THE IAFOR HAWAII CONFERENCE SERIES 2017

EDUCATING FOR CHANGE

THE INTERNATIONAL ACADEMIC FORUM PRESENTS

THE IAFOR INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION

THE IAFOR INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON TECHNOLOGY IN THE CLASSROOM

THE IAFOR INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE LEARNING

THE HAWAII CONVENTION CENTER, HONOLULU, HAWAII, USA

JANUARY 8–10, 2017

"To Open Minds, To Educate Intelligence, To Inform Decisions"

The International Academic Forum provides new perspectives to the thought-leaders and decision-makers of today and tomorrow by offering constructive environments for dialogue and interchange at the intersections of nation, culture, and discipline. Headquartered in Nagoya, Japan, and registered as a Non-Profit Organization (一般社団法人) , IAFOR is an independent think tank committed to the deeper understanding of contemporary geo-political transformation, particularly in the Asia Pacific Region.

INTERNATIONAL

INTERCULTURAL

INTERDISCIPLINARY

iafor

The Executive Council of the International Advisory Board

Mr Mitsumasa Aoyama
Director, The Yufuku Gallery, Tokyo, Japan

Lord Charles Bruce
Lord Lieutenant of Fife
Chairman of the Patrons of the National Galleries of Scotland
Trustee of the Historic Scotland Foundation, UK

Professor Donald E. Hall
Herbert J. and Ann L. Siegel Dean
Lehigh University, USA
Former Jackson Distinguished Professor of English and Chair of the Department of English

Professor Arthur Stockwin
Founding Director of the Nissan Institute for Japanese Studies & Emeritus Professor
The University of Oxford UK

Professor Chung-Ying Cheng
Professor of Philosophy, University of Hawai'i at Manoa, USA
Editor-in-Chief, The Journal of Chinese Philosophy

Professor Steve Cornwell
Professor of English and Interdisciplinary Studies, Osaka Jogakuin University, Osaka, Japan
Osaka Local Conference Chair

Professor A. Robert Lee
Former Professor of English at Nihon University, Tokyo from 1997 to 2011, previously long taught at the University of Kent at Canterbury, UK

Professor Dexter Da Silva
Professor of Educational Psychology, Keisen University, Tokyo, Japan

Professor Georges Depeyrot
Professor and Director of Research & Member of the Board of Trustees
French National Center for Scientific Research (CNRS) & L'Ecole Normale Superieure, Paris, France

Professor Johannes Moenius
William R. and S. Sue Johnson Endowed Chair of Spatial Economic Analysis and Regional Planning
The University of Redlands School of Business, USA

Professor June Henton
Dean, College of Human Sciences, Auburn University, USA

Professor Michael Hudson
President of The Institute for the Study of Long-Term Economic Trends (ISLET)
Distinguished Research Professor of Economics, The University of Missouri, Kansas City

Professor Koichi Iwabuchi
Professor of Media and Cultural Studies & Director of the Monash Asia Institute, Monash University, Australia

Professor Sue Jackson
Professor of Lifelong Learning and Gender & Pro-Vice Master of Teaching and Learning, Birkbeck, University of London, UK

Professor Sir Geoffrey Lloyd
Senior Scholar in Residence, The Needham Research Institute, Cambridge, UK
Fellow and Former Master, Darwin College, University of Cambridge
Fellow of the British Academy

Professor Keith Miller
Orthwein Endowed Professor for Lifelong Learning in the Science, University of Missouri-St.Louis, USA

Professor Kuniko Miyanaga
Director, Human Potential Institute, Japan
Fellow, Reischauer Institute, Harvard University, USA

Professor Dennis McInerney
Chair Professor of Educational Psychology and Co-Director of the Assessment Research Centre
The Hong Kong Institute of Education, Hong Kong SAR

Professor Brian Daizen Victoria
Professor of English
Fellow of the Oxford Centre for Buddhist Studies

Professor Michiko Nakano
Professor of English & Director of the Distance Learning Center, Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan

Professor Thomas Brian Mooney
Professor of Philosophy
Head of School of Creative Arts and Humanities
Professor of Philosophy and Head of School of Creative Arts and Humanities, Charles Darwin University, Australia

Professor Baden Offord
Professor of Cultural Studies and Human Rights & Co-Director of the Centre for Peace and Social Justice
Southern Cross University, Australia

Professor Frank S. Ravitch
Professor of Law & Walter H. Stowers Chair in Law and Religion, Michigan State University College of Law

Professor Richard Roth
Senior Associate Dean, Medill School of Journalism, Northwestern University, Qatar

Professor Monty P. Satiadarma
Clinical Psychologist and Lecturer in Psychology & Former Dean of the Department of Psychology and Rector of the University, Tarumanugara University, Indonesia

Mr Mohamed Salaheen
Director, The United Nations World Food Programme, Japan & Korea

Mr Lowell Sheppard
Asia Pacific Director, HOPE International Development Agency, Canada/Japan

His Excellency Dr Drago Stambuk
Croatian Ambassador to Brazil, Brazil

Professor Mary Stuart
Vice-Chancellor, The University of Lincoln, UK

Professor Gary Swanson
Distinguished Journalist-in-Residence & Mildred S. Hansen Endowed Chair, The University of Northern Colorado, USA

Professor Jiro Takai
Secretary General of the Asian Association for Social Psychology & Professor of Social Psychology
Graduate School of Education and Human Development, Nagoya University, Japan

Professor Svetlana Ter Minasova
President of the Faculty of Foreign Languages and Area Studies, Lomonosov Moscow State University

Professor Yozo Yokota
Director of the Center for Human Rights Affairs, Japan
Former UN Special Rapporteur on Myanmar

Professor Kensaku Yoshida
Professor of English & Director of the Center for the Teaching of Foreign Languages in General Education, Sophia University, Tokyo, Japan

The IAFOR International Conference on Language Learning – Hawaii 2017

Official Conference Proceedings

ISSN: 2189-1044

© The International Academic Forum 2017
The International Academic Forum (IAFOR)
Sakae 1-16-26-201
Naka Ward, Nagoya, Aichi
Japan 460-0008
ww.iafor.org

Table of Contents

Teaching Japanese across Borders: An Original Intercultural Approach[1]

Ljiljana Markovic, University of Belgrade, Serbia
Biljana Djoric Francuski, University of Belgrade, Serbia

The IAFOR International Conference on Language Learning – Hawaii 2017
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
The goal of this paper is to present to the international academic public a unique and original book for teaching Japanese, the first of its kind in Serbia. However, its significance is not limited only to the students of Japanese in Serbia, because this manual can be the source of ideas for teachers of Japanese in any other culture, as well. The main feature that makes it so outstanding is the use of mnemonic methods for learning how to read and write Japanese characters *kanji*, which has been done before in some Western countries, but in a different way. Namely, though the possibility of using mnemonic devices for memorizing kanji by connecting them with information that can be remembered more easily has already been recognized, the Serbian authors applied extremely inventive and creative forms in order to connect the Japanese and Serbian cultures, thus rendering the process of learning more entertaining and interesting, and making it much easier for the student. Not only did authors include some kanji that are not usually explained with mnemonics, but they also found explanations which are not typical for the common ones, such as comparing number nine (九) with a cat which has nine lives, or number four (四) with two lips plus two rows of teeth. The most original mnemonic is certainly the adjective small (小) which, according to them, represents a young bird hatching from an egg.

Keywords: *KANJI textbook*, Japanese, Teaching, Students, Kanji, Innovation, Serbia, Faculty of Philology at Belgrade University, *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*

iafor
The International Academic Forum
www.iafor.org

[1] This paper is part of the research project "National, Regional, European and Global Framework of Social Crises, and Contemporary Serbian Literature and Culture", financed by the Serbian Ministry of Education and Science (Project No. 178018).

Introduction

Resulting from an increasingly multi-ethnic and multi-cultural society, i.e. a complex permeation of different national identities, languages, cultures and religions of a modern society, the educational paradigm of the 21st century requires new foreign language teaching methods and approaches. Namely, as we are nowadays witnessing an unprecedented co-existence of diverse languages and cultures at all levels, foreign language intercultural teaching approach is gaining more and more relevance each day. The future European Union model of education is unthinkable without this approach in particular.

Furthermore, lifelong learning has become a necessity of our highly globalised world. In order to remain competitive on modern labour market, which is in accordance with the principles of the New Economy, we are obliged to acquire foreign language skills more than ever before. This is also due to the fact that the "global interconnectedness enabled by information technology calls for new skills, knowledge and ways of learning to prepare students for living and working in the 21st century."[2] Alan Murray hence addresses the educators with the following words: "In the New Economy you need to keep your mind active, open, and engaged, because, in the end, it's your best investment"[3]. Foreign language textbooks that use intercultural approach, such as the one that we will present in details hereinafter, are suitable for the aforementioned type of active and engaged lifelong learning of foreign languages.

Textbook for Japanese Language and Kanji Writing System

The *KANJI textbook* "represents an innovative project in both the methodological and methodical sense, directly contributing to the autonomous learning process and enables students to learn Japanese as a foreign language."[4] It was primarily intended for the Serbian learners of the Japanese language at A1 and A2 levels. Although a more general goal of the textbook is to teach the students whose mother tongue is Serbian the basics of the Japanese language, it primarily aims at teaching them kanji, the writing system that proved to be very problematic to remember in the past. The *KANJI textbook*, written and prepared by Professor Ljiljana Markovic, Dr Divna Trickovic, Marina Erdeljan and Simon Maric, is to some degree based upon the insights and feedback of the Japanese language students of the Faculty of Philology in Belgrade. Textbook authors wanted to acknowledge and respond to the difficulties faced by Serbian students of the Japanese language, which particularly refers to modern *kanji* Japanese writing system, as the one that is used along with *hiragana* and *katakana*. Moreover, an original intercultural approach to teaching the Japanese language in Serbia has also been applied in the *KANJI textbook*, as it was created bearing in mind particular needs and requirements of Serbian learners of the Japanese language. Namely, the authors were guided by the idea that the Japanese language

[2] Kuhlthau, C. C. (2010). Guided inquiry: School libraries in the 21st century. *School Libraries Worldwide*, 16(1), p. 17.
[3] Murray, A. (2000). *The Wealth of Choices*. New York: Crown Business, p.18.
[4] Markovic, LJ. (2015). Teaching the Japanese Writing System at University Level. *International Journal of Languages' Education and Teaching*, p. 1578.

should be thought from the linguistic and cultural perspective of learners whose native language is Serbian.

In addition to providing an innovative approach to teaching kanji characters, the *KANJI textbook* also offers a new way of reading and interpreting teaching units. It is extremely well organized and can, therefore, be read in multiple manners. For example, although it is somewhat recommended to start reading the textbook from the first teaching unit, the lessons do not have to be read in any particular order. They are accompanied with the cleverly thought-out exercises, which aim to help the students master the kanji writing system. These exercises are directed towards avoiding passive learning, which would eventually result in the inability of applying the knowledge of kanji in real life situations.

Textbook authors have opted for presenting 178 kanji characters, which were selected in accordance with the official standards of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR). These basic kanji are the starting point of mastering some 2000 kanji characters that are prescribed as a minimum in order to easily read newspapers or freely express thoughts and opinions in the Japanese language in writing. Textbook contents are organized in 15 lessons, within which kanji are grouped into specific thematic areas. Namely, the students of the Japanese language are "immersed into context" as each character can be linked to a particular situation. Therefore, kanji characters are being thought of not only as language entities, but as an integral part of the Japanese language. The textbook also aims at preparing learners for *The Japanese-Language Proficiency Test* or *JLPT*, hence the kanji were purposefully selected as the essential ones in order to attain the *JLPT* N5 level of knowledge. For the aforementioned reason, the *KANJI textbook* is also adequate for autonomous learning.

The *KANJI textbook* represents a state-of-the-art example of how the Japanese language can be taught to the students who originate from an entirely different linguistic and cultural background. It offers a novel methodological and methodical approach that relies upon mnemonic methods for learning foreign languages. This is precisely why this manual can be the source of ideas for teachers of Japanese in any other culture, not only in Serbia. The aforementioned aspects of the *KANJI textbook* will be discussed in details hereinafter. Our goal is to emphasise the importance of introducing mnemonic methods when learning the Japanese language, the significance of autonomous Japanese language learning on the example of the *KANJI textbook*, whilst simultaneously implementing intercultural approach to teaching kanji writing system.

Mnemonic Methods for Learning Foreign Languages on the Example of the *KANJI Textbook*

As early as in 1975, Richard C. Atkinson and Michael R. Raugh published a number of articles on using the mnemonic method in order to master foreign language vocabulary. In 1981, Hall, Wilson and Patterson described the keyword method "as a promising instructional method for the acquisition of foreign language vocabulary and

as an example of more general educational application of mnemonic techniques, or *mnemotechnics*."[5] Hulstijn emphasises that "mnemonic techniques should not replace the more natural, contextual methods fostering incidental learning […], but instead they should be used for words that, for whatever reason, have not been successfully acquired."[6] This can particularly relate to the words that belong to the writing system that is difficult to master, which is why the *KANJI textbook* authors have chosen mnemonic techniques for bringing these originally Chinese characters closer to Serbian students. Hulstijn further concludes that "although the applications of mnemonic techniques are limited, their effect has been sufficiently proven. To some extent they can transform the vocabulary learning task from uninspired drudgery into newfound delight."[7] The goal of foreign language teachers is to immerse their students into a particular language and culture by making this process as painless as possible. In some ways, *mnemotechnics* resemble a lot the way in which we acquire our mother tongue in the early childhood. Bearing in mind that they are similar to techniques of learning which are adopted in early age, they produce great result both in terms of vocabulary learning and knowledge of complex writing systems, such as kanji.

For the aforementioned reasons, authors of the *KANJI textbook* have opted for devising imaginative illustrations for certain kanji or describing them through funny stories. These mnemonic methods have proven to help students memorise more quickly and efficiently these otherwise difficult to remember characters. Namely, the authors have found explanations for each kanji presented within the textbook that are not typical and have presented them by using innovative mnemonics. For example, they have compared number nine (九) with a cat because a cat has nine lives, or number four (四) with two lips plus two rows of teeth. The most original mnemonic is certainly the adjective small (小) which, according to them, represents a young bird hatching from an egg.

Learner Autonomy through the Prism of the *KANJI Textbook*

Modern educational institutions are encouraged to implement the 21st century educational paradigm guidelines within their curricula. According to the P21 (Partnership for 21st century learning) Framework, educational programs should particularly foster 4Cs: *Communication*, *Collaboration*, *Critical thinking*, *Creativity*[8]. Serbian educational institutions are yet to fully integrate these 21st century educational guidelines for designing modern teaching programs and materials. Moreover, "the kind of education needed today requires teachers to be high-level knowledge workers who constantly advance their own professional knowledge as well as that of their

[5] Hall, J. W., Wilson, K. P., & Patterson, R. J. (1981). Mnemotechnics: Some limitations of the mnemonic keyword method for the study of foreign language vocabulary. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 73(3), p. 345.
[6] Hulstijn, J. H. (1997). *Mnemonic methods in foreign language vocabulary learning : theoretical considerations and pedagogical implications. Second language vocabulary acquisition: A rationale for pedagogy*, p. 220.
[7] Ibid.
[8] P21 Partnership for 21st century learning (2015). *The 4Cs Research Series*.

profession. Teachers need to be agents of innovation not least because innovation is critically important for generating new sources of growth through improved efficiency and productivity."[9] The *KANJI textbook* offers a unique blend of creative solutions to learning kanji and promotes a greater level of communication, collaboration and critical thinking in the classroom. However, this textbook fosters learner autonomy above all.

The learner autonomy constitutes an integral part and one of the requirements of the 21st century overall educational paradigm. "Generally speaking, the learner autonomy rests upon three theoretical arguments: (i) learners cannot help but do their own learning; (ii) this being the case, learning will be more efficient when learners are critically aware of goals and methods; and (iii) it is through the development of such critical awareness that learners are empowered to transcend the limitations of their learning environment."[10]

In formal educational context, the learner autonomy is based upon the acceptance of responsibility for one's own learning; the development of learner autonomy depends on the exercise of that responsibility in a never-ending effort to understand what one is learning, why one is learning, how one is learning, and with what degree of success; and the effect of learner autonomy is to remove the barriers that so easily erect themselves between formal learning and the wider environment in which the learner lives. Such an educational matrix alters the pedagogical panopticon, from a teacher-centred one, in which the teacher controls all knowledge and information and disseminates it to students from the centre of the panopticon to a situation where the student forms the centre of the panopticon of learning. Broadly speaking, learner autonomy paradigm relies upon and contributes to educational democracy, whereby the privilege of education belongs to the widest spectre of society members.

Foreign language textbooks should be adapted to this learning approach in particular, considering that it is the foreign language student himself that needs to invest the greatest effort in order to master the language. Through an excellent organisation of teaching units, i.e. lessons and exercises, the *KANJI textbook* not only provides the conditions for learner autonomy, but also fully supports this approach to learning the Japanese language. Innovative and interesting design of kanji mnemonics gives the learner desire to autonomously acquire knowledge. In this way, tiring, unnecessary and dull explanations are avoided, and, at the same time, the readers are satisfied and amused during the learning process.

[9] Schleicher, A. (2012). *Preparing teachers and developing school leaders for the 21st century: Lessons from around the world*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
[10] Little, D. (1999). Learner Autonomy is more than a Western Cultural Construct. In: Cotterall, S. and Crabbe, D. (eds.), *Bayreuth Contributions to Glottodidactics*. Frankfurt: Peter Lang, p. 11.

Teaching Japanese across Borders: Intercultural Approach within the *KANJI Textbook*

According to Susanne Günthner, "the relationship between language and culture has again and again been the centre of interest of different traditions in linguistics and cultural anthropology."[11] This should particularly be reflected in integrating intercultural elements into foreign language curricula and textbooks, which often represent the first contact of the student with the unknown language. As a result, foreign language "students will benefit by gaining solid knowledge of the different world cultures, and they must also develop the ability to compare their native culture to other cultures, to evaluate critically and interpret the results of such comparisons, and to apply this knowledge successfully in both verbal and non-verbal communication, for both transactional and interactional purposes."[12]

The authors of the *KANJI textbook* have divided kanji into lessons, which are simultaneously placed in certain contexts. Hence, the lessons are not simply teaching units, but are also giving insight into situational contexts, in the framework of which particular Japanese cultural features are explained. The Serbian authors have applied extremely inventive and creative forms in order to connect the Japanese and Serbian cultures, thus rendering the process of learning more entertaining and interesting, and making it much easier for the student. This is achieved through stories that are related to a particular kanji which are then associated with mental images that are familiar to people from this area. By doing so, the authors have facilitated the process of learning the Japanese language and the kanji writing system through connecting the stories about the kanji with the ones that are well known to Serbian students. In this way, an original intercultural approach has been applied to the design of teaching units/lessons, which has brought the very content of the textbook closer to Serbian students and encouraged their autonomous learning.

Conclusion

The paper aimed at presenting the *KANJI textbook* as a unique and original book for teaching Japanese language and culture, the first of its kind in Serbia, to the international academic public in order to emphasise the significance of mnemonic techniques, learner autonomy and, most importantly, intercultural approach to acquiring a satisfying level of foreign language competencies and skills. The very fact that the aforementioned methods were successfully applied to teaching kanji testifies in favour of the assumption that the same principles may be implemented with ease for teaching many other far less complex writing systems. Moreover, these methods can help overcome any other linguistic difficulties that continuously challenge foreign language students.

[11] Günthner, S. (1998). *Language and Culture - an Analysis of a Chinese-German Conversation*. Erfurt Electronic Studies in English.
[12] Chlopek, Z. (2008). The Intercultural Approach to EFL Teaching and Learning. *English Teaching Forum*, 46(4): p. 12.

References

Alptekin, C. (2002). Towards intercultural communicative competence in ELT. *ELT Journal* 56(1): 57–64.

Atkinson, R. C. (1975). Mnemotechnics in second-language learning. *American psychologist*, 30(8): 391-398.

Atkinson, R. C., & Raugh, M. R. (1975). An application of the mnemonic keyword method to the acquisition of a Russian vocabulary. *Journal of experimental psychology: Human learning and memory*, 1(2): 126-133.

Boers, F., & Lindstromberg, S. (2008). *Cognitive linguistic approaches to teaching vocabulary and phraseology* (Vol. 6). Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.

Byram, M. (2008). *From foreign language education to education for intercultural citizenship: Essays and reflections* (Vol. 17). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Chlopek, Z. (2008). The Intercultural Approach to EFL Teaching and Learning. *English Teaching Forum*, 46(4): 10-19.

Cotterall, S. & Crabbe, D. (Eds.) (1999). *Learner Autonomy in Language Learning: Defining the Field and effecting Change*. Frankfurt: Peter Lang.

Council of Europe (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Guilherme, M. (2002). *Critical citizens for an intercultural world: Foreign language education as cultural politics* (Vol. 3). Multilingual Matters.

Günthner, S. (1998). *Language and Culture - an Analysis of a Chinese-German Conversation*. Erfurt Electronic Studies in English. Available at: http://webdoc.sub.gwdg.de/edoc/ia/eese/artic98/guntner/2_98.html, accessed on: 06.02.2017.

Hall, J. W., Wilson, K. P., & Patterson, R. J. (1981). Mnemotechnics: Some limitations of the mnemonic keyword method for the study of foreign language vocabulary. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 73(3): 345-357.

Hulstijn, J. H. (1997). *Mnemonic methods in foreign language vocabulary learning : theoretical considerations and pedagogical implications. Second language vocabulary acquisition: A rationale for pedagogy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kramsch, C. (1993). *Context and culture in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Kramsch, C. (1995). The cultural component of language teaching. *Language, Culture and Curriculum* 8(12): 83–92.

Kuhlthau, C. C. (2010). Guided inquiry: School libraries in the 21st century. *School Libraries Worldwide*, 16(1): 17-28.

Lawson, M. J., & Hogben, D. (1996). The vocabulary□learning strategies of foreign□language students. *Language learning*, 46(1): 101-135.

Little, D. (1999). Learner Autonomy is more than a Western Cultural Construct. In: Cotterall, S. and Crabbe, D. (eds.), *Bayreuth Contributions to Glottodidactics*. Frankfurt: Peter Lang.

Macaro, E. (1997). *Target language, Collaborative Learning and Autonomy Modern Languages in practise*. USA: Multilingual Matters.

Markovic, LJ., Trickovic, D., Erdeljan, M. & Maric, S. (2015). *Kanđi: udžbenik za japanski jezik i pismo* [*KANJI textbook*]. Beograd: Filološki fakultet.

Markovic, LJ. (2015). Teaching the Japanese Writing System at University Level. *International Journal of Languages' Education and Teaching*, ISSN: 2198 – 4999, p. 1578-1586.

Murray, A. (2000). *The Wealth of Choices*. New York: Crown Business.

P21 Partnership for 21st century learning (2015). *The 4Cs Research Series*. Available at: http://www.p21.org/our-work/4cs-research-series, accessed on 06.02.2017.

Pemberton, R., Toogood, S. & Barfield, A. (Eds.) (2009). *Maintaining Control: Autonomy and Language Learning*. China: Hong Kong University Press.

Schleicher, A. (2012). *Preparing teachers and developing school leaders for the 21st century: Lessons from around the world*. Paris: OECD Publishing. http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264174559-en

Sercu, L. (2006). The foreign language and intercultural competence teacher: The acquisition of a new professional identity. *Intercultural education*, 17(1): 55-72.

Usuki, M. (2007). *Autonomy in Language Learning: Japanese Students' Exploratory Analysis*. Nagoya: Sankeisha.

Wang, A. Y., Thomas, M. H., & Ouellette, J. A. (1992). Keyword mnemonic and retention of second-language vocabulary words. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 84(4), 520-528.

Introducing the First Large-Scale English Collocational Chunk List and Innovative Methods in Which Collocational Fluency Can Be Mastered

James Rogers, Meijo University, Japan

The IAFOR International Conference on Language Learning – Hawaii 2017
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Many researchers agree that knowledge of English collocations and the formulaic chunks they occur in is an important aspect of language fluency. However, a number of issue have led to a lack of research and resources despite the awareness of the importance of these aspects of language knowledge. This study will discuss why this gap in the research exists, and steps that were taken to fill it to create the first large-scale collocational chunk list to help learners master general English. First, an overview of why this gap in the research existed will be provided. Then, the rationale for all steps taken to create the resource will be explained, and a detailed analysis of the usefulness of each of these steps will be provided. Finally, a description of an innovative Leitner algorithm-based smartphone app which students can use to study the contents of the resulting resource will be given to highlight how these chunks can be studied.

Keywords: collocation, formulaic language, multi-word units, high-frequency vocabulary, corpora

Introduction

In recent years, more and more researchers have acknowledged the importance of collocational fluency in second language learners. Lewis (2000) believes that mastering such knowledge "should be a top priority in every language course" (p. 8). Hoey (2005) and Hill (2000) agree, stating that collocational knowledge plays a central role in language since much of language itself consists of prefabricated chunks.

Knowledge of these chunks enables learners to speak more naturally (Durrant & Schmitt; 2009, Wray, 2002; Cowie, 1998) and process language more efficiently (Nation, 2001) in comparison to studying isolated vocabulary. In fact, learning vocabulary formulaically can in fact be more efficient in comparison with learning isolated vocabulary items because learners can utilize words in a chunk as mnemonics to help them remember the other words in the chunk (Schmitt, 1997). However, a number of researchers have shown that learners are not obtaining collocational fluency (fluency (DeCock et al., 1998; Kallkvist, 1998; Nesselhauf, 2005). But why are learners failing to acquire this important aspect of language fluency? The main reason is that collocations are not focused on in materials and/or the language classroom (Gitsaki, 1996). This stems from the issue of there being very few studies that identify the common formulaic chunks of English (Durrant & Schmitt, 2009). Until Rogers (2017), which identified over 11,000 formulaic chunks that are frequent in general English, most studied were limited in their size and/or methodology. For instance, Martinez and Schmitt's (2012) phrase list only consisted of 505 items. Shin's (2006) study unfortunately utilized types instead of the more efficient concgramming method with lemma. Furthermore, his study also only examined the most frequent 1,000 types of English, while Rogers (2017) examined items on a much larger scale (the most frequent 5,000 lemma).

This current study will discuss the steps Rogers (2017) took to fill this gap in the research. It will provide a rationale for and a review of the usefulness of each of the steps taken, and then describe an innovative Leitner algorithm-based smartphone app in which the resource Rogers (2017) can be studied with.

Conclusion

Frequency as a criterion

The first step that was taken to fill this gap in the research was to determine a frequency cut-off for collocations of the top 5,000 lemma of the Corpus of Contemporary American English (Davies, 2008), or the *COCA*. At one occurrence per million tokens, the result was approximately 11,000 chunks. This amount may seem impractical in regards to direct study, but these 11,000 chunks actually only consist of around 3,000 word families. For example, "take a break" occurs but also "take a chance" and "chances of winning" and "winning an award". So, it's not 11,000 different items, but rather 3,000 items and the various ways in which they co-occur with each other.

The concgramming approach

At this stage, the list is still just a list of lemma. To go from lemma to chunks, the concgramming (Cheng, Greaves, & Warren, 2006) methodology was utilized. This method is ideal because it considers *constituency variation* (AB, ACB), or when a pair of words not only co-occurring adjacent to one another (*lose weight*) but also with a constituent (*lose some weight*) AND it also considers *positional variation* (AB, BA), or when total occurrences of two or more particular lexical items are counted while includes occurrences on either side of each other. Thus *provide you support* and *support you provide* would both be included in the total counts for a chunk concordance search for the lemma *provide* and *support*.

A simple example would be the need to identify and rank in frequency the common phrase *take a break. Take/break* occur often together as *take a break,* but they also occur as *take breaks, taking breaks, took a break, take a quick break,* and so on. Essentially, these are all the same collocation. So, with concgramming they are counted together, and then by examining a mini corpus of only *take/break* concordance strings, we can identify *take a break* as the most common chunk. If these items are counted separately, the true frequency of the collocation is not represented. In addition, if such items are counted separately, it does not result in a useable resource for the end users such as teachers and students. For example, Simpson-Vlach and Ellis' (2010) Academic Formula List identified 712 common chunks in academic writing. However, they did not utilize the concgramming method. Thus, in their list there are the following items at different points:

there are a number of
there are a number
are a number of

Such items need to be consolidated for learners, and to improve upon frequency counts as well. When all three of these are added together, the rank of *there are a number of* will go up in the list, and this is important when learners have limited time and only can study a certain amount of items but want to study in the most efficient way possible.

The lack of dedicated software and development thereof

However, to accomplish this step software did not even exist. While it is possible to do it with concordance software such as AntConc (Anthony, 2013), 11,000 files would have to be processed manually, and the results would also have a large amount of noise in each set that would have to be removed manually. For example, if you make a mini corpus in which there are only concordance strings with *take/break* occurring and use AntConc, the top chunks identified will probably be *of the*, *in the*, and so on. Thus, there was a need to create dedicated software for this project. The result was the development of *AntWordPairs* (2013), a one-off software designed specifically for this research project which was able to accomplish the task at hand.

Balanced dispersion and chronological data as criteria

The next step take was to analyze corpus dispersion and chronological data to determine if it was reliable enough to identify items which only had balanced dispersion over a wide range of language genres (because the aim was to create a resource for learners of general English) and also balanced dispersion over time (because it is not appropriate to include dated terms such as *word processor,* and it also is not ideal to include items that only occur during limited time periods such as *saving and loan*). However, corpus data proved unreliable for this step and thus items were examined manually using native speaker intuition. Thus, this step proved extremely time consuming.

Colligation as a criterion

Then *colligation* was considered, or in other words, when a group of words can be substituted by a grammatical marker (such as numbers, days of the week, etc.). Take the example of *early/century* in the table below which analyzed 500 concordance lines from the *COCA* to determine which chunk occurred most often when the two words co-occurred.

Without consideration for colligation		With consideration for colligation (years consolidated)	
10.70%	century earlier	19.20%	early in the [year] century
9.50%	a century earlier	10.70%	century earlier
6.70%	early in this century	9.70%	early [year] century
6.40%	centuries earlier	8.50%	early in this century
5.80%	early in the century	8.30%	early as the [year] century
5.00%	early in the 20th century	8.30%	as early as the [year] century

Figure 1: A comparison between two chunk searches, one with and one without consideration for a specific type of colligation

Without any consideration for colligation, the data analysis results in *century earlier* being the most common chunk occurring when *early* and *century* occur together. However, if years (such as *18th, 19th,* and *20th* and *eighteenth, nineteeth,* and *twentieth*) are counted all as one category, the results drastically change with *early in the [year] century* resulting in double the amount of occurrences in comparison to *century earlier.* The data above highlights how consideration for colligation has the potential to improve upon the accuracy of identifying the most common chunk two words co-occur in. It should be noted that while this step was shown to be useful to a small extent in improving upon the quality of the data, it was extremely complex and time consuming due to a lack of dedicated software.

On extended chunks beyond their cores

Next, an experiment was conducted to determine whether or not native speakers felt it would be beneficial for learners to be exposed to words that commonly occurred to the left and right of the core chunks that were identified initially. For instance, when *close proximity* was identified for the lemma *close/proximity*, slightly lower in rank was *close proximity to*, and then a bit lower *in close proximity to*. In such cases, it was decided by the native speaker to have *in close proximity to* represent the lemma *close/proximity* instead of simply *close proximity*. This step was deemed absolutely essential in that native speaker opted to extend in nearly half of the approximately 11,000 items.

On semantic transparency as a criterion

After that, the extent of semantic transparency of the items were determined by native speakers. Only 14 percent were considered to be semi-figurative, figurative, or core idioms. With 86 percent of the high-frequency collocations of English being literal formulations, to say we shouldn't teach literal formulations directly would highly limit exposure to the vast amount of high-frequency collocations for learners, and thus this criterion was deemed to be problematic in regard to the high-frequency chunks identified in this study.

Literal	ONCE	Figurative	Core Idiom	Outlier
9,641/*86.06*	76/*6.01*	93/*1.7*	179/*1.65*	19/*4.7*

Figure 2: Sematic transparency ratings of the collocations (percentage of total items in italics)

On L1-L2 congruency as a criterion

In regards to L1-L2 congruency, this criterion in fact trumps semantic transparency because it does not matter if a chunk is a literal chunk or not since if it is said in a different way in the learner's L1, they will have a high chance of making an error with it and thus it needs to be taught directly. For instance, in English we say *get credits* for a class, but in Japanese the way it is said can literally be translated into *take credits,* and thus students will often make this error by directly translating. Thus, the literalness of *get credits* becomes moot. Therefore, to take this criterion into consideration it was necessary to translate all 11,000 items into Japanese and to give each an L1-L2 congruency rating on a scale from 0-12.

0-3	4-6	7-9	10-12 (12)
996	2,419	2,905	4,888 (4,146)

Figure 3: L1-L2 congruency ratings of high-frequency English MWUs with Japanese translations

When items that received a rating of six or less were kept, the 11,208 items becomes only 3,414 items that have a higher chance of learners making an error with them. Such a resource, at 50 items per week, could be mastered in approximately a year and a half, exposing learners to a large majority of the way high-frequency vocabulary collocate that they have the highest chance of making an error with.

On the reliability of native speakers to create high-frequency context

However, just having the chunks themselves is not enough for the end users (students/teachers). Having example sentences for each item is ideal because learners can then see the proper context in which these chunks are normally used. A team of native speakers were thus given the task to create an example sentence for each of the approximately 11,000 chunks. They were instructed to try to only use high-frequency vocabulary when they created the surrounding context for the chunk's sentence. So, the next research question became whether or not native speaker intuition could be relied upon to select only high-frequency items for surrounding context. The example sentences added 160,000 words of content to the list. The resulting resource not only covered 90 percent of the top 3,000 word families of English, but in addition, 97 percent of the words in the sentences created fell within the top 3,000 word families. Thus, the answer was clearly affirmative that native speaker intuition is highly reliable for this task.

On Japanese university students' knowledge of high-frequency chunks

The final step in this study was to confirm that this resource constitutes knowledge that all native speakers have, but that learners do not. Thus a 50 question cloze productive test was created with a balanced selection from the 11,000 chunks in regards to the following criteria:

1. Frequency
2. Semantic transparency
3. L1-L2 congruency

Test questions were then created for each, such as the following:

I doubt my son is going to follow t _ _ _ _ _ _ on his promise to cut the grass.

Pilot tests with native speakers showed that all items could be answered correctly. 549 Japanese university freshmen with an average TOEFL score of 421, and a wide range of proficiency took the test and the average score was 23 percent correct. Such a low average score in comparison with native speakers perfect scores showed that this resource consists of knowledge that native speakers possess but the learners in questions lack, and thus confirmed its value.

On the creation of a smartphone app to study the resource with

A number of researchers have cited the potential of flashcard programs to improve education (Burston, 2007; Ishikawa, 2004). Goodwin-Jones (2010) specifically points out how software which features spaced repetition of items can help a learner to better commit information to long-term memory. An even more advanced method would be software which utilizes an *Leitner* algorithm to determine which items are studied next. With such an algorithm, not only is time considered (as is with spaced repetition), but also the difficulty of the item because the *Leitner* algorithm enables a user to mark an item as something that they know or don't know. When users mark items in such a way, the algorithm takes that into consideration when it calculates which item is to come next. Thus, learners are exposed to more difficult items more often and therefore get the extra exposure needed to master such items. Rogers and Reid (2015) found that studying chunks with a smartphone app that featured such an algorithm resulted in an average score of 57 percent, while when learners studied the same amount of similar chunks but on paper, the average score was only 41 percent.

Therefore, a smartphone app series was developed to make the chunk resource available to learners in. A customized version of the app *Flashcards Deluxe* was created, an app which has over 100,000 pay downloads and has been listed as an iTunes Store bestseller. It not only features a unique and advanced Leitner algorithm, but new features were also added to it, such as the ability to take quizzes and to submit them online and teachers can also able to see how many minutes students are studying with the apps for. The approximately 11,000 chunks were released in an app called 英語マスター1 万 (English Master 10,000) (Rogers, et al., 2015) and the approximately 3,000 chunks that differ with Japanese learners L1 was released as an app called 英語マスター3 千 (English Master 3,000) (Rogers, et al., 2016) for iOS and Android smartphones and tablets.

Summary

In conclusion, this study discussed the importance of collocational fluency and the reasons why students lack such knowledge and why no large-scale resources are available. Then it discussed the rationale for and results of a number of steps that were taken to create such a resource. Finally, a description of a smartphone app that students can use to study these items with was given. Although much more research still needs to be done in regard to helping students attain collocational fluency, this study can still be regarded as a significant step in addressing this gap in the research and it is hoped that students and researchers alike can use it to help improve upon the efficacy of second language acquisition.

References

Anthony, L. (2011). *AntConc* (*Version 3.2.2*) [Computer Software]. Tokyo, Japan: Waseda University, Retrieved from http://www.antlab.sci.waseda.ac.jp/

Anthony, L. (2013). *AntWordPairs* (*Version 1.0.2*) [Computer Software]. Tokyo, Japan: Waseda University, Available on request.

Burston, J. (2007). CALICO software review: WordChamp. *CALICO Journal*, *24*(2*), 473-486.*

Cheng, W., Greaves, C., & Warren, M. (2006). From n-gram to skipgram to concgram. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics, 11*(4), *411-433.*

Cowie, A. (Ed.) (1998). *Phraseology: theory, analysis, and applications.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Davies, M. (2008). *The Corpus of Contemporary American English: 425 million words, 1990-Present*. Retrieved from at http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/

DeCock, S., Granger, S., Leech, G. and McEnery, T. (1998). An automated approach to the phrasicon of EFL learners. In S. Granger (Ed.), *Learner English on computer* (pp.67-79). London and New York: Longman.

Durrant, P., & Schmitt, N. (2009). To what extent do native and non-native writers make use of collocations? *International Review of Applied Linguistics, 47*, *157-177.*

Gitsaki, C. (1996). *The development of ESL collocational knowledge* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia.

Goodwin-Jones, R. (2010). Emerging technologies. From memory palaces to spacing algorithms: Approaches to second-language vocabulary learning. *Language Learning and Technology, 14*(2), *4-11.*

Hoey, M. (2005). *Lexical priming: A new theory of words and language.* London: Routedge.

Hill, J. (2000). Revising priorities: from grammatical failure to collocational success. In M. Lewis (Ed.), *Teaching collocation: Further developments in the lexical approach* (pp. 47-67). Hove, England: Language Teaching Publications.

Ishikawa, S. (2004). Vocabulary instruction at college level using JACET 8000 and educational software. In JACET Basic Words Revision Committee (Ed.), *How to make the best of JACET 8000: For educational and research application* (pp. 7- 14). Tokyo: JACET.

Kallkvist, M. (1998). Lexical infelicity in English: the case of nouns and verbs. In K.

Haastrup and A. Viberg (Eds.), *Perspectives on lexical acquisition in a second language* (pp. 149-174). Lund: Lund University Press.

Lewis, M. (2000). Language in the lexical approach. In M. Lewis (Ed.), *Teaching collocation: Further developments in the lexical approach* (pp. 8-10). Hove, England: Language Teaching Publications.

Martinez, R., & Schmitt, N. (2012). A phrasal expressions list. *Applied Linguistics 33(3), 299-320.*

Nation, P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nesselhauf, N. (2005). *Collocations in a learner corpus.* Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Rogers, J. (2017). *What are the collocational exemplars of high-frequency English vocabulary?On identifying MWUs most representative of high-frequency, lemmatized concgrams.* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Southern Queensland, Australia.

Rogers, J., Brizzard, C., Daulton, F., Florescu, C., MacLean, I., Mimura, K., … Shimada, Y. (2015). 英語マスター1 万 [English Master 10,000] (Version 1.0) [Mobile application software]. Retrieved from http://itunes.apple.com

Rogers, J., Brizzard, C., Daulton, F., Florescu, C., MacLean, I., Mimura, K., … Shimada, Y. (2016). 英語マスター3 千 [English Master 3,000] (Version 1.0) [Mobile application software]. Retrieved from http://itunes.apple.com

Rogers, J., & Reid, G. (2015). How effective are smartphone flashcard applications for learning a second language? *The IRI 1st Research Forum, 24-33.*

Schmitt, N. (1997). Vocabulary learning strategies. In N. Schmitt and M. McCarthy (Eds). *Vocabulary: Description, Acquisition and pedagogy* (pp. 199-227). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Simpson-Vlach, R., & Ellis, N. (2010). An academic formulas list: New methods in phraseology research. *Applied Linguistics 31(4), 487-512.*

Wray, A. (2002). *Formulaic language and the lexicon.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Contact email: jrogers@meijo-u.ac.jp

iafor

Facilitating Language Use and Communication in ESL/EFL Classrooms through Game-Based Learning

Tamara Galoyan, Drexel University, United States
Mamta Shah, Drexel University, United States
Aroutis Foster, Drexel University, United States

The IAFOR International Conference on Language Learning – Hawaii 2017
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Researchers and educational advocates have been documenting the positive impact of video games on language learning (Gee, 2003; Peterson, 2010; Zheng, 2006). However, despite the potential benefits of using games for language learning, there is still limited research on the specific pedagogical approaches used to incorporate game-based learning into the regular course curriculum (Young et al., 2012).
This paper introduces the Game Network Analysis (GaNA) (Foster, Shah, & Duvall, 2015) framework in the context of language learning. GaNA is a combination of frameworks that allows teachers to implement game-based learning for achieving specific curricular goals through a systematic approach that involves game analysis, game integration, and consideration for conditions within the teachers' context that would impact the success of facilitating learning with games (Shah & Foster, 2015). The paper argues for the benefits of video games to enhance language use and communication in ESL/EFL classrooms using theories of second language acquisition (SLA), namely sociocultural SLA (Vygotsky, 1978), and situated learning (Greeno, Collins & Resnick , 1996).
The paper demonstrates the application of GaNA in a sample lesson plan focusing on the incorporation of the online version of the classic Monopoly game to teach new vocabulary and improve English language learners' communicative skills. The paper concludes with recommendations for EFL and ESL researchers and educators who are interested in examining and using games for language learning.

Keywords: GaNA, game-based learning, language learning; communication; situated learning; second language acquisition.

Introduction

In today's digitalized world, it is not surprising that an increasing number of educators and researchers have been expressing interest in using games for educational purposes (Peterson, 2010) in general, and language learning (Godwin-Jones, 2014; Zheng, Young, Wagner, & Brewer, 2009), in particular. Previous studies, focusing on games for learning, have demonstrated the positive impact of educational games on a variety of learning outcomes, such as increased motivation, engagement, and mastery of content-related knowledge and skills (Oxarart, Weaver, Al-Bataineh, & Al Bataineh, 2014; Robertson & Howells, 2008).

Well-designed educational games can target players' immediate needs and interests, as well as enhance student interaction to help them achieve instructional goals (Franzwa, Tang, Johnson, & Bielefeldt, 2015). Furthermore, game can help students comprehend disciplinary concepts and acquire 21st century skills by embedding their experiences in a contextualized learning environment (Oxarart, et al., 2014; Franzwa et al., 2015). For instance, Young et al. (2012) conducted meta-analysis of the affordances of video games for learning academic content, including language learning. They concluded that well-designed educational games, combined with appropriate instructional strategies, can help learners achieve greater success in learning content than the traditional curricula, which often present content as a set of isolated facts.

Despite all the documented positive outcomes of games-based learning, there is still limited research on the mediating processes by which gaming affects different learning outcomes (Young et al., 2012). Moreover, as noted by Godwin-Jones (2014), there is a need for developing specific practical solutions that could help to overcome pedagogical obstacles and facilitate effective adoption of video games for learning.

This paper addresses this issue by introducing the Game Network Analysis (GaNA) framework (Foster, 2012) as a methodological tool for facilitating integration of games into regular course curricula. More specifically, the GaNA framework is discussed in the context of language learning with games, followed by its application in designing a sample lesson plan for an EFL class.

Language Learning and Games

Historically, both language learning and games have been viewed as tools for enculturation (Vygotsky, 1978). Young et al. (2012) indicated that unlike many other school subjects, language learning is inherently social and the pedagogical approaches to teaching a language should be linked to socially contextualized scenarios, such as dialogues and role plays. Thus, the most powerful way of learning a language is by immersing oneself in a culture where the target language is constantly used for the purposes of interaction, negotiation of meaning, and socialization. With this in mind, games and language learning need to be analyzed as context-specific phenomena, with the application of the perspectives of embodied cognition (Gibbs, 2006),

sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978), and situated learning (Greeno, Collins, & Resnick, 1996).

The concept of embodied cognition links thinking to our body, whether it be real or virtual (Gibbs, 2006; Goodwin, 2000). For instance, Clinton (2006) studied the process of embodiment through video game play and showed how players adopt virtual character's moves by experiencing control over the character's actions. Similarly, Dewey (1910) argued that the main goal of language is to coordinate action since most thought is embodied in action. Cowley (2007) extended this idea by arguing that language is embodied in human activities and behaviors triggered by co-action. In this view, language is both an individual and social learning product

Similarly, the sociocultural theory describes learning as a process of interaction between the learner and the surrounding environment in which learning takes place (van Lier, 2004). According to sociocultural approaches to language learning, language acquisition cannot be explained without understanding how it is integrated into socially mediated words (Atkinson, 2002). Language is reflected in sociocultural behavior, both resulting from and creating context and structure (Zheng et al., 2006).

Sociocultural approaches to second language acquisition are often linked to Vygotsky's (1978) ideas of human development and scaffolding between experts and novices. Vygotsky conceptualized human development as a process of transforming and internalizing socially shared activities. He introduced the concept of the zone of proximal development to explain how social and participatory learning takes place. The zone of proximal development was described as "the distance between the actual development level and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86).

Drawing upon Vygotsky's ideas of learning through social interaction, Brown and colleagues (1993) designed and implemented an educational program focusing on learners as active agents within the zone of proximal development. They analyzed the participants' roles in conjunction with various tools and symbols involved in the learning process. This and subsequent research emphasized the role of divergent classrooms in shaping learning communities in which each participant can make an important contribution to the common knowledge building.

Other related research supports the idea that linguistic and cognitive mastery are based on relationships between individuals (John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996). Young and colleagues (2012) noted that through video games, players immerse in a social environment where learning the language is necessary for survival and success within the game. Thus, successful foreign language teaching methodology should encourage learners to socialize and participate in cultural practices of the target language (Krashen, 1991).

Based on sociocultural views, Ragoff (1994) conceptualized learning as a result of the learner's participation in a community of practice. Such communities can often be

formed around games and play. For instance, Vygotsky (1978) emphasized the importance of games and play in developing children's abstract imaginative thinking, as well as achieving goals they could not achieve in real life. Moreover, games can often provide communities of players with a social platform defined by social norms that are associated with the target language and guide players' actions within the gameplay (Rankin, Gold, & Gooch, 2006). Zheng and colleagues (2009) showed that virtual environments provide multiple opportunities for language learning and teaching through repeated practice, feedback, scaffolding, interaction and socialization in a meaningful context. These are crucial elements both for language development and sustaining the community of practice where players practice the target language by engaging in the community discourse (Lave & Wenger, 1991). In these communities the main aspects of participation, such as agency, accountability, authority, are distributed among participants in their interaction with each other and the immediate environment (Greeno, 2006). Such communities can help learners gain proficiency in the target language while communicating with each other as well as native speakers. Thus, video games have the potential of closing the gap between foreign language learning in a traditional classroom setting and interaction with native speakers (Schwienhorst, 2002).

A study conducted by Kuppens (2010) with 374 sixth-grade learners in Netherlands showed that there were statistically significant gains in the use of English grammar by students who watched TV or played video games as compared to those who were not involved in those activities. Similarly, in a meta-analysis of research on video games for language learning, Peterson (2010) outlined the affordances of video games, such as *Active Worlds*, *The Sims*, and *WoW,* for creating learner-centered environments with opportunities for experiential learning, collaborative forums for negotiating meaning, as well as engaging contexts for learning.

Unfortunately, despite all the affordances of games for language learning, there still remains a gap between theoretical implications of game-based language learning and specific pedagogical solutions that could help educators effectively integrate games in their language classes. Some of these obstacles include aiding instructors in choosing the right game, finding the opportunities for language learning in a gameplay, as well as integrating gameplay and its related activities into the curriculum (Godwin-Jones, 2014).

The GaNA Framework

Game Network Analysis (GaNA) was developed as a methodological process for game-based learning (Foster, 2012). Specifically, GaNA is a combination of analytical and pedagogical frameworks developed to aid teachers, researchers and designers in adopting game-based learning in their context with an emphasis on game analysis and game integration. GaNA includes the Play Curricular activity, Reflection Discussion (PCaRD) model for game-based learning, the inquiry, communication, construction, and expression (ICCE) framework, and the ecological conditions impacting the integration of games in formal and informal learning contexts (see Foster, Shah, & Duvall, 2015 for more information.)

The framework includes a focus on the pedagogy and content of games as well as the process for employing game-based learning in classrooms in a given context (Shah & Foster 2015). In the process of adopting GaNA, teachers first select and analyze games as curriculum with constraints and affordances for technology, pedagogy, and content (Foster, 2012). Once necessary knowledge of the game is obtained, teachers design a curricular theme, a unit or a course by designing play (P) experiences, curricular activities (Ca), reflection (R) and discussion (D) (PCaRD) opportunities (PCaRD). These experiences are anchored in the game and designed to allow for students to *inquire* (I) into the curricular concepts, *communicate* (C) with teachers, peers, and in-game features (if applicable) to build their knowledge further, *construct* (C) models to demonstrate their understanding, and *express* (E) (ICCE) themselves affectively. The teacher makes conscious decisions about game analysis and game integration by considering the technological, pedagogical, and social conditions that would impact the successful implementation of the game-based learning curriculum (Shah & Foster, 2014).

Application of GaNA in the Context of Language Learning

The GaNA framework was applied to design a sample lesson plan (see Table 1) for game-based learning in an EFL classroom. The main objective of the lesson was to teach business-related vocabulary and concepts, while create opportunities for collaboration, learner engagement, and communication in the target language. An online version of the classic Monopoly game was chosen for this purpose.

Content, Technology, and Pedagogy

Monopoly is a real-estate board game reflecting the contexts of economy and business. The main goal of the game is to purchase property and to remain financially solvent while trying to make the opponents go bankrupt. The game content provides a meaningful and authentic context for language students to learn business-related words and concepts (Table 1) and to practice them in group discussions and negotiations. For instance, examples form the game play may be used to teach abstract business vocabulary, such as *bankruptcy, luxury tax, real estate, liability,* which, otherwise, would often be hard to teach in a language class. Shanklin and Ehlen (2011) support this view by indicating that Monopoly allows for simple representation of concepts and makes it easier for learners to grasp the difference between certain economic and business definitions of terms.

The online version of the classic Monopoly board game can be accessed through multiple platforms, including phones and computers. This feature makes the game accessible to a large number of students at the same time. The online version of the game used for creating this lesson plan can be played with both human and computer opponents, which can make it easier for teachers to form player groups. For example, a group may consist of two human and two computer players.

From the pedagogical perceptive, the Monopoly game provides the teacher with an opportunity to create curricular activities which are based on meaningful *inquiry,*

communication, construction, and *expression* (ICCE). It is known, that the process of inquiry is iterative, involving problem generation and problem solution and should be enhanced through guided discovery-based learning (Mayer, 2004). Through Monopoly game play, the teacher can situate and facilitate learners' inquiry and communication processes in the contexts of business and economy. For instance, while mastering the rules of the game, players are engaged in an inquiry process involving discovery of essential business-related concepts, financial principles, and strategies that may be needed to succeed in the game play as well as other related real-world business contexts. These includes learning how to trade real estate, how to negotiate for win-win deals, and how to manage your assets to avoid or delay bankruptcy. In addition, all these negotiation and problem solving activities allow learners to actively communicate and exchange ideas in the target language.

A possible limitation of the game is that it may not provide learners with enough opportunities to intentionally reflect on their game experience and make explicit connections across the game play, the learning goals, and the real-world context. This constraint can be overcome by implementing the PCaRD model that can help instructors design anchored learning activities to enhance learner's abilities to transfer their game experiences to other pedagogical and personal contexts (Foster & Shah, 2015). The follow-up curricular activities in the sample lesson plan, involving poster creation, presentation, reflection, and discussion, were designed based on the PCaRD model, allowing learners to actively reflect on their experiences within the game play and make meaningful connections across contexts. These activities incorporate the components of *construction* and *expression* of the ICCE framework where learners are engaged in active knowledge building, as well as sharing their emotions, values, and ideas related to the game and follow-up activities.

Table 1
Sample Lesson Plan

Sample Lesson Plan **Monopoly Game-Based Language Learning**
General Information • Level of English: Intermediate • Age: High-School • Course: English for General Purposes • Duration: 1 hour 35 min. • Game Used: Monopoly (online version) • Link to the game: http://www.pogo.com/games/monopoly

Goals

- Teach business-related vocabulary in English
- Engage students in interactive curricular activities based on PCaRD and ICCE
- Help students practice and acquire 21st century knowledge and skills, such as problem solving, critical thinking, collaboration, communication, strategic thinking, and effective negotiation
- Enhance in-class communication and interaction in English.

Learning Outcomes

- Use business-related English vocabulary in meaningful conversations
- Practice problem solving, critical thinking, collaboration skills, strategic thinking, and negotiation skills to communicate with peers and play the game effectively
- Make relevant connections between the game, classroom activities, and their lives

Anticipated Problems

- Some students might not be familiar with the game and need additional support from their peers and the teacher.
- Some technical problems might occur while playing the game online.

Activity	Procedure	Objectives	Time
Introduction	• Introduce the topic of the lesson and the game. • Distribute handouts with the rules of the game and discuss them with the students.	• To scaffold the learners into the following curricular activities.	10 min.

Vocabulary teaching	• Pre-teach some essential vocabulary from Monopoly. • *Vocabulary from Monopoly* • *Monopoly* • *Property* • *Mortgage* • *Bankruptcy* • *Liability* • *Own, owner, ownership* • *Auction off* • *Income tax* • *Luxury tax* • *Jail* • *Real estate* • *Community*	• To activate the learners' schema. • To provide them with the necessary vocabulary for in-game communication and interaction and follow-up reflection and discussion activities.	10 min.
Play (**P**CaRD)	• Provide each group with a computer or ask them to use their mobile phones. • Give the necessary instructions on how to access the game online. • Get the students to play the game in groups of three or four (alternatively, they can play with a virtual opponent).	• To make students play the game collaboratively to engage them in **Inquiry** and **communication** (**IC**CE). • To engage them in **discussions** (PCaR**D**) where they can practice the target language and the game strategies.	60 min.

Curricular Activity and Reflection (P**C**a**R**D) **Creating and presenting a poster**	• Split the students into groups of 3-4. • Provide the students with poster paper and markers. • Give instructions on how to create and present a poster sharing their experience with the game. <u>*Sample questions to be used as prompts:*</u> - *What business-related concepts and strategies did you learn from the game?* - *What were the challenges when playing the game?* - *How is the game related to your future jobs or life? Bring some examples.* - *What did you mostly like/dislike about the game?* - *Would you behave differently in real life?*	• To provide an opportunity for **construction** and **expression (**IC**C**E**).** • To get the students to actively **reflect** (PCa**R**D) on their experiences with the game and make them make meaningful connections between the game play, curricular activities, and their personal lives.	15 min.

Anecdotal Findings

This lesson plan was implemented in an English language class with eight high-school students in Yerevan, the capital city of the Republic of Armenia. For all the participants, English was a foreign language, and their English language proficiency level ranged from pre-intermediate to intermediate.

Based on the teacher's observations, in-class discussions, and informal interviews with the participants after class, all the students enjoyed playing the game. The

teacher reported that the students were engaged in active discussion and negotiation in the target language during the game play. In addition, the follow-up activities provided ample opportunities for practicing the target vocabulary in meaningful discussion and reflection.

Conclusion

The GaNA framework was used to analyze the content of the Monopoly game along with its pedagogical and technological aspects, revealing a number of affordances for ICCE and PCaRD in the EFL context. The analysis allowed for the creation of a sample game-based lesson plan that can be used by EFL/ESL instructors to integrate game-based learning in their classes.

Both the game play and the follow-up activities designed based on the PCaRD model have the potential of enhancing students' communicative and problem solving skills while situating their learning in a relevant context. In these activities, English languages can become a necessary tool to master the game content and strategies, to engage in meaningful inquiry, active discussion and reflection within and beyond the game play.

These experiences reflect some of the core ideas in the theories of sociocultural SLA (Vygotsky, 1978), and situated learning (Greeno et al.,1996). Various forms of learner communication during and after the game can be linked to Vygotsky's (1978) conceptualization of learning as participation in social interaction. The Monopoly game has affordances for language learning through situating learner interaction and socialization in a business context defined by social norms and rules that guide players' actions.

Researchers and educators could adopt the GaNA framework to reveal the affordances and constraints of other games for language learning. A similar lesson plan incorporating the elements of the ICCE framework and the PCaRD model, can be designed and implemented by EFL instructors to allow for systematic and step-by-step integration of game-based learning to meet the desired learning objectives.

References

Atkinson, D. (2002). Toward a Sociocognitive approach to second language acquisition. *The Modern Language Journal*, *86*(4), 525-545.

Brown, A. L., Ash, D., Rutherford, M., Nakagawa, K., Gordon, A., & Campione, J. C. (1993). Distributed expertise in the classroom. Teoksessa G. Salomon (toim.) Distributed cognitions: Psychological and educational considerations (pp. 188–228).

linton, K. A. (2006). *Being-in-the-digital-world: How videogames engage our pre-linguistic sense-making abilities* (pp. 1-236).

Cowley, S. J. (2007). The cognitive dynamics of distributed language.

Dewey, J. (1910). How we think. Boston. *MA: DC Heath*.

Foster, A., Shah, M., & Duvall, M. (2015). Game Network Analysis: A methodological framework for teaching with video games. In M.L. Niess & H. Gillow-Wiles (Eds.) *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education in the Digital Age*

Foster, A. & Shah, M. (2015). The play curricular activity reflection and discussion model for game-based learning. *Journal of Research on Technology in Education, 47*(2), 71-88.

Foster, A. & Shah, M. (2015b). The ICCE framework: Framing learning experiences afforded by games. *Journal of Educational Computing Research, 51*(4), 369-395.

Foster, A. (2012). Assessing learning games for school content: Framework and methodology. In D. Ifenthaler, D. Eseryel & X. Ge (Eds.), *Assessment in Game-based Learning: Foundations, Innovations, and Perspectives*. New York: Springer.

Foster, A., Mishra, P., & Koehler, M. (2011). Digital game analysis: Using the Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge framework to determine the affordances of a game for learning. In M. Khine (Ed.), *Learning to Play: Exploring the Future of Education with Video Games*. New York: Peter Lang Publications.

Franzwa, C., Tang, Y., Johnson, A., & Bielefeldt, T. (2015). Balancing Fun and Learning in a Serious Game Design. *Gamification: Concepts, Methodologies, Tools, and Applications: Concepts, Methodologies, Tools, and Applications*, 452.

Gee, J. P. (2003). What video games have to teach us about learning and literacy. *Computers in Entertainment (CIE)*, *1*(1), 20-20.

Gibbs, R. W. (2006). *Embodiment and cognitive science*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Goodwin, C. (2000). Action and embodiment within situated human interaction. *Journal of pragmatics*, *32*(10), 1489-1522.

Godwin-Jones, R. (2014). Emerging technologies games in language learning: Opportunities and challenges. *Language Learning & Technology*, *18*(2), 9-19.

Greeno, James G. *Learning in activity*. na, 2006.

Greeno, J. G., Collins, A. M., & Resnick, L. B. (1996). Cognition and learning. *Handbook of educational psychology*, *77*, 15-46.

Inal, Y., & Cagiltay, K. (2007). Flow experiences of children in an interactive social game environment. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, *38*(3), 455-464.

John-Steiner, V., & Mahn, H. (1996). Sociocultural approaches to learning and development: A Vygotskian framework. *Educational psychologist*, *31*(3-4), 191-206.

Kuppens, A. H. (2010). Incidental foreign language acquisition from media exposure. *Learning, Media and Technology*, *35*(1), 65-85.

Kuppens, A. H. (2010). Incidental foreign language acquisition from media exposure. *Learning, Media and Technology*, *35*(1), 65-85.

Krashen, S. D. (1991). Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Leraning. Pergamon Press.

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge university press.

Oxarart, A., Weaver, J., Al-Bataineh, A., & Al Bataineh, M. T. (2014). Game Design and Motivation. *International Journal of Arts & Sciences*, *7*(2), 347.

Peterson, M. (2010). Massively multiplayer online role-playing games as arenas for second language learning. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, *23*(5), 429-439.

Rankin, Y. A., Gold, R., & Gooch, B. (2006, September). 3D role-playing games as language learning tools. In *Eurographics (Education Papers)* (pp. 33-38).

Robertson, J., & Howells, C. (2008). Computer game design: Opportunities for successful learning. *Computers & Education*, *50*(2), 559-578.

Rogoff, B. (1994). Developing understanding of the idea of communities of learners. *Mind, culture, and activity*, *1*(4), 209-229.

Schwienhorst, K., 2002. Why virtual, Why environments. Implementing vs concepts in call. Simulations and Gaming. 33 (2). 196-209.

Shah, M. & Foster, A. (2015). Developing and assessing teachers' knowledge of game-based learning. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education, 23*(2), 241-267. Chesapeake, VA: Society for Information Technology & Teacher Education.

Shah, M. & Foster, A. (2014). Undertaking an ecological approach to advance game-based learning: A case study. Special issue on game-based learning for 21st century transferable skills: Challenges and opportunities. *Journal of Educational Technology and Society, 17*(1), 29-41

Shanklin, S. B., & Ehlen, C. R. (2011). Using The Monopoly Board Game As An Efficient Tool In Introductory Financial Accounting Instruction. *Journal of Business Case Studies (JBCS)*, *3*(3), 17-22.

Van Lier, L. (2004). The Ecology and Semiotics of Language Learning: A socio-cultural approach.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). Mind in society: The development of higher mental process.

Young, M. F., Slota, S., Cutter, A. B., Jalette, G., Mullin, G., Lai, B., ... & Yukhymenko, M. (2012). Our princess is in another castle a review of trends in serious gaming for education. *Review of educational research*, *82*(1), 61-89.

Zheng, D. (2006). Affordances of 3D virtual environments for English language learning: An ecological psychological analysis. *Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Connecticut, Storrs, CT*.

Zheng, D., Young, M. F., Wagner, M., & Brewer, R. A. (2009). Negotiation for Action: English Language Learning in Game Based Virtual Worlds. *The Modern Language Journal*, *93*(4), 489-511.

Contact email: toma.galoyan@gmail.com

iafor

Intensive English Program for Future Engineering Students: An Action Research

Gloria Chen, Indiana Tech, United States

The IAFOR International Conference on Language Learning – Hawaii 2017
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
A large portion of international students studying in the USA take pre-college or pre-graduate school intensive English courses to improve their English skills in order to fulfill the language requirement of the universities. While most intensive English programs offer courses that address skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, etc. for students' academic enrichment, not all the programs put the preparation for students' future major or concentration of studies in their curriculum. The college where the author teaches, an institution of technology, enrolls a great number of non-English speaking international students who are conditionally accepted to engineering programs pending the satisfactory English proficiency. With students' need of "English for Engineering Courses" in mind, the Intensive English program faculty have incorporated 'English for Future Engineering Students" in the curriculum. The curriculum includes a review of Math, terminology of technology, critical thinking, basic technical writing, research skills, proposal writing, writing for journals, and oral presentation for conferences, etc. The learning outcomes have proved this curriculum is effective and helpful for students who eventual enter and stay in the engineering programs. This paper presents the highlight of the four-semester long action research and prospective amendments.

iafor
The International Academic Forum
www.iafor.org

Introduction

English has been the world's predominating language of science, engineering, technology, and other disciplines of scholarship. As Altbach (2004) points out, English is used to communicate knowledge worldwide, to instruct (even in countries where English is not the language of higher education), and to implement cross-border degree programs. Higher education worldwide must grapple with the consequences of the dominance of English as a factor in globalization. The English Proficiency is one of the first steps taken by students who come from countries where English is not a major language. The English Proficiency Requirement (EPR) is used by colleges and graduate schools to evaluate the English language proficiency of students whose native language is not English and who want to enroll in colleges or graduate schools. Each college has different EPR; students who provide sufficient language test scores they are usually accepted as domestic students; however, in case their English test scores are not high enough, they will be required to take supplementary English courses. These courses can be affiliated to the college, or offered by independent language schools. In addition, many students take these pre-college English courses voluntarily before applying for college or graduate school programs.

Since engineering is a growing field with great career prospects both in the U.S. and overseas, and English has become the major language used in the engineering and science fields, the number of students who pursue engineering degrees in the USA has increased rapidly in the past decades. According to studies released by the Pew Research Center (www.pewresearch.org), international students make up more than half of science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) advanced degrees earned at American colleges and universities. Foreign students at U.S. colleges are more concentrated in STEM fields than U.S. college students as a whole. Among foreign students at all academic levels, business was the most popular field of study in 2013-2014 (188,179). But the next-most-popular fields were engineering (160,128) and computer and information sciences (65,291). The college where the research is teaching is a medium-size technology institution located Midwest with around 2,000 students, among which there are around 300 hundred international students studying in various engineering programs. This action research is conducted in the Intensive English Program offered to 119 in four consecutive semesters to international students who need more English in preparation for engineering core courses. Each semester offer 20 hours of language training per week, and field trips and other extra-curricular activities are either included in or added to the class hours. This course is an echo and confirmation to the claim of Riemer (2002) that "a course in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) will enhance English language training and an engineering student's communication skills. It will also aid in the globalization of education and the internationalization of practicing engineers."

Objectives of Research

This research is designed to answer the following research questions so to offer relevant curriculum to the students as well as modify and improve the existing courses:

--Who are the students and what do they think they need according to questionnaires and interviews?

--According to faculty's observation and assessment, what skills can be implemented to the program?

--What are the students' attitudes toward the program and how to make adjustment to the program to meet students' need?

--What are some extra-curricular activities the program can offer to students to enhance their learning?

Method

This research gathers data from questionnaires, interviews, assessments, and observations over the entire semester. Questionnaires and interviews were given to students and instructors as well as administrators who are involved in this program before, during, and after the program. The assessments are conducted by the instructors to all students in the beginning and at the end of the semester. The observations, which are done formally by the instructors in class or informally through students' activities, are recorded frequently.

Results of Preparation

The results of the preparation for this action research are listed along with the research questions listed in the Objectives of Research:

- From students' perspective, who are the students and what do they think they need according to questionnaires and interviews?

    --They are English learners; therefore, they need skills in all aspects of the English language: reading, writing, listening, grammar, two-way communication, American culture, special culture in the American industry, special culture in the American college, etc.
    --They are engineering students; therefore, they need study skills of college courses, especially math, science, and engineering courses.
    -- They are future engineers; therefore, they are interested in finding more up-to-date information and obtain more knowledge in the technology fields.

- From instructors and administrators' perspective, what skills can be implemented to the English for engineering student program?

Four areas are explored:

--Intercultural Competence: Most international students strongly feel they should learn the American culture; as much as the program work on teaching the students American culture such as sports, music, art, holidays, festivals, ethics, etc., students are encouraged to understand the cultures of their international peers and take ownership of their own cultures and freely share and communicate with one another on the topics of cultures. We instilled in students' understanding that each culture is valuable, and one should feel proud of his/her cultural background and be acceptant to others' cultures. Therefore, the intercultural competence is an important part of this program.

--Abstract Concept in English: According to The American Engineers' Council for Professional Development, engineering is a unique and creative way of using science and math to design and operate a variety of different structures, machines, and processes. For an engineering students, it is easier to exercise these thinking skills in his/her own native language; however, once he/she switch the "thinking language" into English, he/she feels handicapped. Therefore, students are encouraged to make think the abstract or complicated matters in English and learn to express it orally or in writing.

--Critical Thinking Skills: Many students lack independent and creative thinking skills due to their education backgrounds. Therefore, students are encouraged to "think outside the box" of the information they receive from the instructor, textbooks, the Internet, or other sources. Using "critical thinking skills" can sharpen up their productivity. Students also learn how to determine "information filters" in order to find and receive information that is correct, relevant, and not "false news."

--Other academic skills including understanding of academic integrity, format of engineering papers (IEEE concentration), cause and effect analysis and explanation, analysis for comparison and contrast, graphics, etc. The academic integrity is particular stressed since some students are not aware of the seriousness of plagiarism in the academic work. A variety of patterns of essays are introduced to students to help them develop the range of their writing and oral presentation.

- What are the students' attitudes toward the program and how to make adjustment to the program to meet students' need?

--Toward English: Most students have more receptive skills (reading and listening) than productive skills (writing and speaking), but a great number of students have problems understanding native English speakers due to speed and regional accent. They may feel frustrated when they are not able to understand their instructors or interlocuters, and when their ideas are not understood or are not able to make smooth communication with their

instructors or other interlocutors. Being future engineering students, they expect themselves to be "smart" and "efficient," so they may feel anxious about their progress in English, as their major goal in coming to the USA are obtaining an engineering degree, not becoming an English scholar; sometimes they feel the training of the intensive English is a "waste of time and money," though in reality they cannot skip or expedite the process of learning and getting used to the new language and the environments. The instructors may encourage them to be patient to themselves and keep a learning log or journal to record and track their own progress.

--Toward Academic Readiness for College: The Intensive English Program incorporates the review of math and science, logical/critical thinking, trouble shooting, team work in project based learning, conducting discussions or group meetings, etc., so students establish for themselves a community of "engineering," getting ready to enter the engineering program in the following semesters. For effective communication, we emphasized on the following skills in both speaking and writing: definition and explanation of scientific/technological terms, description of special order, description and explanation of process of completing a task, examining a work and pointing out its characteristics, etc.

- What extracurricular activities can we offer to these students?

--Visiting industries/factories and observing work/projects in the field. In order for students to understand what a real engineering environment is like, it is helpful to visit work sites. Contacting local industries and companies and making requests for visiting will benefit the students.

--Interview skills: The interviewing skills can include, but are not limited to, job interview skills. Students are also encouraged, sometimes required, to interview fellow students or senior engineering students, and anyone they meet who are interested to be interviewed. Students design interview questions and report in class the process and contents of their interviews.

--Listening to guest speakers and other speeches. The Intensive English Program may invite guest speakers to class to share their learning and working experiences in various settings. Since the Intensive English program is a college-based program, students are eligible to participate in all the college activities, including all the sports, concerts, academic forums and conferences. Students should be encouraged to attend as many of these events as possible, either directly related to their studies or not, and learn to associate with fellow participants to build up social skills and practicing communication skills outside of classrooms.

--Internship opportunities and OPT training: Since some of the students will consider working in the USA to gain some real-world experiences, they will have to be familiar with the policy and regulation about OPT (Optional

Practical Training). International students in the U.S. in valid F-1 immigration status are permitted to work off-campus in optional practical training (OPT) status both during and after completion of their degree. Rules established by the U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Service (USCIS) govern the implementation of OPT, and all OPT employment requires prior authorization from USCIS and from your school's International Student Office. These policies should be incorporated in the extracurricular sessions so students can prepare for the application and comply with the regulations.

Action Research Launched Taken

After collecting the necessary information form the participants, including students, instructors, and administers, a class named "College Skills" is created to meet the specific goal and need.

1. Rationale:

The goal of the course College Skills in the Intensive English Program is for international students who are currently taking English courses at the Intensive English Program to prepare to take the courses elated to their future majors in the Engineering program. Students are expected to obtain the basic information, knowledge, and skills outlined in this course, in addition to the conventional courses of reading and vocabulary, writing and grammar, and listening and speaking that are design for all IEP students regardless of their future majors in college or the graduate school. The focus of this course id on developing the proficiency of English in Engineering Courses.

2. Procedure:

Step One: Design the Course with a Syllabus

The following is a partial syllabus reflecting the objective and the exercise of this course:

Course Description

This course provides extra practice in a variety of language and technology skills to students who are planning to enroll in engineering courses after successfully completing the Intensive English course. Students will employ college resources to navigate the academic environment, and obtain competence with information technology so they will be ready for the challenges of the Engineering courses and beyond. Topics range from systems in the engineering field, explanation of terminology, descriptions and analysis, writing of user's manuals, etc. Field trips to local industries/companies and presentations of guest speakers in the engineering professions will be arranged to help students reach out to the real-world environment, so they will obtain a profound understanding of their future endeavor.

Course Learning Objectives

Upon successful completion of this course, the student will be able to

- Understand the social, cultural, and industrial system in the US
- Apply skills in taking lecture and textbook notes and figure out main ideas, key points, dates, and important information
- Apply skills in summarizing, paraphrasing, analyzing, and memorizing in preparation fir technical writing and communication
- Apply strategies in data collection and preparation for oral presentations on subjects relevant to the pursuit of an engineering degree

Course Learning Outcomes

- Knowledge: Students will understand the range of information necessary for studies in the engineering programs
- Skills: Students will be able to use critical reading and thinking skills to analyze and understand the contents of textbooks in science, math, and engineering, etc.
- Attitudes: Students will be willing to constantly enhance their study skills.

All-Skill Projects

This College Skills course incorporates an all-skill Independent Studies Research Project into the curriculum. With the consultation of instructors, each student will complete four independent studies projects a semester. For each project, the student chooses a topic related to his/her future major in the engineering program, and uses all sources available to discover the answers/solutions to his/her quest. The project is completed with a multimedia portfolio, with texts, graphics, videos, etc., and will be presented orally to the class four times a semester. The portfolios and the presentation will be graded as a major part of the grades. The instructor makes frequent appointments with the student to discuss his/her progress, to find his/her strength and weakness, and to seek ways for improvement and enrichment. Instructors of the engineering programs will be invited to offer support and consultation.

Step Two: Creating Appropriate Text

This is a big challenge to the instructors, since the future majors of the students diverse from industrial engineering to civil engineering, from mechanical engineering to biomedical engineering, although all are in the engineering framework. We are not able to use a “one-size-fits-all” textbook to meet the individual needs of students. After carefully evaluating the students’ needs and their language proficiency, we decide not to adopt a certain textbook in this experimental stage until more textbook options are available; instead, we explore the Internet and find up-to-date information about technology for students to read and analyze. Students are also encouraged to find materials interesting to them

and share them with the instructors. If the instructor see fit, the materials can be utilized or modified for class use. Once in a while, the instructor will borrow textbooks from the campus book store and assign a certain portion for students to read, The text selected can provide ample avenues for exploration and discussion. When the text is used, it is preferred not to be too long or too complicated so the language-learning students can concentrate using the information rather than struggling in finding the meaning.

Step Three: Students Setting Out to Work

The followings are some of the work/projects the students complete:

- Oil Drilling: Many students are pursuing a degree in energy engineering. The reading "Coastal Drilling in Sunny California" by Edward I. Maxwell retrieved from ReadWorks.org provided students with introduction to "slant drilling" as an environmentally safe method of drilling of oil. After reading this piece, students do some more research on different ways of drilling and their pros and cons, and make comparison and contrast on these methods. They also conducted a debate on the clash between energy development and environmental concerns.

- Climate Change: This unit is a part of the Book 3 of students' Intensive English textbook "NorthStar Reading and Writing." Students explore the geopolitical aspect of climate change to make a connection between technology, science and humanities. Students use cause and effect patterns to make connection between climate change and human behaviors, and also debate over the reality and accuracy of these connections. Students then write essays to compare and contrast different theories on climate changes.

- Animal Intelligence: This unit is a part of the Book 4 of students' Intensive English textbook "NorthStar Reading and Writing." This unit focuses on the intelligence of animals and how to evaluate that intelligence. Considering some students are interested in the biomedical engineering field, we use this reading to inspire students to pay more attention to animals. During the study period, students observe and question whether animals are more intelligent than expected. They are also encouraged to observe children's intelligence and write a descriptive essay.

- Powerful Weather Satellite: The reading "Seriously Powerful Weather Satellite Put into Space" retrieved from breakingnewsenglish.com provided students with up-to-date technology information. Students who plan to major in mechanical engineering are highly motivated in finding out the satellite. To make this study more relevant, the students are told actually a major part of this satellite is designed and manufactured in an aerospace company located in the same city where the institution are.

Students are excited to interview and listen to one of the engineers evolved in this project.

- Field trips to local industries/companies: The Intensive English Program, with the help of the campus career center, contact several local industries and companies, including a metal manufacturing company, an electricity company, an automobile manufacturer, and a mechanical company, and take the students to tour the facility, to speak with the employees, and to observe the working procedure and find current practices in a particular field. Some of these companies generously offer "mock job interviews" opportunities to the students and coach them with interview skills and explain to them the HR requirements and policies. In addition, students take trips to museums of automobiles and science museums and have hand-on opportunity to find out how these products are manufactured.

- The capstone project: "My college Major and Its Prospect." Students are divided into small groups of four according to their future majors, such as industrial engineering, mechanical engineering, energy engineering, electrical engineering, and biomedical engineering, and research on the courses they will have to take and complete, along with general education courses and elective courses. They will list the course titles and the course descriptions listed on the university catalogue, collect syllabi from their future professors, and find the learning outcomes of each course. Meanwhile they are encouraged to interview professors and current engineering students of their future majors to fine more information. Also, they will find the possible job choices of their fields, opportunities for advance, and even possible salary and benefits. After a few weeks' research, each small group will compile their findings onto posters or PowerPoint files and give presentations to the entire large group. Students perform peer critique and give explicit and specific comments.

- Summer Internship: Students are encouraged to find internship opportunities locally or out-of-town in the summer to gain real-world experience. These opportunities might not be ample, and due to the visa status, the students who have the internship opportunity may not be paid, but they value the experience more than the monetary reward, and by working with in an English-speaking environment, these interns are able to rapidly improve their English communication skills.

Step Four: Assessment of Students Progress

The assessment is designed to reflect the students' learning outcomes listed on the syllabus. Four tools are used in the assessment: Tool 1 is In-class tests, which tests students' understanding of certain terminology and some basic concepts of science and engineering. For this course, we try not to give students too much pressure in "studying for tests,' so this is the only "summative assessment" we exercise. The other three are formative assessments that are given periodically over the entire

semester: Portfolio, Students' Reflection, and Instructor's Observation. (On a scale of 1-5: 1-beginning; 2-developing; 3-productive; 4-satisfactory; 5-excellent)

Outcomes/Goals	Assessment Tool 1: In-Class Tests	Assessment Tool 2: Portfolio	Assessment Tool 3: Students' Reflection	Assessment Tool 4: Instructor's Observation
understanding the range of information necessary for studies in the engineering programs				
being able to use critical reading and thinking skills to analyze and understand textbooks in science, math, and engineering, etc.				
being willing to constantly enhance their study skills				

According to the assessment results, more than 75% students are able to receive 3 and higher on a scale of 1 to 5 in each category.

Step Five: Improvement Actions

During the semester, the instructors hold meetings and specifically examine each course goal and check the progress of students. In case any student does not reach 3 and higher on a scale of 1 to 5, the following actions are taken:

1. Discussing with students individually and analyze the student's learning style and improvement strategies.
2. Connecting with students in different college majors, classes, and organizations, as well as with senior engineering students, and professors, in order to broaden their resources, so students are better motivated.
3. Practicing using English to ask specific questions about the learning material, and pay close attention to the explanation of the instructor or classmates.

Conclusion and Suggestion for Modification

As Coppola (2011) points out concerning technical communication, "our core competencies are not defined by the end products we produce but by our demonstrable knowledge and skills, and we recognize that technical communication is as much about craft knowledge as codified knowledge, often tacit as well as explicit." English for future Engineering students is a course to enhance students' knowledge and skills in both tacit and explicit ways, both challenging and rewarding. At the end of this course, students are equipped with good communication skills and other soft skills and ready for their college courses. The evaluation of the course is constantly conducted in order to modify the course based on the students' performance and their future needs. The students who have completed this course and entered the engineering programs can be invited back to the Intensive English classes to share their experiences and work with the instructors to discuss the strength and weakness of the course and suggest activities to make the course more effective. Several related textbooks written by experienced instructors have been published in the recent years, and the program can begin to evaluate these resources and consider adopting appropriate textbooks for sequence learning.

References

Altbach, P.G. Tertiary Education and Management (2004) 10: 3. doi:10.1023/B:TEAM.0000012239.55136.4b

Coppola, N. (2011). Professionalization of Technical Communication: Zeitgeist for Our Age Introduction to This Special Issue (Part 1). *Technical Communication, 58*(4), 277-284. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/43092883

Pew Research. http://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2015/06/18/

Riemer, M.J., English and communication skills for the global engineer. Global J. of Engng. Educ., 6, 1, 91-100 (2002).

Developing Spoken Corpora of Non-Native English Teachers to Assist in English Classroom Interactions

Noriaki Katagiri, Hokkaido University of Education, Japan
Yukiko Ohashi, Yamazaki Gakuen University, Japan

Abstract
This case study evaluates the characteristics of classroom speech found in classes taught by non-native elementary school English language instructors in Japan using corpora compiled by the authors. A corpus of spoken language was compiled from the lessons using XML tagging that marked speaker turns, language use, and classroom interaction modes. We then performed quantitative analyses on both L1 and L2 tokens in the corpus transcripts, which revealed that over 60% of utterances of the teachers measured by tokens were done in L2. We further analyzed teacher-student interactions in our corpus using five interaction modes to categorize the non-native English language instructors' L2 classroom discourse, four of which were introduced by Walsh (2006), and one by Ellis (1984). Analyzing the corpus in terms of the five interactional modes, we found several distinctive features. First, we note that explicit grammar-teaching by the teachers non-existent. Second, we noted that students speaking in the L2 in chorus while maintaining discourse with teachers. In the future, we plan to expand the corpus of classroom spoken data to make it large enough to justify inferences about elementary school English classes in Japan and to use video in conjunction with the corpus in teacher training. Developing such video classroom spoken corpora would hopefully assist both preservice and in-service elementally school teachers in their professional training programs, and eventually assist them in conducting English lessons, achieving their pedagogic goals more effectively.

Keywords: Classroom discourse, interactions, spoken corpora, teacher training

1. Introduction

1.1 Background

Enabling English teachers in Japan, who are in most cases non-native speakers of English, to teach communicative English has been a key element in the English education reform plan of Japan's Ministry of Education, Sports, Science, Culture, and Technology (Hereafter, MEXT) proposed in 2013. One of the key concepts in the reform plan includes empowering teachers in elementary school because MEXT regarded the teacher empowerment as "vigorous promotion" for "constructing necessary frameworks for new English education" (MEXT, 2014a). Homeroom teachers (HRTs) at elementary school in Japan have started conducting English activities under the current course of study since 2011 (MEXT, 2010), and for them, conducting English activities in elementary schools caused a significant shock for HRTs because they were not required to learn English teaching methodology to obtain an elementary school teacher license. Thus, in this respect most of the HRTs were novice teachers of English regardless of how many years of teaching experiences they had.

According to the progress report by the MEXT (2014b, p. 18), 67.3% of the HRTs answered that their English ability was inadequate, and 60.8% of them answered preparing for the English language activity was cumbersome. In response, we recognize the need to implement teacher empowerment plans that enable in-service instructors to be better English language instructors. In the same progress report (MEXT, 2014b, p. 19), 74.6% of the HRTs answered that they needed professional development (called *kenshu*) to enable them to share specific classroom activities and to have opportunities to actually experience the sort of activities they want to implement. Moreover, the HRTs seek the skills to conduct English activities as shown in the responses that revealed 51.7% of them needed instructional skills and professional development for English activities (MEXT, 2014b, p. 20).

Thus, there arises a need to design a professional development program in order to empower HRTs to be able to teach English activities better. One of our major concerns is developing such a program. In order to achieve this, we need to select what facets to base our research on to create teacher training programs that enable substantially novice non-native English instructors to conduct English activities and lessons with confidence. To this end, we will first review the literature regarding studies on foreign language classroom discourse, and cite some of the findings that frame our research framework and will pose research questions in the following sections.

1.2 Prior Literature

Our literature review focuses: (a) English language skills and (b) skills for conducting English activities. (and then eliminate the next sentence as well). We will focus on these two perspectives to review the literature. We need to examine what language they use to conduct lessons and how they manage their classroom control in conducting English activities.

There are several ways to examine the language use of HRTs. One of the most common way is to record classes to obtain spoken evidence on video footage or audio file. Spada and Fröhlich (1995) developed a communicative orientation of language teaching (COLT) observation schemes. One of their schemes (COLT Part B) utilized the teacher student interactions found in the transcribed data. The use of spoken transcriptions can be applied to digitized data called language *corpus/corpora*. O'Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter (2007) discussed building classroom corpora to provide data for quantitative and qualitative analysis. They argued that building classroom corpora "can offer a valuable supplement to published training materials" (p. 221). Classroom corpora will provide us quantitative data such as numbers of spoken tokens during the class as well as qualitative data that exist beyond counting numbers of words such as classroom discourse by the teacher and the students. The use of corpora therefore meets our two research purposes.

When we have built a classroom corpus, we will have evidence that will support developing HRT professional development. O'Keeffe and Farr (2003) stated that "by assessing and increasing their awareness of these modes (various modes of talk during the class period), teachers can improve classroom competence (p. 399). "

To classify the different types of talk in the transcript, we build on Walsh (2006)'s treatment of interactional patterns between teachers and students. He identified four interaction patterns, which he named *modes*: (1) *managerial* mode, (2) *classroom context* mode, (3), s*kills and systems* mode, and (4) *materials* mode. We will detail these four modes when we explain the architecture of the classroom spoken corpus (Section 2.2).

> It [*Mode*] is used to embrace the idea that interaction and classroom activity are inextricably linked, and to acknowledge that as the focus of a lesson changes, interaction patterns and pedagogic goals change too. A modes analysis recognizes that understanding and meaning are jointly constructed, but that the prime responsibility for their construction lies with the teacher (Walsh, 2006, p. 63).

However, he explained that there can be interactions that were rather difficult to define. He referred to such ambiguous interaction mode as "deviant cases" where mode switching or mode divergence were observed. Such classroom interactions sounded too ambiguous to be classified into one of the four modes (Walsh, 2006, pp. 82-91).

Ellis (1984) categorized the pedagogical goals of second language teaching into three major goals: framework goals, core goals, and social goals. Among these goals that second language teachers hold, the first two pertains to conducting lessons, and the third goal covers teacher-student interactions that contribute to building good rapport between the teacher and the students.

1.3 Research Questions

Based on the research objectives and review of the literature, we segment our research objectives into two aspects: (1) the quantitative aspect from actual classroom speech observed in interactions and discourse, and (2) the qualitative aspect which molds classroom discourse and is usually planned by the teacher, but (not surprisingly)

forced to change by unexpected interactions and responses not only by the students but also by the teacher. Thus, we pose the following two research questions in order to find out characteristics of these dual-axis structured classroom discourse:

1. What are the language use ratios (between English and Japanese) of homeroom teachers in elementary school EFL English lessons?

2. What kind of classroom interactions do homeroom teachers have in elementary school EFL English lessons?

2. Participants and Research Methodology

This section focuses on the participants of the research (Section 2.1), how we organized the collected data in the spoken corpus (Section 2.2), and analyzing procedure of the collected data in the corpus (Section 2.3).

2.1 Participants and Data Collection

The authors collected data from three English classes at an elementary school attached to a national university of education in Japan. We asked three homeroom teachers teaching Years 2, 3, and 4 respectively to allow us to record their English lessons, and they consented the study with submission of informed consent forms saying that they would permit us to use the recorded data in audio, video, and transcribed forms for academic purposes. We also agreed on maintaining anonymity of the HRTs and their students by using blurring the footage if the participant's identity was distinguishable in raw data. Table 1 shows the profile of the HRTs who contributed their English classroom data to this study.

Table 1
Profile of the Participants

Participant ID (Sex)	Year taught[a]	Number of students
1 (F)	2	31
2 (M)	3	29
3 (M)	4	31

Note. F=female. M=male. [a]Elementary school years contain six years, for example, "Year 2" indicates the second year in elementary school.

2.2 Architecture of the Classroom Spoken Corpus

This section describes the architecture of the classroom corpus using the extensible mark up language (XML) on which we depend for our quantitative and qualitative analyses.

After recording the English classes, the speeches by the HRTs and the students were manually transcribed, and double-checked by the authors. Then, the authors annotated the transcriptions with the tags shown in Table 2 and Figure 1. Table 2 mainly depicts a tag set used for quantitative analyses, and Figure 1 shows a tag set for classroom interaction analyses. Figure 3 describe the corpus architecture shown in a tree diagram. Since the classroom discourse between a teacher and students usually constitutes a hierarchical structure, we based our corpus design partly on the classroom discourse

hierarchy proposed in Sinclair and Coulthrad (1975). Katagiri and Kawai (2016) applied this classroom discourse hierarchy, and created an XML schema for visually representing the classroom discourse structure used in a classroom spoken corpus. They used five classroom discourse elements that were hierarchically organized in the schema; lesson (the top element in a tree structure), transaction, exchange, move, and down to act (the bottom element in the structure). In this study, we focused on the transaction-exchange nodes where transactions contained exchanges between a teacher and students. Instead of using the term exchanges, we named this exchange node *interaction* following Walsh (2006).

Table 2
Corpus Tag Set for Speaker and Language Use

Category	Feature	XML representation	Description
Speaker			
	HRT	<hrt></hrt>	homeroom teacher
	ST	<st></st>	students (single)
	STS	<sts></sts>	students (multiple)
Media			
	CD	<cd></cd>	Compact disc
Language			
	L1	<j></j>	Japanese (first language)
	L2	<eng></eng>	English (target language)
	Mix	<mix></mix>	Mixture of L1 and L2
	TL2	<TL2></TL2>	L2 translated from L1

Note. XML= extensible markup language. HRT= homeroom teacher. ST= student. STS= students. L1=Japanese language. L2=English language. Mix= L1 and L2. TL2=translated L2.

・Adapted from Walsh (2006)

<interaction mode="**skills and system**">:
Correct forms / provide corrective feedback → particular language items, vocabulary or specific skill

<interaction mode="**managerial**">:
Declarative / explanation / confirmation → setting up an activity

<interaction mode="**materials**">:
Interactive / elicit responses / provide language practice → the use of text, tape or other materials

<interaction mode="**classroom context**">:
Content feedback / referential questions / →eliciting feelings, attitudes and emotions of learners

・Adapted from Ellis (1984)

<interaction mode="**social**">:
Communicative acts →social or private matters irrelevant to the pedagogical goals

Figure 2. Attributes represented in an XML format for classroom interaction used in the corpus. The attribute values are double-quoted and shown in boldface. The top four attributes are adapted from Walsh (2006), and the final attribute is from Ellis (1984).

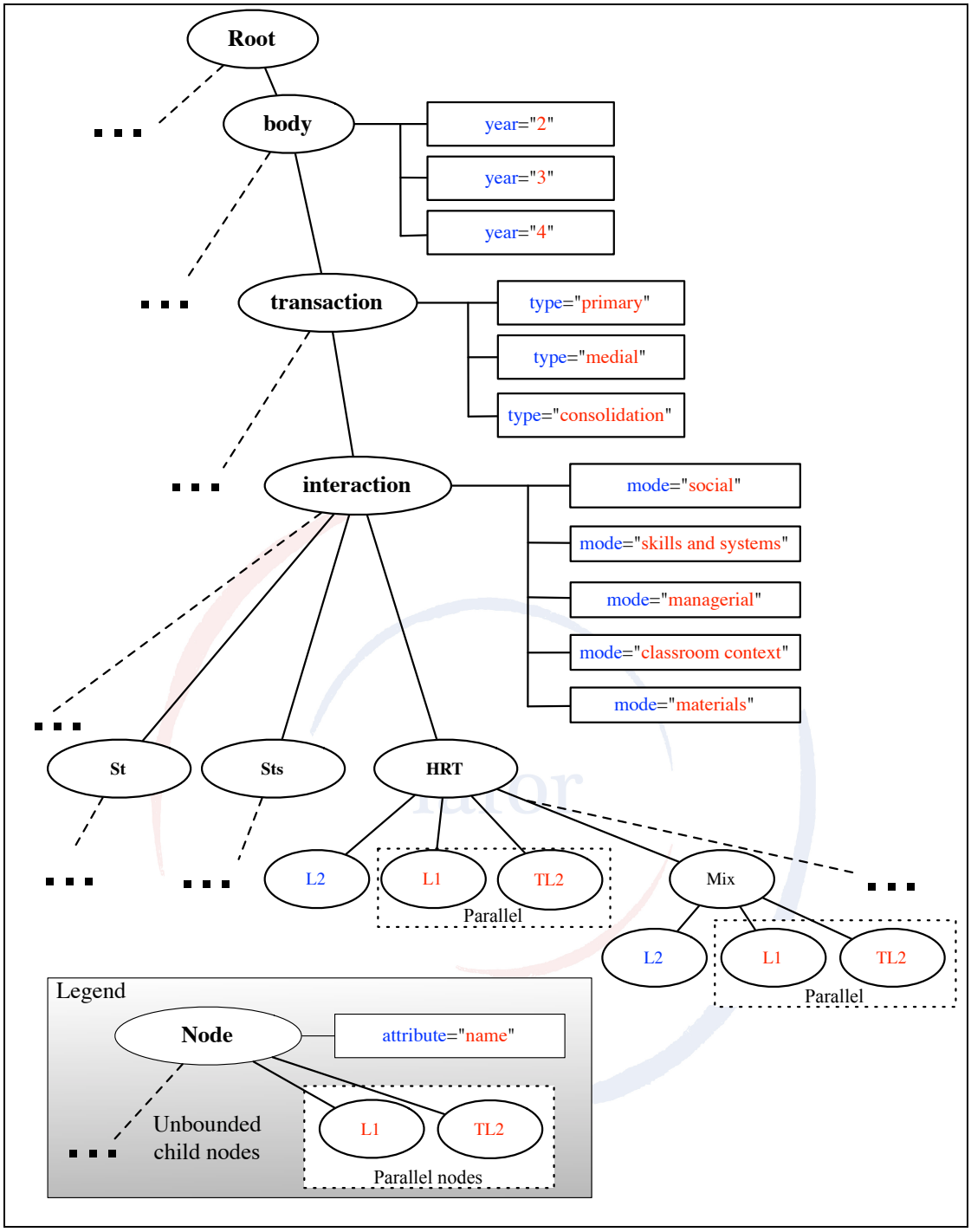

Figure 3. Architecture of the corpus illustrated in a tree diagram.

2.3 Data extraction

This section first shows how we utilize the corpus data through extracting the XML elements with XML transformation (XSLT) style sheets using XML path (Section 2.3.1), and then explains how to count the extracted data (Section 2.3.2).

2.3.1 XSLT

After compiling a classroom spoken corpus, we quantified the L1 and the L2 utterances, and interaction modes through XSLT style sheets. Figure 4 illustrates a sample XSLT style sheet which extracted the aimed utterances from the corpus. We adjusted the XML Path Language (XPaths) in the XSLT style sheets so that we would be able to retrieve (1) language use count: exclusive L1 and L2, and the L1 and L2 in the mixture of these two language types, and (2) interaction mode count.

```
stylesheet template[/]
1  <?xml version="1.0" encoding="UTF-8"?>
2
3  <!-- New document created with EditiX at Mon Feb 01 18:13:55 JST 2010 -->
4
5  <xsl:stylesheet version="1.0" xmlns:xsl="http://www.w3.org/1999/XSL/Transform">
6
7      <xsl:output method="text" indent="yes" encoding="UTF-8" omit-xml-declaration="yes" />
8
9      <xsl:template match="/" >
10
11             <xsl:copy-of select="root/body[@year='2']/transaction/interaction/hrt/mix/eng"></xsl:copy-of>
12
13     </xsl:template>
14
15 </xsl:stylesheet>
16
```

Figure 4. XML transformation to extract utterances based on elements and attributes. Line 11 shown in the right column shows an XPath that leads to the aimed utterances. In this case, Year 2 class shown as "body[@year='2']" node has descendant node of English utterances shown as "eng" in the mixed utterances ("mix") of L1 and L2 that the homeroom teacher "hrt" spoke in the "interaction" elements classified in "transaction" elements. By designating the year numerals as '3' and '4' and specifying the language node such as "mix/eng," "eng," and "j," the XPath leads to the specified utterances spoken in a specified language.

2.3.2 Counting Extracted Tokens

Spoken tokens were calculated by using Perl scripts.[1] As for the Japanese tokens, we used *SegmentAnt*[2] to divide Japanese sentences into segmented tokens so that we would be able to run the segmented utterances on our Perl scripts.

3 Results and Analyses

3.1 Annotated Transcriptions in the Compiled Classroom Corpus

Figure 5 shows a corpus transcription sample in the compiled corpus. Each XML element is shown with a start tag < > and the corresponding end tag </>. The descendant nodes are offset for easy viewing. Other than the tags shown in Table 2, unintelligible utterances <incomp/> are inserted with a time stamp shown as <incomp time ="X:YY"/>. To the L1 (Japanese) utterances shown in <j></j>, their English translation was added as <TL2></TL2>.

```
<body year="4">
<transaction type="primary">
    <interaction mode="social">
        <hrt>   <eng>Are you hot? Are you hot?</eng></hrt>
        <st>    <eng>No.</eng></st>
        <sts>   <eng>Yes.</eng></sts>
        <st>    <eng>Hot.</eng></st>
    <incomp time="4:42-4:44"/>
        <hrt>   <eng>I'm hot. I'm hot.</eng></hrt>
        <hrt>   <eng>You are hot. </eng></hrt>
        <st>    <eng>You are hot. </eng></st>
        <hrt>   <eng>You are hot, you are hot, you are hot, ah, you are hot, no, you are hot.</eng></hrt>
        <hrt>   <eng>I'm hot, too. I'm hot, too.</eng></hrt>
        <hrt>   <eng>Who is cold?</eng></hrt>
        <sts>   <j>えー。</j><TL2>EH!</TL2></sts>
        <st>    <j>暑いじゃん。</j><TL2>It' hot in here, isn't it</TL2></st>
        <hrt>   <eng>Oh, you're cold, you're cold.</eng></hrt>
        <hrt>   <eng>Ah, you are cold, you are cold, you are cold, you are cold.</eng></hrt>
        <st>    <j>暖かい。</j><TL2></TL2></st>
        <hrt>   <eng>You are cold, you are cold.</eng></hrt>
        <hrt>   <eng>I'm not cold, I'm not cold.</eng></hrt>
        <hrt>   <eng>Who is sleepy?</eng></hrt>
        <hrt>   <eng>You are sleepy, you are sleepy, oh, you are sleepy, you are sleepy.</eng></hrt>
        <hrt>   <eng>I'm not sleepy, I'm not sleepy.</eng></hrt>
        <st>    <j>いや嘘だ、だって。</j><TL2>No, that's not true.</TL2></st>
        <hrt>   <eng>I'm not sleepy.</eng></hrt>
        <sts>   <j>寝てないって言ってたじゃん先生。</j><TL2>You said you did not enough sleep, didn't you?</TL2></sts>
        <hrt>   <j>言わないのそれ。</j><TL2>Don't tell it to anyone.</TL2></hrt>
```

Figure 5. Corpus transcription sample.

3.2 Language Use Count of HRTs and Students

Tables 3 and 4 show the spoken token count of L2 and L1. These two tables have basically the same data quantification sets except for the language; the L2 count summary in Table 3, and L1 count summary in Table 4. The data sets in these two tables will provide the language use ratios (L2/L1) of the participants (Figures 6 and 7).

Table 3
L2 (English) Spoken Token Count in the Corpus

Year	HRT		Single student[a]		Students[b]	
	Exclusive	Mixed	Exclusive	Mixed	Exclusive	Mixed
2	**1708**		**74**		**472**	
	1595	113	74	0	472	0
3	**2401**		**9**		**145**	
	2288	113	7	2	145	0
4	**2567**		**312**		**626**	
	1369	1198	152	160	626	0
Σ	**6676**		**395**		**1243**	
	5252	1424	233	162	1243	0
M	**2225.3**		**131.7**		**414.3**	
	1751	475	78	54	414	0

Note. The total spoken token count is shown in boldface. The breakdown of the token count is shown in the two cells below (in the exclusive utterances and the mixed-language utterances) the total count. Year=elementary school year. HRT=homeroom teacher. English spoken tokens were calculated by English tokens spoken in exclusive English speech added to the ones in utterances composed of mixture of English and Japanese. [a]A "single student" indicates one students involved in interactions with the HRT. [b]"Students" represent mostly students speaking in chorus.

Table 4
L1 (Japanese) Spoken Token Count in the Corpus

Year	HRT		Single student		Students	
	Exclusive	Mixed	Exclusive	Mixed	Exclusive	Mixed
2	**972**		**800**		**58**	
	872	100	800	0	58	0
3	**1101**		**85**		**13**	
	912	189	79	6	13	0
4	**915**		**152**		**31**	
	509	406	97	55	31	0
Σ	**2988**		**1037**		**102**	
	2293	695	976	61	102	0
M	**996.0**		**345.7**		**34.0**	
	764	232	325	20	34	0

Note. The total spoken token count is shown in boldface. The breakdown of the token count is shown in the two cells below (in the exclusive utterances and the ones in the mixed utterances) the total count. Year=elementary school year. HRT=homeroom teacher. Japanese spoken tokens were calculated by Japanese tokens spoken in exclusive Japanese speech added to the ones in utterances composed of mixture of English and Japanese.

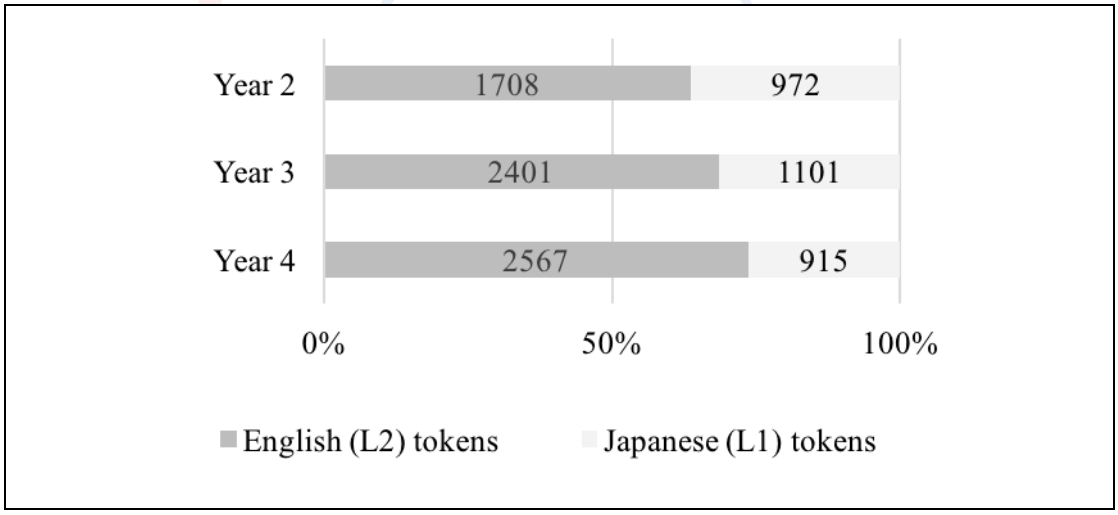

Figure 6. L2/L1 ratios of HRTs in the compiled spoken corpus.

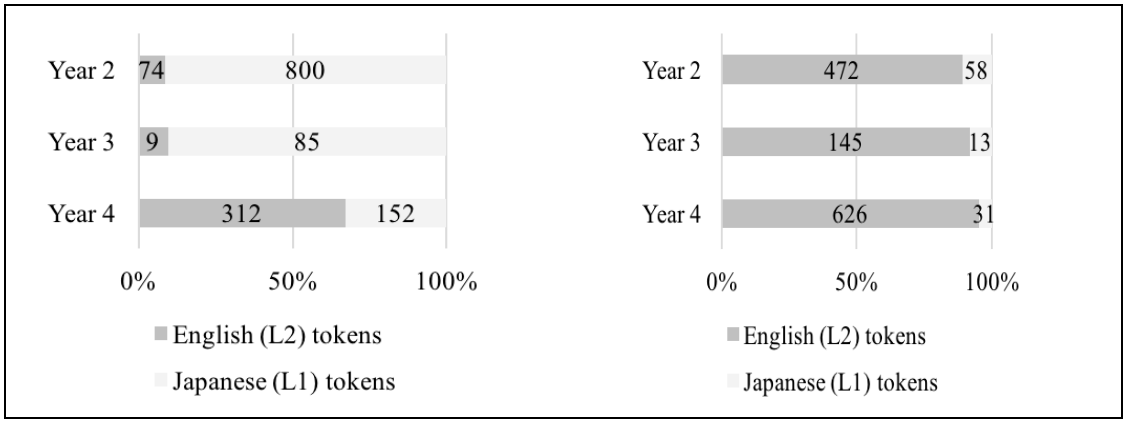

Figure 7. L2/L1 ratios of *student* (left) and *students* (right) in the compiled spoken corpus.

We can identify two major characteristics in the language use of the HRTs and the students. Firstly, the HRTs displayed more L2 usage than L1 with the the mean value of L2:L1=2225.3:996.0, which indicates that the HRTs used over 2.2 times more L2 than L1. Thus, we can see that the elementary school HRTs whom we observed exposed their students to the target language over twice as much as their native language.

Next, we will consider the language use of the students. Tables 3 and 4 contrast the use of the L1 and L2 of the elementary school students. Utterances by *individual students* contained far more L1 tokens than those observed in the utterances by *students* in chorus, and conversely, *students* in chorus displayed far more L2 utterances than those by *individual students*. These results indicate that, on the one hand, the elementary school students in this study are more likely to utter L2 in chorus than in the interaction with the HRT. On the other hand, they use far more L1 in individual interactions with the HRT. This suggests that in elementary school classroom, the L1 are more likely to be used in teacher-student interactions, whereas the students are mainly learning from the HRTs' L2 output and using the L2 to speak in chorus. The next section will discuss the interaction mode occurrences that explain these results.

3.3 Interaction Mode Occurrences

Based on the quantitative data and their analyses, this section describes qualitative analyses to explain the language use in the elementary school English classroom.

Table 5 shows interaction mode occurrences controlled by the HRTs. The distribution of each mode illustrates interactional characteristics of the elementary school English classes we observed. Materials mode attracted the most attention, but hardly any skills and systems mode due mainly to absence of explicit grammar teaching. The absence of grammar teaching is explainable, because neither the current nor the next MEXT course of study encourage the teaching of English grammar in the elementary school Years 4 and below. Instead, they state that the main purpose of teaching English is to "foster a positive attitude toward communication" (MEXT, 2010, para. 1).

Table 5
Interaction Occurrences by Modes[a]

Year	Interaction mode					Σ
	Social	Managerial	Materials	Classroom context	Skills and systems	
2	0	9	8	2	0	19
3	38	11	54	12	0	115
4	3	7	16	12	0	38
Σ	41	27	78	26	0	172
M	13.7	9.0	26.0	8.7	0.0	57.3

Note. [a]The first interaction mode is adapted from Ellis (1984), and the other modes are adapted from Walsh (2006).

4 Discussion and Conclusion

The classroom spoken corpus we compiled for this study yielded quantitative and qualitative results that shed light on elementary school English classes in Japan. The classroom spoken corpora found:

1. HRTs in the classes included in the corpora used more L2 than L1, and the L2 was more likely to be used by the students in chorus.

2. Interaction analyses based on the *interaction modes* between the HRTs and the students showed that the HRTs generally incorporated the *managerial mode*, and utilized the L2 in the *materials mode*. However, the use of *social mode* depended on the HRT.

These findings gave us the evidence necessary to answer the research questions.

4.1 Answers to the Research Questions

This section discusses answers to the two research questions we posed (Section 1.3). Since the current research is one case study using limited number of participants, it might not be appropriate to generalize these answers to all cases. However, the answers will give us perspectives how we should continue to accumulate classroom spoken data in elementary school English in an EFL setting.

4.1.1 What are the Language Use Ratios of Homeroom Teachers in Elementary School EFL English Lessons?

Focusing on the L2 use, the language use ratios of the three HRTs turned out to be 63.7% for Year 2, 68.5% for Year 3, and 76.3% for Year 4, with the average ratio being 69.5% (Tables 3 and 4, Figure 6). No matter what year the HRTs were teaching, they utilized more than 60% of their spoken tokens speaking English. It may be suggested that the higher the grades the HRTs teach, the more English they speak. A similar tendency was observed in the *students'* language use, with the L2 ratios much higher, around 90% for Year 2 and over 90% for Years 3 and 4 (Figure 7).

4.1.2 What Kind of Classroom Interactions do Homeroom Teachers Have in Elementary School EFL English Lessons?

Our data clearly indicate the absence of one of the five interaction modes, i.e., *skills and systems* mode (Table 5). We observed no occurrences of this interaction mode. We believe this was due to the nature of instruction stipulated in the course of study discussed in Section 3.3. The HRTs conducted lessons such that they had interactions in the *materials* mode, in which they provided the L2 materials and elicited responses, and in the *classroom context* mode, in which they gave feedback on contents of the L2 materials, and asked referential questions. These results might indicate that the HRTs were trying to incorporate interactions that were close to those in the other regular elementary school subjects while at the same time, trying to give L2 exposure to the students. It was also natural that we witnessed *managerial* modes in all the Years we observed because in this interaction mode the HRTs explained activities in class and

confirmed the students' understanding, which we assume that HRTs also routinely do in their other regular classes.

4.2 Implications for Pedagogy

Our study data also enables us to partially characterize changes in usage ratio of L2 as we move from Year 2 to Year 4 in elementary school English in an EFL setting. These findings could be utilized not only for linguistic research purposes but also for teacher training. The compiled corpus data would give evidence to show approximately at what L2/L1 ratio HRTs would adjust the language use, sometimes code-switching from L1 to L2 or vice versa. General distribution of the interactional modes might give other HRTs clues to organize type of interactions that they would need to select depending on their pedagogic goals. At a basic level of elementary school English, HRTs can maintain presumably their regular lesson interactional patterns (coded as *managerial* and *classroom context* modes) and still provide linguistic exposure and practice as shown in the occurrences in *materials* mode (Table 5). The HRTs can utilize over 60 % of their utterances using the L2. The percentage of the HRTs L2 use increases as the school grades increase. Similarly, the students' usage of L2 also displayed an incremental increase correlated with grade; although the students in our study were not the same ones observed in three consecutive years. We can propose

4.3 Limitations

The authors are aware of at least two limitations to this study. This research is merely a case study, so we need to increase the amount of classroom data so that findings to produce better generalizations regarding the elementary school English classroom. As Seedlehouse (2004) put it, "classroom research into communication in both L1 and L2 classrooms has considered between five and ten lessons a reasonable database from which to generalize conclusions" (p. 87). Walsh (2006) summarized the study of Seedlehouse and said, "approximately 12 hours or 100,000 words, a reasonable sample size on which to make generalizations and draw conclusions in the light of evidence from previous studies" (p. 63). Judging from these standards, our research needs more than four times as many lessons, and over 10 times as many tokens as the present study.

The second limitation is the quality of the L2 spoken tokens. The data in our compiled corpus showed quantitatively that HRTs primarily used L2. We need to qualitatively examine the types/indices of the spoken L2 tokens by lemmatizing them because we need to analyze the similarities as well as the exclusivity of the L2 usage depending on the grades the HRTs taught, enabling us to propose generalizations about the L2 use. If we could recognize certain similarities in the lemmatized tokens, we would be able to propose general use patterns of L2 to novice HRTs for their professional development and to preservice HRTs on their teacher training courses.

4.4 Future plans

We will conclude our paper by describing our two future research plans based on the discussions in the preceding three sections. The first and urgent plan is to collect more English classroom data to compile a decent classroom spoken corpora. As O'Keeffe,

McCarthy, and Carter (2007) put it, “a teacher corpus is something small and evolving over time” (p. 220). When the accumulated data is large enough, it will be made into a classroom video corpus by aligning the video footage with captions tagged with the interactional modes and transcriptions in subtitles. Currently we are developing this video corpus (Figure 8). At the current moment, however, it is still merely a mockup. We are planning to train HRTs through this video corpus and to examine effectiveness of the corpus in teacher empowerment when we complete compiling this classroom video corpus.

The second plan is to analyze the relationship between instructor utterances and the students' uptake since we found that there is an incremental tendency in the quantitative amount of spoken tokens of the HRTs and the students. One case study, conducted by Ohashi & Katagiri (2016), revealed explicit instructions for the students to learn the content of the materials such as English words and phrases including sounds were likely to elicit more student responses than implicit instructions.

We sincerely hope that our attempt to compile classroom spoken corpora by accumulating elementary classroom English class data followed by quantitative and qualitative examination of the data as well as interaction mode analyses will be of significant help to many in-service elementary school HRTs (whether they are novices or not) in their professional development programs and to preservice elementary school teachers as a part of their teacher training education. We believe that these teachers will develop primary English education in the years to come.

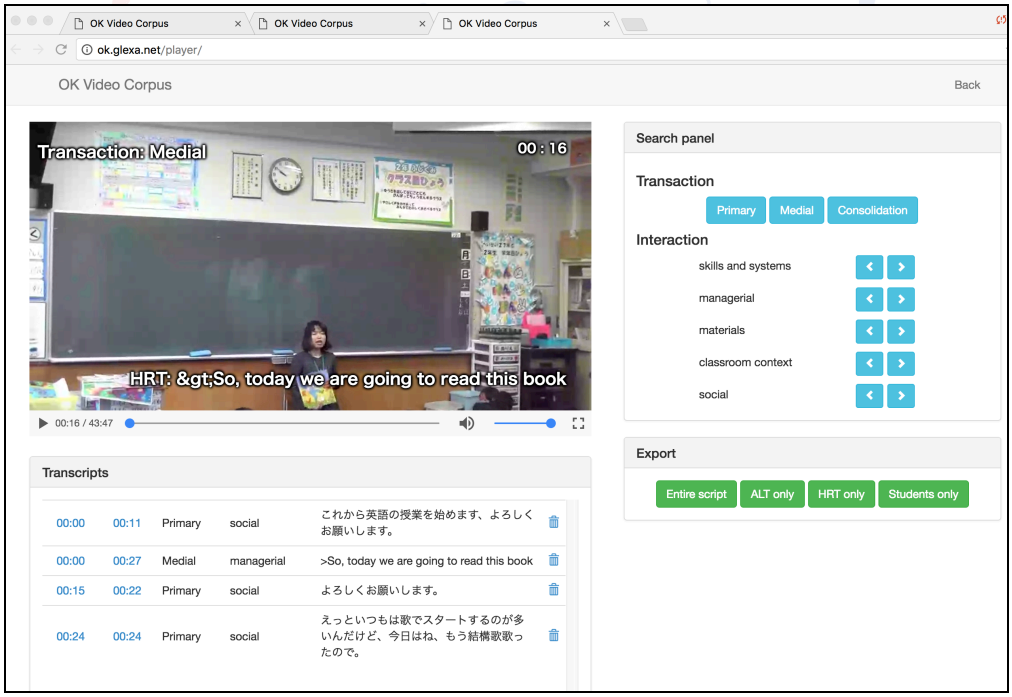

Figure 8. Classroom video corpus mock up. The video corpus consists of four windows viewable on a web browser; a footage window with meta information such as transaction mode, elapsed time, and subtitles (top left), a transcript window showing duration of the transcripts with discourse columns (bottom left), a search panel window with buttons enabling the viewer to move to desired transactions and interactions (top right), and export window that exports transcriptions by speaker (bottom right). The footage window shows an HRT beginning her English lesson (the students are out of the camera range to protect their privacy).

Notes

1. Perl scripts were created by the authors. The scripts were run on the "terminal" platform on OS X (10.11.6).

2. SegmentAnt (Version 1.2.0 for Macintosh OS X) is a downloadable free computer software on Laurence Anthony's Website. Retrieved from http://www.laurence anthony.net/software. html.

Acknowledgements

The authors are very grateful to the three elementary school HRTs and their students who allowed us to utilize their classroom data both in audio and video formats. This research was supported in part by the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) KAKENHI Grant Number JP15K02778.

iafor

References

Ellis, R. (1984). *Classroom Second Language Development: A Study of Classroom Interaction and Language Acquisition.* Elsevier Science & Technology: Michigan.

Katagiri, N. & Kawai, Goh. (2016). Designing an XML schema for classroom discourse visual representation through XSLT. *Journal of Hokkaido University of Education (Humanities and Social Sciences), 66*(2),1-16.

Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science & Technology, Japan. (2010). The Course of Study. Chapter 4 Foreign Language Activities. Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/component/a_menu/education/micro_detail/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2010/10/20/1261037_12.pdf

Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science & Technology, Japan. (2014a). English Education Reform Plan corresponding to Globalization. http://www.mext.go.jp/en/news/topics/detail/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2014/01/23/1343591_1.pdf

Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science & Technology, Japan. (2014b). Heisei 26 Nenndo Shogakko Gaikokugo Katsudo Jisshi Jyoukyou Chosa [Progress Report on Elementary School Foreign Language Activities, Year 26 of Heisei]. Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/component/a_menu/education /detail/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2015/09/24/1362168_01.pdf

Ohashi, Y. & Katagiri, N. (2016). *Kyoshitu Danwa ni Okeru Intarakushon wo Mochiita Meijiteki Shidou no Yuukousei* [Effects of Explicit Interactions in Classroom Discourse]. Proceedings of the Japan English Teaching in Elementary Schools 16th National Convention, Sendai, Japan, 70.

O'Keeffe, A. & Farr, F. (2003). Using Language Corpora in Initial Teacher Education: Pedagogic Issues and Practical Applications. *TESOL QUARTERLY, 37*(3), 389-418.

O'Keeffe, A., McCarthy, M. & Carter, R. (2007). *From corpus to classroom: language use and language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge Language Teaching Library.

Seedlehouse, P. (2004). *The Interactional Architecture of the Second Language Classroom: A Conversational Analysis Perspective*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Sinclair, J. McH. & Coulthard, M. (1975). *Towards an analysis of discourse: the English used by teachers and pupils.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Spada, N. & Fröhlich, M. (1995). *COLT Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme, Coding Conventions and Applications*. Sydney: Macquarie University.

Walsh, S. (2006). *Investigating Classroom Discourse*. Routledge.

Contact email: katagiri.noriaki@a.hokkyodai.ac.jp
y_watanabe@yamazaki.ac.jp

Appendix A. XML Schema of the Elementary School English Classroom Spoken Corpus: Classroom Discourse Tags

```
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="UTF-8"?>
<xs:schema elementFormDefault="qualified"
xmlns:xs="http://www.w3.org/2001/XMLSchema">
	<xs:element name="root">
		<xs:complexType>
			<xs:sequence>
				<xs:element ref="body" maxOccurs="unbounded"/>
			</xs:sequence>
		</xs:complexType>
	</xs:element>

	<xs:element name="body">
		<xs:complexType>
			<xs:sequence>
				<xs:element ref="transaction"
maxOccurs="unbounded"/>
			</xs:sequence>
			<xs:attribute name="year" type="xs:string" use="required"/>
		</xs:complexType>
	</xs:element>

	<xs:element name="transaction">
		<xs:complexType>
			<xs:sequence>
				<xs:element ref="incomp" minOccurs="0"/>
				<xs:element ref="interaction"
maxOccurs="unbounded"/>
			</xs:sequence>
			<xs:attribute name="type" type="xs:string" use="required"/>
			<xs:attribute name="id" type="xs:string"/>
		</xs:complexType>
	</xs:element>

	<xs:element name="interaction">
		<xs:complexType mixed="true">
			<xs:sequence>
				<xs:element ref="hrt" minOccurs="0"
maxOccurs="unbounded"/>
				<xs:element ref="incomp" minOccurs="0"/>
				<xs:element ref="st" minOccurs="0"
maxOccurs="unbounded"/>
				<xs:element ref="sts" minOccurs="0"
maxOccurs="unbounded"/>
			</xs:sequence>
			<xs:attribute name="mode" type="xs:string" use="required"/>
		</xs:complexType>
	</xs:element>
```

Appendix B. XML Schema Samples of the Elementary School English Classroom Spoken Corpus: Speaker and Language Use Tags

```
<xs:element name="hrt">
	<xs:complexType mixed="true">
		<xs:sequence>
			<xs:element ref="incomp" minOccurs="0"/>
			<xs:element ref="mix" minOccurs="0"/>
			<xs:element ref="eng" minOccurs="0"/>
			<xs:element ref="j" minOccurs="0"/>
			<xs:element ref="TL2" minOccurs="0"/>
		</xs:sequence>
		<xs:attribute name="overlap" type="xs:string"/>
	</xs:complexType>
</xs:element>

<xs:element name="sts">
	<xs:complexType>
		<xs:sequence>
			<xs:element ref="eng" minOccurs="0"/>
			<xs:element ref="j" minOccurs="0"/>
			<xs:element ref="TL2" minOccurs="0"/>
		</xs:sequence>
		<xs:attribute name="overlap" type="xs:string"/>
	</xs:complexType>
</xs:element>

<xs:element name="TL2" type="xs:string"/>
<xs:element name="mix">
	<xs:complexType mixed="true">
		<xs:sequence>
			<xs:element ref="j" minOccurs="0"/>
			<xs:element ref="TL2" minOccurs="0"/>
			<xs:element ref="eng"/>
		</xs:sequence>
	</xs:complexType>
</xs:element>

<xs:element name="eng">
	<xs:complexType mixed="true">
		<xs:sequence>
			<xs:element ref="j" minOccurs="0"/>
			<xs:element ref="TL2" minOccurs="0"/>
			<xs:element ref="incomp" minOccurs="0"/>
		</xs:sequence>
	</xs:complexType>
</xs:element>

</xs:schema>
```

Writing in a Foreign Language

Midori Mashiyama, Fukuoka Women's University, Japan

The IAFOR International Conference on Language Learning – Hawaii 2017
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract

For many Japanese students, writing is probably the most difficult skill in English. The Ministry of Education of Japan (MEXT) conducted research on the English proficiency of the third year (senior year) students of high school in 2014 and 2015. They reported that in writing and speaking the scores of tests were significantly lower than in reading and listening. What can reduce writing anxiety, or change learners' attitudes toward writing, and improve their writing?

In this study, the changes of the learners' attitudes toward writing in English and the perception of an online writing tool are examined to understand how they feel about writing. Therefore the research question was: How can introducing an online writing tool affect the English language learners' perception of writing in English?

The participants were the university students of English writing classes. The questionnaires were distributed and collected at the beginning and at the end of the semester. The survey was divided into four sections: on the targets in learning how to write in English, on using computers in learning English, and on the online writing tool. Before they used the online writing tool, they were motivated to improve their writing, but their images of writing in English were very vague and they did not know what they needed to improve their writing. But at the end of the semester, they showed more focused images of writing in English, and kept their motivation to write.

iafor
The International Academic Forum
www.iafor.org

Introduction

Writing in a foreign language, in the case of the present study, in English, is often perceived as a difficult skill. Not only perceived, but actually the scores on one test showed the differences between the skills, and writing is the most difficult skill for the Japanese learners of English. In 2014 and 15, the ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, science and Technology (MEXT) in Japan conducted nationwide English proficiency tests (MEXT, 2015a & 2016) to the third year senior high school students. In 2015, a preliminary report on the project was released (MEXT, 2015b). It was said that the scores of writing section of the test were significantly lower than other skills', reading and listening's, and rather lower than the speaking test's scores. The test was designed to indicate the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) levels. The levels of this reference are divided into six, A-1, most elementary level, to C-2, most advanced level. The test conducted by MEXT, however, corresponded only from A-1 level to B-2 level. The target levels for the senior high school graduates' are between A-2 and B-1 levels. The scores of the reading and listening sections of the test were primarily between A-1 to A2 levels. In the cases of writing and speaking sections of the test, not all test takers could take any scores. 13.3% of the students either did not answer or took 0 point on the speaking test, and 29.2% on the writing section of the test. MEXT pointed out in the report (2015b) that all skills needed to improve but especially writing and speaking proficiency should be improved. They also mentioned the lack of opportunities to write and speak in English in class. In other words, writing and speaking proficiency should be improved, and in order to develop these skills, we must increase the opportunities to use English to write and to communicate verbally in class.

If this perception changed into fear, it is said to be rather harmful in language learning. Cornwell & McKay (1999) conducted a research on measuring negative feelings towards writing, and found significant correlations between those feelings and the scores on the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). They also concluded that the experiences of writing in English in high school affected the students' feelings towards writing in English. Between negative feelings towards writing and writing achievement, Al Asmari (2013) reported there was a negative correlation. Having fear, or negative feelings towards this skill, writing, seems to lead a vicious circle of negative effects.

If learners' perceptions towards writing is connected to the quality of writing, and giving opportunities to write in English will help improve the writing proficiency, can increasing opportunities to write in English change the students' perceptions towards writing in English? In this study, by employing the on-line writing tool, Criterion®, into the classrooms to increase the opportunities to write in English as well as to reduce the teachers' workload to give feedback, how students' perception towards writing in English and using an on-line writing tool were affected was investigated.

Methodology

This study aimed to investigate the students' perception of writing in English, learning with on-line learning materials, and Criterion®, an on-line writing tool. To study the perception, survey was chosen as a method of investigation. The questionnaires were conducted before and after using Criterion® in the spring semester in 2016. The

survey is in the multiple-choice style with space for comments. There are four questions: 1. How do you feel about writing in English? 2. What do you wish to improve in writing? 3. How do you feel about learning English using on-line learning materials? and 4. Criterion® is a writing tool. What image do you have toward it? The participants were asked to mark all of the opinions or feelings they have towards the question.

Criterion®

Criterion® is an on-line writing tool. It can give a feedback to a submitted written text. This writing tool was developed by Educational Testing Service (ETS), and using e-rater®, which is used for evaluating written texts on TOEFL iBT®, to give feedback (see http://www.cieej.or.jp/toefl/criterion/). Since this college is using TOEFL® test for streaming the English classes, it is acceptable for the students to use Criterion® for improving their writing proficiency.

Participants

The participants of this study were the first year college students in Japan. This college emphasizes on English education, and all of the students have to take 15 credit hours during the first two years. The classes are streamed according to the scores on Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and, when possible, students' wish. Class size is rather small, with 15 to 20 students in one class. There are four writing classes in the program, one class in each semester. The class meets once a week for 90 minutes. In one semester, there are 15 lessons. The questionnaires were given to two classes, 14 and 11 students. The same instructor taught these two classes. Each class submitted 96 submissions altogether. That indicated each student submitted the written texts and received the feedback 3 or 4 times.

Findings

The first survey was distributed on May 31 and the second in July. The results of the questionnaires will be analyzed under each question. The forth question is different between the first survey, which was conducted at the beginning of the semester, and the second survey, at the end of the semester, since the first survey asked the students' image towards the writing tool before they actually use it, and the second survey investigated the feelings after they used the tool.

Q1: How do you feel about writing in English?

The item which indicated the largest change between the first and second survey is "It (writing in English) takes time." In the first survey 64% of the students marked this item, but in the second survey 40% of them marked it. There is a reduction about one quarter, 24%, in the answer. The second largest difference was seen in the item "I cannot write fast", 48% to 28%. The third largest was "I do not know what to write about (28% to 12%)." Seeing these items, it can be said that the students felt more familiar towards writing in English after using the writing tool. There are two items, "I do not have enough vocabulary (60% to 72%)" and "I am interested in writing (4% to 16%)" to show the 12% increase. The students showed more interests, but at the same time they seems to notice what they need to improve their writing proficiency.

Other three items are showing rather small changes; “It (writing in English) is difficult (72% to 64%)”, “I feel anxious if I make a grammatical error (68% to 60%)”, and “I wish to be a better writer in English (88% to 80%).”

Q2: What would you like to improve among the aspects of writing in English?

There are five items to choose and space for comments. Five items are: accuracy, speed, expressiveness, vocabulary, and fluency. Except “vocabulary (56% to 56%)” there are some changes. The changes are, “accuracy (76% to 88%)”, “speed (36% to 20%)”, “expressiveness (72% to 76%)”, and “fluency (20% to 24%)”, but not very large. The results indicated the students’ attention paid more on accuracy and less on speed.

Q3: You think using the on-line materials, or computer to learn English is/are?

Three items showed decline: “I would like to try it (40% to 20%)”, “I cannot make time for this (24% to 8%)”, and “It looks/sounds difficult (32% to 16%).” The students did not want to use on-line materials or computer to learn English, but they showed less fear and noticed it was not as time-consuming as expected. Interestingly, the item “I am interested in it (60% to 72%)” suggested more complicated feeling about using such materials. They showed interests to those materials and technology, but were not enthusiastic to try a new one.

Q4: What would you expect to Criterion®? / How did you feel about using Criterion®?

The items in this section presented more changes than in other sections. There were the largest changes in two item, “I think it (Criterion®) will help/helped me correct my grammatical errors (52% to 92%)” and “I want to use/used it to revise and to improve my writing (20% to 60%).” The students did not expect Criterion® much, but after they used it, they learned how to utilize it. The other item on usage of this writing tool, “I want to use/used it when I work on my assignments (36% to 60%),” was also well utilized. They felt less fear to use it, “It looks/sounds/was difficult to use it (28% to 4%),” and they knew they utilized it well, “I think I can use/used it well (0% to 24%).” As a result, they presented their opinion about using Criterion® as in the item, “I want to keep using it (40%),” which was asked only after they used the tool. In the items about the feelings, “It looks/sounds/was interesting (20% to 44%)”, “It looks/sounds/was fun to use it (4% to 24%),” the students enjoyed using it in practicing writing in English. Though, the item, “I think it will help/helped me improve my writing quality (44% to 20%)” indicated there would be a more complex feeling towards using this tool, but the survey did not probe this problem deeper.

Conclusion

In the present study, the students' perception of writing in English and using an on-line writing tool was investigated. At the end of the semester, the students showed more interests in writing in English, but at the same time, they started to think how to improve their writing proficiency. They also expressed interests more on accuracy and less on speed of writing. This tendency to emphasize accuracy in writing might come from the types of the feedback Criterion® provided. As Heffernan & Otoshi (2015) pointed out, the feedback Criterion® provided and the instructors provided are different.

The students indicated their motivation to improve their writing proficiency was not affected by receiving writing instructions and feedback on their writing. Rather, most of them, around 80% of them, kept their motivation throughout the semester. We cannot decide that result is caused by the use of the writing tool, but practicing writing can be a promoting factor of making better writers. Additionally, using the on-line writing tool lessened fear towards using on-line materials and computer to learn English, but did not invite the students to try a new material yet.

Other enigmatic results are in the 4th section. The students' answers indicated their acceptance of this writing tool. The tool was useful for correcting their grammatical errors and they used it for writing assignments, but they did not feel it did not improve the quality of their writing. There is a possibility that the participants did not recognize having fewer grammatical errors in writing as improvement of the quality of writing. Further investigation, such as interviewing the participants, is needed.

In conclusion, employing this writing tool in class might increase the opportunities to write in English and, therefore, help the learners to improve their writing proficiency.

References

Al Asmari, A. (2013). Investigation of writing strategies, writing apprehension, and writing achievement among Saudi EFL-major students. *International Education Studies, 6*(11), 130-143.

Cornwell, S. & McKay, T. (1999). *Measuring writing apprehension in Japan.* Paper Presented at the 25th Annual Meeting of the Japan Association of Language Teachers, Japan.

Heffernan, Neil., & Otoshi, J. (2015). Comparing the pedagogical benefits of both Criterion and teacher feedback on Japanese EFL students' writing. *JALT CALL Journal, 11*(1), 63-76.

Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, science and Technology, Japan. (2015a). *Report of the nationwide English proficiency test (3rd grade of senior high school students)*. Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/component/a_menu/education/detail/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2015/07/03/1358071_01.pdf

Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, science and Technology, Japan. (2015b). *Report of fostering students' English ability plan.* Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/kokusai/gaikokugo/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2015/07/21/1358906_01_1.pdf

Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, science and Technology, Japan. (2016). *Report on the project of the project to improve English Education: the nationwide English proficiency test in senior high school.* Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/component/a_menu/education/detail/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2016/12/16/1375533_1.pdf

Effecting Positive Change in English Language Learning with Universal Design for Learning

Paul Dickinson, Meijo University, Japan

The IAFOR International Conference on Language Learning – Hawaii 2017
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Universal Design for Learning (UDL) is an instructional framework developed from education and neuroscience research. Based on the knowledge that there is no such thing as an "average" learner, the central claim of UDL is that the diverse learning needs of students are best addressed through curricula and lessons that provide multiple means of Representation, Engagement, and Action and Expression. The UDL framework applies to the whole curriculum and is used to create flexible goals, methods, materials, and assessments that address learner diversity and reduce learning barriers to provide effective learning opportunities for all learners, including English language learners and students with disabilities. This paper introduces the background and theoretical basis of UDL and discusses how it can be used to effect positive change in English language learning contexts. It describes the research basis and ongoing development of UDL and presents suggestions and examples of how it can be used to implement instruction that reduces learning barriers and provides effective learning opportunities for all English language learners. Finally, examples of UDL-based instruction implemented in English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms in Japan are also discussed.

Keywords: Universal Design for Learning (UDL), learner diversity, learning barriers, English language learners

Introduction

One of the effects of societal and global upheavals of recent years is that English language classrooms around the world are more diverse than ever before. Findings from neuroscience and educational research have also highlighted the learner diversity that exists in our classrooms. These findings have shown that as every individual learns differently there is no such thing as an "average" learner – variability is the norm. However, inflexible "one-size fits all" learning environments (which include goals, materials, instructional methods, assessments, and physical environments) fail to take account of the diversity in our classrooms, thus creating barriers to learning. This is in addition to the learning barriers that English language learners already face, such as the following:

- Language and cultural barriers
- Sensory and physical disabilities
- Lack of interest, motivation, or background knowledge
- Learning difficulties such as dyslexia and dysgraphia
- Social, behavioral, or emotional difficulties

The challenge confronting English language educators is how to remove or reduce these barriers and to provide effective learning opportunities for all learners. Although personalized accommodations addressing the needs of individual learners have become commonplace in most educational contexts, the need for a comprehensive pedagogical framework that provides high quality learning opportunities for all learners – regardless of socioeconomic, cultural, gender, language, cognitive, physical, and emotional background – has become more urgent.

One approach to emerge from research into creating accessible learning environments is Universal Design for Learning (UDL). UDL is an instructional framework designed to address learner diversity and to provide opportunities for deep learning for all learners. This paper aims to give an understanding of UDL and show how it can be used to reduce learning barriers and provide effective learning opportunities to all English language learners. First, it will define UDL and discuss its development. After that, it will provide a detailed description of the UDL framework. Finally, suggestions for using UDL in English language education will be presented, including descriptions of UDL-based instruction successfully implemented in EFL classrooms in Japan.

Defining Universal Design for Learning

UDL has been defined in the following ways, all of which emphasize the need for flexible approaches to reduce learning barriers and address the needs of all learners. In one widely cited definition, Rose and Gravel (2010) define UDL as "a framework for teaching and learning that often capitalizes on the power and flexibility of modern technologies to address the needs of the broadest possible range of students". In her definition, Tokuhama-Espinosa (2011, p. 312) states that

> UDL provides a blueprint for creating flexible goals, methods, materials, and assessments that accommodate learner differences. Universal does not imply a single optimal solution for everyone. Instead, it is meant to

> underscore the need for multiple approaches to meet the needs of diverse learners.

The statutory definition of the Higher Education Opportunity Act (HEOA; Public Law 110-315, August 14, 2008) in the US, which tied funding for teacher professional development and preservice education to UDL implementation, defines UDL as

> a scientifically valid framework for guiding educational practice that:
> (A) provides flexibility in the ways information is presented, in the ways students respond or demonstrate knowledge and skills, and in the ways students are engaged; and
> (B) reduces barriers in instruction, provides appropriate accommodations, supports and challenges, and maintains high achievement expectations for all students, including students with disabilities and students who are limited English proficient.
>
> (Higher Education Opportunity Act, 2008)

Development of UDL

The history of UDL began more than 30 years ago when the Center for Applied Special Technology (CAST) began working with learners with significant learning needs. While the CAST researchers and educators saw these learners make significant gains in this clinical setting, they knew that the students would not have the same opportunities in traditional settings. And, as the learners had demonstrated their ability to succeed when given the appropriate tools, resources, and strategies, they also came to realize that the challenges facing the learners had little do with their abilities and more to do with barriers to learning in the learning environment (Nelson, 2014).

Before this, educators and researchers alike considered that learning problems resided in the learners. For example, the inability to identify words on a page had been seen as a problem within the learner that had to be "fixed". However, as CAST found, learners with dyslexia "could definitely learn and excel but would run into trouble if the only way to gain access to learning was through print-based materials. Thus, print-based materials are disabled; they don't work for everyone" (Rappolt-Schlichtmann, Daley, & Rose, 2012, p. 4). Therefore, the development of UDL involved a conceptual shift from "fixing" the learner to designing curricula and learning environments accessible to all learners (Ralabate, 2010). Reflecting on this, CAST posed the following questions:

- What if educators removed barriers at the onset when designing a learning environment, curriculum, or lesson?

- What if teachers were provided with the latest information on brain research in a way that they could apply that information within the classroom?

(Nelson, 2014, p. 4)

From this point UDL became an actionable construct (Rappolt-Schlichtmann et al., 2012). The principles and guidelines of the UDL framework (CAST, 2011; National Center On Universal Design For Learning, 2014) were developed from a rigorous synthesis of relevant research from the learning sciences. The UDL principles and guidelines were created to assist instructional designers and educators to "systematically anticipate and reduce or eliminate barriers to learning by making curricula and assessments flexible" (Rappolt-Schlichtmann et al., 2012, p. 4).

However, UDL is an evolving framework. It continues to change as knowledge evolves and new tools and strategies are developed, put in practice, and researched. Dynamic systems theory, which assumes that learning is variable and context dependent (Fischer & Bidell, 2006; Thelen & Smith, 1994; van Geert, 1998) has reoriented theory, research and practice of the UDL framework (Rappolt-Schlichtmann et al., 2012). In assuming that the learner and curriculum are a dynamic system, UDL now holds that *neither* is disabled. Rather, they are two limits on the same system, where learning occurs in the interaction between the learner and the context (Rappolt-Schlichtmann et al., 2012). The following section will describe the UDL framework and its principles and guidelines.

The UDL Principles and Guidelines

The UDL framework is based on three principles developed from research in the learning sciences. The three principles are (1) Provide Multiple Means of Engagement, (2) Provide Multiple Means of Representation, and (3) Provide Multiple Means of Action and Expression. The three principles map onto the three learning networks: the affective networks (the "why" of learning), the recognition networks (the "what" of learning), and the strategic networks (the "how" of learning). The UDL guidelines (CAST, 2011; National Center On Universal Design For Learning, 2014) provide practical strategies for educators to implement UDL-based instruction. The UDL principles, guidelines, and checkpoints are represented in Figure 1.

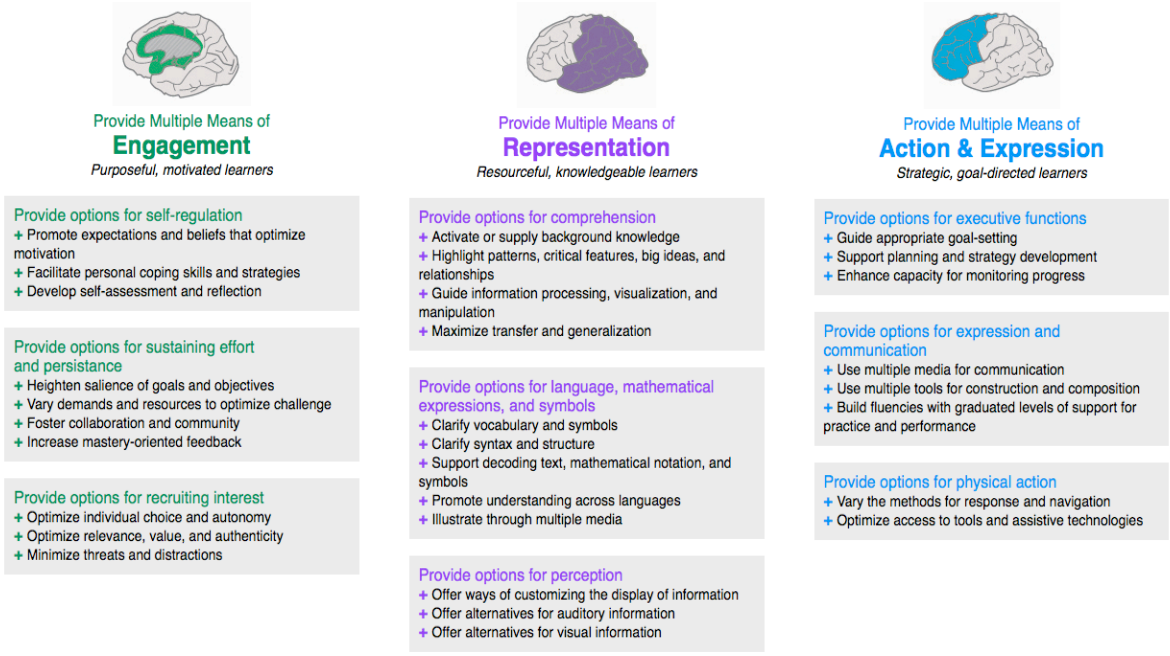

Figure 1: Universal Design for Learning Guidelines.
(National Center On Universal Design For Learning, 2014)

As UDL is a framework and not a curriculum, its guidelines are designed to be used in any subject area and to be adapted by educators to address the specific needs of learners in their educational context. Suggestions for using the UDL guidelines in this broad sense are presented in the following section.

Using the UDL Guidelines

The main purpose of the UDL guidelines is to guide educators in the use of evidence-based means of addressing the wide range of individual differences experienced in any typical classroom (Rose & Gravel, 2010). Hall, Meyer, and Rose (2012) propose that the guidelines and checkpoints are most useful as (a) tools to support the design of lessons or units, (b) tools to assess instructional methods or materials, and (c) tools for facilitating discussion about the curriculum. Suggestions from Hall et al. (2012) for utilizing the UDL guidelines and checkpoints for each of these purposes are now presented.

Tools for lesson development

According to Hall et al. (2012), the UDL guidelines and checkpoints:

- can support the design and development of lessons considering the broadest range of learners from the outset
- can prompt educators to consider ways to design multiple means of Engagement, Representation, and Action and Expression directly into their instruction
- should be applied according to the specific goals of each lesson or unit
- are flexible suggestions to be applied as the teacher deems appropriate

Tools to assess instructional methods or materials

Hall et al. (2012) also suggest that the UDL guidelines and checkpoints:

- can be used to determine whether any barriers exist in the curriculum or learning environment
- provide a framework for reflecting on a lesson that may have been ineffective for some learners
- offer strategies that may provide insight into ways to improve the lesson so that it is accessible to all learners

Tools for facilitating discussion about the curriculum

Finally, Hall et al. (2012) propose that the UDL guidelines and checkpoints can be used to:

- start conversations in curriculum planning meetings about all aspects of the curriculum
- reflect upon ways to design lesson plans that are more inclusive of all learners
- reflect upon the effectiveness of past lessons that may not have drawn from the UDL framework

Narrowing the focus to English language learning, the following section presents examples of how UDL can be used to reduce learning barriers and provide effective learning opportunities in the English language classroom.

UDL in the English Language Learning Classroom

This section will present some suggestions of how English language educators can use the UDL framework to design and implement instruction that reduces barriers to learning and delivers high quality learning opportunities to their learners. It provides practical examples based on each of the three UDL principles and their goals of how this can be implemented.

Principle: Provide Multiple Means of Engagement
Goal: Purposeful, motivated learners

Examples:
- Choice of topics, tools, and means of expression (as appropriate to learning goals)
- Learner portfolios or personal journals
- Project-based learning
- Flexible groupings (e.g., by skill, by interest or passion, for collaboration)
- Near peer role modeling

Principle: Provide Multiple Means of Representation
Goal: Resourceful, knowledgable learners

Examples:
- Visual representations of new vocabulary and concepts
- Auditory and visual support of text-based materials (e.g., listen to CD while reading, read aloud, text-to-speech software, video, graphics, picture books)
- Textual support of auditory information (e.g., transcripts, Automatic Speech Recognition speech-to-text software)
- Scaffolded digital reading environments (SDRs). Create own SDRs or use e-books and resources with auditory and translation support, and multimedia glossaries
- Supply, activate, or provide sources or links to background knowledge to support comprehension of texts

Principle: Provide Multiple Means of Action and Expression
Goal: Strategic, goal-directed learners

Examples:
- Set well-defined and challenging learning goals
- Provide guides and checklists to support appropriate goal setting and planning
- Use graphic organizers and templates to support organization of ideas
- Audio and video recordings (e.g., created using smartphones)
- Movies, manga, posters, dramatic, musical or other responses
- Digital platforms that provide multiple tools, media, and expressive options

In the next section, examples of the successful implementation of some of the options described above in Japanese university EFL classrooms are summarized.

Effecting positive change with UDL: Success stories from the classroom

Although the goal of UDL proponents is that it be implemented, at the very least, on an institution-wide basis – as its prominence in legislation such as the 2008 Higher Education Opportunity Act indicates – this is not always possible. It is quite common for UDL to be implemented "one classroom at a time" as educators become aware of it and trial it in their own contexts. In this section, I will summarize some examples of how I have implemented UDL-based instruction in university EFL classes in Japan.

First, I will briefly describe two successful examples of instruction based on the principle of Engagement. The first involved learners creating a self-directed learning portfolio. Based on the idea that giving options for self-regulation and for recruiting interest through, for example, optimizing individual choice, autonomy, relevance, value, and authenticity, can improve learner engagement, over fifteen weeks learners created a portfolio of expressive works in English. Among the types of expressive works that learners chose to create were short stories, personal journals, and reviews of books and movies. Another activity based on the principle of providing multiple means of Engagement was a self-directed listening portfolio. In order to maximize the amount of English input received through listening, students in a communicative English course were asked to regularly listen to (and watch, if applicable) something in English of their own choosing and to produce some evidence of learning, such as a summary, a review or a vocabulary log. Although guidance was provided on the types of resources and learning tasks that might be suitable, learners had autonomy over what they listened to as well as what type of learning activity they completed. Weekly feedback and advice from the instructor ensured that learners also had sufficient support and guidance in addition to their own self-regulation.

Next, I will summarize two successful examples of instruction based on the principle of Representation. One activity in an extensive reading program involved playing the audio of graded stories while learners simultaneously read and listened. This helped develop reading and speaking skills and was evaluated highly by learners (Dickinson, 2017). This activity is especially helpful for less proficient readers for decoding new words and learning pronunciation. Another activity employing multiple means of Representation involved having students read a story and watch a movie version of the same story. The multimodal representations (textual, visual, aural) of the stories and the L1 support provided in the movies reduce learning barriers by providing options for learners to perceive and comprehend the content. The contrasting interpretations offered by the book and movie representations also offer opportunities for deeper learning as learners not only receive increased language input with multimodal support, but are also able to develop their critical thinking and analytical skills through considering the different perspectives and interpretations provided in the two versions of the story.

Finally, I will describe two examples of instruction successfully implemented in my EFL classes based on the principle of providing multiple means of Action and Expression. One involved a collaborative multimodal storytelling activity where small groups of learners created and performed a narrative using comic-style drawings and language. After learning about narrative structure and the linguistic forms used in narratives, small groups of learners collaborated to create their own narratives in both visual and linguistic formats. The final stage involved each group of learners

performing their stories orally using the comic strip style pictures they had drawn as a visual support. The collaborative nature of this activity enabled learners to use their different strengths and interests, for example, with drawing pictures or writing, to produce the final expression of their learning. The other example involved providing learners with options in how they gave presentations in an EFL class. After researching their self-chosen topic learners were able to present on it in a format of their choosing. Learners could use a poster, PowerPoint, or use video, props and realia in their presentations. For example, one group presenting on the buildings on New York created and used a 3D scale model of the Empire State Building in their presentation. Learners indicated that they enjoyed the option of choosing a presentation format that best suited their topics, skills, and communication styles.

Conclusion

The challenges posed by learner diversity in English language classrooms today are significant. At the same time, with the knowledge we have about learning and the affordances of digital technology there are more opportunities than ever before to address the needs of our diverse learners. Universal Design for Learning has been presented as a promising framework to guide educators in harnessing the available knowledge and tools to create effective learning environments that help all learners meet high learning expectations. This paper has described the UDL framework and shared some suggestions for using it to provide the appropriate goals, instruction, materials, and assessments to help enable this outcome. It has also presented some examples of UDL-based instruction that achieved positive outcomes in EFL classrooms. However, there is a need for much more classroom-based research of UDL, not only to provide evidence of its claimed scientific validity (Edyburn, 2010), but also to evaluate its effectiveness in improving English language learning outcomes for all learners. Only then will UDL become better known and accepted as a valid framework for addressing learner diversity and improving learning outcomes in English language learning education.

References

CAST. (2011). *Universal design for learning guidelines version 2.0*. Wakefield, MA: Author.

Dickinson, P. (2017). Effects of extensive reading on EFL learner reading attitudes. *Selected Papers of the 21st Conference of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*. Tokyo: PAAL.

Edyburn, D. L. (2010). Would you recognize universal design for learning if you saw it? Ten propositions for new directions for the second decade of UDL. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, *33*(1), 33–41.

Fischer, K. W. & Bidell, T. R. (2006). Dynamic development of psychological structures in action and thought. In R. M. Lerner (Ed.) & W. Damon (Series Ed.), *Handbook of child psychology: Theoretical models of human development* (Vol 1, 6th ed., pp. 313–399). New York: Wiley.

Hall, T. E., Meyer, A., & Rose, D. H. (2012). *Universal design for learning in the classroom: Practical applications*. New York: The Guildford Press.

Higher Education Opportunity Act (HEOA). (2008, August 14). Public Law 110-315. Retrieved from http:www2.ed.gov/policy/highered/leg/hea08/index.html

National Center On Universal Design For Learning. (2014). *Universal design for learning guidelines*. Retrieved from http://www.udlcenter.org/aboutudl/udlguidelines_theorypractice

Nelson, L. L. (2014). *Design and deliver: Planning and teaching using universal design for learning*. Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes.

Ralabate, P. (2010). *Universal Design for Learning: A framework for meeting the needs of all learners.* Retrieved from http://slideplayer.com/slide/4300039/

Rappolt-Schlichtmann, G., Daley, S. G., & Rose, L. T. (2012). *A research reader in universal design for learning*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.

Rose, D. H. & Gravel, J. W. (2010). Universal Design for Learning. In P. Peterson, E. Baker, & B. McGraw (Eds.), *International encyclopedia of education* (pp. 119–124). Oxford: Elsevier.

Thelen, E. & Smith, L. B. (1994). *A dynamic systems approach to the development of cognition and action*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Tokuhama-Espinosa, T. (2011). *Mind, brain, and education science: A comprehensive guide to the new brain-based teaching*. New York: Norton.

van Geert, P. (1998). We almost had a great future behind us: The contribution of non-linear dynamics to developmental science in the making. *Developmental Science, 1*(1), 143–159.

iafor

Junior College Students Respond Better to Formative Assessment Than to Paper Midterms

Kinsella Valies, Nihon University, Japan

The IAFOR International Conference on Language Learning – Hawaii 2017
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract

Replacing paper midterms with challenging, assessment projects is in line with Robinson and Ross' ideas on measurement: "traditional skills-focused tests of EAP ability relate only weakly to learners' ability to act on such skills in authentic task conditions (1996)."

The Be Our Guest Midterm Assessment Project aimed to confirm that classroom-based, formative assessment leads to more authentic measurement of communicative ability and an increase in student motivation.

A 3-session lesson plan was designed and implemented in a Japanese junior college EFL setting. A group of 30, multi-level students prepared to interact with a visiting Japanese professional in English; assignments required students to listen to a presentation and respond, process relevant information, initiate further communication, reflect and report.

The project structure not only proved helpful in assessing students' grasp of communication strategies, but surveys showed that students were generally more satisfied with their performance than they were after a paper-based test. Pre-activity, many insisted that they 'can't' because they need 'more' English. Post-task many had formed individual learning goals, wanting to use their English 'better'.

Due to its success in improving motivation as well as grades, the project continued with a few methodological adjustments meant to correct one of the limitations, anxiety-based truancy. The newest format included more learner independence as well as technology-assisted input and output segments. The same survey objects were then used to compare the impact of the two versions of the project. Previous positive results turned out to be sustainable and presented a lowered percentage of truancy.

Keywords: Authenticity, collaborative learning, project-based assessment, junior college, confidence.

Introduction

Junior college graduates at Nihon University's College of International Relations often score low on English finals, due to a lack of self-reflection and corrective behavior, leading to low confidence and motivation (Valies, 2016). In the Business and Management department, a sectional, phased introduction of structural changes to native-taught English courses started as part of a bigger effort to match the required learning outcomes with in-course language instruction and production. These changes consisted of the gradual introduction of task-based and project-based instruction where fluency and L2 language-user confidence were central.

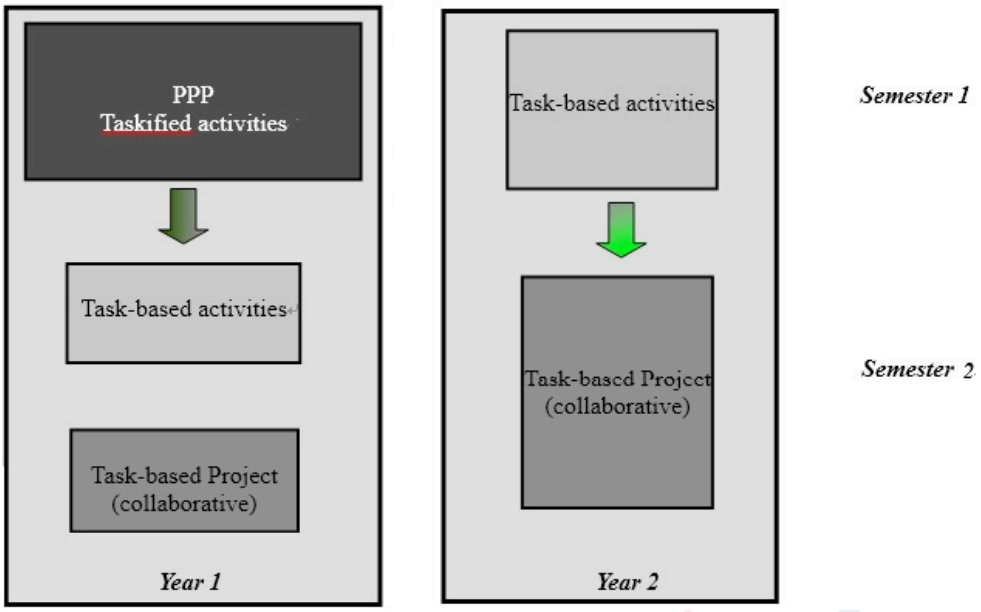

Figure 1: Assessment cycle task-based curriculum implementation now.

Rationale

Replacing paper midterms follow Robinson and Ross' ideas on *authentic measurement*: "traditional skills-focused tests of EAP ability relate only weakly to learners' ability to act on such skills in authentic task conditions (1996)." In my attempts to mitigate this disparity in native-taught EFL classrooms, I have found project-based tasks especially helpful in assessing students' grasp of communication strategies. Such tasks provide them with the chance to show their ability to communicate in authentic, real time situations.

As I discussed in a previously published article featuring the Be Our Guest lesson cycle, bolstering intrinsic motivation to keep students working towards English fluency is just as important as authenticity. By allowing students to interact in the target language with Japanese professionals, authenticity remains central. Guest speakers function as examples of students' *future L2 self* in the work force. As L2 end-users they can provide insights that will help students feel confident about attaining their learning goals. For example, while sharing their experiences, they could stress how perfect command of a language is not necessary for communication and highlight how mastering a new language did not change their heritage (2016).

When considering future professional L2 learning goals, one tends to focus on the 18-40 age bracket active in the work force. It may be useful to look a little further and consider whether the learning goals and interests change in an older age bracket. An exploratory survey on learning styles, learning goals and motivation was held among older learners who choose to continue their English studies in their free time. The sample was taken from four levels studying at VOIS NPO Shizuoka and Mishima. The total number of respondents was 12 out of 25. The most represented age group was between 30-60. The object was an online survey created in google forms. This means that respondents had to use technology to submit their replies. The result though anecdotal indicate a common thread. The reason learners choose to continue to study is to achieve previously unreached learning goals during their secondary and tertiary education. Since they are experienced workers, self-sustained motivation and the ability to work independently to complete tasks can be assumed. They are beyond the L2 future image and they still would have rather had been trained to self-motivate and study independently at an earlier stage in their lives. Listed learning goals included L2-user confidence, listening, reaction speed and the ability to talk about Japanese culture in English (see appendix 1). This could lead one to believe that fostering confidence in the ability to use the language should start early and should be given its due place in the curriculum.

Keeping in mind the need to foster learner confidence, provide real time opportunities to use the language and authenticity, project-based assessment was implemented on a trial basis. The purpose of this study was to confirm whether a practitioner-generated, classroom-based, project-based assessment tool could more accurately measure the communicative ability of junior college students and increase their confidence levels. In the following sections I will discuss approach, results, course corrections, conclusions and limitations respectively.

Approach

The study was conducted over two years (2015-2017) and participants were first-year and second-year junior college students of the smaller Business and Management department. The courses selected for this study were two core courses, namely English II, IV. Both focused on the practice of listening and speaking, as well as reading and writing skills. Though communicatively-oriented, input and expected output was academic English. For the 2015-2016 schoolyear participating students came to 35. The participating students' level of English ranged between TOEIC level 200-350. The assessment project was slated for 3 sessions, 90 minutes each. Project goals were to assess student ability to apply listening, speaking and writing strategies studied over half a semester. Learning outcomes were explained to the students at the start of the first session and specified in a grading grid. (see appendix 2)

Learning outcomes included:

- understanding the main points of a presentation given in real time
- asking the speaker questions and clarifying where needed
- processing the gathered information through team work
- forming an opinion and supporting it with examples from the presentation
- reflection on use of L2 in future professional life

To confirm the efficacy of the project as an assessment tool, the teacher had students fill out a pre- and post-task confidence survey (Valies, 2016), a pre-and post-test confidence survey (see Appendix 3) and compared semester 1 midterm test results with semester 2 project grades. Resources used included paper-based student handouts, a 15-minute Power Point presentation by a guest speaker. Objects used for evaluation purposes included teacher observation sheets, confidence self-assessment forms, pre- and post-talk surveys, grade lists from assessment project and midterm tests.

Procedure

The 3-sessions followed the same preparation procedure for both first and second year students as they all attended the same presentation with the same guest speaker.

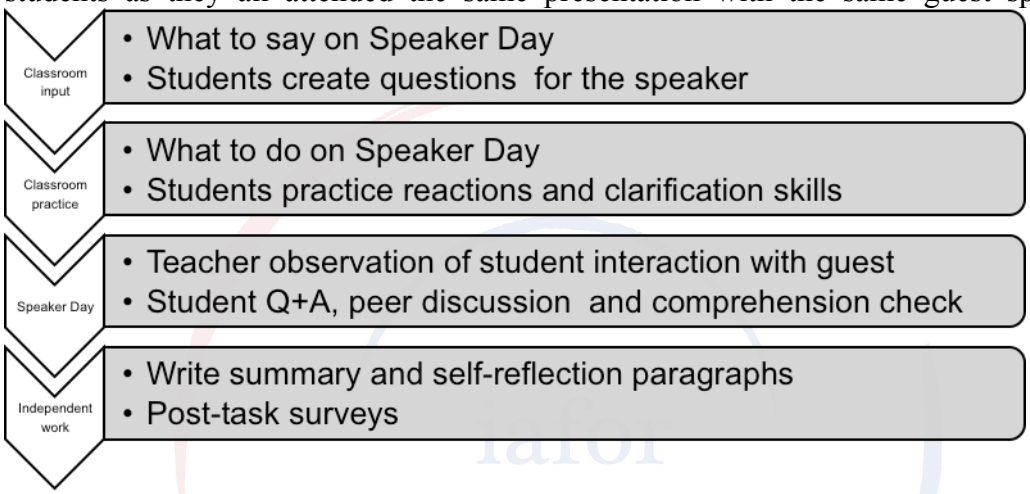

Figure 2: Flow chart project procedure.

As you can gather from the flow chart above, students can go back and look up functions acquired in class and select the most applicable ones to help them complete their tasks. This creative option is absent when taking tests. The fact that a variety of valid responses are accepted often lessens any performance anxiety.

Results

In-class observations and post-task surveys show that:

- students use more skills to complete *real-time* tasks than when they simply reproduce language
- student confidence increased after completing the project (see figure 3)
- student grades are higher after completion of a project than after a taking a test. 1st graders at +20% ; C to B. 2nd graders at +8%; D to C. (see figure 4)
- students prefer a final project over a final test

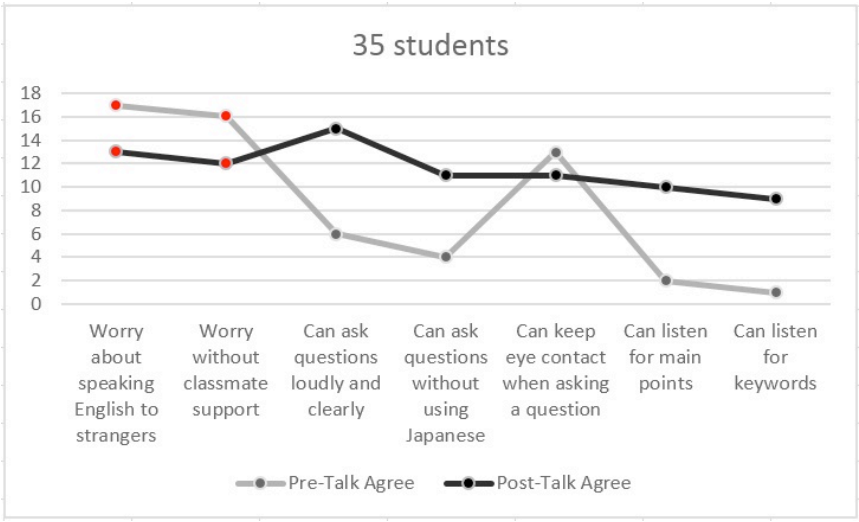

Figure 3: Pre-talk and post-talk confidence all students.

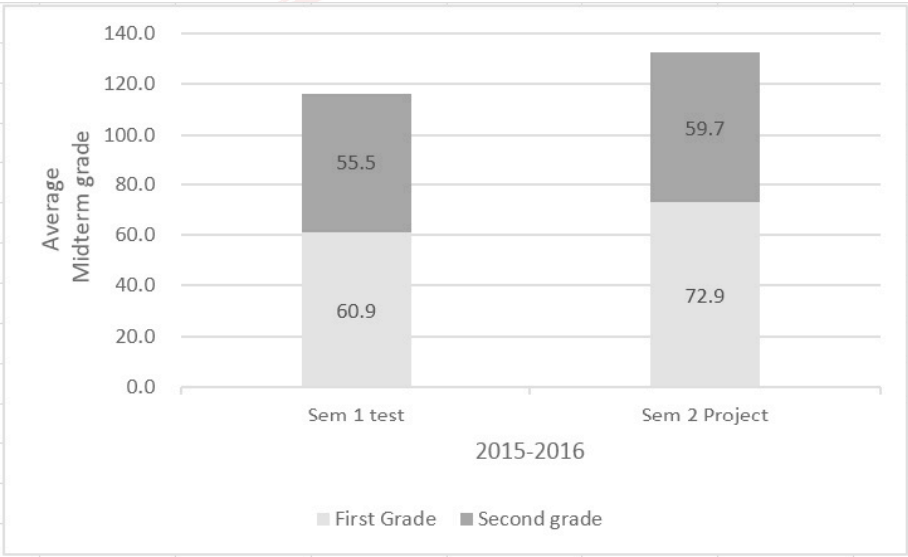

Figure 4: Comparison of midterm test and midterm project grades 2015-2016.

Even though a large number of students complained that the preparation and independent work were time-consuming, many were happy with their accomplishments. Combining all four skills in a real-life situation turns out to be enough of a challenge for students unused to a task-based format. Surprisingly, some students came to the memorable realization that English was a tool they had to learn to use more effectively. Pre-activity they insisted that they needed *more* English, but post-task they wanted to learn to *use it better* (K.Valies, 2016).

Limitations

- The sample of 35 consisted of higher proficiency level students taking native taught, mandatory English courses.
- Though truancy on Speaker Day was an automatic fail, there were still no-shows. Reasons included performance anxiety and time commitment.
- Class composition changes between semesters affect team work, peer support and motivation.

Attempted corrections

Due to the positive results obtained, increased confidence and higher grades, the project was continued the following school year (2016-2017). In the hope of further improvements, the project approach and procedure were adjusted to address the limitations uncovered the previous year. Truancy on speaker day and lack of team participation are central. In trying to reduce performance anxiety and time commitment, the decision was made to extend the number of classroom sessions to a total of four. Reasons for this include supplying students with more monitored preparation time to ask questions and have peer discussion.

Additionally, first year students were assigned a different end-task than the more experienced second-year students. First year students from the new English II core courses (now oral fluency focused) will no longer write reports but are instead required to do in-class presentations to prove their comprehension. These were then both peer and teacher evaluated. The second-years were assigned a transformative, creative project which required them to actively obtain information through a group interview with the guest speaker. Their focus became exploring who the presenter was professionally as well as who their classmates were. They achieve this they created bio poems and a compilation of informative and concise video biographies.

Approach

The continuation of the study was conducted over the 2016-2017 academic year. Participants were first-year and second-year junior college students of the smaller Business and Management department. The courses selected for this study were two core courses, namely English II, IV. The revised English II course focused on the practice of listening and speaking, while English IV was limited to reading and writing skills. For 2016-2017, the participants numbered 17. Their level of English proficiency remained between TOEIC level 200-350. The assessment project was slated for 4 sessions, 90 minutes each. Project goals were to assess student ability to apply listening, speaking and writing strategies studied over half a semester. Learning outcomes were explained to the students at the start of the first session and specified in a grading grid. (see appendix 2)

Learning outcomes for the first-year students were unchanged. Second-year students worked towards:

- creating questions that would get them the information they needed to create a bio poem and video biography
- asking the speaker questions and clarifying where needed
- collecting information through team work and pairing it down to a concise yet informative poem
- speaking and recording oneself and reflecting upon one's performance

The two survey objects from last year were used as is and again semester 1 midterm test results with semester 2 project grades were compared. Resources used included a 15-minute Power Point presentation by a guest speaker, iPads, two separate, teacher-monitored *Padlet* class pages, smartphones, video editing software, open source imagery and music.

Procedure

The structure of the four sessions remained unchanged for the first-year students. The most significant addition to the content was the peer-led reflection on future jobs and the English needs involved. The second-year students followed the pattern shown in the flowchart below (see figure 5). On Speaker Day they interviewed the speaker in a more intimate setting (see appendix 4).

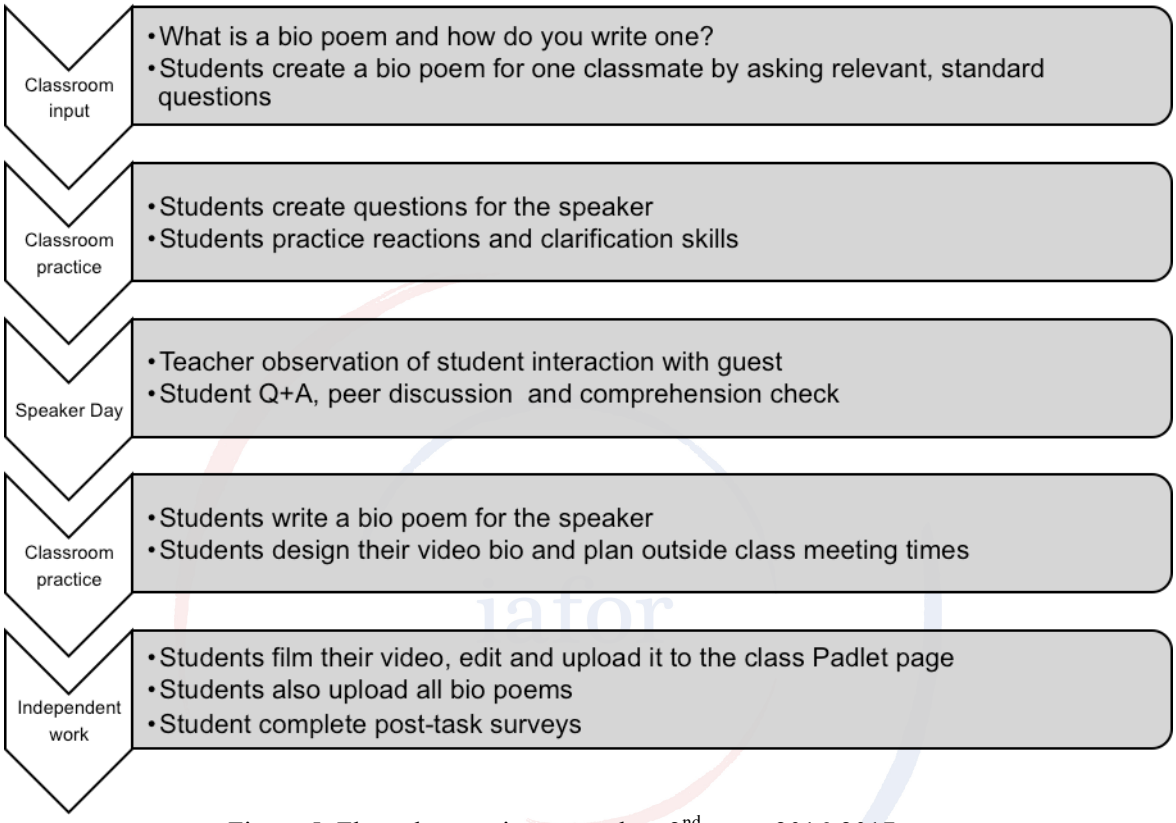

Figure 5: Flow chart project procedure 2nd years 2016-2017.

Results

In-class observations and post-task surveys show that:

- student confidence is sustained after completing the project
- 2nd year grades are higher after the project than after the test. 2nd graders go up by +77%; D to A. 1st graders show a 5% decline; C to D (see figure 6).
- students still prefer a midterm project over a midterm test.
- students indicated four lessons provided enough time to complete the tasks.
- Second-years could independently use functions on their devices including video editing software and the *Padlet* app. First-years needed more support.
- Truancy percentages in the second grade decreased with the changes to the project procedures. Conversely the first grade showed an increase (figure 7).

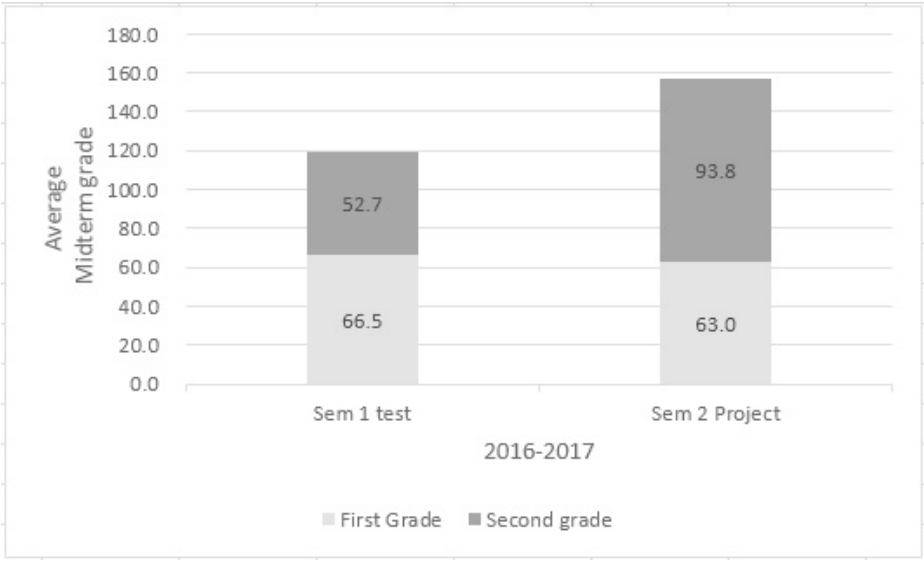

Figure 6: Comparison of midterm test and midterm project grades 2016-2017

Limitations

1. The 2016-2017 participant sample was smaller than the previous year due to smaller class sizes.
2. Course content for both English II and English IV (second semester/project-based assessment) changed affecting team work, peer support and motivation.
3. The first-year students' familiarity with functions on their devices beyond those used daily was overestimated. Many needed extra support either from their teacher or classmates.
4. The first-year group included a few students with social difficulties and trouble adjusting to student life. This most likely accounts for the hike in truancy.

Truancy Speaker Day 2015-2017	Percentages
Grade 1 - 2015-2016	10
Grade 2 - 2015-2016	**16**
Grade 1 - 2016-2017	17
Grade 2 - 2016-2017	**0**

Figure 7: Truancy percentages with tests and project assessment.

Conclusion

Replacing midterm tests with project-based assessment remains a viable alternative that provides sustained increases in learner confidence, grade improvements and a more concise understanding of students' ability to creatively use the L2 language to convey meaning (fluency). Though limitations on the study may have caused variable results, closer monitoring and increased independence to organize tasks can be said to have helped students believe in their ability to 'fix' their English. Anxious students felt included by closer peer- and teacher communication lines and more regular feedback moments. The switch from writing summary and opinion paragraphs to presentations reflecting on students' future professional use of L2 led to more meaningful questions and register appropriate questions. In similar fashion, the second-year students delivered a far more personal document when given freedom to use alternative forms of expression. Technological problems were easily solved by adding digital handouts with extra pointers and/or screen captures for easy student access. Students were immediately on board with a non-paper instruction manual and appreciated the mobile access to it.

Implications for further study

Further refinement of the assessment tools is indicated. First graders would benefit from an earlier introduction to the real speaker format on a smaller scale. For example, could listen to one mini presentation by a classmate and perform the similar tasks as those included in the midterm project during one lesson.

References

Angeli, E., Wagner, J., Lawrick, E., Moore, K., Anderson, M., Soderlund, L., & Brizee, A. (2010, May 5). *General format*. Retrieved from http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/01/

Robinson, P., & Ross, S. (1996). The development of task-based assessment in English for academic purposes programs. *Applied Linguistics*, *17*(4), 455-476.

Takeda, R. 2015, 'Face and Emotions of Japanese University Students', Presentation at the JALT 2015 Focus on the Learner Conference, Shizuoka, Japan, 21 November.

Valies, K. (2016). Be Our Guest: A Midterm Assessment Project. *JALT MW SIG's Between the Keys*, 24.2,12.

Valies, K. (2016). Task-based EFL Curriculum Now: Implementation at Junior College. *Studies in International Relations*, 37(1), 83-93.

Valies, K. (2017). Exploring Collaborative, Media Projects as Assessment Tools within a Task-based EFL Curriculum at Junior College. *Studies in International Relations*, 37(2). Manuscript scheduled for publication 2/2017.

Appendix 1

What are your main language learning goals?

- [ ] Improving my listening
- [ ] Improving my confidence
- [ ] Improving my speaking speed
- [ ] Increasing my reaction speed
- [ ] Increasing my vocabulary
- [ ] Learning to make fewer mistakes
- [ ] Learning how to talk about and explain Japanese culture/history in English

Source: Object previously published in *Studies in International Relations*, 37(2).

Appendix 2

GRADING GRID

Asked question clearly	2	4	6	8	10
Class questions included in report	2	4	6	8	10
Used keywords in summary	2	4	6	8	10
60% main points in summary	3	6	9	12	15
Topic sentence at start of paragraph	2	4	6	8	10
Reasons and effects	2	4	6	8	10
Examples from talk	2	4	6	8	10
Concluding sentences	2	4	6	8	10
Paragraph length	2	4	6	8	10
Included Mr.Horiike's task	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 3

Pre-talk self-assessment: confidence statements	Agree	Agree a little	Don't agree
I worry about speaking English to strangers.	17	16	2
I worry if I don't have classmate support.	16	16	3
I can ask questions loudly and clearly.	6	24	5
I can ask questions without using Japanese.	4	17	13
I can keep eye contact when asking a question.	13	17	5
I can listen for main points.	2	28	4
I can listen for keywords.	1	29	4

Post-talk self-assessment: confidence statements	Agree	Agree a little	Don't agree
1. The speaker understood me.	13	15	3
2. I was able to ask questions loudly and clearly.	12	16	3
3. I was able to ask questions without using Japanese.	15	15	1
4. I was able to explain my question.	11	16	4
5. I was able to ask questions without looking at my paper.	11	12	8
6. I can listen for main points.	10	16	5
7. I can listen for keywords.	9	19	3

Source: JALT MW SIG's Between the Keys, 24.2,12.

Appendix 4

Be Our Guest, Bio poem interview
Second graders 2016-2017.

Be Our Guest, speaker presentation
First graders 2016-2017.

What's Love Got to Do with It? Motivating Intercultural Competency and Language Learning through Discussions of Intercultural Romantic Love Relationships

Jon Dujmovich, Aichi University, Japan

The IAFOR International Conference on Language Learning – Hawaii 2017
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract

While English is mandatory in Japanese junior and senior high schools, Japanese university students' communicative language competency is generally very poor. Many blame this on the Japanese entrance exam system, which overemphasizes grammar rather than communicative competency.

To counterbalance this, many Japanese universities have started creating *language cafés* and *language lounges* where students can interact informally in a naturalistic setting with native English speakers and speakers of other languages (e.g., Kawamura, 2008; Nanzan University, n.d.; Sasaki, 2009; Yokkaichi University, n.d.). As students are not required to attend these cafés and lounges, organizers need to plan interesting programs, activities, or otherwise motivate students to attend (Kurokawa, Yoshida, Lewis, Igarashi & Kuradate, 2013).

Studies (e.g., Fisher, 2009; Hatfield & Rapson, 2016) have found that romantic love is a strong motivator, which increases the desire to learn a foreign language for young Japanese students (Pillar & Takahashi, 2006; Pillar, 2009). We capitalized on this at our Language Café by using romantic love as the topic of conversation. As students experienced *cultural bumps* (Archer, 1986), these would lead to intense discussions of love, cross-cultural conundrums, and issues these learners faced when dating.

This article is based on a participant–observer account of how intercultural love relationships served as a motivator for students to learn language, and how discussions about these relationships in the lounge not only helped improve their language skills but also enhanced their intercultural competency.

Keywords: motivation, second language competency, intercultural competency, intercultural romantic love, language café

Introduction

For many Japanese university students, conversing in English or other foreign languages remains a difficult and arduous task. To this end, many institutions are creating on-campus language cafés or lounges staffed with native English speakers and speakers of other languages to provide students with opportunities for extracurricular foreign language communicative practice (e.g., Kawamura, 2008; Nanzan University, n.d.; Sasaki, 2009; Yokkaichi University, n.d.). As most of these initiatives are not for credit, coordinators must find ways to enhance student motivation to attend and participate in these extracurricular offerings (Kurokawa, et al., 2013). Creating interesting programs and activities is, therefore, vital to the success of these initiatives. This paper will begin by introducing a university language café program. Next, it will review the literature on romantic love across cultures. Finally, it will provide learner examples of how ICRLRs influenced second language learning for the participants at the lounge.

The Language Café 2012-2016

Established in April of 2012 at the Aichi University Toyohashi campus language laboratory, the language café (LC) was initially envisioned as a casual space for conversing in foreign languages in an informal setting. To mimic a café ambience, a self-serve beverage area, comfortable seating options, and other amenities were provided. Three principle languages—English, French, and Chinese Mandarin—had scheduled space and times at the LC. These scheduled times were known as the English Café, Café Français, and 中国語 café (Chinese cafe) periods.

Full-time instructors (native speakers of those languages) regularly attended the LC and a schedule ensured that during the designated time at least one native speaker of that language was present at the LC. Instructors received a small stipend for attending as scheduled, but often attended more frequently than required as the LC became an interesting, informal place to gather on campus and enjoy conversing with others. Other languages such as German, Portuguese, Korean, and Taiwanese were occasionally spoken impromptu at the LC.

Located on the ground floor of a central building, and with a colourfully lit sign announcing "café," the space was open to all students on campus including regular Aichi University undergraduate students, junior college students, and adult learners attending open campus lectures. There were very few international students and immigrant students on the Toyohashi campus, but from time-to-time such a student would appear at the LC. The main "international" intercultural contact at the LC overwhelmingly remained between Japanese students and the foreign national instructors.

Language Café Discussion Groups

Upon entering the LC, students could choose where they wanted to sit and join any existing conversation or form new conversation partners/groups. Topics of

conversation varied greatly from day to day and were also influenced by the approach of the instructor scheduled to attend the LC. Some instructors preferred to have structured discussions and provided a conversation menu from which topics could be selected and discussed. Some brought in materials that they considered to be interesting for learners, while others took different approaches with discussions of current issues or employed completely laissez-faire approaches to topics leaving it entirely to the LC participants.

Discourse at the LC was wide-ranging and often students found a particular topic, group, or professor they preferred and returned to continue discussions in following LC sessions. One discussion topic that had been a constant in the English café for a particular group of students and myself was *dating and love*, that evolved into *love across cultures*, or more specifically *intercultural romantic love relationships* (ICRLR). To frame this discussion, we first need to establish what romantic love is.

Literature Review

Romantic Love

Many concepts of love with numerous variations between cultures and individuals have been put forth, thus *love* or *romantic love* as it applies to this study must first be described and defined. According to philosopher Grayling (2001), the ancient Greeks had a plethora of ways to label love's manifestations, and psychologist Lee (1973) has often been credited with synthesizing the numerous forms of love known to ancient Greeks into six basic types, including three primary types: Eros, Ludus, and Storge, and three combination types: Pragma, Mania, and Agape (Hatfield, Benson, & Rapson, 2012). Pines (2005) suggested that of the six types, it was in Eros where the roots of romantic love could be found. Lee (1973) noted Eros represented feelings of passion with features of strong physical desires and intense emotions, agreeing with what Tennov (1979) described in the early stages of romantic love. Ries, Aron, Clark, and Finkel (2013) believed the study of romantic love mostly remained in the domain of philosophers, artists, and poets until the 1980s when new taxonomies and theories were developed from the discipline of relationship science. Hatfield, Benson, and Rapson (2012) noted during the 1980s that scholars began to look more deeply at the nature of love rather than trying to understand romantic love in sociological terms as a prelude to marriage. Hendrick and Hendrick (1986) devised a *Love Attitudes Scale* and Hatfield and Sprecher (1986) created the *Passionate Love Scale*, each with their own taxonomies or styles of love. Sternberg's Triangular Theory of Love proposed love was comprised of three basic components—intimacy, passion, and commitment—which also offered a classification of *consummate love* to describe this form of love (Sternberg, 1988).

Although there have been several theoretical models of love, Kline, Horton, and Zhang (2008) found most researchers across the social science disciplines agreed on two basic distinct types of love: *passionate love* also commonly referred to as *romantic love*, marked by intense emotions and physical yearning, and what is called *compassionate love, comfort love*, or *attachment love* marked by a sense of choice,

obligation, and commitment (Bartels & Zeki, 2004; Fisher, 2004; Gottman, 2011; Hatfield & Rapson 2005; Jankowiak, 2008; Hendrick & Hendrick, 2006; Landis & O'Shea, 2000; Liebowitz, 1983; Reis, Aron, Clark, & Finkel, 2013; Schmitt, 2004; Shelling & Fraser-Smith, 2008; Sprecher & Regan, 1998). Berscheid and Hatfield are two scholars within the field of relationship science who have been credited with creating this basic distinction between passionate and compassionate love that Reis et al. (2013) have viewed as having "dramatically enhanced the clarity with which romantic love is studied and understood" (p. 562).

Romantic love has been seen as being an authentic, intense, pure, deeply moving experience (Jankowiak, 2008) that spans the human lifetime occurring at any stage (Hendrick & Hendrick, 2006) and can take a variety of forms (Fisher, 2004). According to Swindler (2001) "romantic love may enshrine sudden passion, a gradually growing inner certainty, or careful weighing of pros and cons as ways to know whether a relationship is worthy of commitment" (p. 202). Lee (1973) and later Hendrick and Hendrick (2006) saw it as having different "styles" primarily because styles can be seen as having the properties of interaction, interchangeability, and multiplicity. Hendrick and Hendrick (2006) further proclaimed love styles as "a better label than 'ideologies'" and defined it as "attitude/belief systems that include a variable emotional core, and possibly some linkage to personality traits" (p.150). Pines (2005) found that several theories of romantic love suggested it was a process comprised of distinct stages or clearly recognizable phases. Some have viewed romantic love more whimsically, perhaps as an overpowering spirit that is ignited mysteriously (Tennov, 1979). Others such as Fisher (2004) saw romantic love in the maps of chemical pathways and neural programming that drive it, a "primordial mating force" (p. 219).

Defining exactly what romantic love is, especially in a modern context, has been tricky. For simplicity, I will adopt Hatfield, Bensman, and Rapson's (2012) definition of passionate love as "a state of intense longing for union with another" (p. 144) with the understanding that romantic love also combines a longing for emotional and physical intimacy as well as passion (Sternberg, 1988, 1986) with a cognitive choice to enter into and continue the relationship.

According to the accepted literature, some of romantic love's common traits include heightened emotional and physical attraction, the idealization of one's beloved and the relationship, obsession, intensity, infatuation, hope, ecstasy, increased energy, anxiety, and despair in separation. Further, it includes a feeling of uniqueness and the beliefs in one true love, love at first sight, true love lasting forever, and that love can triumph over great obstacles (Buss, 2006; Dicks, 1995; Fisher, 2004, 2009; Hatfield & Rapson, 2005; Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986, 2006; Pines, 2005; Sprecher, Aron, Hatfield, Cortese, Potapova, & Levitskaya, 1994; Swindler, 2001; Tennov, 1979).

Chemically and biologically, romantic love is associated with the increased production and levels of dopamine, oxytocin, vasopressin, testosterone, norepinephrine, adrenaline, and serotonin in the body, particularly the brain (Fisher, 2004; Fisher et al., 2005; Hatfield & Rapson, 2005; Jankowiak, 2008; Schmitt, 2006;

Sprecher & Regan, 1998). Fisher (2004) and Fisher, Aron, and Brown (2005) have found many of these chemical substances are involved in rewards processes, with experiences of pleasure and addiction, and sexual arousal systems of the brain often acting as neurotransmitters.

Universality of Romantic Love

Fisher, Aron, and Brown (2005) conducted a study using Hatfield and Sprecher's (1986) measure of romantic love, the *Passionate Love Scale (PLS)*, in combination with modern magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) technology to map romantic love in the human brain. They found increased activity in the dopamine-rich areas of the brain thought to be associated with sex drive, reward and motivation systems, and attachment behaviors. Rather than being thought of as an emotion, Fisher, Aron, and Brown suggested that romantic love is a motivation system that changes over time.

The findings from this study combined with evidence from several multicultural studies on romantic love led Fisher (2004) to confidently state, "romantic love is deeply embedded in the architecture and chemistry of the human brain . . . a universal human experience" (p. 3). In a study of 166 societies around the world, Jankowiak and Fischer (1993) found evidence of romantic love in 88.5%. Jankowiak (2008) later included an appendix in his publication with an extensive list of ethnographic evidence supporting the universality of romantic love. Pines (2005) acknowledged the universality of romantic love and noted that it was a social construct that is historically and culturally bound. Matsumoto and Juang (2013) also saw love as universal, and drew attention to the uniqueness of romantic love as a human emotion. The authors further pointed out that cultures value romantic love differently, sometimes vastly differently. Today, according to Hatfield et al., (2012), it is generally accepted that romantic love or passionate love is a common cultural universal.

Culture and Romantic Love

Hatfield and Rapson (2005) argued culture impacted romantic love in a number of ways such as how we viewed love, how susceptible we were to falling in love, who we loved, the course of romantic love, or attachment built in the relationship. As the result of a comprehensive study of romantic attachment in 64 different cultural areas around the globe, Schmitt et al. (2004) concluded that cultural differences in romantic love appeared in the manifestations associated with values, beliefs, and attachment patterns of romantic love. Schmitt (2006) later added that cultural experiences of romantic love varied, while Jankowiak (2008) further indicated that romantic love's universality is bound by cultural patterns of expression. It seemed the human universality of romantic love was generally accepted, as well as cultural differences in expression and influence on romantic love.

Dicks (1995), Grearson and Smith (1995), and Romano (2008) provided evidence that when people from different cultural backgrounds coupled in romantic love, it was

often the case that cultural differences did not appear immediately. According to Romano (2008):

> In the early stages of all love relationships—and intercultural relationships are no exception—people are aware of and encouraged by the similarities between them. Any differences they do see are often disregarded as surface details, challenges, or aspects that make the relationship more interesting. (p. xv)

In an examination of people's attitudes towards romantic love and the value of romantic love across cultures, Hendrick and Hendrick (2006) noted that the similarities, not the differences, seemed more pronounced across cultural groups. However, Shelling and Fraser-Smith (2008) noted that in ICRLR "huge cultural differences can also exist between partners within the west [or any one nation], especially those whose ancestors or influences stem from two totally different cultures" (p. xi).

Finally, profound understanding of cultural values may prove difficult for some because it can go unnoticed like the air. Similarly, Swindler (2001) drew attention to this point noting individuals may not be fully aware of the influences of their own culture on ICRLRs because it is part of their everyday lives. One of the aims of this discussion group focusing on ICRLRs was to draw attention to one's own values and cultural influences in the relationship.

ICRLRs and Japanese Communication Styles

Alupoaicei (2009) and Romano (2008) found that communication styles and cultural communication preferences were the other major sources of difficulties in ICRLR. Hall and Hall (2002) stated, "cultural communications are deeper and more complex than spoken or written messages" (p. 165), perhaps suggesting specific attention needed to be paid to cultural context in relation to communication styles in ICRLR. Rogers, Hart, and Miike (2002) found Hall's high-context and low-context communication dichotomy "particularly useful for many Japanese scholars in explaining Japanese communication through cultural concepts" (p. 17).

Hall (1976), Bennett (1998), and Poulsen and Thomas (2011), all emphasized how low-context communication style—a direct, precise verbal approach—has been often valued by individualistic cultures; whereas high-context communication with meanings and intentions often inferred, or implicit in context, has been often valued by collectivist cultures. Ting-Toomey (2009) added that in an ICRLR when dissimilar communication approaches are employed, very different expectations and interpretations have frequently led couples to experience major communication breakdowns. Lack of sensitivity with a partner's communication approach has led to other problems including feelings of being on different levels (Romano, 2008), misjudged intentions (Shelling & Fraser-Smith, 2008), and loss of face (Ting-Toomey, 1994), with the latter found to run counter to Japanese social mores (Lewis, 1999).

Kito (2005) and Ting-Toomey (2012) remarked that in day-to-day communication, Japanese have tended to show disproportionately limited amounts of their public self in comparison to their private self, and Levine et al. (1995) noted that Japanese preferred to take a reserved approach with self-disclosure. Ting-Toomey and Chung (2012) also found that the Japanese guarded their inner feelings especially at the outset of a romantic love relationship, and self-disclosure came at a slower, polychronic time rhythm. Hall (1959) and Poulsen and Thomas (2011), commented that in chronemics, polychronic cultures have been generally viewed as being indirect, fluid with regards to time schedules, and have tended to be comfortable with multitasking activities; whereas monochronic cultures have seemed to be more linear, direct, and have tended to organize time sequentially with punctuality highly valued. Hall and Hall (1987) offered a strong argument that showed Japan has been interpreted to have a unique blend of being very monochronic with regards to schedules, foreigners, and technology, but quite polychronic in most other situations.

Methods

As stated in the introduction, the English Café shared a schedule time and LC space with other languages. English was scheduled Mondays through Wednesdays 12:40 pm - 1:15 pm, and 4:40 pm - 7:00 pm. It was possible to meet on other days and times, which did occur for from time to time. The participants in this study met at the LC to speak English, and shared stories of their relationships on their own volition. With the exception of myself, all participants attended the group irregularly. Throughout the history of ICRLR group discussions, the group was in flux with new participants continually entering discussions while other participants departed. At any given LC meeting, the group I met with ranged from two members (myself and a participant) to a group of ten to twelve people.

The discussions are recounted in this study from the perspective of a participant-observer and through one-one-one interviews with the two participant students who were part of the group from its inception in 2013 during the second year of the LC to December 2016.

Results and Discussion

Discussion of Love at the Language Café

Discussions of love, values, and dating behaviors quickly became a mainstay topic at my English Café group as curiosity regarding the phenomenon grew and participants returned each week. Simons et al. (1986) and Sprecher et al. (1994) found that at least for young Japanese, romantic love was valued for marital unions in a similar sense as Westerners. Lieberman and Hatfield (2006) and Ting-Toomey (2009) noted this was especially true in modern times, thus romantic love made for an engaging topic for LC participants. Talking about ICRLRs at the LC developed out of discussions on dating and love in general, and personal differences and experiences therein. For example, several early LC sessions were spent discussing and exploring the Japanese dating concept of *kokuhaku* (告白) or *love confessions* that marked the

onset of romantic love relationships. In this love confession typically one partner, usually the male, states intentions to couple through a commonly used phrase such as "好きです。付き合ってください" (I love you. Can we start seeing each other?). Regardless of whether the couple has known each other a long time or not, are friends, or have gone on group dates together, they are typically not considered an exclusive couple until the ritual love confession is performed and accepted. From a cultural perspective, it is widely understood that Japanese society has a preference for clear social markers including beginnings and endings of relationships (Ramsey, 1998). Thus, the love confession can be viewed as an extension of the cultural preference for clear boundaries even in the forming of personal relationships.

During one discussion of *kokuhaku*, students were asked to view the ritual from the perspective of an outsider whose culture did not have such a ritual. For a rare "homework" assignment, I invited the students to consider an intercultural dating scenario in which one partner is Japanese and the other partner a foreigner from that culture of which we spoke. Their assignment for the following meeting was to be prepared to describe how the Japanese person would know if they were in a committed romantic relationship when there was no explicit *kokuhaku*-style statement. Once the group dispersed, Yuri, a 20-year-old female student privately confided in me that she was going through that identical circumstance herself with her American friend whom she had known for four months and was not sure if he was her boyfriend or not. The ensuing conversation went something like this:

> Instructor: Does he call or text you every day?
> Yuri: Yes, always. All the time.
> Instructor: Do you see him often?
> Yuri: Every weekend we go out somewhere together or with friends.
> Instructor; Is seeing him every weekend implied? I mean, do you expect to see him every weekend?
> Yuri: Yes.
> Instructor; Have you held hands or kissed?
> Yuri: (timidly) Yes.
> Instructor: Congratulations! You have a boyfriend!

In this case, Yuri appeared so bound by her cultural expectations and norms regarding dating, she had completely overlooked the numerous other indicators of an emerging romantic love relationship.

Discovering ICRLRs

As it happened, there were quite a few students who attended the initial group discussions, and some who later attended subsequent meetings, that confessed to being in various stages of ICRLRs. These students were all Japanese females and all had white male partners from North America, Europe, and Oceania. The native language of the male partners was predominantly English, but there were also two French speakers and one German speaker. The students met their partners either in Japan or while studying abroad.

Piller and Takahashi noted on numerous occasions that the desire to learn English is intertwined with the desire for romance for many Japanese female English second language learners (Piller & Takahashi, 2006; Piller, 2009; Takahashi, 2010).

ICRLRs and Cultural Patterns

Much of the discussion regarding ICRLRs in the English Café group came about through participants describing cultural bumps (Archer, 1986) in their relationships. "A cultural bump occurs when an individual from one culture finds himself or herself in a different, strange, or uncomfortable situation when interacting with persons of a different culture" (pp. 170-171). For example, on several occasions a few of the students would express their annoyance with their Western male partner's inability to make clear decisions in the relationship. The students reported feeling awkward, impatient, perturbed, resentful, and confused by the behavior. In the group discussion, I drew their attention to the possibility that these feelings may reflect their own cultural expectations and reactions; not simply that their partners were being especially "strange" or "irritating."

Japanese appear to have a preference for hierarchical relationships, particularly in cross-gender relationships (Rule, Freeman, & Ambaldy, 2013; West, 2011; Bystydzienski, 2011, Hofstede, 1995, 1991; Salamon, 1986). Given this, it is possible that these female Japanese students were experiencing reactions to the Japanese cultural norm in which males hold and exercise the majority of power in male-female relationships. In other words, these young ladies were consciously or unconsciously hoping their intercultural partner would follow familiar cultural patterns. On the other hand, the western males for their part may have been acting from their own cultural normative practices.

Participant Reflections on the ICRLR

Tomoko and Emi (25, 22, pseudonyms used), both in ICRLRs, both original members that participated for the full four-year duration spoke of their experiences in ICRLRs, language learning, culture, and the LC discussion group.

Emi met her boyfriend while studying abroad for a year in France. It was her first ICRLR and first boyfriend. Emi explained how she met her partner:

> In France, there is the Association of Franco-Japonais. So, one Japanese held something like LC with French people and Japanese students… we met there.
> Interviewer: When you were in Japan, and before leaving, were you thinking you could catch a boyfriend?
> Emi: A little bit (laughs).

Tomoko had two ICRLR experiences. In discussing her previous ICRLR with a French boyfriend, Tomoko had this to say…

> I wanted to major in law, not the languages. I wasn't interested in English at all, by that time. But after I met him…I wanted to communicate more with him. So, I had two choices, to learn English or to learn French. Back then it was too hard to learn French that is why I chose English and also that decision still influenced me when I chose a major, when I entered this university. So of course, through studying for the entrance exam I thought… English may be good for me to study because my private teacher taught me English very well. He was a really good teacher that's why I thought I could study in English. But that was 50% of the reason to major in English, but the other [sic] half was that actually I wanted to meet him (French boyfriend) and communicate with him more. That's why I chose…
>
> Interviewer: So, you had some romantic feeling towards him?
> Tomoko: Yes. And also as a second language I chose French. My parents recommended me to learn German but I still had feelings that's why I chose French.

Speaking of the connection between language, culture, and romantic love, Tomoko went on to say…

> Through some relationship with some foreign guy I just found, really that language is just a tool to communicate with them. So studying… (long pause)… yeah anyway everything is connected. And also, just simply because…Learning languages is very suitable for me. Since I started to learn French I thought maybe I'm good at learning many languages. That is why I've tried learning ancient Greek and Hebrew, but I didn't get an ancient Greek boyfriend or a Hebrew boyfriend.

It can be seen that the mere prospect of a romantic relationship with a foreigner was enough to strongly motivate Tomoko, at least initially, in her foreign language study. It also appeared to be a stronger influence than her family. It begs to question how her family would support the ICRLR should such a relationship flourish. Kline et al. (2008), Levine et al. (2008), Brown Diggs (2001), Dion and Dion (1993), Simons et al. (1986), and Nakamura (1985) all agreed that often romantic love as a personal choice traditionally met kinship disapproval in collectivist cultures such as Japan due to its 'uncontrollable' nature. With regards to most collectivist cultures, Ting-Toomey (2009) declared "passionate love is treasured where kinship ties are weak" and "diluted where kinship ties are strong" (p. 38) as relationships based on compassionate love are often viewed by collectivist kin as offering stability, longevity, and a more supportive environment for the extended family structure. Furthermore, in interracial romantic relationships Orbe and Orbe (2008) suggested that where there is strong family and social group influences, those groups have historically acted as a social force that strategically attempted to prevent interracial unions in order to preserve the homogeneity of the group.

Participant Reflections on the LC Discussion Group Experience

Often the discussion group drew participants who had only been in intracultural relationships but were interested in the intercultural romantic love experience, and some curious individuals without any prior romantic relationship experience. Even though having new student participants show interest and join in the group discussions, it was not easy for some participants due to English language ability or lack of experience. Tomoko confessed:

> Actually, I've never dated with a Japanese guy, that is why sometimes I feel uncomfortable to talk about love relationships with people who have only had a relationship with Japanese. There is a big gap... They don't have never enough experience to be in love. Even university students, some of them have never been in love with anyone. So it is kind of difficult to find a common topic on love relationships.
>
> Talking about such kind of topic in English is hard for them, but in Japanese they talk about such kind of things a lot, especially at an izakaiya [Japanese pub] or somewhere. So personally, I think they really have interest in that kind of topic or they hesitate talk about it or they cannot find any chance.

Emi agreed and felt limited by her own English skills but still felt listening to group discussions was interesting and beneficial for her.

Instructor Reflections on Participant Language

Seven foreign language instructors (one female, six male) were interviewed regarding the ICRLR group participants. All instructors noted considerable language progress in the areas of vocabulary acquisition, communicative fluency, as well as speaker self-confidence. One French language instructor (French male, 46) spoke of Emi's current state of second language communicative ability as "much improved," that "the fact that she has this relationship with this guy has definitely boosted her confidence to speak. Definitely in my opinion, most definitely." Another English instructor (British, male, 42) spoke of improvements with three of the students stating, "last year all these girls were *B* level students at best, this year they are all *A*s and are really motivated." The female instructor (Trinidadian, 39) added that the students in the ICRLR group "spent far more time at the LC than others."

Precautionary Measures

Discussing ICRLRs in a university context can be tricky. From the instructor's perspective, one must be aware of potential dangers such as appropriateness of discussions, and comments that may be construed in wrong ways. It is also important to be fully aware of and frame discussions under university guidelines and within policies. Creating an environment that all members feel safe to share thoughts openly and without fear of judgment, persecution, or harassment is vital for this type of format and discussions or romantic love relationships. Female staff members of the

university language laboratory recorded participation in the LC and also joined in group conversations, but on rare occasions. At least one of the three staff members present is always physically in the room during the LC, and within earshot of every conversation group. Two of the LC staff were interviewed regarding the ICRLR discussions at the LC and from their perspective the discussions of ICRLRs never seen as inappropriate. In fact, one staff member admitted to often listening in on ICRLR discussions in particular because "everybody was having fun speaking, and talking about love was so interesting."

Conclusion

Overall, it appeared that romantic love served as a motivator for these students to study a new language and culture. Being in a romantic relationship also provided them with real cross-cultural dilemmas to overcome. Discussions in the LC provided these students as well as those who were part of the discussion group the opportunity to objectively analyze these cultural bumps so that they could learn about culture and cultural differences. In addition, discussing love, which is so central to the lives of many young adults in a foreign language, helped improve their foreign language skills. In sum, it can be said that intercultural love can serve as an effective teaching tool in a language café not only because it is a topic that will draw many students but also because it provides real case studies of culture clashes that can serve as learning opportunities. While I have demonstrated some of the potential benefits of ICRLRs in language learning and intercultural competency development (Bennett & Bennett, 2004), further investigation into the effects of motivation in second language development, identity, and intercultural competency with regards to ICRLRs is necessary.

References

Alupoaicei, M. (2009). *Your intercultural marriage: A guide to a healthy, happy relationship.* Chicago,Ill: Moody.

Archer, C. M. (1986). Culture bump and beyond (pp. 170-178). In J. M. Valdes (Ed.). *Culture bound: Bridging the cultural gap in language teaching.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Bartels, A., & Zeki, S. (2004). The neural correlates of maternal and romantic love. *Neuroimage*, Vol. 21. 1155-1166.

Bennett, J. M., & Bennett, M. J. (2004). Developing intercultural sensitivity: An integrative approach to global and domestic diversity. In D. Landis, J. M. Bennett, & M. J. Bennett (Eds.). *Handbook of intercultural training* (3rd ed. pp. 147-165). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Brown Diggs, N. (2001). *Looking beyond the mask: When American women marry Japanese men.* Albany, NY: State University of New York.

Buss, D. M. (2006). The evolution of love. In R. J. Sternberg & K. Weis (Eds.) *The new psychology of love* (pp. 65-86). New Haven, CT: Yale University.

Bystydzienski, J. M. (2011). *Intercultural couples: Crossing boundaries, negotiating difference.* New York University.

Dicks, D. (Ed.). (1995). *Breaking convention with intercultural romances: personal accounts.* Freedom, CA: The Crossing Press.

Dion, K. K., & Dion, K. L. (1993). Individualistic and collectivist perspectives on gender and the cultural context of love and intimacy. *Journal of Social Issues*. *49*(3), 53-69.

Dion, K. K., & Dion, K. L., (2005). Cultural perspectives on romantic love. *Personal Relationships. 3*(3), 5-17.

Dodd, C. H., & Baldwin, J. R. (2002). The role of family and macrocultures in intercultural relationships. In J. N. Martin, T. K. Nakayama, & L. A. Flores (Eds.). *Readings in intercultural communication: Experiences and contexts.* (2nd ed., pp. 279-288). Boston, MA: McGraw Hill.

Doi, T. L. (1986). *Amae:* A key concept for understanding Japanese personality structure. In T. S. Lebra, & W. P. Lebra (Eds.). *Japanese culture and behavior* (pp. 121-130) Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii.

Fisher, H. (2004). *Why we love: The nature and chemistry of romantic love.* New York, NY: St. Martin's Griffin.

Fisher, H. (2009). *Why him? Why her? How to find and keep lasting love.* New York, NY: Holt.

Fisher, H., Aron, A., & Brown, L. L. (2005). Romantic love: An fMRI study of a neural mechanism for mate choice. *The Journal of Comparative Neurology. 493*. 58-62.

Foeman, A. K., & Nance, T. (2002). Building new cultures, reframing old images: Success strategies of interracial couples. *The Howard Journal of Communications. 13.* 237-249.

Gottman, J. M. (2001). *The relationship cure.* New York, NY: Harmony.

Gottman, J. M. (2011). *The science of trust: Emotional attunement for couples.* New York, NY: W. W. Norton.

Grayling, A. C. (2001). *The meaning of things: Applying philosophy to life.* London, UK: Phoenix.

Grearson, J. C., & Smith, L. B. (Eds.). (1995). *Swaying: Essays on intercultural love.* University of Iowa.

Hall, E. T. (1959). *The silent language.* New York, NY: Anchor Books.

Hall, E. T., & Hall M. R. (1987). *Hidden Differences: Doing business with the Japanese*. Garden City, NY: Doubleday.

Hatano, Y. (1991). Changes in the sexual activities of Japanese youth. *Journal of Sex Education and Therapy*. *17*, 1-14.

Hatfield, E., Bensman, L., & Rapson, R. L. (2012). A brief history of social scientists' attempts to measure passionate love. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*. *29*(2). 143-146.

Hatfield, E., & Rapson, R. L. (1993). Historical and cross-cultural perspectives on passionate love and sexual desire. *Annual Review of Sex Research. 4*(1). 67-97.

Hatfield, E., & Rapson, R. L. (2005). *Love and Sex: Cross-cultural perspectives.* Lanham, MD: University Press of America.

Hatfield, E., & Sprecher, S. (1986). Measuring passionate love in intimate relations. *Journal of Adolescence*. *9*. 383-410.

Hendrick, C., Hendrick, S., & Alder, N. L. (1988). Romantic relationships: Love, satisfaction, and staying together, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. *54*. 980-988.

Hendrick, C., & Hendrick, S. (1986). A theory and method of love. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. *50*(2). 392-402.

Hendrick, C., & Hendrick, S. (2006). Styles of romantic love. In R. J. Sternberg & K. Weis (Eds.) *The new psychology of love* (pp. 149-170). New Haven, CT: Yale University.

Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and organizations: software of the mind*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Hofstede, G. (2002). I, We, and They. In J. N. Martin, T. K. Nakayama, & L. A. Flores (Eds.) *Readings in intercultural communication: experiences and contexts.* (2nd ed., pp. 289-300). Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

Jankowiak, W. R. (ed.) (2008). *Intimacies: Love and sex across cultures.* New York, NY: Columbia University.

Jankowiak, W. R., & Fischer, E. F. (1992). A cross-cultural perspective on romantic love. *Ethnology. 31*(2). 149-155.

Kawamura, S. (2008). The effectiveness of an English Lounge and second language acquisition. *Otemae Journal*, 9, 113-123

Kawashima, A., & Kurosawa, T. (2016). Dyadic coping in Japanese Couples (pp. 236-252). In M. Falconier, A. Randall, and G. Bodenmann (Eds.), *Couples coping with stress: A cross-cultural perspective.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Kelsky, K. (2001). Women on the verge: Japanese women, western dreams. Durham, NC: Duke University Press.

Kich, G. (1996). In the margins of sex and race: Difference, marginality, and flexibility (pp. 263-276). In M. P. P. Root (Ed.), *The multiracial experience: Racial borders as the new frontier.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Kito, M. (2005). Self-disclosure in romantic relationships and friendships among American and Japanese college students. *Journal of Social Psychology. 145*(2). 127-140.

Kline, S. L., Horton, B., & Zhang, S. (2008). Communicating love: Comparisons between American and East Asian university students. *International Journal of Intercultural Communication. 32*. 200-214.

Kurokawa, I., Yoshida, T., Lewis, C.H., Igarashi, R. & Kuradate, K. (2013). The Plurilingual Lounge: Creating New Worldviews Through Social Interaction. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 37, 113-126.*

Landis, D., & O'Shea (2000). Cross-cultural aspects of passionate love; An individual difference analysis. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*. *31*. 754 -779.

Lee, J. A. (1973). *Colours of love: an exploration of the ways of loving.* Toronto, ONT: New Press.

Levine, R., Sato, S., Hashimoto, T., & Verma, J. (1995). Love and marriage in eleven cultures. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology. 24*(5). 554-571.

Lewis, R. D. (1999). *When cultures collide: Managing successfully across cultures.* London, UK: Nicholas Brealey.

Lieberman D., & Hatfield, E. (2006). Passionate love: Cross-cultural and evolutionary perspectives. In R. J. Sternberg & K. Weis (Eds.) *The new psychology of love* (pp. 274-297). New Haven, CT: Yale University.

Liebowitz, M. R. (1983). *The chemistry of love*. Boston, MA: Little, Brown.

Matsui, Y. (1993). Renai koudou no dankai to renai ishiki [Love styles and developmental stages in romantic love]. *The Japanese Journal of Psychology*. *64*. 335–342.

Matsumoto, D., & Juang L. (2013). *Culture & psychology*. 5th ed. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.

Nakamura, B. (1985). Intercultural marriages. *Japan Christian Quarterly,* winter. 30-36.

Nanzan University (n.d.) World plaza. Retrieved from: http://www.nanzan-u.ac.jp/neec/wp/index.html.

Orbe, M. P., & Orbe, T. M. (2008). *Interracial communication: Theory into practice* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Pillar, I. (2009). "I always wanted to marry a cowboy": Billingual couples, language, and desire. In T. A. Karis and K. D. Killian (Eds.). *Intercultural couples: exploring diversity in intimate relationships* (pp. 53-69). New York, NY: Routledge.

Pillar, I., & Takahashi, K. (2006). A passion for English: Desire and the language market. In A. Pavlenko (ed.), *Bilingual minds: Emotional experience, expression and representation* (pp. 59 – 83). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Pines, A. M. (2005). *Falling in love: Why we choose the lovers we choose* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Poulsen, S. S. P., & Thomas, V. (2011). Awareness of culture: Clinical implications for couple therapy. In J. L. Wetchler (Ed.) *Handbook of clinical issues in couple therapy* (2nd ed., pp. 207-224). New York, NY: Routledge.

Ramsey, S. (1998). Interactions between North Americans and Japanese: Considerations of communication style. In M. J. Bennett (Ed.). *Basic concepts of intercultural communication* (pp. 111-130). Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.

Ries, H. T., Aron, A., Clark, M. S., & Finkel, E. J. (2013). Ellen Berscheid, Elaine Hatfield, and the emergence of relationship science. *Perspectives on psychological science. 8*(5). 558-572.

Romano, D. (2007, January). Two worlds under one roof: interview with Dugan Romano. *SGI Quarterly: A Buddhist forum for peace, culture, and education.* Retrieved February 1, 2016, from http://www.sgiquarterly.org/feature2007Jan-7.html

Romano, D. (2008). *Intercultural marriage: Pitfalls & promises* (3rd ed.). Boston, MA: Intercultural Press.

Rule, N. O., Freeman, J. B., & Ambady, N. (2013). Culture in social neuroscience: A review. *Social Neuroscience. 8*(1). 3-10.

Sasaki, M. (2009). English lounge katsudo no yuuko-sei ni tsuite no pilot kenkyuu. [A pilot study of the effectiveness of English lounge activities]. Studies on Education, 2, 83-94,

Schmitt, D. P. (2004). Patterns and universals of mate poaching across 53 nations: The effects of sex, culture, and personality on romantically attracting another person's partner. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. 86*(4). 560-584.

Schmitt, D. P. (2006) Evolutionary and cross-cultural perspectives on love: The influence of gender, personality, and local ecology on emotional investment in romantic relationships. In R. J. Sternberg & K. Weis (Eds.) *The new psychology of love* (pp. 149-170). New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Schmitt, D. P., Alcalay, L., Allenworth, M., Allik, J., Ault, L., Austers, I., Bennett, K. L., Bianchi, G., Boholst, F., Borg Cunen, M. A., Braeckman, J., Brainerd, E. G. Jr., Caral, L. G. A., Caron, G., Casullo, Maria M., Cunningham, M., Daibo, I., De Backer, C. , De Souza, E., Diaz-Loving, R., Diniz, G., Durkin, K., Echegaray, M., Eremsoy, E., Euler, H. A., Falzon, R., Fisher, M. L., Foley, D., Fowler, R., Fry, D. P., Fry, S. , Ghayur, M. Arif, G., Vijai N., Golden, D. L., Gammer, K., Grimaldi, L., Halberstadt, J., Haque, S., Herrera, D., Hertel, J., Hitchell, A., Hoffman, H., Hooper, D., Hradilekova, Z., Hudek-Kene-Evi, J., Huffcutt, A., Jaafar, J., Jankauskaite, M., Kabangu-Stahel, H., Kardum, I., Khoury, B., Kwon, H., Laidra, K., Laireiter, A-R., Lakerveld, D., Lampert, A., Lauri, M., Lavallee, M., Lee, S-J., Leung, L. C., Locke, K. D., Locke, V., Luksik, I., Magaisa, I., Marcinkeviciene, D., Mata, A., Mata, R., McCarthy, B., Mills, M. E., Mkhize, Nhlanhla J., Moreira, J., Moreira, S., Moya, M., Munyae, M., Noller, P., Olimat, H., Opre, A., Panayiotou, A., Petrovic, N., Poels, K., Popper, M., Poulimenou, M., P'Yatokha, V., Raymond, M., Reips, U-D., Reneau, S. E., Rivera-Aragon, S., Rowatt, W. C., Ruch, W., Rus, V.S., Safir, M. P., Salas, S., Sambataro, F., Sandnabba, K. N., Schleeter, R., Schulmeyer, M. K., Schutz, A., Scrimali, T., Shackelford, T. K., Sharan, M., B., Shaver, P. R., Sichona, F., Simonetti, F., Sineshaw, T., Sookdew, R., Speelman, T., Spyrou, S., Sumer, H. C., Sumer, N., Supekova, M., Szlendak, T., Taylor, R., Timmermans, B., Tooke, W., Tsaousis, I., Tungaraza, F. S. K., Turner, A., Vandermassen, G., Vanhoomissen, T., Van Overwalle, F., Vanwesenbeeck, I., Vasey, P. L., Verissimo, J., Voracek, M., Wan, W. N., Wang, T-W., Weiss, P., Wijaya, A., Woertman, L., Youn, G., Zupaneie, A.. (2004). Patterns and universals of adult romantic attachment across 62 cultural regions: Are models of self and of other pancultural constructs? *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology. 35*(4). 367-402.

Shaver, P. R., & Mikulincer, M. (2006). A behavioral systems approach to romantic love relationships: Attachment, caregiving, and sex. In R. J. Sternberg & K. Weis (Eds.), *The new psychology of love* (pp. 35-64). New Haven, CT: Yale University.

Shelling, G., & Fraser-Smith, J. (2008). *In love but world's apart: Insights, questions, and tips for the intercultural couple.* Bloomington, IN: Authorhouse.

Simmons, C. H., vom Koike, A., & Shimizu, H. (1986). Attitudes toward romantic love among American, German, and Japanese students. *Journal of Social Psychology. 126*. 327-336.

Sprecher, S., Aron, A., Hatfield, E. Cortese, A., Potapova, E., & Levitskaya A. (1994). Love: American style, Russian style, and Japanese style. *Personal Relationships. 1(*4). 349-369.

Sprecher, S., & Regan, P. (1998). Passionate and companionate love in courting and young married couples. *Sociological Inquiry. 68*. 163-185.

Sternberg, R. J. (1986). A triangular theory of love. *Psychological review*. *93*(2). 119-135.

Sternberg, R. J. (1988). Triangulating love. In R. J. Sternberg & M. L. Barnes (Eds.), *The psychology of love* (pp. 119-138). New Haven, CT: Yale University.

Takahashi, K. (2010). Multilingual couplehood: Romance, identity and the political economy of language. In D. Nunan & J. Choi (Eds.), *Language and culture: Reflective narratives and the emergence of identity* (pp. 199–207). New York: Routledge.

Tennov, D. (1979). Love and limerence: The experience of being in love. New York, NY: Stein and Day.

Ting-Toomey, S. & Chung, L. C. (2012). *Understanding intercultural communication* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Roxbury.

Ting-Toomey, S. (Ed.) (1994). *The challenge of facework: Cross-cultural and interpersonal issues.* Albany, NY: State University of New York.

Ting-Toomey, S. (1991). Intimacy expressions in three cultures: France, Japan, and the United States. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations. 15*(1). 29-45.

Ting-Toomey, S. (2009) A mindful approach to managing conflict in intercultural intimate couples. In T. A. Karis & K. D. Killian (Eds.). *Intercultural couples: Exploring diversity in intimate relationships* (pp. 31-49). New York, NY: Routledge.

Yokkaichi University (n.d.) English support Lounge. Retrieved from: http://www.yokkaichi-u.ac.jp/esl/index.html.

West, M. D. (2011). *Lovesick Japan: Sex-marriage-romance-law.* Ithaca, NY: Cornell University.

Contact email: jon@intercultural.me

iafor

Challenges for the Online English Curriculum

Alisa Vanijdee, Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University, Thailand

The IAFOR International Conference on Language Learning – Hawaii 2017
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Curriculum is a control for any study; it exemplifies the teaching and learning theory including what to teach (content), how to teach (teaching pedagogy), and how to measure the results (evaluation). Online curriculum faces additional challenges both in theoretical implementation of English content and skills and by means of Information Technology.
As English is important in international business, and limited places are available to study it, Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University (STOU) attempted to educate a large number of Thai students from various backgrounds in their B.A. English program. The purpose behind the program is to upgrade Thai students in English language performance. This paper examines (1) the present curriculum and the governing theory of language learning in Thailand; (2) the online B.A. degree in English; (3) the evaluation system; (4) the challenges of advanced technology and new context of learning; (5) the contributing factors in the curriculum to succeed in learning English and to the effective curriculum.
The author proposes that the online English curriculum should focus on basic content and language skills; multi-literacies; learner autonomy; and new technology to facilitate students' learning. Multi-literacies and modality, with care about the possibility in any context, are two keywords for the quality improvement of online curricula.

iafor
The International Academic Forum
www.iafor.org

Introduction

Online learning in English has become prevalent, and has been developed alongside the progress of advancing technology. It has proven to be successful and enjoyable for incidental learning. But to earn a degree in English, the evaluation and the quality of graduates must be ensured. The curriculum can guide the learning to success as it is a plan and exemplifies the teaching and learning theory, including what to teach (content), how to teach (teaching pedagogy), and how to measure the results (evaluation). Online curricula face additional challenges both in theoretical implementation of English content and skills and technology.

As we are aware that English is important in international business, but there are limited places for those who wish to register to study for the degree. STOU is attempting to educate a large number of Thai students from various backgrounds in their B.A. English program. The purpose, since 2009, has been to upgrade Thai students in their English language performance. In this paper, I would like to focus on (1) the present curriculum and the controlling theory of language learning in Thailand; (2) the online teaching and learning of the STOU B.A. degree in English; (3) the evaluation system and the quality of graduates; (4) the challenges of advanced technology and the new learning context; (5) the ideal curriculum.

1. The present curriculum and the governing theory of language learning in Thailand

The curriculum in B.A. English is under the supervision of the Office of the Higher Education Commission at the Ministry of Education, Thailand who supervises all higher education in Thailand. Typically, any higher degree curriculum consists of the following groups of courses: (1) general education; (2) core courses in major; (3) special courses and (4) one elective course.

General education is aimed at basic knowledge and skills, including 4 fields of knowledge: languages, social sciences, humanities, and science and mathematics. This section covers 30 credits.

Core courses cover fundamental English skills including fundamental literature and linguistics.

Specific courses cover an upper intermediate level of linguistics, literature, translation, English language teaching, English for specific careers, and administration courses related to English for careers such as Accounting, Marketing, and Administration.

Teacher career courses, which is a part and a must for of B.A. in Education or 'Teaching English as a foreign language' focus on teaching practicum, which focus on practices in teaching

Elective courses are general courses in any field of the student's interest.

At present, most of the curricula in English and teaching learning at a B.A. level are based theoretically on communicative English with functional and notional syllabus

design. This means they emphasize the functional language that can be used in real life and in real contexts, and they contain vocabulary related to the topic of learning. Moreover, they are geared toward 'English for specific purposes or careers' to support the need for English, which is now an official language in the ASEAN community. Many tailor-made courses are also initiated with motivating course titles related to local needs; these are provided by various local universities. Translation is also a popular subject as it is needed for today's business, and has become more interesting alongside the technological advance in automatic translation.

Most of the courses in most institutions are taught in the classroom; some institutions provide online learning in supplementary courses. However, there are a number of online courses acknowledged by the Office of the Higher Education Commission.

2. The online teaching and learning of the STOU B.A. degree in English

As a leading university in distance learning mode, Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University (STOU) requested that the School of Liberal Arts should offer a B.A. in English via distance learning; it uses online learning as an approach to contact students, and provides student-peer and student-teacher interaction. The content of the course, online learning system, and challenges will be explored as follows.

2.1 The content of the course

The B.A. (English) program consists of 138 credit hours with 30 credits for General Education; 24 credits for 4 core courses; 78 credits for 13 specific courses; and 6 credits for an elective course. Note that one course consists of 6 credits. Details are as follows:

Core courses consist of Interaction or Effective Communication, English Grammar in Use, and Reading I and Writing I.

Specific courses consist of 11 compulsory courses (English for Office Staff; Self-study Skills for English Language Learning; Introduction to English Linguistics, Inter-cultural Communication; English Reading II, Principles of English Translation; Translation Skills in English; English Pronunciation, English Writing II, Effective Presentations in English, Professional Experience in English) and two from selected courses (English for Business; English for Tourism; English for Hotel Personnel; English for Computer Users; English for Health Personnel; English for Technicians; English for Agriculture; English for Professions in the ASEAN Community; English for Lawyers).

The **Elective course** can be selected from a variety of courses of all majors in the university (except some special practicum).

As we can see, the focus is on basic language skills; cultural knowledge and linguistics are supporting tools in understanding language. Also translation and English for specific purposes or careers are included.

2.2 Online learning system for B.A. English

The B.A. English program at STOU is theoretically based on a distance learning philosophy. There is no physical classroom, but virtual where students can interact with peers and teachers. Learner autonomy is thus a vital issue and a qualification must for students. The means to achieve English performance is through online learning and learner autonomy.

Courses focus on task accomplishment. Careful scaffolding of learning via LIVE CHAT, web board or email are provided through tasks. Students can contact teachers via LIVE CHAT, web board, email, telephone, in person, or via snail mail.

The four skills can be examined as follows**. Listening and speaking skills** are taught in courses where students have to study on their own and submit their work online. One of the special tasks is to submit a video clip of their own presentation in English, which has proved to be successful though difficult, but was challenging for many students when first initiated. These skills are a huge challenge. The listening is not so much of a problem. Students can learn online; they can listen to assigned tasks and check the answers with a key. For speaking, at the moment with '14222 Effective Presentations in English', in which students have to submit a video clip of their presentation, the real speaking of the real person can be assessed. For this course, students have to submit an outline and the presentation materials earlier and discuss with the instructors online or they can call have talk in persons. However, this is rehearsed speech. Spontaneous speech will have to be encouraged such as in Skype, or via video chat. However, with a number of students scoring as high as 400 in "Effective Presentations courses and with limited staff, it is still unmanageable to conduct individual interaction via such technology.

Reading and Writing skills: for these skills, online learning can be effective with good feedback for the tasks they are doing. However, the question of trust is present. Students must really perform their own tasks. The system is mostly based on the honor system.

Grammar and culture: these courses can be effective with good feedback as well.

Extra learning on one's own: enthusiastic students can always learn on their own via the multiple online resources provided by the university.

2.3 Challenges to online learning at present

Students are from a variety of backgrounds in English and IT: STOU students in this program are from a variety of English backgrounds; we are open for admission and provide opportunities for those who need and want to learn English as a degree, but cannot get access in the 'closed university' with limited admission. The teaching has to be catered for different levels of English and different learning styles. Some may already hold a bachelor degree or even a PhD; some have spent some time abroad, or use English as a mother tongue; some want to refresh their English; some need the degree in English for their jobs. This variety of backgrounds in English makes a very challenging class for any teacher.

The '**Learner autonomy challenge'**: As in any distance learning system, students have to take care of their own learning, which is facilitated by teachers and the university. Many students in Thailand are familiar with the spoon-feeding system, so they have to learn how to be autonomous and responsible for their own learning. The university provides orientation and consultation. But during the process of learning, students have to learn to be familiar with relying on themselves with guidance from teachers. However, this is a huge workload for limited staff.

The **'Technological challenge'**: Even though nowadays the young generations have mobile phones and access to technology, some do not have such access, and they have a hard time learning and following online. Even though we emphasize that all students registering for this program must be able to use computers and get access for online learning, the problems persist and the workload is on the teachers. In this connection, the university has its own challenge of providing a learning management system appropriate for students. At present, Moodle and another local system of *D4L+P* is used. The university has to manage the system that is both student and teacher friendly. The solution is thus to improve learning technology to narrow the distance between students and teachers and to promote learner autonomy. This may be simple to say, but it depends on the Internet and the computer's ability. So training must be provided for new students, and this involves a number of staff.

The **'Team Learning Challenge':** For some courses, students have to work in groups to accomplish some tasks. This is a challenge for students at distance but close via technology. The purpose of this is 1) to provide interaction between students, and 2) team learning; as parts of the overall objectives for higher education.

The **'Interaction in learning and using English challenge':**

One of the major challenges is the interaction with other people, so that students can use and practice English. Students must be able to use English in real life, which is the utmost purpose and aim for the curriculum design. The team learning in peer groups is one of the strategies to enable students to communicate in English. This may be limited with some only interacting with peers who learn on the same course, but in fact when encouraged students have found opportunities to use English whenever they have the chance. This depends on learner autonomy. For example, they can talk to their family or even talk to themselves in the mirror. In distance learning, one has to be autonomous at a high level.

The **'Plagiarism avoidance challenge':** Students' identities are recognized through student number and photo. Sometimes students and teachers meet in person, but since the number of students is very high (up to 1,000 per semester and only 5 teachers), the honor and trust system is depended upon. The submitted work students have to do themselves in their own words. Teachers check for plagiarism through information sources. In the process of learning however, only some plagiarism from information sources can be detected. Students have to learn how to cite all information. Most of all, students must be aware that the learning is for themselves to be able to develop their English performance; that is, they should not study only for marks or the degree.

The **'Administration challenge'**: Since online learning can take a huge number of students, the appropriate number of teachers is a must. Research should be

encouraged to evaluate the relation between effective teaching and the number of teachers or facilitators.

3. Evaluation system and the quality of graduates

The genuine evaluation is language use in real life; this is a challenge to all course design. How can we prepare students to achieve those objectives? For evaluation in the system we have two kinds: formative and summative. The present examination system is based on formative and summative evaluation. Formative evaluation includes tasks to be finished during the semester and summative evaluation includes final examination both in multiple–choice, objective, and subjective tests.

For formative evaluation, we can exploit much of the technology for language use, such as submitting a video clip or submitting a report. For summative evaluation, or the final exam, it is still not possible to have students perform live presentation. The final exam is still in an objective form with paper and pencil test. This is a limitation for the evaluation. One of the processes in online learning and distance learning is that students have to monitor and evaluate themselves with clear guidelines. They monitor their own learning with the teachers or tutors as facilitators.

For summative evaluation, to decide and pinpoint which level of ability and performance a student has in English, exams are in both objective and subjective forms such as in the writing courses. However, we have a limitation in the 'Effective Presentations in English' course, that only the objective test can be assessed.

The quality of subjective marking depends on the number of staff. For example, translation skill courses require attentive marking; with a limitation of staff, this can be at its perfect quality, but only with the expense of time and devotion of the teachers.

The overall performance of students in English must also be standardized; this can be done with students taking standardized tests.

4. The challenges of advanced technology and new learning context

Jennifer Rowsell (2016), from Brock University in Canada, in her paper *That was then, This is now: Reimaging Literacy in Multimodal Times* presented in the 51st RELC (Regional English Language Center) Seminar in Singapore, proposed the following concepts of learning in a new environment: Local-global learning, transdisciplinarity, multimodality and complexity of communication, still need fundamental literacy skills/practice/competences. It is worth looking into some details.

Local-global learning means the learning of language must be for international use, while functioning at a local level and suitable for local situations; transdisciplinary means the learning involves many inter-connected disciplines; one cannot just study language in isolation. Multimodality and complexity of communication are the most vivid examples of how language should be taught and learned.

Multimodality means the meaning is determined with various expressions and communication such as an infographic video clip. In this modern world, the learning has to be adapted. In the old days, the learning was, and still is in some cases, in a linear approach to literary learning (then). But now the learning has to be 'A hybrid approach to literacy learning (now)'. That is, the listening, speaking, reading and writing may occur at the same time. For example, watching and listening to news from the mobile and reading the scripts, then typing or texting the comments. Students must use integrated skills. So the teaching and learning of languages must take this into consideration.

However, in this seminar [51st RELC (Regional English Language Center)], teachers are concerned with how to help low progress learners to develop multiliteracies when they are already challenged in the traditional literacy. This practical concern emphasized the problems from the learner's situation, where even in traditional education, they still suffer. If we encourage multiliteracies, will that be appropriate? The panelists see these issues as how teachers teach and make use of media. Multiliteracies is inevitable. But we have to be concerned with some students who cannot access the media. In current learning, digital literacy must be developed at the same time as other self-development.

Thus in improving the curriculum one must be concerned with new learning contexts and new media in transmitting knowledge and learning. This concept is in line with Kristen Michelson (2016), of the University of Oklahoma in the United States. In her paper *Agency and Meaning Design in a Multiliteracies-based Global Simulation Classroom*, she proposed that since multiliteracies emphasized the variety of language use, which is presented in an individual's social status and culture and discourse format. However, major trends in foreign language learning focus on conventional forms and genre. Kristen Michelson proposed the learner's social sameness and own objectives. She proposed a curriculum based on multiliteracies teaching by the New London Group (1996) and the Global Simulation framework of intermediate French: that is to give students an adopted identity and work on authentic tasks.

5. Contributing factors in the curriculum to succeed in learning English and to establish the effective curriculum

According to the government and the Office of Higher Education Commission, curricula must be improved every five years. The information to be included in the informed decision making in improvement includes the results of the students' learning and administration issues. The contributing factors in the curriculum to succeed in learning English and to the effective curriculum includes the IT and multiliteracies.

5.1 The curriculum design for B.A. (English) at STOU: language content VS teaching and learning approach with IT

The ideal curriculum for online English should focus not only on content, but also on how to teach and learn in a new advanced technology context. It should allow a variety of learning approaches for each student to employ in his or her own learning style. Also, the evaluation system must be effective to ensure the quality of graduates.

The language content should provide basic language skills and linguistics with culture as the underlining factor. English for specific careers and translation courses can be promoted as interesting options for enthusiastic students. Jennifer Rowsell (2016) argues that we learn in linear fashion as in from listening to speaking, from reading to writing. This issue brings up the question of the order of courses. Not just in terms of pre-requisites but also the overall skills requirement that happens at the same time. How should we arrange a curriculum and design courses to accomplish this? We can see now there is more integration of listening and speaking, reading and writing. The improvement of STOU B.A. English must take this into consideration when revising any courses. They may have to be merged.

The learning system is based on learner autonomy and distance learning context. The curriculum must not only include what to teach and learn but how to teach and learn. The distance between students and teachers must be narrowed down and learner autonomy promoted. Skype programs are useful but may not be possible with too many students.

The evaluation system must be of high quality to measure what it is supposed to measure. The outcome or product of learning may be compared to standardized and well-thought-out levels such as the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Language). The CEFR has allocated students into the levels from basic to native like: A1 A2, B1 B2, and C1, C2. These levels can be applied.

All in all, multiliteracies should also be introduced and should be the basis of all courses. For example, in a reading course, one cannot read the alphabet alone; one has to read infographics, photos, etc. In a writing course, one has to learn to interconnected reading and writing. For a listening and speaking course, the skills are integrated intensively.

All of these lie in the detail in designing each course. They should be flexible, and have the facility to be adapted to changes effectively and in time for technology advances.

Students should also be able to take courses in IT to support their learning technology knowledge.

Administration issues

This issue concerns IT and staff provision. The learning management system must be effective and student-friendly. Training must be provided. In terms of the number of staff, it must be commensurate to the number of students. Research must be done to see the appropriate number of students. The role of teachers or facilitators in providing content, giving feedback and testing is vital to the success of any curriculum.

5.2 Multiliteracies challenges as new context of learning

As stated earlier (item 4, page 8), the concept of multiliteracies should earn a section of its own. These concepts must be applied in the B.A. (English) at STOU in all courses, since learning English by distance must be supported with interaction

through new technology. Kristen Michelson (2016) proposed a curriculum based on multiliteracies teaching by the New London Group (1996) and the Global Simulation framework of intermediate French: that is to give students an adopted identity and work on authentic tasks.

She also proposed a very dynamic concept of multiliteracies, which includes multimodal resources, multiple ways and means for meaning making, and the multitude of backgrounds and social histories of learners, in the following details:

Design of learning course includes linguistic, visual, gestural, spatial, and audio; these factors must be redesigned for multiliteracies.

Design of apt resources must be selected by learners, teachers, and designers to be relevant in meaning to culture and what already exists in learners, history, contexts and what learners have been learning all their lives.

Agency means sign-makers, which is semiotic work. When language users use language in the system, they transform the system at the same time; as she quoted from van Lier (2008): the way of being in the world, involves initiative or self-regulation by the learner or group.

Thus, in considering a curriculum, one must be aware of Global Simulation [character, context, creativity – small (discourse) community clearly identifiable role, resources, goal-oriented storyline or project].

The following demonstration by Kristen Michelson on some examples in Multiliteracies Pedagogy on writing genres can be applied to the course. It includes the following details

Genres: written/personal – letter, blog, scrapbook, business letter
Spoken—conversation, monologue
Printed/published—letter to the editor, fiction, encyclopedia

- Primary-secondary
- Private life-public life
- Narrative--expository

The four curricular components

- Transformed practice, situated practice, critical framing, overt instruction

She also proposed 'The four curricula components', which have to be taken into consideration.

Transformed Practice: composing, constructing, designing, and demonstrating
Situated Practice: describing, exploring, observing, and connecting
Critical Framing: comparing, synthesizing, critiquing, and understanding
Overt Instruction: classifying, extrapolating, hypothesizing, and generalizing

These are useful concepts that need to be explored in details when improving a curriculum.

Thus, the following ideal curriculum design from Kristen's point of view should be kept in mind when revising the B.A. (English) at STOU curriculum.

The curriculum design is concerned with global simulation (establish of discourse communities and identities), genre-based curriculum (different takes on LC2 discourses through a progression from primary to secondary discourse genres), four curriculum components (framework for engaging with texts from various angles), and available designs (lens for evaluating meaning making practices).

Multiliteracies and modality in real life: textbooks still included

In the panel discussion at the 51st RELC conference, the speakers supported the idea that curriculum design contributes to the teaching of literacy, and is a guide toward the expected outcome. We must bear in mind the future, what exists at present that can be utilized, and creativity.

The function of textbooks is still necessary despite the modalities of various media. They are important and necessary; they have been designed carefully, developed through time, and well thought out. James Martin (2016), of the University of Sydney in Australia, in his workshop demonstrated how carefully the texts were constructed before they meet the teachers and students' eyes. The teachers must learn how to exploit textbooks effectively.

In the light of this concept, B.A, English curriculum improvement should focus on multi literacies, that is, to focus more on global simulation, and be genre based. As to the design of the course, the curriculum should engage texts from various angles and sources in each detailed specific course.

Conclusions

Considering the structure and content of the present curriculum of STOU B.A. English and its implementation, the improvement lies in the teaching process that is concerned with advanced technology, multiliteracies, and new contexts in learning such as modalities. Students must be encouraged to be autonomous and skillful in IT. However, we cannot ignore the use of textbooks, which are carefully thought out and the appropriate adaptation to one's context.

References

B.A. Curriculum. (2011). School of Liberal Arts, Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University, Nonthaburi 11120, Thailand.

Martin, James. (2016). Workshop sessions by invited speakers *Exploring Power Words, Power Grammar and Power Composition in Secondary School Biology and History Discourse* University of Sydney, Australia in 'The 51st RELC (Regional English Language Center) Seminar, Singapore, 16-18 March 2016'.

Michelson, Kristen. (2016). *Agency and Meaning Design in a Multiliteracies-based Global Simulation Classroom* University of Oklahoma, United States in 'The 51st RELC (Regional English Language Center) Seminar, Singapore, 16-18 March 2016'.

Rowsell, Jennifer. (2016) Brock. University, Canada in her paper *That was then, This is now: Reimaging Literacy in Multimodal Times* presented in 'The 51st RELC (Regional English Language Center) Seminar, Singapore, 16-18 March 2016'.

Van Lier, Leo. (2008). 'Ecological-semiotic perspectives on educational linguistics'. In B. Spolsky and E.M. Hult (eds.) *The Handbook of Educational Linguistics.* Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Contact email: Alisa.van@stou.ac.th

iafor

© The International Academic Forum 2017
The International Academic Forum (IAFOR)
Sakae 1-16-26-201
Naka Ward, Nagoya, Aichi
Japan 460-0008
ww.iafor.org