = 17.648$, df = 4, $p < .01$, $\varphi = .285$).

Residual analysis indicated that E-L1 referred to Manner (walking) significantly more often than H-L1 and J-L1 ($p < .001$) whereas Deixis (Twrd S/ Awyfrm S) was mentioned less ($p < .01$). J-L1 significantly referred to Deixis ($p < .05$), which corresponds to the results of the previous studies on self-motions (Koga et al.

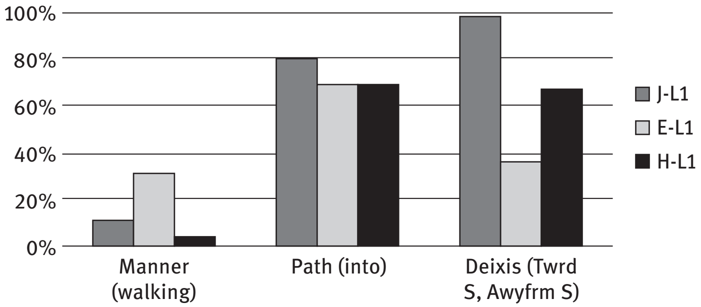

Figure 7: Reference to semantic components of motion event in L1 groups.

2008; Yoshinari et al. 2013, 2016). H-L1 significantly mentioned Manner less often ($p < 0.01$).[6]

Table 3 shows that salient differences in the learner languages are observed concerning Path (into) and Deixis. The comparison between L1 and L2 groups tells us significant differences (E-L1 and E-L2: $\chi 2 = 8.859$, df = 2, $p < .05$, $\varphi = .273$ / H-L1 and H-L2: $\chi 2 = 8.635$, df = 2, $p < .05$, $\varphi = .283$). As shown in Table 3 (significant differences observed in residual analysis are also shown there), the L2 learners of English and Hungarian tend to express less Path (into) and more Deixis than their corresponding L1 groups.

Table 3: Reference to semantic components in L2 groups.

component / group	Manner (walking)	Path (into)	Deixis (Twrd S, Awyfrm S)
E-L1	31%	69%*	36%**
E-L2	7%	27%*	73%**
H-L1	4%	69%*	67%**
H-L2	0%	27%*	78%**

Note: ** = $p < .01$, * = $p < .05$

(28–29) show examples of L2 data and they clearly refer to less semantic components than L1 groups, as shown in (22–24).

6 Yoshinari et al. (2013, 2016) on self-motion events pointed out that L1 Hungarian speakers do not refer to Manner when the Manner is the default motion “walking,” and the Manner of our target event is “walking.”

(28) a. Maria goes into the pavilion. (E-L2)

a.	Maria	goes	into the pavilion.
		Deixis	Path (into)

b. She calls Maria.

(29) (H-L2)

a.	*Mária*	*be-jött*	*a*	*pihenőhey-re.*
	Maria.NOM	into-come.PST.3SG	the	pavilion-SUB
		Path (into)-Deixis		Path (into)

"Maria came into the pavilion."

b.	*Egy*	*nő*	*ívta*	*Máriá-t.*
	a	woman.NOM	call-PST.3SG.DEF	Maria-ACC

"(lit.) A woman called Maria."

Next, we examine whether there are any differences in the three clips that differ in the deictic directions or not. J-L1 expresses Deixis very frequently in all three clips. E-L1 frequently refers to Deixis in /Twrd S/, but not so often in /Awyfrm S/. H-L1 expresses Deixis more frequently than E-L1 in all scenes, but not as frequently as J-L1. It is also clear that L2 groups tend to refer to Deixis more often than their corresponding L1 groups in all three clips. This leads to the result that the L2 learners of English and Hungarian tended to express more Deixis than their corresponding L1 groups. The reason why Japanese speakers refer to Deixis even in /Neu/ requires further verification.

4.4 Features of the learner language

It is noted that the L2 groups (E-L2 and H-L2) tended to refer to more Deixis compared to the corresponding L1 groups (E-L1 and H-L1) (see Table 3). However, we should consider how the learners express Deixis as there are structural variations to express the component in all three languages, as shown in Section 2.3, e.g. deictic verbs, pre-/postpositional phrases, and preverbs (Hungarian). Are there any structural characteristics in the learner language that are different from a native speaker's?

Figure 8 shows the structural variations in each group, that is, in which syntactic component Deixis is expressed. It is noteworthy that J-L1 always expressed deictic meaning in the verbal head (100%). E-L1 expressed it through the verb (75%) or the PP (20.8%) and H-L1 through the verb (60.5%) or the preverb (32.6%).

There was no significant difference observed between L1 and L2 groups (E-L1 and E-L2: $\chi 2 = 7.246$, df = 3, $p = .064$, $\varphi = .351$ / H-L1 and H-L2: $\chi 2 = 3.819$, df = 3, $p = .282$, $\varphi = .204$), but it should be noted that both L2 groups tended to mention the deictic meaning in the verb more often than the corresponding L1 groups, as can be seen in Figure 8. The fact that using deictic verbs leads to a decrease in the

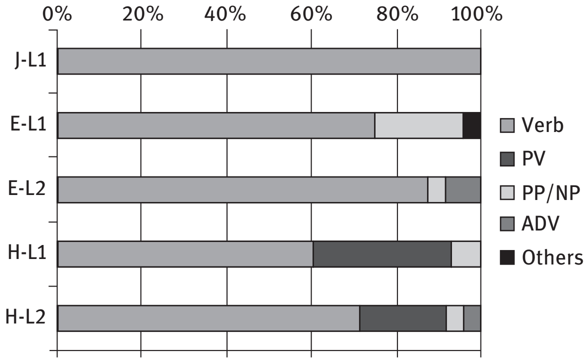

Figure 8: Position of encoding deixis in each group.

number of PPs, as in (30b), might be important for the learners to express motion events in one clause.

(30) a. My friend walked into the pavilion towards me.
b. My friend came into the pavilion.

While there were some sentences in L1 groups that included more than one Path PP in one clause (E-L1: 10 sentences, H-L1: 9 sentences), as in (31), only one sentence was found in E-L2, as in (32) and none in H-L2.

(31) a. Maria's friend calls to her from inside the pavilion and Maria comes into the pavilion up to [where we are]. (E-L1)

b. *A barátnő-m be-hív-ta a*
the friend.F-POSS.1SG.NOM into-call-PST.3SG.DEF the
másik barátnő-m-et a pihenőhely-re
another girl.friend-POSS.1SG-ACC the pavilion-SUB
a doboz mellé. (H-L1)
the box to.beside
"My friend called another friend into the pavilion beside the box."

(32) *Maria came to inside of pavilion from outside, because she was called. (E-L2)

Both L2 groups were significantly different with regard to the plural Path PPs in one sentence from the corresponding L1 groups in English and Hungarian. We should mention that J-L1 did not have any clause with more than one PP in our data.

One more remarkable feature observed in L2 languages is less indication of the semantic component, Path (into), as shown in Table 3. In E-L1, among the sentences that include “pavilion” as the Ground of the Path, 25 of them use the preposition *into,* as in (22), while only one uses *to*. On the other hand, in E-L2, *into* is used in only six cases. Instead, the learners use *to* in twelve sentences without mentioning the meaning "in", which leads to the less mentioning of Path(into). E-L2 also used *to* and *inside* in five sentences, most of which lead to inappropriate usages, as shown in (33).

(33) *My friend called Maria, so Maria comes to the inside of the pavilion. (E-L2)

With regard to Hungarian, H-L1 seemed to express the meaning “into,” in two syntactic positions; in 20 sentences out of 21 sentences that include “pavilion” as the Ground of the Path, the Path is expressed by both the preverb (*be-* in (31b)) and the case affix (*-re*[7] in (31b)) on the noun phrase (See also (23)). On the other hand, in H-L2, the number of sentences with the Ground, “pavilion,” was far less than H-L1, which was only nine. What is more remarkable is that the double marking (by the preverb and the case affix) was observed only in five sentences. (34) is an example of a single marking observed in H-L2. This leads to the low occurrence of the Path “into” in H-L2.

(34)

**A*	*egyik*	*barátnő-m*	*hív-ta*
the	one.of	friend.F-POSS.1SG.NOM	call-PST.3SG.DEF

másik	*barátnő-m-et*	*a*	*pihenőhely-<u>re</u>.*
another	friend.F-POSS.1SG-ACC	the	pavilion-SUB

“(lit.) One of my friend called my another friend into the pavilion.”

5 Discussion

5.1 Analysis

In Section 4, three salient characteristics of the learners’ language were observed. The first found that there was more reference to deictic components, especially in

7 It is usual to use the illative case affix *-bA* to express three dimensional grounds, while the sublative case affix *-rA* basically indicates ON.TO, as we have mentioned in Section 2.3.2. There are some exceptional, conventionally-defined rules, however, where *-rA* is used even though the ground is a three dimensional object, e.g. *pihenőhely-re*.

the main verb. The second was an increase of coordinate clauses and, lastly, there was less mentioning of the Path "into." Our assertion discussed in this section is that the first characteristic is caused by an L1 influence and the second and third characteristics are related to learners' properties.

It is plausible to attribute the coding frequency of the deictic component in L2 groups to L1 influence. J-L1 significantly expressed Deixis more often than E-L1 and H-L1, as shown in Table 3. It is also striking that all of the deictic components were coded by the verb in Japanese. Since both of the Japanese learners' groups (E-L2 and H-L2) showed significantly more indication of deictic components, especially through deictic verbs than corresponding L1 data (E-L1 and H-L1), though there was no significant difference, it is reasonable to claim that their native language, Japanese, influenced the coding patterns of the L2 groups. It is also important to note, however, that the learners did not always express the deictic component in the verb, but also used other elements, such as prepositional phrases in English and preverbs in Hungarian. This indicates that the learners are applying their L1 patterns inconsistently while learning the means to express Deixis in the target language. Furthermore, it should be noted that we also observed L1 influence on deictic expressions in the self-motions (Yoshinari et al. 2013, 2016). However, further research is required to uncover the contributing factors and the scope of this influence, with a focus on deictic expressions and other types of motion events.

Next, examining the increase of coordinate sentences along with their Path expressions in the learner languages (significantly in H-L2), we suggest that they indicate learner strategies to overcome difficulty in expressing complex events and motions. First, it is important to note that the increase of coordinate sentences in H-L2 is not caused by the L1 influence, as J-L1 rarely uses coordinate structures for the call-induced motion event, but rather subordinate clauses, as shown in Figure 4. Though E-L1 also uses coordinate structures frequently, looking at E-L2 and H-L2 together shows both learner groups tend to use this structure more often than corresponding L1 groups (see Figures 5 and 6). The coordinate structure allows them to avoid the complex structures with more than one Path element and to express all of the sub-events in more basic structures with two coordinated simple sentences. As pointed out in Section 4.4, only one simple sentence with more than one Path elements was observed in the E-L2 data, which supports the idea that it is the learners' strategy. It appears that learners are dividing the complex event into two simple sub-events and describing them in simple clauses and then they coordinate them.

The Path "into" also shows a similar strategy employed by the learners. As shown in Section 4.4, E-L2 often use two prepositions, *to* and *inside*, instead of *into*. We argue that this is a learner strategy. *Into* expresses complex meanings, including two meanings in one form: “to” and “in.” This complexity leads to learner difficulty. As in the case of the sentence structure discussed above, they divide the complex concept into simple ones. However, they seem to use a different way to express the Path element in a simpler structure when they express self-motions. According to Yoshinari et al.’s (2013, 2016) studies on self-motion events, Japanese learners of English use *to* instead of *into*, leaving the meaning “in” unmentioned.

H-L2 shows a different strategy, however. H-L2 learners did not divide the Path component into two elements, as shown in Section 4.4. Instead, they expressed it by only using the case affix. This contrasts sharply with H-L1, which expresses the Path component in more than one element, i.e. double or triple marking. In other words, the learners use simpler structures than native speakers. It should be noted that the case affixes for the Path “into” in Hungarian, e.g. *-rA*, consist of one morpheme, while *into* in English contains two morphemes: *in* and *to*. We suggest that these morphological properties of the two target languages led to the different learner ways to express these elements, but the underlying strategy is the same. The learners try to express complex notions by using the simple and basic structures that they are familiar with.

5.2 Implications and remaining issues

This experimental production study demonstrates that each language has several ways to express the same event, the call-induced motion event, but each has its own preference for the choice of the structures. Second language acquisition requires learners to know not only the possible structures, but also the preferred structure use in the target language.

What is more, the L2 learners have their own strategies (e.g. to use a simpler structure or to refer to fewer semantic components) and these tendencies are influenced by their L1 (i.e. Japanese learners of English and Hungarian refer to Deixis more often than corresponding L1 speakers). These results were achieved by comparing more than one target L2 language with the corresponding L1 data, focusing on complex call-induced motion events. These findings also support Slobin’s (1996) ‘thinking for speaking’ theory, showing that the speakers’ L1 coding patterns of the event influenced the description patterns in their L2, while we also confirmed the common properties observed in learners’ languages. Language teachers should be aware of these facts and the errors caused by these factors and tendencies. Particularly, motion event descriptions are one of the most basic constructions in language use. The findings of this research will contribute to teaching these key expressions to the learners with different language backgrounds, although further research involving more L1 and L2 languages is strongly awaited.

Since Talmy's (1985) research, there have been a considerable number of empirical studies on motion events, most of which focus on self-motion event descriptions. What seems to be lacking, however, is research on caused motion event descriptions. Caused motion events involve more semantic components than self-motion events, which means that there will be more varieties of structures in each language. For example, this study only focused on the call-induced motion event in which the Manner of the caused motion is limited to "walking," but it is still not clear how native speakers and learners describe the event if the Manner of motion is "running" or with different cause like "waving." More empirical studies are necessary to clarify the typology of motion event descriptions including caused motion events and the process of L2 acquisition of motion event descriptions.

It is also necessary to confirm whether language proficiency affects L2 event descriptions or not, since previous studies have suggested that the proficiency of the target language influences their motion event description patterns (Carrol & Lambert 2006; Carrol, Weimar, Flecken, Lambert & von Stutterheim 2012; Choi & Lantolf 2008), showing advanced learners use description patterns that resemble native speakers'. It is also necessary to confirm whether the L2 learners actually know all the sentence structures to express the call-induced motion events in the target languages and this could be achieved, for example, by having participants complete a grammatical judgment task after the experiment.[8] Furthermore, this study only addresses one L1 (Japanese) learner group and we should examine learners with different L1s in order to confirm the L1 influence in other aspects. The examination of the changes in L2 learner languages, including their errors, will also shed light on the process of second language acquisition.

It seems reasonable to conclude that understanding native speakers' coding patterns of complex events as well as learners' will be meaningful for language education and learning. This should facilitate instructors to assist students in learning the appropriate and natural verbalization patterns of the target language.

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8 One of the anonymous reviewers pointed out this possibility.

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Abbreviations: ACC = accusative; ADV = adverb; ALL = allative (case which indicates movement to or towards the referent); CONJ = conjunctive; DAT = dative; DEF = definite; ELA = elative (case which indicates movement from within the referent); F = female; GEN = genitive; ILL = illative (case which indicates movement into the referent); NOM = nominative; NP = noun phrase; PASS = passive; PL = plural; POSS = possessive; PP = pre-/post-positional phrase; PST = past; SG = singular; PV = preverb; SUB = sublative (case which indicates movement to the surface of the referent); SUP = supressive (case which indicates existence at the surface of the referent); TOP = topic; V = verb

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Takako Kondo and Tomohiko Shirahata

8 Explicit instruction on English verb structures in L2 classrooms

1 Introduction

The purpose of this study is to demonstrate that for adult Japanese learners of English (JLEs), explicit instruction on transitive and intransitive verb structures in English can be effective and the effects will continue at least for a certain period of time. Additionally, this study attempts to show that although adult JLEs initially transfer properties of transitive and intransitive verbs of their first language (L1), Japanese, they can understand properties of targeted English transitive and intransitive verbs more correctly than before by explicit instruction. In order to develop communicative competence in second language (L2), language learners need to have a variety of competence such as grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence. In this study, we examined L2 learners' linguistic knowledge and skills on verb subcategorizations and attempted to improve their grammatical competence by giving them explicit instruction. Therefore, this study can contribute to the elucidation of knowledge, skills and competence in foreign language education, as well as the clarification of usefulness of explicit instruction for grammatical knowledge that L2 learners are not familiar with.

Ellis (2010) classifies explicit instruction into four types depending on whether they are proactive or reactive and whether they are deductive or inductive. Following his classification, our method can be said to be "proactive deductive explicit instruction," in which metalinguistic explanations are provided orally by a teacher. He or she focuses on a specific linguistic item by showing and explaining specific features through using example sentences. Thus, this study will clarify that proactive deductive explicit instruction is useful for adult JLEs who can understand the content of a teacher's instruction.

One of the typical errors L2 learners, including JLEs, produce with English transitive and intransitive verb structures is shown in (1) (Ju 2000; Montrul 2000; Oshita 1997).

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(1) Typical errors of intransitive verbs
  a. *Tom happened the car accident.
  b. *The Pied Piper of Hamelin disappeared children.

These errors must be caused by the confusion of the usage of intransitive verbs with that of transitive verbs. In (1a), since the verb *happen* is an intransitive verb, it cannot be used in the DP (determiner phrase)-V(verb)-DP (determiner phrase) structure.[1] Thus, the correct usage of *happen* in this case is "The car accident happened." If you want to refer to the cause of the car accident, you have to change the verb. For instance, by using the verb *cause*, you may say "Tom caused the car accident." As for (1b), since the verb *disappear* is also an intransitive verb, the sentence is ungrammatical for the same reason. Thus, the correct usage of *disappear* is "Children disappeared." If you want to refer to the cause of the event, you can use the periphrastic causative construction, as in "The Pied Piper of Hamelin made children disappear."

The organization of this chapter is as follows: After the introduction, properties of English transitive and intransitive verbs are explained in Section 2. Then, in Section 3, characteristics of learning and teaching English in Japan are reviewed. In Section 4, effects of explicit instruction are discussed. Section 5 explores the possibility of L1 transfer. Then, in Section 6, the body of the present experiment is demonstrated. Results are shown in Section 7 and the discussion and conclusion follow.

2 English transitive and intransitive verbs

As shown in Figure 1, English verbs are classified into three types in accordance with transitivity and intransitivity distinctions: transitive verbs, intransitive verbs and verbs used as both transitive and intransitive verbs without changing their morphological forms (Kageyama 1996). Additionally, intransitive verbs are subcategorized into two types: unaccusative verbs and unergative verbs.

Typical examples of unaccusative verbs are *appear, arrive, happen, fall and disappear*, while examples of unergative verbs are *cough, laugh, run, swim and walk*. Although these two subclasses are both intransitive verbs and seem to have the same syntactic surface structure, Subject (DP)-Verb (e.g., *An accident happened*.), it is generally claimed in theoretical linguistics that they have different

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1 DP (determiner phrase) is a phrase which consists of a determiner (D) and a noun (N). Thus, for example, *the man* and *a girl* are DPs.

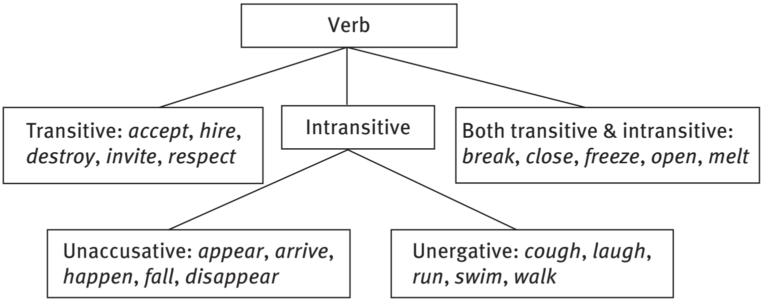

Figure 1: Classification of English verbs.

underlying syntactic representations. The sole argument (DP) of unaccusative verbs is a Theme or a Patient in the semantic meaning, as shown in (2a-b), and originates in the VP (verb phrase) and moves to the surface subject position to receive grammatical case (i.e. subjective case). On the other hand, the sole argument of unergative verbs is an Agent in its semantic role, as in (2c-d), and originally generates in the subject position in the argument structure, which indicates that there is no DP movement (Burzio 1986; Levin & Rappaport Hovav 1995; Perlmutter 1978). From these linguistic structure differences, intransitive verbs can be divided into two subcategories.

(2) Two types of intransitive verbs: unaccusative and unergative verbs
  a. The sun appeared from behind the clouds. (unaccusative verb)
  b. The accident happened. (unaccusative verb)
  c. The baby laughed. (unergative verb)
  d. The students swam for an hour. (unergative verb)

The idea that the single argument of unaccusative verbs originates in the VP and moves to the surface subject position in the syntax to receive Case is known as the Unaccusative Hypothesis (Burzio 1986; Perlmutter 1978). It has been found that L2 learners of English tend to have problems with unaccusative verbs, such as overgeneralization of passive structure and causative structure, but not with unergative verbs (Hirakawa 1995; Montrul 2000; Oshita 1997; Zobl 1989). Therefore, we will examine the effects of proactive deductive explicit instruction on university JLEs' erroneous interpretation related to unaccusative verbs.[2]

2 Although we will not deal with it in this chapter, there is another class of verbs which can be used as both the "Subject (DP)-V-Object (DP)" (transitive usage) and "Subject (DP)-V" structures

Let us look at the sentences in (3) (see also (1)). As we mentioned earlier, since verbs such as *appear, arrive, fall, happen and disappear* are unaccusative verbs, they cannot be used in the DP-V-DP structure. However, research has shown that many L2 learners including JLEs often overuse unaccusative verbs in the transitive structure, resulting in sentences similar to those shown in (3).

(3) Overuse of an unaccusative verb as a transitive verb (DP-V-DP)
   a. *The strong wind appeared the sun from behind the clouds.
   b. *The drunken driver happened the serious traffic accident.

We assume that JLEs produce these errors because they do not know the rules of English verb systems explicitly. This assumption is based upon the results of the questionnaires completed by the university JLEs participating in the experiment to examine whether they knew what the differences between transitive and intransitive verbs were. About 90% of the participants in this study indicated that they had little knowledge of the transitive and intransitive distinction.

Linguistic differences between transitive and intransitive structures are fundamental grammar rules, but unexpectedly, many JLEs do not know the rules regarding the difference, according to the results of our questionnaires. Many high school teachers may not teach the rules to their students. Also, there is a high possibility that some students may have forgotten the rules even though they were taught the rules in high school. As a result, many high school graduates enter university with little knowledge of the rules. These rules may not be regarded as important as other grammar rules, such as *to*-infinitives, present perfective and relative clauses. This can be evidenced from the fact that, as far as the researchers have analyzed, there is no clear grammatical explanation for the usages of transitive and intransitive verb differences in junior and senior high school English textbooks in Japan.

Thus, the results from our questionnaires showed that our participants did not explicitly know the linguistic difference between transitive and intransitive verbs. Furthermore, the lack of grammatical explanations with respect to the rules of these verbs from high school English teachers has led us to assume that once university JLEs are explicitly taught the linguistic rules, they can discern them,

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(intransitive usage) in the same lexical form as shown in (i). Verbs such as *break*, *close*, *freeze*, *open*, etc. are typical examples of this verb class.

(i) An example of verbs with both intransitive and transitive usages
   a. The boy broke the glass. (transitive)
   b. The glass broke. (intransitive)

promoting their understanding of the rules. The significance of explicit grammar instruction to university JLEs is to confirm and clarify the grammar rules they do not know well and to help them raise their consciousness, notice, and finally comprehend the grammar rules that they have not studied yet, or have forgotten. In the next section, we provide an overview of English education in Japan and consider some plausible factors causing the lack of grammatical knowledge mentioned above.

3 English instruction in Japan

In Japan, English education starts from junior high school, which means students start learning English when they are 13 years old.[3] This condition of learning and teaching English at school in Japan can be called 'foreign language environment' or 'acquisition poor environment,' which is different from that in the communities or countries where English is spoken. The main characteristics of the English education in Japan can be summarized in (4).

(4) Characteristics of learning and teaching English in Japan
  - (a) One teacher whose native language is Japanese teaches 30 to 40 students in a class at the same time.
  - (b) The number of English lessons (one lesson lasts 50 minutes) per week is limited, normally four lessons per week at junior high schools and four to five lessons at senior high schools and two lessons per week at universities.[4]
  - (c) Students have to learn new grammatical items one after another at junior and senior high schools.
  - (d) Because of the limited lesson hours and numerous new grammatical items introduced in each lesson, students hardly have a chance to revise and practice the same grammatical item again in following lessons.
  - (e) Although the students' proficiency levels in the same class widen over the years, teachers have to teach these "unbalanced" students together.

3 From the year 2011, although Japan introduced what we call "English activities" for primary school fifth and sixth graders, its purpose is to understand cultures of other countries and to enjoy communication using simple English expressions. However, English education at every public primary school will start for 5th and 6th graders on April 2020.

4 Each English lesson lasts 90 minutes at university and normally only university freshmen and sophomores take English lessons as one of their required subjects.

Different from primary school children, university students' cognitive abilities are at a higher level, such that they are able to understand teachers' explanations of complex grammar rules. Thus, we assume that proactive deductive explicit instruction must be a good teaching method for university JLEs who learn English under the conditions shown in (4).

According to Ellis (2008, 2010), explicit instruction involves encouraging learners to develop metalinguistic awareness of a rule being learned, whereas implicit instruction attempts to enable learners to infer a rule without awareness. In addition, he classified teaching methodologies of explicit instruction into four types by referring to two dimensions of explicit instruction: (i) deductive/inductive dimension and (ii) proactive/reactive dimension, as shown in Table 1 (see Ellis 2008, 2010 for more details about the four types of explicit instruction).

Table 1: Types of explicit instruction.

	Deductive	**Inductive**
Proactive	Metalinguistic explanation	Consciousness-raising tasks;
		Production-based and comprehension-based practice exercises
Reactive	Explicit correction	Repetition
	Metalinguistic feedback	Corrective recasts

Note Adapted from Ellis, 2010, p. 6

In the present study, the researchers adopted 'proactive deductive explicit instruction.' Namely, we used metalinguistic explanations in our treatment, focusing on a specific linguistic property by showing and explaining example sentences. As explained by Ellis (2010), although the metalinguistic explanations can be provided orally by the teacher or in written form, we combined them, giving students written explanations and explaining them orally.

The reason why we adopted proactive deductive explicit instruction for university JLEs in spite of the fact that they had already received plenty of instruction on English grammar in junior and senior high schools is due to the significance and advantages of proactive deductive explicit instruction, as shown in (5).

(5) Significance and advantages of proactive deductive explicit instruction:
  (a) Teachers can teach many learners at one time and give the same instruction to them.
  (b) Teachers can explain grammar rules which do not frequently appear in daily conversation, free writing, spoken data, or other production data.

(c) Since university students generally have high cognitive analytic abilities, they can understand the teacher's instruction without much difficulty.
(d) Teachers can have university JLEs notice and comprehend grammar rules which they did not fully study at junior and senior high schools, or have forgotten.

4 Effects of explicit instruction

Explicit instruction is not a new teaching method, as all language teachers have experience using explicit instruction at some time or another and in some form or another (Ellis 2010). It can also be said that every teaching method, from grammar translation to the current communication-oriented method, include explicit instruction techniques, although the degree of emphasis may vary. Some researchers insist that explicit instruction does not help, or is even harmful, as it detracts from time spent for other pedagogical exercises (Truscott 1996, 2007), but others claim that it should be effective (Andringa, de Glopper & Hacquebord 2011; Ferris 2004; Robinson 1996).[5]

Based on the discussion in Section 3, we believe that teaching grammar rules explicitly is the most efficient and effective way in university English classrooms in Japan with limited exposure to the target language. We take the position that explicitly learned grammatical knowledge becomes automated knowledge by practicing meaningful task activities, as suggested by Shirahata (2015). Figure 2 is a visual model of an L2 acquisition process we made (Kondo & Shirahata 2015a, 2015b), modified from "a model of second language acquisition" (Gass & Selinker 2001). We assume that explicit grammar instruction could enhance "noticing" and "comprehension" of the grammatical items. These two steps could be the first steps of L2 acquisition. It is difficult for L2 learners in foreign language environments to unconsciously internalize L2 grammatical rules, because unlike a second language learning environment, they are in an acquisition poor environment and so cannot experience very much language input (see Shirahata 2015 for more discussion). Thus, to redeem this lack of linguistic input, we believe that it is important to have L2 learners consciously notice and comprehend L2 grammar.

However, it is also important to remember that it is not always the case that even when teachers teach a grammar rule to their students, the students can quickly acquire it or raise their accuracy of that particular grammatical item. Research has

5 For detailed discussions and comprehensive research results concerning effects of instruction, see also Ellis (2008) and Gass, Behney & Plonsky (2013).

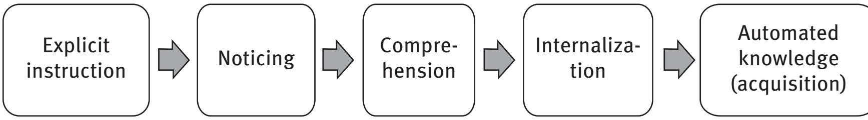

Figure 2: A model of L2 acquisition process focusing on the role of explicit instruction.

shown that, for L2 learners, what they are taught does not always lead to acquisition (Shirahata, Wakabayashi & Muranoi 2010). Instruction could be effective for some grammatical items, but not for others (Shibata, Shirahata & Taferner 2013; Shirahata 2008, 2015; Shirahata, Shibata & Taferner 2013a, 2013b). Shirahata (2015), for example, hypothesizes that teachers' instruction and also corrective feedback do not work well for those items which convey only grammatical features, such as grammatical morphemes: third person singular –*s*, plural markers for nouns, etc., while they work well for lexical and grammatical items, which include conveying semantic meanings, e.g., usage of conjunctions and the selection of sentential subjects.

If this hypothesis proposed by Shirahata (2015) is valid, explicit instruction toward erroneous usages of unaccusative verbs could be effective because the usages are relevant to semantic roles of the verbs. This is one of the reasons we believe that the proactive deductive explicit instruction should be effective for university JLEs, at least, effective to notice and comprehend what unaccusative verbs are. We would also like to claim that there is another advantage of explicit instruction for university JLEs studying English in the classroom settings. Since university students have high cognitive analytic abilities compared to children, they can understand the teacher's instruction without much difficulty. Along with the advantages in (5), explicit instruction should be a useful method in teaching grammar to university JLEs.

5 Possibility of L1 transfer

In this study, we will test five unaccusative verbs, namely *appear*, *arrive*, *happen*, *fall and disappear*. In Table 2, Japanese equivalents of these English verbs are compared.

The Japanese equivalent for *appear* is *arawareru* (intransitive verb). As Table 2 shows, *appear* is an intransitive verb and does not have a transitive counterpart in either English or Japanese. This is exemplified in the grammaticality of (6a) and (6c) and ungrammaticality of (6b) and (6d). In Japanese, we have an expression *sugata-o arawasu* (figure-Acc appear), which is seemingly a transitive verb, but it is categorized as an intransitive verb in that *sugata* "figure" always

Table 2: Comparison of transitivity and intransitivity in five verbs.

Intransitive		Transitive	
English	**Japanese**	**English**	**Japanese**
appear	*arawareru/sugata-o arawasu*	–	–
arrive	*tuku*	–	–
happen	*okoru*	–	*okosu*
fall	*ochiru*	–	*otosu*
disappear	*kieru/sugata-o kesu*	–	*kesu*

refers to the figure of the subject in the sentence, which means that it is a kind of reflexive form to emphasize the subject. According to *Meikyo Japanese Dictionary* (2010), transitive verb *arawasu* is solely used in the expression "Taro-ga sugata-o arawasu" (Taro-Nom figure-Acc appeared), which basically has the same meaning as intransitive verb *arawareru*. Thus, we assume that "Taro-ga sugata-o arawasu" has the syntactic structure of [$_{\text{DP}}$ Taro-ga] [$_{\text{Vi}}$ sugata-o arawasu], whose English equivalent is "Taro appears." Therefore, we conclude that Japanese does not have a morphologically similar transitive counterpart for *arawareru*.

(6) Usage of *appear* and *arawareru*
  a. A rabbit appeared from the box.
  b. *The magician appeared a rabbit from the box.
  c. Usagi-ga hako-kara arawareta
     rabbit-Nom box-from appeared
  d. *tejinashi-ga usagi-o hako-kara arawashita.
     magician-Nom rabbit-Acc box-from (appeared)

The Japanese equivalent of *arrive* is *tuku*. There is no morphologically alternate transitive form for it in Japanese. Neither English nor Japanese has the notion of making somebody arrive somewhere. Thus, no transitive verb exists in both languages, as (7a-d) show.

(7) Usage of *arrive* and *tuku*
  a. Mary arrived at the station.
  b. *Tom arrived Hanako at the station by car.
  c. Hanako-ga eki-ni tuita
     Hanako-Nom station-at arrived
  d. *Taro-ga kuruma-de Hanako-o eki-ni tukaseta
     Taro-Nom car-by Hanako-Acc station-at (arrived)

On the contrary, while *happen*, *fall and disappear* do not alternate in transitivity in English, they do in Japanese. See (8d), (9d) and (10d), respectively.

(8) Usage of *happen* and *okoru*/*okosu*
a. A car accident happened.
b. *Tom happened a car accident.
c. Jiko-ga okita.
accident-Nom happened
d. Tom-ga jiko-o okoshita
Tom-Nom accident-Acc happened

(9) Usage of *fall* and *ochiru*/*otosu*
a. The snow fell from the roof.
b. *Taro fell the snow from the roof.
c. Yuki-ga yane-kara ochita.
Yuki-Nom roof-from fell
d. Taro-ga yuki-o yane-kara otoshita
Taro-Nom snow-Acc roof-from dropped

(10) Usage of *disappear* and *kieru*/*kesu*
a. A tiger disappeared.
b. *The magician disappeared a tiger in front of the audience.
c. Tora-ga kieta.
tiger-Nom disappeared
d. Tejinashi-ga kankyaku-no menomaede tora-o keshita.
magician-Nom audience-Gen in front of tiger-Acc made disappear

Therefore, we predict that JLEs will easily reject the DP-V-DP structure of *appear* and *arrive*, but erroneously accept that of *happen*, *fall* and *disappear* due to the transfer of transitivity alternation from their L1.

6 Experiment

6.1 Predictions

Considering the discussions made in the previous sections, the following hypotheses were investigated in this study:

(11) Predictions for the study
   A. The accuracy rates of the DP-V-DP structure of *appear* and *arrive* will be higher than those of *happen*, *fall and disappear* for JLEs because of L1 transfer.
   B. After a series of instruction, however, the accuracy rates of the DP-V-DP structure of *happen*, *fall and disappear* will be higher because explicit instruction is effective.

6.2 Participants

Participants in the present study were 73 JLEs from three different universities in Japan. They were all undergraduate students and their general English proficiency levels were between elementary and intermediate according to the Oxford Quick Placement Test (2001) (mean score: 32.6 out of 60) and TOEIC scores (mean score: 380 out of 990). These participants were divided into two groups, (a) an experimental group who were going to receive explicit instruction (45 JLEs) and (b) a control group who were not going to receive any instruction (28 JLEs).[6]

6.3 Materials and procedures

The participants in both the experimental and control groups took a pre-test (grammaticality judgment task, GJT) a week before a series of explicit instruction. From the following week, all participants in the experimental group were provided with explicit instruction three times over a period of three weeks for approximately 25 minutes each. After the last session of instruction was provided, the participants in the experimental group were asked to take post-test 1 (an immediate post-test). Then, five weeks after the last session of explicit instruction, all the participants took post-test 2 (a delayed post-test).

6 We conducted the experiment (tests and instruction) as a part of English classes. The experimental group consisted of students from two English classes and the instructors for each class were different in order to demonstrate that the instruction we provided can be effective no matter who gives it. Furthermore, the control group comprised of students from one English class in another university. As a result, the groups became unequal in number. Since the purpose of having a control group in this study is to show whether L2 learners improve their accuracy after instruction while those without instruction do not, which means that the comparison is between pretest and posttests, not between groups, we assume that having an unequal number of participants in two groups does not pose any problems in this study.

In the explicit instruction, we explained to the participants which verbs were used transitively, intransitively, or both transitively and intransitively, using many example sentences such as (12) to (14).

(12) Example of transitive verb used in the experiment
   a. The earthquake <u>destroyed</u> the city. (DP-V-DP)
   b. *The city <u>destroyed</u>. (DP-V)

(13) Example of intransitive verb used in the experiment
   a. *Someone <u>disappeared</u> my keys. (DP-V-DP)
   b. Where are my keys? They <u>disappeared</u>. (DP-V)

(14) Example of alternating verb used in the experiment
   a. She <u>closed</u> the door. (DP-V-DP)
   b. This door <u>closed</u> (by itself). (DP-V)

For instance, for a transitive verb like *destroy*, we explained that it can be used in the DP-V-DP structure, as in (12a), but cannot be used in the DP-V structure, as in (12b), because a transitive verb always takes an object. By contrast, *disappear* is an intransitive verb, so it can be used only in the DP-V structure, as in (13b) and when it is used in the DP-V-DP structure, as in (13a), the sentence becomes ungrammatical since an intransitive verb does not take an object. Besides these, we explained that there is another type of verb which alternates in transitivity, i.e., verbs appearing in both the DP-V-DP and DP-V structures, as in (14a) and (14b), respectively.

Moreover, there are two points we emphasized in our instruction: The first point was the case particles in Japanese, such as nominative case –*ga* and accusative case –*o*. We added –*ga* and/or –*o* to nouns, as in “DP-ga kieru” (DP disappear) and “DP1-ga DP2-o kowasu” (DP1 destroy DP2) when translating target English verbs into Japanese. This is because we wanted to emphasize which verb was used intransitively and which verb was used transitively by expressing the existence of subjects and/or objects. The second point we emphasized was that subjects of intransitive verbs can be inanimate. For example, in a sentence, “The accident happened,” the subject of the sentence is “accident”, which is an inanimate noun. We emphasized that not only animate but also inanimate nouns can be sentential subjects and even when an inanimate noun is a sentential subject, it is not necessary to use the passive voice for many cases.

In order to examine whether explicit instruction we provided was effective for JLEs, we gave grammaticality judgment tasks to both groups. We tested five intransitive verbs as test items and five transitive verbs as distractors.

(15) Verbs tested in the experiment
 a. Intransitive verbs: *appear, arrive, disappear, fall, happen* (targeted verbs)
 b. Transitive verbs: *accept, destroy, hire, invite, respect* (distractors)

These 10 verbs were incorporated into the DP-V and DP-V-DP structures. Each verb appeared in two different grammatical sentences and two different ungrammatical sentences, which made 40 questions in total.

Each test item consisted of a context sentence written in Japanese and a target sentence written in English. The participants were asked to judge if the underlined part of a target sentence was grammatically correct or not. Examples of the test sentences are given in (16) and (17) below. These are test items examining an intransitive verb, *fall,* so the sentence is correct in the DP-V structure as in (16) and incorrect in the DP-V-DP structure as in (17).

(16) Grammatically correct test item
Context sentence: The leaves have turned red, but they were exposed to a strong wind last night and it has spoiled the leaves (written in Japanese).
Test sentence: <u>All the leaves fell</u> from the trees.

(17) Grammatically incorrect test item
Context sentence: Tom and Mary are going to try bungee jumping but Tom was too scared to jump so Mary pushed him from behind (written in Japanese).
Test sentence: <u>Mary fell Tom</u> from the cliff.

The pattern of grammaticality with two verb types, namely intransitive and transitive verbs, in two verb structures, namely DP-V and DP-V-DP structures, is summarized in Table 3. In this study, we examined the results of the intransitive verbs used in the DP-V and DP-V-DP structures.

Table 3: **Patterns of grammaticality.**

	Intransitive verbs	Transitive verbs
DP-V structure	Grammatical	Ungrammatical
DP-V-DP structure	Ungrammatical	Grammatical

In the three tests (pre-test, post-test 1 and post-test 2), the context and test sentences were slightly changed with the alteration of nouns and/or adverbs, but the degree of difficulty in the three tests was kept the same. The order of the questions was randomized and given that the test was printed on four pages (10 questions on each page), the same verb did not appear more than once on the same page. There was no time restriction, but the participants were not allowed to go back to the previous questions, so as to encourage them to draw on their intuition.

6.4 Data analyses

In this section, we will first show the overall group results. Then, we will analyze individual verb results on the DP-V and DP-V-DP structures of intransitive verbs. One point was awarded for a correct answer. Correct answers for the two structures are fundamentally different; as for the DP-V structure, since this is a grammatically correct structure for intransitive verbs, answering correctly means "accepting the structure as grammatical." On the other hand, for the DP-V-DP structure, since this is an ungrammatical structure with these verbs, answering correctly means "rejecting the structure as ungrammatical." Participants' responses of "not sure" were treated as incorrect answers.[7]

Since there were 10 items for each structure, the maximum number of correct responses was 10 for the group results. The group data were submitted to a repeated measures ANOVA and Bonferroni. On top of this, we checked the differences in the number of correct responses between the pre-test, post-test 1 and post-test 2 for each intransitive verb, as well as differences between intransitive verbs in each test, using ANOVA4.

7 Results

7.1 Group results

The overall group results are summarized in Table 4 and the results of the experimental group and the control group are shown graphically in Figures 3 and 4,

7 It was pointed out by a reviewer of this chapter that we should not count a response of "not sure" as an incorrect answer. Although we understand that "not sure" is not the same as choosing an incorrect answer, what we have shown in the results section is the percentage of correct responses. This means that we just focus on the number of correct answers out of all the responses from the participants. We treated "not sure" as an incorrect response because a participant chooses "not sure" when s/he does not understand the grammaticality of a test sentence. We believe that choosing an incorrect answer and not being able to decide his/her answers are basically the same in that s/he does not understand the correct form. Therefore, the inclusion of "not sure" as an incorrect answer should not pose any problem in this study.

Table 4: Mean scores of each sentence structure by groups (standard deviation in brackets).

	Pre-test		Post-test 1		Post-test 2	
Sentence structures	**Experimental group**	**Control group**	**Experimental group**	**Control group**	**Experimental group**	**Control group**
DP-V	8.67 (1.732)	8.46 (1.170)	9.56 (1.159)	N/A	9.42 (1.097)	8.57 (1.574)
*DP-V-DP	7.49 (2.191)	6.25 (2.319)	7.53 (2.801)	N/A	8.47 (2.074)	6.04 (2.912)

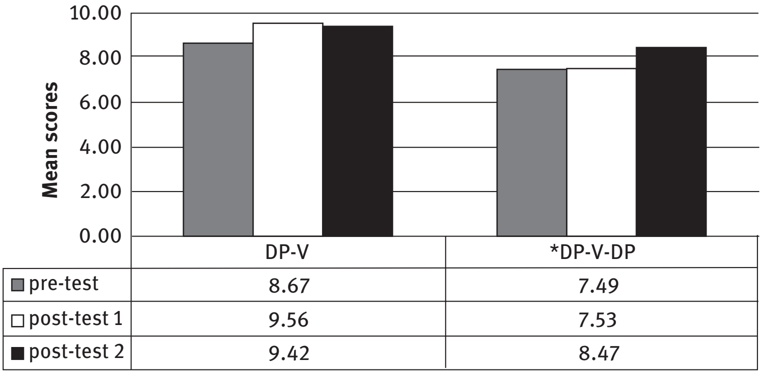

Figure 3: Mean scores of each sentences structure by experimental group (maximum score = 10).

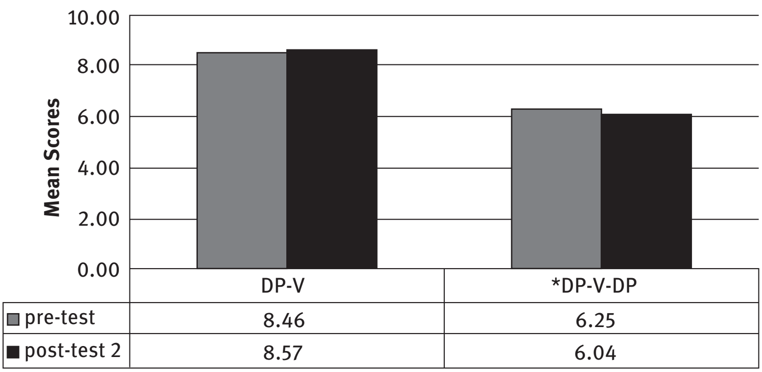

Figure 4: Mean scores of each sentences structure by control group (maximum score =10).

respectively. The grey bars represent the results of the pre-test, the white bars post-test 1 and the black bars post-test 2. The results reveal that the mean scores for the DP-V structure in post-test 1 and post-test 2 were significantly higher than those in the pre-test (p = .017 and p = .003, respectively) for the experimental group. As for the DP-V-DP structure, the mean scores in post-test 2 were significantly higher than those in the pre-test (p = .007) and post-test 1 (p = .002) for the experimental group.

As for the control group, by contrast, there were no significant differences between the pre-test and post-test 2 in both structures. Thus, since the mean scores of the experimental group in both the DP-V and DP-V-DP structures improved in post-test 2, it can be said that explicit instruction provided in this study is effective, at least for five weeks after the last instruction.

7.2 Individual verb results

Table 5 shows the percentage and number of correct responses by the experimental group. Since each verb appears twice for each structure and there are 45 participants in the experimental group, the maximum number of correct responses becomes 90. As we mentioned earlier, as for the DP-V structure, answering correctly means accepting the structure. As for the DP-V-DP structure, by contrast, answering correctly means rejecting the structure.

Table 5: Percentage and number of correct responses: experimental group (out of 90 items).

	DP-V			*DP-V-DP		
	Pre-test	**Post-test 1**	**Post-test 2**	**Pre-test**	**Post-test 1**	**Post-test 2**
appear	87.8% (79)	96.7% (87)	97.8% (88)	85.6% (77)	77.8% (70)	87.8% (79)
arrive	78.9% (71)	92.2% (83)	88.9% (80)	88.9% (80)	91.1% (82)	88.9% (80)
happen	84.4% (76)	95.6% (86)	95.6% (86)	67.8% (61)	71.1% (64)	85.6% (77)
fall	92.2% (83)	97.8% (88)	95.6% (86)	60.0% (54)	63.3% (57)	75.6% (68)
disappear	88.9% (80)	95.6% (86)	93.3% (84)	72.2% (65)	71.1% (64)	85.6% (77)

We conducted three-way repeated measures ANOVAs and the results indicate significant differences between tests and between verbs. Moreover, there were interactions between tests, structures and verbs.

We will first discuss the difference in percentages of correct responses between the tests. Figure 5 shows the percentages of correct responses of the DP-V structure by verb. The grey bars represent the results of the pre-test, the white bars post-test 1 and the black bars post-test 2. Multiple comparisons based on Ryan's method reveal that when *arrive* and *happen* were used in a sentence, participants judged post-test 1 and post-test 2 more correctly than the pre-test. There were no significant differences between the tests for other verbs.

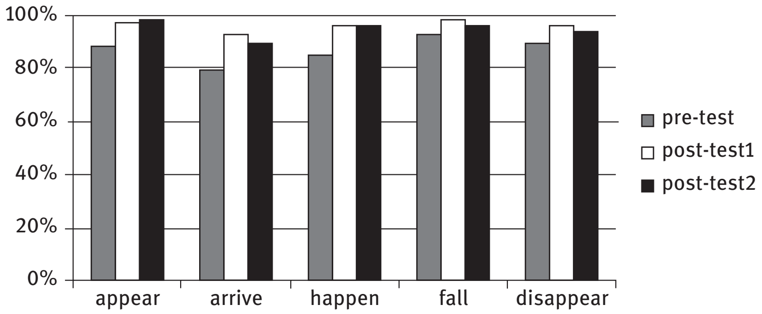

Figure 5: Percentage of correct responses of DP-V struture by verb (n=45).

Next, Figure 6 shows the percentages of correct responses of the DP-V-DP structure by verb. As shown in Figure 6, when *happen*, *fall and disappear* were used in the sentences, the participants judged post-test 2 more correctly than the pre-test and post-test 1. By contrast, when *appear* and *arrive* were used in the sentences, there were no significant differences between the tests.

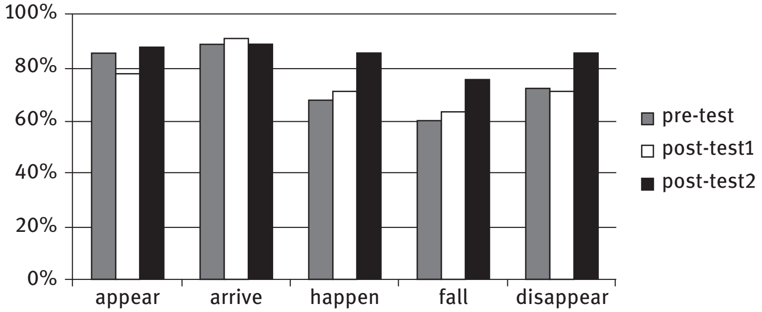

Figure 6: Percentage of correct responses of DP-V-DP struture by verb (n=45).

Next, let us look at differences between verbs in each test. Firstly, Figure 7 represents the percentages of correct responses of the DP-V structure by test. In Figures 7 and 8, the black bars represent the results of *appear*, the light-grey bars *arrive*, the dark-grey bars *happen*, the medium-grey bars *fall* and the white bars *disappear*. The statistical results reveal that there were no significant differences between the verbs in the pre-test, post-test 1 and post-test 2.

As for the DP-V-DP structure, on the contrary, there are significant differences among verbs. To be more precise, multiple comparisons indicate that, in the pre-test, *appear* and *arrive* were judged more correctly than *happen*, *fall and disappear* and in post-test 1, *arrive* was judged more correctly than the other verbs. In post-test 2, *appear* and *arrive* were still answered more correctly than *fall*.

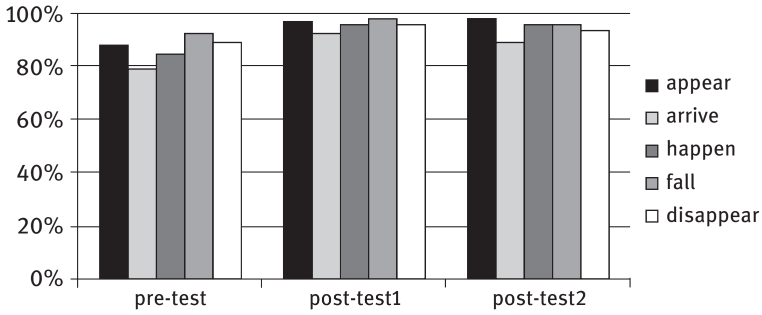

Figure 7: Percentage of correct responses of DP-V struture by test (n=45).

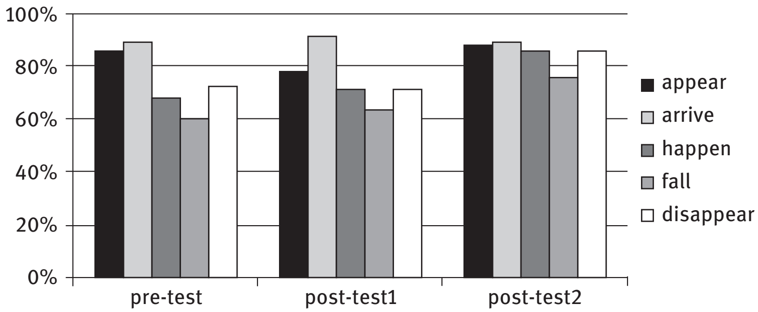

Figure 8: Percentage of correct responses of DP-V=DP struture by test (n=45).

8 Discussion

As a whole, after a series of instruction sessions, the JLEs in this study were able to judge the grammatical DP-V structure as grammatical more often than they did before and reject the ungrammatical DP-V-DP structure as ungrammatical even five weeks after the last instruction was provided. By contrast, as predicted, the JLEs without instruction (the control group) showed the same degree of acceptance and rejection to the DP-V and DP-V-DP structures respectively in the two tests. These results show that the explicit instruction we provided was effective to the JLEs.

Furthermore, we had two predictions in (11) (repeated here as (18)).

(18) Predictions for the study

A. The accuracy rates of the DP-V-DP structure of *appear* and *arrive* will be higher than those of *happen*, *fall and disappear* for JLEs because of the L1 transfer.

B. After a series of instruction, however, the accuracy rates of the DP-V-DP structure of *happen*, *fall and disappear* will be higher because explicit instruction is effective.

Both predictions were supported by the results. Let us first discuss the results related to prediction (18A). Since *happen*, *fall and disappear* alternate in transitivity in Japanese, it was predicted that JLEs would accept the DP-V-DP structure with these verbs in English if they were to transfer the property of their L1 to their L2. Table 6 summarizes the results of the DP-V-DP structure in the pre-test by the experimental group. The data related to the discussion here is from Table 5. We have added Japanese translations of these English verbs in the table so that it is easier to see if the existence of a transitive form in Japanese has any influence on the percentage of correct responses. From a statistical point of view, the JLEs had more difficulty with the DP-V-DP structure of *happen*, *fall and disappear* than that of *appear* and *arrive* in the pre-test. This result suggests that the JLEs transferred the transitivity alternation patterns from their L1 to their L2 in the pre-test.

Table 6: Comparison between verbs in the DP=V-DP structure for the pre-test.

	appear	***arrive***	***happen***	***fall***	***disappear***
Intransitive	*awarareru*	*tuku*	*okoru*	*ochiru*	*kieru*
Transitive	–	–	*okosu*	*otosu*	*kesu*
Pre-test	85.6%	88.9%	67.8%	60.0%	72.2%

Although we have mentioned that the JLEs had difficulty with the DP-V-DP structure of *happen*, *fall and disappear* in the pre-test, the percentage of correct responses improved after explicit instruction. Table 7 shows the change in the number of correct responses from the pre-test to post-test 1 and then to post-test 2. Table 7 is related to data from Table 5. As predicted in (18B), the JLEs improved their judgment on transitivity alternation after a series of explicit instruction. Interestingly, with these three verbs, the accuracy rates of post-test 2, which was administered five weeks after the last explicit instruction, were significantly higher than those of post-test 1, which was administered immediately after the instruction. We temporarily conclude that it took time for the JLEs to internalize the content of the instruction they received from the teachers during the treatment sessions. However, this issue needs further examination.

Table 7: Comparison of correct responses between tests: The results of *happen, fall* and *disappear* in the DP-V-DP structure.

	*DP-V-DP		
	Pre-test	**Post-test 1**	**Post-test 2**
happen	61 (67.8%)	64 (71.1%)	77 (85.6%)
fall	54 (60.0%)	57 (63.3%)	68 (75.6%)
disappear	65 (72.2%)	64 (71.1%)	77 (85.6%)

9 Conclusion

In the present study, we found that there is an L1 transfer of the verb structure to the L2. That is, before explicit instruction, the JLEs tended to have difficulty with those verbs that alternate in transitivity in their Japanese counterparts, i.e., *happen*, *fall* and *disappear*. The JLEs accepted both the DP-V and DP-V-DP structures with these verbs just like they do in Japanese. This was in comparison to verbs that do not alternate in transitivity in Japanese, such as *appear* and *arrive*.

We also found a certain amount of effect of proactive deductive explicit instruction, in that the JLEs improved their grammatical judgments in post-test 2, especially for the DP-V-DP structure of *happen*, *fall* and *disappear,* where they had previously had the most difficulty. The effects were still observed after five weeks. Although we need additional exploration of this issue in another study, we predict that the effects of explicit instruction will last longer than five weeks, because the usages of the items we taught are relevant to semantic roles of the verbs, which is considered to be relatively easy to acquire according to the L2 acquisition data and the hypothesis discussed in Shirahata (2015). These results indicate that most of the university JLEs could understand the usage of *appear*, *arrive*, *happen*, *fall* and *disappear* correctly after the explicit instruction and the JLEs' improvement could be due to the fact that they had not known the rules for verb subcategorizations in English. We have speculated that it takes time for L2 learners to internalize grammatical rules of transitive and intransitive verb structures, but we need to examine whether this prediction is valid or not by conducting further research. To sum up, we would like to say that explicit instruction can be effective for the linguistic properties whose main functions are to convey semantic meanings. The explicit instruction can also be effective for L2 learners whose cognitive abilities are high, which means that it can be more effective for university students than for elementary school children.

Finally, as an application to teaching English as a foreign language in Japan, we suggest three things: the first is that foreign language teachers should know that JLEs do not know the distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs in English. If there is not enough time to teach this grammar rule at junior and senior high schools, and/or if it is too hard for their junior and senior high school students to understand the rules cognitively, it should be taught at the university level. The second point is that when a teacher teaches transitive and intransitive verbs, it is important to emphasize which verb is used transitively, intransitively, or both transitively and intransitively by expressing the existence of sentential subjects and objects with case particles, such as the nominative case –*ga* and accusative case –*o*. Besides this, it is essential to explain to JLEs that an inanimate noun can be a sentential subject of intransitive sentences. The third point is that teachers themselves need to understand that the rules for verb subcategorizations are as important as other grammatical items such as present perfective and relative pronouns; as has been shown in this chapter, even university JLEs often produce and accept ungrammatical sentences due to the confusion between transitive and intransitive verbs.

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9 Character knowledge and reading stages of Chinese as a foreign language

1 Introduction

Reading is a complex cognitive activity (Rayner & Pollatsek 1989) and within the complex system of reading, visual word recognition is critical (Adams 1990), because word decoding serves as a threshold for the next level of reading competence (Hoover & Gough 1990; Koda 2005). This is true for reading Chinese, especially for reading Chinese as a foreign language (CFL). A major challenge for beginner CFL learners is learning Chinese characters (Everson 1998; Lü 2012), which partly stems from the fact that the Chinese script is quite phonologically opaque, compared to other scripts.

Chinese has one of the world's most phonologically opaque writing systems. Despite its relative lack of phonetic information, an empirical study found that a phonetic stage is included in the three reading stages of Chinese – visual, phonetic and orthographic – that children experience in learning to read Chinese (Chen 2004). This finding about young first language (L1) readers of Chinese raises the question of how adult non-native or CFL learners learn to read Chinese. Do CFL learners pass through the same three reading stages as L1 learners? Motivated by this question, the current study investigates how adult CFL learners learn to read Chinese characters.[1] The answers will shed light on how non-native learners develop key competence in Chinese reading.

The stage-level view of Chinese reading development is derived from research on reading development of children learning English, which posits a series of stages in the acquisition of literacy skills (Chall 1983; Ehri 1991, 1992, 1998, 1999, 2005; Frith 1985; Marsh, Friedman, Welch & Desberg 1981; Mason 1980; Seymour & Elder 1986), where each stage is said to consist of one predominant reading strategy. Detailed characteristics and names for the stages vary from study to study, but researchers have generally agreed upon three stages of word reading: logographic, alphabetic and orthographic (Chen 2004).

1 Note that in this study we define *reading* as recognizing character pronunciations.

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In the logographic stage of reading English, children have a limited knowledge of letters or words and are able to read words by depending on a few salient but idiosyncratic visual features. For example, children may read the word *yellow* by regarding the shape of two ‘l’s in the word as the tall posts in the middle and recalling them (Ehri 1998). Children next enter the alphabetic stage, in which they start to link graphemes to phonemes by employing grapheme-phoneme correspondence (GPC) rules. Hence, L1 English children in the alphabetic stage can read *yellow* by mapping *y* to /j/, *e* to /ɛ/, *ll* to /l/, *o* to /o/ and *w* to /u/, in that order. Children then move to the final stage, the orthographic stage, as they repeatedly encounter words sharing repeated orthographic patterns such as *un-, micro-, -ing and -tion* and can read these orthographic patterns as wholes without having to decode each letter (Ehri 1991; Frith 1985).

1.1 Reading stages in L1 Chinese

Unlike English, the Chinese writing system is not an alphabetical system, but a morpho-syllabic system, in which characters map onto syllables that also represent morphemes (DeFrancis 1984). Nevertheless, Chen (2004) found that L1 Chinese readers also go through three reading stages, namely the visual, phonetic and orthographic stages – equivalent to the logographic, alphabetic and orthographic stages in L1 English reading development, respectively. According to Chen (2004) and Chen, Anderson, Li and Shu (2014), in the *visual* stage of reading Chinese, beginner readers at the average age of 4 years first start to read characters by depending on distinctive visual features in a character, that is, a *visual* strategy, as do beginner English readers.

For example, L1 Chinese children more accurately read a group of characters containing an extraordinarily elongated stroke (e.g. ) than a group of normal Chinese characters without any extraordinary stroke (e.g. 反, 长), which were read better than a set of characters sharing visual similarities (e.g. 戉, 弋). This parallels the logographic stage of reading English. In the same study, Chen and colleagues found that L1 English children also showed the same pattern as L1 Chinese. They read a set of words with visually outstanding features (e.g. sug, vin) better than a set of normal words (e.g. wet, mad), which were more accurately read than word groups that resembled each other (e.g. bag, big).

An estimated 80–85% of Chinese characters are phonetic compounds (Hanley 2005; Zhou 1978), which consist of a semantic component (i.e. radical), providing a clue to the meaning of the character, as well as a phonetic component (i.e. phonetic), related to the pronunciation of the character. As Chinese children's reading progresses, they become aware of the role of phonetics and are then able to utilize phonetics in reading novel phonetic compounds containing familiar phonetics (Chen, Shu, Wu & Anderson 2003), which is referred to as a *phonetic* strategy. The use of a phonetic strategy indicates that they have moved to the *phonetic* stage. Chen (2004) found that second-grade and fourth-grade students in China were able to employ a phonetic strategy in reading unfamiliar phonetic compounds. For instance, they read a novel phonetic compound 镧 *lan2* with the phonetic on the right side (阑 *lan2*) by means of the phonetic strategy (Chen 2004). This second stage is termed the *phonetic* stage in Chinese, not the *alphabetic* stage as in English, because Chinese characters are not alphabetic but contain phonetics, which instead provide pronunciation cues.

Finally, as children make analogies across compound characters sharing the same phonetic and children's analogy skills become more sophisticated, they expand their analogy skills to all the characters containing the same phonetic (i.e. a phonetic family) and use phonetic consistency information (i.e. how consistent pronunciation is in a phonetic family) in reading unknown characters. Reading an unknown phonetic compound character using phonetic consistency information constitutes an *orthographic* strategy, and this marks the *orthographic* stage, the final stage of character reading in Chinese.[2] For example, an orthographic strategy is assumed if 蚰 is read as *you2* because the learner knows more characters in its phonetic family pronounced as *you2*, such as 油 *you2*, 邮 *you2* and 铀 *you2*, than other pronunciations, such as 抽 *chou1* and 袖 *xiu4*.

Chinese readers are empowered to read unfamiliar characters more accurately by means of the orthographic strategy, because it enables the readers to overcome difficulties arising from the low regularity of some phonetics in the modern Chinese script. Despite the large proportion of the phonetic compounds in Chinese, the pronunciation of the phonetic often does not correspond exactly to the pronunciation of the whole character and may even have a very different pronunciation (e.g. 发 *fa1* vs. 废 *fei4*, 拨 *bo1*, 泼 *po1*; 告 *gao4* vs. 靠 *kao4*, 造 *zao4*, 酷 *ku4*). The percentage of phonetic compounds with the same pronunciation as their phonetics (not considering tone) is less than 40% (Zhou 1978) and declines to 26% when tone is taken into account (Shu, Chen, Anderson, Wu & Xuan 2003). In contrast, consistency is known to be "a better index" than phonetics, since the frequency-weighted consistency of characters taught from the fourth grade is found to be above 60% on average (Chen et al. 2003; Shu et al. 2003). In other words, when readers read novel characters with the orthographic strategy, the

2 The term "orthographic" is used here in a narrower sense, referring to phonetic consistency rather than a general definition of being written properly according to the rules of a certain orthographic system.

chance of being correct is more than 60%, which is higher than the phonetic reading, whose odds of being successful is less than 40% (Chen et al. 2003).

1.2 Reading stages in L2

Research examining stages in L2 reading development is still in its infancy.[3] Yin, Anderson and Zhu (2007) conducted the only study to date to empirically investigate stage models in L2 reading development. That study examined the English word reading of Chinese elementary school children and found that the children followed a sequence similar to L1 English children in learning to read L2 English words. Interestingly, the strategy of orthographic analogy, considered to be important in reading L1 Chinese (He, Wang & Anderson 2005; Ho, Wong & Chan 1999; Shu, Anderson & Wu 2000), had less influence on the Chinese children's reading of English words. These results raise the possibility that L2 readers also pass through stages in reading, but that the influence of readers' reading strategies from an L1 may be less significant in reading in an L2.

The question that arises, therefore, is whether adult L2 readers show a similar pattern to child L2 readers. The answer is not self-evident, due to differences between children and adults in linguistic and cognitive ability. Adult L2 learners are generally fluent in an L1 when learning an L2, whereas child L2 learners have to learn an L2 while the L1 is developing. Also, most adults possess fully developed cognitive abilities, while children's cognitive abilities are still emerging. We know of no research involving adult L2 learners that has addressed the possibility of L2 reading stages.

Therefore, the present study aims to investigate adult L2 learners' developmental stages of reading in the CFL context, which is expected to contribute to both L2 reading research and L2 reading pedagogy. First, in L2 reading research, studies on the development of adult readers' decoding skills are scarce, compared to studies on learning of word meaning. This is attributed to the fact that English as an L2 has been mostly examined in L2 reading research. As the lingua franca of modern society, English as an L2 is taught before the start of puberty in many countries and thus, decoding skills as basic abilities to learn L2 words are dealt with in the context of child L2 reading. However, L2 Chinese as an increasingly popular foreign language in recent years differs markedly from L2 English. With the CFL learner population being comprised largely of adults and due to the unique features of Chinese characters (being phonologically less transparent

3 In this chapter, "L2" is used as an umbrella term meaning any language learned after one's native language, which includes a foreign language.

than other writing systems), decoding proficiency is difficult and takes longer to achieve. Furthermore, most CFL learner groups have not been exposed to Chinese characters in their L1, except for the case of L1 Korean or L1 Japanese. As the first empirical study on adult CFL learners' development of decoding abilities, the current study will expand on the understanding of L2 learners' reading in general.

Second, this study can yield pedagogical implications for CFL teachers and learners. Reading and writing of characters is a major impediment for beginner CFL learners. For teachers, knowledge of how L2 beginners progress in reading Chinese characters can help them to identify the sources of students' difficulties and errors more accurately and thus offer students more timely and effective assistance. For learners, metalinguistic awareness of Chinese reading stages will enable them to cast aside their vague fears and the perceived psychological burden of learning Chinese characters, as well as to evaluate their own progress in decoding skills.

2 Present study

2.1 Research questions

In this study, we examine three reading stages in adult L2 learners with CFL learners. If reading stages exist in adult L2 learners, then they should manifest more clearly in learning to read a complex and relatively opaque writing system, such as Chinese, than in a simple, transparent system. The specific research questions addressed in this study are: (a) Do adult CFL learners undergo stages in learning to read?; (b) If so, do their stages parallel those of L1 Chinese children learning to read?

One prediction is that adult CFL learners do not pass through stages in literacy acquisition because, unlike young children, adult learners are cognitively fully developed and have already gone through stages in learning to read their L1. This is plausible, since decoding problems have been reported to be less frequent among adult L2 learners than among young L1 readers (Koda, 1996). Alternatively, adult L2 learners could follow stages similar to children, which would suggest that reading stages are universal in learning to read an L2 as well as an L1.

2.2 Experimental design

To test for the visual, phonetic and orthographic stages in CFL reading, three experiments that Chen (2004) devised for L1 Chinese children's reading stages were modified and merged into two experiments in this study. Experiment 1 was designed to seek evidence for a visual stage in CFL character reading (see also Kim, Christianson & Packard 2015). Experiment 2 was designed to find evidence for the phonetic and the orthographic stages of CFL character reading (see also Kim, Packard, Christianson, Anderson & Shin 2016). Table 1 summarizes how the three stages were identified and a full description of the experiments follows.

Table 1: Method of examining stages.

Stage	Reading strategy on test	Method	Measure
Visual	Visual strategy: Use of and dependence on distinctive visual features in characters to learn to read novel characters	Participants learn to read simple characters belonging to one of three types which differ in visual distinctiveness (i.e. distinctive, normal and similar types).	Experiment 1
Phonetic	Phonetic strategy: Use of phonetic information from known characters to read novel characters containing the known character as a phonetic or sharing a phonetic with known characters	Participants read novel phonetic compounds containing the same phonetics as the learned characters.	Transfer test of experiment 2
Orthographic	Orthographic strategy: Use of phonetic consistency information to learn to read novel characters	Participants learn to read characters belonging to one of three phonetic family types which varied in consistency (i.e. consistent, semi-consistent and inconsistent types).	Training phase of experiment 2

2.3 Participants

Participants were 70 students (28 females, M = 20.1 years, age range: 18–27 years) enrolled in Chinese language classes at a large Midwestern university in the United States. Forty-three students were enrolled in first semester (beginning level) Chinese courses and 27 in third semester (intermediate level) classes. At the time of participation, beginners had learned approximately 60 characters and intermediate learners had knowledge of more than 700 characters. The native languages of the participants were as follows: English (N = 45), Korean (N = 14), Thai ($N = 2$), German ($N = 1$), Spanish ($N = 1$), Russian ($N = 1$) and Chinese dialects ($N = 6$). All participants, including L1 Chinese dialects, had not learned Chinese characters until they started learning Chinese. All participants took part in both Experiment 1 and Experiment 2 and received monetary compensation for their participation.

2.4 Chinese character test

Before the two main experiments were conducted, in order to confirm participants' Chinese proficiency, a Chinese character knowledge test was administered. The test asked participants to provide the meaning (English translation) and pronunciation (*pinyin*) of 60 Chinese words. Of the 60 words, 34 were one-syllable words and 26 were two-syllable words, comprising 86 characters altogether. On the character test, the maximum score was 146 ($M = 60.9$, $SD = 27.1$, range 24.5–129.0).

3 Experiment 1

3.1 Method

The goal of Experiment 1 was to test whether adult learners of Chinese use the visual strategy in learning to read new Chinese characters. Participants learned novel character sets divided into three levels of visual distinctiveness: distinctive, normal and similar. If a visual stage existed, we hypothesized that the distinctive type would be learned with highest accuracy, followed by the normal type and lastly, the similar type.

3.1.1 Stimuli

Eighteen low-frequency simple characters were selected from the *Comprehensive Chinese Character Dictionary* (*Hanyu da zidian* 1993) and used as stimuli in Experiment 1 (the complete stimulus set appears in Kim et al. 2015). In a post-experiment questionnaire, it was confirmed that all stimuli characters were unknown to the participants. The 18 stimuli consisted of six characters in each of the three types (i.e. visually distinctive, normal and similar). The distinctive type contained characters with a visually marked feature, created by enlarging the width of one stroke compared to a normal character. This is similar to methods employed in previous studies, such as varying the size and the height of the letters within an English word (Ehri & Wilce 1985) or elongating one stoke of a character (Chen 2004). For instance, a stroke in the center of  *fa2* was exaggerated to form  *fa2*. The normal set is composed of six regular Chinese characters without any enhancement, e.g.,  *fang4*. The similar type is comprised of three pairs of characters which were visually similar, such as  *kuang4* vs.  *qiu1*. The characters used in the distinctive and normal lists were counter-balanced by subject.

3.1.2 Procedure

Participants were seated in front of a laptop computer, wearing a headset. They learned the target characters and were tested individually. They were instructed that they would learn 18 novel Chinese characters (i.e. learning trials) and then be asked to name the characters (i.e. test trials). In the learning trial, the 18 target characters were presented in random order. A fixation point appeared on the computer screen for 700 ms and then a character was presented for 5,000 ms, with its pronunciation sounding twice through the headset. Participants learned the characters by looking at the characters on the screen, listening to the pronunciations and repeating aloud what they heard twice for each character. The learning trial was immediately followed by a test trial where participants were asked to name the learned characters which randomly appeared on the screen without pronunciations. This learning-test trial was repeated three times. Experiment 1 took approximately 10–15 minutes per participant.

3.2 Results

Participants' character naming was scored as *correct* if participants produced the sound of an entire syllable correctly (excluding tone) and as *incorrect* otherwise. Because the accuracy data were binary, a mixed logit model (Jaeger, 2008) was performed in R (R Development Core Team 2009).[4] Naming accuracy was

4 Mixed logit models are a generalization of logistic regression for binomially distributed outcomes estimating random subject and item effects in a single analysis. Recent studies conclude that analysis of variance (ANOVA) is inappropriate to analyze categorical data such as that from this experiment (Dixon 2008; Jaeger 2008).

the dependent variable, with categorical predictors (test trial, character type, counter-balanced list, participants' L1) and a continuous predictor (character test score) as fixed effects and with participants and items as random effects. In what follows, coefficients and significance levels for predictors remaining in the minimal, best-fitting model are presented.

There was a significant trial effect, with higher naming accuracy rate in the second (Estimate = 1.80, $Z = 15.05$, SE = .12, $p < .01$) and the third trials (Estimate = 2.85, $Z = 23.30$, SE = .12, $p < .01$) than in the first trial, indicating that performance improved over the learning trials. The results of naming accuracy by trial indicate that overall character type effects were not observed; rather, the effect of character type was only found for the similar type in trial 2 (Estimate = −.87, $Z = 2.90$, SE = .01, $p < .01$). In addition, there was no effect of Chinese character test. In essence, first, participants significantly improved in learning characters from one trial to the next. Second, the visually distinctive enhancement did not affect participants' learning of simple characters. Finally, beginning and intermediate learners who significantly differed in character knowledge did not show any discrepancy in learning to read the target characters which varied in visual saliency.

3.3 Discussion

Experiment 1 demonstrated that visual idiosyncrasy in a character did not help CFL learners learn to read, because participants did not read the distinctive character types better than the normal or the similar types. These results, in conjunction with those from Chen's (2004) study of L1 Chinese children, imply that adult CFL learners do not use a visual strategy when they learn to read Chinese characters. The four-year-old Chinese children learned characters containing visually salient features better than normal characters and they also learned normal characters better than characters that resembled each other. This contrasts noticeably with our results, in which no difference was found based on visual distinctiveness. Further evidence of no visual stage in adult CFL learners' reading is seen in the fact that more than 50% of the participants, 43 out of 70, were from first semester Chinese classes and had learned approximately 60 characters at the time of testing, but learned to read the target characters as accurately as intermediate learners, who had learned for more than two semesters and had knowledge of more than 700 characters. The fact that, even at the onset of learning Chinese characters, learners did not show any sign of utilizing visually distinctive cues provides additional evidence that adult CFL learners do not go through a visual stage in L2 reading.

4 Experiment 2

Experiment 2 examined whether adult CFL learners use a phonetic strategy (predominant in the phonetic stage) and an orthographic strategy (predominant in the orthographic stage) in reading novel characters. Accordingly, the experiment had two specific goals. The first was to examine adult CFL learners' ability to use the pronunciation of a character they already knew when it served as a phonetic in an unfamiliar character (phonetic strategy). The second goal was to investigate CFL learners' ability to employ phonetic consistency information of phonetic families to read novel characters that contain the family phonetic (orthographic strategy).

Experiment 2 tested whether participants used the phonetic strategy in the transfer test and the orthographic strategy in the training phase. In the training phase, the CFL learners were asked to master so-called clue characters belonging to families with three different consistency levels (i.e. consistent, semi-consistent and inconsistent).[5] In the transfer test, participants were asked to read test characters that were novel characters sharing the phonetic with the clue characters. In this test, they were tested on whether they were able to transfer and apply knowledge gained from the clue characters to novel characters. Performance in the training phase for clue characters of various consistency levels served as a measure of participants' ability to perceive phonetic consistency information, thereby demonstrating use of the orthographic strategy. Performance in the transfer test for test characters containing clue characters as a phonetic served as an index of their ability to use the phonetic strategy to read unknown characters.

4.1 Method

4.1.1 Stimuli

Seventy-eight characters were used as stimuli in Experiment 2. The stimuli were selected from the *Comprehensive Chinese Character Dictionary* (*Hanyu da zidian*, 1993) and were low-frequency and unknown to the participants, as verified in a post-experiment questionnaire. Out of 78 characters, 18 characters were clue characters for the training phase and the other 60 phonetic compound characters were test characters for the transfer test, which had the same phonetics as the clue characters (the complete set of stimuli for Experiment 2 appears in Kim et al. 2016).

5 We called the characters for the training phase *clue characters* because they would serve as clues for novel characters in the transfer test.

Clue characters. The three levels of consistency (consistent, semi-consistent and inconsistent) were established for 18 clue characters within six phonetic families, which all yielded each consistent level with two phonetic families. Every family contained three characters with one non-phonetic compound (e.g. 罡) and two phonetic compounds with a non-phonetic compound as the phonetic (e.g. 堽 and ⿰木罡). In a consistent family, all three characters had the same pronunciation (e.g. 罡 *gang1*, 堽 *gang1 and* ⿰木罡 *gang1*). In a semi-consistent family, two phonetic compounds had the same pronunciation (e.g. ⿰女弇 *an1* and ⿰月弇 *an1*), but their pronunciations differed from the non-phonetic compound character serving as the phonetic (e.g. 弇 *yan3*). In an inconsistent family, all three characters were pronounced differently (e.g. 叕 *li4*, ⿰足叕 *jue3*, 棳 *zhui4*).

Test characters. Test characters consisted of 10 characters for each phonetic family appearing in the clue characters, yielding 60 test characters in total for six phonetic families. Sixty test characters were created by combining six phonetics in the clue characters and 10 frequent semantic radicals (i.e. 亻, 忄, 牜, 口, 目, 石, 刂, 阝, 艹 and ⺮). For example, for the 叕 family, the test characters were ⿰亻叕, 惙, ⿰牜叕, 啜, ⿰目叕, ⿰石叕, 剟, ⿰叕阝, ⿱艹叕 and ⿱⺮叕. The majority of the test characters were pseudo-characters. Several test characters happened to be real but infrequent characters, which the participants did not recognize as confirmed in a questionnaire after the experiment.

4.1.2 Procedure

Experiment 2 consisted of a training phase and a transfer test. In the training phase, participants mastered learning 18 clue characters during three learning-test trials and up to nine say-and-feedback test trials. In the transfer test, participants were asked to name the 60 novel test characters.

The training phase was similar to Experiment 1. During three learning-test trials, participants learned the target characters by looking at each character, listening to its pronunciation twice over the headset and repeating aloud what they had heard, and then were tested by having to name the learned characters. Unlike Experiment 1, however, in the training phase of Experiment 2, participants had to memorize all 18 clue characters, so that they could rely on the learned clue characters to read novel test characters in the following transfer test. To facilitate participants' mastery of clue characters, they received immediate feedback of "correct" to a correct naming or "incorrect" to an incorrect answer on the computer screen during the test trial. For incorrect responses, the correct pronunciation was provided over the headset. Feedback was administered via a wireless keyboard by an experimenter who sat behind the participant and monitored the whole experiment. Participants first had three mandatory learning-test trials and then up to nine test trials with feedback, until they correctly named all 18 clue characters twice consecutively.

Once participants succeeded in mastering the clue characters, they entered the transfer test. In this test, participants were asked to name 60 test characters without feedback. Altogether, Experiment 2 took approximately 15–20 minutes per participant.

4.2 Results

One subject could not master the 18 clue characters within three learning-test trials and nine test trials. Data from the remaining 69 subjects were analyzed using logit mixed models in R, as in Experiment 1.

4.2.1 Training phase

Data from the three mandatory learning-test trials during the training phase were analyzed, because afterward each participant differed in the end point of mastery between the fourth and the twelfth test trial. A character was scored as *correct* when the entire syllable (excluding tone) was correct. In each analysis, naming accuracy was the dependent variable, and trial, phonetic consistency type, character test score and L1 were entered in the models as fixed-effect factors, and subjects and items as random factors. The statistical analysis was conducted as for Experiment 1.

Naming accuracy results for the three trials showed a significant effect for trial as expected, with higher naming accuracy rate in the second (Estimate = 1.56, $Z = 5.98$, SE = .26, $p < .01$) and the third trials (Estimate = 2.51, $Z = 8.25$, SE = .30, $p < .01$) than in the first trial. Three separate analyses of each trial were thus carried out, as shown in Table 2. In naming accuracy for the first trial, the inconsistent type was significant. The negative coefficient indicates that participants performed significantly worse in the inconsistent type compared to the consistent type. Similarly, in the second trial, the significant negative coefficient for the inconsistent type indicates that participants read characters of the inconsistent type significantly less accurately than the consistent type. Character knowledge was a significant predictor of performance for both the second and third trials, meaning that participants with higher character knowledge learned to read characters significantly better than participants with lower knowledge.

Intriguingly, for character knowledge in the third trial, significant interactions with the negative coefficients were found between character knowledge and the semi-consistent family type, as well as between character knowledge and the inconsistent type, which suggests that participants with higher character knowledge named characters in the consistent family type – demonstrating use of the orthographic strategy – better than participants with lower character knowledge. The interaction effects between character knowledge and consistency types, which did not appear in Experiment 1 (visual strategy test) or the transfer test of Experiment 2 (phonetic strategy test) are noteworthy, because this suggests that higher character knowledge enabled participants to use the orthographic strategy only, not the visual or phonetic strategies. The interpretation of this result will be discussed further in the general discussion below.

Table 2: Accuracy results of consistency types in each trial of the training phase.

Trial	Predictor	Estimate	*Z*	SE	Pr(>|z|)
1	(Intercept)	0.01	0.03	0.39	0.98
	Inconsistent	−1.97	−3.65	0.54	< 0.01 **
2	(Intercept)	1.20	2.27	0.53	0.02 *
	Inconsistent	−1.90	−3.09	0.61	< 0.01 **
	Character Knowledge	0.01	2.29	0.01	< 0.05 *
3	(Intercept)	0.96	1.23	0.78	0.22
	Character Knowledge	0.04	3.20	0.01	< 0.01 **
	Character Knowledge: Semi-consistent	−0.03	−2.11	0.01	< 0.05 *
	Character Knowledge: Inconsistent	−0.03	−2.39	0.01	< 0.05 *

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$.

4.2.2 Transfer test

In the transfer test, test characters could be read using the clue characters for a phonetic (phonetic strategy), or could be read in a manner unrelated to the clue characters. For each test character, only a possible reading by means of the phonetic strategy was counted as *correct*. For instance, for ten test characters of the inconsistent family of 叕 (i.e. [illegible], 惙, 掇, 啜, [illegible], [illegible], 剟, [illegible], [illegible] and [illegible]), possible phonetic readings would be *li4*, *jue3*, or *zhui4* if the participants relied on their knowledge of the learned clue characters (i.e. 叕 *li4*, [illegible] *jue3*, or 棳 *zhui4*), which was scored as correct.

Binomial logit mixed models were used for the statistical analysis, as for Experiment 1 and the training phase of Experiment 2. Naming accuracy was the dependent variable, while consistency type, character test score and participants' L1 were entered in the model as fixed-effect factors, and subject and item as random effect factors. When the semi-consistent type was set as a reference level, a significantly lower naming accuracy was found in the inconsistent type (Estimate = −0.95, $Z = -4.32$, SE = .22, $p < .01$). This indicates that all participants, regardless of their Chinese character knowledge, read the test characters from the inconsistent type worse than those from the consistent and semi-consistent types.

Furthermore, the naming accuracy rate on the transfer test was very high: 0.91 for consistent, 0.88 for semi-consistent and 0.82 for inconsistent types. This high level of naming accuracy suggests that participants were able to read the novel characters by finding the phonetics and matching them with the phonetics in the characters that they already knew. Thus, all participants, irrespective of their character knowledge, utilized the phonetic strategy to read new phonetic compounds with greater ease.

4.3 Discussion

Experiment 2 demonstrated that adult CFL learners use the phonetic and orthographic strategies to read novel characters. In the transfer test, the main effect of the phonetic consistency type and participants' high accuracy rate indicate that CFL learners were indeed able to make use of the phonetic strategy to read unknown characters. In the training phase, throughout three trials, participants learned the clue characters with consistent phonetics significantly better than those with inconsistent phonetics. Furthermore, CFL learners were able to glean consistency information among characters unknown to them during the initial process of learning, as seen in the results where participants read consistent characters better than inconsistent characters even in the first trial. The results suggest that CFL learners are able to utilize information about phonetic consistency to read novel characters, which indicates orthographic strategy use. More importantly, interaction effects between character knowledge and consistency types, which were found only in the training phase, suggest that the orthographic strategy depends on Chinese character knowledge. Altogether, the findings support the existence of the phonetic stage and the orthographic stage, and imply that the orthographic stage follows the phonetic stage in CFL character reading.

5 General discussion

This study examined the reading stages of adult CFL learners. To test whether there exist three Chinese reading stages as previously found for L1 Chinese children (visual, phonetic and orthographic stages), two experiments were conducted with college students in the United States from beginning and intermediate Chinese levels.

Experiment 1 examined whether adult CFL learners go through the visual stage. The finding was that visual distinctiveness of characters did *not* aid participants in learning to pronounce characters. This was interpreted as evidence for no visual stage in adult CFL learners' reading acquisition. The existence of the phonetic stage was evaluated in the transfer test of Experiment 2. When participants were asked to read unknown phonetic compounds with the phonetic of familiar characters, most participants succeeded in reading novel compounds with a high accuracy of 87% on average. This high rate of success in reading novel characters shows that participants were able to employ the phonetic strategy to read unknown characters, providing evidence for a phonetic stage in adult CFL reading. Finally, the orthographic stage was tested in the training phase of Experiment 2, which showed that participants who knew more characters made better use of phonetic consistency information to read novel characters than those who knew fewer characters. The strong character knowledge effect suggests that not only is the orthographic stage present in adult CFL reading, but also that performance in the orthographic stage benefits from greater knowledge of Chinese characters.

Taken together, the results suggest that reading stages exist in the adult CFL learners' reading acquisition, but that their L2 reading stages differ from those of L1 Chinese children. That is, when learning to read Chinese characters, adult CFL learners begin from the phonetic stage, not from the visual stage, and then move to the orthographic stage as their knowledge of characters increases. As participants in the experiment did not use visually distinctive information in characters when learning to read characters, the visual stage seems to be absent in adult CFL learners. On the other hand, they were able to employ information about phonetics and consistency when reading novel characters, which implies that there exist both phonetic and orthographic stages in adult CFL learners' reading development. In terms of the order of the two stages, it seems that the orthographic stage is more developmentally advanced than the phonetic stage, because the participants with higher proficiency were able to better perceive and employ consistency information when they learned to read characters than the participants with less character knowledge. However, character knowledge did not contribute to reading novel characters based on the phonetic strategy.

5.1 Absence of the visual stage in CFL reading

This study showed that adult CFL readers pass through stages in learning to read L2 Chinese, while the visual stage, which exists during L1 reading development, interestingly, is not found in adult CFL literacy acquisition. One possible explanation for this discrepancy may be due to the fact that adult CFL learners participating in the current study knew more characters than young L1 Chinese visual readers. The four-year-old L1 Chinese children in Chen's (2004) study knew an average of 8.21 characters, with various levels of character knowledge from nothing to more than 20 characters. On the other hand, the beginner adult CFL learners in the current study had already been exposed to at least approximately 60 characters. It is possible that the visual strategy may work effectively with a small number of characters but may not be efficient once readers deal with several dozen characters. If this is the case, adult CFL learners might have employed the visual strategy when they only knew less than a dozen characters, which would happen during the first few weeks of a Chinese class, but had gone through the visual stage and already entered the phonetic stage when they participated in the present study.

Another possible explanation for the absence of the visual stage in adult CFL learners could be due to cognitive differences between adults and children. Adult L2 readers, unlike L1 Chinese children, do not depend on arbitrary information; instead, they rather use reliable and systematic rules that can be found in the system. It is noteworthy that the reading strategies were qualitatively different according to the stages which learners are currently going through. The learners in the visual stage usually read characters by selecting arbitrary visually distinctive cues in the characters, and thus the visually distinctive features learners utilize might differ from person to person and might even differ over time for the same individual. On the other hand, the phonetic and orthographic strategies involve a process of finding the principle behind a phonetic in Chinese and utilizing it when one reads novel characters. That is, the visual strategy may rely on mnemonic methods that vary among individuals, whereas both phonetic and orthographic strategies are based on a process of finding systematic principles for phonetic components of characters.

An additional factor may relate to neuroscience research, which has reported that adult cognitive processing differs from that of children due to maturation of the adult brain (Born, Rostrup, Leth, Peitersen & Lou 1996; Klingberg, Forssberg & Westerberg 2002; Schlaggar et al. 2002). Adults' cognitive abilities appear to be easily adapted to ignoring unnecessary information and reacting to the most relevant, efficient information in the system, whereas children's cognitive processing seems to respond to any stimulus. This may be the case for the development of visual perception, because visual synapses are overproduced early in life (Huttenlocher 1979; Wiesel 1982). Infants' cortical synaptic density is almost twice that of adults (Huttenlocher 1979), and the synapse in the visual cortex become denser from birth to eight months, and then decrease subsequently and eventually reaches the same level of density as adults approximately by the age of 11 (Huttenlocher, de Courten, Garey & Van Der Loos 1982). The decline in synaptic density indicates that the unused neural connections are pruned away, leaving only activated nervous synapses, and thus the remaining connections are consolidated in the nervous system. This results in more activation in reaction to relevant information in spite of fewer number of synapses in adulthood than that in childhood (Huttenlocher 1979; Klingberg et al. 2002). Given that adults are often exposed to even more information than children, adult cognitive abilities might have evolved in order to focus on important systematic information and prune less important information, because cognitive resources can be utilized more efficiently through this kind of systematization.

5.2 Phonetic and orthographic strategies and character knowledge

The current study suggests that CFL learners move from the phonetic stage to the orthographic stage as their character knowledge increases. This implies two possible interpretations of the relation between the reading strategies of the two stages and character knowledge. First, the phonetic strategy applies the phonetic rules at a more local level, i.e., from one character to another (Chen et al. 2003; Chen 2004), which requires less character knowledge than the orthographic strategy. On the other hand, the orthographic strategy is more complex and thus using this strategy requires more character knowledge as a prerequisite than using the phonetic strategy. The orthographic strategy requires a global level of learning across members belonging to identical phonetic families, which enables readers to find consistency rules within the phonetic families. An awareness of phonetic consistency, therefore, can develop from encountering a greater number of characters. That is, the phonetic consistency awareness and the orthographic strategy naturally require more extensive reading experience, incorporating knowledge of more characters.

Second, the characters taught to beginner learners have been more targeted at developing awareness of the phonetic strategy than the orthographic strategy. Shu et al.'s (2003) comprehensive analysis of materials in Chinese elementary textbooks reported that the first 436 characters taught in the first grade have more pictographs, semantic compounds and ideographs (i.e. characters with no phonetic component, 48%) than phonetic compounds (45%). Additionally, 56 phonetic families are found in the first 436 characters and each phonetic family has 2.21 members on average. As for next 709 characters taught in the second grade, although 70% of the characters are phonetic compounds and there are 210 phonetic families, each phonetic family consists of 2.69 characters on average, meaning that most phonetic families still have less than three members. Knowing two characters belonging to the same phonetic family promotes the phonetic strategy (i.e. applying the phonetic of one character to another). To develop consistency awareness, however, learners need to be sufficiently exposed to phonetic families with at least three members (Shu et al. 2003). Based on the statistics pertaining to the Chinese characters taught to beginning readers, it is more likely that the learners developed a phonetic strategy rather than an orthographic strategy.

Characters taught to adult CFL learners are similar to those for L1 Chinese children, in that more frequent characters are also introduced before less frequent ones. The number of characters that CFL learners in this study knew was estimated to be around 60 characters for beginners and around 700 characters for intermediate learners, which is fewer than the number of characters taught to L1 children during their first two years in the elementary school (1,145 characters). Therefore, it is naturally expected that it would be difficult for both beginner and intermediate CFL learners to have consistency awareness and to apply the orthographic strategy to learning to read unknown characters. Surprisingly, in this study, intermediate learners who had higher character knowledge were able to utilize the orthographic strategy. This implies that adult CFL learners can learn advanced strategies for reading faster than young L1 Chinese readers, probably owing to the literacy skills transferred from the L1 and their higher cognitive abilities.

5.3 Benefits of the orthographic strategy and pedagogical implications

As previously mentioned, the orthographic strategy is “a better index” of learning new characters than the phonetic strategy (Chen et al. 2003). While only simple characters were used in Experiment 1, in Experiment 2 both simple characters and phonetic compounds were used in a 1:2 ratio and each simple character served as a phonetic for the other two compounds. In Experiment 1, since all the characters in the learning phrase did not contain pronunciation cues, the participants could only memorize and recall characters by rote. However, in Experiment 2, two-thirds of the characters were phonetic compounds that contained the phonetics forming the other one-third of the characters. Also, one-third of the 18 characters were consistent, yielding a consistency rate of 33.33% and thus indicating that learners using the orthographic strategy might have a benefit of a 33% reduced memory load. The results of Experiment 2 indicate that CFL learners with a higher level of character knowledge utilized the orthographic strategy more than those with a lower level of character knowledge. Experienced readers using consistency information in Experiment 2 benefited from the reduced memory load. On the other hand, for novice readers with no concept of consistency, this combination of simple and compound characters would lead to more confusion and difficulty.

The fact that higher character knowledge enables CFL learners to use the orthographic strategy, which is a more sophisticated reading strategy, underscores the significance of character knowledge. This leads to the issue of how to teach Chinese characters in a more motivating and meaningful way in CFL settings. Recent intervention studies on L1 Chinese children's writing demonstrated that explicit instruction of the underlying logic of the Chinese script, such as the role of a phonetic in a phonetic compound character, helped children make significant progress in writing characters (Packard et al. 2006). This implies that raising metalinguistic awareness of the phonetic principle, especially phonetic consistency, could also be beneficial for adult CFL learners.

More than 800 phonetic families exist in Chinese, which leads to the question of which phonetic families should be considered for explicit instruction of phonetic consistency. As criteria for selecting phonetic families for effective teaching of characters in the CFL teaching context, Kim and Shin (2015a) proposed four novel principles based on an analysis of 2,729 phonetic compounds appearing in the 5,000 words of *New HSK* (2010), as follows:

For explicit and effective instruction of phonetic consistency,

1. Choose phonetic families with a higher consistency ratio.[6]
2. Among families with a high consistency ratio, select the families with a smaller number of possible pronounceable syllables (disregarding tones).
3. Among families with a high consistency ratio and a small number of possible syllables, the phonetic families with more members should be focused on, rather than those with fewer members.
4. In a phonetic family with a high consistency ratio, a small number of possible syllables and a large number of members, use the major syllable with more members as the representative syllable of the family and the remaining syllable(s) as (an) exception(s).[7]

6 For details of the consistency ratio, see Kim and Shin (2015a).

7 For example, among 2,729 characters constituting 5,000 words of *New HSK* (2010), there are nine characters (i.e., 羊, 洋, 養, 痒, 氧, 样, 祥, 翔 and 详) in the phonetic family of 羊. The first

6 Conclusion

This study examined the reading stages of adult CFL learners with the question of whether adult CFL learners also pass through the three reading stages (visual, phonetic and orthographic stages) found in L1 Chinese children's reading development. The results suggest that adult CFL learners begin from the phonetic stage, not from the visual stage, and then proceed to the orthographic stage as their character knowledge increases. These findings were discussed in terms of why the visual stage is not found in adult CFL learners, how learners' character knowledge is linked to the phonetic and orthographic stages, and how phonetic consistency can be enhanced and applied in the CFL classroom settings.

The present study, as the first experimental investigation of CFL learners' development of decoding skills, enhances and expands our understanding of L2 reading by examining adult L2 learners' reading stages in Chinese. The evidence for the phonetic and the orthographic stages in adult CFL reading acquisition found in this study suggests that the use and expansion of the phonetic principle can play an important role in learning to read Chinese. This supports the hypothesis that phonetic processing is inevitable even in a logographic writing system such as Chinese and thus, knowledge of the phonetic principle and the ability to use phonetics are important when learning to read Chinese (DeFrancis 1984). This provides evidence that all writing systems, without exception, represent spoken languages and that reading is a cognitive process of converting a written language to a spoken language, which inevitably involves phonological recoding (Perfetti 2003; Rayner & Pollatsek 1989).

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six characters have *yang* as their pronunciation and the last three are pronounced *xiang*. In this case, the representative syllable for the 羊 family is taught as *yang* and the *xiang* is introduced as an exception to this rule. Then CFL learners will attempt to read a new character containing 羊 as its phonetic with *yang* first and then with *xiang* if *yang* is found to be incorrect. There are two benefits to this method. First, from the learners' perspective, they can narrow down the possible correct pronuncation of the syllable to two out of more than 400, which is the total number of syllables (not counting tones) in Chinese. Second, learners are able to have control over characters belonging to the same phonetic family, instead of individually dealing with and memorizing one at a time, which is more logical and efficient than the traditional method of rote memorization. For more examples, see Kim and Shin (2015b) and Kim and Shin (2017). The appendices of Kim and Shin (2015b) and Kim and Shin (2017) provide the representative syllable(s) and the exception(s) for 73 phonetic families covering 374 characters, and 180 phonetic families covering 695 characters, respectively, in *The Outline of New HSK* (2010).

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Yona Gilead

10 Developing communicative competence: The role of handover in scaffolding oral communication

1 Introduction

Communicative competence has long been identified as a key objective of learning additional languages (e.g., Cajkler & Addelman 2012; Ellis 2012; Harmer 2007; Macaro, Vanderplank & Murphy 2010; Pachler 2000/2012; Tarone 2010). One major way in which teachers can assist their students in developing and sustaining the ability to "interact with other speakers, to make meaning" (Savignon 2005: 636), is by gradually handing over communicative responsibilities. Such a gradual process affords students opportunities to initiate and experiment with language, whilst being supported by their teacher as well as supporting and being supported by their peers. Regular and consistent handover at various levels, therefore, affords a major pedagogical tool in scaffolding learners' oral communicative competence.

This article explores the role handover plays in scaffolding oral communication in a university level L2 course. I present findings from an empirical case study investigation of a "broadly communicative" (Macaro 2009, as cited in Gilead 2016a) classroom-based teaching and learning of a beginner-level Modern Hebrew unit offered at a large Australian university. The research question that drove the case study investigation asked, 'What are the teaching and learning contexts and typical patterns of classroom dynamic interactions that contribute to students' success in one Hebrew language program?' (Gilead 2014, 2018). A brief summary of the theorization of handover, as one feature in which teachers provide on-the-spot in-class scaffolding (Hammond & Gibbons 2005; Michell & Sharpe 2005; van Lier 2004), is followed by a discussion of the three major types of handover identified in this research; ranging from relatively open-ended handover that includes handover at the commencement of lessons and handover during pair-work, to the more restrictive type of handover during the introduction of new language. The article concludes by considering the role handover plays in developing and scaffolding oral communication and the case study's findings' potential contribution to L2 teaching and research.

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2 Theoretical constructs of scaffolding and handover

The terms *scaffolding* and *handover*, which have become ubiquitous in the general field of second language teaching and research, were originally coined by Bruner and his colleagues in the 1970s (Bruner, Wood, & Ross,1976/2006.[1]) At first, both terms referred to the process in which adults assisted children in their endeavors to work out unfamiliar tasks:

> [S]caffolding consists essentially of the adult “controlling” those elements of the task that are initially beyond the learner’s capacity … [Scaffolding] may result, in development of task competence by the learner at a pace that would far outstrip his unassisted efforts. (Bruner, Wood & Ross 1976/2006: 199)

> … [the] mother would introduce new procedures and gradually “hand it over” to the child as his skills for executing it developed … One sets the game, provides a scaffold to assure that the child’s ineptitudes can be rescued or rectified by appropriate intervention and then can remove the scaffold part by part as the reciprocal structure can stand on its own … This “handover principle” is so ubiquitous that we hardly notice its presence. (Bruner & Watson 1983: 60; inverted commas in original)

Thereafter, scaffolding and handover became closely associated with the Vygotskian conceptualization of assisted performance within the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) as provided via interaction with teachers (Gibbons 2003; McCafferty 2013; Vygotsky 1978). Expanding on the Vygotskian view of the ZPD with its conceptualization as the space in which learners’ potential developmental ability is guided and assisted by interactions with the teacher, Donato (1994) included support from more capable peers. van Lier (2002, 2004) further expanded the conceptualization of assisted performance by positing that less capable peers can also provide support. Moreover, van Lier argued that students can enhance their performance by accessing resources. Lastly, Wei (1999) proposed the conceptualization of a ‘moving ZPD’, a changing and developing zone of engagement which correlates students’ developing ability and increasing independence to teachers’ decreasing support.

Thus, within these sociocultural and ecological linguistic understandings of second language development, viewing teaching and learning as evolving and developing processes, scaffolding and handover are understood as the mechanisms that provide support and guidance for learning to develop within the ZPD, the ‘space’ in which learning and development take place.

1 The article was originally published in 1976 under Wood, Bruner, & Ross in the *Journal of Child Psychology & Psychiatry and Allied Disciplines*, *17*, 89–100, Pergamon Press.

Scholars (e.g. Hammond & Gibbons 2005; Mercer & Fisher 1998; Michell & Sharpe 2005; van Lier 2004) have argued that the widespread embracing in recent years (by both teachers and researchers) of the terms *scaffolding* and *handover* as generally referring to good teaching has been problematic because of the failure to clearly articulate the specific pedagogical practices these activities entail, and/or their degree of effectiveness.[2] This realization led to a large research project, which investigated what scaffolding and handover looked like in the enacted curriculum. In it, Australian researchers undertook an analysis of ways in which a number of classroom teachers supported their students' learning of English as an additional language (Hammond, Gibbons, Michell & Sharpe 2001–2003; Hammond & Gibbons 2005; Michell & Sharpe 2005).

Based on the project's findings, Hammond & Gibbons (2005) emphasized the significance of different levels of decisions made by teachers. They distinguished between the conscious and planned decisions that teachers make in planning their programs and lessons, referred to as "designed-in scaffolding" (macro and meso scaffolding levels according to van Lier 2004) and the spontaneous-as-required support teachers provide in the moment-by-moment (Gibbons 2003) unfolding of classroom interactions, referred to as "contingent scaffolding" (micro-level scaffolding according to van Lier, 2004). The former includes identification of instructional goals, analysis of students' prior knowledge and the selection and sequencing of instructional tasks to ensure their contribution to the broader learning objectives. This earlier planning serves as a foundation for the implementation of future activities, both in terms of developing students' knowledge of curriculum content and in developing their understandings of language and literacy.

The "contingent scaffolding" (van Lier's micro-level 2004), is when teachers make "the most of the teachable moment" (Hammond & Gibbons 2005: 11) with the actual activity in the classroom. This includes: linking past experiences with current classroom tasks, pointing forward to future learning, recapping key learning, appropriating and recasting students' contributions to classroom interactions and providing "intellectual push" by the strategic use of question and answer sequences.[3] Thus, Hammond and Gibbons (2005) conclude that:

2 In fact, van Lier (2008) used the term "agency" to denote handover within sequences of turn-taking question-and-answer exchanges as perceived from the students' perspective.

3 Both Hammond and Gibbons (2005) and van Lier (2004) argue that without prior planning ("designed-in" and "macro" and "meso" levels, respectively) of learning purposes, the spontaneous ("micro-level", "contingent") scaffolding can be a "hit and miss affair" (Hammond & Gibbons 2005: 20).

> Scaffolding, unlike good teaching generally, is specific help that provides the intellectual 'push' to enable students to work at 'the outer limits of the ZPD. (p. 15; inverted commas in original)

> Effective scaffolding should result in 'handover', with students being able to transfer understandings and skills to new tasks in new learning contexts, thereby becoming increasingly independent learners. (p. 15; inverted commas in original)

Also working within this same large research project were Michell and Sharpe (2005), who focused specifically on the construct of handover. Their findings led them to argue that there is a close alignment between teachers' move of handing over turn-taking responsibilities to the students whilst concurrently diminishing their own discursive control:

> The progression of scaffolding is characterized by a transfer of task role, responsibility and authority *from* the teacher *towards* the student. As the task unfolds, this shift is typically evidenced by diminishing teacher participation and increasing student involvement ... The 'handover/takeover' transition is the 'chrysalis' in which the novice participants appropriate the knowledge and skills of the task experts and themselves become 'task masters'. (Michell & Sharpe, 2005, pp. 49–50; italics and inverted commas in original)

One of the ways in which teachers provide contingent/micro-level scaffolding and manage handover processes is through sequences of turn-taking question-and-answer exchanges, also referred to as the initiation-response-feedback (IRF). As many scholars have pointed out, turn-taking underpins most classrooms discursive interactions (e.g. Christie 2002, 2008; Ellis 2012; Mercer 2002, 2008; van Lier 2002, 2004, 2008).

To sum up, this article seeks to build on previous research and through the specific case study, provide further insight into the process of handover in scaffolding oral communication.

3 Methodology: Case study

The findings reported in this article are drawn from a qualitative and ethnographically oriented case study, located within a sociocultural-ecological worldview (e.g. Lantolf 2011; van Lier 2000, 2002, 2004; Vygotsky 1978). Such a worldview calls for an all-inclusive approach to research, which captures the fullness of the investigated situation, embraces the many elements that make up the research site and consider the complex and multilayered connections amongst and between the multitude of teaching and learning elements (LeCompte, Preissle & Tesch 1993; Packer 2011). It requires data to be collected from different sources via a range of data collection techniques and over a prolonged period of time (Chamot, 2001;

Christie 2002; Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2004; DuFon 2002; Mackey & Gass 2005; Packer 2011; van Lier 2004). In line with sociocultural-ecological perspectives, the case study was designed in an attempt to "look at the entire situation and ask what is it in this environment that makes things happen the way they do?" (van Lier 2004: 11–12). Thus, while primarily investigating a university-level Modern Hebrew program, the research also addresses the broader L2 field.

All the students in the study's cohort were enrolled in the same beginner-level Modern Hebrew class. They included seven female students and three male students. Eight were local and two were international students. Three were in the 18–19 age-category, four in the 20–25 age-category and three in the 26–36 age-category. All were complete beginner learners of Modern Hebrew. The teacher was a native speaker of Hebrew who was also fluent in English. His long and varied experience of teaching L2 Hebrew included teaching at a number of academic institutions both in Israel and abroad.

The data collection was carried out over one academic semester, with classroom observations and recordings covering a 10-week period. The data included audio and video recordings of the lessons observed; interviews with the students and the teacher, both during the lessons themselves (mid-lesson student interviews) and once, when the teaching-learning period ended; observation notes; and collection of teaching and learning resources (Gilead 2014, 2016a). These data captured most of the classroom interactions, including verbal and non-verbal communication. All interviews were conducted orally and in the participants' L1; English for the students and Hebrew for the teacher, to allow a free and flexible conversation. These interviews were semi-structured in order to keep inquiries as non-specific as possible, so as not to influence participants' responses (Packer 2011). The mid-lesson student interviews included elements of "stimulated recall interviews" (Chamot 2001; Gass & Mackey 2000) and "introspective verbal reporting" (Gass & Mackey 2015). These entailed a pause in lessons' proceedings whereby I informed the students of the teaching and learning processes I had observed. I then asked the students to report on their perspectives and internal thought processes (DuFon 2002). I repeatedly reminded the students that the focus of the study was on the learning and teaching events, activities and interactions in the classroom, rather than on the personalities of the teacher and/or their peers. Additionally, I stressed the fact that there were no 'right' or 'expected' answers to any line of inquiry (Gass & Mackey 2015).

As discussed, this case study was carried out over one semester. Christie (2002) and Watson-Gegeo (1988) have asserted that classroom discursive interactions are recursive and typified and that the collection of substantial material over a prolonged period of time validates the presented examples' claims of typicality.

Based on this assertion, for the purpose of this article, one to two examples have been chosen to illustrate the findings. Furthermore, as the presented extracts are based on the transcripts of the video footage, they allowed me to provide non-verbal information, such as “posture, gestures … facial expressions and other visual interactional cues” (DuFon 2002: 44).

An analysis of the data revealed three major types of handover: handover at the commencement of lessons, handover during pair-work, and handover during the introduction of new language.

4 Findings

4.1 Three major types of handover

In her seminal work on theorizing structured pedagogical experience and typical patterns of classroom discourse, Christie (2002) employed the terms “*curriculum genres curriculum macrogenres*” (Christie 2002: 3) to denote classroom discursive activity. In doing so, Christie’s (2002) use of these terms differs from the usual usage of ‘curriculum’ as referring to course/program content and ‘genre’ as referring to particular types of written and/or spoken text that share a social purpose and designate the same field of activity (e.g., narrative, recount, observation) (Christie 2008; Macaro et al. 2010). Instead, the “curriculum genres” are the ways in which texts unfold within specific contexts, which include recurring elements, structures and phases that typify discursive activities (Christie 2002: 21–23). The “*curriculum macrogenres*” are extensive segments of classroom interactions: “[they] provide a means to trace the developments and changes within larger tracts of classroom talk and activity over very long periods of time” (Christie 2002: 98). Christie (2002) further points out that classroom activity has an overall generic structure of sequencing between lessons and within lessons. Typically, teaching and learning comprises three major stages or elements: teacher initiation, followed by teacher-student activity, followed by student independent activity. This overall pattern typifies both the overall lesson structure, as well as the various activities included within the lessons. Christie’s (2002) three-stage generic lesson-structure provided a basis for my analysis of the case study’s three major types of handover. The latter ranged from the relatively open-ended handover, which included handover at the commencement of lessons and handover during pair-work, to the more teacher-controlled handover during the introduction of new language.

4.2 Handover in the Warm up

Handover at the commencement of lessons, which I refer to as the *Warm up* handover, entailed the lessons' opening segment. It was an open-ended type of handover in the sense that students could choose what to speak about and what language to use. The *Warm up*'s main purpose was to ease the students into the Hebrew learning environment by providing them with a forum where they could freely and independently use the L2. This *Warm-up* handover entailed a whole-cohort exchange in which the students responded to the teacher's questions by relating their activities over the past weekend. The teacher referred to this activity as a mechanism for "*warming the students and easing them into the Hebrew learning environment*".[4]

Following the students entering the classroom, independently choosing their seating and exchanging greetings and short conversations with one another, the teacher typically began the lesson by uttering the greeting "*Hello, how are things?*" This signaled the lesson's opening and the commencement of the *Warm up* session. Usually, the teacher opened with the question "*what are you doing on the weekend?*" (using present, rather than past tense, as students had not yet learned past tense), followed by a range of questions relating to students' weekend activities. Due to the small class size, all ten students were able to participate actively in these *Warm up* sessions.

The extract below is one example of the type of interaction that typically took place during the *Warm up* sessions.

As can be seen, opening the interaction by addressing the whole cohort, the teacher asked in Hebrew "*what are you doing on the weekend?*" (move 1). He spoke slowly and the second repeat of the Hebrew word "*weekend* (*SOF SHAVU'A*)" served to confirm that students understood the word's meaning. The students confirmed their understanding by uttering the English equivalent (move 2). Following the teacher's second repeat of the question (move 3), Tal was the first to respond by stating that she "*drink[s] a lot*" *[SHOTA HARBE']* (move 4). The teacher then kept the conversation going by asking further questions (moves 5, 7), using recently introduced combinations of feminine cardinal numbers and nouns (move 9).

Analysing the handover elements in this segment, we note the following: firstly, the interaction continued to flow with the teacher posing questions in Hebrew and the student answering them in English; nonetheless, this did not prevent the natural flow of the interaction. Secondly, Tal is comfortable in relating that she drank a lot on the weekend, with the teacher refraining from providing

4 Italics here indicate translation of the original Hebrew.

Extract 1. Handover in the *Warm up*

Move & speaker	English translation
1 T[1]	*Lovely, well. eh [..], what [..], what [..] do you* {m.pl} *[...] do* {m.pl} *[...] on the weekend? what [.] do you [.] do [.] on the weekend----? weekend-------?*
2 Several	[2]Weekend
3 T	Week**end.**[3] *yes, the weekend* [...] *what* [.] *do you* [.] *do* [.] *on the weekend?* I hope you remember it.
4 Tal[4]	*Drink a lot*
5 T	*Drink a lot [...] every weekend...] drink a lot? every weekend-------------? Its [...]*
6 Tal	It's pretty much it
7 T	*Ok, how much? how much is a lot------? how much--? how much is a lot----?*
8 Tal	Um [..] I don't know
9 T	*One beer? two beers? three beers? [...]* ***five*** *beers?*
10 Tal	We haven't learnt to count that high.

1 T denotes Teacher
2 Regular phont denotes English; Italics denotes translation of the original Hebrew.
3 Bold denotes emphatic stress.
4 All names are pseudonyms chosen by the students themselves.

any kind of moral judgement (I stress this fact, as heavy drinking is generally looked upon negatively in the Australian context).

The teacher then directed the same question "*what are you doing on the weekend?*" to the next student (Eliza), who also related that she drank on the weekend. Continuing with the "drinking" theme, the teacher then asked Ethel what she drank on the weekend. Yet, Ethel changed the discussion's course by stating that she studied "*Hebrew* and Greek Classical Myth" (moves 4, 6 and 10, respectively):

Extract 2. Handover in the *Warm up*

Move & speaker	English translation
1 T	*And Ethel, what do you drink on the weekend?* [several students burst laughing]
2 Ethel	*Drink?*
3 T	*What do you drink on the weekend?*
4 Ethel	*No, no, I [...] study*
5 T	*Hmm, I don't drink, I ----?*

Move & speaker	English translation
6 Ethel	*I don't drink, I study*
7 T	*Hmm, what do you study? you Ethel, you Ethel, you are a good pupil. [.] you are an excellent pupil.*
8 Ethel	Yes
9 T	*Yes, ok, so what are you learning, Ethel?*
10 Ethel	*eh, Hebrew and* [.........], em [...] Greek Classical Myth [pulling the textbook from her bag and showing the class]
11 T	Greek?
13 Ethel	Greek
14 T	*you learn Hebrew and Mike, [..] Hebrew and-----?*
15 Mike	*Greek*
16 Ethel	*Greek**, *yes* [*mispronouncing the Hebrew *YEVANIT* as *YEFANIT*]
17 T	*Hebrew and Greek. you learn Greek?*
18 Ethel	Yeah [...] *yes*

Analysing the handover elements in this segment, we note that the two earlier features are also present here: natural flow of interaction, with the teacher posing questions in Hebrew and Ethel answering in English and the ease with which Ethel diverted from the path set by the previous students. Thus, the activity still largely entailed sequences of turn-taking question-and-answer exchanges, but the students' discursive responses ('answers') were longer, idiosyncratic and more open-ended.

Additionally, a number of new features come to light: firstly, whilst Ethel was the teacher's main dialogical partner, the teacher also involves Mike in the conversation (move 14); Mike's immediate response (move 15) shows that he was tuned-in to the discussion. Further evidence that the other students were tuned-in emerges from the fact that they burst into laughter during this interaction segment (move 1), as well as their bodies' positioning – they were turned towards the student who was speaking (as captured by the video footage).

The teacher then continued asking each student "*what are you doing on the weekend?*", with each choosing what to relate: Tami discussed her weekend job; Mike related his Church activities; Hanna related eating in a restaurant; Tony reported on his supermarket shopping; Lucy recounted her trip to the Blue Mountains; Mic discussed his university assignments, as well as the fact that he sang in the shower; and Sarah reported that she worked in a café.

As the above extracts show, handover in the *Warm up* session was co-constructed by the teacher and the students. While the teacher initially took the leading role, once he posed the opening question he allowed each student to choose the discursive path s/he wished to follow. Yet, he did not relinquish control; rather, by continuing to ask questions and eliciting further information, the teacher 'pushed' the students (Hammond & Gibbons 2005) to draw on their existing Hebrew language resources to make meaning. Thus, this *Warm-up* activity is characterized as "a teacher led activity [where] learners are autonomous in choosing what to speak about and what language to use in their turn as the designated dialogical partner" (Dörnyei & Murphy 2003, p. 96).

These extracts also show the ways in which the teacher supported the students' use of Hebrew by repeating words or expressions several times, by recasting students' utterances and by insisting on complete sentences rather than a one word response. In this sense, through leading the interactions, the teacher provided support at strategic points, whilst at the same time enabling students to take more initiative and responsibility for the interaction. The open-ended nature of such interactions represented significant handover for students to experiment with their developing knowledge of the target language.

Another important finding emerged from the interviews I conducted with the students throughout the data collection period. Several reported that whilst they were listening to their peers' speech, they also corrected "in their heads" their peers' use of Hebrew:

Sarah	I'm always listening to the conversation and thinking about what I would answer ... so I'm always following the conversation between the Teacher ...
Mic	I usually listen to the person and try and figure out the answer as well.
Mike	Same as Mic.
Ethel	I usually look at the teacher first and try to remember the words we've learned and like how he uses it and then I'll listen to how the other person. I'll just watch for the teacher's reaction.
Tal	I try make my own sentences in my own head pretty quickly and then I just listen to other people and the mistakes that they make and then I try not to do the same thing.
Eliza	Usually I try to figure it out in my head and I don't listen and I wish I did listen because I get it wrong, but the teacher usually corrects me so it's cool.
Tony	I also listen to what other students are questioned about and see if there's any mistakes or something else.
Lucy	I listen to the first person who is speaking and then I continue to listen and then I do the same like Tal, I check what was wrong, I check the preposition and I prepare my sentence or ... I try to just remember ...

Finally, as emerged from my observations, rather than a specific question in the interviews, the *Warm up* handovers contributed significantly to creating a very positive and affective classroom atmosphere. Often topics that students brought up, such as Ethel's interest in Greek classical myths, Mike's church activities and Mic's singing in the shower, produced interest and often laughter as well.

To conclude, the analysis provides evidence that handover at the commencement of the lessons occurred through the *Warm-up* lesson-opening activity. This helped ease the students into the learning environment by providing them with a forum in which they could use the language recently introduced to them, as well as draw more broadly on the range of L2 resources that they had. The open-ended nature of the interactions provided opportunities for students to initiate and experiment with language, to use it correctly and incorrectly and to learn from both. Even though the teacher 'stepped back' in those interactions, it was significant that he continued to intervene in order to provide support, with both vocabulary and/or grammar, as necessary to ensure the interaction proceeded at a quick pace and with ease.

4.3 Handover during pair-work

Handover during pair-work was the second type of open-ended handover. This turn-taking activity was, on one hand, less open-ended than the *Warm up* in the sense that students had a set task that they needed to complete, which most often required the use of 'desirable' (namely, recently introduced) language. On the other hand, small group/pair-work activity provided students with opportunities for independent and idiosyncratic use of language, which was less teacher-controlled.

Handover in such pair-work activities entailed a change in the relationship between the teacher and the students. Whilst the former retained overall control of the learning activity, his role became one of background support; the communicative responsibility was handed-over to the students. As a result, students became increasingly autonomous in their interactions whilst gradually developing their own discursive path. Their turns became longer, they switched more frequently between the target language and their L1 and L2 speech fluctuated between grammatical and non-grammatical discourse (see Gilead 2016a). The latter, according to Ortega (2009), is a result of applying an "interim systematic solution" (33–34).

The next extract provides one example of the dynamics that typified pair-work handover. As we shall see, this type of handover provided students with opportunities to draw on all their available resources: the newly introduced Hebrew, as well as the support provided by their English negotiations. Moreover, whilst the students were engaged in constructing their dialogue, the teacher continued to offer assistance when necessary.

The pair-work below followed the whole-cohort activity in which new language in the semantic field of house/apartment was introduced (discussed shortly below). It included work on a given dialogue, in which two interlocutors, a landlord and a potential tenant, discuss the renting of an apartment. In the example provided, Tal and Tami were creating independent conversations based on the language recently introduced and based on a picture of an apartment from a magazine provided by the teacher. The pair began their own idiosyncratic dialogue, with Tami playing the role of the inquirer and Tal playing the role of the landlord (Extract 3). Halfway through their conversation, the teacher, who was moving from pair to pair, approached and intervened in their exchange (Extract 4).

Extract 3. Handover during pair-work

Move & speaker	English translation
1 Tami	[……] *Hello* [...] *it's regarding the apartment*
2 Tal	*It's* [……]
3 Tami	*There's new?*
4 Tal	*Yes, there's* [...] *three* {f} [...] *new* {m.s}
5 Tami	No it's wrong
6 Tal	*Room* {m.s}
7 Tami	*Big* {m.s}* [...] I want to say
8 Tal	*Big*

Tami began by "mirroring" (Wei 1999) the earlier given dialogue's opening utterance (move 1). In the following moves, Tami, with Tal's support, was attempting to inquire about the condition and size of the apartment (moves 2–8). In this process, the co-constructed conversation began mainly in Hebrew (moves 1–4). Yet, when their knowledge of Hebrew was strained, for example with regard to noun-number gender agreement in Hebrew (move 4), they switched between English and Hebrew (moves 5, 7, respectively). As the role-play progressed, Tal and Tami engaged in further negotiation of the apartment's merits. As earlier explained, when they lacked the required knowledge of Hebrew, they turned to English. At that point the teacher joined in and began asking questions as follows:

Extract 4. Handover during pair-work

Move & speaker	English translation
1 T	*what's in the apartment?*
2 Tami	We don't know how to say towel-rack

Move & speaker	English translation
3 T	*ok, what's in the apartment?*
4 Tami	*there's convenience* {m.pl} *with shower*
5 T	*convenience with shower, correct [...] what's the situation of the convenience? the convenience* {m.pl} *is ---?*
6 Tal	*Ummm new** {m.s}
7 Tami	*= new** {m.s}
8 T	***Convenience*** {m.pl} *[..]* so what can it be?
9 Tami	*new* {m.pl}
10 T	*Lovely, new convenience,* you can say it only in plural, *yes new convenience and there's ---?*

As we saw earlier in the *Warm up* handover (Extracts 1–2), the teacher posed his questions in Hebrew. While accepting students' reliance on their L1 as a supporting mechanism, "to compensate for lack of linguistic knowledge" (Macaro, 2005, p. 67), the teacher did not allow the unknown word 'towel-rack' to divert the course of the exchange. Rather, he repeated his question as a way of urging the students to use known language (moves 1–4). In addition, he elicited knowledge regarding the gender agreement of the irregular form (masculine-plural) of the noun *convenience* (moves 5–10), hence scaffolding Tal and Tami's emerging L2 knowledge. While the students worked to construct their dialogue, the teacher hovered in the background, moving from one pair to the next whilst providing scaffolding when needed. In doing so, he continued to play an important role, both to ensure students remained on task and to provide support when necessary.

In conclusion, the pair-work handover provided students with opportunities to practice new language. This type of handover enhanced their Hebrew discourse and individual language development by giving them the freedom to discuss in English elements of Hebrew grammar and syntax they found challenging. Such pair-work handover allowed students to co-construct exchanges whilst providing them with opportunities to negotiate and clarify, in their L1, their meta-understanding of relevant aspects of Hebrew. That is, pair-work handover activity provided opportunities for students to reflect on and enhance their own Hebrew language development, as well as to integrate use of language with knowledge about language.

Finally, I point out that no data emerged from the interviews I conducted with the students pertaining to their perspective of the role handover played in their L2 learning and development.

4.4 Handover during introduction of new language

Handover during the introduction of new language is a more restrictive form of handover. This third handover type is the most teacher-controlled and is framed by sequences of turn-taking question-and-answer exchanges as compared to the *Warm up* handover in which students' discursive responses ('answers') were longer, more individualistic and more open-ended.

My findings show two main handover techniques the teacher utilized in this case study: the first technique is the common and largely practiced way of modelling the new language; namely, by saying and repeating it several times and then asking the students to "mirror" (Wei 1999) it; in other words, to repeat it. The second technique, which the case study teacher used most commonly, was to invite the students to draw on language they already knew to "*conjure/guess*" [*NIHOUSH NAVON*] (Blum 1971: 58) the meaning of the new item, and/or to "make inferences" (Chamot 2010: 117) regarding its meaning; and by doing so, link new learning with previous knowledge (van Lier 2000, 2004; Savignon 2005).

Extract 5. Handover during the introduction of new language

Move & speaker	English translation
1 T	*Ok, what's that--------?* [whilst pointing to an illustration in the textbook
2 Tal	*house??* [*BAYIT*]
3 Ethel	*House*
4 T	*that's [...] a house, ok, yes, that's a house* [intonation implies this is not the required answer]
5 Ethel	Ehh, it's an apartment
6 T	*ah, ok that's* an apartment, or unit*, eh, what's that in Hebrew* apartment*?! Apartment* [*DIRA*]
7 Several	*apartment = apartment = apartment*
8 T	*apartment. ok, apartment ---? apartment --- ? ok [...] apartment--- ?* [writes *DIRA* on the board] *one apartment, many----?*
9 Eliza	*Apartments [DIROT]*
10 T	*Lovely, apartments. apartment [---], apartments, as [...] class [KITA] [---] classes [KITOT]. apartment, apartments.*

The teacher began the introduction of the new language by pointing to a floorplan of an apartment (*DIRA*), which the students had before them and posed the question "*what's that--------?*" (move 1). In doing so, he began the well-practiced (by this stage of the semester) approach of negotiating meaning (e.g. Gass & Mackey 2015; Macaro 2005; van Lier 2000). At this point, the question might arise, how can beginner-learners be expected to know new and unknown language items before these are introduced? However, as can be seen by Tal's offer of the Hebrew word "*BAYIT*" ("house", move 2), followed by the teacher's reservation (as expressed by his intonation, move 4) and Ethel's offer of the English "apartment" (move 5), the context was set for the teacher to introduce the new word "*apartment*" (*DIRA*) (move 6). Following the teacher's "modelling", the students "mirrored" him (Wei 1999) by repeating the word (move 7).

Moreover, the teacher took a step further (moves 8–10), eliciting the plural form *DIROT* (*apartments*), which Eliza provided correctly, to emphasize that the newly introduced singular and plural forms "*DIRA-DIROT*" were similar to the already known forms "*KITA-KITOT*" (*class-classes*). This was done without explicitly pointing out that the two nouns have the same morphological structure, hence providing implicit, rather than explicit, grammatical knowledge (e.g. Ellis 2009, 2012; Larsen-Freeman 2009).

In conclusion, a number of important pedagogic practices come to light in this tightly controlled handover activity. Firstly, learners can be taught to infer/conjure up the meaning of new language items, when the context in which such new language is introduced is set by the teaching moment; this then is immediately followed by the teacher's modelling of the required word/utterance. Secondly, in addition to introducing new words, students can be encouraged to deduce grammatical knowledge. Hence, this technique of eliciting or drawing language, including new and unknown language, from the students, often in the form of rhetorical questions, encourages students to link new learning with previous knowledge (van Lier 2000, 2004; Savignon 2005). As the above example shows, students were comfortable with this technique. Moreover, in my interviews with the students, they reported how beneficial this process of negotiating meaning was to their L2 learning and development:

Tal	I think it's important, like when he doesn't give us the word in English, it's like important for us to try and guess what the word is and put it in context, cause then by having to work it out in our own heads … we remember it more instead of going 'right this word is this' and it just kind of goes away, but if you work it out yourself, it's like you know this and then you write it down and you remember it.
Tony	I think it's better to guess the meaning rather than to just translate to English cause it's like kids learn language.
Tami	It like, makes the process of thinking, like you don't do as much translating from English like into a different language if you learn it in the context of that language to start with.

Mic I love being challenged **and** I think it's really important that we are challenged in the class, because it's really the only place I'm being challenged. But I also get nervous that I misinterpret things and would very much like to get an English interpretation provided, but if it comes at the end of the class its fine. Yes, I like the challenge.

5 Discussion and conclusion

The terms *handover* and *scaffolding* have been used widely in the area of additional language teaching (as well as in the wider educational field) over the past 60 years. These terms have become associated with good teaching and more specifically, used to describe the assistance given to students with respect to specific learning tasks. Within the sociocultural-ecological paradigms, scaffolding and handover are seen as the mechanisms that provide support and guidance for learning to develop within the ZPD. Yet, to-date, few investigations have focused on the specific role of *handover* in scaffolding oral interaction and no investigation has been carried out with respect to the functions handover plays in scaffolding oral communication in a university level L2 Modern Hebrew course. Recapping the major elements that entail handover, they include supporting students in mastering knowledge by progressive transfer of control over activities from teacher to students.

The findings from this research project highlighted three major types of handover: the turn-taking question-and-answer handover, which takes place during the introduction of new language; the pair-work handover, which is part of specific tasks; and the *Warm up* handover, which takes place at the start of a lesson. These three major handover types can be placed on a continuum from the most teacher-controlled to the most open-ended handover.

The turn-taking question-and-answer exchange is the most teacher-controlled handover. In this initial phase of instruction, the teacher introduced new language. However, as we have seen (Extract 5), even in this type of teaching-learning exchange, the teacher tried to elicit knowledge from the students rather than providing it to them. In this way, he encouraged them to actively participate in the learning process by drawing on their existing target language knowledge.

The second and third types of handover could be seen, respectively, within the pair-work activities (Extracts 3–4) and *Warm up* (Extracts 1–2). In these activities, students enjoyed increased responsibility over the discursive content and the language they employed. These handover types provided them with increasing opportunities to use the language and develop their independent speaking skills.

Thus, the second major type of handover, which, as stated above, occurred during pair-work activities, provided students with opportunities to practice and consolidate the new language items introduced shortly before. As this second major type of handover took place, students' responses tended to become less predictable; their turns became longer and as they were increasingly required to draw on their own knowledge of the target language, their code-switching increased. Importantly, at such times, the teacher continued to be in overall control, monitoring students' progress and intervening when necessary to address points of difficulty, as well as ensuring students remained on-task. Yet, such support and/or monitoring was choreographed with a light touch; it allowed space for students to experiment with and practice the new language, as well as to support each other while doing so.

The third major type of handover and the most open-ended form (with respect to the content and language the students could choose) was the *Warm up*, which took place at the commencement of lessons (Extracts 1–2). Here, students became even more autonomous (than during pair/group work) in their use of Hebrew, as they were free to choose both the event and/or activity they wished to relate, as well as the language they wanted to use.

One significant finding that emerged from the case study pertains to learning processes: whilst on the surface, it looked as though the whole-cohort *Warm up* handover entailed several one-on-one interactional episodes between the teacher and a single student as a dialogical partner, in actual fact, as demonstrated in Extract 2, other students were actively participating in the exchange. This was evident in their laughter, in their body-language as they turned to look at the student conversing with the teacher and in Mike's inclusion in the exchange (Extract 2, moves 1 and 14–15, respectively). Moreover, from their testimonies we learned that the exchanges in the *Warm up* sessions did not only benefit the specific student who was the teacher's dialogical partner and the focus of the one-on-one handover. That is, most students in the group participated when the discursive turn was handed over to their peers, even if their participation was internal and silent (Karas, 2016; van Lier, 2008; Vygotsky, 1978). Thus, one of the important findings that emerged from this research was that other students participated silently and that whole-cohort discussions contributed to their language development in a variety of ways.

Another significant aspect of the *Warm up* was the fact that it provided opportunities for the students to talk about themselves, their activities and their interests. This type of handover made language learning relevant to the students' life. Indeed, it has long been acknowledged in the literature that classroom environments where students feel supported, valued and respected as learners provide a more effective basis for successful learning (Bell 2009; Dörnyei & Murphy 2003; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie 2002).

The analysis presented in this chapter contributes to the wider field of L2 teaching, learning and research, by providing a more nuanced analysis of handover as scaffolding oral communication. Firstly, this research provides evidence that students participate both vocally and silently in whole-class discussions (as they themselves testified [p. 214]), hence adding to the premise that silent participation is an important component of learning (de Guerrero 2005; Karas 2016; van Lier 2008; Vygotsky 1978), especially in L2 learning, as the target language is both the goal and the means of acquisition. Secondly, theorization of students' experience of classroom practice, as Ortega (2007) predicts, is "[t]he final area of future theoretical development … in explanations of SLA" (247). There is a general agreement amongst SLA theories that there is considerable variation in students' experiences of learning an additional language and the way these experiences impact their L2 development and the proficiency level they achieve, even whilst being exposed to the same learning environment. Yet, the relationship between students' L2 classroom experience and their L2 learning processes and L2 attainments is an area that has thus far been underreported, as are the causes of variation in learners' L2 achievements. Nor and possibly more significantly, have students' own views gained sufficient entry into L2 scholarly discussions and research, "despite [students'] obvious language learning credentials" (Rowland 2011: 255).

Therefore, future research could focus on the relationship between students' attitudes to learning the L2, as well as on their classroom experiences and L2 attainment. Other aspects to be further investigated are factors that impact students' perspectives of teaching and learning, which are different from teachers' understandings. Does this relate to language ability or are other social, contextual, or ideological factors at play emerging from students' and teachers' life experiences or the local contexts? How can students' perspectives be incorporated into syllabus design and into teachers' pedagogical practices? What happens if there is a disconnect between the teachers' and the students' perspectives and how can this be dealt with? In addition, some more specific research questions can focus on the following: students' perspective of "contingent scaffolding" and teachers' methods of affording students with the "intellectual push" (Hammond & Gibbons 2005, p. 25) to reach the higher levels of their ZPD; the contribution of students' internal and silent participation, in addition to their audible and public participation and how the former impacts on and contributes to their L2 learning and development.

Due to its principal understandings that learning a language is a developmental process and that language emerges and develops amongst and between multilayered social and material interactions, the sociocultural-ecological world view of SLA provides a theoretically sound framework to theorize students' L2 learning experiences. Moreover, considering learners' views and testimonies as an important source of empirical data allows researchers to shine a light on both the teaching and learning dynamics and classroom interactions and the ways in which such experiences impact the "emergence" (van Lier 2004) of the L2 in different individuals.

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Part III: **Practices in developing competence**

Thi Thuy Minh Nguyen and Gia Anh Le Ho

11 Pragmatic development in the study abroad context: Impact of a cross-cultural pragmatic strategies intervention

1 Introduction

This chapter reports a case study that investigates the impact of an intensive cross-cultural pragmatic strategies training program on improving two Singaporean study abroad students' ability to produce and recognize socially appropriate requests in Vietnamese as a second language (L2). A secondary aim of the study is to explore the influence of individual students' degree and context of social contact with the native speaker (NS) during their sojourn on developing their pragmatic awareness of socially appropriate requests in the target language (TL). We focus particularly on the students' production and awareness of imperative requests because this type of requests has been found to occur with high frequency in Vietnamese social interactions, whereas it is rarely used in English due to the perceived impoliteness associated with it (Nguyen & Ho, 2013). Therefore, learners of L2 Vietnamese coming from an English-speaking background, such as the two learners reported in our study, may have difficulty in judging the appropriateness of this request type and thus possibly need pedagogical assistance.

There are two main rationales for our study. First, although the study of requests in an L2 has attracted a great amount of attention in interlanguage pragmatics research (ILP), most of these studies have focused on European languages such as English (Hendriks 2008; Otçu & Zeyrek 2008; Schauer 2007; Woodfield 2008), German (Barron 2003, 2006) and Spanish (Cohen & Shively 2007; Felix-Brasdefer 2007; Shively,2011) and a few Asian languages such as Bahasa Indonesian (Hassall 2001, 2003), Chinese (Li, 2012), Korean (Byon 2004) and Japanese (Ishihara & Tarone 2009). In contrast, very few studies have explored requests in L2 Vietnamese (Nguyen & Basturkmen 2013; Nguyen & Ho 2014). Hence, by examining this under-represented TL, our study aims to expand the range of TLs and contribute to existing ILP literature.

Second, recent years have witnessed a growing interest in the impact of study abroad on the development of pragmatic competence in an L2 (Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos 2011; Barron 2003, 2006; Bella 2011, 2012; Cohen & Shively 2007; Felix-

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Brasdefer 2004; Hassall 2012, 2015; Iwasaki 2011; Matsumura 2001; Nguyen & Ho 2014; Schauer 2009; Shively 2011). Two generalizations emerging from this body of research are relevant to our study. First, although the study abroad context is generally seen as a promising venue for language learning, not all learners benefit equally from the sojourn abroad. On the contrary, study abroad learners tend to vary greatly in their patterns and pace of development (see Taguchi 2015a for a recent overview of the findings). Particularly, some in-depth investigations of the experiences of individual learners during their sojourn have pointed out that the aforementioned variation is hardly related to quantifiable factors such as length of residence in the TL country, but rather, to individual learners' characteristics and investment in the learning environment, as well as the quality of their experiences during the sojourn (Hassall 2015; Iwasaki 2011; Kinginger 2008). Due to the paucity of such investigations, however, further research is required to contribute insights into the relationship between individual language learning experiences and pragmatic development in the study abroad context (Hassall 2015). The second generalization concerns the lack of effectiveness of sole exposure to pragmatic input in the naturalistic acquisition context. Some studies have shown that despite being immersed in input-rich environments, study abroad learners may not always receive pragmatically relevant input. Target community members rarely provide corrective feedback on pragmatic issues due to concerns about damaging face (Shively 2011), or may adopt different pragmatic norms when interacting with international students than with their fellow in-group members, thus depriving learners of opportunities to observe local norms of interaction (DuFon 1999; Iino 1996). Coupled with the above is the well-documented fact that some pragmatic features, when not deliberately taught, may be less susceptible than other to changes, despite exposure during study abroad (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford 1993; Bouton 1994). These findings indicate that it is necessary to train study abroad students in cross-cultural communication strategies before their departure, in order to allow them to maximize learning opportunities in the host country (Cohen & Shively 2007). Given limited empirical evidence of the impact of such training (see Cohen & Shively 2007), this line of research deserves further investigation.

2 Requests and politeness in Vietnamese as a native and target language

A request is a directive act performed to get the hearer to do something that is to the speaker's benefit and at the cost of the hearer (Searle 1969). According to Brown and Levinson (1987), this act can threaten the hearer's negative face (that is, the freedom of action and freedom from imposition) and thus requires the speaker to employ negative politeness strategies such as conventional indirectness and hedging devices to redress this potential face-threat. Nonetheless, Brown and Levinson's notion of negative face and politeness does not seem to be supported by research on cultures that lack an individualistic orientation, such as Vietnamese (Nguyen & Ho 2013; Vu 1997, 1999). Instead of emphasizing individual rights and autonomy, the Vietnamese culture is said to attach importance to conformity to social expectations and values such as involvement and interdependence (Nguyen & Ho 2013). Face-saving is also understood not to be the sole factor that underlies an individual's social behaviour in the Vietnamese culture, where acting according to one's social standing in relation to other members of the community is considered more important (Vu 1997, 1999). This emphasis on normative politeness, which requires compliance with socially accepted behaviours rather than satisfying individual face-wants, has been seen in the requestive behavior of the Vietnamese speakers. For example, given the emphasis on involvement rather than personal space in the Vietnamese culture, Vietnamese NSs tend to prefer a high level of directness in making requests, particularly by means of imperative structures and seem to rely extensively on supportive elements with politeness effects such as honorifics, address terms and alignment markers that help to index social standing (Nguyen & Ho 2013; Vu 1997, 1999).

It is due to this culture specificity in request strategy and modification in Vietnamese that learners who come from a different cultural background may experience considerable difficulty when learning to make sociopragmatically appropriate requests in this language. Nguyen and Basturkmen (2013) found that learners, regardless of their linguistic proficiency levels in Vietnamese and lengths of residence in the TL country, generally under-used imperative requests as compared to the NSs. In Nguyen and Ho's (2014) study, learners were found to employ politeness markers for modifying requests that were characteristic of the Vietnamese language, such as address terms, honorifics and alignment markers, significantly less frequently than the NSs, while making use of modifiers which were completely absent in the NS data, such as past tense, progressive aspect, negation and conditional clauses. In particular, it was found that many low proficiency learners failed to show an understanding of the normative aspect of Vietnamese politeness that requires showing respect (*lễ phép,* i.e. respectfulness) to people of higher power and proper respect (*đúng mực,* i.e. propriety) to people of equal and lower power while keeping distance vs. solidarity in conformity with the nature of the given speaker-hearer relationship (see Vu 1997, 1999, who termed this type of politeness *lịch sự lễ độ,* i.e., respectful politeness). For example, these learners tended to omit address terms and honorifics when requesting in lower-to-power scenarios while adopting an unnecessarily formal and distant speech style in close, equal power scenarios. The findings of the aforementioned studies suggest explicit instruction may be required to raise learners' awareness of this culture-specific aspect of Vietnamese politeness (Nguyen & Ho 2014).

3 Pragmatic development in the study abroad context

In recent years, there has been a growing number of studies on the impact of study abroad on L2 learners' pragmatic ability (e.g. Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos 2011; Barron 2003, 2006; Bella 2011, 2012; Cohen & Shively 2007; Felix-Brasdefer 2004; Hassall 2012, 2015; Iwasaki 2011; Matsumura 2001; Nguyen & Ho 2014; Schauer 2009; Shively 2011; Taguchi 2008). This line of research, addressing the role of learning context in pragmatic development, mainly seeks to explore two important questions. First, does the sojourn in the TL community benefit L2 pragmatic learning more than the at-home instructed context? Second, what features of studying abroad, e.g., length of residence, types of experience, living situations and learners' characteristics, investment and agency, contribute to gains, if any, in L2 pragmatics (Taguchi 2015a)? As an immersion context, study abroad experience is believed to bring learners opportunities for social contact with target community members through which learners can observe and practice pragmatic norms of the TL. However, the potential link between the study abroad context and pragmatic development is not always supported by findings of studies that compare pragmatic performance between learners in a study abroad immersion context and their peers in an instructed language learning context at home. While some of these studies have documented the advantages gained by study abroad learners compared with their at-home peers (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei 1998; Barron 2003; Matsumura 2011; Owen 2001; Schauer 2004, 2007, 2009), others have indicated that this is not always the case (e.g. Niezgoda & Roever 2001; Taguchi 2008). A common feature of studies that report competitive pragmatic performance by at-home students is that the particular classroom context in which these at-home students are learning has provided them with plentiful opportunities for TL practice, arguably counterbalancing the scarcity of TL input and learning opportunities in the wider context of society (e.g. Niezgoda & Roever 2001; Taguchi 2008). These inconclusive findings regarding the comparative effects of study abroad versus at-home experience appear to indicate that the straightforward juxtaposition of at-home and study abroad learners, without considering the specific opportunities unique to each group, tends to represent a simplistic view of learning context (see Taguchi 2015a). In other words, learning context should not be addressed from a “black-box view” of the variable (Taguchi 2015a: 6), but rather be discussed with respect to unique “qualities and specifics of student experiences” (Ginsburg & Miller 2000: 256).

The need for a richer analysis of context and student experiences is also supported by findings from studies that explore the configuration of overseas experience in relation to pragmatic gains. Among the various aspects of studying abroad expected to contribute to pragmatics learning, length of residence and intensity of interaction with the NS have been most investigated. This line of research, mainly adopting a quantitative, comparative design, generally found that length of residence may not be as important as frequent opportunities for social contact with the NS in predicting pragmatic gains (Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos 2011; Bella 2011, 2012; Nguyen & Ho 2014; Matsumura 2001). Based on these findings, it seems that rather than taking a generic approach to investigating learning opportunities, for example by simply grouping learners according to their lengths of residence for investigation, it is more important for studies to explore learners’ differentiated circumstances vis-à-vis input and interaction, the results of which may be more useful to our understanding of how learning is facilitated or constrained by different contextual configurations. Accordingly, features other than the generic variables of length of study and amount of input have begun to receive greater research attention in recent years. Particularly, there has been an increasing interest in how individual factors such as unique types of experiences, learners’ characteristics, engagement and agency shape learning opportunities during sojourns and thus influence pragmatic development. This question has been taken up in a growing number of qualitative case studies, which closely follow learners throughout their study abroad experience to make sense of their circumstances and endeavors (e.g., Hassall 2015; Iwasaki 2011; Kinginger 2008; Shively 2011). A generalization drawn from this body of research is that not all learners improve to the same extent while studying abroad, but there is tremendous individual variation in the pattern and pace of learners’ pragmatic development, depending on individual learners’ specific experiences, stances towards learning and the host community, their perceived social identities and engagement in the learning. For example, learners who live with a host family are more likely to have access to expert speakers’ perspectives on pragmatic choices compared to learners in other living arrangements (Shively 2011). Learners who hold a positive attitude toward cross-cultural experience and display strong respect for the cultural values of the TL community are more likely to establish extensive social contact with members of the TL, which benefits their pragmatic socialization. In contrast, a negative stance toward the L2 environment may discourage learners from seeking opportunity to use the L2 and thus hinder their pragmatic development (Hassall 2015).

In addition to the two lines of research discussed above, a small number of studies have recently investigated the effects of explicit instruction embedded as part and parcel of study abroad programs on pragmatics learning (e.g. Cohen and Shively 2007; Shively 2011).

Cohen and Shively (2007) implemented a training program in language and culture strategies to help a group of L2 Spanish and French study abroad students to acquire requests and apologies in the TL. The intervention consisted of students attending a pre-departure orientation for learning speech acts, then reading a self-study guidebook on language and culture strategies and keeping reflective e-journals about their study abroad experience during the sojourn. Results of the post-test indicated some impact of the study abroad experience on the learners' pragmatic development, but little effect of the intervention program, as no significant difference was found between the learners who received this training and those who did not. The authors attributed the weak effect of the training program to its short duration and lack of intensity, as well as the limited focus on speech acts in the self-access materials. It is noted, however, that although the quantitative analyses of data failed to capture the difference between the instructed and uninstructed learners, qualitative analyses indicated some increase in the use of TL pragmatic norms from pre-to-post-test among the instructed learners. However, due to the inability to match individual learners' unique experiences during their sojourns to their individual pragmatic gains, the study failed to explain why some learners gained more than others and how sojourn experiences may interact with instruction to impact individual learners differently. In order to contribute further insight into the benefits of pragmatic instruction during study abroad experience, it is important that this line of research be further explored. Particularly, future research would benefit from a close examination of individual learners' pragmatics-related experiences during their sojourns and how these experiences may mediate the effects of the formal instruction offered.

4 The study

4.1 Research questions

This case study seeks to extend the current scholarship on pragmatic development in the study abroad context by examining the effects of pragmatic instruction embedded within the study abroad program, paying attention to individual factors in achievement outcomes. Through the provision of a qualitative, individual-level examination of learners' gains in L2 pragmatics, as well as their pragmatics-related experiences during the program, the study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the impact of the intensive cross-cultural pragmatic strategies training program on the two learners' ability to produce and recognize pragmatically appropriate requests in Vietnamese?
2. What is the influence of the individual learners' degree of contact with the NS and context of interaction in which the TL norms are observed on the learners' pragmatic awareness of socially appropriate requests in Vietnamese?

4.2 Participants

Two undergraduate students, Elin (female) and Shawn (male) (pseudonyms), who were majoring in different subject areas at a Singapore university, participated in the study. The students, both aged 22, were Chinese-English bilinguals and spoke English as their dominant language. At the time of data collection, both of the students were participating in an intermediate Vietnamese language course at their university. Elin joined a one-month study abroad trip to Vietnam in May 2014, whereas Shawn organized his own trip. The purpose of the trips was to enhance the involved students' language skills and cultural understanding.

4.3 The interventional program

Prior to their departure, both of the students were informed about the intensive cross-cultural pragmatic strategies training and were invited to take part in the program. As previously mentioned, the purpose of this interventional program was two-fold: (1) to raise the students' intercultural sensitivity, particularly with regard to the way requests were performed in various social scenarios in their L1 and the TL and (2) to encourage social contact between the students and the NS. Replicating the design of Cohen and Shively (2007) with some adaptations, the interventional program included three components: pre-departure training, in-country practice and post-trip evaluation (described in detail below).

4.3.1 Pre-departure training:

The students attended a two-hour pre-departure orientation. In the first half hour, they were given copies of a package of self-access material and instructed on how to make use of the material for their own learning. The material included three chapters of the book *Maximizing Study Abroad: A Students' Guide to Strategies for Language and Culture Learning and Use* (Paige, Cohen, Kappler, Chi & Lassegard 2002). The chapters focused on raising the students' awareness of the ways cultures can differ in values and providing the students with strategies for establishing social contacts in the TL community as well as for adjusting to the new culture. The chapters included short readings about the issues, which were accompanied with several hands-on activities to help the students understand the issues through self-reflection and further exploration.

For the next hour and a half, the students participated in a pragmatic strategies training session, where they were taught how to perform the speech act of requests in Vietnamese. The instructional procedure is described below:

(a) As a warm-up activity, the students completed a discourse completion task (DCT) containing six requesting-scenarios that varied in terms of the relative power status between the speaker and the hearer (P), the social distance between the speaker and the hearer (D) and the level of imposition of the requests (R). The students worked in pairs, comparing their responses with each other. They also worked together to identify requesting strategies, based on a taxonomy of request strategies adapted from Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984).

(b) The students read the NS responses to the above scenarios and worked out the differences in the way requests were performed across scenarios as well as compared their previous responses with the NS responses.

(c) As a follow-up exercise, the students worked out the P, D and R factors that affected the speech produced. The students then discussed how similarly or differently these factors may operate in their L1 and the TL.

(d) To wrap up the session, the students received explicit meta-pragmatic explanations relating to making requests in Vietnamese. The instruction focused on both linguistic forms for expressing requests and politeness strategies for softening this speech act (see Table 1). The students were also provided a summary handout of the forms and strategies, for future reference.

What differentiated our instructional design from that of Cohen and Shively's (2007) was the intensity of the instruction. In Cohen and Shively (2007), the instruction consisted of two parts. The first part provided students with a general overview of speech acts, using generic materials. TL pragmatic features were only emphasized in the second part. As acknowledged by Cohen and Shively (2007), due to this lack of intense focus in the TL materials, the instruction yielded little effect. In order to overcome this limitation, we devoted the entire session to

Table 1: Target features.

Language forms

1. ***Cho Speaker + Verb + nhé/ đi/ với:***
Let Speaker + Verb + alignment markers (AlignM)

e.g.:	*Cho*	*tớ*	*mượn*	*bút*	*nhé!*
	Let	me (casual)	borrow	pen	AlignM

Let me borrow your pen!

2. ***Nhờ Hearer + Verb + nhé/ với:***
Ask for help Hearer + Verb + AlignM

e.g.:	*Nhờ*	*chị*	*mua*	*thẻ*	*điện thoại*	*cho*	*em*	*nhé!*
	Ask for help	elder sister	buy	card	phone	for	younger sibling	AlignM

Can you help me buy a phone card?

3. ***Hearer + Verb + giúp/ giùm/ hộ Speaker + nhé/ với*****:**
Hearer + Verb + help (polite words) Speaker + AlignM

e.g.:	*Anh*	*trả*	*sách*	*giúp*	*em*	*nhé!*
	Elder brother	return	book	help (polite)	younger sibling	AlignM

Please return the book for me!

4. ***Hearer + (làm ơn) Verb + được không (ạ)?***
Hearer + (do favor) Verb + possible no (honorific – HON)

e.g.:	*Cô*	*làm ơn*	*cho*	*em*	*mượn*	*sách*	*được*	*không*	*ạ?*
	Teacher	do favour	let	younger sibling	borrow	book	possible	no	HON

May I borrow your book?

5. ***Xin Hearer + Verb***
Beg Hearer + Verb

e.g.:	*Xin*	*cô*	*làm*	*giám khảo*	*cho*	*lớp*	*em*	*ạ.*
	Beg	teacher	do	judge	for	class	younger sibling	HON

I wonder if you would be willing to be the judge for our competition.

Politeness strategies

1. **Give reason for the request:**

e.g.	*Tớ*	*quên*	*ví*	*ở*	*nhà*	*mất*	*rồi* (borrowing money)
	I (casual)	forget	purse	at	home	affirmative marker -AffM	already

I left my purse at home

2. **Show consideration for the hearer:**

e.g.:	*Khi nào*	*cô*	*có*	*thời gian"* (asking Hearer to fill in a survey questionnaire)
	When	teacher	have	time

When you have time

Nếu	*anh*	*không*	*quá*	*bận*
If	elder brother	not	too	busy

If you are not too busy

3. **Minimize the cost to the hearer:**

e.g.	*Chép*	*bài*	*xong*	*mình*	*trả lại*	*ngay"* (borrowing a pen)
	Copy	lesson	finish	I (casual)	return	immediately

I will return it as soon as I am done

4. **Words that help show respect to your interlocutor:** *ạ* (HON)**,** *xin, nhờ, giúp, giùm* (polite versions of the expression "ask for help")
5. **Words that help establish solidarity with your interlocutor:** *nhé, đi, với* (AlignM)

teaching requests in the TL. The second improvement, which was made to our instructional design was the inclusion of the teacher-fronted, explicit meta-pragmatic explanation, which was absent in Cohen and Shively (2007), to help clarify any uncertainties arising from the students' meta-pragmatic discussion. Meta-pragmatic explanation was included because it has been found in many previous studies to be effective in raising L2 learners' pragmatic awareness (see a recent review in Taguchi 2015b).

4.3.2 In-country practice

During their one-month sojourns, the students were assigned to read three chapters of the *Guide* (see 4.3.1). They were told to aim to complete a chapter each week. In addition to the readings, the students also engaged in weekly e-journaling where they (1) commented on the extent to which they applied the readings to their real-life communication with an NS they may have encountered during the week; (2) recorded their encounter, if any, with a NS during the week and commented on this experience; and (3) recorded their observations of how requests were made in various social scenarios, as well as any other new language items they learned during that week. The students submitted their e-journals and received feedback from their instructor (the second author) on a weekly basis. Additionally, the students were instructed to try to talk to at least one NS every day in order to make sure they made good use of the language environment surrounding them.

4.3.3 Post-trip evaluation

Upon returning to Singapore, the students attended a post-program briefing where they shared their study abroad experience, as well as their perceptions of the benefits and effectiveness of the interventional program (i.e. the pre-departure strategies-based instruction, readings and e-journaling assignments). This session took one hour to complete.

4.4 Data collection

Data collection tools consisted of:

(a) A background questionnaire that aimed to elicit the students' bio-data (adapted from Cohen, Paige, Shively, Emert & Hoff 2005; Nguyen & Basturkmen 2013).

(b) A language contact profile questionnaire, adapted from Cohen et al. (2005) that sought formation about the students' degree of contact with the TL during their residence in the TL culture. This instrument was included to recognize the fact that "study abroad" does not entail a uniform experience.
(c) A semi-structured interview that elicited the students' reported experience during their study abroad program and their perceptions of the benefits and effectiveness of the interventional program.
(d) The students' weekly e-journal entries that provided information pertaining to their application of the intervention and their study abroad experience. These entries were also used to measure the students' levels of noticing of the input available to them in the TL environment.
(e) A role-play task that measured the students' performance of requests prior to and after their sojourn. The role-play consisted of six scenarios varying in terms of P and R (with D being kept constant) (see Table 2), which were validated in Nguyen and Basturkmen (2013).
(f) A judgment task, consisting of twelve scenarios varying in terms of P, D and R (see Table 3) that elicited the students' judgment of the appropriateness of the requests occurring in these scenarios. The task was adapted from Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998). As can be seen, out of the twelve scenarios, four represented an equal power and familiar relationship (scenarios 1, 3, 7 and 9), four represented an unequal (lower to higher) power and familiar relationship (scenarios 5, 6, 11 and 12) and another four an unequal (higher to lower) power and unfamiliar relationship (scenarios 2, 4, 8 and 10). In each type of relationship investigated, two scenarios involved a high imposition request while the other two a low imposition request.

Table 2: Role-play scenarios.

	Scenarios	**Power**	**Distance**	**Imposition**
1	Asking a roommate to lend you her computer	Equal	Familiar	High
2	Asking a classmate to lend you her lecture notes	Equal	Familiar	Low
3	Asking a roommate to return a book to the library for you	Equal	Familiar	Low
4	Asking a lecturer to write you a letter of reference	Unequal (Low-to-high)	Familiar	High
5	Asking a lecturer to extend the deadline of an assignment	Unequal (Low-to-high)	Familiar	High
6	Asking a lecturer to reschedule an appointment	Unequal (Low-to-high)	Familiar	Low

4.5 Data analysis

The students' requests were coded into different categories of realization strategies and modifiers, using a taxonomy validated in Nguyen and Ho (2013). This taxonomy was developed based on Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper's (1989), with adaptations to cater for the specific features of politeness in Vietnamese. To be more specific, this taxonomy accounted for not only strategic politeness devices that were discussed in Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness model, but also respectful politeness devices that were characteristic of the Vietnamese culture. For example, respectful politeness can be realized by means of the following:
(a) use of appropriate address terms when addressing self and others;
(b) use of honorifics ("*ạ*", "*dạ*") and respectful/polite words ("*thưa*", "*kính thưa*" [trans.: "respectfully], "*nhờ*" [trans.: "ask for help"], "*giùm/ hộ*" [trans.:

Table 3: Judgment scale scenarios.

	Scenarios	Power	Distance	Imposition
1	Asking to look at a classmate's textbook in class	Equal	Familiar	Low
2	Borrowing a pen at the hotel reception desk	Unequal (High-to-low)	Unfamiliar	Low
3	Asking a friend for a lift to school	Equal	Familiar	High
4	Asking a driver to stop by a shop to buy a phone card	Unequal (High-to-low)	Unfamiliar	High
5	Asking a teacher to recommend a good restaurant in town	Unequal (Low-to-high)	Familiar	Low
6	Asking a teacher to complete a survey conducted for your assignment	Unequal (Low-to-high)	Familiar	High
7	Asking a roommate to pass you a newspaper	Equal	Familiar	Low
8	Buying a stamp and postcard at the post office	Unequal (High-to-low)	Unfamiliar	Low
9	Asking a friend to lend you money to buy a bus ticket	Equal	Familiar	High
10	Asking a sales person to exchange a shirt you bought from his/ her shop	Unequal (High-to-low)	Unfamiliar	High
11	Asking a teacher to give you the title of the book she recommended	Unequal (Low-to-high)	Familiar	Low
12	Borrowing a book from your teacher	Unequal (Low-to-high)	Familiar	High

"help"], *"làm ơn"* [trans.: "do favor"], *"xin"* [trans.: "beg"]) to display respect to authority/ formality;

(c) use of alignment markers (*nhé, đi, với*) to build solidarity.

Section 2 and Table 1 illustrate both types of politeness devices.

The students' judgments of the appropriateness of requests were compared against the judgments of 63 NSs who volunteered to provide baseline data. The students' interview and e-journaling data were analyzed using the strategy of analytic induction (Li 1998). First, the interview transcripts and e-journal entries were carefully read and recurrent ideas were identified and grouped into larger, core themes. Individual cases were also compared and contrasted in order to find common patterns across cases, as well as salient themes unique to a particular case. In other words, our coding categories were grounded in the data rather than being pre-determined. Finally, we compared the core categories from both data sources and cross-validated them with the information provided in the two questionnaires to gain a well-rounded perspective on the students' learning experience.

5 Results and discussion

5.1 Elin's case

5.1.1 In-country experience

According to Elin's interview and e-journal data, while residing in Vietnam, she lived in a dormitory with fellow international students, with whom she often spoke in Vietnamese. Although she did not have the chance to make frequent and stable contact with the NSs, she actively sought out opportunities to speak Vietnamese to locals whom she encountered on the streets or in shops. For example, she described in her Week 1 e-journal how she created opportunities to interact with the NSs (for example, cyclo drivers – see excerpt 1 and shop tenders – see excerpt 2) and how her interaction with them benefitted her language and culture learning. She also reflected that these experiences made her appreciate and look for more such learning opportunities:

Excerpt 1
"My first ever experience in a xe xich-lo [cyclo] (...). Chatted with the uncle during the ride and found out a lot about the daily life routine of a xe xich-lo [cyclo] uncle. For the thirty minutes, we had a lovely conversation and I was

pleasantly surprised as to how open they were to us the moment we spoke Vietnamese. (...) Although it was initially difficult to understand him owing to his unique accent, M. and I managed to get the hang of it after a while. This encounter with the uncles definitely deepened my appreciation for the language (as to how versatile it is) and also for the different lifestyles of Vietnamese people." (E-journal Week 1)

Excerpt 2
"I remember having to pluck up the courage to order food for M. and P. Most of the time I was pretty worried that I would order wrongly, but thankfully none of the orders were wrong (thus far) and in fact, some shop owners were really nice as to repeat the order once or twice to ensure it was right. By repeating the orders, I actually got to better learn the dictation of certain words. Finally, M. and I decided to challenge ourselves next week by randomly approaching street peddlers and talk to them (after buying something from them of course!)." (E-journal Week 1)

Regarding Elin's noticing of the TL input, she reported that most of the requests she heard in Vietnamese occurred in service counter exchanges between NSs. She reported noticing the frequent use of imperatives in the TL, which she had previously regarded as inappropriate. Elin also reported observing the varied ways in which the NSs used address terms in different social contexts and was curious about the many possible ways address terms were used in real life (as opposed to what she had learnt in her Vietnamese class):

Excerpt 3
"In Singapore, our Viet teachers always call us "em" ["younger siblings"]. Here, I found it pretty interesting that the teachers call their students "anh/chị" ["elder siblings"] (and "em" for me) although some "anh/chị" look much much much younger than they are. The students here have no Vietnamese name, so most of them stick to their own birth names and are "anh (tên)" ["elder brother (name)"] or "chị (tên)" ["elder sister (name)"]; So far, I am the only one they refer to as "em" in class." (E-journal Week 1)

Excerpt 4
"Most of the time, the buyer would just say what he/she wants (e.g. "cho em hai cái bánh mì") ["give younger sibling two sandwiches"] and the seller would just perform the task. However, one thing interesting is that the seller always calls me as "chị" ["elder sister"] even after I called her "chị" ["elder sister"] and when she obviously looks older than I am." (E-journal Week 1)

Initially, Elin did not seem to understand the reasons behind the above usages. However, toward the end of her sojourn, she reported an enhanced understanding of the socio-pragmatic meanings of some of the address terms used in customer service interaction. For example, she explained in the interview why she thought she was addressed "chị" ("elder sister") by the seller even though she was younger: "In customer service the customer is always bigger (…) like the customer relationship thing."

5.1.2 Pragmatic production

The following patterns were found in Elin's pre-departure and post-trip requests.

First, compared to the requests she made prior to departure, the requests she made after the sojourn were more frequently prefaced and supported with semantic moves such as disarmers (utterances that the speaker uses to show their awareness of the pressure that the request may place on the hearer) and imposition minimizers (utterances that the speaker uses to free the hearer from the imposition of the request). Below is an example of Elin's pre-departure and post-trip requests for Scenario 2 (Lecture notes) (example 1; see Appendix for full transcript). As can be seen, Elin's pre-departure request was not prefaced by means of any supportive moves (such as statements checking the hearer's availability or willingness to hear the request). Since requests are at the cost of the hearer, this act is often preferably delayed by means of hesitation or supportive moves such as the aforementioned (Al-Gahtani & Rover 2012; Taleghani-Nikazm & Huth 2010). The fact that Elin did not support her upcoming request with any pre-sequence moves made the request sound relatively abrupt and potentially inconsiderate for the hearer. Furthermore, Elin failed to provide a reason for her request to persuade her friend. It was not until the request was repeatedly turned down (pre-departure, turns 02 and 04) that Elin gave an explanation as to why she needed the notes (pre-departure, turn 05) and offered compensation in return for her friend's favor (pre-departure, turn 07). In contrast, a look at Elin's post-trip role-play conversation shows that she took care to lay the groundwork for her upcoming request by checking her friend's willingness to help before producing the actual request (post-trip, turn 01). When the friend indicated her unavailability (post-trip, turn 02), Elin made use of a number of semantic moves to persuade her friend to help (post-trip, turn 04). First, she explained why she needed her friend's help ("*tuần trước tôi bị mệt, nên không đi đến lớp được*"; trans.: "*last week I was tired so I could not go to class*"). Then she acknowledged the inconvenience of her request ("*tôi biết là bạn đang làm bài tập*"; trans.: "I know you are doing homework right now") and emphasized that she only asked for the favor after her friend was freer ("*Nhưng sau bạn làm rồi …*"; trans.: "*but after you finish …*"). Note that "giving reasons for the request" and "acknowledging cost to the hearer" were two politeness strategies that were taught to Elin during the pre-departure instruction session (see Table 1).

Example 1. Scenario 2 (Lecture notes)

Pre-departure

01 Elin: *Bạn ơi, có thể cho mượn tôi cái quyển vở*
Friend VOC can lend me (formal) CLS notebook
của bạn không?
of friend no
Can you lend me your notebook?

02 Friend: *Nhưng mà bây giờ mình đang cần,*
But now I (friendly) PROG need
mình đang làm bài tập
I (friendly) PROG do exercise
But I need it now, I am doing my homework.

03 Elin: *Đang làm bài tập à?*
PROG do exercise Q
Chúng tôi có thể đi làm bài tập với nhau.
We (exclude the listener) can go do exercise with each other
Are you doing homework now? We can do homework together.

04 Friend: *Nhưng mà bài tập này rất là khó.*
But exercise this very be difficult
Nếu mình làm với người khác,
If I (friendly) do with people different
mình không tập trung
I (friendly) no concentrate
But this homework is very difficult. If I do it with someone else,
I will not be able to concentrate.

05 Elin: *Nhưng mà vì tuần trước tôi bị bệnh nặng*
But because week before I (formal) PASS illnes serious
thì không đi lớp được.
TOP no go class possible
Phải hỏi bạn mượn tôi notebook.
Must ask friend) borrow I (formal) notebook
But because last week I was very ill, I could not go to class. I must ask you to lend me your notebook.

06 Friend: *Bạn cần dùng lâu không?*
Friend need use long no
Do you need to use it for long?
07 Elin: *Không lâu.*
No long
Vì tôi thấy tôi sẽ hiểu rất nhanh
because I (formal) see I (formal) FUT understand very fast
Nếu bạn không hiểu thì tôi có thể
If friend no understand TOP I (formal) can
explain giải thích cho bạn.
explain for friend
Not long. Because I think I will understand it very fast... If you don't understand, I can explain to you.

Post-trip

01 Elin: *Có một bài, tôi không biết*
Have one lesson I (formal) no know
bạn có thể giúp tôi không?
friend can help I (formal) no
There is one lesson, I don't know if you can help me?
02 Friend: *Bây giờ mình cũng đang làm bài tập.*
Now I (friendly) also PROG do exercise
Now I am also doing my homework.
03 Elin: *Nhưng mà tuần trước tôi bị mệt,*
But week before I (formal) PASS tired
nên không đi đến lớp được.
so no go class possible
Không biết là – tôi biết là
No know TOP I (formal) know TOP
bạn đang làm bài tập
friend PROG do exercise
Nhưng sau bạn làm rồi thì có thể giúp tôi không?
But after friend do already TOP can help me (formal) no
But last week I was tired so I could not go to class. I don't know if – I know you are doing your homework right now. But after you finish, can you help me?

Here is another example of how Elin made requests to her teacher in Scenario 4 (Letter of reference) before and after the trip (example 2; see Appendix for full transcript). As can be seen, in the pre-departure role-play, Elin prefaced her request by checking if the teacher was available to accept her request (pre-departure, turn 01). She then immediately proceeded to produce the request (pre-departure, turn 03). Although she provided a reason for her request (pre-departure turn 03), she did not acknowledge the imposition of her request on the teacher's busy schedule and how she would make her request more convenient for the teacher until the teacher indicated reluctance to help in turn 04 (pre-departure). In comparison, Elin began her post-trip role-play with a disarmer (a strategy taught to her during the intervention) to show awareness of the pressure of her act before she actually carried it out (post-trip, turn 03). When the teacher mentioned that she would have liked to help Elin but was too busy (post-trip, turn 06), Elin acknowledged the inconvenience once again ("*em biết, em hiểu*"; trans.: "*I completely understand*") and minimized it by emphasizing the lack of urgency of her request (post-trip, turn 07). Despite the above improvement, however, Elin failed to provide a reason for her request until asked (post-trip, turns 04 and 05).

Example 2. Scenario 4 (Letter of reference)

Pre-departure

01 Elin: *Chào cô. Cô có rảnh không?*
Greetings teacher Teacher have free no
Hello. Are you free?

02 Teacher: *Chào em, bây giờ cô có một chút thời gian.*
Hello younger sibling now teacher have a little time
Lát nữa cô phải đi họp.
Moment more teacher must go meeting
Hello. I'm quite free now. I'll have a meeting later.

03 Elin: *Vì em sắp tốt nghiệp rồi.*
Because younger sibling FUT graduate already
Và muốn đi học PhD, thì muốn apply
And want go learn PhD TOP want apply
muốn nộp thư giới thiệu. Thì muốn hỏi
want submit letter introduce TOP want ask
cô có thể giúp em viết thư
teacher can help younger sibling write letter
giới thiệu được không?
introduce possible no
Because I am going to graduate soon and I want to do a PhD, I want to apply and submit a recommendation letter. So I want to ask if you can help me write a recommendation letter?

04 Teacher: *Em* *là* *một* *sinh viên* *rất* *thông minh.*
Younger sibling be one student very smart
Cô *muốn* *giúp* *em* *viết* *thư* *giới thiệu.*
Teacher want help younger sibling write letter introduce
Nhưng *dạo này* *cô* *đang* *rất* *bận.*
But recently teacher PROG very busy
Cô *đang* *chuẩn bị* *đi* *họp,*
Teacher PROG prepare go meeting
mấy *ngày* *nay* *có* *nhiều* *việc.*
several day now have many work
You are a very smart student. I want to help you with the recommendation letter. But recently, I have been very busy. I am preparing to go for a meeting; there's lot of work these few days.

05 Elin: *Vì* *em* *biết* *cô* *rất* *bận,*
Because younger sibling know teacher very busy
thì *em* *hỏi* *rất* *sớm* *vì* *deadline*
TOP younger sibling ask very early because deadline
hạn *nộp* *giới thiệu* *là* *hai* *tháng* *sau.*
deadline submit introduce be two month after
Because I know you are very busy, I am asking very early, as the deadline to submit the recommendation letter is in two month.

Post-trip

01 Elin: *Chào* *cô.*
Greetings teacher
Hello.

02 Teacher: *Chào em.*
Hello student
Hello.

03 Elin: *Em* *biết* *là* *cô* *bây giờ* *rất* *bận*
Younger sibling know TOP teacher now very busy
vì *có* *nhiều* *bài tập* *phải* *chấm.*
because have many exercise must mark
Nhưng mà *em* *muốn* *hỏi*
But younger sibling want ask
cô *có thể* *viết* *thư* *giới thiệu* *cho* *em* *không?*
teacher can write letter introduce for younger sibling no
I know you are very busy now because you have exercises to mark. But I want to ask if you can write a recommendation letter for me.

04 Teacher: *Em cần thư giới thiệu để làm gì?*
Younger sibling need letter introduce to do what
What do you need the recommendation letter for?

05 Elin: *Vì em muốn học tiếp tiến sỹ*
Because young sibling want study continue PhD
và phải có một thư giới thiệu.
and must have one letter introduce
Không có thư giới thiệu thì không nhận được
No have letter introduce TOP no receive possible
học bổng để học tiếp tiến sỹ.
scholarship for study continue PhD
Because I want to continue to study PhD and must have a recommendation letter. Without a recommendation letter, I would not be able to receive the PhD scholarship.

06 Teacher: *Ừ, cô cũng rất muốn giúp em*
Yes (casual) teacher also very want help younger sibling
vì em là sinh viên rất là giỏi.
because young sibling be student very be good
Nhưng mà mấy ngày hôm nay cô lại
But some day today teacher stance marker –StaM
bận quá, phải đi họp nhiều,
busy very must go meeting many
và phải chấm nhiều bài tập.
and must mark many exercise
Yes, I also want to help you, because you are a very good student. But I have been very busy these few days, I have lots of meetings and must mark a lot of exercises.

07 Elin: *Em biết, em hiểu .*
Younger sibling know younger sibling understand
Không sao, vì em ... trên Internet
No matter because younger sibling ... on Internet...
và hạn nộp đơn của thư giới thiệu
and deadline submit application of letter introduce
là 2 tuần. Có nhiều thời gian, cô có thể viết.
be two week Have many time teacher can write
I completely understand. No problem, because I ... on the Internet... and the deadline to submit the recommendation letter is in two weeks. There's a lot of time for you to write it.

Another area of instruction in which Elin's progress was evident included her use of address terms for politeness effects (see section 2). A close analysis of Elin's pre-departure role-play data indicates that she often (in 5 out of 6 scenarios) dropped the address terms when addressing herself or her interlocutors (e.g. she said "*chào cô*" [greeting + teacher] instead of "*em chào cô*" [younger sibling + greeting + teacher], or "*cảm ơn*" [thanks] instead of "*cảm ơn bạn*" [thanks + friend]). According to Nguyen and Ho (2013), a *no-naming* style (i.e. "*nói trống không*") violates social norms, particularly when communicating with superiors and in formal contexts. After the trip, Elin adopted the *naming style* more often (in 4 out of 6 scenarios), even though she still occasionally mistook the exclusive "*chúng tôi*" (exclusive "we") for the inclusive "*chúng ta/chúng mình*" (inclusive "we") and inappropriately addressed herself using the formal "*tôi*" ("I") when talking to her friend, which made her sound more distant and ceremonial than she might have intended. Furthermore, notwithstanding some post-trip improvement as previously mentioned, Elin still made little use of other features of politeness taught to her, such as alignment markers in equal status relationships and honorifics in lower-to-higher status relationships, hence failing to add the status-appropriate (i.e. friendly versus respectful) tone to her requests at times.

With respect to request realization strategies, Elin's pre- and post-trip data showed only negligible differences (Table 4). Both sets of data suggested that she was sensitive to situational variation. For example, she produced imperatives only in equal power relationships and query preparatories in both equal and lower-to-higher power scenarios. However, in both pre- and post-trip performance, she consistently employed a considerably greater number of query preparatories than imperatives, a tendency that deviated from the NS use reported in earlier studies (e.g., Nguyen & Ho 2013; Vu 1997, 1999).

Table 4: Elin's use of request realization strategies before and after the trip.

	Imperatives	Performatives	Query preparatories	Suggestory formulas
Pre-departure				
Equal power	2	1	3	1
Low-to-high	0	0	3	0
Sub-total	*2*	*1*	*6*	*1*
Post-trip				
Equal power	1	2	4	0
Low-to-high	0	0	5	0
Sub-total	*1*	*2*	*9*	*0*
Total	**3**	**3**	**15**	**1**

5.1.3 Pragmatic awareness

Due to Elin's infrequent use of imperative requests, we were particularly interested to find out how she perceived the politeness value of this type of request in different social contexts. Imperative requests occurred in judgment scale scenarios 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 12 (see Table 3). Elin's judgments of the imperative requests in these scenarios were compared with the major patterns of judgements of 63 NSs who were recruited to contribute baseline data (Table 5).

Table 5: Elin's judgment of imperative requests before and after the trip.

	Pre-departure	Post-trip	NS judgment (% of respondents who agree with the given choice)
Scenario 1: Sharing book (equal, familiar, low R)	N	Y	Y (85%)
Scenario 2: Borrowing pen (high-to-low P, unfamiliar, low R)	N	Y	N (68%)
Scenario 3: Asking for lift (equal, familiar, high R)	N	Y	Y (54%)
Scenario 4: Stopping at shop (high-to-low P, unfamiliar, high R)	Y	Y	Y (91%)
Scenario 6: Filling out survey (low-to-high, familiar, high R)	N	N	Y (75%)
Scenario 7: Passing newspaper (equal, familiar, low R)	N	Y	Y (62%)
Scenario 8: Buying postcard (high-to-low P, unfamiliar, low R)	Y	Y	Y (72%)
Scenario 9: Borrowing money (equal, familiar, high R)	N	Y	N (51%)
Scenario 12: Borrowing book (low-to-high, familiar, high R)	N	Y	Y (66%)

Note Y = Appropriate; N = Inappropriate

Overall, a majority of the NSs judged the imperative requests occurring in 7 out of 9 scenarios (scenarios 1, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8 and 12) to be appropriate and only judged the imperative requests occurring in scenario 2 and 9 to be inappropriate (Table 5). A close analysis of the NSs' qualitative comments on the 9 scenarios suggests that whether they judged an imperative request to be appropriate did not seem to depend on whether the situational variables of P, D and R licensed the use of the imperative structure. Instead, their judgement seemed to depend to a greater extent on the presence or absence of supportive elements with politeness effects accompanying the imperative structure (see Vu, 1997 for similar findings).

Accordingly, the imperative requests provided in scenarios 2 and 9 were judged inappropriate because of the lack of appropriate politeness devices (e.g. using a naming style, honorifics, alignment markers and politeness markers). In the other scenarios, imperative requests were considered appropriate because they were accompanied by these devices.

It was found that prior to departure, Elin was more likely to consider imperative requests inappropriate in two kinds of interaction: (1) friend-to-friend (scenarios 1, 7, 3 and 9) and (2) student-to-teacher (scenarios 6 and 12). The only kind of interaction in which she deemed imperative requests to be appropriate involved a higher-to-lower power relationship (scenarios 8 and 9, but not scenario 2). After the trip, she seemed to show more native-like judgments in friend-to-friend scenarios, citing her observation of the frequency of this type of requests among equal power NSs. However, she still had difficulty judging the appropriateness of imperative requests in student-to-teacher scenarios, not knowing when this type of request was possible (scenario 12) and when it was not (scenario 6). Interestingly, although Elin successfully identified pragmatically appropriate imperative requests in a greater number of scenarios after her sojourn (6 out of 9 scenarios) as compared to her prior-to-departure identification (4 out of 9 scenarios), she incorrectly judged the imperative request in scenario 9, which she had correctly judged previously (Table 5). This scenario involved a low-imposition request (i.e., borrowing a pen) from a higher power interlocutor to a lower power, which a majority of the NSs judged to be inappropriate due to the lack of mitigation (such as addressing the hearer properly and using an appropriate alignment marker). Elin's prior-to-departure assessment of this request was similar to that of the NSs. However, upon returning home, she changed her mind, rating this request to be appropriate, citing her potentially incomplete observation that "quite a lot of students asked the teacher in class to lend them a pen using the similar structure". As pointed out earlier, imperative requests are possible in a variety of social power relationships, as long as the requests are sufficiently mitigated. This specific characteristic of the Vietnamese requesting style might be challenging for non-native Vietnamese speakers, particularly if they are not attentive to the nuances of the language. It is therefore possible that while Elin correctly noticed the use of the imperative structure in student-to-teacher requests, she failed to notice the accompanying supportive elements. Her incorrect judgment of scenario 9 is, therefore, reflective of her overgeneralization of the use of imperative requests in the absence of full pragmatic knowledge in the TL.

We also examined the types of comments Elin made about what she considered a polite request in comparison with the NSs' comments. We coded the participants' perceptions of politeness according to the framework of linguistic politeness (Brown & Levinson 1987; Ide 1989; Hill, Ide, Ikuta, Kawasaki &

Ogino 1986; Lee-Wong 2000; Mao 1994; Vu 1997). Particularly, we considered two types of politeness: respectful (Vu 1997) and strategic (Brown & Levinson 1987), which are encompassed by the conception of politeness in the Vietnamese culture (Vu 1997). Respectful politeness is about the understanding of one's social standing in relation to others and acting accordingly (Vu 1999). Respectful politeness is a prominent feature of Vietnamese politeness and linguistic devices for expressing it include using correct address terms to index social standing, using honorifics ("*ạ*", "*dạ*") and respectful words ("*thưa*", "*kính thưa*", trans.: "respectfully") to show respect to authority, using polite words ("*nhờ*" [trans.: "ask for help"], "*giùm/ hộ*" [trans.: "help"], "*làm ơn*" [trans.: "do favor"], "*xin*" [trans.: "beg"])[1] to show proper respect to equal or lower power interlocutors and using alignment markers (modal particles "*nhé*", "*vồi*") to build solidarity with them (Vu 1997). The second type of politeness, strategic politeness, is about being tactful and showing consideration for the hearer in order to avoid conflict and achieve communicative goals (Brown & Levinson 1987). Some examples of strategic politeness when making a request is prefacing the request with a question checking the availability of the hearer, giving a reason, minimizing the trouble, or asking in a nice tone. Previous studies have also shown that learners of Vietnamese as an L2 may find respectful politeness more challenging than strategic politeness. Therefore, we were interested to find out which kind of politeness Elin was more aware of. Table 6 presents the types of comments made by Elin before and after her trip in comparison to those made by the NSs in the study.

As can be seen, Elin's comments about politeness were not very different before and after she went on the study-abroad trip. In both cases, she tended to make more comments related to strategic politeness than to respectful politeness. This was in stark contrast to the NSs who seemed to make more comments related to respectful politeness than to strategic politeness.

When putting together findings regarding Elin's pragmatic production (see previous section) and awareness before and after her stint in the TL country, our study seems to suggest that while Elin seemed to show some improvement in the aspect of strategic politeness, evidenced in her more frequent usage of supportive

1 Polite words such as "*xin*" [trans.: "beg"], "*nhờ*" [trans.: "ask for help"], "*giùm/ hộ*" [trans.: "help"] and "*làm ơn*" [trans.: "do favor"] were categorized as elements of strategic politeness in Vu (1997, 1999) and Nguyen and Basturkmen (2013). This is, according to these researchers, because of the fact that the aforementioned words serve to show tact and delicacy (i.e., aspects associated with strategic politeness). However, we argue that rather than simply showing tact and delicacy, these words first and foremost function to show proper respect to equal or lower power interlocutors; therefore, they should be considered part of respectful politeness.

Table 6: Elin's comments on politeness before and after the trip.

	Respectful politeness	Strategic politeness	Vague comments
Elin	Pre-departure: – "using "*đi*" [alignment marker] makes the request sound like an order"	Pre-departure: – "should be more polite with teacher and ask if teacher is free to do the survey – "sounds like the teacher is obliged to lend the book; should ask rather than assume" – "sounds like ordering the friend to pass the newspaper rather than asking for a favor" – "alright if the meter doesn't stop running"	Pre-departure: – "should be more polite"
	Post-trip: NIL	Post-trip: – "sounds like assuming the teacher will be free to help. should ask rather than assume	Post-trip: – "sounds alright as heard students say the same thing in similar situations to teacher in class" – "sounds acceptable"

(continued)

Table 6: (continued)

	Respectful politeness	Strategic politeness	Vague comments
NSs	– "should show respect to teachers. Vietnamese culture emphasizes "*lễ giáo*" [trans.: "rules of propriety", "rites", "morals", "proper conducts"]" – "should avoid "*nói trống không*" [trans.: "a no-naming style"]. Address "*anh ơi*" [trans.: "elder brother"], "*cô ơi*" [trans.: "auntie"], "*chị ơi*" [trans.: "elder sister"] before making the request" – "should address the teacher and add "*ạ*" [honorific] or "*làm ơn*" [trans.: "do favor"] when talking to the teacher" – "should address correctly ("*bạn ơi*") [trans.: "my friend"] and add "*nhé*", "*với*" [alignment markers]" – "friendliness" – "too ceremonial for friendly relationships" – "should use words like "*nhờ*" [trans.: "ask for help"], "*làm ơn*" [trans.: "do favor"], "*giùm*" [trans.: "help"], "*vui lòng*" [trans.: "good will"], "*hộ*" [trans.: "help"]"	– "should ask for permission, not order" – "should add a promise to take good care of the book" – "should give a reason" – "should apologize for troubling the friend to pass you the newspaper" – "should "*rào đón*" [prefacing] before borrowing money" – "should say you will return the money tomorrow" – "ask an open question, not a closed ended question"	NIL

moves to delay and defuse her requests after the sojourn, she made less noticeable progress with regard to respectful politeness, evidenced in her rare usage of politeness elements characteristic of the Vietnamese culture and little awareness of these elements in the judgment task. Since respectful politeness is a very important dimension of politeness in Vietnamese, Elin's lack of awareness may inadvertently affect her communication with the NS.

Another finding that emerged from comparing Elin's post-trip role-play and judgment data is that although she increasingly accepted imperative requests in equal power relationships (Table 5), she still under-used this type of requests when performing in friend-to-friend role-play scenarios. As can be seen from Table 4, only one out of seven of her post-trip requests in these scenarios were realized by means of imperative structures. In other words, her pragmatic production seemed inconsistent with her pragmatic awareness, despite her desires to aspire towards NS norms, as reported in her e-journals. A possible explanation for Elin's inconsistent pragmatic behaviors is that while Elin may have gained some declarative knowledge of request strategies in the TL, this knowledge may not have yet been automatized to the extent that it could be retrieved effortlessly in spontaneous communication. In this condition, Elin might have more easily resorted to her L1 (English) pragmatic conventions such as query preparatory requests. Our speculation is in fact supported by the observation that Elin tended to add the modal "*có thể*" (i.e., "can", "could", "may") to her query preparatories, which is more conventional to English than Vietnamese (Nguyen & Basturkmen 2013).

5.1.4 Reflection on the intervention program

Elin evaluated the pre-departure training program to be a success. Her comments covered the impact of the training on both her general pragmatic learning experience as well as her experiences of request situations in day-to-day interactions in the host community. A recurring theme in Elin's journal and interview data concerned the importance of the program in guiding her observation of NS norms of communication and reflection on her own communication patterns as well as L1-L2 differences. She repeatedly reported how the instruction made her "more conscious about culture" and "observant" about the ways members of local community interact. This enhanced self-awareness was considered beneficial for her learning, particularly where there was a gap between formal instruction and real-life communication. For example, she mentioned that at her home institution she was taught the request form "*cho em*" (trans.: "*let me*"), which she later tried out when ordering food in the host country, but noticed its rare occurrence in service encounters between NSs. This experience prompted her to actively look out for more TL exemplars for rule generalization. In another instance, she reported observing how a tour guide skillfully addressed himself to a mixed age and gender group of tourists, which she had never been taught how to do, but had always been curious to find out about. As a result of these experiences, she reported becoming "more flexible in terms of approaching people and requesting" in different contexts of interaction. Elin attributed her ability to learn a great deal, more than what she had been taught through formal instruction, to her observant nature. In sum, Elin consistently reported the impact of the training program on "the way [she] go[es] about asking things" (i.e. requesting). This was confirmed by the fact that the instructed features were prevalent in her post-trip request data (e.g., upportive moves and address terms for politeness effects – see Table 1 and section 5.1.2). Aside from this impact, Elin also commented that weekly journaling enabled her to keep track of her own progress, thus assuring her a sense of achievement and self-motivation, which she believed in turn enhanced her learning experience.

5.2 Shawn's case

5.2.1 In-country experience

Shawn's interview and e-journal data indicated that during the first half of his stay in the TL country, Shawn lived with a host family. After that, he moved out to share a flat with a local friend. Due to his daily contact with the NSs, Shawn enjoyed plentiful opportunities to participate in extended conversations in the TL. Owing to his outgoing and sociable personality, Shawn also made several local friends and reported speaking in Vietnamese for approximately 75% of the time he was in the host community. Similar to Elin, Shawn realized that being able to communicate with the NSs helped enrich his world knowledge and experiences and gave him an entry into the local life. These advantages in turn motivated him to actively seek out opportunities to improve his language skills. For example, he wrote in his Week 2 journal:

Excerpt 5

"Using my ''practice Vietnamese'' slant was a good way in breaking the ice and inducing humor into conversations (...). She [a local friend] invited me over to dinner at her house the following day and I had dinner with her parents. Speaking Vietnamese to them really impressed them and this was an important moment for me as I realize how a language could really open up my world to a whole new culture and peoples. Being familiar with table etiquette such as filling up my bowl twice (as filling it once is meant for dead people). Pausing to chat and drinking beer and wine with the male members really made me a familiar character rather than a foreign figure." (E-journal Week 2)

Through daily communication with the NSs, Shawn observed and noticed some features of Vietnamese interactional style that he had previously not been aware of. For example, he noticed the importance of address terms in establishing social relationships in Vietnamese society and he identified the willingness to conform to these cultural norms as a means of integrating into the society:

Excerpt 6
"The use of different terms of address for people of different age groups is a very apparent social culture, even amongst the youth. Thus I aptly adapted to addressing people of different age groups by their respective "titles". This was very helpful in helping me fit into the society and be seen as respectful and normal in the eyes of the locals, such that many mistook me for a local as I looked Asian too." (Week 1 journal)

Regarding the requesting behavior in the TL, Shawn reported noticing the NSs' overall preference for indirectness. He commented that "requests are generally made with the underlining indirectness of the Vietnamese way" and that "everything is nicely put across to create as much consensus as possible." He cited the following example in which a request addressed to him was made so subtly that he initially failed to recognize it:

Excerpt 7
"Indirectness is also another cultural value of the Vietnamese. They are very diplomatic people and like to avoid awkward situations such that the level of indirectness requires a very sensitive non-local to be able to appreciate. A good example I had in Vietnam was when I was staying at my host's family. My host's mum had casually mentioned to me during lunch that since there were ongoing protests in the country due to China's actions in Vietnam's maritime area, hosting a foreigner was quite difficult. I didn't think much about it only to find out from my host (the son) that the parents would prefer I stay at a guesthouse until the situation calmed down. Looking back at the episode, it was a good learning point that I should be extra sensitive to remarks by Vietnamese as their indirect way of communicating sometimes require extra sensitivity." (E-journal week 1)

Nonetheless, after spending some time in the host community, Shawn gradually became more attuned to the indirect requests made to him:

Excerpt 8
"When I met with my friend's mother in her house, we sat down and ate fruits while we started chatting, we came onto the topic about my motorbike adventures in Vietnam 2 years back (I stayed at her house then). She was casually mentioning that she liked my pocket sized camera that I carried around as it was portable and really easy to handle. I sensed that she wanted me to get it for her and thus I promptly asked her so, to which she immediately affirmed. This kind of indirectness in the Vietnamese culture is prevalent and I am becoming more acute to them". (E-journal week 2)

5.2.2 Pragmatic production

Shawn's role-play data indicates that his pre-departure requests were realized mainly by query preparatory strategies (see Table 7), which were frequently prefaced by pre-sequence moves such as checking the hearer's availability and giving a reason for the requests, as well as supported by post-request moves such as offering compensation for the inconvenience. His post-trip requests were still realized mainly by query preparatory strategies (Table 7), but were supported even more extensively by pre-sequence moves and small talk. This change may have reflected his post-trip perceptions that Vietnamese people tend to take an indirect approach when making requests. Shawn's post-trip requests were also more successfully toned down because of his greater use of imposition minimizers, a politeness strategy taught to him during the intervention program. An example of how differently Shawn negotiated his requests before and after the trip is presented below (Scenario 2: Lecture notes; see Appendix for full transcript). As can be seen in his pre-departure data, Shawn seemed aware of the need to delay his request to make it less abrupt. He did not produce the actual request until turn 07, after maneuvering tactfully by means of moves such as steers (pre-departure, turn 01 and 05) and grounders (pre-departure, turn 03). Nevertheless, his reminding his friend to reciprocate kindness just before the request, in fact, made his request more imposing than he might have intended (see turn 07, pre-departure). This imposing tone was not completely removed even with his emphasis on the lack of urgency of the request and offer of compensation in turn 09 (see Scenario 2, pre-departure).

Shawn's post-trip data indicated that he delayed his actual request considerably as compared to his pre-departure performance. As can be seen, the request was not given until turn 09 (post-trip). This was done only after several more supportive moves were performed (e.g. small talk in turns 01–05 to establish empathy, steers in turns 05 and 07 and a grounder in turn 09 – see Scenario 2, post-trip). Particularly, what made his request sound less imposing as compared to his pre-departure one was the dropping of his reminder of the friend's indebtedness to him, thus avoiding causing his friend to feel morally obliged to comply with his request. After having his request indirectly turned down in turn 10, he repeatedly mentioned the lack of urgency ("*Ừ, không sao/ thời gian nào cũng được mà/ mình không cần bây giờ*"; trans.: "No problem at all/ take your time/ I do not need it immediately) and his respect for his friend's time ("*nếu có một thời gian bạn rảnh*"; trans.: "when you are free"), making it easier for his friend to grant him the request.

Similar observations can also be made regarding Shawn's performance of Scenario 4 (Letter of reference; see Appendix for full transcript). In his pre-departure role-play, Shawn announced his intention immediately after the greeting sequences (i.e. "*Dạ em bây giờ có một điều, có một điều phải hỏi cô*") in turn 03 (Scenario 4, pre-departure). However, in the post-trip role-play, Shawn delayed his request until after a few turn exchanges about the weather as a prelude (turn 05, Scenario 4, post-trip). This small talk was used to create warmth and harmonious feelings among the interlocutors. The fact that Shawn made greater use of "lead-in" moves to "nicely put across" his intention, again, seems reflective of his observation of the NS preference for "an indirect way of communicating" as well as his desire to be accepted into the TL community as "a familiar character rather than a foreign figure" (see Shawn's e-journal excerpts 5, 6, 7 and 8).

Example 3. Scenario 2 (Lecture notes)

Pre-departure

01	Shawn:	*Mai*	*à,*	*hôm qua*	*có*	*đi*	*lớp*	*của*	*thầy*	*Marcus*	*à?*
		Name	VOC	yesterday	have	go	class	of	teacher	Marcus	Q
		Mai, did you go to Prof Marcus' class yesterday?									

02	Friend:	*Có.*	*Mình*	*đi*	*học.*	*Sao*	*bạn*	*không*	*đi*	*học?*
		Have	I (friendly)	go	study	Why	friend	no	go	study
		Yes. I went to his class. Why didn't you go?								

03	Shawn:	*Vì*	*hôm qua*	*mình*	*bị*	*bệnh.*
		Because	yesterday	I (friendly)	PASS	ill
		Mình	*bây giờ*	*rất*	*khó chịu.*	
		I (friendly)	now	very	unwell	
		Nhưng mà	*hôm qua*	*không*	*đến*	*lớp.*
		But	yesterday	no	come	class

Mai có ... có ghi chép nhiều không?
Name have ... have note many no
Because I was sick yesterday. I feel very unwell now. But yesterday I did not go to class. Mai, did you take many notes?

04 Friend: *Có. Vì lớp đó rất là quan trọng mà.*
Have. Because class that very be important StaM
Mình cũng ghi chép nhiều.
I (friendly) also note many
Yes. Because it was an important class, I took many notes.

05 Shawn: *Thầy có nói nhiều, nói những gì quan trọng không?*
Teacher have say many say PL what important no
Did the teacher say important things?

06 Friend: *Có. Thầy nói rất là nhiều*
Have. Teacher say very emphasis marker -EmM many
và cái này liên quan đến bài thi.
and CLF this related come exam
Yes. The teacher said many things related to the exam.

07 Shawn: *Bài thi à? Mai à, trước kia mình có*
Exam Q Mai VOC before I (friendly) have
cho Mai ghi chép của mình
give Mai note of me (friendly)
Bây giờ có thể để mình xem chép của em
Now can let me (friendly) see note of younger sibling
không?
no
Exam? Mai, I lent you my notes before. Now, can you let me see yours?

08 Friend: *Nhưng mà bây giờ mình đang làm bài tập mà.*
But now I (friendly) PROG do exercise StaM
Cần xem ghi chép này để làm bài tập.
Need see note this for do exercise
But I am doing my homework now. I need to see the notes to do my homework.

09 Shawn: *Ừ, đang làm bài tập à? Rất bận à?*
Yes (casual) PROG do exercise Q Very busy Q
Nhưng mà mình khi em rảnh
But I (friendly) when younger sibling free
mình có thể lấy chép từ em.
I (friendly) can take note from younger sibling
Có lẽ tối nay cũng được,
Maybe evening this also possible

sau đó có thể đi ăn tối cùng, được không?
after that can go eat dinner together possible no
Yeah, you are doing your homework, right? You are very busy? But when you are free, I can borrow the notes from you. Maybe tonight and after that we can have dinner together, okay?

Post-trip

01 Shawn: *Hương ơi, một tuần không gặp rồi.*
Name VOC one week no meet already
Huong, I have not seen you for a week already.

02 Friend: *Ừ, lâu quá, có việc gì không vậy?*
Yeah (casual) long so have work what no StaM
Yeah, so long, what's up?

03 Shawn: *Vì tuần trước mình bị ốm.*
Because week last I (friendly) PASS sick
Dạo này rất yếu và thường thấy khó chịu
Recently very weak and usually feel unwell
Because I was sick last week. I have been very weak recently and often feel unwell.

04 Friend: *À, chắc là không ngủ đủ à?*
Oh possible be no sleep enough Q
Oh, is it possible that you haven't been getting enough sleep?

05 Shawn: *Bác sỹ cũng nói phải nghỉ ngơi nhiều hơn.*
Doctor also say must rest many more
Thì tuần trước không ghi chép trong lớp.
TOP week last no note in class
Bạn có ghi chép không?
Friend have note no
My doctor also told me to rest more. Last week, I did not take notes in class. Did you take notes?

06 Friend: *Có. Mình ghi chép đủ,.*
Have I (friendly) note enough
vì bài đó rất là quan trọng mà
because lesson that very EmM important Stam
Yes, I did. I took many notes, because that lesson was very important.

07 Shawn: *Thầy giáo có nói nhiều điều quan trọng không?*
Teacher have say many thing important no
Did the teacher say many important things?

08 Friend: *Có. Thầy giảng rất nhiều điều quan trọng.*
Have Teacher explain very many thing important
Yes. He explained many important things.
09 Shawn: *Nhưng mà tuần trước mình không ghi chép à.*
But week before I (friendly) no note EmM
Bạn giúp mình không?
Friend help me (friendly) no
But I did not take notes last week. Can you help me?
10 Friend: *Bây giờ mình đang làm bài tập mà.*
Now I (friendly) PROG do exercises StaM
Mình cần dùng quyển vở ghi chép này để làm bài tập.
I (friendly) need use CLF notebook this for do exercise
But I am doing my homework now. I need this notebook for my homework.
11 Shawn: *Ừ, không sao, thời gian nào cũng được mà.*
Yeah (casual) no matter time any also possible StaM
Mình không cần bây giờ.
I (friendly) no need now
Nếu có một thời gian bạn rảnh,
If have one time friend free
thì mình có thể đi nhà Hương lấy chép?
TOP I (friendly) can go house name take note
Yes, no problem, any time is fine. I don't need it now. When you are free, I can go to your house and get it.

Example 4. Scenario 4 (Letter of reference)

Pre-departure
01 Shawn: *Chào cô, cô khỏe không ạ?*
Greetings teacher, teacher well no HON
Hello, how are you?
02 Teacher: *Chào em, cô khỏe. Em thế nào?*
Greetings younger sibling teacher well Younger sibling how
Hello. I'm well. How are you?
03 Shawn: *Dạ em bây giờ có một điều,*
HON younger sibling now have one thing
có một điều *phải hỏi cô.*
have one thing must ask teacher
Now I have one thing, have one thing to ask you.

04 Teacher: *Thế à? Có việc gì vậy?*
So Q have thing what StaM
Really? What's the matter?
05 Shawn: *Bây giờ có một học bổng,*
Now have one scholarship
phải có một thư giới thiệu, từ cô
must have one letter introduce from female teacher
hay thầy của em.
Or male teacher of younger sibling
Nên bây giờ phải nhờ phải nhờ cô
So now must ask for help must ask for help teacher
viết một thư giới thiệu cho em.
write one letter introduce for younger sibling
Now I have a scholarship and I must have a recommendation letter from my teacher. So now I must ask you to help me write a recommendation letter.

Post-trip

01 Shawn: *Chào cô, hôm nay thời tiết nóng qúa.*
Greetings teacher today weather hot very
Hello, the weather is so hot today.
02 Teacher: *Dạo này trời nóng quá rất khó chịu?*
Recently weather hot very very unwell
Recently, the weather has been so hot, so uncomfortable.
03 Shawn: *Hè này rất nóng, không biết tại sao.*
Summer this very hot no know why
Nóng hơn bình thường.
Hot more usual
I don't know why this summer is so hot. Hotter than usual.
04 Teacher: *Chắc là thay đổi thời tiết.*
Perhaps be change weather
Maybe it is climate change.
05 Shawn: *Có lẽ vậy. Cô à,*
Maybe so Teacher VOC
em đang xin một học bổng
Younger sibling PROG apply one scholarship
từ một công ty lớn.
from one company big

Thì bây giờ công ty nói là phải được một thư giới thiệu
TOP now company say be must possible one letter introduce
từ cô giáo. Thì cho học bổng của em.
from female teacher TOP give scholarship of younger sibling
Thì nếu cô không quá rảnh có thể giúp em
TOP if teacher no too free can help younger sibling
viết một thư giới thiệu không?
write one letter introduce no
Maybe. Teacher, I am applying for a scholarship by a big company. The company requires a recommendation letter from a teacher for my scholarship. If you are not too free [sic], could you help me write a letter?

Despite the post-trip increase in Shawn's frequent use of pre-sequence moves to support his requests, there was no difference in his use of mitigating devices characteristic of Vietnamese respectful politeness, which were taught in the intervention program. His pre-departure data displayed an under-use of alignment markers and honorifics. For example, he used honorific "*ạ*" only once in all three low-to-high power conversations. He employed no alignment markers in all six role-plays. Furthermore, he occasionally failed to adopt a naming style (addressing himself and addressing the hearer), making his tone less respectful, particularly when speaking to his teachers. After the trip to the host country, he did not show much improvement in this area (evidenced by his lack of use of honorifics in all three low-to-high power scenarios and use of alignment marker "*nhé*" twice in all six scenarios).

5.2.3 Pragmatic awareness

As shown in the previous section, a prominent feature of Shawn's pre- and post-trip requests was that they were mainly realized by means of conventional indirectness, regardless of situational variation. Even after the trip, Shawn still made extremely rare use of imperative requests (only one out of 19 requests produced – see Table 7), the type of request that previous research found prevalent in NS data (Vu 1997, 1999). We propose two speculations for this misfit. First, Shawn may not have fully noticed the nuances of making requests in Vietnamese. As pointed out elsewhere, the Vietnamese culture emphasizes values such as warmth and solidarity, which explains NSs' preference for direct requests such as imperatives. Vietnamese verbal styles also emphasize delicacy and tact,

Table 7: Shawn's use of request realization strategies before and after the trip.

	Imperatives	Performatives	Query preparatories
Pre-departure			
Equal power	0	0	5
Low-to-high	0	1	3
Sub-total	*0*	*1*	*8*
Post-trip			
Equal power	1	0	5
Low-to-high	0	0	4
Sub-total	*1*	*0*	*9*
Total	**1**	**1**	**17**

which can be achieved by means of various verbal strategies such as delaying the dispreferred act, as noted by Shawn. The dual emphasis on both of the above aspects in the Vietnamese culture may help to explain why mitigated directness is ranked higher on the politeness continuum than indirectness, as reported in previous studies (Vu 1997, 1999). We speculate that while Shawn noticed the NS's use of extensive mitigation for requests, he may have been less aware of the directness of the head act. Second, we may recall Shawn's e-journal data, which indicated that most of the NS requests that Shawn observed during his sojourn were those addressed to him rather than requests made among NSs. We speculate that when speaking to out-group interlocutors, such as foreigners, Vietnamese NSs may maneuver their speech acts more carefully. This may be even more the case if they deal with highly sensitive topics such as asking the foreign guest to move out, or asking the foreign guest to help them buy an expensive appliance, i.e., experiences that Shawn underwent, as reported in his e-journals (see excerpts 7 and 8). In other words, it may have been due to his personal experiences that Shawn received more mitigated requests, which led to his aforementioned observation. To confirm our speculation that Shawn may not have noticed the NS preference for imperative requests, we explored how Shawn perceived the appropriateness of this type of request in different social scenarios. Similar to Elin, we examined Shawn's judgments of imperative requests in scenarios 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 12 (see Table 3) and compared his judgments with those of the NSs who contributed baseline data in our study.

Contrary to our speculations, however, our findings did not indicate Shawn's disapproval of imperative requests in all scenarios. At the same time, our findings also suggested Shawn's simplistic understanding of the appropriateness of this request type in the Vietnamese language. To be more specific, we found that, prior to departure, Shawn considered imperative requests appropriate in equal power (scenarios 1, 7, 3 and 9) and high-to-low power scenarios (scenarios 2, 8 and 4), but inappropriate in student-to-teacher scenarios (scenarios 6 and 12), which in many cases did not match the NSs' assessment (Table 8). This difference seemed to stem from the fact that Shawn based his assessment on the power relationships of the interlocutors, whereas the NSs tended to judge the appropriateness of the requests to a greater extent on the basis of the presence of mitigation. Therefore, while Shawn simplistically considered the request in scenario 9 appropriate because "they are close friends", the NSs commented that this request was not "sufficiently mitigated". This also held true for their assessment of scenario 2. On the other hand, while the NSs felt that the requests in scenarios 6 and 12 were "sufficiently mitigated" and hence appropriate, Shawn commented that these requests were too impolite, given the teacher's higher power status. Upon returning home, Shawn still seemed to experience difficulty judging the appropriateness of imperative requests in student-to-teacher scenarios. However, he occasionally succeeded in identifying appropriate requests according to their supportive elements (e.g. scenario 2).

Table 8: Shawn's judgment of imperative requests before and after the trip.

	Pre-departure	**Post-trip**	**NS judgment (% of respondents agree with the given choice)**
Scenario 1: Sharing book (equal, familiar, low R)	Y	Y	Y (85%)
Scenario 2: Borrowing pen (high-to-low P, unfamiliar, low R)	Y	N	N (68%)
Scenario 3: Asking for lift (equal, familiar, high R)	Y	Y	Y (54%)
Scenario 4: Stopping at shop (high-to-low P, unfamiliar, high R)	Y	Y	Y (91%)
Scenario 6: Filling out survey (low-to-high, familiar, high R)	N	N	Y (75%)
Scenario 7: Passing newspaper (equal, familiar, low R)	Y	Y	Y (62%)
Scenario 8: Buying postcard (high-to-low P, unfamiliar, low R)	Y	Y	Y (72%)
Scenario 9: Borrowing money (equal, familiar, high R)	Y	Y	N (51%)
Scenario 12: Borrowing book (low-to-high, familiar, high R)	N	N	Y (66%)

Note Y = Appropriate; N = Inappropriate

Regarding Shawn's awareness of the various aspects of Vietnamese politeness, we found that, as with Elin, his pre-departure comments were considerably more often related to aspects of strategic politeness than aspects of respectful politeness. Shawn's comments related to respectful politeness were also limited to the use of address terms. Nonetheless, after the trip, although majority of his comments were still related to strategic politeness, his comments related to respectful politeness increased and he also addressed a wider range of politeness devices such as the use of honorific and alignment markers, two features taught in the intervention (Table 9). These findings seem to suggest Shawn's increasing awareness of respectful politeness (and in fact greater awareness of this type of politeness as compared to Elin), a prominent feature of Vietnamese culture.

Putting together findings regarding Shawn's pragmatic production and awareness, it was also suggested that, as with Elin, Shawn's pragmatic production did not always keep up with his pragmatic awareness. For example, despite his increasing recognition of appropriate imperative requests, his post-trip production data still indicated his under-use of this request type (see Table 7). He also under-used mitigating devices characteristic of Vietnamese respectful politeness in spite of his growing awareness of these devices (as evidenced by his post-trip politeness perceptions – see Table 9). As with the case of Elin, we attribute Shawn's inconsistent pragmatic behaviors to the lack of automatization of his knowledge of Vietnamese pragmatics, which may have prevented him from using what he knew under communicative pressure.

5.2.4 Reflection on the intervention program

Similar to Elin, Shawn discussed the benefits of the program in terms of developing his sensitivity to NS interactional norms in general and to requestive norms in particular. As a result of this enhanced sensitivity, Shawn reported being more capable of "appropriately approach[ing requests] in the Vietnamese way", as well as more attuned to indirect requests addressed to him. Shawn's claim was confirmed by his post-trip performance, which clearly incorporated some of the instructed pragmatic features (see section 5.2.2) and his journal's data, which demonstrated his capability to observe and reflect on relevant TL input (see section 5.2.1). Another common finding emerging from both Elin and Shawn's data was that aside from the impact on learning L2 requests, the training also enabled them to become strategic learners who developed a repertoire of self-directed strategies for autonomous learning of pragmatics. For example, both the participants mentioned that the training

Table 9: Shawn's comments on politeness before and after the trip.

Respectful politeness	Strategic politeness	Vague comments
Pre-departure:	Pre-departure:	Pre-departure:
– "appropriate terms when addressing the other" – "addressing self as "*tôi*" [formal "I"] is formal language (not knowing each other's age, or unless the hearer is much older)"	– "should have asked questions without implying the teacher will have to agree" – "implying that the teacher will and should lend him the book" – "if there is a problem that is because they are not close friends" – "close friends so it should not be a problem asking to borrow money"	– "tone not polite when talking to teacher"
Post-trip:	Post-trip:	Post-trip:
– "lack of respect words such as "*xin*" [trans.: "beg"], "*nhờ*" [trans.: "ask for help"]" – "using "*nhé*" [alignment marker] is inappropriate for person of authority" – "should be more polite, using words like "*xin*", "*nhờ*"" – "address terms are appropriate ("anh"/ "tôi") [trans.: "elder brother"/ formal "I"] in not too formal situation"	– "assuming teacher will and should help" – "don't sound like a command" – "close in age and relationship so formality is excluded"	– "should use more polite words" – "should be more polite when asking for favor in first meeting (buying postcard)"

program encouraged them to take initiative in observing NS communication patterns, take note of and analyze how these patterns may vary according to contexts of interaction, actively seek opportunities for practicing the observed norms and monitor their own learning progress (see Taguchi 2014 for further discussion of these strategies). To quote Shawn, the program made him "look towards certain aspects" of communication during the sojourn, "self-reflect on how interactions are going in [the] host country" and allowed him to "do a thorough evaluation" of his own success and failure when interacting in the host community. This development is of enormous importance as the learning of pragmatics does not take place only inside the classroom; learning is a life-long process and it is essential for learners to develop a variety of strategies for effectively taking charge of their own learning and enhancing their TL use out of class.

6 Conclusion

Our study set out to investigate the impact of training pragmatic strategies on the acquisition of requests in L2 Vietnamese by two English-speaking undergraduate students prior to their one-month immersion in the host community. This pre-departure intervention was designed to raise the learners' intercultural sensitivity, particularly with regard to the way requests are performed in various social scenarios in the TL and to encourage social contact between the learners and the NS. We aimed to answer two research questions: (1) what is the impact of the intervention on the learners' ability to produce and recognize pragmatically appropriate requests in the TL; and (2) what is the influence of the learners' degree of contact with NSs and context of interaction in which TL norms are observed in the learners' pragmatic awareness? Despite the limitation of data (i.e., considering the fact that our study only dealt with two learners), our study yielded some valuable insights into the above questions.

Regarding the first research question, findings from the learners' post-trip performance data indicated some improvements in the way the two learners perceived and produced requests in the TL. First, both learners improved their pragmatic awareness, although Shawn seemed to gain a greater awareness of respectful politeness than Elin, who displayed improvement mainly in the area of strategic politeness. The two learners also improved in some aspects of their pragmatic production. For example, they were more capable of negotiating their requests using a wider variety of semantic moves. However, their pragmatic production tended to lag behind their pragmatic awareness in some other aspects. For instance, both the learners under-used imperative requests, despite their general approval of this type of requests, particularly in scenarios where a power asymmetry is absent. They also rarely produced respectful politeness devices, which in Shawn's case was inconsistent with his increasing awareness of the importance of this type of politeness in the Vietnamese culture. The learners' lesser degree of progress in terms of pragmatic production as compared to pragmatic awareness was most probably due to the lack of automatization of their pragmatic knowledge in the TL, which may have impeded their real-time performance. Though limited, the learners' pragmatic gains can be attributed to both the explicit pragmatics instruction they received prior to departure, as well as their pragmatics-related experiences while in the host country. With respect to their pragmatics-related experience during study abroad, the contribution of the pre-departure intervention program was to guide the learners in what to attend to in the TL input and reflect on the enactment of different norms in different situational contexts. Needless to say, owing to their ability to observe the TL input, their learning was enriched and improved as evidenced by the learners' post-trip performance.

Despite the commonalities, we also found striking differences between the two learners after the trip. Elin drastically changed her view of imperative requests from general disapproval to general approval due to her observation of the frequent use by NSs for this type of requests. Shawn, in contrast, reported observing the NS preference for indirectness, hence preluding his requests to a considerably greater extent than he did before the trip. Shawn also seemed to gain a better understanding of the normative aspect of Vietnamese politeness and noticed more linguistic forms for expressing this type of politeness, as compared to Elin. The two learners' different learning outcomes are intriguing, given that they were both trained before going abroad in the same class and their length of sojourn was the same. We turn to their language contact profiles for further insights (this also pertains to our second research question).

We found that Elin and Shawn's language learning experiences differed in at least three aspects. First, in terms of the amount of exposure, Shawn seemed to have more opportunities to interact with the NSs, as he lived with them during his sojourn in the TL country. In comparison, Elin stayed with other international students in the university hostel and thus, most of her exposure while in residence came from formal instruction. Second, in terms of interactional context, Elin seemed to be at a disadvantage as compared to Shawn. This is because of the fact that she only experienced brief interactions in the TL, most of which occurred in the transactional context, such as service counter exchanges and buying things from street vendors or school canteens. Shawn, on the other hand, was mainly engaged in interacting with local friends and host family in private settings for interpersonal purposes. Therefore, he tended to have more opportunities than Elin to observe TL use in a wider range of contexts. Third, both learners seemed to receive different types of input. Elin observed how requests were made among the NSs, which might explain her observation of the common occurrence of imperative requests. As reported in existing literature, Vietnamese NSs tend to opt for a high degree of directness when making requests of one another. Shawn, in contrast, observed how requests were made to him by the NSs, particularly in highly sensitive contexts, which seemed to explain why he observed a greater degree of indirectness (which he might have inferred from the extensive use of supportive moves). It is noteworthy that in Shawn's case, the NSs might have adopted a more careful speech style when communicating with him than they might have with other NSs (see DuFon 1999; Iino 1996). In other words, it seemed that due to their differing learning opportunities, Shawn and Elin engaged in differing learning experiences and hence demonstrated differing knowledge of TL pragmatics (see Hassall 2015; Iwasaki 2011; Kinginger 2008; Shively 2011 for similar findings).

As such, our findings, while showing some effectiveness of the intervention in encouraging learners to observe TL forms and thus increasing their pragmatic awareness, also indicate other implications. First, since individual learners who go on the same sojourn trip may receive different learning opportunities in the TL community, as did our two learners, it should not be assumed that the study-abroad experience is uniform across learners. Individual learning opportunities may depend on a number of factors, such as learners' living situation, the degree of language contact they have with the locals, the interactional contexts they frequently participate in and individual learners' characteristics, identities and investment in learning (see Taguchi 2015a). Our findings, therefore, highlight the importance of study abroad research providing insight into individual learning experiences in pragmatic development, rather than that of multiple learners grouped together according to their length of residence. Such an investigation would benefit from collecting ethnographic data and providing rich analysis of context and individual-level documentation of learning (see Kinginger 2008 for further discussion on this point).

Furthermore, our study seems to suggest that systematic and explicit instruction is needed, at least for language-and-culture-specific pragmatic features that may be overlooked by learners. There are two reasons for this recommendation. First, as previously discussed, some pragmatic aspects might remain difficult to notice despite immersion in the TL environment and hence need to be taught explicitly to learners. Congruent to previous studies, our study found a slower development for pragmalinguistic forms (e.g. linguistic forms for expressing respectful politeness) than for semantic moves (e.g. strategic politeness moves), particularly because social conventions underlying these politeness forms differ for L1 and L2 (see Taguchi, 2010 for an overview of the findings). Our finding therefore raises the importance of devoting more instructional time to reinforcing the acquisition of precise pragmalinguistic forms, particularly those that are perceptually less salient. Second, immersion in the TL environment does not necessarily guarantee representative pragmatic input, as NSs may not always be forthcoming in providing explicit socialization of TL norms (Shively 2011). In some cases, they may even adjust their way of speaking or adopt a totally different interactional style when communicating with out-group interlocutors, as evidenced by Shawn's experience (see Dufon 1999; Iino 1996 for similar findings). In order to learn the pragmatics of TL, naturalistic interaction with NSs, therefore, may not be sufficient.

Another important implication emerging from our study is that pragmatic instruction should aim to develop not only pragmatic knowledge (i.e. accuracy of pragmatic awareness and production), but also pragmatic fluency (i.e. the automatization of pragmatic knowledge for effortless real-time use) (see Taguchi 2011 for further discussion on this point). As seen with the case of our learners, a high level of pragmatic awareness may not always lead to a corresponding level of pragmatic production. Thus, for pragmatic knowledge to be proceduralized, it is essential that pragmatic instruction be systematically implemented and plentiful opportunities for learners to engage in repeated and sustained practice in meaningful contexts be afforded (see Taguchi 2015b).

Finally, our study indicates the usefulness of strategy training as part of pragmatics teaching. Taguchi (2014) points out that strategy training may offer solutions to two existing problems in pragmatics instruction. These include limited opportunities for pragmatics-focused input and practice in the classroom and the restricted coverage of pragmatic features in the syllabus. Thus, training students in self-directed learning is necessary in enabling them to become independent learners who actively seek learning opportunities outside of the classroom for their own benefit. As seen in our study, as the learners developed some strategies for the autonomous learning of pragmatics, they were able to notice a great deal of pragmatic information, some of which was not taught or was even represented unrealistically in formal instruction materials. Future research may continue to validate the benefits of such training in order to better inform classroom practices.

Appendix

Full transcripts of Examples 1–4

Example 1 – Scenario 2 (Lecture notes)

Pre-departure

01 Elin: *Bạn ơi, có thể cho mượn tôi cái quyển vở*
Friend VOC can lend me (formal) CLS notebook
của bạn không?
of friend no
Can you lend me your notebook?

02 Friend: *Nhưng mà bây giờ mình đang cần,*
But now I (friendly) PROG need
mình đang làm bài tập
I (friendly) PROG do exercise
But I need it now, I am doing my homework.

03 Elin: *Đang làm bài tập à?*
PROG do exercise Q
Chúng tôi có thể đi làm bài tập với nhau.
We (exclude the listener) can go do exercise with each other
Are you doing homework now? We can do homework together.

04 Friend: *Nhưng mà bài tập này rất là khó.*
But exercise this very be difficult
Nếu mình làm với người khác,
If I (friendly) do with people different
mình không tập trung
I (friendly) no concentrate
But this homework is very difficult. If I do it with someone else, I will not be able to concentrate.

05 Elin: *Nhưng mà vì tuần trước tôi bị bệnh nặng*
But because week before I (formal) PASS illnes serious
thì không đi lớp được.
TOP no go class possible
Phải hỏi bạn mượn tôi notebook.
Must ask friend) borrow I (formal) notebook
But because last week I was very ill, I could not go to class. I must ask you to lend me your notebook.

06 Friend: *Bạn cần dùng lâu không?*
Friend need use long no
Do you need to use it for long?

07 Elin: *Không lâu.*
No long
Vì tôi thấy tôi sẽ hiểu rất nhanh
because I (formal) see I (formal) FUT understand very fast
Nếu bạn không hiểu thì tôi có thể
If friend no understand TOP I (formal) can
explain giải thích cho bạn.
explain for friend
Not long. Because I think I will understand it very fast… If you don’t understand, I can explain to you.

Post-trip

01 Elin: *Có một bài, tôi không biết*
Have one lesson I (formal) no know
bạn có thể giúp tôi không?
friend can help I (formal) no
There is one lesson, I don’t know if you can help me?

02 Friend: *Bây giờ mình cũng đang làm bài tập.*
Now I (friendly) also PROG do exercise
Now I am also doing my homework.

03 Elin: *Nhưng mà tuần trước tôi bị mệt,*
But week before I (formal) PASS tired
nên không đi đến lớp được.
so no go class possible
Không biết là – tôi biết là
No know TOP I (formal) know TOP
bạn đang làm bài tập
friend PROG do exercise
Nhưng sau bạn làm rồi thì có thể giúp tôi không?
But after friend do already TOP can help me (formal) no
But last week I was tired so I could not go to class. I don’t know if – I know you are doing your homework right now. But after you finish, can you help me?

04 Friend: *Cũng được, nếu bạn chờ được một chút,*
Also possible if friend wait possible one bit
lúc nào mình làm xong sẽ cho bạn mượn.
when I (friendly) do finish FUT let friend borrow
That’s possible. If you can wait for a while, after I finish, I will lend it to you.

05 Elin: *Cảm ơn bạn.*
Thank friend
Thank you.

Example 2 – Scenario 4 (Letter of reference)

Pre-departure

01 Elin: *Chào cô. Cô có rảnh không?*
Greetings teacher Teacher have free no
Hello. Are you free?

02 Teacher: *Chào em, bây giờ cô có một chút thời gian.*
Hello younger sibling now teacher have a little time
Lát nữa cô phải đi họp.
Moment more teacher must go meeting
Hello. I'm quite free now. I'll have a meeting later.

03 Elin: *Vì em sắp tốt nghiệp rồi.*
Because younger sibling FUT graduate already
Và muốn đi học PhD, thì muốn apply
And want go learn PhD TOP want apply
muốn nộp thư giới thiệu. Thì muốn hỏi
want submit letter introduce TOP want ask
cô có thể giúp em viết thư
teacher can help younger sibling write letter
giới thiệu được không?
introduce possible no
Because I am going to graduate soon and I want to do a PhD, I want to apply and submit a recommendation letter. So I want to ask if you can help me write a recommendation letter?

04 Teacher: *Em là một sinh viên rất thông minh.*
Younger sibling be one student very smart
Cô muốn giúp em viết thư giới thiệu.
Teacher want help younger sibling write letter introduce
Nhưng dạo này cô đang rất bận.
But recently teacher PROG very busy
Cô đang chuẩn bị đi họp,
Teacher PROG prepare go meeting
mấy ngày nay có nhiều việc.
several day now have many work
You are a very smart student. I want to help you with the recommendation letter. But recently, I have been very busy. I am preparing to go for a meeting; there's lot of work these few days.

05 Elin: *Vì em biết cô rất bận,*
Because younger sibling know teacher very busy
thì em hỏi rất sớm vì deadline
TOP younger sibling ask very early because deadline
hạn nộp giới thiệu là hai tháng sau.
deadline submit introduce be two month after
Because I know you are very busy, I am asking very early, as the deadline to submit the recommendation letter is in two month.

06 Teacher: *Hai tháng thì được, vẫn còn có thời gian.*
Two month TOP possible still have time
If it's two months, then it's possible. There is still time.

07 Elin: *Dạ cảm ơn cô viết em*
HON thank teacher write younger sibling
thư giới thiệu nhé.
letter introduce AlignM
Yes, thank you for writing the recommendation letter for me.

Post-trip

01 Elin: *Chào cô.*
Greetings teacher
Hello.

02 Teacher: *Chào em.*
Hello student
Hello.

03 Elin: *Em biết là cô bây giờ rất bận*
Younger sibling know TOP teacher now very busy
vì có nhiều bài tập phải chấm.
because have many exercise must mark
Nhưng mà em muốn hỏi
But younger sibling want ask
cô có thể viết thư giới thiệu cho em không?
teacher can write letter introduce for younger sibling no
I know you are very busy now because you have exercises to mark. But I want to ask if you can write a recommendation letter for me.

04 Teacher: *Em cần thư giới thiệu để làm gì?*
Younger sibling need letter introduce to do what
What do you need the recommendation letter for?

05 Elin: *Vì em muốn học tiếp tiến sỹ*
Because young sibling want study continue PhD

và phải có một thư giới thiệu.
and must have one letter introduce
Không có thư giới thiệu thì không nhận được
No have letter introduce TOP no receive possible
học bổng để học tiếp tiến sỹ.
scholarship for study continue PhD
Because I want to continue to study PhD and must have a recommendation letter. Without a recommendation letter, I would not be able to receive the PhD scholarship.

06 Teacher: *Ừ, cô cũng rất muốn giúp em*
Yes (casual) teacher also very want help younger sibling
vì em là sinh viên rất là giỏi.
because young sibling be student very be good
Nhưng mà mấy ngày hôm nay cô lại
But some day today teacher stance marker –StaM
bận quá, phải đi họp nhiều,
busy very must go meeting many
và phải chấm nhiều bài tập.
and must mark many exercise
Yes, I also want to help you, because you are a very good student. But I have been very busy these few days, I have lots of meetings and must mark a lot of exercises.

07 Elin: *Em biết, em hiểu .*
Younger sibling know younger sibling understand
Không sao, vì em ... trên Internet
No matter because younger sibling ... on Internet...
và hạn nộp đơn của thư giới thiệu
and deadline submit application of letter introduce
là 2 tuần. Có nhiều thời gian, cô có thể viết.
be two week Have many time teacher can write
I completely understand. No problem, because I ... on the Internet... and the deadline to submit the recommendation letter is in two weeks. There's a lot of time for you to write it.

Example 3 – Scenario 2 (Lecture notes)

Pre-departure

01 Shawn: *Mai à, hôm qua có đi lớp của thầy Marcus à?*
Name VOC yesterday have go class of teacher Marcus Q
Mai, did you go to Prof Marcus' class yesterday?

02 Friend: *Có. Mình đi học. Sao bạn không đi học?*
Have I (friendly) go study Why friend no go study
Yes. I went to his class. Why didn't you go?

03 Shawn: *Vì hôm qua mình bị bệnh.*
Because yesterday I (friendly) PASS ill
Mình bây giờ rất khó chịu.
I (friendly) now very unwell
Nhưng mà hôm qua không đến lớp.
But yesterday no come class
Mai có ... có ghi chép nhiều không?
Name have ... have note many no
Because I was sick yesterday. I feel very unwell now. But yesterday I did not go to class. Mai, did you take many notes?

04 Friend: *Có. Vì lớp đó rất là quan trọng mà.*
Have Because class that very be important StaM
Mình cũng ghi chép nhiều.
I (friendly) also note many
Yes. Because it was an important class, I took many notes.

05 Shawn: *Thầy có nói nhiều, nói những gì quan trọng không?*
Teacher have say many say PL what important no
Did the teacher say important things?

06 Friend: *Có. Thầy nói rất là nhiều*
Have Teacher say very emphasis marker -EmM many
và cái này liên quan đến bài thi.
and CLF this related come exam
Yes. The teacher said many things related to the exam.

07 Shawn: *Bài thi à? Mai à, trước kia mình có*
Exam Q Mai VOC before I (friendly) have
cho Mai ghi chép của mình
give Mai note of me (friendly).
Bây giờ có thể để mình xem chép của em
Now can let me (friendly) see note of younger sibling
không?
no
Exam? Mai, I lent you my notes before. Now, can you let me see yours?

08 Friend: *Nhưng mà bây giờ mình đang làm bài tập mà.*
But now I (friendly) PROG do exercise StaM
Cần xem ghi chép này để làm bài tập.
Need see note this for do exercise
But I am doing my homework now. I need to see the notes to do my homework.

09 Shawn: *Ừ, đang làm bài tập à? Rất bận à?*
Yes (casual) PROG do exercise Q Very busy Q
Nhưng mà mình khi em rảnh
But I (friendly) when younger sibling free
mình có thể lấy chép từ em.
I (friendly) can take note from younger sibling
Có lẽ tối nay cũng được,
Maybe evening this also possible
sau đó có thể đi ăn tối cùng, được không?
after that can go eat dinner together possible no
Yeah, you are doing your homework, right? You are very busy? But when you are free, I can borrow the notes from you. Maybe tonight and after that we can have dinner together, okay?

10 Friend: *Nếu thế thì được.*
If so TOP possible
If that is the case, it's possible.

11 Shawn: *Cảm ơn nhiều.*
Thank many
Thanks a lot.

12 Friend: *Không có gì nhé.*
No have what AlignM
You are welcome.

13 Shawn: *Hẹn gặp.*
Appointment meet
See you.

14 Friend: *Hẹn gặp tối nay*
Appointment meet evening this
See you this evening.

Post-trip

01 Shawn: *Hương ơi, một tuần không gặp rồi.*
Name VOC one week no meet already
Huong, I have not seen you for a week already.

02 Friend: *Ừ, lâu quá, có việc gì không vậy?*
Yeah (casual) long so have work what no StaM
Yeah, so long, what's up?

03 Shawn: *Vì tuần trước mình bị ốm.*
Because week last I (friendly) PASS sick
Dạo này rất yếu và thường thấy khó chịu
Recently very weak and usually feel unwell
Because I was sick last week. I have been very weak recently and often feel unwell.

04 Friend: *À, chắc là không ngủ đủ à?*
Oh possible be no sleep enough Q
Oh, is it possible that you haven't been getting enough sleep?

05 Shawn: *Bác sỹ cũng nói phải nghỉ ngơi nhiều hơn.*
Doctor also say must rest many more
Thì tuần trước không ghi chép trong lớp.
TOP week last no note in class
Bạn có ghi chép không?
Friend have note no
My doctor also told me to rest more. Last week, I did not take notes in class. Did you take notes?

06 Friend: *Có. Mình ghi chép đủ.*
Have I (friendly) note enough
vì bài đó rất là quan trọng mà
because lesson that very EmM important StaM
Yes, I did. I took many notes, because that lesson was very important.

07 Shawn: *Thầy giáo có nói nhiều điều quan trọng không?*
Teacher have say many thing important no
Did the teacher say many important things?

08 Friend: *Có. Thầy giảng rất nhiều điều quan trọng.*
Have Teacher explain very many thing important
Yes. He explained many important things.

09 Shawn: *Nhưng mà tuần trước mình không ghi chép à.*
But week before I (friendly) no note EmM
Bạn giúp mình không?
Friend help me (friendly) no
But I did not take notes last week. Can you help me?

10 Friend: *Bây giờ mình đang làm bài tập mà.*
Now I (friendly) PROG do exercises StaM
Mình cần dùng quyển vở ghi chép này để làm bài tập.
I (friendly) need use CLF notebook this for do exercise
But I am doing my homework now. I need this notebook for my homework.

11 Shawn: *Ừ, không sao, thời gian nào cũng được mà.*
Yeah (casual) no matter time any also possible StaM
Mình không cần bây giờ.
I (friendly) no need now
Nếu có một thời gian bạn rảnh,
If have one time friend free

thì mình có thể đi nhà Hương lấy chép?
TOP I (friendly) can go house name take note
Yes, no problem, any time is fine. I don't need it now. When you are free, I can go to your house and get it.

12 Friend: *Thế thì được, thế thì mình làm bài tập xong đã,*
So TOP possible so TOP I (friendly) do exercise finish PST
hôm khác bạn đến mượn nhé.
day different friend come borrow AlignM
That's okay. Then I will finish my homework first and you can come borrow it another day.

13 Shawn: *Được. Cảm ơn bạn nhiều.*
Possible Thank friend many
Okay. Thanks a lot.

14 Friend: *Được. Nhớ nghỉ ngơi cho khỏe nhé!*
Possible Remember rest for well AlignM
Okay. Remember to have a good rest.

Example 4 – Scenario 4 (Letter of reference)

Pre-departure

01 Shawn: *Chào cô, cô khỏe không ạ?*
Greetings teacher teacher well no HON
Hello, how are you?

02 Teacher: *Chào em, cô khỏe. Em thế nào?*
Greetings younger sibling teacher well Younger sibling how
Hello. I'm well. How are you?

03 Shawn: *Dạ em bây giờ có một điều,*
HON younger sibling now have one thing
có một điều phải hỏi cô.
have one thing must ask teacher
Now I have one thing, have one thing to ask you.

04 Teacher: *Thế à? Có việc gì vậy?*
So Q have thing what StaM
Really? What's the matter?

05 Shawn: *Bây giờ có một học bổng,*
Now have one scholarship
phải có một thư giới thiệu, từ cô
must have one letter introduce from female teacher
hay thầy của em.
Or male teacher of younger sibling

Nên bây giờ phải nhờ phải nhờ cô
So now must ask for help must ask for help teacher
viết một thư giới thiệu cho em.
write one letter introduce for younger sibling
Now I have a scholarship and I must have a recommendation letter from my teacher. So now I must ask you to help me write a recommendation letter.

06 Teacher: *Cô cũng rất vui nếu được giúp em.*
Teacher also very happy if PASS help younger sibling
Nhưng mà dạo này cô bận lắm.
But recently teacher busy very
Mấy tuần nay có rất nhiều việc.
Some week this have very many thing
I am also happy to help. But recently, I have been very busy. There are many things to do these few weeks.

07 Shawn: *A có việc nhiều à? Em cũng hiểu.*
Oh have thing many Q Younger sibling also understand
Vì em học kỳ này rất bận.
Because younger sibling semester this very busy
Nhưng mà có lẽ cuối tuần hay có lẽ cuối tuần sau
But maybe end week or maybe end week after
cô có thời gian viết thư giới thiệu
teacher have time write letter introduce
cho em không?
for younger sibling no
Do you have much work? I also understand, because I am very busy this semester. Maybe this weekend or next weekend you will have time to write the letter for me?

08 Teacher: *Tuần sau à? Chắc là cuối tuần sau thì được*
Week after Q Possibly end week after TOP possible
Vì trong tuần này rất bận không có thời gian.
Because in week this very busy no have time
Next week? Maybe next weekend is possible. Because this week I am very busy, I do not have the time.

09 Shawn: *Em cũng có thể giúp cô*
Younger sibling also can help teacher
Và em có thể viết ít về bản thân mình,
And younger sibling can write little about self me
thì giúp cô dễ hơn
TOP help teacher easy more

khi viết thư giới thiệu được không?
when write letter introduce possible no
I can also help you. I can write something about myself, so that it will be easier for you to write the recommendation letter. Would that be okay?

10 Teacher: *Ừ. Được rồi.*
Yeah (casual) Possible already
Thế thì tuần sau em qua lấy thư giới thiệu.
So TOP week after younger sibling pass take letter introduce
Yeah, okay. Then next week, you can come and take the letter.

11 Shawn: *Được, có thời gian. Thời gian không là vấn đề.*
Possible have time Time no be problem
Cảm ơn nhiều cô.
Thank many teacher
Yes, there's enough time. Time is not a problem. Thank you very much.

12 Teacher: *Không có gì em*
No have what younger sibling
You are welcome.

Post-trip

01 Shawn: *Chào cô, hôm nay thời tiết nóng qúa.*
Greetings teacher today weather hot very
Hello, the weather is so hot today.

02 Teacher: *Dạo này trời nóng quá rất khó chịu?*
Recently weather hot very very unwell
Recently, the weather has been so hot, so uncomfortable.

03 Shawn: *Hè này rất nóng, không biết tại sao.*
Summer this very hot no know why
Nóng hơn bình thường.
Hot more usual
I don't know why this summer is so hot. Hotter than usual.

04 Teacher: *Chắc là thay đổi thời tiết.*
Perhaps be change weather
Maybe it is climate change.

05 Shawn: *Có lẽ vậy. Cô à,*
Maybe so Teacher VOC
em đang xin một học bổng
Younger sibling PROG apply one scholarship
từ một công ty lớn.
from one company big

Thì bây giờ công ty nói là phải được một thư giới thiệu
TOP now company say be must possible one letter introduce
từ cô giáo. Thì cho học bổng của em.
from female teacher TOP give scholarship of younger sibling
Thì nếu cô không quá rảnh có thể giúp em
TOP if teacher no too free can help younger sibling
viết một thư giới thiệu không?
write one letter introduce no
Maybe. Teacher, I am applying for a scholarship by a big company. The company requires a recommendation letter from a teacher for my scholarship. If you are not too free [sic], could you help me write a letter?

06 Teacher: *Tuần này cô rất bận,*
Week this teacher very busy
tại vì cô vừa đi du lịch về
because teacher just go travel return
và sau đó cô có nhiều cuộc họp.
and after that teacher have many meeting
Cho nên tuần này cô không có thời gian.
So week this teacher no have time
I am very busy this week, because I have just come back from traveling and after that I will have many meetings. So this week I have no time.

07 Shawn: *Tuần này không có thời gian à?*
Week this no have time Q
Thế thì cũng không sao,
So TOP also no matter
công ty nói là có 2 tuần.
company say be have two week
Tuần sau cô có thời gian hơn thì cũng được mà.
Week later teacher have time more TOP also possible StaM
You don't have time, do you? It's okay. The company said I have two weeks to submit it. If you have time next week, then it's okay too.

08 Teacher: *Thực ra cô rất muốn giúp em.*
Actually teacher very want help younger sibling
Cô nghĩ là em là sinh viên rất là giỏi
Teacher think be younger sibling be student very be good
Và có khả năng dành học bổng đó.
and have ability get scholarship that

Vấn đề *là cô* *rất* *là* *bận.*
Problem be teacher very EmM busy
Không biết *thư* có *dài* *không?*
No know letter have long no
Actually, I really want to help you. I think you are a very good student and you are capable of getting that scholarship. The problem is that I am very busy. Does the letter need to be long?

09 Shawn: *Không cần dài à. Ngắn thôi. Công ty chỉ muốn*
No need long EmM Short only Company only want
biết nhiều hơn về em thôi.
know many more about younger sibling only
It does not need to be long. It can be short. The company only wants to know more about me.

10 Teacher: *Thế à? Được rồi.*
So Q possible already
Nếu em chờ được thì tuần sau..
If younger sibling wait possible TOP week after
Thứ 4 tuần sau em quay lại văn phòng cô,
Wednesday week after younger sibling return office teacher
lúc đấy cô viết xong rồi
time that teacher write finish already
Really? Okay. If you can wait till next week, come back to my office next Wednesday, I will get it ready then.

11 Shawn: *Tuần sau là tốt à.*
Week after be good EmM
Tuần sau em sẽ gặp cô *nhé.*
Week after younger sibling FUT meet teacher AlignM
Cảm ơn cô
Thank teacher
Next week is good. I will see you next week. Thank you.

12 Teacher: *Không có gì, chúc em thành công.*
No have what wish younger sibling success
No problem. I wish you success.

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Matthew T. Apple and Jonathan Aliponga

12 Intercultural communication competence and possible L2 selves in a short-term study abroad program

1 Introduction

There is an awareness of the growing importance of study abroad in terms of not only linguistic improvement, but also cultural understanding and intercultural communicative competence. Some 80% of all students engaged in study abroad programs come from Asian countries, particularly China, Korea and Japan, and these students tend to choose English and study abroad in the US or Australia (Altbach & Bassett 2004; Churchill 2006; Collentine 2009; Tanaka & Ellis 2003). However, despite the fact that worldwide, there are far more second-language (L2) English users than first-language (L1) English users, there is still a strong sense that the only way to improve L2 performance is through interaction with L1 interlocutors (Wilkinson 1998).

A common assumption of the most salient linguistic benefit for students studying abroad is improvement in L2 speaking fluency (Llanes & Muñoz 2009; O'Brien, Segalowitz, Freed & Collentine 2007; Segalowitz & Freed 2004). However, the effectiveness of study abroad for developing positive attitudes toward the target language and culture has been called into question (Allen 2002; Hoffman-Hicks 2000). Rather than specific L2 gains or positive developments in attitudes toward L1 speakers, a more pertinent improvement might have to do with the L2 learners themselves. Students who study abroad return home with a greater sense of the outside world and their place in it and have a heightened interest in world affairs (Hadis 2005). Therefore, the benefits of study abroad may be less a matter of linguistic competence and more of developing a sense of the self, or rather, the possible selves available to the learner. This chapter thus aims to examine the relationship between the psychological elements of intercultural communication competence and possible selves within a study abroad program for Japanese students.

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2 Background

The recent trend of Japanese students studying abroad has been a slow increase in short-term study abroad numbers (Tanikawa 2013). As such programs increase in popularity, it is paramount to uncover evidence of the linguistic as well as non-linguistic benefits of such programs. While gains in language fluency and proficiency generally occur (Freed 1995; Kininger 2007), not all learners improve their language performance during their study abroad and the degree of performance varies greatly depending on individual differences (Churchill & DuFon 2006). There is some evidence to suggest that learners of English vary in the amount of authentic interaction depending on the length of stay in the target language country, related to the degree to which learners successfully integrate into the target language community (Churchill 2006). Kininger (2007) stated that the perceived distance between the learner's identity as a language learner and the target culture may impede language improvement if the learner feels incapable of becoming fluent in the language. Since the degree to which study abroad students engage in contact with L2 speakers may vary depending on non-linguistic individual differences, we hypothesized that study participants with greater levels of such factors would have more L2 contact, thus increasing the likelihood of greater cultural awareness and language proficiency due to their study abroad. The following sections will elaborate on the aspects and importance of three of the most salient individual differences that may influence L2 language contact in study abroad experiences, which our study addresses: *intercultural communication competence*, *speaking confidence* and *possible L2 selves*.

While intercultural communication competence (ICC) has many definitions, it generally encompasses knowledge, skills, attitudes and motivations toward other cultures, languages and people (Gudykunst 1993; Spitzberg 1997). Psychological readiness for intercultural communication consists of four main traits: openness or flexibility to new ideas and cultures, self-efficacy or beliefs in one's own abilities, tolerance of ambiguity and critical thinking or creativity (Matsumoto 2000).

In contrast, a sense of ethnocentrism and lack of confidence may lead to a lack of communication (Gudykunst 1993). Ethnocentric behavior includes beliefs and attitudes that one's own culture and way of thinking is superior to all others and leads to lack of cooperation, misperception, or even hostility toward members of the out-group (Neuliep & McCroskey 1997). Such behavior is not entirely negative, since ethnocentrism can also lead to stronger ties within the group and a greater sense of self-sacrifice for the common good. However, ethnocentrism has been tied to communication apprehension (Lin & Rancer 2003) and excessive levels of ethnocentricity are seen as detrimental to communication (Gudykunst & Kim 1997). In previous studies on intercultural communication, Japanese students scored high on the ethnocentrism scale, especially compared to those from other countries such as the US, Sweden and Vietnam (Neuliep, Chaudoir & McCroskey 2001; Yashima 2010). In another study, students who were aware of themselves as individuals related to a global social context were seen as becoming more motivated and communicative due to a capacity for visualizing their L2 selves (Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide & Shimizu 2004). Thus, there exists a possibility that intercultural communication competence and possible L2 selves may be related.

Although study abroad is often regarded as influential toward development of the self, we also postulated that successful study abroad might also be related to an initial sense of the self as a L2 speaker. Based on the original *possible selves theory* by Markus and Nurius (1986), the L2 motivational self-system (Dörnyei 2005) consists of three language-related components. The *ideal L2 self* is an image the student has of becoming the best L2 user he or she can imagine. The *ought-to L2 self* is an image the student has of a self who is obliged to do something, such as passing a test or getting a job. Finally, *L2 learning experience* is what the student has or is doing to learn the L2.

While both ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self are seen as powerful self-guides, the ideal L2 self is generally seen to play a major role in motivation for future language learning (Dörnyei 2009; Ryan 2009; Taguchi, Magid & Papi 2009). This sense of ideal L2 self among Japanese students has been linked to perceived competence and lack of anxiety; in other words, L2 confidence (Apple, Falout & Hill 2013). Who the ideal L2 self may emulate, however, is often seen by Japanese students as a "native speaker" of English, particularly a white, monolingual American (cf. Yphantides 2013) due to the preference of the Japanese education system for the "native-speaker model" (Hino 2009) indeed, the depiction of English speakers as "foreign" and American, in particular, may explain Japanese students' unwillingness to use English unless they sound "native" (Honna & Takeshita 1998), thereby leading to an L2 avoidance tendency. Since Japanese students frequently resist L2 contact due to a perceived lack of competence compared to L1 speakers, it was thought that L2 contact with L2 English speakers might increase the sense of an ideal L2 self, thus leading to greater L2 confidence and hence more L2 contact, generating a positive recursive cycle of communication.

Japanese students are frequently regarded as lacking speaking confidence in English, which strongly influences their ultimate language performance.

Furthermore, Japanese students are less likely to initiate and sustain meaningful communication when they perceive their language ability to be lower than that of the interlocutor of the target language culture (Yashima et al 2004). This lack of confidence leads to less L2 contact and therefore reduced chances for improving language performance, creating a negative cycle of decreased confidence and L2 contact avoidance. Thus, rather than interacting with members of the target language culture (e.g. L1 English speakers from an “Inner Circle” country such as the US or the UK), it was hypothesized that interaction with fellow L2 English speakers of an “Expanding Circle” country (such as Thailand or Japan) might reduce the level of anxiety and increase perceived competence, thus raising confidence and encouraging more L2 contact (see Kachru 1985, for more on Inner, Outer and Expanding Circles).

3 Purpose of the study

Some studies have examined changes in sense of self and confidence among students studying a target language or culture in a native-speaking context (Berwick & Whalley 2000; Ingraham & Peterson 2004; Jackson 2006). However, few studies, if any, have examined the possible benefits of L2 language study abroad programs in an Asian L2 context, in which English is used by L2 speakers for international communication purposes. Based on the gap identified in the literature and the contents of the short-term study abroad program, which the study participants joined, three research questions were formulated for this study:

(1) What are the relationships among the psychological variables of intercultural communication competence?

(2) To what degree are possible L2 selves related to frequency of communication in English?

(3) What are the differences between low proficiency and high proficiency Japanese learners’ intercultural communication tendencies?

4 Methods

This study employed an explanatory sequential mixed methods analysis research approach, in which data from a quantitative investigation were triangulated with data from follow-up interviews (Creswell & Plano Clark 2010).

4.1 Study participants

The participants in this study were 47 second-year students at a small private undergraduate university in western Japan, who were enrolled in a compulsory three-week short-term study abroad program in Thailand in late August and early September 2013. Forty-two students majored in English education, three majored in social welfare and two majored in psychology. Ten sessions of a study abroad preparatory course prior to departure were conducted by senior students in the same department, under the supervision of English professors. The preparatory course and English classes at the university in Japan used pair and group work extensively to prepare students for English language use while overseas. Students were given a specially-prepared study abroad diary, in which they were asked to select goals for their study abroad, to take reflective notes on a daily basis regarding their language and culture experiences and to prepare team research reports according to a pre-arranged schedule.

The study abroad program was research-oriented; students formed teams of four and researched aspects of comparative culture before writing and presenting a report on their findings in English. As part of the overseas program, students from the Japanese university were paired with a student at the host university in Thailand. On weekday mornings from 9 a.m. to noon, the study participants took intensive English language classes taught by a native speaker of English who had been living in Thailand for over two decades. The host university received orientation by the Japanese university regarding the students' previous use of active learning, in other words, engaging in group activities such as reading, writing, discussion, problem solving, or cooperative learning, in order to promote analysis, synthesis and evaluation of class content. The paired Thai university students joined the study participants in the afternoon from 1 p.m. to 3 p.m. in Thai culture classes, taught by a professor who was a native Thai speaker. Weekends were devoted to conducting research on cultural differences between Japan and Thailand, which was presented upon returning to Japan at the conclusion of the short-term study abroad program.

4.2 Questionnaire instruments

Study participants were given two questionnaires, one prior to overseas departure (pre-program) and one after returning from the short-term study abroad program (post-program). The pre-program questionnaire consisted of 40 Likert-scale items. The items measured two intercultural communication variables from

Yashima (2002): *intergroup approach-avoidance* (α= .85) and *ethnocentrism* (α= .73); two possible L2 selves variables, two speaking self-efficacy variables and one motivational variable from Apple et al. (2013), Ryan (2009) and Taguchi et al. (2009): *Ideal L2 Self* (α= .93), *Ought-to L2 Self* (α= .86), *speaking anxiety* (α= .87), *perceived speaking competence* (α= .87) and *motivational intensity* (α= .92); and *frequency and amount of communication in English (pre)* (α= .93) as a self-reported measurement of how often students used English prior to their study abroad. TOEFL ITP scores were also self-reported by the 42 students majoring in English education (M = 402, SD = 30.27). Although this standardized examination does not contain any speaking or writing components, it was required of students in the study abroad program and is the most commonly administered English proficiency examination in Japan for students who wish to study overseas.

The post-program questionnaire included 11 Likert-scale items and two open response items. Items were not designed to measure the same psychological variables as the pre-program questionnaire, but rather to gauge how the psychological variables prior to the program were related to communication in the program itself. Likert-scale items measured the variables *frequency and amount of communication in English (post)* (α= .81) as a self-reported measurement of how often students used English while in Thailand and *perception of cultural adjustment* (α= .81) to measure reactions and attitudes of study participants with respect to their experiences during the study abroad program (adapted from Yashima, 2010). The two open response items asked students to indicate, on average, how many Thai interlocutors they talked to on a daily basis (*Interloc*) and the average time of their daily English usage (*Talk*).

All Likert-scale items used a six-point scale. Responses ranged from 1 (I never did this) to 6 (I did this often) for the two *frequency and amount of communication* variables and from 1 (I completely disagree) to 6 (I completely agree) for other variables.

To provide more in-depth information and to partially answer research question 3, interviews were conducted with four study participants, providing a qualitative perspective of the effectiveness of the short-term study program and triangulating the quantitative data analysis. The interviewees were chosen based on the results of the Rasch item-person maps for the variables Ideal L2 Self (IS) and Ought-to L2 Self (OS) as a representative profile of combinations of the possible L2 selves. The four students selected represented high OS and average IS, average OS and low IS, high OS and low IS and high OS and high IS. Participants were interviewed in a single focus group for 30 minutes in a semi-structured interview to uncover details behind their experiences in the short-term study abroad program in Thailand, their language and culture learning experiences and their self-perceptions as users of English.

4.3 Data analysis

The data were analyzed in three ways: Rasch model analysis, correlational analysis and select interviews with four individual study participants.

4.3.1 Rasch model analysis

Data obtained from Likert-scale items were analyzed using the Rasch rating scale model for categorical data (Andrich 1978; Rasch 1960), which determines item fit to the intended measurement construct and the unidimensionality of each construct. For this study, the criterion for unidimensionality of construct was set at 50% or more variance accounted for by the main construct and item fit of between .5 and 1.5 logits (Linacre 2007). Rasch item-person maps were also produced to give a visual representation of the levels of construct for each study participant. Traditional descriptive statistics were obtained, as well as item and construct reliability estimates.

This stage of the analysis was necessary for two reasons. First, Rasch analysis determined whether the questionnaire items were actually measuring their intended constructs (construct reliability). Second, the Rasch item-person maps were used to identify four typical learner profiles based on the Ideal L2 Self and Ought-to L2 Self, which were then used to select students for interviews.

4.3.2 Correlational analysis

After confirming the construct validity of variables in the study, a correlational analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between the pre-program questionnaire variables, the post-program questionnaire variables and English proficiency as measured by TOEFL ITP scores. This step of the analysis answered research questions 1 and 2 and gave partial information for research question 3.

5 Results

Results are divided according to analysis type below. Descriptive statistics, Rasch model analysis and reliability analysis are presented in Table 1. Correlational analysis is presented in Table 2.

Table 1: Traditional descriptive statistics, Rasch principal component analysis results and reliability estimate.

Variable	*k*	*M*	*SD*	Variance accounted	Eigenvalue	First contrast	Eigenvalue	Item reliability	Person reliability	Cronbach's alpha
TOEFL	–	402	30.27	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
AA	5 [a]	22.51	5.19	75.7	15.6	9.1	1.9	.88	.75	.85
ETH	5	17.32	4.84	66.1	9.8	12.9	1.9	.90	.62	.73
MI	5	22.40	5.56	80.5	20.7	6.5	1.7	.82	.79	.92
FCPre	5 [b]	20.30	5.87	72.8	10.7	10.5	1.5	.77	.76	.90
Anxiety	5 [c]	18.87	5.65	72.5	13.2	12.1	2.2	.75	.76	.87
Comp	5 [d]	18.53	5.03	82.0	22.8	6.8	1.9	.86	.91	.87
IS	5	20.17	6.45	76.1	15.9	11.6	2.4	.84	.85	.93
OS	5 [e]	22.17	5.57	67.6	10.4	10.4	1.6	.73	.50	.86
FCPost	4	15.62	4.47	74.2	11.5	10.9	1.7	.76	.91	.81
Adjust	5 [f]	16.89	5.55	70.1	11.7	10.3	1.7	.74	.81	.80
Interloc	–	5.39	4.67	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Talk	–	66.02	71.02	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

Note [a] = AA2 misfit but was retained; [b] = FC5 misfit; deleted prior to correlation; [c] = SA1 misfit but was retained; [d] = PS5 misfit but was retained; [e] = OS5 misfit but was retained; [f] = ADJ5 misfit but was retained.

5.1 Descriptive statistics, Rasch model analysis and reliability analysis

Initial descriptive statistics were obtained for all variables in both pre- and post-study abroad program questionnaires. The maximum composite index for nine variables (approach-avoid tendency, AA; ethnocentrism, ETH; motivational intensity, MI; frequency of contact pre-, FCPre; anxiety; perceived competence, Comp; ideal L2 self, IS; ought-to L2 self, OS; and perception of adjustment, Adjust) was 30.00, while the maximum for the frequency of contact post- (FCPost) variable was 24.00.

Descriptive statistics show that the most salient variable was approach-avoidance tendency, followed by motivational intensity and the two possible L2 selves variables (OS, *M* = 22.17, *SD* = 5.57; IS, *M* = 20.17, *SD* = 6.45). Students in the study were positive toward approaching those from other cultures (AA, *M* = 22.51, *SD* = 5.19), were highly motivated (MI, *M* = 22.40, *SD* = 5.56) and had participated

Table 2: Correlations of all variables both pre- and post-study abroad program questionnaires.

	TOEFL[a]	AA	ETH	MI	FCPre	Anxiety	Comp	IS	OS	FCPost	Adjust[b]	Interloc	Talk
TOEFL	–												
AA	−.11	–											
ETH	.14	.32*	–										
MI	.05	.65**	.27	–									
FCPre	−.05	.63**	.40**	.67**	–								
Anxiety	.09	−.14	.27	−.12	−.10	–							
Comp	.17	.55**	.46**	.51**	.62**	.00	–						
IS	−.11	.63**	.29*	.66**	.64**	−.18	.50**	–					
OS	.08	.44*	.44**	.57**	.58**	.26	.42**	.46**	–				
FCPost	−.41	.52**	.03	.47**	.45**	−.27	.26	.43**	.13	–			
Adjust	.11	−.43**	.20	−.44**	−.23	.49**	−.18	−.37*	−.06	−.39**	–		
Interloc	−.25	.41**	−.04	.21	.30*	−.20	.19	.18	.02	.47**	−.51**	–	
Talk	−.25	.49**	−.12	.43**	.58**	−.26	.35*	.35*	.29	.62**	−.37*	.58**	–

Note The four variables after the solid horizontal line indicate the post-program questionnaire variables. AA = Intercultural Approach-Avoidance Tendency; ETH = Ethnocentrism; MI = Motivational Intensity; FCPre = Frequency and Amount of Communication in English (Pre); Anxiety = Speaking Anxiety; Comp = Perceived Speaking Competence; IS = Ideal L2 Self; OS = Ought-to L2 Self; FCPost = Frequency and Amount of Communication in English (Post); Adjust = Adjustment; Interloc = Number of English-speaking Thai interlocutors per day; Talk = Amount of English spoken per day; Solid line indicates pre/post questionnaire variables; $N = 47^a$.

[a] $n = 42$ for TOEFL. [b] $n = 44$ for Adjust.

$*p < .01$

$**p < .05$

actively in English classes prior to leaving for the study abroad program (FCPre, M = 20.30, SD = 5.87).

Of the 47 study participants, 25 reported previous overseas experience ranging from a short three-day shopping trip to a high school study abroad of 11 months. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted for all variables to determine any differences among the students based on their overseas experiences. Significant differences were found for only one variable, approach-avoid tendency, with a strong effect size, $F(1, 43) = 4.76$, $p = .03$, $d = .64$. No other differences were found for other variables.

Students in the study were ambivalent about their own confidence, as shown by slightly above average anxiety ($M = 18.87$, $SD = 5.65$) as well as slightly above average perceptions of competence ($M = 18.53$, $SD = 5.03$). Students also had more images of their Ought-to L2 selves ($M = 22.17$, $SD = 5.57$) than ideal L2 selves ($M = 20.17$, $SD = 6.45$), though both were well-developed. Surprisingly, students were slightly ethnocentric ($M = 17.32$, $SD = 4.84$), despite a high approach-avoid tendency.

Open-response items indicated that, on average, students talked to roughly five Thai speakers of English per day (Interloc, 5.39) and used English for slightly more than one hour each day with Thai interlocutors (Talk, 66.02).

Rasch model analysis confirmed unidimensionality of construct for all variables, with variance accounted for, ranging from 67.6% to 82.0%. Based on variance accounted for, the strongest variable was perceived competence (82.0%), followed by motivational intensity (80.5%), ideal L2 self (76.1%) and approach-avoid tendency (75.7%). Item fit analysis revealed that several items misfit the model's expectations; however, only one item (FC5 in the FCPre variable, "I talked with friends or acquaintances outside school in English") affected the analysis to the degree that it had to be removed from further analysis. Rasch model item and personal reliability estimates ranged from .50 to .91. Compared to traditional Cronbach's alpha reliability estimates, which range from α=.73 toα=.93, the Rasch model estimates were more conservative, but overall showed a good level of questionnaire response reliability.

5.2 Correlational analysis

Following descriptive statistics and Rasch model analysis, the variables from both pre- and post-study abroad program were subject to a correctional analysis.

The most immediate surprise was the lack of importance of the TOEFL scores. Despite being a prerequisite of the university in Japan prior to the study abroad program, standardized test scores had no significant correlation with any of the communication variables. The strongest correlation was with frequency and amount of communication in English while in the study abroad program (*r* = −.41), which showed that test scores were negatively related to L2 contact. However, this correlation, like the others for TOEFL, was not statistically significant, making further quantitative interpretation questionable.

Anxiety likewise had little impact on the students prior to their study abroad; however, it did have a moderate-strength correlation with the perceived difficulty of social adjustment to life in Thailand (Adjust, *r* = .49). This may be partially attributable to interacting in Thailand with new acquaintances in an unfamiliar setting.

Other variables were strongly correlated. The intercultural communication variables (approach-avoidance tendency, AA; ethnocentrism, ETH) both correlated significantly with perceived competence (Comp) and the possible L2 selves variables (IS and OS). However, the strength of association for IS was much higher for AA (*r* = .63) than that of ETH (*r* = .29), while that of OS was about the same for both AA and ETH (*r* = .44). AA was strongly correlated to motivational intensity (MI, *r* = .65), while ETH was not. There were also moderate to strong positive correlation between AA and speaking-related variables (FCBefor, *r* = .63; FCAfter, *r* = .52; Interloc, *r* = .41; Talk, *r* = .49), as well as a moderate negative correlation to Adjust (*r* = −.43). While ETH had a significantly moderate correlation to FCBefor, it had no significant correlations to speaking variables in the post-program questionnaire.

The possible L2 selves variables of Ideal L2 Self and Ought-to L2 self correlated with each other (*r* = .46), as well as with all the pre-program variables except for Anxiety. However, Ought-to L2 Self had no significant correlation with post-program variables, while Ideal L2 Self had moderate correlation with FCAfter (*r* = .43), Adjust (*r* = −.37) and Talk (*r* = .35).

5.3 Interview results

Based on the Rasch item-person maps, which indicated the level of Ideal L2 Self and Ought-to L2 Self for each individual student in the study, four students were identified as being representative of four specific learner profiles (see section 4.2). Students were asked to describe their impressions of the study abroad program, especially pertaining to their English language usage and perceived social adjustments to life in Thailand during the three weeks. The four students (one female, three male) had varying English proficiencies as measured by TOEFL, reported having different overseas experiences prior to the study abroad program and had very different reactions to life overseas. To preserve the study participants' anonymity, the pseudonyms Taka, Naoya, Sho and Yuri are used (Table 3).

Table 3: Interviewees' English proficiency. Possible L2 selves and prior overseas experience.

Name	TOEFL ITP	Ideal L2 Self	Ought-to L2 Self	Prior overseas experience
Taka	453	Average	High	Australia, 6 months
Naoya	473	Low	Average	None
Sho	387	Low	High	None
Yuri	367	High	High	Australia, 11 months

5.3.1 Taka's interview results

The first student, Taka, was considered by his Japanese university instructor to be one of the best English speakers among the 47 study abroad program participants. Although Taka belonged to the highest language proficiency group in his home institute in Japan, he didn't consider himself to have the same level of competence as others in his class. Thus, his questionnaire responses placing him as "average" ideal L2 self seemed accurate. Taka commented, "I don't think I am good at English. I applied at [sic] famous universities but I didn't pass."

Taka was also somewhat anti-social during the study abroad program and avoided extracurricular L2 contact. While he was active during the weekday class sessions in Thailand, he did not make much effort to go out after class with Thai students. Instead, he always went out with his Japanese friends. "In the class, I could communicate in English because there were Thai students," he said during the interview. "There is a limited chance outside the class."

5.3.2 Naoya's interview results

The second student, Naoya, had the highest TOEFL average among the 47 study abroad participants. However, he had little sense of himself as an L2 speaker, stating, "I don't think I'm good at English now, but I [am] doing my best and I hope I will improve." Naoya could often be found studying and preparing for English classes outside the instructor's office, where he could ask for advice and help.

Like Taka, Naoya also avoided L2 contact outside of class time. He complained about the English class instruction in Thailand, saying, "We always had listening activities. Less chance to interact in English." He claimed that he did not spend time with Thai students because after class was over, he was too tired.

5.3.3 Sho's interview results

The third interviewee, Sho, had a markedly lower TOEFL score than Taka or Naoya. He also had a low Ideal L2 Self, but during the interview, Sho requested to change his answers to four of the IS items on the questionnaire to "6." The reason he gave was that he had failed to understand the nature of the questions initially. However, he also commented: "I was worried about my ability to speak English in Thailand, but I was surprised that I could." Additionally, Sho actively "courted" a Thai female student during the study abroad program and they became a couple by the end of the three weeks. Unlike Naoya and Taka, Sho was very interested in spending time socially with Thai students after classes ended.

5.3.4 Yuri's interview results

The final student interviewed, Yuri, had the lowest TOEFL score of the four interviewees, despite having spent nearly a year in Australia the previous academic year. Although not as studious as the other interviewees, Yuri was the most social and the only one who answered "6" to both Ideal L2 Self and Ought-to L2 Self items in the questionnaire. Yuri claimed to have spent time with Thai students "every night," speaking English to her best ability and making as many friends as possible.

5.3.5 Overall interviewee comments

Although reporting varying degrees of L2 contact with Thai students, the four interviewees all had negative impressions of the study abroad program. While the study abroad preparatory program in Japan had made extensive use of pair and group work, conversational activities and presentations by students in front of class, the 90-minute classes in Thailand about Thai culture and English language were primarily teacher-fronted.

The Japanese students complained that, in the classes in Thailand, they had virtually no opportunities to talk with Thai students. Although group activities were used for short five-minute group discussion in the culture-oriented classes taught by a Thai professor in English, students were often expected to listen to the instructor's lecture. Likewise, the English language classes taught by an L1 Australian speaker were teacher-fronted. Activities included listening to songs, watching YouTube videos and answering questions posed by the teacher. The English language classes utilized no pair or group activities and L2 contact with Thai students was limited.

Moreover, to reduce the number of students in the classroom, the instructors had divided the visiting students from Japan into two groups of roughly equal numbers. One group would attend the class together while the second group would wait back at the hotel. After the 90-minute class was over, the groups would swap. In this way, students had one 90-minute class of Thai culture each morning and one 90-minute class of English language each afternoon, with 90 free minutes in the morning and 90 more free minutes in the afternoon.

6 Discussion

The first discussion point concerns the first research question about the relationship among the psycholinguistic variables in the study. The most-salient variables in terms of high correlation with other variables were approach-avoid tendency, motivational intensity, perceived competence and the possible L2 selves variables, Ideal L2 self and Ought-to L2 self. While students in general were motivated to communicate in English, the students with previous overseas experiences had a greater tendency to approach fellow L2 speakers in Thailand, thus increasing L2 contact opportunities and their own perceived competence in speaking English. While ethnocentric tendencies did not negatively affect a sense of competence during preparatory study abroad English classes with L2 speakers from the same cultural background, the correlation between ethnocentrism and Ought-to L2 self, as well as the lack of correlation between ethnocentrism and communication overseas, supports the literature that excessive ethnocentrism prevents intercultural communication from occurring.

Based on these results, it seems that having a certain degree of intercultural communication competence prior to joining the study abroad program was a necessary prerequisite, but in itself not sufficient, for initiating L2 contact during the study abroad. The correlation between Ideal L2 self and communication overseas and corresponding lack of correlation with Ought-to L2 self, suggests that students who believe that speaking English is merely a social obligation do not experience as much L2 contact success as those who conceive of themselves as speakers of the language for intercultural communicative purposes. In other words, students with a better sense of themselves as competent speakers of English as a second language had a greater sense of an Ideal L2 self and were more likely to actively seek out opportunities to speak with other L2 speakers and experienced fewer psychological problems adjusting to living in another culture. This was exemplified in the interview with Yuri who, despite her low TOEFL score and being characterized as “not studious,” had high Ideal L2 self and made the most of her opportunity to engage in L2 contact.

The second discussion point concerns the next research question, regarding the influence of English proficiency on intercultural communication. This point is clear: based on the correlational and interview data results, English proficiency as measured by the TOEFL exam had little to do with communication tendencies. Despite being a requirement for students prior to joining the study abroad program – and, indeed, the Japanese university had hoped that the study abroad might help students increase their test scores – TOEFL scores had no significant correlation at all with the other variables in the study. If anything, based on the interviews, students with higher TOEFL scores may have a stronger perception of themselves as inadequate English speakers, thus paradoxically leading not to more but less L2 contact. The failure of standardized test scores to predict L2 communication indicates a need for alternative evaluation or assessment of English communicative abilities for Japanese university students.

The third and final point of discussion reiterates the discussion about the influence of possible L2 selves on intercultural communication competence. Both the ideal L2 self and the Ought-to L2 self variables were related to communication in the English classroom prior to the study abroad program. However, only ideal L2 self correlated significantly with communication in English with Thai speakers of English. This finding agrees with the theoretical possible L2 selves model that students of English who can imagine themselves as L2 speakers – in other words, as owners of the language – are more likely to communicate in English with more interlocutors than students studying English as a means to an end, such as for a test or for potential employment.

The study abroad experience thus can be viewed as more than just a means of increasing standardized language test scores, but as a way of improving and expanding individual communication skills through interaction with people from different cultures who may have different societal values.

7 Limitations and suggestions

The context of the study abroad program in which students in this study participated raises crucial limitations that students may not be able to avoid, as well as indicates areas of improvement in the future. The original time frame of the program was early August, when both the Japanese and Thai university classes were not in session. Due to professor unavailability, the program was shifted to late August/early September. This coincided with the exam period for Thai university students, making it difficult for them to join activities either inside or outside the classroom. In an effort to reduce the burden on Thai students, instructors from the host institution divided the classes into two groups. This had the effect of reducing L2 contact between Japanese and Thai students and also led to Japanese students spending more time by themselves with no Thai interlocutors to communicate with. The burden of communication was placed solely on the Japanese students; those who actively sought out L2 contact opportunities had more successful intercultural experiences than those who opted to stay within the bounds of the study abroad program. As Allen (2010) pointed out, study abroad programs need to be carefully organized to help students develop L2 communication strategies, gain confidence in approaching L2 interlocutors and have the opportunity to engage in L2 communication activities.

Based on this study's findings, we therefore suggest the following points for improving and enhancing the study abroad experience for all participants:

(1) Improved communication among instructors and administrators in the home and host institutions should be encouraged to reduce the expectancy-actuality discrepancy among participating students.
(2) Instructors in study abroad programs should be encouraged to use a wide variety of student-oriented activities within the class, in order to optimize L2 contact opportunities between visiting and host student participants.
(3) Both prior to and following the conclusion of a study abroad program, instructors and administrators should encourage visiting and host student participant reflection on their experiences to facilitate a greater understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of the program.

The interviewees confirmed what the questionnaire data suggested about intercultural communication tendencies and related psycholinguistic variables in the study abroad participant sample; namely, that standardized test scores had little to do with actual L2 communication and that perceptions of competence, images of the self as an L2 speaker (in other words, possible L2 selves) and intercultural approach-avoid tendencies were related to L2 contact and communication. However, the small sample size (N = 47) and lack of a control group prevents generalization to other study abroad participants in other study abroad contexts. In the future, the study should be expanded to include other cohorts of Japanese L2 learners of English who participate in short-term study abroad programs in other Asian L2 contexts as well as English ESL contexts.

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Cynthia Quinn

13 Corpora as an L2 writing reference tool: Classroom practice and student response

1 Introduction

Linguistic accuracy can be a constant struggle for developing L2 writers and to support learners throughout the writing process, the dictionary is a common reference (Ferris 1995; Kubota 2001; Quinn 2013). As an alternative or supplement to these dictionary searches, corpora have been recommended as a promising resource for language learners. Since the late 1980s, Johns' (1991) promotion of data-driven learning and Tribble and Jones' (1990) resource book for teachers have encouraged the application of corpus linguistics to the language classroom and over the years, corpus consultation has come to be recognized as a valuable learner activity (e.g., Breyer 2009; Chambers 2007; Conrad 2000; Gavioli & Aston 2001; Römer 2011). More Recently, corpus research has been advocated specifically for the L2 writing classroom as a reference that can support linguistic decision-making throughout the composing process (Flowerdew 2010; Kennedy & Miceli 2010; Lee & Swales 2006; Quinn 2015; Yoon C. 2011; Yoon H. 2008).

To date, however, we cannot say that language teachers have embraced corpus technology or corpus approaches in their classrooms (Boulton 2009; Chambers 2007; Chambers, Farr & O'Riordan 2011; Römer 2006, 2011). While corpus research offers teachers some useful benefits, there are also a number of obstacles. For example, gaining access to suitable corpora and becoming proficient with the technology can be problematic for instructors (Chambers et al. 2011), while many teacher training programs do not offer guidance with corpus research or data-driven learning (Breyer 2009). Additionally, creating corpus-based, data-driven learning class materials is time-consuming for teachers (Gilquin & Granger 2010; Hunston 2002; Lenko-Szymanska 2014), compared to other typical class activities. Such drawbacks must be reconciled in order for teachers to employ corpora as a teaching resource, let alone involve learners themselves in corpus research.

Nonetheless, as with any new technology, there is a learning curve and if the benefits outweigh the barriers, then it should be worth pursuing. As Yoon C.'s (2011) review of research on corpus use in the L2 writing classroom summarized, concordancing offers students rich, authentic input, raises genre-specific linguistic awareness, exposes learners to lexicogrammatical patterns that cannot

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be found in other traditional resources such as dictionaries or grammar references, and fosters inductive learning. Further, and specific to L2 writing, most corpora are based on written texts, which can reveal patterns that are characteristic of written discourse. Thus, corpora can function as useful reference resources.

Yoon summarizes the difficulties encountered by learners with corpus research as well, which include challenges with comprehending concordance lines and formulating queries, as well as the nature of corpus searches being time consuming and sometimes frustrating due to inadequate search results. In addition, Sun and Wang (2003) noted that skillful induction is not an automatic consequence of learner concordancing for many learners , and an unfamiliarity with inductive learning strategies can make corpus research difficult for students who are accustomed to deductive-style learning approaches. Likewise, Gavioli (2001) noted that compared to activities based on traditional learning materials, concordance analysis, which includes observing and generalizing from recurring patterns, might necessitate an alternative view of language use into which learners need to be initiated.

Aside from difficulties like the ones mentioned, from the student's perspective, corpus usage has been reported in the literature as an overall positive experience (Chambers 2007; Cheng, Warren & Xun-Feng 2003; O'Sullivan & Chambers 2006; Sun 2007; Yoon & Hirvela 2004). Probably the most extensive investigation into learners' attitudes towards corpus referencing has been Kennedy and Miceli's (2010) and Yoon and Hirvela's (2004) studies. Kennedy and Miceli evaluated a semester-long "apprenticeship" approach to corpus training through case studies of three Italian language students as they referenced a corpus and bilingual dictionary to improve previously composed autobiography assignments. Yoon and Hirvela surveyed and interviewed English as a Second Language (ESL) academic writing students regarding their use of the corpus, their views on the strengths and weaknesses of corpus consultation and their overall assessment of this tool in L2 writing instruction. Much of the other information gathered on learner perceptions of corpus consultation has been more limited in scope, in that investigating student response was not the primary aim of the research.

Many of the L2 writing studies that investigate learners' beliefs and experiences involve postgraduate students in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) or specialized courses (Cheng et al. 2003; Lee & Swales 2006; Sun 2007; Yoon H. 2008) and investigate corpus use with learners who have very specific study goals, are presumably highly motivated and/or may be proficient English language users. With the exception of a small number of studies (Gaskell & Cobb 2004; Kennedy & Miceli 2001, 2010; O'Sullivan & Chambers 2006; Yoon & Hirvela 2004), less research has been conducted on corpus referencing by intermediate (or below) language learners to support the L2 writing process. Student proficiency level can be an important factor in how learners respond to and make use of a corpus and as shown in Yoon and Hirvela's (2004) study, different levels can have different perspectives on the role that corpora play as a written resource. After eliciting perceptions on corpus usage from 8 intermediate- and 15 advanced-level English learners, Yoon and Hirvela (2004) concluded that student proficiency level "may be worth special consideration when deciding whether and how to incorporate a corpus component into the teaching of L2 writing" (Yoon and Hirvela: 278). Furthermore, most of these studies include a very small number of participants, which certainly allows for depth of inquiry, but is less informative regarding response patterns.

Considering these limitations, the present study reports on 52 intermediate-level Japanese university English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' use of and attitudes toward a corpus-supported L2 writing skills course. Based on a 36-item questionnaire, teacher-student writing consultation data and course follow-up questions, this chapter discusses students' self-reported beliefs and attitudes and evaluates these perceptions in light of the overall writing curriculum. Given the potential benefits that can be derived from corpus consultation, this study investigates (1) whether students' recognize these advantages and what other factors influenced their corpus use; (2) whether students view the corpus as a tool that can help them improve their written accuracy; and (3) whether the difficulties with corpus referencing were a barrier to them adopting this as a reference tool. In order for teachers to confidently and effectively integrate corpus referencing into their writing instruction, data on learner perceptions is an essential resource.

2 Data sources and participants

The learner perceptions reported in this study are based on three data sources collected in an undergraduate EFL writing skills course at a Japanese university: (1) a 36-item, 6-point Likert scale course questionnaire; (2) teacher-student writing consultation comments; and (3) course follow-up questions. The purpose of collecting the qualitative data was to elaborate on the questionnaire items and to better clarify the patterns that had emerged through the questionnaire's descriptive statistical analysis. Therefore, the questionnaire results are the main focus of this study, with the consultation comments and follow-up questions functioning as supporting data.

The questionnaire was loosely based on Yoon and Hirvela's (2004) survey, with adaptations made to suit the current learning context. Initially, this questionnaire was piloted in 2012, administered in short form in 2013 and then expanded to cover additional issues that arose during the course and re-administered in

2014 and 2015. Thus, this article is based on data gathered across two semesters, or two cycles, of the corpus-integrated writing curriculum.

The aim of the 15-minute writing consultations was to discuss the students' essay revisions, which inevitably involved some time spent discussing corpus referencing attempts. These consultations were audio recorded and transcribed and then searched digitally by key word for corpus-related comments. Once these corpus usage comments were identified in the transcribed consultation data, the author extracted comments that were relevant to the themes addressed in the course questionnaire, with the intention of clarifying and further expanding on the quantitative data gathered through the survey. Given that these consultations were essentially unstructured interviews and thus varied in content depending on the students' writing needs, corpus-related comments were not elicited systematically. As supporting material for the survey, the questionnaire-based themes guided the organization of this consultation data; in other words, the comments were categorized according to the questionnaire's previously designated themes.

In addition to this 1:1 consultation data, students were emailed three open-ended questions after the completion of the course. The questions asked (1) what students viewed as most valuable about referencing a corpus; (2) what they considered most difficult or challenging about using a corpus to correct their writing; and (3) which reference tool was the learners' primary choice when writing in English and why. Aside from further expanding on the questionnaire and consultation data, the author sought to understand what kind of final impression the course had made on the students' writing reference tendencies.

All in all, 52 third-year intermediate proficiency level Japanese students (primarily CEFR [Common European Framework of Reference for Languages] levels B1 and B2) responded to the questionnaire and each participated in two writing consultations during the semesters. The open-ended questions were emailed to students three weeks after the course was completed and 32% of students responded. For both the 1:1 consultations and the emailed questions, students had the choice of responding in either Japanese or English.

Aside from the data sources discussed in this chapter, a background survey was also administered at the outset of the course to gather information on students' computer literacy, the details of which are reported in Quinn (2015). In short, 98% of students reported frequent use of their bilingual dictionaries as they wrote, while at the other extreme, not one student had ever used, or even heard of, a corpus.

The *WordBanks Online* and *Sketch Engine* corpus systems were employed in this course, both of which include general corpora and were chosen for their relatively accessible, straightforward search capabilities. In the 2012 pilot study, the

Corpus of Contemporary American English was used because of its free availability, but the complicated interface and search terminology made it excessively difficult and frustrating for students. In contrast, WordBanks Online and Sketch Engine are more user-friendly and practical for the classroom. In addition, given that the learners were undergraduate students a general corpus was deemed most appropriate, as it would best reflect the general English they were exposed to in their other courses and would be suitable for students preparing to go abroad, either for study or for other international activities.

In the writing course, students were instructed on how to use three main corpus functions: (1) the basic concordancer query; (2) Word Sketch, a summary of a word's grammatical and collocational behavior; and (3) Sketch Difference, a summary of the grammatical and collocational patterns between two similar words. There are many other tools and functions available on both WordBanks Online and Sketch Engine, but considering that this writing course was designed for beginning corpus users, these three functions were deemed adequate for the goals of the course and for the limited instructional hours.

3 Course introduction

The course from which the data were collected was an elective EFL writing skills course that met once weekly for a 15-week semester (a total of 22.5 contact hours). Course goals were as follows: (1) to write thoughtful essays in response to short readings; (2) to become critical writers who can analyze and construct arguments; and (3) to learn how to reference a corpus in order to improve written accuracy. Three single source-based essays were assigned over the semester, each 3–5 pages long and to be written on controlled themes.

The corpus was employed as a reference tool that supported learners in correcting lexical-oriented, teacher-coded errors in the first draft of each of the three essays. Students consulted the corpus and kept a revision log where they tallied their corrections as they revised their papers in response to the coded teacher feedback. Once they completed their first revision, students brought their original essay with teacher comments, their revised essay and their revision log to the teacher-student consultations. Together, we reviewed their work, discussed the success of their revisions and time permitting, also addressed their reference approaches with the corpus.

The first six weeks of the course focused on introducing students to the corpus and training them how to use it as a revision (i.e. error correction) resource. The full training process is outlined in Quinn's (2014) overview of the introductory corpus tools training module and consists of six stages: (1) introduction to corpora; (2) rationale for corpus referencing; (3) paper-based concordancing practice; (4) online corpus research practice; (5) essay revision simulation; and the final stage, (6) independent learner concordancing.

4 Overview of results by questionnaire theme

Table 1 shows descriptive data for each major theme addressed by the questionnaire. Item groupings for each theme were determined during the writing of the questionnaire; the author developed these themes and the questionnaire items based on course goals and content, as well as student issues that arose during the previous two-year pilot study.

Table 1: Questionnaire results by theme.

Theme	*Item*	*M*	*SD*	*Mode*	*Frequency distribution (agree→disagree)*
1A	General feedback on corpus usage: Appealing	4.52	1.10	5	29-58-44-16-8-1
1B	General feedback on corpus usage: Worthwhile	4.75	0.95	5	49-79-63-13-4-0
2	Curriculum and corpus training	4.68	0.91	5	46-111-83-14-6-0
3	Linguistic support	4.82	1.07	5	47-58-31-18-0-2
4	Corpus usage and functions	3.62	1.36	3	19-44-39-62-33-11
5	Dictionaries vs. corpora	3.75	1.13	3	18-35-61-69-21-4
6	Difficulties with corpus referencing	3.92	1.05	4	20-62-135-66-25-4
7	Corpus queries	4.10	0.96	4	11-42-59-39-5-0
8	Autonomous corpus usage	4.15	1.57	5	29-53-33-12-11-18

Each of these themes is discussed separately in the following sections.. Aside from descriptive statistics provided for each survey item, Pearson correlation tests were run on each item in order to identify relationships between that item's responses and student proficiency level. To accomplish this, learners' reported test scores (TOEFL and IELTS) were categorized and ranked into a total of seven proficiency levels.

Although the sample size in this study (N=52) is larger than other similar corpus-related writing studies, the author felt that this number was still too small to warrant inferential statistical analyses and that there were too many context-dependent variables (particularly the corpus tools training module and writing curriculum decisions made specifically for this group of learners) that could not be easily replicated in other classroom settings. Given that these factors would prevent accurate generalization of the results beyond the original context, this study is viewed as a case study of one corpus-supported writing course and the effects it has on a specific group of EFL learners.

In addition to the descriptive analysis of the questionnaire, student comments (from the consultation data and open-ended questions) are integrated into the discussion below, allowing greater insight into the learners' experiences and preferences than what can be inferred from the questionnaire alone.

5 Breakdown of questionnaire results and discussion

Each of the eight themes that comprise the 36-item questionnaire is discussed below. In each section, the "agree" and "disagree" ends of the Likert scale are grouped together and expressed as an overall percentage in order to facilitate discussion. In addition to these percentages, the descriptive data for each questionnaire item is reported in the section's corresponding data summary tables and should be examined as well for a more accurate overview.

5.1 General feedback on corpus usage

Table 2A reports on how appealing corpus referencing was to students. According to these three items, the majority of students viewed their first-time experience using corpus data as positive overall. Almost all students agreed it was an "interesting" learning experience (94%) and well over half (79% for both Items 6 and 31) reported that they enjoyed using the corpus as a writing reference tool.

Table 2A: Overall feedback on corpus usage (appealing or not).

No.	*Item*	*M*	*SD*	*Mode*	*Frequency distribution (agree→disagree)*
1	Learning about a corpus in this course was interesting.	5.00	0.84	5	15-25-9-3-0-0
6	I enjoyed using the corpus to help me correct errors in my essays.	4.25	1.14	4	7-15-19-6-5-0
31	I enjoy analyzing corpus data as a way to improve my writing.	4.31	1.16	5	7-18-16-7-3-1

Table 2B shows results regarding how useful students found the corpus as an aid to the writing revision process and whether they felt it was a worthwhile exercise. Here, too, student feedback was very positive. Item 4, ("Correcting my own writing …") shows one of the highest means on the entire questionnaire (M = 5.29; SD = 0.85), with only one student disagreeing and reveals that although students may have had varying degrees of success searching and correcting errors (as discussed later), almost all recognized the value of the referencing process as an overall asset to their writing. Similarly, Items 2 and 32 show strong agreement (96%) that using a corpus is worth the effort and can help L2 writers improve. Finally, Item 30 indicates that the majority of students (77%) believed that referencing a corpus raised their confidence in using English.

Table 2B: Overall feedback on corpus usage (worthwhile or not).

No.	*Item*	*M*	*SD*	*Mode*	*Frequency distribution (agree→disagree)*
2	Learning to use a corpus has helped me improve my writing skill.	4.65	0.76	5	7-22-21-2-0-0
4	Correcting my own writing based on the teacher's correction codes was a good exercise for me to improve my writing.	5.29	0.85	6	25-19-7-0-1-0
30	Referencing a corpus has helped me improve my confidence using English	4.13	0.97	4	3-16-21-9-3-0
32	Using a corpus data-based approach to language learning is worth the effort.	4.92	0.84	5	14-22-14-2-0-0

Overall, from the learners' standpoint, it appears that using a corpus was perceived as productive and having a positive impact on students' efforts at writing in English. This is consistent with other learner perception studies (Charles 2014; Geluso & Yamaguchi 2014; Lenko-Szymanska 2014; Yoon & Hirvela 2004), which also show that the advantages of using a corpus are apparent to learners, suggesting that even though corpus research may entail more effort and experience than traditional reference resources, it is still recognized by language learners as a useful, viable language learning resource.

Based on Pearson correlation tests, pairing language proficiency with learners' responses to the above questionnaire items suggests that the higher the students' language ability, the more enthusiastic they were about employing the corpus as a writing tool. The correlation coefficients are shown in Table 2C for items that displayed a small to moderate effect.

Table 2C: Correlation between learner proficiency level and items 2, 4, 6, 30.

No.	Item	Pearson correlation coefficient (r value)
2	Learning to use a corpus has helped me improve my writing skill.	0.39
6	I enjoyed using the corpus to help me correct errors in my essays.	0.25
4	Correcting my own writing based on the teacher's correction codes was a good exercise for me to improve my writing.	0.31
30	Referencing a corpus has helped me improve my confidence about using English.	0.21

Items 2 and 6 both show a moderately positive correlational effect (0.39 and 0.25, respectively), suggesting that higher proficiency level students put more faith in the corpus as a writing resource and at the same time, they also enjoyed using it more. Items 4 and 30 show a relatively weaker relationship (0.31 and 0.21), though they still indicate a small positive correlation. These results suggest that higher proficiency level students found corpus referencing to be particularly beneficial as a writing aid, as opposed to learners at lower levels.

While the strengths of these relationships are not particularly strong, they do indicate that there is a linear relationship between learner proficiency level and the questionnaire items in Table 2C. Therefore, it seems that language proficiency can be a factor in learners' decisions to reference a corpus during the writing process, possibly affecting how receptive they are to corpus technology and/or how worthwhile they view corpus research to be in terms of writing in a foreign language.

Overall, it is likely that the positive attitude revealed through these responses plays an important role in encouraging students to persevere through many of the challenges and difficulties inherent to corpus searches, some of which are detailed below.

5.2 Curriculum and corpus training

Similar to the general feedback category, the responses in this area (see Table 3) were also quite positive. With this group of questions, students were asked whether they felt they were adequately prepared by the classroom training and whether they found the class tasks useful or not.

With a mode of 5 ("agree"), Items 29, 3 and 5 show an overall consensus regarding their progress with corpus referencing. In particular, the high mean

Table 3: Curriculum and corpus training.

No.	*Item*	*M*	*SD*	*Mode*	*Frequency distribution (agree→disagree)*
29	In this course, I learned a lot about using a corpus.	5.21	0.75	5	19-27-4-2-0-0
3	I could understand the teacher's correction codes on my essay so I knew how to research my errors on the corpus.	4.96	0.82	5	13-26-12-0-1-0
5	The class practice exercises (in class and for homework) helped me learn to use the corpus.	5.04	0.74	5	12-32-7-0-1-0
13	By the end of the course, I felt well prepared to use a corpus.	4.02	0.80	4	42-8-34-5-3-0
34	By the end of the course, I was able to use the corpus well.	4.17	0.73	4	0-18-26-7-1-0

(5.21) and relatively low standard deviation (0.75) of Item 29 suggests that students felt they had learned a good deal over the semester; 88% chose the top two response categories ("6" for strongly agree and "5" for agree). Similarly, almost all students agreed that they were clear on how to respond to the teacher-designated error codes and that the practice exercises were beneficial (98% for Items 3 and 5). Overall, this suggests that at least in terms of the training that was provided during the course, these materials were largely effective; training students well in how to reference a corpus can be an important factor in ensuring a positive experience (Kennedy & Miceli 2001; Turnbull & Burston 1998). Including the two-year pilot study, this was the fifth cycle using these corpus research training materials, which also likely contributed to the positive responses in this category.

The remaining two items in this category (Items 13 and 34) inquired the degree to which students felt that they were proficient corpus referencers. Essentially, these questions were re-phrasings of the same point and aside from some minor differences in response frequency distribution, the percentage of agreement was the same (85%). Thus, most students felt a good sense of progress throughout the course in learning how to make use of corpus data. The strength of agreement is slightly less than the other items in this category, which may suggest that despite sensing progress in their corpus referencing ability, students recognized that there was still much to be accomplished in becoming a skillful corpus user.

5.3 Linguistic support

The items in Table 4 inquired whether students found the corpus useful or not for their vocabulary learning and "natural" language use. Item 10 demonstrated the highest mean on the entire survey (M = 5.37; SD = 0.69), revealing that all students except one perceived the corpus as an important aid to expressing themselves appropriately in writing. Similar to learner data gathered by Sun (2007) and Chambers (2005), the student feedback in this study showed that learners appreciated having a database of authentic language to reference when writing in English.

Table 4: Linguistic support.

No.	*Item*	*M*	*SD*	*Mode*	*Frequency distribution (agree→disagree)*
8	Using a corpus is helpful for researching vocabulary.	4.50	1.11	4	11-15-17-8-0-1
9	Using a corpus is helpful for researching phrases and expressions.	4.80	1.14	5	12-19-11-9-0-1
10	Using a corpus helps me use English more naturally.	5.37	0.69	6	24-24-3-1-0-0

Specifically, students commented on how useful corpus referencing was as a supplement to their traditional dictionary searches, especially with respect to collocations:

> "The most difficult thing for me in English is word collocation. Mastering collocation needs a lot of time and experience. The corpus helps me learn collocations more efficiently."

> "I think corpus help me to know combination of words. I cannot know how native speaker use or write English if I don't use corpus. In other words, I can write natural English with corpus."

A particular benefit for many learners was being able to find new words in their dictionaries and then expand on their understanding of these words via the corpus.

> "Compared to dictionary, I could see how the word is used practically with many examples. It was absolutely the best point."

> "I can look at the corpus after dictionary when I don't know actual use of word in natural English. There are many information, so I can … refer [to it] when writing my essay.

Items 8 and 9 are essentially the same: inquiring to what degree the corpus helped students research vocabulary and multi-word expressions, which resulted in 83% and 81% agreement, respectively. In particular, students commented on how corpus referencing supported greater lexical variety in their writing, while they also felt it improved their chances of achieving greater accuracy in their writing.

> "Before I am always using the same word, such as expand, but now by searching the corpus I can use many words in my sentences, for example, improve, progress, advance, develop, etc. ... I know all those words, but I couldn't use all of them when I like. They don't come out of my head easily."

> "I often forget which preposition to use, but when I use corpus, I can understand which one is correct. There are so many prepositions in English. To know which one is best is really difficult."

In short, as reported in other similar studies as well, learners largely agreed that researching a corpus was a valuable tool to facilitate vocabulary development (Sun 2007; Yoon & Hirvela 2004).

A final point that emerged in this area was the common practice of using concordances as models for writing accurate sentences. In one student's words, "Many times I compared the sentences in the corpus to mine and chose the best usage for my essay", which shows that learners came to value the role of linguistic patterning in accurately understanding a lexical item. For students who learned English through a translation-based approach, moving beyond the analysis of discrete items to the analysis of contextualized language chunks suggests a more sophisticated understanding of lexicogrammatical relations in writing.

At the same time, many learners seemed willing and able to engage in inductive learning, which stands in contrast to their previous grammar-rule focused language education. Learning a foreign language inductively can be a major departure for students who were educated primarily through a deductive approach and learners may experience difficulties in adapting to this style of language study (Gavioli 2001; Lin 2016; Sun 2003; Sun & Wang 2003).

Overall, it was evident that most students understood the role that corpora could play in their linguistic development and that in addition to understanding the meaning of a particular lexical item, being able to research linguistic patterns was just as important for expressing their ideas naturally and appropriately in writing.

5.4 Corpus usage and functions

Table 5 reports how frequently various tools within the corpus system were employed (both WordBanks Online and Sketch Engine). The greatest resource appears to be Word Sketch (Item 15: M = 4.69; SD = 1.06; agreement = 85%), which is a summary of a word's grammatical and collocational behavior.

Table 5: Corpus usage: Frequency and functions.

No.	Item	M	SD	Mode	Frequency Distribution (agree→disagree)
15	I used Word Sketch the most of all the corpus search functions.	4.69	1.06	5	13-19-12-7-1-0
16	I used Sketch Diff the most of all the corpus search functions.	2.81	1.05	3	2-0-8-22-16-4
17	I used the Thesaurus function the most of all the corpus search functions.	3.10	1.22	3	1-7-9-19-11-5
18	I used the Concordance function the most of all the corpus search functions.	3.88	1.26	5	3-18-10-14-5-2

Through Word Sketch, students could view filtered concordances for a given word pair or collocation, which alleviated the burden of searching for such information through the basic concordancer query, as this produced a broader set of results. In consultations as well, students noted how useful they found this research tool and that it not only helped them contextualize their ideas naturally in their essays, but also introduced them to new word combinations (e.g. adjective-noun pairings, adverb-verb combinations, etc.). In fact, several students commented that when it came to the corpus, Word Sketch was the primary resource they consulted, even over the basic concordance query.

> "Especially I like using Word Sketch. It helped me write our essay because I can know the natural sentence or natural usage of the words."

> "Sometimes I cannot remember the phrase or word. I know this phrase but I just can't remember, but then I can look at Word Sketch and see many words at the same time, so it's useful for me to find the word I want to use."

> "I use Word Sketch first, but then I check it with the basic [concordance] search. Just to make a check."

> "When I have two ideas or no ideas I check Word Sketch. For example [to replace erroneous "reflect the photo"], at first I thought to use "appear the photo" or "show the photo", but I checked "photo" in Word Sketch and found the combination "photos" and "show" was okay."

Of all the corpus tools, it seems that students viewed Word Sketch as efficient and useful for constructing sentences in their essays.

As for concordance queries (Item 18), a little more than half (60%) of the students agreed that they often employed this search function (M = 3.88; SD = 1.26).

In class, this was the first search technique introduced to learners and by the end of the course, students became very familiar with the search screen options and accustomed to formulating queries with it. Also in class, much time was spent familiarizing learners with reading concordance lines and practicing how to locate and apply lexicogrammatical patterns to erroneous sentences. Thus, due to the corpus tools training module, learners received more instruction and accumulated more practice with this basic query function. Additionally, the other corpus tools were linked to relevant concordances (e.g. Word Sketch and Sketch Difference), so in addition to the class practice in this area, students regularly encountered concordance streams and became accustomed to examining them.

Aside from concordance queries and Word Sketch, students also were introduced to the corpus-based thesaurus (Item 17) and Sketch Difference (Item 16), a tool that displays differences in collocational and grammatical usage between two similar words. The advantage to using the thesaurus in the corpus (as opposed to a standard thesaurus) was that a word's synonyms were generated based on similar collocates, rather than similar meaning, thus resulting in a list of words that displayed common usage patterns. This means that in cases where the error was primarily a usage problem, this tool could be helpful; however, if a student's lexical error was meaning based, it was less useful. Consequently, students often could not find suitable alternatives with this resource, resulting in a lower frequency of usage than the previously discussed search tools (Item 17: M = 3.10; SD = 1.22; agreement = 33%).

Sketch Difference compares two similar words in order for users to better understand their distinct usage patterns. As evidenced by the students' responses (Item 16), the occasion to use this tool when revising their writing was not frequent, with only ten students (19%) reporting that they often used this resource (M = 2.81; SD = 1.05).

Aside from the questionnaire items that inquired after specific tools and search functions, data from the 1:1 consultations and course follow-up questions offered some insight into what role the corpus played in the students' writing processes. Although class instruction focused on corpus referencing and error correction, as the semester progressed, some learners began to rely on the corpus data to aid their composition as well. By the end of the term, a number of students had definite preferences for how and when they employed the corpus data as they wrote. Some learners referenced the corpus during both the drafting and revision stages:

> "When I write the essay for the first time, Word Sketch is more useful, but when I rewrite the mistake or change the mistakes, I try to use the [basic] concordance [query]."

Others expressed a clear preference for revision:

> "Mainly I use corpus to correct essay … It is difficult to find mistakes by myself, so when I know my mistakes [from teacher feedback], it's useful to rewrite the essay. But when I write my essay, it's difficult to use corpus. I don't use it for that."

This student saw the corpus as a useful correction tool, but pointed out the necessity of teacher feedback to guide her essay revision. This is probably true for many students: identifying our own errors in a foreign language is not easy, often impossible, given limited knowledge and vocabulary. Nonetheless, if we compare this student's stated tendency with the following comment, we can see a difference in overall resourcefulness and ability to compensate for this lack of language proficiency:

> Student: I decide the meaning of the sentence [I want to write], but before using the corpus, I don't decide the combination of the verb and noun. I use corpus to decide the combination.
>
> Teacher: So you mean that you decide what you want to say and before you write anything in English, you check the corpus?
>
> Student: Yes.
>
> Teacher: Which functions do you use? And what search terms do you enter?
>
> Student: I enter key words for my ideas in Word Sketch, like "creativity," and use the word combinations in the corpus to help me write correct sentences. So, I use the corpus to write my essay. I don't use it so much when rewriting.

This student primarily employed the corpus as a composing tool and in doing so, tackled linguistic uncertainties as she wrote, rather than awaiting teacher feedback to identify her errors. As mentioned above, Word Sketch proved to be a useful composing guide. Referring to a summary of collocations for a particular lexical item can provide learners with a variety of vocabulary options and display acceptable sentence models, helping learners work through their first drafts.

Alternatively, as an error correction tool, Word Sketch can potentially help learners limit their options and thus increase their likelihood of making a good correction.

> Student: I use Word Sketch mostly to correct my mistakes. I especially watch the number (= frequency) of word combinations. If the combination has a big number and I don't know the meaning of the word, then I use dictionary.
>
> Teacher: So you're saying that you make note of which collocations are high frequency and then look up in your dictionary any [collocating] words you don't know on the Word Sketch list?
>
> Student: Yes. If I don't know meaning of a word in Word Sketch, I use dictionary to check the meaning and I cut words that don't match my idea. Compared to concordance [query], there are so few choices this way. So I don't have to read so many sentences.

This student deliberately used Word Sketch to narrow her correction choices to a manageable amount, which also granted her more time than a basic search would to confirm the meaning of unfamiliar words. Essentially, she focused first on finding acceptable collocations and then on identifying words that accurately reflected her intended meaning. Compared to a general concordance search, the student would need to sift through a large number of concordances, which she obviously realized was not efficient. By targeting high frequency collocations in Word Sketch and limiting the choices further with her dictionary, the student discovered an approach that she felt was productive for her.

5.5 Dictionaries vs. corpora

A major aim of this course was to introduce students to corpus referencing as a tool that could supplement their familiar dictionary searches when writing in English. For this reason, the questionnaire included four items that targeted students' perceptions about corpus systems in comparison to dictionaries as a writing resource.

In Table 6, both Items 11 and 19 show that students are almost evenly divided in terms of whether they referenced their dictionaries or the corpus more often when correcting errors in their essays: 54% and 52% reported that they primarily used the corpus to correct their writing, respectively. Item 26 addressed learner preference: Which resource did the students favor when researching essay corrections? Contrary to the divided usage cited pertaining to the dictionary and corpus, the dictionary was only preferred by 25% of the students, leaving the remaining 75% disagreeing that the dictionary would be their main reference choice to support error correction. Similarly, student response for Item 33 also

Table 6: Dictionary versus corpus.

No.	*Item*	*M*	*SD*	*Mode*	*Frequency Distribution (agree→disagree)*
11	When I faced a language problem in my writing, I primarily referenced the corpus.	3.52	1.08	4	1-8-19-14-9-1
19	When correcting my essays, I primarily used a dictionary instead of the corpus.	3.50	1.16	3	3-6-16-18-7-2
26	When correcting my English essays, I prefer to use my dictionary rather than the corpus.	3.15	0.75	3	1-0-12-33-5-1
33	I can improve my written accuracy more by referencing a corpus than a dictionary.	4.83	0.90	5	13-21-14-4-0-0

showed support for the role of corpus referencing to aid lexical revision, with 92% of students agreeing that they believed written accuracy was better accomplished with a corpus than with dictionary support. This suggests a difference between the students' actual usage and their beliefs about which resource is the most beneficial for accurate writing.

More insight can be gained through the 1:1 consultations and follow-up questions. Students who used the corpus regularly in their error correction research felt that despite the extra time and effort involved to reference language problems, the benefits outweighed the challenges:

> "When I use the corpus, I have to think. When I use the dictionary, I check the word and then I'm finished. With the corpus, I notice differences [in language patterns] and I have to resolve them on my own. I can get a better understanding with the corpus."
>
> "I took many collocational mistakes especially … when I write by using dictionary and Weblio. I can only know words (i.e., meanings) through such tools, but I need collocations."
>
> "Although the system is difficult to use, the corpus has good points to correct my essay."
>
> "The corpus is the best way to understand how we can use natural English and correct my wrong sentences. Dictionary is useful, but not so many examples. It's not good."

These learners were undaunted by the challenges presented by corpus research and valued opportunities to gather richer information about their errors and personal language use. Additionally, many learners realized that the more they used the corpus, the better they got at solving language problems:

> "Gradually I used the corpus more and more."
>
> "For the last essay I felt more satisfied using the corpus. I like that."

These feelings of success likely motivated students to persevere through whatever challenges they faced with corpus referencing.

On the other hand, some students expressed a clear preference for starting their correction research with the dictionary, at least to get some idea of why their original choice was wrong, as well as to explore other options before looking at what the corpus had to offer. Ideally, starting with a dictionary or a corpus should depend on the nature of the error and what kind of information is needed, as this student recognized:

> "Maybe I use corpus to correct wrong preposition, but if I have wrong word choice or have to upgrade a word, then I want to use bilingual dictionary."

There were some students who felt most comfortable gleaning all that they could from their dictionaries before supplementing that information with a corpus search.

> "I like my [electronic] bilingual dictionary. It's easy to search in English and doesn't use (= require) the Internet."

> "I know a corpus is useful, but it's hard to get the information."

> "[I prefer] Monolingual dictionary. It's more natural than bilingual dictionaries and easier to use than corpus."

> "I usually use the online dictionary. It's very useful and I know how to use it, so it's easy for me."

> "I always start with the online dictionary … because I can usually find the right sentence or right or good phrase. I think the corpus is good too and I want to keep using it, but I think for most students it takes time to find a good answer, so they tend to use the dictionary."

Some students commented in consultations that they continued to primarily use their dictionaries and then after identifying some other lexical options, turned to the corpus to expand on this information.

> "To write the first essay, I used bilingual dictionary because I don't have much vocabulary. I looked up an English word that I don't know by using Japanese-English dictionary. Then when I find a word, I search the word on corpus to know how to use it correctly."

Other students reported that they preferred starting with familiar resources, which included not only bilingual dictionaries, but also Weblio or other Japanese language-based online resources. Weblio, for example, offers text translation, a bilingual dictionary and lists of sample English sentences. The students who used such sites said that they preferred the Japanese language interface, which of course made it easier for them to conduct searches.

> "If I could at least search in Japanese, I wouldn't become so tired."

> "The search vocabulary [on the corpus] is so difficult."

> "In Weblio I can look up words and phrases easily. And I can understand everything (because it is in Japanese)."

At the most extreme, three students stated that they only consulted the corpus when they couldn't find a good solution in their Japanese language resources, so for these learners, the corpus was a last resort. One reason for this is possibly related to language proficiency; many students, in addition to the three cases mentioned, commented that it was sometimes exhausting to manage the volume of English data in addition to formulating productive queries in English. With Japanese language-based resources, at least the search interface was in their native language and thus minimized the cognitive burden.

It seems that through the course, students came to understand in what ways corpus systems and dictionaries differ as reference resources, which includes understanding the limitations of dictionaries in demonstrating linguistic patterning in extended discourse. At the same time, understanding what a reference tool is capable of and using it effectively are two separate issues for learners and the responses to these items indicate this distinction.

5.6 Difficulties with corpus referencing

Table 7 shows the difficulties met by students in corpus referencing.

Table 7: Difficulties with corpus referencing.

No.	***Item***	***M***	***SD***	***Mode***	***Frequency distribution (agree→disagree)***
	Time and effort				
20	Using a corpus takes too much time and effort.	4.33	0.88	4	5-15-25-6-1-0
	Corpus data comprehension				
21	I couldn't understand the corpus data (concordances) very well.	3.25	1.08	3	1-4-17-18-9-3
22	There were too many unfamiliar words in the corpus data.	3.88	1.11	4	4-11-18-13-6-0
	Identifying language patterns				
23	Finding language patterns in the corpus data was difficult.	3.98	1.04	4	5-7-26-11-2-1
	Making conclusions				
24	Making conclusions based on the corpus data was difficult.	4.27	0.87	4	3-17-25-5-2-0
	Volume of data				
25	There is too much data to read through and analyze in the corpus.	3.79	0.96	4	2-8-24-13-5-0

5.6.1 Time and effort

A common complaint by students in corpus referencing literature is the time and effort involved to conduct effective corpus research (Chambers 2005; Yoon C. 2011). Consistent with this reported tendency, 87% of the students agreed with Item 20, that the corpus took "too much time and effort". Likewise, this was a common complaint in teacher-student consultations as well. There is no doubt that sifting through pages of data in which one must scan, identify and generalize patterns in order to solve a specific linguistic problem is a lengthy and involved process. What is important, though, is that a learner can recognize the advantages of what this data has to offer, so that their motivation can be maintained and help offset this clear drawback.

5.6.2 Corpus data comprehension

At the intermediate language proficiency level, it might be expected that there would be difficulties for learners to understand authentic language. According to Item 21, this appeared to be true for 42% of the respondents, while Item 22 shows a higher agreement (63%) that there were many unfamiliar words in the concordances. When asked directly about degree of comprehension, certainly some students felt impeded by unfamiliar vocabulary, but many responded that when faced with unknown words, they simply had to spend more time referencing dictionaries. At some point, though, spending a lot of time referencing unfamiliar words in the dictionary becomes tedious and too time-consuming.

Proficiency level appears to be a factor in this area, with a Pearson correlation test showing an r-value of -0.25 for Item 21 (*I couldn't understand the corpus data very well)*. This small negative correlation indicates that the higher the student's proficiency level, the less likely this statement was true, suggesting that students with greater linguistic knowledge and ability were less likely to experience difficulties with the language of the concordances.

Still, many students responded that because there was so much data available to review, if they could not understand a particular concordance, then they could afford to skip that one and move on to another line that was more comprehensible. Additionally, as one student mentioned, it wasn't always necessary to understand the meaning and/or situational context of a given concordance if she could grasp the linguistic form:

> "Yes, it is difficult to understand the content of sentences, but the form of words and how to use the words is very clear to understand by concordance sentence. That's enough sometimes."

Of course, it is likely that the higher the proficiency level, the easier it would be to comprehend the concordances, but lower proficiency level students can take advantage of the abundance of data a large corpus has to offer by focusing on the samples that they do understand, rather than laboring through line after line of concordances with constant dictionary referencing.

5.6.3 Identifying language patterns and making conclusions

For learners, the power of corpus data lies in its interpretation (Gavioli & Aston 2001), indicating that an L2 writing reference tool is only useful to the extent it can facilitate the writing process. Under controlled circumstances, Gaskell and Cobb (2004) found that intermediate proficiency students could apply concordance data to their own writing and ultimately improve their written accuracy. In non-experimental settings such as this course, however, students must be able to identify concordances on their own that contain relevant language patterns and then do further research to confirm that these patterns can be correctly applied to their own texts. For first-time users, this is possibly the most difficult aspect of corpus referencing and as demonstrated by their responses to Items 23 and 24, most students agreed that both identifying language patterns (73%) and forming conclusions (87%) were challenging. Based on the mean response for these questionnaire items, applying data-based conclusions to their writing appeared to be more difficult for students (Item 24: $M = 4.27$, $SD = 0.87$) than locating relevant patterns (Item 23: $M = 3.98$, $SD = 1.04$). In fact, the majority of responses (42 students, or 81%) selected the "agree" and "somewhat agree" categories, expressing how difficult they found this aspect of corpus research. Student comments highlight these difficulties:

> "The most difficult point was to apply the corpus data to my writing. Sometimes I could see the pattern, but I still wasn't sure how to use it in my essay. Until I got more used to using the corpus, this was the hardest part for me."

> "Deciding which concordance I should refer to is very difficult. There are too many similar examples."

> "It's difficult to find a good example to correct my English phrases. There are so many examples, so sometimes I was confused."

> "It was difficult to find a rule from so many examples. The corpus provides us many example usages rather than rules. So, I refer to a dictionary to check nuances and I used the corpus to check collocations. However, if I can find a rule by myself, I can remember it vividly."

Given that this is a critical juncture in the referencing and correction process, it is vital that students get enough training and practice throughout the course to support this stage. In addition, it is important to recognize that pattern identification and application can often be idiosyncratic, depending on the type of error, lexicogrammatical context and linguistic behavior of whatever lexical item is under consideration. Nonetheless, experience over time referencing the corpus can help learners gain more confidence in this area, potentially creating opportunities for more skillful usage. This effect of experience is validated in

Lin's (2016) study of Taiwanese first-year university students, where those who had greater exposure to DDL-oriented class activities were more likely to have improved learning attitudes overall. Similar to the current study of Japanese students, the Taiwanese learners had also been educated through a deductive, grammar rule-based approach to language learning, which further suggests the impact that continued practice and accumulated success can have on learners in order to minimize the challenges and maximize the potential benefits of corpus research.

5.6.4 Volume of data

For Item 25, most students agreed that the volume of data was excessive to cope with effectively (65%). This is a disadvantage of using a large, general corpus for first-time corpus users due to the fact that, as mentioned, finding relevant linguistic patterns in line after line of data is extremely time-consuming. General corpora can also produce broad sets of results, which makes sorting the search output more complicated for learners. Certainly, helping students to create narrower, better-defined searches can help remedy this problem, but a given query will likely produce a large set of data, at least with high frequency words,.

On the other hand, a large corpus provides a wealth of information, which is an advantage for experienced users who can manage the data efficiently. This fact might have been perceived as an advantage for the remaining third who disagreed with this statement (35%) and therefore did not see the large quantity of data as a problem. A few students commented that the variety of lexical information they could find via the corpus was its greatest benefit to them, as there was no other resource from which they could have so many examples and lexical options at their fingertips.

5.7 Corpus queries

Formulating queries based on essay error codes and entering appropriate search terms are difficult tasks for first-time corpus users (Chang 2014; Sun 2003). This was reflected in the division of student responses for Items 12 and 28 in Table 8, which both ask whether learners felt satisfied with their search outcomes. The majority (56% and 69%, respectively) reported that they were usually able to locate the information they were searching for, but a good number of students disagreed (43% and 34%, respectively) and did not consider their searches to be successful.

Table 8: Corpus searches.

No.	***Item***	***M***	***SD***	***Mode***	***Frequency distribution (agree→disagree)***
12	Whenever I searched the corpus, I usually found the answer I was looking for.	3.58	0.78	4	0-5-24-19-4-0
14	Deciding how to search the corpus to make a correction was difficult.	4.77	0.92	5	10-26-11-4-1-0
28	When I searched the corpus to correct my essays, I usually found the information I needed.	3.94	0.78	4	1-11-24-16-0-0

Learners expressed this difficulty in the following ways:

> "The most difficult point is that I have to choose which [search] function to use depending on what I need. Sometimes I was not sure my selection was right to know what I really want to know."

> "It's hard for me to understand how to use corpus functions and choose the most suitable ways of checking terms. If there are no teacher's instruction, I can't use it properly."

> "The names of checking ways (= search terminology) are a bit difficult to understand what they can do in one glance. I think we need detailed instruction before using it."

Researching a corpus requires similar skills to any online search: adequate computer literacy, familiarity with a range of search strategies and creativity to recover from fruitless attempts, among others. Corpus searches in particular are multi-layered in that a learner must examine a given word or expression from several perspectives before coming to a conclusion about that item's linguistic behavior. Thus, learners who have already acquired good online search skills will likely have an easier time adapting to corpus research, while those who have less computer experience may be disadvantaged. This point is addressed by Sun (2003) in his case study of Taiwanese learners, where he noted that learners who knew how to search effectively were better able to locate relevant, organized results. Aside from computer skills, perseverance and comfort with data-driven learning are also important factors that can influence a student's research success (Sun & Wang 2003; Gavioli 2001).

In this course, learners referenced the corpus to correct coded errors in their essay. An important juncture in the writing process, therefore, was moving from essay to corpus, at which point students had to reformulate these codes into productive searches. This appears to have been a difficult step, given that 90% of the students agreed that determining how to search the corpus for a particular error was challenging (Item 14). According to teacher-student consultations, the difficulty of this step depended on which error category warranted correction and how local or global a sentence revision was necessary. For example, verb/noun + preposition combinations were relatively easy, being local-level sentence errors (e.g., "*This seminar is organized for new inexperienced teachers*") and displayed more readily identifiable patterns within a stream of concordances.

On the other hand, word choice errors (e.g., *Jazz music doesn't really match my taste in music*) requires multiple, more time-consuming searches compared to researching prepositions, while word errors require the writer to reconceptualize how they are expressing their intended meaning in English. Such errors have a wide range of possible corrections and can ultimately involve rewriting the entire sentence. Thus, some errors can be resolved fairly quickly with the corpus, while others necessitate repeated, varied searches. For the latter, learners must be able to adapt their search approach to match the type of error in order to find an appropriate correction.

Another important aspect of formulating corpus queries is that it requires a good understanding of grammatical relations within a sentence. Studies that have investigated instructor experiences with data-driven learning have cited concerns over the amount of pre-existing grammatical knowledge learners possess and whether their understanding is adequate for such an approach. Lin (2016) highlights teacher concerns over learners not being able to recognize word relationships within sentences and in Chen's (2011) study, teachers expressed concern over whether low-level students would be able to accurately specify grammatical categories in their queries. Similarly, in the author's experience, a common question from students is, "Which word(s) from my (erroneous) sentence do I enter into the search box?" Consider the following sentence, in which the use of *perform* is incorrect:

> Some parents allow their children to perform as adults on the Internet

Students were unsure of which word should be connected to *perform* – *allow*, *children*, or *adults* – and where the clausal boundaries lied in the sentence. Therefore, practicing such corrections in class and demonstrating ways to clarify grammatical relationships is also a necessary component of conducting searches. As with any search process, it is important that teachers recognize the challenges students are facing and address them directly in class.

5.8 Autonomous corpus use

By introducing students to a new L2 writing reference tool, it was hoped that they would view the corpus as not only a useful resource, but as one that they could continue using in the future. For Item 7, which inquired after this point directly, 92% agreed that they would like to continue using the corpus beyond completion of the course. Similarly, for Item 36, 96% of respondents recommended employing corpora in other writing courses at the university and for Item 35, 17 students reported that they had used the corpus in other classes as well, concurrent with this course. This shows a very positive attitude towards corpus referencing overall.

Table 9: Autonomous corpus usage

No.	*Item*	*M*	*SD*	*Mode*	*Frequency distribution (agree→disagree)*
27	I can correct the mistakes my teacher points out, but I don't think I can find the errors on my own.	4.26	0.82	4	2-11-16-6-0-0
7	I want to use a corpus more in the future.	4.92	1.01	5	16-22-10-2-2-0
35	This semester, I used the corpus in other courses besides *English Writing and Expression*	2.77	1.69	1	3-9-5-9-8-18
36	I recommend that a corpus be used in future writing courses at Kobe University.	4.75	0.88	5	10-22-18-1-1-0

The remaining questionnaire item (Item 27) explored to what degree students felt that they could engage in corpus referencing autonomously, or in other words, how accurately they could write in English on their own with just the corpus and no teacher guidance. This statement was inspired by a student in the pilot for this study, who at the end of the course remarked, "With your [teacher] feedback, I can correct my mistakes, but I can't find these mistakes on my own." Like her, the majority of students agreed (83%), suggesting that they recognize the limitations of self-correction. However, probably most learners did not expect to be able to find all of their errors independently and as shown above in Item 4, many viewed the process of self-correction as a valuable learning experience. Based on this overall positive response, many students seemed to realize that referencing a corpus was at least one step closer to autonomy, compared to dependence on teachers and proficient L2 users for advice, as put succinctly by this student:

> "We don't have enough chance to meet native [speakers] and ask him or her for native check. However, we can find right answer by ourselves through corpus. This is important point."

To address the student's concern, there are other ways a corpus can support accuracy in L2 writing besides students responding to one coded error prompt after the other. At a minimum, encouraging students to act on linguistic uncertainties and do frequent confirmation checks of their writing can help learners be proactive and anticipate incorrect expressions, just as the students who reported referencing the corpus as a composing tool managed to do. Essentially, the more comfortable L2 writers become referencing a corpus, the greater advantage it can become as they gain experience conducting varied searches, locating instructive patterns and incorporating the results into their own language use.

6 Conclusions

As with any learner perception-based study, these results are limited to this specific context and can be subject to misrepresentation by the students themselves. As first-time corpus users, the tendencies described in this study may not necessarily continue beyond the scope of the course. Further, survey-based studies are limited to the items addressed in the questionnaire and inferring beyond the scope of the questions tends to be speculative. Nonetheless, this study aims to add further support to the current learner perception research on learner concordancing, especially for intermediate level English language learners.

Based on the findings of this study, students had an overall positive outlook on corpus referencing, which is consistent with other studies on learner attitudes (Chambers 2007; Cheng et al. 2003; O'Sullivan & Chambers 2006; Sun 2007; Yoon & Hirvela 2004). In particular, learners expressed strong agreement that a corpus was an important tool to the writing process, recognizing the benefits it provided for exploring language use and patterns that could guide them to construct more accurate, contextually appropriate sentences. Researching word combinations via Word Sketch offered a range of alternative expressions and demonstrated collocational behavior that learners could also model their writing on. Overall, students appreciated having a range of lexical choices to choose from and having opportunities to expand their vocabulary beyond what could be accomplished with their bilingual dictionaries. For many of these reasons, students were keen to continue corpus referencing in the future.

Even though the benefits of corpus consultation were evident to most students, about half continued to rely primarily on their dictionaries, reporting that they were familiar and easy to use. Questionnaire results showed that students were almost evenly divided on whether they preferred to begin their research with their dictionary or with the corpus. Despite this division in their stated approach to referencing, the majority of learners viewed the corpus as a better writing resource than the dictionary. In other words, although the majority believed that the corpus provided information that could help them write better, fewer actually used the corpus as their primary resource while they were writing. This gap between perceived benefits and actual usage suggests that while students do realize the potential that corpora have as an L2 writing resource, they are not able to use the corpus proficiently enough to make the most of this technology. This points to a need for more training and more practice, as well as a need for corpus-based technology that is accessible to students and designed with language learners in mind, rather than for professional language researchers.

Certainly, these difficulties could also be hindering learners from maximizing reference opportunities with the corpus. According to these findings, it seems that formulating queries was particularly challenging, especially for students trying to translate coded errors into productive searches. Success depended on the error type, such as how local or global the error was in the sentence and whether it was a meaning or usage-based mistake. Consequently, it would be helpful to place a greater emphasis on creating queries in response to error codes and more practice with various types of errors as learners move back and forth from essay to corpus researching possible corrections. Furthermore, the results suggest that particular attention needs to be paid to making data-based conclusions, as this was clearly a difficult aspect of referencing the corpus.

As in other corpus consultation studies that report on difficulties (Chambers 2005; Yoon C. 2011), students had issues with the time requirements and data comprehensibility. Large general corpora like WordBanks Online and those the students used within the Sketch Engine system are challenging for learners, as they must sort through many lines of search results. On the positive side, students felt that they could afford to skip concordances that they did not understand and focus only on the comprehensible samples. In this way, they could better avoid comprehension problems and reduce the necessity for frequent dictionary referencing. This approach is not possible with smaller, specialized corpora that do not produce a relatively large number of concordances with each search.

Possessing a basic level of computer literacy is also important for learners to navigate the corpus system proficiently and to conduct effective searches. For this reason, starting the course with some basic computer training would help ensure a minimum level of proficiency before moving on to the corpus tools training module itself. More linguistically advanced students do not necessarily have more advanced computer skills, as computer literacy and language proficiency are independent abilities. Therefore, it would be wise to put assumptions aside and give all students a general introduction to online search techniques.

Learner proficiency level has been cited as having a possible influence on learners' ability and/or willingness to engage in corpus research (Yoon & Hirvela 2004). Based on the correlations found in this questionnaire, albeit small to moderate, it appears that language proficiency could have an impact on learners' overall attitudes towards and general interest in referencing a corpus.

A small correlation was also found with one questionnaire item that inquired after students' ability to comprehend concordance data (Item 21). Beyond these few and moderate relationships, however, language proficiency does not appear to be an important factor in relation to more specific aspects of corpus research, such as students' choosing to reference a corpus versus a dictionary, or their perceived ability to identify language patterns, make data-based conclusions and formulate queries, among others. Thus, based on this individual study, these correlation results suggest that proficiency level may not be such a major factor in learners' referencing a corpus, after all. Instead, it is possible that effective training may be more influential in students feeling that they can manage the corpus research process. Researching the relationship between proficiency level and corpus use was not a primary aim of this study, however, so this aspect of learner concordancing needs to be investigated more thoroughly in future studies.

Finally, given that many learners responded that they did not believe they could independently identify their own errors for correction and employ the corpus as they did in this course, it would be helpful to instruct students on proactive strategies that can help them raise their written accuracy on their own. Corpus referencing has great potential to guide learners in their choice of language and to support them in making informed decisions, thereby encouraging their autonomy as developing L2 writers. The more proficient students become researching linguistic uncertainties, the greater chance they will have to apply corpus data to their writing. In fact, of all the various issues that can affect a learner's degree of success with corpus research, accumulated practice and experience are possibly the most important components.

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14 Effects of digital storytelling on Japanese EFL learners: Focus on anxiety and PBL skills

1 Introduction

Research has shown that, when language learning is conducted in meaningful contexts with activities connected to learners' lives, students attain competence for real-world communication (Brown 2007; Castaneda 2013; Hadley 2001; Ono, Ishihara & Yamashiro 2012; Shrum & Glisan 2010). Task-based, project-based and content-based language learning methods have sought to integrate learners into authentic environments (Ellis 2003; Warschauer & Healey 1998). Modern technology in the field of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) provides various supporting tools and scaffoldings for foreign language learners to realize these learning paradigms and has been enhancing the authenticity of communication (Zhao 2003).

In spite of the expected effectiveness of authentic communication, in Japan some less motivated English as a foreign language (EFL) learners hesitate to use English for authentic communication due to foreign language anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope 1986; Young 1986). Presentation is considered to be of paramount importance to students (Vitasari, Wahab, Othman & Wahang 2010). However, speaking in public can produce high levels of anxiety (Young 1999) and presentation anxiety is a difficult part of a student's experience and can unsettle or even frighten some students (Vitasari, Wahab, Othman & Awang 2010). Moreover, face-to-face presentation with the use of presentation software sometimes leads them to panic in front of the audience (Brenda & Tillson 2007; Ono, Ishihara, & Yamashiro 2012).

On the other hand, creating a digital movie about thoughts and ideas, so-called "digital storytelling", instead of speaking in public, has a favorable effect on knowledge construction and promotes motivation (Hung, Hwang & Huang 2012; Lowenthal 2009). Burmark (2004) reported that digital storytelling is an effective approach for helping students collect information, create new ideas and organize their knowledge, which can improve students' comprehension of the learning content. This method has been naturally applied to the field of foreign language

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teaching and is considered a valuable opportunity for authentic foreign language learning (Castaneda 2013). There is, however, an important issue in applying the method of digital storytelling to foreign language teaching: Is avoiding public speech and trying a digital storytelling activity really motivational for learners who suffer potential anxiety from speaking in a foreign language in public?

This chapter starts with a review of the merits of digital storytelling, as well as the nature of Project-Based Learning (PBL) skills in digital storytelling. It is shown that digital storytelling has an effect on foreign language anxiety and PBL skill. We will show that the project reduced foreign language anxiety of less-proficient learners and that it provided proficient learners with various kinds of opportunities to reflect on their progress in terms of PBL skills.

2 Background

2.1 Merits of digital storytelling

The activity of creating a movie is sometimes called “digital storytelling” (Castaneda 2013; Lambert 2006, 2007). Digital storytelling is sometimes associated with the idea of reflecting on one’s life with images and one’s own recorded narratives. The present study is not restricted to narrative story, but expands to exposition, argumentation and description. Storytelling and learning are inextricably tied, because the process of composing a story is also one of meaning making.

The activity referred to as digital storytelling in this project can be summarized as follows: (1) learners prepare slides for presentations using presentation software such as Microsoft PowerPoint, which is common software for oral presentations; (2) narration or speech is digitally recorded; And (3) slides and recorded sounds are edited using a movie-editing software.

Researchers have studied the merits of digital storytelling in terms of engagement and cognitive development of the learners. Davis (2004) stated that, compared with oral storytelling, digital storytelling allows substantially greater author freedom, as authors may control both the images and sounds on a screen. Digital storytelling can be used for constructing and externalizing personal narratives in the classroom and can thereby promote learners’ cognitive development. In terms of other differences between oral and digital storytelling presentations, Sadik (2008) suggested that digital storytelling audiences are viewed not only as listeners but also as learners who can interact with and shape stories (Dorner, Grimm & Abawi 2002, as cited in Sadik 2008). This is due to the dynamic and flexible nature of digital storytelling, which contains aural, visual and other sensory elements. This suggestion proved true for viewers of digital storytelling presentations in a Japanese EFL class (Ono et al. 2012).

In combination with collaborative classroom tasks such as peer-review and self-reflection, digital storytelling can also foster students' computer and problem-solving skills, both of which are generally considered important twenty-first-century skills (Miyaji 2011; Ono et al. 2012). Another merit of using digital storytelling in collaborative work is that teachers may store these presentations in a portfolio and use them, along with accompanying subsequent student reflections, in assessing students' progress toward learning goals (Ono et al. 2012).

Although the aforementioned work examines the effects of digital storytelling on engagement and cognitive development, few studies have investigated the effects of digital storytelling on foreign language anxiety and improvement of PBL skills. It is often argued that digital storytelling improves linguistic skills in foreign language classrooms (Bell 2008; Castaneda 2013; Dal 2010; Ono et al. 2012). In a Japanese EFL context, some studies have indicated the positive effects of digital storytelling in regular EFL courses (Agawa 2012; Kimura 2010; Obari 2009). Most studies have dealt with the effect of digital storytelling on learners' linguistic proficiency. Concerning less confident EFL learners, Ono (2011) and Ono et al. (2012) pointed out the general strategic tendency of less proficient learners. It is often observed that less confident learners in the classroom, who previously reported never wanting to speak up in the classroom, exerted considerable effort in improving their English in recording sessions. The situation becomes more serious for such learners when they have to work on academic English, since the vocabulary used in the presentation becomes more difficult and complex. In digital storytelling, however, even less motivated students can actively participate in the project, perhaps because they can have sufficient time for preparation and play active roles in other activities such as searching the Internet, designing a PowerPoint layout, or operating computer software.

The first focus of this study is to investigate the effect of digital storytelling on learners who are less motivated to learn a foreign language and how several tasks of making movies leads to the reduction of their anxiety to use a foreign language.

2.2 Foreign language anxiety

As noted in the previous section, anxiety has been shown to negatively influence foreign language learning, including academic achievement (E. Horwitz, M. Horwitz & Cope 1986; Young 1986). Reading, writing and listening in a second language may trigger anxiety, but speaking face-to-face or in front of an audience seem to be more anxiety-provoking, perhaps because of the requisite immediacy of a response (Yashima et al. 2009). Ono (2011), as well as Ono and Ishihara (2012) suggested that less proficient Japanese learners of English are likely to use "bottom-up" learning strategies (Ono and Ishihara 2012: 119), exhibit slow linguistic processing and hesitate until they get word-by-word translations. Ono (2011) further suggested that less proficient learners' strategies are a result of having to pass entrance examinations to enter university, despite the fact that pedagogical methods have become "communicative" rather than "grammar translation" (Ono 2011: 99) focused. Yashima et al. (2009) further pointed out the strong interrelationship between language learning motivation and anxiety; greater anxiety in the classroom is associated with a lack of motivation, as well as lower levels of identified regulation and intrinsic motivation (Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand 2000). Thus, in cases of Japanese learners who are less confident, not accustomed to speaking and who feel anxiety when speaking, it is necessary to remove their foreign language anxiety to increase their motivation.

As is often observed in academic oral presentations requiring the operation of presentation software like PowerPoint, some unaccustomed presenters speak or even read a difficult English script by holding a piece of paper and operating PowerPoint simultaneously, which can lead them to panic. In digital storytelling, students avoid feeling anxiety or becoming panicked, as they often feel when they make face-to-face presentation in public. Moreover, they will feel secure even in the process of preparation. They are provided with opportunities to revise their work in each process until they feel that it is perfect. Stories can be revised, edited and revisited several times, with established steps that move the author from concept to completion (Ono et al. 2012). These observations encourage us to assume that digital storytelling projects should have an effect of reducing foreign language anxiety, especially for less confident learners in speaking.

2.3 Skills related to project-based learning

To succeed in completing a digital storytelling project, students must go through several tasks with a variety of skills. Pedagogically, the digital storytelling process is thought of as an example of a "multiliteracies" (Castaneda 2013: 47) approach. Multiliteracies encompass two independent skills: communication and information literacies, in this case. Since digital storytelling involves the simultaneous use of foreign language and technology, students must not only learn to cope with an increasingly globalized society by connecting with other people through language, but also gain competence in communicating their own thoughts with new communication technologies.

The digital storytelling project in our study consisted of several aggregated tasks. According to Nunan (2004: 133), "projects can be thought of as 'maxi-tasks' that is a collection of sequenced and integrated tasks that all add up to a final project". Digital stories consist of meaningful tasks in which students use a foreign language to convey a story to an audience. The production of a meaningful outcome, a video product in the case of our project, which consists of several tasks, is considered task-based learning.

Another aspect in which it is important to carry out a digital storytelling project is the availability of a CALL environment. A recent CALL system has been designed to implement collaborative learning, as well as enhance traditional drill practice (Bax 2003; Takeuchi 2008; Warschauer & Healey 1998). Computer-mediated communication (CMC) technologies have made it possible to establish learning communities across classroom barriers and construct knowledge collaboratively in extended learning communities (Bueno 2011). Moreover, research (AbuSeileek 2007; Fitz 2006; Greenfield 2003) indicates that CALL learning reduces students' anxiety, fear, discomfort, or lack of confidence. Thus, one-to-one CALL learning environments are highly conducive to the creation of more authentic communication and enable learners to have more meaningful interaction. Olsen (1980) and Ushida (2005) also suggested that technology-mediated tasks increase student's motivation. With these in mind, Castaneda (2013) suggested that digital storytelling projects are distinctive and motivational technology-mediated tasks.

To clarify the skills to complete a set of tasks required by a project, Miyaji (2011) investigated the effect of digital storytelling on Japanese learners. In an experimental study of junior and high schools in Japan, he groups skills which were fostered in the completion of computer-assisted digital storytelling projects into the following three categories: (i) computer use and searching (Computer Skills); (ii) collecting, sorting and analyzing information (Information Literacy); and (iii) problem-solving and critical thinking skills (Academic Thinking). Since these components naturally fall into those to be achieved by our digital-storytelling project, this chapter refers to these as PBL skills.

2.4 Comparison between two classes with different proficiencies

It is likely that the effects of digital storytelling should be different, depending on factors specific to different learners. In general, less proficient learners, who have difficulty or anxiety speaking in front of people, will avoid face-to-face speaking and spend sufficient amounts of time practicing their speaking before recording themselves (Ono 2011; Ono et al. 2012). We thus expect that a reduction of anxiety in speaking will be the main effect of digital storytelling on such learners. On the other hand, learners who have confidence speaking in public, perhaps due to experience studying or staying abroad, may be more willing to speak in English in public and experience lower levels of foreign language anxiety. What effects will digital storytelling have on such high proficiency learners? The expected effects of digital storytelling might be those on PBL skills like computer skills, information literacy and academic thinking, rather than reducing foreign language anxiety. In terms of PBL skills, few studies deal with the relationship between proficiency level and specific improved PBL skills. The dynamic comparative study presented in this chapter is thus worth pursuing.

2.5 Learning environment and lesson plan

This project assumes a learning environment in which classroom activities are connected to homework activities using the Learning Management System (LMS), *Moodle*, established by the campus' Educational Support Center. An online bulletin-board module installed in Moodle was utilized in addition to face-to-face peer communication in the classroom. This made it possible to promote asynchronous and synchronous interactions among peers. Participants had access to the LMS outside the classroom so that they could engage in classroom activities at home. The classroom was a CALL room, containing 48 Windows desktop personal computers connected to the Internet. CALL learning support functions such as Pair-work, Group Discussions, Online Forums and File Submissions were available in the classroom. These functions were used in peer evaluation and collaborative work sessions to understand issues, clarify points and form opinions. Popular software such as Microsoft PowerPoint, Windows Movie Maker and Windows 7 Sound Recorder were installed on each desktop computer. The one-to-one CALL environment made it possible to provide both collaborative and individual digital storytelling project tasks in the classroom and home learning environments. A schematic diagram of the classroom environment is shown in Figure 1.

The basic theme of the course was *Awareness of Cross-Cultural Understanding in English*. Since there was a flood disaster in Thailand and the capital was greatly damaged in October 2011, we chose Thailand as the first topic for project work for Class A, the lower-proficiency class. For the higher-proficiency Class B, we chose four Asian countries – India, the Philippines, Singapore and Korea –

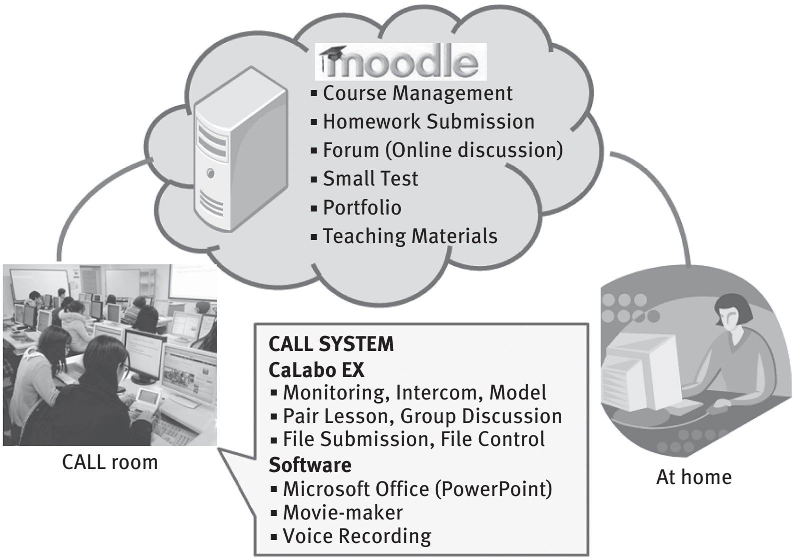


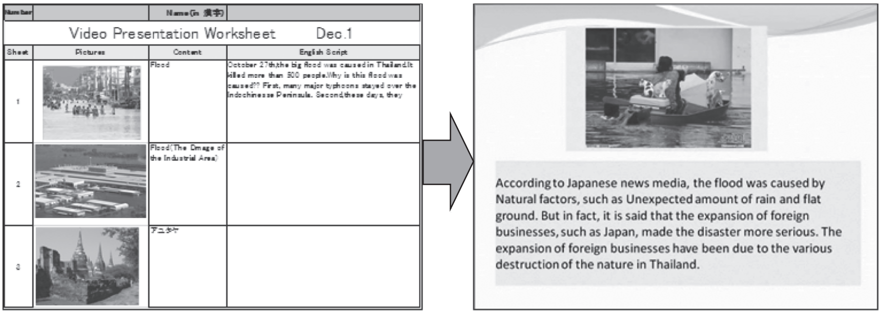
Figure 1: Learning environment: outline.

and asked them to conduct research on their cultural, political and economic aspects and their relationship with Japan. Both classes followed the same procedure as outlined in Table 1. Students worked on one topic or project in five weeks, including organization, editing and peer evaluation. For the first three weeks, students discussed their own ideas or their products previously made at home in groups or pairs. After the discussion, they made revisions after receiving peer feedback. Students went through group or pair discussion every week in the classroom face-to-face and outside the classroom through Learning Management System, *Moodle*. In weeks 4 and 5, we had an evaluation session for their presentations. All of the participants made an evaluation of all of the movies for two weeks.

Students wrote reports using Microsoft Word or Excel at the end of each class, which were collected online and stored in a portfolio. All the template files of organization sheets (Figure 2), PowerPoint slides and peer evaluation sheets were given to students through the File Control function of the CALL system. At home, students could download files from, or submit their report to, *Moodle*. Students were encouraged to use Microsoft Word, Excel, PowerPoint and Paint software, installed on their personal computers in the CALL rooms, to improve their computer application-use skills. A PDF manual providing instructions on how to make a movie in each stage was previously provided so that they could consult it when they were unsure. Because each task could not be completed in

Table 1: Lesson plan.

Week	Lesson	Content	Activity	Technologies
1	– Introduction of the project	– Understanding background – Watching news on the Web	– Discussion on the topic – Deciding a title	– Internet browser – Online discussion – File download
2	– Searching and organization	– Completion of organization worksheet – PowerPoint creation	– Discussion on organization – Individual work	– File control / submission – Office (Excel, PowerPoint) – Online discussion
3	– Recording and movie editing	– Sound recording – Movie editing	– Creation of the movie – Peer evaluation of the movie	– File submission – Text-to-speech – Sound recorder – Movie maker – Online discussion
4 & 5	– Evaluation	– Evaluation	– Completion of evaluation sheet	– File control / submission – Office (Excel) – CALL (Income)



Week 2 (Organization) Week 3 (First movie)

Figure 2: Student progress (weeks 2–3).

a short 75-minute class, much of the students' work had to be done outside the classroom. For students who could not work with a personal computer at home or who were not sure how to use a personal computer at home, one CALL room was kept open after school on weekdays at the Foreign Language Centre and many students worked on their tasks there. An example of how an organization was developed from weeks 2 to 3 is displayed in Figure 3. This figure shows an example of how collaborative work enabled them to clarify their points for improvement and transfer it onto the PowerPoint file. Because the role of the instructor was that of an observer or a facilitator, the instructor did not actively provide each student with individual detailed points for improvement and only made comments on how their work had improved as feedback.

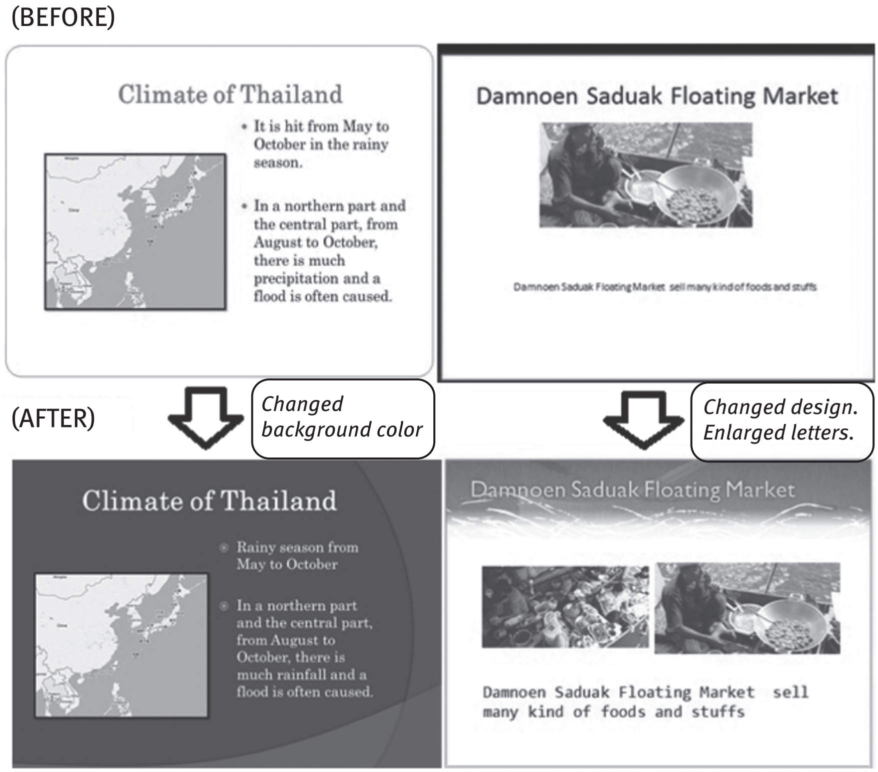


Figure 3: Other revisions after collaborative sessions.

3 Study

3.1 Research questions

In this study we attempt to validate the effect of the digital storytelling PBL course model on Japanese EFL university learners. Specifically, we would like to posit the following three research questions:

(1) Does the integrative CALL course model of digital storytelling reduce learners' foreign language anxiety?
(2) Does the integrative CALL course model of digital storytelling improve PBL skills such as Computer Skills, Information Literacy and Academic Thinking?
(3) What is the difference in the main effect of digital storytelling depending on learner proficiency levels?

3.2 Procedure

A pre-test and post-test-designed mixed method study was used for analysis. The data was collected though Likert scale questionnaire data and open-ended questions.

The study was conducted in a regular compulsory course for first-year students: Integrated English. The class was held once a week, for 75 minutes. The course lasted a year and the project was inserted into the course for a five-week period. We conducted the project for two independent classes: Class A and Class B. The project was conducted in 2011 for Class A, which consisted of 35 lower-proficiency students majoring in engineering and in 2012 for Class B, which consisted of 27 high-proficiency students majoring in social and international studies. There were 11 students in Class B who had studied abroad for more than one year. All first-year students took a placement examination at the beginning of the school year and had been separated into several classes according to their scores. The examination consisted of listening and reading questions, similar to TOEFL. The average scores of Classes A and B were 41.0 and 71.0, one of the lowest and highest in the year, respectively.

3.3 Instrumental tools

In order to answer the research questions noted above, a questionnaire survey was conducted. For foreign language anxiety, we employed a Japanese version of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS; Horwitz et al. 1986; Yashima et al. 2009). As the second instrument, we employed the questionnaire research used in Miyaji (2011). This questionnaire on PBL skills includes subcategories as follows: (i) computer use and searching (Computer Skills); (ii) collecting, sorting and analyzing information (Information Literacy); and (iii) problem solving and critical thinking skills (Academic Thinking). The list of question items is listed in the Appendix. In both instruments, all the question items were written in Japanese, which were translated into English by the author. Question items 1 to 29 were about

PBL skills and 30 to 64 concerned foreign language anxiety. Descriptive statistics of these question items are as follows: $M = 3.244$, $SD = .301$, Cronbach $\alpha = .870$. The survey was conducted before and after the five-week project and we conducted a paired *t*-test to determine whether there were any significant differences before and after the treatment. As for the result of the post-test, we conducted factor analysis to observe the difference between two groups in factoral structures. At the end of the study, all participants were asked to reflect freely in writing on the project in Japanese. The average number of letters produced in this open-ended feedback was 368.5 ($SD = 119.3$) for Class A ($N = 31$) and 285.7 ($SD = 101.6$) for Class B ($N = 27$). The points on which they made reflections were analyzed.

3.4 Results

Table 2 shows the results of paired *t*-test. Only question items, which showed a significant difference between pre-test and post-test in either group were retained. An almost symmetric relation between PBL skills and foreign language anxiety was found between the two groups. Students of Class B (Higher) seem to feel that their PBL skills, rather than foreign language skills, greatly improved after the project. In contrast, those of Class A (Lower) seem to feel that the course had an effect on reducing foreign language anxiety, instead of the impression that the course improved PBL skill.

Tables 3 and 4 show the results of factor analysis of the significant items for Classes A and B, respectively. All the significant items were subjected to principal axis factor analysis with Promax rotation. Considering the clustered items in each factor, we assigned labels to each factor for both classes. For Class A (Lower), three factors were produced through factor analysis: Factor 1 “Reduced Anxiety in the Classroom”, Factor 2 “Acquiring Information and Computer Skills” and Factor 3 “Enhanced Interest”. In contrast, two factors were abstracted for Class B (Higher). For Factor 1, the clustered items concerned the items that constituted learning of computer use and sorting and organizing information. Therefore, we named Factor 1 “Information Literacy and Computer Skills” and Factor 2 “Attitude toward Academic Thinking”, as the items concern students’ awareness towards more in-depth thinking and communication for an academic purpose.

Lastly, we analyzed open-ended feedback data from both classes. Students wrote comments freely about their experience and reflected on the digital storytelling project in Japanese. After collecting the data, two researchers analyzed the topics that arose in students’ feedback. The two researchers resolved any discrepancies in coding and analysis through discussion. The topics that arose in students’ feedback were *Computer Use, Searching, Organization/Content,*

Table 2: Significant question items after paired t-test (pre – post).

		Class B (Higher)					Class A (Lower)				
		M	*SD*	*t* value	Significance (Two-tailed)		*M*	*SD*	*t* value	Significance (Two-tailed)	
3	I have technical computer skills.	−.333	.717	−2.789	.008		.361	.990	2.188	.035	+
4	I can operate computers.	−.361	.723	−2.996	.005	**	.194	.856	1.363	.182	
5	I am capable of clarifying problems.	−.139	.990	−.842	.406		.417	.967	2.584	.014	+
7	I am capable of deepening my understanding of knowledge.	−.333	.756	−2.646	.012	+	.139	1.291	.646	.523	
9	I am capable of collecting information.	−.361	.683	−3.174	.003	**	.167	1.108	.902	.373	
10	I am capable of sorting information and necessary data.	−.556	.877	−3.803	.001	***	.389	1.128	2.068	.046	+
11	I am capable of analyzing information.	−.500	.697	−4.305	.000	***	.250	1.025	1.464	.152	
12	I am capable of expressing myself in sentences.	−.361	.639	−3.389	.002	**	.167	.971	1.030	.310	
13	I am capable of expressing myself through non-verbal media.	−.528	.971	−3.263	.002	**	.028	.878	.190	.851	
14	I am capable of providing simple explanations.	−.556	.809	−4.122	.000	***	.000	.926	.000	1.000	
15	I am capable of giving presentations.	−.417	.770	−3.247	.003	**	.139	1.073	.777	.443	
16	I am capable of understanding others' explanations.	−.333	.756	−2.646	.012	+	.139	1.268	.657	.515	
20	I am capable of improving and correcting.	−.361	.639	−3.389	.002	**	.333	1.146	1.745	.090	
21	I am capable of performing detailed investigations.	−.389	.728	−3.205	.003	**	.194	0.980	1.190	.242	
27	I am capable of organizing information.	−.250	.692	−2.168	.037	+	.361	1.099	1.971	.057	
28	I am capable of thinking independently.	−.389	.766	−3.045	.004	**	.333	1.146	1.745	.090	

32	I am never quite sure of myself when speaking in English.	.083	.732	.683	.499		−2.250	1.610	−8.384	.000	***
36	I wouldn't mind taking more English classes.	.139	1.246	.669	.508		−0.722	1.560	−2.777	.009	**
38	I keep thinking that other students are better at English than I am.	−.167	1.082	−.924	.362		−1.250	1.857	−4.038	.000	***
39	I keep myself calm in English examinations.	.028	.910	.183	.856		1.278	1.386	5.532	.000	***
41	I worry about the consequences of failing my English class.	.083	1.025	.488	.629		−1.833	2.324	−4.734	.000	***
42	I don't understand why some people get so upset over English classes.	−.361	.867	−2.499	.017	+	−2.250	1.918	−7.039	.000	***
44	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers to questions in my English class.	.083	.937	.533	.597		−1.194	1.754	−4.087	.000	***
45	I would not be nervous speaking English with native speakers.	−.083	.906	−.552	.585		−1.333	1.690	−4.733	.000	***
46	I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting about my English.	.000	.862	.000	1.000		−.556	.998	−3.339	.002	**
48	I often feel like skipping English class.	−.167	.910	−1.099	.279		1.333	1.897	4.216	.000	***
49	I feel confident when I speak in English class.	−.083	.554	−.902	.373		−2.444	1.463	−10.027	.000	***
51	I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in English class.	.056	1.194	.279	.782		−.500	1.363	−2.201	.034	+
52	The more I study for an English test, the more confused I get.	−.111	.820	−.813	.422		1.167	1.765	3.967	.000	***
53	I don't feel pressured to be well prepared for English class.	.028	1.341	.124	.902		.667	1.957	2.044	.049	+
59	When I'm on my way to English class, I feel very relaxed and sure of myself.	−.139	.798	−1.044	.304		−.778	1.267	−3.682	.001	***
60	I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.	−.028	.878	−.190	.851		−.472	1.341	−2.112	.042	+
64	I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions I haven't prepared for in advance.	.222	.929	1.435	.160		−.500	1.108	−2.707	.010	+

Note ***: p < .001, **: p < .01, *: p < .01, +: p < .05

Table 3: Result of factor analysis for Class A (Lower).

	Factors		
	1	**2**	**3**
It embarrasses me to volunteer to provide answers in my English class.	**−.891**	−.089	.487
I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in English class.	**.727**	.062	.101
I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions I haven't prepared for in advance.	**.721**	−.217	.411
I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting about my English.	**.620**	−.101	.067
I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.	**.491**	.191	.125
I am capable of clarifying problems.	−.051	**.805**	−.018
I am capable of sorting information and necessary data.	−.008	**.786**	.054
I have technical computer skills.	.069	**.537**	.274
I often feel like skipping English class.	.124	.010	**.596**
I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am.	−.024	.045	**.580**
I wouldn't mind taking more English classes.	.023	.273	**.511**

Note accumulative variance = 65.7%

Table 4: Result of factor analysis for Class B (Higher).

	Factors	
	1	**2**
I can operate computers.	**.811**	−.188
I am capable of giving presentations.	**.770**	.052
I am capable of providing simple explanations.	**.725**	.092
I am capable of sorting information and necessary data.	**.655**	.162
I am capable of deepening my understanding of knowledge.	**.637**	.208
I am capable of collecting information.	**.599**	.289
I am capable of analyzing information.	**.529**	.273
I am capable of expressing myself through non-verbal media.	**.477**	.103
I am capable of expressing my opinions in sentences.	.123	**.798**
I am capable of understanding others' explanations.	−.128	**.779**
I am capable of thinking independently.	.097	**.735**
I am capable of performing detailed investigations.	.202	**.470**

Note accumulative variance = 63.8%

Pronunciation/Delivery, Visual Aids/Layouts, Anxiety/Nervousness, Satisfaction/Achievement, Collaboration and Motivation. The results of this analysis are given in Table 5 below. The numbers in the table refers to the number of participants who touched on the point in their open-ended reflections.

Table 5: Number of participants who touched on the point in their reflections.

	Computer Use	**Searching**	**Organization/ Content**	**Pronunciation, Delivery**	**Visual Aids/ Layouts**	**Anxiety/ Nervousness**
Class A (Lower)	4	1	*6*	14	14	*8*
Class B (Higher)	5	5	*13*	11	17	*0*
	Satisfaction/ Achievement	**Collaboration**	**Motivation**	**Total**	***M***	***SD***
Class A (Lower)	*14*	5	3	**69**	**1.971**	**.762**
Class B (Higher)	*2*	3	3	**59**	**2.185**	**.681**

Note Class A (*n*=35), Class B (*n*=27)

As the average scores (1.971 and 2.185) and SDs (0.762 and 0.681) suggest, participants in both groups generally touched on one to three points in their reflections. Participants from both groups generally made comments about the importance of *English Pronunciation* and how the language should have been spoken in videos, in addition to the importance of *Visual Aids*. There are some differences in frequency between the two groups, however. Participants in Class B (Higher) more frequently gave feedback about content and organization, while those in Class A (Lower) made more references to anxiety and achievement. These results are in accordance with those obtained in Tables 2–4 above.

The following extracts illustrate typical examples of open-ended feedback from Classes A and B, respectively, translated into English by the author.

The first student of Table 6 showed his/her anxiety in speaking English, but he/she tried to practice repeatedly to complete the video. Making good use of animation and layouts seemed encouraging for lower levels of confidence in speaking and thus motivating. The second student stressed the impact brought by digital storytelling. The third student seems to be satisfied that he/she avoided operating the software during the presentation. The second student expressed overtly and the other two students implied, that the video presentation was an exciting experience, although they had difficulty in the process.

Table 6: Comments from Class A (Lower).

– "The use of pictures and sound was really helpful for me because I found it easier to communicate with my classmates. I am not good at speaking, but I took the trouble to improve the presentation, animation sounds and layout. This presentation method was really outstanding because we could devote ourselves to aspects of story-making dependent on our personal interests."
– "I found the movie presentation very interesting because I sometimes had difficulty deciding which words to choose. I can make myself understood by using movies. And I think the movie presentation was more powerful than traditional presentation because of the use of movies and sounds."
– "Participating in this class was a nice experience. I considered again and again about the speed of the narration and the use of pictures because the choice would have a different influence on the audience. It was also nice that I didn't have to touch the computer during the presentation, because I am not good at doing a speech and using the computer at the same time during presentations."

Table 7: Comments from Class B (Higher).

– "I thought that the two most important factors to make the movie easiest to understand are the level of pronunciation and the visuals. A clear voice will reach the audience much better. The visuals will help the audience understand the content at a glance and will lead to deeper communication. I realized the importance of the process of organization – what to tell and what to show."
– "I spent a lot of time on the design of the movie. However, I thought I didn't spend much time on considering the content of my presentation. I didn't practice pronouncing English words sufficiently either. I found some grammatical errors in the script just after completing the movie. I need to establish the foundation of how to convince the audience through the movies."
– "I was really surprised that my friends in the classroom imagined and created much more things just from keywords on the Philippines and India. Observing my friends' movies is really fun, I never got bored and it was the first of such an experience I have had in a class presentation."

Additionally, the first two students in Table 7 generally agreed on the point that the important factors for the success of a video presentation were good pronunciation and content or organization. The third student made reference to the importance of collaboration, maybe because this was helpful in understanding and deepening his/her own content or organization. These comments can validate our prediction that video presentation is useful not just for avoiding anxiety in front of people for less-proficient students, but also enhances deeper reflection on students' productions in the course.

4 Discussion

With respect to research question (1), our study showed that students in Class A (Lower) were aware that their foreign language anxiety was reduced through digital storytelling. This result validates the observation of Ono et al. (2012) that although students had never been willing to speak English before the project, they got involved actively in the digital storytelling project. As Table 6 suggests, students were allowed sufficient time for practice and reflection on their own product, which led to an increase in their motivation to learn. Factor 3 in Table 3 is also interesting, because it shows that students did not want to skip class and were willing to take part in the project. These results indicate that the task of digital storytelling is motivating and engaging. Student 3's comment (Table 6) also confirms this finding. Our results are a validation of Castaneda's (2013) hypothesis that digital storytelling projects are distinctive and motivational technology-mediated tasks. In contrast, there was little evidence that foreign language anxiety was reduced in high-proficiency learners in Class B (Table 2). This is an expected result, however, as high-proficiency learners are generally unafraid of speaking in public, even in face-to-face situations. Digital storytelling is thus effective in helping less proficient learners avoid foreign language anxiety.

With regard to research question (2), which concerns PBL skills, Table 2 shows significance or trends toward significance for Class B (Higher). These results clearly indicate that high-level learners had deeper reflections on their own work in terms of Computer Skills, Information Literacy and Academic Thinking. These results point towards the active engagement and cognitive development indicated in Davis (2004) and Sadik (2008), in which learners tried to interact and shape the dynamic and flexible digital stories, in order to become authors of the products themselves. In contrast, almost no PBL skill items were significant for Class A (Lower). This might be because such learners spend a large amount of cognitive load on linguistic processing or practice and thus little time on deeper thinking. However, a few question items showed trends toward significance; these were the question items concerning Computer Skills. These results seem to follow from those about active participation in the projects through computer-mediated PBL (Bottino & Robotti 2007; Hung, G. Hwang & I., Huang 2012). More simply, the introduction of technology and computer-mediated linguistic tasks into a presentation course motivated less-proficient learners to achieve the task (Olsen 1980; Ushida 2005).

In sum, computer-mediated PBL approaches to digital storytelling have the effect of reducing anxiety, improving motivation and bestowing the practical skill of computer use on less-proficient learners. In contrast, proficient learners made gains in Computer Skills, Information Literacy and Academic Thinking. These results have interesting pedagogical implications, because there are at least two effects of digital storytelling, depending on learner proficiency. Digital storytelling might get rid of speaking anxiety and engage less proficient learners to work on the video. Motivation to learn and the relief of anxiety are strongly interrelated for less-confident learners (Yashima et al. 2009). On the other hand, in the case of high-level students, instructors can use digital storytelling projects to promote deeper thinking and reflection through collaborative and self-reflection sessions (as in Miyaji 2011). High-level students can use the videos to work on story elaboration and organization, better pronunciation and comfortable layouts.

The degree of students' engagement in the project exceeded the researcher's expectations. All students in both groups successfully completed a digital story in the target language and presented the finished product to an audience. Compared to traditional face-to-face presentations, to which students are accustomed, they could not use facial expressions or ad-libbing to express emotions in response to audience reactions during the presentations. Students thus seemed to concentrate on accurate pronunciation, comfortable delivery and beautiful visual aids in the videos. This had the effect of enhancing their motivation to think carefully and practice repeatedly.

One might ask whether the reduction of foreign language anxiety might come from working independently on a computer rather than digital storytelling. As shown in the data in Table 3, the factors of PBL skills and anxiety became separated and the relationship between independent computer use and digital storytelling is not clear for low-proficiency learners. Technology-mediated tasks are believed to increase student's motivation (Olsen 1980; Ushida 2005). In addition to the use of technology, however, it seems reasonable to believe that the task of reflection and collaborative activities involved with digital storytelling promote learners' cognitive development, having an effect on anxiety. This issue of the relationship between PBL skills and anxiety is left for further research in the near future.

At the beginning of the course, we were afraid that the students believed that the task would be troublesome with computers and that they would spend too much time on technology, rather than on the content of the script. This, however, turned out not to be much of an issue for either students or instructors, because it became apparent in this research that the students became more confident in both computer use and language use. It is possible that they were convinced that the multiliteracy task would lead them to the acquisition of language skills, deeper thinking and computer literacy, required as twenty-first-century skills, as suggested by Castaneda (2013).

5 Conclusion

This chapter demonstrated that digital storytelling has some effects on learners with a wide range of proficiency. This provides a possibility to incorporate digital storytelling into Japanese EFL curricula for regular presentation courses. As stated at the beginning of this chapter, this study is a preliminary research on PBL in one-to-one settings and several issues must still be considered in further research.

The first limitation of the current research is that the results from the experiments were obtained from only one institution and the number of participants was too small to generalize the results to a wider range of educational settings. Secondly, since the current study was limited to examining learners' awareness of their foreign language anxiety and PBL skills, future research examining their overall progress in writing and speaking proficiency could provide more insight and a broader perspective of the relationship between the project and its expected effects. Lastly, this research does not suggest anything about the longitudinal effect of the PBL project. Future research may focus on better understanding the difference between short- and long-term effects on motivation and proficiency.

In sum, while this study has its limitations, it can serve as a basis for further study in integrating digital storytelling into the language classroom. Future research with focus on raising learners' motivation and enhancing PBL skills for the global age is worth pursuing.

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Appendix – List of Question Items

1. I have an interest in computers.
2. I have understanding of computers.
3. I have technical computer skills.
4. I can operate computers.
5. I am capable of clarifying problems.

6. I am capable of mapping out a plan.
7. I am capable of deepening my understanding of knowledge.
8. I have a skill of studying independently.
9. I am capable of collecting information.
10. I am capable of sorting information and necessary data.
11. I am capable of analyzing information.
12. I am capable of expressing myself in sentences.
13. I am capable of expressing myself through non-verbal media.
14. I am capable of providing simple explanations.
15. I am capable of giving presentations.
16. I am capable of understanding others' explanations.
17. I am capable of communicating with others.
18. I am capable of judging self-evaluations accurately.
19. I am capable of accurately judging others' opinions.
20. I am capable of improving and correcting.
21. I am capable of performing detailed investigations.
22. I am capable of completing research.
23. I am capable of cooperating with each other.
24. I have a sense of fulfillment.
25. I have a sense of accomplishment.
26. I am capable of solving my own problems.
27. I am capable of organizing information.
28. I am capable of thinking independently.
29. I am capable of creating something.
30. I like talking to people.
31. I like speaking English in front of people.
32. I am never quite sure of myself when speaking in English.
33. I don't care for making mistakes in English class.
34. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called in English class.
35. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.
36. I wouldn't mind taking more English classes.
37. During English class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.
38. I keep thinking that other students are better at English than I am.
39. I keep myself calm in English examinations.
40. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.
41. I worry about the consequences of failing my English class.
42. I don't understand why some people get so upset over English classes.
43. In English class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.
44. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers to questions in my English class.

45. I would not be nervous speaking English with native speakers.
46. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting about my English.
47. I feel nervous even when I prepared well for English class.
48. I often feel like skipping English class.
49. I feel confident when I speak in English class.
50. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.
51. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in English class.
52. The more I study for an English test, the more confused I get.
53. I don't feel pressured to be well prepared for English class.
54. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.
55. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.
56. English class moves so wieldy I worry about getting left behind.
57. I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than in my other classes.
58. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.
59. When I'm on my way to English class, I feel very relaxed and sure of myself.
60. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.
61. I feel overwhelmed because I have learned a lot of grammatical rules to speak English well.
62. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.
63. I would probably feel comfortable around native sneakers of English.
64. I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions I haven't prepared for in advance.

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Etsuko Toyoda and Richard Harrison

15 Evaluation of two communities of inquiry

1 Introduction

The last thirty years has seen a rapid growth in projects for promoting second language learning using network technologies (e.g. Warschauer & Meskill 2000). Such projects have many advantages, including allowing the non-native learner to access native speakers and the target language via computer mediated communication (CMC) using text, images, audio and video. One particular collaborative project that has proven useful is to match students in one country with trainee teachers of the target language in the target country. As early as 1998, Saita, Harrison and Inman (1998) reported on the benefits of matching non-native students in Australia and native student-teachers in Japan, using e-mail as the means of communicating in Japanese. The benefits included allowing the Australian students access to native speakers and providing the Japanese teacher-students first-hand practice in giving feedback. This kind of collaborative project attends to the motivation of both sides, in that both sets of students are carrying out meaningful tasks. For example, the Australian students' motivation increases through authentic interaction with native speakers of Japanese who are of similar age range and background (as opposed to traditional classroom interaction with teachers and peer non-native speakers). The Japanese students, who are aiming to become teachers of Japanese, have increased exposure to non-native Japanese output, which increases their awareness of what skills and competence they need to give feedback to issues raised in this output, including both linguistic (errors) and cultural content.

In this study, we evaluated both sides of a two-way collaborative project carried out between two groups of students, one at University of Melbourne, Australia, and the other at Kobe University, Japan, using the Community of Inquiry Framework (CoI). On the Melbourne side, the group consisted of 35 non-native speakers in an advanced Japanese language course. Their aim was to improve their Japanese language ability and develop higher-order thinking skills by looking at current issues in Japan, using Japanese language information sources and interacting with peers from different cultural backgrounds. The Kobe group

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consisted of six native or near native-speaker postgraduate students enrolled in a second language acquisition (SLA) course. They were studying how overseas students learn Japanese as a foreign language.

CoI is a model designed to define, describe and measure online learning communities (e.g. Swan & Ice 2010), which evolved from social constructivist perspectives (e.g. Dewey 1967; Vygotsky 1978). Based on social constructivist perspectives, knowledge is seen as something that is created and shared in social settings, including both physical classrooms and online learning spaces (Gunawardena & Anderson 1997). We chose this framework because it can be used to develop and evaluate learning in online/blended learning environments (Akyol & Garrison 2008; Daspit & D'souza 2012) using video sharing.

This model, however, only focuses on single learning environments, whereas collaborative online/blended learning environments naturally entail the use of two or more environments. The main research question for this study was: Is the CoI model able to assess collaborative learning in a case where there are students working towards different goals, but at the same time collaborating in an online environment that links the two goals?

Two-way online exchanges are based on the notion that students on both sides of the project cooperate with each other to achieve a mutual goal (e.g. finding out about causes and solutions of global warming) and CoI is put forward as a model suited to analyzing such collaborative learning. However, in our exchange, the two groups of students had different goals to achieve. In this chapter, we examine whether the use of CoI is appropriate for evaluating an online collaborative project with two related but different goals.

2 Community of Inquiry framework

In this section, we describe the Col framework. As shown in Figure 1, CoI consists of three overlapping core elements: teaching presence, cognitive presence and social presence, which mutually support and improve a learning environment as a whole (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer 2000). All three presences are essential for creating a successful learning environment (Swan & Ice 2010).

These three presences are defined and described as follows (Garrison & Vaughan 2008; Swan, Garrison & Richardson 2009):

- Teaching presence. This refers to the design, facilitation and direction of cognitive and social processes for the purpose of realizing personally meaningful and educationally worthwhile learning outcomes. Teachers should be capable of designing and organizing a course, including designing curriculum, materials, methods and timetable; organizing online and

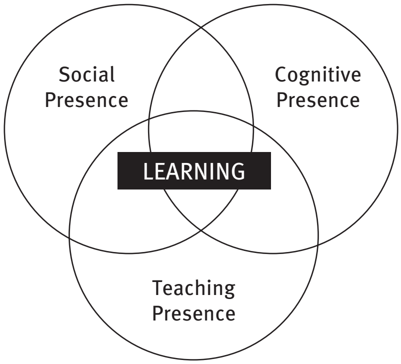

Figure 1: Community of Inquiry framework.

offline activities; and providing assessments and feedback. Teachers should facilitate online and offline discourses and stimulate student engagement and interaction. They should also provide scholarly leadership and offer subject-matter expertise.

- Social presence. This refers to the degree to which learners feel connected to one another. CoI emphasizes the importance of interactions with other people. Group cohesion, collaboration, openness of communication and affective/personal connections are crucial aspects of social presence.
- Cognitive presence. This refers to the extent to which learners are able to construct and confirm meaning through sustained reflection and discourse. The meaning construction usually progresses in four stages: triggering event (identify some issue), exploration (explore issue), integration (construct meaning) and resolution (apply the new knowledge). Cognitive presence is a foundation of CoI that keeps students' focus on academic interests.

The genesis and evolution of CoI framework is described in detail in a special issues of the *Internet and Higher Education* edited by Swan & Ice (2010). Since its birth in 2000, CoI has been revised and refined while being used widely to develop and evaluate learning in various learning environments (Akyol & Garrison 2008; Daspit & D'souza 2012) by researchers and educators. For example, CoI has been used to design an online collaborative learning environment (Redmond & Lock 2006); to develop higher-order thinking skills in an online and blended learning environment (Akyol & Garrison 2011); to evaluate students' learning experience in online discussions in a blended course (Akyol & Garrison 2008); to evaluate an online course (Lambert & Fisher 2013); and to compare students' higher-order thinking skills in face-to-face discussions and online discussions (Meyer 2003). However, these studies were all conducted within one learning environment.

Gorsky, Caspi and Blau (2012) compared non-mandatory forum entries of students in two unrelated learning environments, a campus-based college and a distance education setting (Open University). They found that the frequency of entries concerning teaching presence, social presence and cognitive presence in the forums differed significantly between the two learning environments. In the current study, two related learning environments (collaborative partners) with two separate learning goals were compared using CoI. It was expected that evaluating one collaborative space shared by two learning environments using one CoI framework might encounter some difficulties, as learning environments with different learning goals would naturally produce different teaching, social and cognitive presences.

3 Blending a learning video project with two communities of inquiries

On the Melbourne side, 55 students studying an advanced Japanese course (the organization of the course is described below) were recruited by integrating a collaborative online component into their course. On the Kobe side, six post-graduate students were recruited for the project while studying applied linguistics as part of their training to become teachers of Japanese as a foreign language. The goals of each set of students are described in detail below.

3.1 Melbourne side

Morgan advocates that language teachers should "actively encourage students to acquire target language skills and knowledge necessary to communicate ideas and opinions about social issues, to think critically and develop as world citizens" (Morgan 2012:367). On the Melbourne side, the aims of the video interaction were 1) to enhance the students' language knowledge and communication skills for exchanging opinions and thoughts on current issues arising in Japan, with students resident in Japan and 2) to develop global knowledge and intercultural skills to interact with people from different cultural backgrounds.

For the duration of two 12-week semesters, with four face-to-face contact hours per week, the Melbourne students learned about current issues in Japanese language and society arising from globalization and effects from or on other countries, using information sources written in Japanese. Concurrently, they were given opportunities to learn new vocabulary and expressions that were useful for intercultural communications on the given topics. After being exposed to a range of issues via lectures and online readings, the students exchanged opinions, in Japanese, with the teacher and classmates from different cultural backgrounds in seminars of 15–20 students and then conducted further individual research pertaining to the topics.

The video-sharing project for the Melbourne side was part of this blended learning, focusing on intercultural learning using the Japanese language. The Melbourne students were divided into 15 groups of three or four members, from different cultural backgrounds. The group members used both class time and online interaction (e.g. Facebook and Google Drive) to discuss plans and timeframes for creating the videos, including sharing and integrating the information obtained from individual research (e.g. books, articles, online articles, blogs, surveys and personal communication).

In these groups, the students scripted, filmed, edited and posted the videos on YouTube, six times in two semesters, offering their opinions and raising questions on the topics they had covered. In return, they received feedback from the Kobe students on the content and the language used in the videos and responses to the questions. The Melbourne students then replied to the Kobe students' comments and questions. Throughout the video creation period, students kept individual self-reflective journals discussing their activities and experiences.

3.2 Kobe side

The objective of the Kobe course was for students to look at SLA theory and how it could be applied to online learning. Over two 15-week semesters, the course focused on SLA processes for learners of Japanese as a second or foreign language. The classes alternated between online and traditional classes. The online classes were computer lab sessions, in which students used YouTube to watch the Melbourne students' videos and interact with the Melbourne students through the comments section, using Japanese as the language medium. The remainder of the classes were held in a traditional seminar room, with the students presenting seminar papers on the texts they had been reading on SLA and online learning.

The Kobe students engaged in the video-sharing project as a means of gaining practical and theoretical experience interacting with non-native learners of Japanese and exploring issues such as teacher feedback in SLA. The students were asked to watch the Melbourne students' videos and comment on them by 1) replying to the questions posed by the Melbourne students, 2) correcting any major Japanese language errors, as one of the main aims of the course was to think about feedback and 3) offering their personal opinions about the topic.

In the computer classes, the students and teacher discussed the content of the videos in terms of the (Melbourne) learners' linguistic ability, the errors they made (e.g. whether "global" or "local" errors) and the types of feedback that were possible. The classes also focused heavily on the issue of how this learning environment could promote interaction, in relation to sociocultural models of learning, such as CoI.

4 Data

We used different forms of data collection, according to the logistics of the project on both sides. On the Melbourne side, because of the large number of students in the advanced seminar, it was not feasible to interview students to gain a representative view of the group (CoI). Instead, it was decided that journals would be used as a way of obtaining data from the group as a whole. On the Kobe side, the small seminar of six students could be interviewed individually and as a group after each class, as there was more time for them to present and reflect on their experiences in class as part of the syllabus.

As the goal of this study was to look at the question of evaluating how two CoI groups interact, we did not include a detailed analysis of data on what questions were asked by the Melbourne students, nor of how the Kobe students replied. Rather, we are interested in focusing on the interactions reported by the students from their own journal reflections and interviews. A detailed analysis of the question-answer interaction awaits further study.

4.1 Melbourne side

The teacher observed and noted the computer classroom work while the Melbourne students, in groups, discussed the content, design, and time frame of video creation and replied to comments and questions from the Kobe students. Students kept self-reflective journals after each video creation to record any issues that arose during the project and to reflect on their learning throughout the period. Students were asked to give feedback on the content and methodology of the course at the end of each semester.

4.2 Kobe side

The teacher observed the student’s work in the classroom, while the students worked alone commenting on the Melbourne students’ videos. They noted questions that were raised about the commenting process and linguistic and/or content issues. In addition, the teacher also noted the dialogues between the students and the types of issues they were discussing and how they solved them. The teacher held fifteen-minute “debriefing” discussions with the students about the sessions at the end of class to gain reflective data In seminars, the students presented discussion papers on how the online part of the project related to SLA theories and texts they were reading for the course. At the end of the course, the students were required to submit a report on “A reflection of the issues in the Melbourne – Kobe Video project”.

5 Analysis

In this study, since the diaries, reports and surveys all required open-ended responses, quantitative classification was not applicable. We analyzed data collected from both the Melbourne and the Kobe sides using qualitative analysis, grouping significant keywords that were identified from the data into similar concepts, which were then further grouped into larger categories. The category labels we used were taken from the operational definitions of the three CoI components proposed by Akyol and Garrison (2008).

Table 1: CoI Components (Akyol & Garrison 2008).

Component	Categories
Teaching presence	Design & Organization, Facilitating discourse and Direct instruction
Social presence	Open communication, Group cohesion and Personal/affective
Cognitive presence	Triggering event, Exploration, Integration and Resolution

These categories were further classified into the three components of CoI: teaching presence, social presence and cognitive presence. Note that some categories, which were created in the process of analysing the data were not included in the results section. This was either because the categories had only one concept, or did not fit into the CoI framework. Therefore, in this chapter, we only report on the results of the analysis in relation to CoI.

6 Results

In this section, we demonstrate how the video-sharing project impacted both the Melbourne and Kobe students. In mentioning “the Melbourne students” or “the Kobe students” we are referring to students who reported a similar opinion or thought, except when a large proportion of students expressed a similar issue, in which case we report them as “the majority of the students”. Where direct quotations are used, the use of pronouns may not be consistent with the rest of the sentence.

6.1 Melbourne side

6.1.1 Teaching presence – design/organization

Overall, the majority of Melbourne students expressed feelings of satisfaction regarding the activities for real-life purposes. Students made remarks such as, “the video project took a lot of effort (e.g. doing research, writing script, filming, etc.), but it was all for a real purpose” and “it was for Japanese students to watch, not just an assessment exercise”. The students also reported that writing the scripts and filming the videos were helpful to improve their speaking and writing skills because they had to “rewrite drafts a few times to improve scripts” and “[practice] many times before talking to real people”.

6.1.2 Teaching presence – facilitating discourse

For the video project, there was no teacher intervention during the video shooting. The teacher’s role was to plan, monitor and evaluate the students’ work. It seemed that many students found a strict timeframe coupled with regular detailed feedback helpful. They made remarks such as, “I think that having these regular tasks has made the students work quite hard. Receiving regular, detailed feedback seems to be one of the best ways to breed improvement, after all” and “Japanese improved with each video, as I received very helpful feedback from the teacher”.

6.1.3 Teaching presence – direct instruction

The teacher introduced useful words and expressions for discussion prior to the creation of each video. The students thought the project was helpful for the improvement of Japanese because “it motivated us to learn and apply the new words and expressions we learnt in class in the real situations” and they found “the grammar structure and vocabulary we have learnt in class to be quite useful for conveying my ideas through Japanese more easily”.

6.1.4 Social presence – open communication

The CoI model values open communication, where participants can feel free to express their opinions without reservation. However, in the case of the current video project, students were cautious about how to put their thoughts into words, as can be seen in remarks such as, “I am conscious of the fact that my overall tone seems to be quite negative. I hope I don’t offend anyone!” and “I learnt that I had to be careful with what I said in replies to the Japanese students’ comments and in the videos because whilst in Australia we can say what we want, it may not be so in Japan”.

6.1.5 Social presence – group cohesion

While acknowledging the positive aspects of the video project, some students pointed out that there was not enough interaction with the Kobe students, as shown in the following comments: “It has been nice of them to reply to us. We didn’t really get to interact a lot with the Japanese students though because we usually just received comments, replies and that’s it”; “While we had comments from Japanese students, it didn’t feel very much like a two-way conversation”; and “we didn’t really get a chance to converse properly with Japanese students, which was a shame”.

6.1.6 Social presence – personal/affective

The Melbourne students all appreciated the comments made by the Kobe students, as shown in remarks such as, “I felt grateful for every comment I received from the Kobe students whether it was a compliment or criticism. That’s what made me improve my language”; “We learnt a lot of expressions from the Japanese students”; and “Japanese people helped correct grammar and mistakes we otherwise wouldn’t have picked up on”. Besides using the Japanese language, they also felt motivated to do more research, as expressed in remarks such as, “It was good to interact with students in Japan. We put more effort to ensure we had correct information for them". Students also felt that "a lot of research needed to be done for supporting a good script".

6.1.7 Cognitive presence – triggering event

Curiosity varied from student to student. Some students were inherently curious about everything, which worked very well for the video project. Those students would become curious to know more about what they read for the course and would research the topic, which would make them even more curious. Then they would talk to their family members and friends to get their opinions. A few students, on the other hand, focused on doing tasks efficiently, as one of such students remarked, "We always try to divide the jobs up so that everyone does the same amount! [...] I really enjoy the way our group functions and we seem to get things done extremely efficiently".

6.1.8 Exploration

The majority of students, including those who did not show curiosity towards the topics at the start, became motivated to explore as time passed. One such student said, "When the teacher told me about the video project, I thought I wouldn't like doing such a thing, but I now think it is actually good because we can explore our interests". The video project gave the students an opportunity to deepen their understanding of the Japanese people and society, as well as of the world. In relation to this, input from the Japanese students was invaluable. Students reported that the comments from the Kobe students "made us think more deeply about the topics" and stated that "their opinions were very helpful in helping me understand the topics".

6.1.9 Integration

Through the intercultural interaction, the students became aware of cultural differences and started to accept the differences, as can be seen in the following remarks: "The communication with the Kobe students and group members helped me realize the differences between cultural values that we were never aware of"; "All the things learnt through this project made me think about my own situation and gave me new ways of understanding things"; and "I learnt a lot not only from the Kobe university students, but also from my group members. We all had different opinions on issues due to our different cultural backgrounds, which was great".

6.2 Kobe side

The quotes in the follow sections are the English translation of remarks made by the Kobe students in Japanese.

6.2.1 Teaching presence – design/organization

The Kobe students recognized the overall goals and benefits of the video project for both sides, in that they saw the project as providing an effective framework for interaction between trainee Japanese teachers (Kobe) and learners of Japanese (Melbourne). However, they “had some difficulties with understanding the topics, goals and how to participate in the course”. Although given the Melbourne course outlines and materials as references, it appeared it was difficult for the Kobe students to gain a clear picture of the overall goals of what their remotely situated counterparts were aiming for when it came to watching the videos and responding.

6.2.2 Teaching presence – facilitating discourse

The main role of the teacher was to keep students engaged and reinforce the development of a sense of community. However, a major issue noted by all the Kobe students was “a lack of clarity from the teacher in conveying the objectives of the Melbourne community to the Kobe community”, resulting in a lack of a sense of sharing and collaboration. The students found it difficult to grasp what was happening in Melbourne on a weekly basis, by simply using the videos as a “window” into their projects. There was a clear need for other means for “community building”. The Kobe students felt that “there should be an orientation session before the project started, in which information on syllabus, teaching aims, evaluation, etc. was provided by the teachers”, so that everyone would be completely clear about their roles and goals.

6.2.3 Social presence – open communication

The Kobe students identified multiple roles they played in the project, which arose as interaction became deeper and more intense. When they were faced with a situation that required them to interact with the learners of Japanese, they needed to be prepared to “interact appropriately with the necessary information and resources, including both linguistic and teaching knowledge”. They commented that these "roles need to be made clearer at all stages of the project". The lack of clarity sometimes led the students to feel uncomfortable in their interaction with the Melbourne students. Also, they sometimes did not know how they should respond to the content of the videos, due to a lack of a feeling of closeness; that is, not knowing the Melbourne students on a personal level.

6.2.4 Social presence – group cohesion

The teacher on the Kobe side noticed that there was a lack of information sharing about what each individual was doing in the Kobe community, in that the Kobe students did not look at each other's comments or discuss the process of commenting, even though they had opportunities to do so in seminars and the computer classrooms sessions. The students said that on reflection they "felt uncomfortable not knowing what others in their own group were doing". They felt that "there is a role for the teacher at the Kobe end to promote sharing of the commenting process", so that a sense of collaboration not only between the Kobe and Melbourne students develops, but also between the Kobe students.

6.2.5 Social presence – affective expression

All of the Kobe students felt that they gradually got to know the Melbourne students through the videos they watched and commented on as the project developed and formed distinctive impressions of individuals. However, in contrast to traditional classroom environments where students are accessible face-to-face, as this project involved remote learners and interaction in a virtual environment, the students felt that there was a need for more "bonding" activities. One student suggested that the teachers should look at how different online tools could be used together to promote social interaction. For example, "YouTube could be used for the Melbourne students to present the issue for discussion and the interaction involving commenting and discussion, the inquiry that is being sought between the two communities can be handled using SNS technologies *Mahara* or *Moodle*".

6.2.6 Cognitive presence – triggering event

The Kobe students identified several problems:

(a) Project management: direction from teachers about goals and processes of video feedback was not clear.

(b) Interaction between students: students were unsure of how to interact with the Melbourne students because they had two distinct roles as a conversation partner and an expert of the language and culture.
(c) Collaboration within the class: there was a lack of collaboration between Kobe students in terms of sharing their activities and performances.

6.2.7 Cognitive presence – exploration

The Kobe students expressed their concerns at briefings after the video interaction sessions and discussed why they felt uncomfortable. The discussions raised more questions than they answered and increased students' awareness of the issues of how to link SLA theory to online learning and interaction.

6.2.8 Cognitive presence – integration

The Kobe students individually reflected on their participation in the project in their final papers. They stated that they were "able to gain insights into our roles as (near) native speakers, through interaction with the Melbourne students". This included their ability to "give feedback on the linguistic aspects of the videos, as well as giving information and opinions on the content". Comments from the students showed that they felt that they "participated in this project as both participants and as collaborators that could give linguistic feedback to the (Melbourne) students". Through the experience, they became aware that "the role of the teacher is not simply to give explanations, carry out practice and set tests, but rather it is as both a 'planner' and a 'facilitator' of the learning that takes place". In addition, they were able to "learn about what it means to give feedback to learners of Japanese using explicit/implicit feedback and encouraging deductive/inductive learning".

6.2.9 Cognitive presence – resolution

In their final term papers, the Kobe students had an opportunity to propose solutions to the problems they had identified. They suggested how to better manage the course on both the Melbourne and Kobe sides by increasing collaboration through the sharing of more information on the course planning and implementation. As a means of promoting social bonding, they offered concrete solutions using other social media tools besides YouTube, such as Social Networking

Services (e.g. Facebook), instant messaging services (e.g. WhatsApp, LINE) and how to implement them before and during the course to deepen the sense of community.

7 Discussion

In examining the data, it was clear that the video-sharing project was beneficial for the Melbourne students in that they improved their linguistic knowledge and skills, as well as developed intercultural competence. The project was also a success on the Kobe side, in that it acted as a catalyst for the students to reflect on their roles as future teachers using interactive technology and the relationship of this to SLA. However, there was a discernible difference in the levels of satisfaction between the two groups of students. The Melbourne students seemed, in general, highly motivated with respect to the video project. On the other hand, the Kobe students were often at a loss for how to interact with the Melbourne students, because they could not determine what kind of feedback would be suitable for the learners, as they had difficulty understanding the overall aims of the Melbourne course. Nevertheless, they did recognize the innovative aspects of using this learning environment, as well as the benefits that could be gained in terms of SLA through their interaction with the Melbourne students.

When we reflect on these differences using the CoI model, we are able to determine characteristics that could explain these differences. Firstly, there were clearly two communities of related but different inquires. The Melbourne students were seeking partners with whom they could exchange opinions, including linguistic matters and content such as wider global issues, whereas the Japanese postgraduate students were seeking an opportunity to study SLA learning, interaction and online learning. For them, the Melbourne students represented learners who presented them with a chance to think about how they could give effective feedback for correcting errors in the Japanese language and also gain experience in how to carry out online interaction.

Secondly, there were differences in how the components of the CoI framework were relevant to each set of students. The Melbourne students were oriented mainly towards social presence. On the other hand, the Japanese students were looking at the project from the outside, trying to take an objective stance to what they were doing. As this was an educational experience for the Japanese students, they were biased towards the teaching presence and cognitive presence areas of the project, more than the social presence. The Kobe students felt that their roles were was not just as participants, but also as teachers , giving the Melbourne students not only linguistic feedback in their comments, but also teaching them about the language and current issues in Japan.

Thirdly, although both sides noted the need for increased social presence in the online learning environment (i.e. the shared environment between the Melbourne and Kobe sides), the expectation of social presence was different between Melbourne and Kobe. For the Melbourne students, the shared environment was for exchanging opinions. They were expecting a lively exchange of ideas about the content. For the Kobe students, however, it was a place where they were tested on their knowledge of Japanese language and society. They felt they were expected to be "experts" who could give a perfect answer, as they were living in Japan. This expectation exerted some pressure on them when they gave feedback and inhibited them from making comments freely.

Numerous research findings argue that the success of learning depends heavily on social presence (e.g. Gunawardena & Zittle, 1997). However, social presence does not just emerge spontaneously among learners in a learning environment. Fostering social presence requires a carefully designed and a well-planned learning environment by the course designer or instructor (teaching presence). In other words, this project emphasized the importance of teaching presence in one's own *and* the collaborators' learning environments. Recently, Diaz, Swan, Ice and Kupczynaki (2010) asked participants to rate their course and the importance of each CoI survey item and found that students perceived teaching presence items as more important than cognitive and social presence items, while there was not much variability in their ratings of the three presences. From the students' perspective, teaching presence is the critical component of the learning experience.

8 Limitations

As discussed, there were limitations to the study and things we would do differently in the future. There is a clear need for a longer lead-in to the project on the Kobe side to prepare the students about the following issues.

Firstly, the Kobe students should have more detailed information about the background of the students in Melbourne, including the number of students and how they are grouped, as well as how the groups are organized, so that the Kobe students can view the videos and know that they were created not only by individual students but also by a group. As the students observed, some groups made videos as a group in the same place, whereas other groups made individual videos in different locations, which they edited into one video. Information about how the students in Melbourne interacted to produce at least these two types of videos and more information about the background of individual students would have helped the Kobe students to evaluate the learning of both individual and groups. Therefore, the preparation on the Kobe side should include not only an orientation to the overall course goals at Melbourne, but also as much profile information as possible about the learners, which would allow the Kobe students to evaluate the learning more deeply. Equally, information about the Kobe students should also be made available to the Melbourne students.

Secondly, because of the imbalance in numbers between the two sides (35 in Melbourne and 6 in Kobe), there needs to be enough time for the students in Kobe to get to know the students they are interacting with. That is, while they could evaluate each group video as a group, they were only able to evaluate individuals within the group on a very superficial level. To realize this level of interaction from the Kobe students, there needs to be a longer lead-in time for the project, where the Kobe students can "get to know" the Melbourne students better before engaging in the core project. This activity could be a synchronous session between the students, such as a video conference, given the minimal time difference, or an asynchronous exchange between the students, such as using SNS or a messaging system, prior to the video project commencing.

These kinds of community building activities before the project need to be given a higher priority if we are to build a fully functioning Community of Inquiry.

9 Conclusion

The results of the CoI evaluation of the Melbourne side were mostly positive; while acknowledging that the interaction with the Kobe students could be better, the Melbourne students expressed satisfaction for having valuable and meaningful intercultural exchange with the partner students and for their achievement resulting from the exchange. However, the Kobe students expressed some reservations towards the collaboration, as they felt that in order to understand the non-native speakers' learning process, they needed more interaction and information about the learners than they were able to get from the online environment.

The Kobe students commented that a more "holistic" interaction between the two sides would be more effective, rather than focusing on prescribed task-based interaction. Holistic interaction would require that all participants know the other side's learning objectives and activities, in addition to the collaborative tasks. Furthermore, both sides need to be able to share their cognitive experiences. Participants on both sides should be given opportunities to share their reflections on the project. This project has revealed that it is not enough to set up individual learning environments in which all three presences (teaching, social and cognitive presences) are provided. Students need to be able to see how these presences are interconnected between two learning environments and why these presences are important for their learning (Smeyers & Depaepe 2006).

Figure 2 illustrates how the three presences in two collaborative learning environments interact with each other.

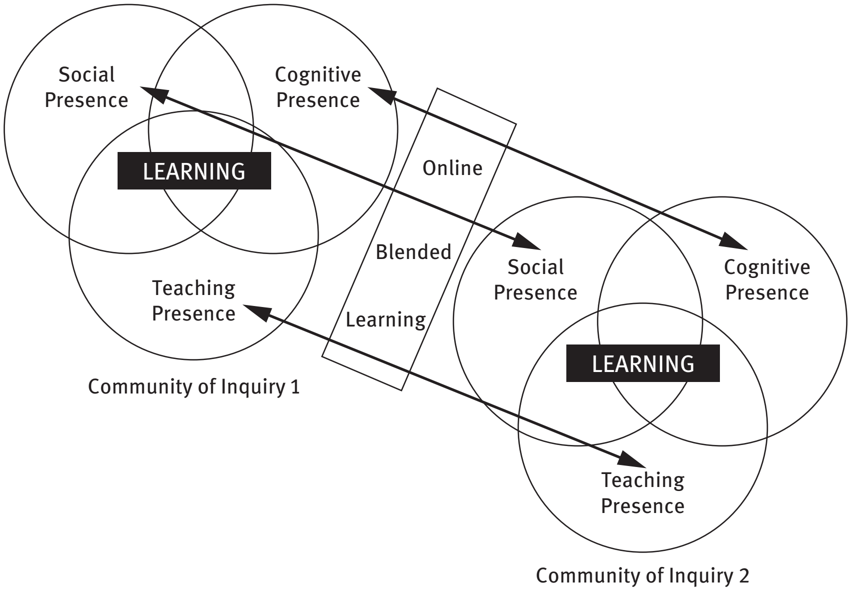

Figure 2: Online Blending Learning with two or more communities of inquiry.

In this figure, we see that the two communities of inquiry need to be "mapped" onto each other so that there is a *flow of information* about the three presences, between both communities, so that while they are aiming towards different goals and are under different processes, they are aware of what the other is doing in order to make the *online blended learning* between them successful.

The CoI framework was originally developed for accounting for issues confronting a post-graduate program, in which computer-based discussion forums played a central role (Swan & Ice 2010). In that program, all participants belonged to the same community of inquiry. Since its creation, CoI "has been adopted and adapted by educators worldwide" (Swan & Ice 2010: 2). The framework is now used widely for the development and evaluation of various online and blended learning environments (Chew, Jones & Turner 2008; Garrison & Vaughan 2008). However, the current version of the CoI model only caters for one learning environment. For a collaborative project with two separate sets of learning objectives, evaluating one side at a time using the current CoI does not provide us with the whole picture. Although CoI provides a comprehensive evaluation from the three aspects of social presence, teaching presence and cognitive presence, our findings suggest that the CoI framework needs to be modified if it is to be used to evaluate a collaborative blended learning that involves more than one learning environment. A CoI model for collaborative online or blended learning environment involving two communities of inquiries should include not only a shared social presence, but also teaching and cognitive presences of the other as well as of their own.

This chapter has detailed a collaborative video-sharing project conducted between two blended learning environments, with two related but separate learning aims, evaluated using CoI. The analysis shows that a CoI evaluation on each side of a collaborative project can reveal contradicting findings between the two sides. Based on the findings from the current study, we propose that the CoI model needs to be revised to accommodate the design and the evaluation of a collaborative project, particularly in the area where the blended learning takes place; that is to say, where the two parties in the collaboration interact most directly with each other. More research on evaluating a collaborative project between two learning environments is required to confirm the need for a revision of CoI theory, particularly looking at the component of social presence and the effects for the other two components in the theory as a whole.

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Index

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