JALT Teacher Development SIG

Explorations in Teacher Development

Volume 27, Number 3 • Winter 2021
ISSN 2434-589X

Explorations in Teacher Development

Volume 27, Number 3 • Winter 2021 • ISSN 2434-589X
http://td.jalt.org

Table of Contents

From the Editors

2 Editorial Beginnings: Renewed Calls for Teachers-As-Researchers, Writers, and Readers
Nick Kasparek

Articles

8 Exploratory Practice (EP) and Fanselovian Premises (FP)
Takaaki Hiratsuka

13 Concrete Poetry: Introducing an Unfamiliar Literary Genre into the L2 Classroom
John Pryce

23 *Reflections on Developing a Model for Teaching Metaphor*
Denver Beirne

30 A Mini-Unit for Teaching Introductions with Formulaic Sequences in Academic Writing
Kyle Hoover

36 My Experience with Reflective Diaries in the Classroom
Tom J. A. Batten

42 Engaging Students - My Journey from Imitator to Innovator
Robert Remmerswaal

48 Japanese High School Students' Perceptions of Autonomy Needs Support
Olya Yazawa

The TD SIG

56 About the TD SIG

57 Meet the TD SIG Publications Team

Editorial Beginnings: Renewed Calls for Teachers-As-Researchers, Writers, and Readers

Nick Kasparek
Eikei University of Hiroshima

A Call for a Beginner's Mindset

Will you let yourself unwind
Put your soul on the line
Striving for a beginner's mind
– Sufjan Stevens and Angelo De Augustine (2021), "Beginner's mind"

Allowing oneself to be seen as a beginner seems to involve both humility and hubris at once; trying to grow in new directions, especially as an adult, can seem reckless and unseemly. The popularity of Tom Vanderbilt's (2020) recent book *Beginners*, however, suggests a broader respect for the possibility of taking this risk for indeterminate, even apparently useless lifelong learning. It is noteworthy that second language acquisition serves for Vanderbilt as a key metaphor for how one's fear of being a beginner can get in one's way (Szalai, 2020), a point that many language teachers and learners can recognize in their own experiences. A fear of making mistakes can become paralyzing, leading to fossilization and plateaus, in language learning and in life. As Mari Ruti (2014) emphasizes more generally about how people "narrow the field of existential options available" through unconsciously repeating the familiar, it is often the case that "we prefer the security of our misery to the insecurity of the unknown" (p. 64). A beginner's mindset, it is hoped, might be one way of disrupting this cycle and opening toward new potential, while not abandoning fidelity to what remains good from the past.

As beginner co-managing editors and as educators, Ryo Mizukura and I share this hope in new directions and unexpected potentials, in a shared condition of "natality" that for Hannah Arendt "is also the promise of a new beginning, of creativity" (Ahmed, 2014, p. 193). As Catherine Malabou (2019) notes in extending John Dewey's thought with new concepts of neuroplasticity, "Education is precisely what enables intelligence to dissolve and recreate its own habits, to imagine the multiplicity of possibilities, to put knowledge to the test of action and thus to act independently from official norms" (p. 111). Intelligent growth without predetermined ends sometimes means repeating beginnings "to re-open the possibility of new possibilities" (Ruti, 2014, p. 139), both to learn from encounters with others and to produce our own "new ideals, values, goals, and ambitions" (p. 139); it means "recognizing 'what is' as a machined complex of *relations* that *might* have been assembled otherwise" (Wallin, 2010, p. 185).

This natality and transformative intelligence indeed seems assembled and sustained in relation to others, even if this involves "reaching for rather than assuming solidarity" (Ahmed, 2014, p. 197). It is not a matter of progress through creative destruction, of constantly jettisoning the old to chase the new, but thoughtful repetitions to revivify intelligence toward singular and collective ideals. As we turn our respective and collective intelligences to this new project, we have been inspired by the practitioner-researchers who have undertaken their own new projects in their contributions to this issue. While they have different levels of experience in writing for publication, they share a fresh energy of a beginner's mindset in trying something new or looking at their practice from a new angle.

One common thread in many of the articles in this Fall 2021 issue is a particular type of beginner's journey: these scholars have undertaken projects of becoming newly theoretical, that is, they have looked with fresh eyes on theories as internalized resources and tools for thinking in and about their teaching practice. The journal mission of supporting teachers-as-(becoming)researchers is expressed through these pieces, as well as in the still-apparent traces of their production. The aim, for writers and for readers, is a kind of continuous becoming as scholar-practitioners.

A Call for a Soft Scholarly

So give it all up, give it distance
Live it up for the path of resistance
– Sufjan Stevens and Angelo De Augustine (2021) "(This is) The thing"

As a journal encouraging qualitative, post-qualitative, and reflective scholarship, *Explorations in Teacher Development* (*ETD*) asks for a more expansive, "hard-to-do" (Berliner, 2002, p. 18) rigor from more positivist, traditionally hard scientistic research traditions; it calls for a path of resistance. In addition to more traditional mixed-methods research, the journal publishes narrative inquiry and theoretical reflections and explorations, in which the subjective quality of the writing can become a strength rather than something to expel in the name of scientific objectivity. Various sets of standards highlight the rigor of this less positivistic research, which serve as ideals and prompts for thinking rather than strict rules. One example is the American Educational Research Association's (AERA, 2009) seven standards for humanities-oriented research, summarized as follows:

1. **Significance:** The research matters to readers and contributes to a scholarly conversation.
2. **Conceptualization:** The research draws upon the scholarly literature for concepts that align with the inquiry.
3. **Design:** The research follows a clear plan with justified flexibility.
4. **Evidence:** The research makes logical claims supported by research data and scholarly literature.
5. **Coherence:** The research has both internal and external coherence in its design and execution.
6. **Clarity:** The research conveys ideas and information for readers' understanding.
7. **Ethics:** The research respects and protects participants, examines its own biases, and maintains a high level of integrity and honesty.

More specifically in terms of narrative inquiry, Clandinin, Pushor, and Murray Orr (2007) recommend "eight key elements" for inquiry that takes adequate account of temporality, sociality, and place (pp. 22-23):

1. **Justifications:** The research has personal, practical, and social importance, such that researchers can "answer the 'So what?' and 'Who cares?' questions" (p. 25).
2. **Phenomenon:** The research names the phenomenon under study and adopts a narrative view of it.
3. **Methods:** The research describes the particular methods used and why they were chosen.
4. **Analysis and interpretation:** The research uses and describes a clear framework.
5. **Positioning with other research:** The research reviews various relevant scholarly literatures and joins the conversations going on within them.
6. **Uniqueness:** The research provides a "sense of what it is that can be known about a phenomenon that could not be known, at least in the same way, by other theories, methods, or lines of work" (p. 30).
7. **Ethical considerations:** The researchers engage in especially complex relational ethics from start to finish, including thinking through the effects of how others might read their words.
8. **Processes of representation:** The researchers, from the outset, "work from a set of ontological and methodological assumptions and the questions of representational form" that address the entire rhetorical situation (p. 32).

Likewise, mixed methods research (MMR) standards include justified and complementary combinations of methods, approaches, and concepts; aligned research questions and answers; contextual, social, political, and ethical considerations; careful alignment of epistemological perspectives, "data collection methods, forms of analysis, interpretation techniques, and modes of drawing conclusions as appropriate in the logic of MMR" (Brown, 2014, p. 9); considerations of the relative merits of MMR compared to qualitative or quantitative research alone; and the paramount goal of creating "useful and defensible research results" (Brown, 2014, p. 9).

Whether in terms of social scientific, humanistic, or specifically narrative research, this kind of ambitious rigor seems also to demand a beginner's mindset, a caring and careful reflexivity that refuses the easy comfort of the routine. For instance, rather than rest on assurances from following predetermined rules and procedures,

researchers must engage in relational ethics, constantly question their actions and interpretations, and develop their own situated ethical reasoning and judgment (Kim, 2016, p. 106).

Additionally, when conducting narrative research, teachers must move beyond just telling stories: "Moving from telling stories of our teaching practices to narratively inquiring into our teaching practices situates teachers and teacher educators in the known and the familiar while it asks us to make the known and the familiar strange and open to new possibility" (Clandinin et al., 2007, p. 33). Again, the point is to disrupt the normal fossilized routines of thinking, teaching, and learning in carefully considered ways, thereby creating openings for new potentialities for oneself and others.

For the rigorous "beginner" scholarship that *ETD* aspires to publish, it is thus not at all necessary to be an expert; what matters is simply for the research and writing to matter, both personally and socially. We hope that this journal promotes the kind of "lead learning" that Henderson et al. (2014) called for: rather than experts explaining what everyone else should do, lead learners might inspire others from their own particular integration of their subject learning, self learning, and social learning. We aim for the journal to continue to serve as a sincere community of inquiry into teacher development.

The point of this rigor is emphatically not exclusion or setting impossible demands, to set up "barriers that derail and dissuade" anyone from further pursuits (Jack & Sathy, 2021). The point is to encourage contributors and readers to take up precisely these further pursuits, to see in *ETD* articles opportunities to explore what others have written about their topics of interest, consider various sources of data, and reflect on the entire experience with the wisdom of hindsight.

In other words, writing and reading *ETD* articles can be seen as a form of reflective development for researcher-practitioners at any level of experience and confidence.

A Call for Papers

Speak out, speak out
The conversation may afford you
Wisdom of the wise
– Sufjan Stevens and Angelo De Augustine (2021) "Reach out"

For the Spring 2022 issue of *ETD*, we invite any scholarship dealing with phenomena related to teacher development. We welcome articles using quantitative or qualitative data as well as theory. We above all urge authors to use their research as an opportunity to learn from—as well as speak out and join—the scholarly conversation about teacher development, sharing the wisdom they have gained along the way.

As we all continue to face the challenges of teaching and living well in a pandemic, we also especially encourage submissions related to the concept of *askesis*, or care of the self. This might also involve the above calls for a beginner's mindset and a rigorous scholarly becoming. In Foucault's conceptualization, this activity of caring for the self is not a passive or essentialized self-knowledge of something simply assumed to exist (Kim, Morrison, Ramzinski, 2019). Instead, "the self is formed only through the practice of freely transforming oneself to become something else" (Lightbody, 2008, p. 111). This involves rethinking one's relations to oneself, to others, and to one's context, with the greater aim of finding out what one truly thinks, how one acts accordingly, and how to become an ethical subject (Kim, 2019). It also involves establishing and systematizing a truth to commit to and live by, taking pleasure in oneself while remaining open and attentive to others (Kim, 2017).

This means not understanding oneself and others as atomistic individuals, as privileged subjects among objects, but as responsible formed-transforming selves who create their own conditions for ethical agency, attending to social norms and rules but committing to a more ambitious ethics and character to act ethically without guarantees. During the pandemic, ethically ambiguous situations might have become more apparent to many of us, but we might also have begun to notice—or actively attend to—how caring for the self in a radically relational ethics extends to the known and familiar now made strange.

We especially encourage scholarly inquiry of all kinds that estranges taken-for-granted practices and opens new possibilities for teacher development, transformation, or "sideways" growth (Stockton, 2009).

A Call for Readers

Get it right, follow my heart

Back to, back to Oz
Where I was born at the start
– Sufjan Stevens and Angelo De Augustine (2021), "Back to Oz"

In this issue, seven practitioner-researchers offer their experience and learning for potential resonances. In different ways, they all provide a peak behind the curtain of the interrelated development of teachers, curriculum, and pedagogy. All reveal an active beginner's mind at work of returning to start to get it right, whether through questioning prior assumptions and practices, imagining the position of a novice student to inspire potential lifelong learning journeys, or translating among theories and practices in novel ways.

Takaaki Hiratsuka delineates how Exploratory Practice (EP) and Fanselovian Premises (FP) are powerful concepts not only on their own but also in tandem in second language teacher education. This power is illustrated through successful models of each of these forms of professional development as well as a careful synthesis of how each might lead into and complement the other. This article not only justifies these language teacher development concepts for potentially skeptical and curious readers, but also proposes several promising directions for future research.

John Pryce describes a self-directed teacher development project (TDP) driven by the question of how to most effectively introduce poetry to novices in an L2 classroom. As Pryce emphasizes, he chose poetry for this TDP partly because he had no experience teaching this genre before and therefore pushed him into new territory, but he also chose it for well-founded pedagogical reasons. This article presents and discusses the resulting task-based learning structure, its behind-the-scenes development process, and its recorded results.

Denver Beirne interrogates his own process of developing a model for teaching metaphor, from its initial stages as merely potential support for an engaging activity involving songs to its evolution over multiple iterations into a theoretically sound, carefully scaffolded pedagogical approach to an especially confusing aspect of language. Beirne highlights adjustments in each iteration in response to feedback in the classroom as well as to engagement with the scholarly literature. This article presents a persuasive argument for why and how language teachers should attend explicitly to metaphor, and in so doing, illustrates how linguistic theory can translate productively into innovative pedagogy.

Kyle Hoover explores the literature on the use of formulaic sequences as an empowering academic writing strategy, and he presents a mini-unit as a carefully developed praxis, demonstrating the translation processes between theory and practice. In this article, Hoover invites readers to take inspiration from this mini-unit not only to teach L2 university student writers how they can more effectively approach writing research paper introductions, but also to explore other ways to foster a broad repertory of sustainable writing strategies through one's teaching.

Tom Batten reflects on his experience with using reflective diaries in two small junior high school classes, which opened a consistent channel for students to communicate their experience of each lesson to the teachers. This, in addition to Batten's own reflective entries, prompted epiphanies about learning and teaching, which in turn fed back into his work as a teacher and as a scholar. This article offers inspiration and advice for other teachers to use reflective diaries to illuminate, interrogate, and improve their teaching.

Robert Remmerswaal narrates his own teacher journey, which will undoubtedly resonate with other teachers who have found transformational power in educational theory; but it might also provoke new perspectives on how seemingly detached theories can become creative resources for innovative teachers in concrete settings. This article explores how Remmerswaal moved beyond an apprenticeship of observation and constructed a coherent and meaningful pedagogical approach of his own through engagement with the concepts of situated learning, distributed cognition, and gamification.

Finally, Olya Yazawa investigates through mixed-methods research the effects that teachers have on language learning motivation in a Japanese high school context. This article explores the relationship between autonomy needs support and self-determined motivation and reports on survey results regarding student perceptions of autonomy and motivation. Yazawa encourages other teachers to reflect on the complexities of motivation and autonomy and how they might better promote students' perceptions of freedom in their English

language learning.

We new editors are grateful for the work of all our predecessors and support team. For example, Bill Snyder was instrumental in shepherding many of this issue's submissions through their early stages, as were Matthew Turner and Ewen MacDonald. Reviewers including Daniel Hooper, Deryn Verity, Ewen MacDonald, Sam Morris, Guy Smith, Jane Pryce, Matthew Turner, Jo Mynard, Satoko Kato, Nick Kasparek, and Ryo Mizukura helped to ensure the articles' quality. Matthew Turner has continued the work of Daniel Beck and Lisa Hunsberger on this issue's layout. Finally, Andrew Hofmann and Rachel Patterson provided careful proofreading. Without this team, Ryo and I would likely have been at a loss of even how to begin.

Submission Guidelines

The Teacher Development SIG welcomes submissions for its publication, *Explorations in Teacher Development*, that address aspects related to the SIG's core mission of expanding and exploring issues in teacher education. We are interested in publishing the following categories of articles:

- Research Articles (4000-6000 words)
  - Narrative Inquiry
  - Reflective or Theoretical Inquiry
  - Action Research
  - Mixed-Methods Research
  - Arts-Based Research
- Explorations (1000-3000 words)
- Reflections (1000-3000 words)
  - Learning/Teaching Journeys
  - Teacher Reflections
  - Conference Reflections
- Book Reviews
- Interviews
- Columns (500-1000 words)

The TD SIG also publishes the proceedings of our summer *Teacher Journeys* conference as well as occasional special issues in collaboration with other JALT SIGs. If you wish to contribute to *ETD*, please follow these guidelines:

- Use APA Style (7th ed.).
- Submit at any time, but please check the latest call for papers for the publication schedules.
- Include the following with any submission:
  - A brief cover letter indicating which category of *ETD* article your submission best fits
  - Current affiliation and contact email (a short bio and photo are optional).
- Additionally, include the following with any research article submission:
  - An abstract of 150-250 words, including purpose, methods, and conclusions.
- Include visual aids such as images, graphs, and tables with your article if desired.

Please note that all accepted submissions for the research and explorations sections of *ETD* will undergo a peer-review process involving feedback and suggestions for improvement. Questions and contributions may be sent to the editors at: *jalt.ted.ete.editor@gmail.com*

Spring 2022 Issue Projected Schedule

- First submissions: 1/11
- First reviews and revisions: 1/12-1/31
- Second reviews and revisions: 2/1-2/15
- Proofreading: 2/16-2/28
- Publication: 3/15 (Explorations, n.d.)

Additional Guidance for Beginning Submissions

Finally, we also recommend that potential authors read three brief chapters from a recent open-access book on the scholarship of teaching and learning (SOTL) (Healey et al., 2020).

- Chapter 3, "Creating and contributing to scholarly conversations through writing" (https://www.centerforengagedlearning.org/books/writing-about-learning/part-2/chapter-3/)

  This chapter unpacks the metaphor of "conversation" in scholarly writing.

- Chapter 20, "Sharing everyday lived experiences: Stories" (https://www.centerforengagedlearning.org/books/writing-about-learning/part-4/chapter-20/)

  This chapter discusses the value of written stories as a scholarly and pedagogical genre for capturing situated human experiences and processes of becoming, and it offers "a flexible guide for organizing and writing

stories about learning and teaching" (p. 218).

- Chapter 18, "Revealing the process: Reflective essays" (https://www.centerforengagedlearning.org/books/writing-about-learning/part-4/chapter-18/)

  This chapter outlines an intellectual and scholarly approach to writing reflections and explorations.

All three could provide helpful guidance, especially regarding the less traditional article genres that *ETD* publishes.

References

AERA. (2009). Standards for reporting on humanities-oriented research in AERA publications: American Educational Research Association. *Educational Researcher, 38*(6), 481-486.

Ahmed, S. (2014). *Willful subjects*. Duke University Press.

Berliner, D. C. (2002). Comment: Educational research: The hardest science of all. *Educational researcher, 31*(8), 18-20.

Brown, J. D. (2014). *Mixed methods research for TESOL*. Edinburgh University Press.

Clandinin, D. J., Pushor, D., & Orr, A. M. (2007). Navigating sites for narrative inquiry. *Journal of teacher education*, *58*(1), 21-35.

Healey, M., Matthews, K. E., & Cook-Sather, A. (2020). *Writing about learning and teaching in higher education: Creating and contributing to scholarly conversations across a range of genres*. Elon University Center for Engaged Learning. https://www.centerforengagedlearning.org/books/writing-about-learning/

Henderson, J. (Ed.). (2014). *Reconceptualizing curriculum development: Inspiring and informing action*. Routledge.

Jack, J., & Sathy, V. (2021, September 24). It's time to cancel the word 'rigor.' The Chronicle of Higher Education. https://www.chronicle.com/article/its-time-to-cancel-the-word-rigor

Explorations in Teacher Development (n.d.). JALT Teacher Development SIG. Retrieved December 2, 2021, from https://td.jalt.org/index.php/etdjournal/

Kim, J. H. (2016). *Understanding narrative inquiry: The crafting and analysis of stories as research*. Sage publications.

Kim, J. H. (2017). Autobiography as Foucauldian askēsis: Care of the self and care of others. *a/b: Auto/Biography Studies*, 32(2), 327-329.

Kim, J. H., Morrison, J. A., & Ramzinski, E. (2019). Is Bildung possible in the classroom?: Autobiographical writing as philosophical exercise (askēsis) for developing one's Bildung. *Journal of Curriculum and Pedagogy, 16*(3), 242-262.

Lightbody, B. (2008). Deep ethical pluralism in late Foucault. *Minerva: An Internet Journal of Philosophy, 12*.

Malabou, C. (2019). *Morphing intelligence: From IQ measurement to artificial brains*. Columbia University Press.

Ruti, M. (2014). *The call of character: Living a life worth living*. Columbia University Press.

Stevens, S., & De Augustine, A. (2021). *A beginner's mind* [Album]. Asthmatic Kitty.

Stockton, K. B. (2009). *The queer child: Or growing sideways in the twentieth century*. Duke University Press.

Szalai, J. (2020 December 29). In 'Beginners,' a writer takes up chess and surfing and singing and juggling and …. *The New York Times*. https://www.nytimes.com/2020/12/29/books/review-beginners-lifelong-learning-tom-vanderbilt.html

Vanderbilt, T. (2020). *Beginners: The joy and transformative power of lifelong learning*. Penguin Random House.

Wallin, J. J. (2010). *A Deleuzian approach to the curriculum: Essays on a pedagogical life*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Exploratory Practice (EP) and Fanselovian Premises (FP)

Takaaki Hiratsuka
Ryukoku University

This article outlines and compares two key concepts within second language teacher education (SLTE)—Exploratory Practice (EP) and Fanselovian Premises (FP). It also seeks an integration of both approaches in order to leverage their combined benefits. To that end, this article begins with my personal accounts concerning the impetus of the present inquiry, coupled with a brief overview of SLTE, an area of study that aims to understand how language teachers learn and how language teacher educators can affect and support that learning. Second, it describes EP, a collaborative form of practitioner inquiry, and bolsters this description with a research example. Third, it explicates FP, a list of suggestions for innovative teaching, and offers a representative case study. It then compares the two concepts for the purpose of considering their respective contributions for professional development and argues for how an EP/FP synthesized approach might improve outcomes in the SLTE field. The article concludes with suggestions for empirical research of EP and FP.

Introduction

My first encounter with Exploratory Practice (EP) and Fanselovian Premises (FP) took place, serendipitously, at the same time. It was during a master's course on second language teacher education (SLTE) held in 2011 at a Japanese university, when Professor John F. Fanselow introduced me to the seminal book on EP by Allwright and Hanks (2009). As an in-service teacher of English at a Japanese high school at the time, due to the relevance and practicality I was delighted to learn in the course about the field of second language teacher education that aims to understand how language teachers learn and how language teacher educators can affect and support that learning. In particular, I came to recognize that language teaching and teacher education were no longer regarded as merely acts of transmitting knowledge, which was previously justified on the bases of causal conditionality (i.e., teaching leads to student learning) and reasoned causality (i.e., teacher education leads to good teaching) (see Freeman, 2002; Freeman & Johnson, 2005); rather, I learned that language teaching and teacher education more recently hinged on: (a) language teachers' mental lives whereby their thinking and subsequent actions are treated as integral (Denscombe, 1982; Freeman, 2002; Lortie, 1975); (b) language teachers' identities within socialization processes in their contexts of practice (Burns & Richards, 2009; Freeman, 2002); and (c) language teachers' idiosyncratic cognition, disposition, and expertise in their various situated settings (Freeman, 2002; Walsh & Mann, 2019).

Within the rich and complex field of SLTE, the two approaches that stood out to me were EP and FP. Initially, my thoughts on them were a unique blend of doubt and exhilaration. While I was skeptical about EP and FP because they did not appear to be scholarly enough and were seemingly too practice oriented, I felt like I had finally discovered the means with which to fill the perceived gap I had between classroom practice and academic research as well as to give a sense of empowerment to classroom teachers and learners, including myself, in an attainable and rigorous manner. In the past decade, therefore, with the belief that both EP and FP have the potential to facilitate teacher learning and transform the delivery of that learning, I have carried out my lessons by incorporating the essences of both EP and FP and have conducted several empirical studies on EP (e.g., Hiratsuka, 2016) and on FP (e.g., Hiratsuka, 2017). In the process, I met with some (often contradictory) criticisms involving EP and FP in the context of Japan, such as: "It [EP/FP] is neither theoretically nor scientifically sound enough to be counted as research" and "It [EP/FP] is neither of interest nor of use to Japanese teachers and learners." Hence, the present study is my attempt to raise awareness of EP and FP and consider the value of an EP/FP synthesized approach within SLTE, particularly in the context of Japan. I will do this by providing descriptions about EP and FP,

introducing examples of their research undertaken in Japan, and juxtaposing and synthesizing the two concepts.

Exploratory Practice (EP)

Exploratory Practice (EP) has many compelling features. It is a creative form of practitioner research rather than research conducted by third parties in a top-down manner; it is democratic as it is the research *of*, *by*, and *for* teachers, students, and many others who are involved in their immediate language education contexts; it is an adaptable framework rather than a step-by-step methodology; and it is a viable scheme for all to heighten awareness about the quality of classroom life. As such, EP practitioners work closely together with people around them for mutual development in tackling idiosyncratic puzzles that arise from their shared endeavors (Allwright & Hanks, 2009). EP practitioners are charged with the task of exploring what puzzles they grapple with, how they delve into them, and why they want to make sense of them for the ultimate purpose of promoting their understandings about everyday teaching and learning practices in the classroom.

Hanks (2019) has carried out a meta-analysis of EP studies to date, indicating EP's widespread influence in SLTE by outlining its theoretical refinements and a series of empirical studies. In her article, Hanks (2019) analyzed 97 articles, chapters, and books published within the last twenty-seven years, all of which, to varying degrees, discussed the conceptual framework of EP and/or recorded EP research. Her analysis revealed that EP has taken place in a myriad of geographical locations (across five continents), educational sectors (schools, colleges, universities, and private language schools), and contexts (privileged and deprived learning environments). Due to EP's ability to integrate research and pedagogy, it has gained significant attention and has become "an entity in its own right, with its own characteristics, [and] its own liquid identity" (Hanks, 2019, p. 176).

One illustrative EP study in the context of Japan is that of Hiratsuka (2016). In his study, two pairs of team teachers from two Japanese high schools participated in an EP inquiry over the course of four months, which consisted of three cycles with four parts: class observation, pair discussion, group discussion, and EP story writing. The findings suggested that, by and large, the participants (a) focused on their shared quality of life and that they remained inquisitive about enhancing this understanding rather than being overly concerned about achieving technical efficiency or solving problems, (b) involved everybody for collaborative development, and (c) continued their pursuit of enriching their lessons by integrating EP-related activities into normal teaching.

Fanselovian Premises (FP)

Over the years Professor John F. Fanselow has been immensely influential in SLTE. He has been constantly inspiring language teachers around the globe to examine what really happens in their classrooms, as opposed to what they *think* happens. He has introduced innovative ways for language teachers to observe their own classrooms, reflect on their lessons with their colleagues, and create lesson activities that might spark learners' curiosity. His seminal works have led teachers to question the taken-for-granted and challenge the status quo (e.g., Fanselow, 1992). He advocates that we should view teaching as the practice of reminding learners what they already know. In so doing, he argues, learners (and their teachers) can develop as autonomous, empowered, and responsible practitioners who do not get unduly obsessed with "right" answers or rely excessively on "superiors."

Fanselow has recently introduced another resource aimed at both new and experienced language teachers (Fanselow, 2018). It includes a wide array of distinctive classroom activities and feedback methods in videos that teachers can watch and try out on their own. It was born out of his concern that the field of SLTE lacks skepticism. In other words, all too often we accept prescriptions and labels put forward by researchers without enough scrutiny. Consequently, teachers may discredit their knowledge and experiences and believe that adopting method A automatically results in their students achieving B. This means that teachers may miss opportunities to deepen their own thinking and/or explore other possibilities in the classroom. Fanselow also critiques current practices whereby teachers often use jargon in universal terms to describe classroom activities, such as *scaffolding* and *communicative activities*. He is worried that many teachers use these terms without a sharing of interpretations about them. Throughout the years, he has proposed Fanselovian Premises (FP) so that

teachers do not become uncritical and have the courage to make small but effective innovations in their teaching. Some of his premises are: (a) make small changes to seek teaching effectiveness, (b) use materials selected by students and value their voices, and (c) integrate speaking, listening, writing, reading, and thinking activities.

Hiratsuka (2017) exemplifies a way to implement FP within empirical research. Data in his study were gathered, using classroom observation, essay writing, and interviews, from 34 pre-service teachers who were taking English teaching methods courses at a Japanese university. Findings indicated that the participants experienced a broad variety of feelings and emotions, including doubts, confusions, enlightenments, and revelations toward FP enacted during the courses.

Comparison of EP and FP

As described above, Exploratory Practice (EP) and Fanselovian Premises (FP) both have incredible potential to invigorate the learning of language teachers. I present Table 1 below which illustrates the primary goals, purposes, and methods of EP and FP comparatively in the hopes that it can consolidate our understanding of the two concepts.

	EP	FP
Goals	Understanding	Innovation
Purposes	Quality of classroom life	Change
Methods	Normal pedagogic tools	Various activities with small tweaks

Table 1. Elements of EP and FP

In order to clarify the three elements categorized above between EP and FP, I will provide examples of each of them drawn from the data of the two case studies introduced previously in this article (Hiratsuka, 2016, 2017). In regard to the goals of the respective approaches, EP has encouraged language teachers and learners to increase their understanding of their classrooms; meanwhile, FP has instigated language teachers and learners to be innovative in their teaching and learning. Regarding EP, one participant of Hiratsuka (2016) claimed that "you are encouraged to obviously reflect seriously on your perspective". Regarding FP, there was a participant in Hiratsuka (2017) who expressed her delight to have arrived at a realization about innovative ways of thinking concerning teaching: "teachers should know what his or her students want to do and what they are interested in and make flexible teaching plans and don't [sic] forget the students' perspectives that teachers had once had before."

With respect to the purposes of the two approaches, EP focuses on raising the quality of classroom life, while FP emphasizes changes in classroom practices wherever possible. One participant of Hiratsuka (2016) who seemed to have scrupulously adhered to the EP principles asked herself the following question during her EP endeavor: "Are my English lessons related to the students' lives and concerns?" Meanwhile, one participant of Hiratsuka (2017) changed her attitudes and perceptions about teaching English as a result of taking the university course, which itself was filled with unconventional teaching activities and learning opportunities mirroring FP. The participant remarked:

> *Through this course, I learned that teaching a foreign language is not only about giving some knowledge for students but also it is about finding ways to get students to be excited. When they are excited, they can enjoy learning, notice, or find something by themselves, and overcome difficult things when they are learning.*

As for methods, EP utilizes normal pedagogic tools and gathers data without increasing any extra burden involving the participation in it; on the other hand, FP invites teachers to make small tweaks to their usual teaching activities and observe their results for enrichment. Another participant of Hiratsuka (2016) noted the naturalness and authenticity of the EP endeavor: "I was teaching as usual, so I could behave naturally…. The class observations were not a set-up. You've analyzed some students' reactions in the classroom, right? I know their reactions were real." As the course instructor and one of the participants of the action research project inspired by FP in Hiratsuka (2017), I also made a small change. After watching the video clips of my lessons, I decided to extend wait time in my future lessons so that my students could have sufficient time to respond to my questions.

Synthesis of EP and FP

The elements of EP and FP have been reflected in the comments and practices of the participants in the studies (Hiratsuka, 2016, 2017). Although the distinctions I made in Table 1 enable us to recognize their respective strengths and uniqueness to some extent, they are inevitably over-general, considering that the elements of EP and FP are intricately interrelated and overlapping. In regard to the goals, for instance, it is likely that while EP could achieve the development of language teachers by adhering to its philosophies and principles, it can also encourage the type of innovative teaching styles that FP champions. In addition, it is quite unlikely that participants take part in EP or FP with one single purpose in mind; rather, the journey might simultaneously attend to the enhancement of quality of classroom life *and* the promotion of changes in pedagogy.

Just like a pair of trousers sometimes consists of only one fabric and other times of many different fabrics (e.g., canvas and corduroy), is created from different kinds of fibers, be they natural products (e.g., cotton) or artificially generated (e.g., nylon) or a mix of both, and is made through different types of weave (e.g., plain and twill), EP and FP can stand on their own and achieve their own purposes; at the same time, they can augment one another and together provide extraordinary professional development methodologies and opportunities for making a real breakthrough in teaching and learning. In other words, we can synthesize a variety of fabrics (EP: understanding; FP: innovation) made of differing natural and artificial fibers (EP: quality of classroom life; FP: change), using multiple types of weave (EP: normal pedagogic tools; FP: various activities with small tweaks) for improving the effectiveness of SLTE. Each EP and FP venture might fluidly change its portions and thickness of their elements, dependent upon the researchers' intentions and participants' experiences. Neither concept is better nor worse but the two should be added (as a pair) to the repertoire of our experiences. Thus, some of the characteristics and the benefits of the EP/FP synthesized approach include:

- Greater goals: Only after we are conscious of what we actually say and do in the classroom, might we be able to craft an innovative lesson by introducing familiar activities with different pacing and different sequencing. Conversely, an innovative lesson might reveal aspects of our lessons of which we were not previously aware, thereby leading to a deeper understanding of our lessons.
- Dual purposes: It might be the case that when we are content with the quality of classroom life and feel comfortable with our teaching, we are willing to make changes. In reverse, it is possible that when we make changes in our teaching, we can break free of our comfort zones and enhance the quality of classroom life.
- Joint methods: By employing our usual classroom pedagogic activities as investigative tools as well as making just small, manageable tweaks to them in our day-to-day teaching, we can explore our teaching and promote professional development effectively and feasibly.

Concluding Remarks

I set out this article by sketching out my personal experience within SLTE and delineating the two concepts, EP and FP, which have captured international attention for quite a while among SLTE researchers. The originality of this article comes from the comparison and contrast of EP and FP, using exemplary case studies in the context of Japan, and newly contributed by proposing a synthesis of EP and FP for furthering the efforts of language teacher development. It is important that classroom teachers are encouraged to apply the EP/FP synthesized approach in whatever the manner they see fit in their own contexts. Again, EP and FP are built on the premise that those who are in the actual classrooms are the protagonists of their journeys.

To conclude, I propose three new directions for future EP and FP studies. The first direction is to examine what similarities and differences there exist between the effects of EP and those of FP on teachers' perceptions and practices. The second is that longitudinal studies should be undertaken (one year or more) of the same group of teachers and students to observe and record the immediate and long-lasting impacts of the EP/FP synthesized approach on their teaching and learning. The final direction is to carry out comparative studies whereby one group of participants has access to substantial resources about EP and FP (detailed explanations

about what EP/FP entails, numerous methodology examples, and findings from previous EP and FP studies) at the outset of the endeavor, for example, in the form of lectures, and the other does not. In other words, future research can concentrate on the divergences (if any) between the experiences of those who had sufficient access to the resources and those who did not. If there were divergences, researchers could then analyze in what way the initial input about EP and FP makes a difference in the participants' experiences and why. The results of such studies would be valuable for designing a prototype of the initial phase of an EP/FP synthesized intervention to which classroom teachers and other stakeholders can use as a reference.

Acknowledgements

I owe an important debt to Professor Judith Hanks and Professor John F. Fanselow for sharing their pearls of wisdom with me. All errors and interpretations in this article remain mine.

References

Allwright, D., & Hanks, J. (2009). *The developing language learner: An introduction to Exploratory Practice*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Burns, A., & Richards, J. C. (Eds.). (2009). *The Cambridge guide to second language education*. Cambridge University Press.

Denscombe, M. (1982). *Fieldwork in educational settings: Methods, pitfalls and perspectives* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Fanselow, J. F. (1992). *Try the opposite*. Simul.

Fanselow, J. F. (2018). *Small changes in teaching, big results in learning*. iTDi.

Freeman, D. (2002). The hidden side of the work: Teacher knowledge and learning to teach. *Language Teaching*, *35*(1), 1-13.

Freeman, D., & Johnson, K. E. (2005). Toward linking teacher knowledge and student learning. In D. J. Tedick (Ed.), *Second language education: International perspectives* (pp. 73-95). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Hanks, J. (2019). From research-as-practice to exploratory practice-as-research in language teaching and beyond. *Language Teaching*, *52*(2), 143-187.

Hiratsuka, T. (2016). Actualizing Exploratory Practice (EP) principles with team teachers in Japan. *System*, *57*, 109-119.

Hiratsuka, T. (2017). Give me a clue for innovative teaching! *The Bulletin of Graduate School of Education University of the Ryukyus*, *1*, 25-33.

Lortie, D. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*. University of Chicago Press.

Walsh, S., & Mann, S. (Eds.). (2019). *Routledge handbook of English language teacher education*. Routledge.

Author Bio

Takaaki Hiratsuka is an associate professor at Ryukoku University in Kyoto, Japan, where he teachers a range of applied linguistics courses at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels. He currently supervises master's and PhD students in related fields of language teacher education and narrative inquiry. He received his PhD in language teaching and learning from the University of Auckland, New Zealand. His recent book publications include: *Narrative inquiry into language teacher identity: ALTs in the JET program* (2022, Routledge) and *Team teachers in Japan: Beliefs, identities, and emotions* (forthcoming, Routledge).
takaakihiratsuka@gmail.com

Concrete Poetry: Introducing an Unfamiliar Literary Genre into the L2 Classroom

John Pryce
Kansai Gaidai University

This paper presents a self-directed teacher development project (TDP) to introduce concrete poetry into an EFL classroom via a task-based language teaching approach, and reader response method. The participants in the study were first year Japanese students attending a university in Osaka, enrolled in an Introduction to Humanities course. The outcome showed that, initially, all participants had zero experience of studying poetry, that pre-method they were positive in attitude towards poetry, and by studying poetry they mostly perceived that their linguistic skills improved. Post-method analysis illustrated that for attitude and skill factors, a further increase in positivity was measured in both variables showing that the methodology was successful. Additionally, the participants rated the method highly and recommended no changes to be made. The TDP was deemed successful and further research is recommended with larger and more diverse samples.

Introduction

'You may get to the very top of the ladder, and find it is propped against the wrong wall' (Raine, 1915). With a similar sentiment, a significant degree of uncertainty is always present for educators when choosing future research projects, training, or further education courses. Self-directed teacher development projects (TDPs) are particularly challenging processes for teachers with factors to consider such as available time, costs, and access to technology and resources (Bonk & Lee, 2017). In addition to those factors, it is crucial to choose the correct 'wall' that not only provides success and enjoyment, but also support. In this article, the chosen 'wall' was the introduction of poetry into a Japanese EFL university class by designing an introductory methodology for poetry novices.

Why Poetry?

Poetry was chosen for three reasons. Firstly, as a catalyst for the basis of this study it was reported in the media that poetry has seen a global boom in the last few years. According to a survey by the National Endowment for Arts in 2017, 28 million US adults read poetry that year with an increase of 5% from the previous study conducted in 2012 (Ieyengar, 2018). The reader demographics illustrated that 18 – 24-year-olds doubled from 8.2% to 17.5% for the same period, and that female readers also increased from 8% to 14.5%. Increases were also shown for ethnic/racial subgroups and adults with a college education. Similarly, in the UK, poetry statistics reported by Nielsen BookScan showed that sales of poetry books were 12.3 million pounds showing an increase of 10.6% in 2017 (Ferguson, 2019). Consumer demographics revealed that 75% of sales were under 34 years of age and of that, 41% were aged 13-22. Teenage girls and women were the largest consumers of poetry approximately aligning with the NEA's findings in the US.

Secondly, the researcher read and wrote poetry for enjoyment and was interested to explore if that would translate as a learning objective into the EFL classroom by focusing on a 'reader response' approach and avoiding poetry stylistics. In addition to enjoyment, it was hoped that students would develop their critical thinking skills and enrich their vocabulary.

Thirdly, the researcher had no experience of teaching poetry in an EFL context, so as a TDP it presented unique and interesting challenges, such as considering which form of poetry to choose, developing a method to introduce it into the EFL classroom, and deciding how to measure the success of the TDP.

Reasons for the Poetry Boom

Andre Breedt, the M.D. of Nielsen BookScan, postulates that "in times of political upheaval and uncertainty, people turn to poems to make sense of the world" (Ferguson, 2019). Katy Shaw, a professor of contemporary writing at Northumbria University, also echoes this sentiment and stated in Ferguson's (2019) article that previous resurgences in poetry had been recorded during the rise of Chartism – a British working-class movement for parliamentary reform

(Britannica, n.d.) – in the 19th century, and in the 1980s miner's strike in the UK. Over the last few years, with the Trump administration in the US and Brexit in the UK there is definitely "uncertainty and upheaval". More recently, social media and its platforms are also offered as reasons. The brevity of certain forms of poetry lend to the usefulness of smartphones and the speed of which it can be shared. This has given rise to a genre of 'instapoets', much to the annoyance of the traditionalists (Ferguson, 2019).

Use of Literary Texts in EFL

The use of literary texts, such as poetry, in EFL is a divisive subject among educators. McKay (1982) states that the arguments against the use of such texts are that they reflect complex structures and a broad use of language, do not meet students' academic or occupational needs, and include cultural aspects that can be difficult for students to understand. However, supporters of literature use argue that by studying literary texts, students are enabled to process and interpret new language as it presents meaningful and memorable contexts from real life (Lazar, 2008).

Kodama (2012) researched articles from the *ELT Journal* over the period 1981-2010 and found 15 articles relating to how literature should be approached in communicative language teaching and summarized the findings into four main approaches:

1. Stylistics – focuses on a detailed analysis/ critique of poetic devices (alliteration, metaphor, assonance etc.), semantics, discourse, lexis, and levels of language use including graphological and phonological items. This is viewed as the classical but long-winded approach to poetry analysis and requires students to have a good prior understanding of stylistics to be able to approach a text.
2. Language based teaching – this is a broad category of application and includes techniques such as reading aloud to develop confidence, pronunciation, and fluency skills. Lexical items can be focused on to encourage students to 'play' with language such as exploring rhymes and lyrics.
3. Reader response – focuses on the reader's personal interpretation of a text where there are no correct answers to be found. This approach requires zero knowledge of stylistics and multiple meanings can be explored by individuals in the class.
4. Young adult literature – use of this literary sub-genre allows L2 students to engage with vocabulary and language use that may be of a more appropriate level for them to comprehend, and therefore be able to find meaning more easily.

All approaches were analysed for positive and negative aspects and an integrated framework was put forward by Kodama (2012). However, in the context of this study the 'reader response' approach was of most interest as the reader is central to meaning construction and that different readers read ('respond') differently (Hall, 2005, p. 840). It could be argued that this is a shallow approach to poetry teaching/learning, and that the author's meaning or intent may be misinterpreted or changed which could be a personal issue for some educators. However, the primary advantage of this approach is that it is quick and easy to implement in the L2 classroom with no particular focus on stylistics or literary genre and it fits the context of this study.

Research

This research project was designed with a three-pronged approach and the outcomes are presented in this paper. Firstly, as a TDP, various sub-genres of poetry and examples were explored, and the following simple criteria were used to identify the best option for the participants:

1. Appropriate for the participants' linguistic abilities in the study
2. Ease of facilitating a reader response
3. Enjoyable to study and teach

Secondly, a methodology was developed for application in a live classroom. Lastly, student feedback was measured and analysed, both quantitatively and qualitatively, pre- and post-method by questionnaire instruments. Researcher observations and student feedback results would

provide a measure to decide if the TDP was successful or not. The following sections outline the form of poetry chosen, the approach and methodology, the results and discussion, and lastly, future recommendations.

Choice of Poetry Genre

There are many different genres of poetry to choose but one type stood out as most suitable for the participants in the study, and that was 'concrete poetry'. According to Poets.org (2004), the term 'concrete poetry' was first coined in the early 1950's by European artists Max Bill and Öyving Fahlström. The poems were constructed in an intangible and unidentifiable structure which would give no suggestion to the meaning or context behind the poem. However, as the popularity of concrete poetry grew and spread, by the 1960's abstraction was less of a focus, and it became more akin to a fusion of word and visual art utilizing not only paper as a medium, but also photography, film and soundscapes. As a result, nowadays, we can find a highly structured form of poetry fused with visual imagery.

In Appendix A, an example of concrete poetry can be found entitled 'Kitty' (Hollander, 1993). There are obvious features that the reader can immediately observe by skimming the poem. The cat shape might lead to speculation and allude to the poem being about a cat, possibly the personality or character traits of a cat. There is no punctuation except for the use of capitalization of certain letters to denote a new sentence. The choice of the word 'tale' at the end of the cat's 'tail' is interesting with the double meaning.

The virtue of this type of poetry is that the imagery used supersedes the need for the reader to focus on the density or length of the text. This could be particularly useful for L2 learners and diffuse a potential feeling of poetry being too difficult or challenging to understand. This was the primary criterion of choice.

Research Questions for the Participants in the Study

RQ1. Pre-methodology: What are the participants' experiences of, and attitude towards, studying poetry to improve their English skills?
RQ2. Post-methodology: Did the participants' perception towards poetry change either positively or negatively compared to RQ1 findings, and how did they feel about the methodology presented?

Research Questions for the Researcher in the Study

RQ3. Does the proposed method serve as an appropriate introduction for both teacher and student poetry novices?
RQ4. Was the TDP exercise successful?

Approach and Methodology

The study was designed with a focus on student-centeredness, and a task-based language teaching (TBLT) structure. The task-based structure followed the traditional pre-, while- and post-task construct for both teacher and student tasks (Willis & Willis, 2007).

Participants

The participants were first year female Japanese students (n=20) attending a university in Osaka, enrolled in an Introduction to Humanities course. The participants were an average age of 18, had a mean average of 8.9 years total English experience and were focusing primarily on reading skills and vocabulary acquisition. The semester was 15 weeks (30 x 90-minute classes) and the course included literary texts, interviews, speeches, and biographies.

Instruments

Instrument 1 (Appendix B) collected participants' data pre-intervention on their:

a. Experience of using poetry to study English
b. Attitude towards poetry as a literary genre
c. Perception of how studying poetry improves English skills

Questions 5 and 8, '*I think studying poetry is useful*' and '*I really dislike poetry*', required a written response to qualify the participants' choices while other general comments could also be added. There were two multi-item scales represented in the instrument: Attitude and Skills.

Instrument 2 (Appendix C) collected participants' data post-intervention on their:

a. Attitude towards poetry as a literary genre

b. Perception of how studying poetry improves English skills
c. Perception of the methodology used to study poetry

Four questions were added to collect more detailed information about any change in opinion towards poetry, suggested changes to the methodology, feelings about creating poetry and other comments. There were three multi-item scales represented in the instrument: Attitude, Skills and Method. Both instruments utilized a 5-point Likert scale with a value of 1 equating to strongly agree, a value of 3 equating to neither and a value of 5 equating to strongly disagree.

Administration of the Instruments

To reduce bias or influence, both instruments were given in an envelope, to a volunteer student. The teacher left the classroom while the instruments were completed to assure that students' anonymity was protected. The volunteer then collected the instruments and place them in a sealed envelope.

Data Treatment

Instrument 1 and 2 data were inputted into SPSS 26. The multi-item scales were tested for internal consistency by evaluating the Cronbach Alpha values (Instrument 1 – Attitude = 0.78 and Skills = 0.81; Instrument 2 - Attitude = 0.79, Skills = 0.79 and Method = 0.85) and reduced to a single variable for statistical analysis. According to Bryan and Cramer (2005), 0.80 is the value which indicates a satisfactory level of conceptual relatedness between items. Deleting items from scales less than 0.80 did not improve the values significantly and were therefore left intact.

The open questions were analysed and mined for supporting information to corroborate the statistical findings and allow for further comments on the process.

Materials

The poem used for the 'while-task' and the introduction of the method was 'Kitty' (Hollander, 1993) - Appendix A. The additional concrete poems used in the student post-task have not been included.

Procedures

This following sections contain a summary of the task-based structure for both teacher and student participants.

For the Teacher

Pre-task - Administer Instrument 1 and analyse the collected data.

While-task - Deliver the method for studying concrete poetry and highlight any salient points or features to the students' after the task is completed.

Post-Task – Administer Instrument 2 after the students complete their post-task, analyse the collected data and compare it to instrument 1.

For the Students

Pre-Task – Research concrete poetry for homework and complete a 5W1H (What, Where, When, Who, Why and How?) analysis to prepare for the next class. In class, they discuss and share their research before moving onto the while-task.

While-Task - Students work through the method (outlined below), following the instructions, for studying concrete poetry under the guidance and facilitation of the teacher.

Post-Task – Students prepare a group presentation where: a) the group introduces the analyses of a single concrete poem together, and b) each individual group member introduces a concrete poem they have created.

The following explanation details the while-task and post-task procedures for the students and teacher following on from the pre-task discussion and comparison of the participants' research into concrete poetry.

Student While-Task Procedure (Method)

1. Hand out the 'Kitty' poem (Appendix A) to the students in small groups.

Guide the students to:

4. Guess what they think the poem will be about.
5. Decide how to best read the poem – left, right, up, down, etc.
6. Look for punctuation or grammar mistakes/ differences.
7. Find rhyming words.
8. Read the poem as a group and underline all the words they *know.*

7. Once again discuss what they think the poem is about.
8. Check any unfamiliar words in the dictionary and read again. Has the meaning changed?
9. Explain the poem to another group. Do they agree on the meaning? Why or why not?

Student Post-Task Procedure

1. Give the students a different concrete poem to study in small groups.
2. Have them follow the method above to analyse the poem together (Create a handout).
3. Ask them to create a presentation to introduce their group analyses of the poem.
4. Ask them to each create their own concrete poem and present it to the class.

Commentary on the method

The method was designed as a 'reader-response' and avoids focusing on specific poetry stylistics. The justification for the lighter approach is that it is presented as a method for introducing poetry to L2 learners. Personal meaning is the driving force and there is a focus on how to read the poem rather than what to read. There is also a strong emphasis on getting the students to focus on what they *know* rather than what they do *not know*.

Data Analysis and Discussion

In response to RQ1, all participants, with an average of 8.9 years of English study, had zero experience of studying or using poetry. This was astonishing and led the researcher to initially postulate that there may be resistance to studying poetry, and a perception that the class could be too difficult, a commonly held preconception. However, analysis revealed that the participants evaluated both Attitude (M = 2.67, SD = .39) and Skills (M = 2.38, SD = .39) quite positively (1 = strongly agree, 3 = neither and 5 = strongly disagree). The participants fell between the 'agree' and 'neither' values, with a tendency towards the 'neither' for Attitude, and closer to 'agree' for Skills. The open question items were analysed and yielded mostly positive adjectives such as: *enjoyable, interesting, useful, important, and creative*. However, two participants were quite negative towards poetry and deemed it *too difficult, useless, and not useful in daily life*.

Regarding RQ2, analysis of instrument 2 (Appendix C) results revealed that the students' perception towards studying poetry and the linguistic skills benefit were positive for Attitude (M = 1.69, SD = .51) and Skills (M = 1.55, SD = .47) where both variables fell between 'strongly agree' and 'agree', moving away from the ambiguous 'neither' on the scale. Researcher observations during application of the method corroborated these results as the participants appeared to enjoy, and were engaged with, the entire process. It was interesting to observe the participants move from an initial point of fear and trepidation at the subject matter to pure enjoyment and growing confidence. Qualitative analysis yielded adjectives such as: *enjoyable, interesting, useful, easier, improved, fun and love.* Zero negative vocabulary was found, and this suggested that the two participants who thought poetry to be previously *useless* converted their opinions post-method. No specific comments could be clearly identified due to anonymity.

All participants evaluated the Method (M = 1.69, SD = .39) positively and described the methodology as: easy to follow, step by step, increasing their understanding and critical thinking, and that they would recommend it to others. Total feedback indicated that no amendments to the methodology were recommended.

In addressing RQ3, The process for the small group of participants was seamless and this was based on the feedback, instrument results and researcher observations. Additionally, the participants indicated that they not only '*enjoyed creating the poetry*' but they '*really enjoyed listening to each other's poetry*' and *'seeing the creativity of other individuals'*. They were '*inspired*' and also '*sad*' as some indicated that this would be the only time that they would take part in a class like this and would probably never study poetry again.

Finally, looking at RQ4, from the researcher's perspective it was extremely successful. Participant feedback aside, the process of choosing a literary genre unknown to the researcher and designing a method to introduce that into the classroom was deeply rewarding and challenging. It was an inspiring process echoing participants' comments.

Teacher Recommendations

The wording of the student and teacher tasks was a challenge to make them brief but

understandable. They were extensively tested by peers and re-worded where needed, however it is not inconceivable that a reader might find them confusing in places to follow. As this is a TDP, and there are tasks outlined for both teacher and students, a misunderstanding or overlap could occur. Therefore, it would be advisable to focus on either the student or teacher part only and understand clearly what must be done before moving onto reading the next task stage. Teachers that are new to TBLT or those who use it infrequently may find it useful to understand or refresh how TBLT is structured before applying the method.

Limitations and Implications

Given the small sample size and the particular group studied, it is impossible to make assertions about introducing poetry on a wider scale. Going beyond mere descriptive statistics would be required, no matter how positive the outcome was for this context. However, this study was primarily a TDP and, as such, an overwhelmingly positive one for the researcher, but the outcomes of the process did reveal that this study could and should be replicated on a bigger scale. It would be prudent to select samples from different year groups and mixed-sex classes. Inferential statistics could be performed, and comparisons made for a wider population. Additionally, upon reflection the instruments could be improved upon by reviewing the item wording and additional pilot testing to increase the internal reliability for a larger scale study.

Conclusion

Poetry is booming globally but not yet in the TEFL world. This small study has taken steps towards illustrating that as a literary genre it is worthy of further exploration and inclusion in the Japanese EFL classroom. One of the main purposes for reading poetry, and as a learning objective in this study, is for enjoyment, and this word was mentioned repeatedly in the instrument feedback and in the classroom by the students. It is the first word that springs to mind when describing the TDP process from beginning to end. As researchers and educators, we should strive for enjoyment in our endeavours, classrooms, and workplaces, but it is also paramount to make sure we choose the correct wall upon which to lean our ladders.

References

Bonk, C. J., & Lee, M. M. (2017). Motivations, achievements, and challenges of self-directed informal learners in open educational environments and MOOCs. *Journal of Learning for Development, 4*(1). https://jl4d.org/index.php/ejl4d/article/view/195

Britannica. (n.d.). Chartism. In *Encyclopaedia Britannica*. https://www.britannica.com/event/Chartism-British-history

Bryman, A., & Cramer, D. (2005). *Quantitative data analysis with SPSS 12 and 13.* Routledge.

Ferguson, D. (2019, January 21). Poetry sales soar as political millenials search for clarity. *The Guardian*. https://www.theguardian.com/books/2019/jan/21/poetry-sales-soar-as-political-millennials-search-for-clarity

Hall, G. (2005). *Literature in language education*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Hollander, J. (1993). *Selected poetry*. Alfred A. Knopf.

Ieyengar, S. (2018, June 7). *Taking note: Poetry reading is up - federal survey results.* National Endowment for the Arts. https://www.arts.gov/stories/blog/2018/taking-note-poetry-reading-federal-survey-results

Kodama, K. (2012). The role of literature in the EFL/ESL classroom revisited: Using literature in communicative language teaching. *Aichi Prefectural University Graduate School of International Culture*, 13, 31-56. https://doi.org/10.15088/00000365

Lazar, G. (2008). *Literature and language teaching* (16th ed.). Cambridge University Press.

McKay, S. (1982). Literature in the ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly, 16*(4), 529-536. https://doi.org/10.2307/3586470

Poets.org. (2004, May 6). *A brief guide to concrete poetry*. Academy of American Poets. https://poets.org/text/brief-guide-concrete-poetry

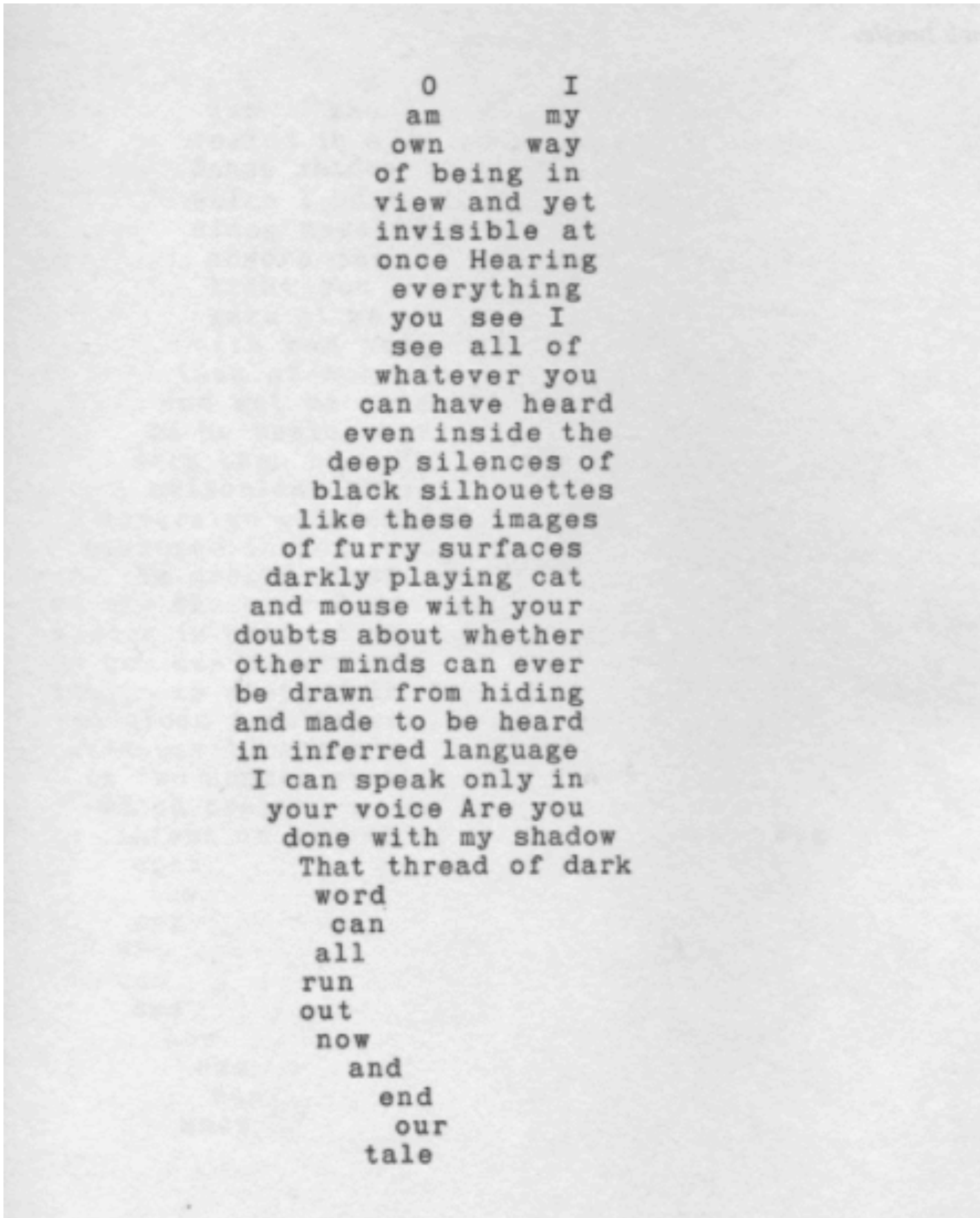
Raine, A. (1915, December 30). *The Brooklyn Daily Eagle*. Picture and Sporting Section, 4.

Willis, D., & Willis, J. (2007). *Doing task-based teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Author Bio

John Pryce is a part-time lecturer at Kyoto University where he teaches scientific English for chemical engineering, and at Kansai Gaidai University where he teaches a variety of English courses including debate, academic writing, and social science. Research interests include personal development, critical thinking, 21st century skills, and developing student autonomy. He also teaches Aikido and operates three dojos in Kyoto in his free time. pryce.j.73@gmail.com

Appendix A



O I
am my
own way
of being in
view and yet
invisible at
once Hearing
everything
you see I
see all of
whatever you
can have heard
even inside the
deep silences of
black silhouettes
like these images
of furry surfaces
darkly playing cat
and mouse with your
doubts about whether
other minds can ever
be drawn from hiding
and made to be heard
in inferred language
I can speak only in
your voice Are you
done with my shadow
That thread of dark
word
can
all
run
out
now
and
end
our
tale

Appendix B

Please read the following statements and choose the best answer for you. ***Mark a circle 'O' in each box.***

	Yes	No			
1. I have used poetry before to study English.					
	Strongly Agree	**Agree**	**Neither**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
2. I think studying poetry can be enjoyable.					
3. I think studying poetry can be interesting.					
4. I don't think studying poetry can be too difficult.					
5. I think studying poetry can be useful.					
6. I think it is important to study literary texts like poetry.					
7. I don't think studying poetry is important for creativity.					
8. I really dislike poetry.					
9. I don't think studying poetry will improve my vocabulary.					
10. I think studying poetry will improve my reading skills.					
11. I don't think studying poetry will improve my listening skills.					
12. I think studying poetry will improve my thinking skills.					
13. I think studying poetry will improve my speaking skills.					
14. I think studying poetry will improve my communication skills.					
15. I don't think studying poetry will improve my writing skills.					
16. I think studying poetry will improve my creativity.					

Comment Section - Please write a comment explaining:
Question 5's answer:

Question 8's answer:

Other comments:

Thank you for participating in the study. if you have any questions or would like a copy of the final results/paper please do not hesitate to ask or contact: pryce.j.73@gmail.com

Appendix C

Please read the following statements and choose the best answer for you. ***Mark a circle 'O' in each box.***

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Studying concrete poetry was enjoyable.					
2. Studying concrete poetry was interesting.					
3. Studying concrete poetry useful for improving my English.					
4. Studying concrete poetry was easier than I thought it would be.					
5. Studying concrete poetry helped improve my creativity.					
6. It was fun to create my own concrete poetry.					
7. I would like to study poetry again to improve my English.					
8. It was interesting to create my own concrete poem.					
9. I think studying concrete poetry improved my vocabulary.					
10. I think studying concrete poetry improved my reading skills.					
11. I think studying concrete poetry improved my listening skills.					
12. I think studying concrete poetry improved my thinking skills.					
13. I think studying poetry will improve my discussion skills.					
14. I think studying concrete poetry improved my overall communication skills.					
15. I think studying concrete poetry improved my writing skills.					
16. I think studying concrete poetry improved my creativity.					
17. The method to study concrete poetry was easy to follow.					

18. The method to study concrete poetry helped me understand the poem better.					
19. The method to study concrete poetry helped me think more deeply about the poem.					
20. I would recommend this method to other students if they asked.					
21. I would use this method for other texts if I had the chance.					
22. The concrete poems you studied in class were interesting.					
23. I think studying concrete poetry is a good way to introduce poetry into the class.					
24. The presentation task was a good way to practice studying the method for analysing poetry.					

Please Answer the Following questions:

1. After studying concrete poetry has your opinion of studying poetry changed? Why or why not?

2. Would you change anything about the method to study concrete poetry? Why or why not?

3. How did you feel about creating your own poetry?

4. Do you have any other comments?

Thank you for participating in the study. if you have any questions or would like a copy of the final results/paper please do not hesitate to ask or contact: pryce.j.73@gmail.com

Reflections on Developing a Model for Teaching Metaphor

Denver Beirne
Kanda University of International Studies

In this reflection paper, I describe how and why I have developed a model for teaching metaphor in my own context. The process of developing the model has been an iterative one with continual refinement over the cycles of teaching the material. Hopefully, this iterative process can be instructive for teachers in other contexts and help to illustrate how teaching ideas can be transformed from theory into practice.

Introduction

When I began work at my current university, I was asked to teach four *koma* per week courses to groups of 15-25 freshmen, using a process-based syllabus. The important thing about this process-based syllabus was that students got ample practice with each process/task, such as discussions, problem-solving and communication strategies. In our university, this was implemented by teaching three topic units per semester, with each having materials designed to cover the six designated processes of the syllabus.

There was a lot of freedom to adapt existing materials and even create new ones, but this meant that I needed to assemble two semesters' worth of materials. This seemed like a daunting prospect at first, but luckily, I had experience in developing materials and working without textbooks. As such, once I had digested the undertaking, it became a challenge to relish. It would offer the chance to develop materials that drew on all the experience I had gained as an ALT, *Senmon Gakko* instructor and university lecturer.

Initially, I needed to decide on the themes and so my first question was this: what would be interesting for 18–19-year-olds? I usually had positive results when using music-based topics in activities and it was something I enjoyed using in the classroom. Thus, it made sense to use this as one of the unit topics. Once this was decided, I wanted to stretch the students beyond just giving descriptions of their favourite artists or genres. In my experience, the students who pursued an interest or hobby in English outside of the classroom tended to be among the most proficient in any cohort. I therefore wanted to use activities that would be instructive and enjoyable in the classroom but which might also stimulate or facilitate interest outside the classroom. As such, I decided that song analysis should form a part of the unit, but in a form that would allow students to work with their own choices. I hoped this would encourage an interest in understanding the language of their favourite songs that could stretch beyond the classroom.

Theoretical Foundations

When considering what would be needed for students to grasp the meanings of songs, I realised that as well as linguistic devices, such as rhyme, repetition and alliteration, there was one more component of song language that students needed to understand. If they were to go beyond formulaic interpretations of predetermined lines, they would need to be able to interpret metaphors. I then realised I could draw on an aspect of my studies that I had particularly enjoyed. Previously, I took a module on psycholinguistics while studying for a master's degree, and I became very interested in Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). This theory postulates that metaphors are not just particular turns of phrase, but expressions of the fundamental way humans store and process non-literal information. According to the theory, the storage of this type of information is systemic and so when expressed in metaphor, there are observable, patterned categories to these utterances. The categories are called *conceptual metaphors*.

Each conceptual metaphor is formalised as X IS Y for instance, UP IS GOOD. These overarching metaphors form containers into which the metaphors observable in daily communications, known as *linguistic metaphors*, are grouped. The following are some examples adapted from Lakoff and Johnson (1980, p. 15):

UP IS GOOD

- I am floating on air
- I was on a high
- I am on cloud 9

DOWN IS BAD

- She was so down
- My heart sank
- The stocks went through the floor

The theory also indicates that these metaphors are far more pervasive in everyday language than many people realise. Indeed, according to Steen et al. (2008), metaphor accounts for 7.7% of general conversation, 11.7% of fiction and 18.5% of academic texts. This figure could sound unfeasibly high but consider how unthinkingly people tend to use words and phrases such as the following: *goal, target, aim, connection* (between us), *feeling down/ low, rising in the ranks, tackle an issue, out of our depth, conflict/fight* (as argument or dispute). 'Just something we say', one might conclude. However, if these examples are carefully examined, the metaphoric quality emerges. Take a sentence such as '*There is a great connection between everyone in the class.*' There is no *literal* connection; it is a perceived, figurative expression of an emotional understanding. Some might object that this is just another meaning of the word '*connection*', but this merely confirms the broader point: this is one common way in which words obtain their many related meanings and nuances of context.

I was lucky enough to study under Jeanette Littlemore, who is not only one of the leading metaphor scholars but also someone who really believes in the importance of metaphor in the language learning classroom. As a point of reference, Chapters 5 and 6 of *Applying Cognitive Linguistics to Second Language Learning and Teaching* (Littlemore, 2009) provide an excellent initiation into the importance of metaphor, and the closely related concept of metonymy, for the classroom.

Another aspect to the use of metaphoric language that is pertinent to the classroom is the confusion it can cause for students. According to a study by Littlemore et al. (2011), 42% of language learners' comprehension problems in lectures resulted from metaphoric language. Similar findings have been replicated multiple times (Littlemore, 2001; Littlemore et al., 2006; Low et al., 2008). Indeed, in my own metaphor study, even L2 students of applied linguistics had more difficulty understanding complex metaphors than their anglophone classmates, even though they understood all the component words in the phrases (Beirne, 2017, pp. 7-8).

Thus, persuaded of the importance of metaphor for the classroom, and for this music unit specifically, I searched for examples of systematic implementations of this kind of metaphoric view of vocabulary learning, but this yielded no satisfactory results. I then decided to develop my own approach based on my studies and experiences in the classroom.

Developing the Materials

Initially, I decided to try and keep the unit relatively simple, both in terms of the volume of materials and concepts. Therefore, this first version of the lessons was limited to an explanation with examples, practice activities, and an assessment to demonstrate understanding.

As the literature highlighted the struggles learners had with metaphors, even when the vocabulary was familiar, it was logical to assume that the confusion lay in how these phrases are formulated. Therefore, to help students understand these mystifying expressions, I believed it was necessary to raise learners' awareness of how metaphors work. Thus, to begin, students were given a written definition of metaphor, as shown in Figure 1.

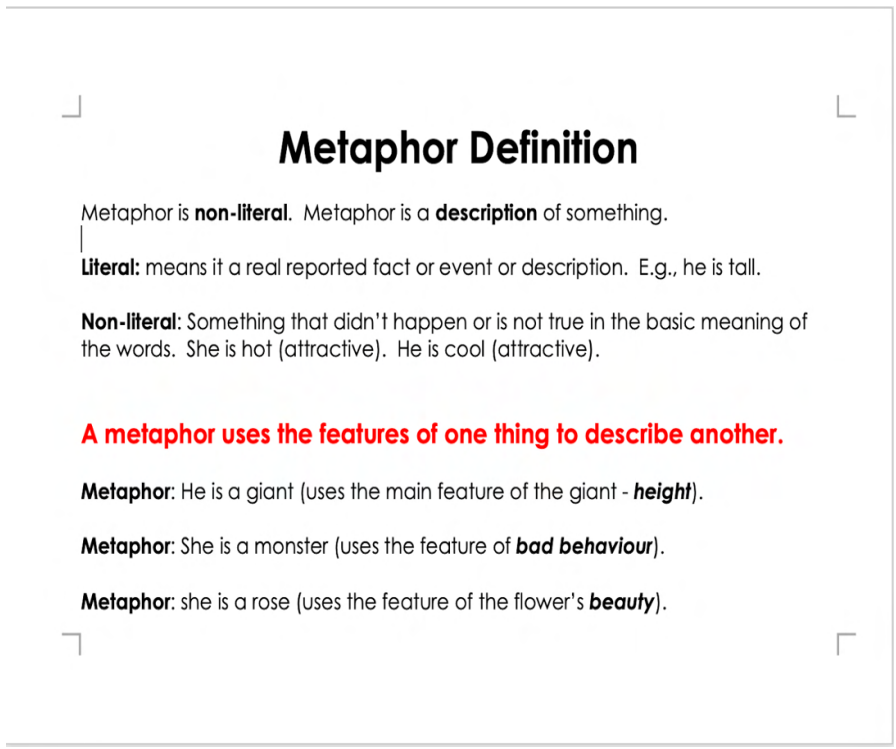


Figure 1. Metaphor Definition

Next, there was a group activity where each team chose four metaphors cards (Figure 2) from a hat, and were asked to decipher the meanings within 15 minutes.

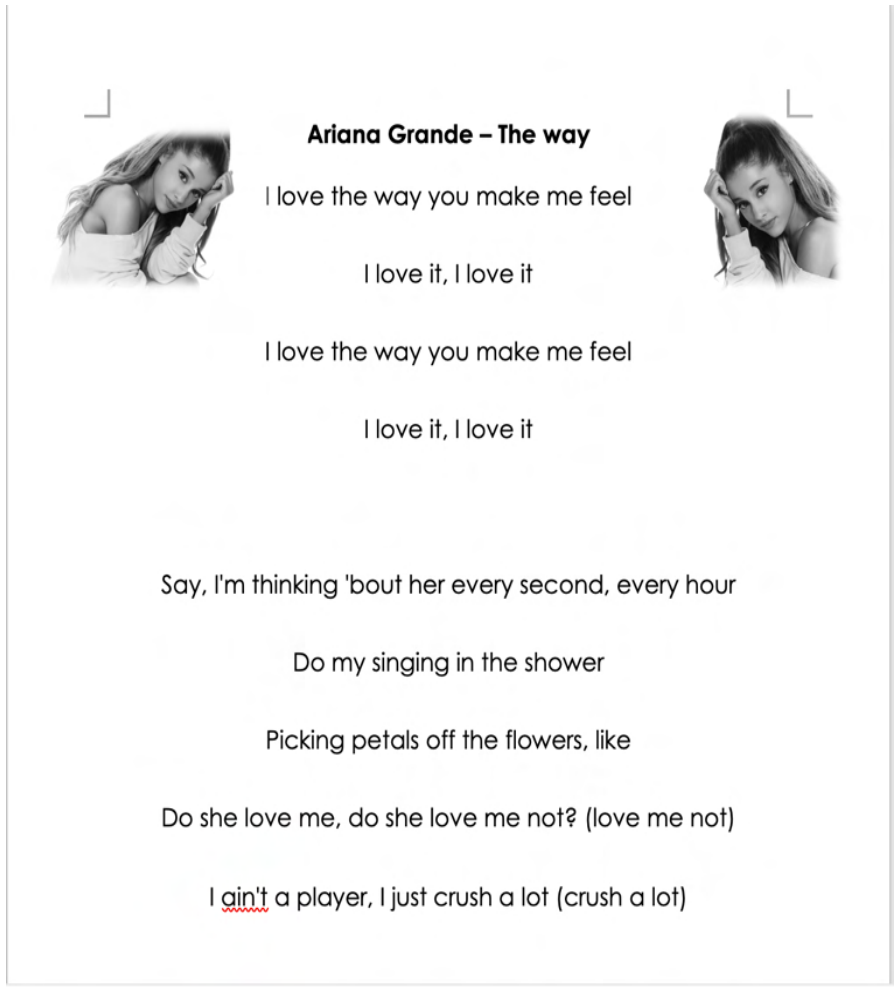
The school was a zoo	America is a melting pot	Her voice was music to his ears	Life is a roller coaster
Their home was a prison	He is a peacock	Time is money	My teacher is a dragon
The world is a stage	My kid's room is a disaster area	His words were sugar candy	He is a dinosaur
Her eyes were fireflies	I am so blue today	His mood turned black	Barcelona destroyed Real Madrid

Figure 2. Example Metaphor Cards

The groups completed the activity by taking turns to explain the meanings of their metaphors using the classroom whiteboard. The aim was not for a complete comprehension of all the metaphors but for students to gain structured exposure and practice applying the metaphor definition they had just learned.

Next, students were asked to work in groups of four to interpret the metaphors (along with other linguistic elements, such as rhyme) in a pre-selected song. Once again, it was not expected that any single group would have a complete understanding. The plan was to review each group's insights on the whiteboard and build a more complete picture of the overall meaning gradually. As the teams were all working on the same song it would be possible for students to see the different layers of meaning accessible to peers of equivalent ability. I believed that this approach would be more rewarding and motivating.

The groups were given a lyric sheet (Figure 3), worksheet (Figure 4), the opportunity to listen to the song on YouTube (https:// www.youtube.com) and a link to *Urban Dictionary* (https://www.urbandictionary.com/) to help them understand slang/non-standard terms.



Ariana Grande – The way

I love the way you make me feel

I love it, I love it

I love the way you make me feel

I love it, I love it

Say, I'm thinking 'bout her every second, every hour

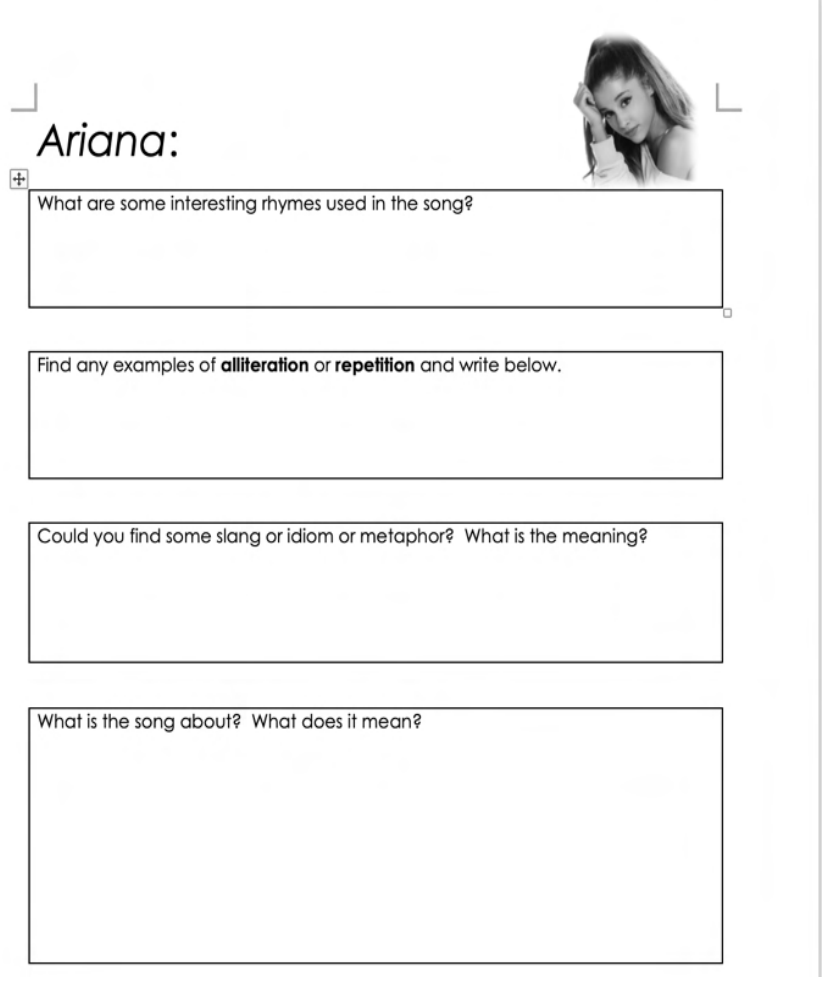
Do my singing in the shower

Picking petals off the flowers, like

Do she love me, do she love me not? (love me not)

I ain't a player, I just crush a lot (crush a lot)

Figure 3. Lyric Sheet for the Pre-Selected Song



Ariana:

What are some interesting rhymes used in the song?

Find any examples of **alliteration** or **repetition** and write below.

Could you find some slang or idiom or metaphor? What is the meaning?

What is the song about? What does it mean?

Figure 4. Worksheet to Analyse the Pre-Selected Song

Next, in groups of four, students were asked to freely choose a song to analyse, using the worksheet shown in Figure 5. The idea was to stretch students by giving them a less structured analysis phase while increasing motivation by allowing student choice. I felt it was necessary to do this with the support of a group in the first instance, as this could be a challenging activity. However, ultimately, it was necessary to determine whether students had individually acquired the skills necessary to decode metaphors and songs for themselves. Therefore, the students repeated this activity individually and presented their songs to the class. This final presentation was assessed.

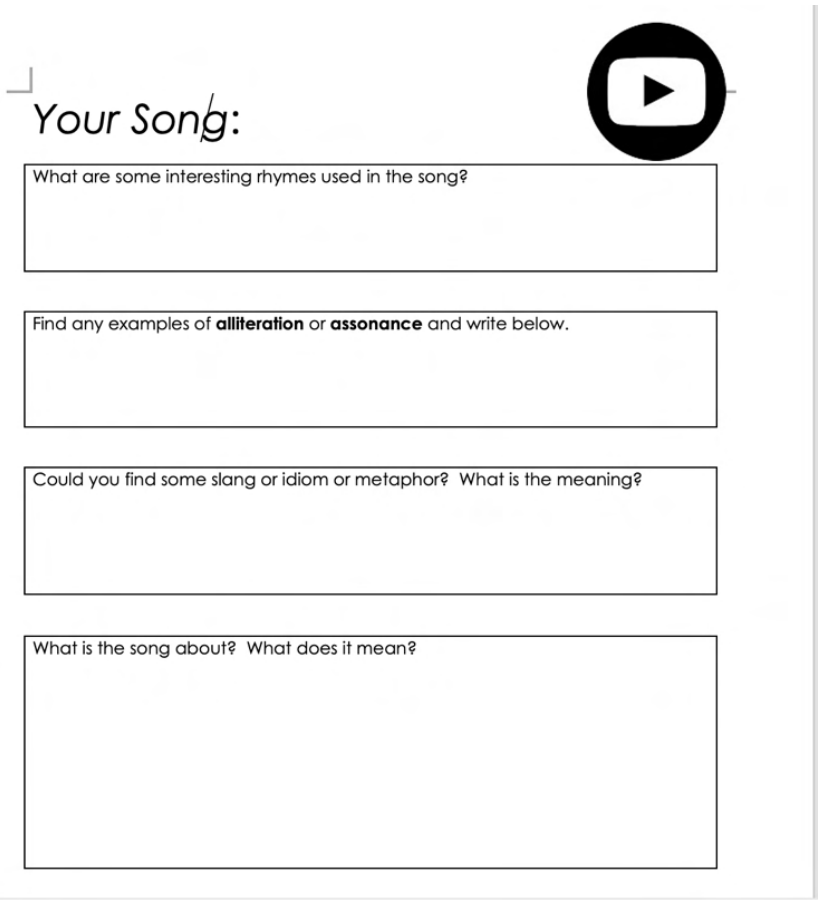


Figure 5. Worksheet to Analyse Student-Selected Songs

The whole song analysis and metaphor section of the music unit took about five *koma*. It seemed relatively successful overall and most of the students produced interesting and insightful presentations that went beyond what they had produced up until that point on the course. However, I felt there was room for improvement; student feedback told me that they found the process rewarding but it was still sometimes difficult to identify metaphors and then consistently interpret their meanings. Indeed, most of the *koma* allotted for individual analysis of students' songs was spent assisting learners with understanding their songs' metaphors and general meanings. I worried about whether these lessons were worthwhile overall, and if they were, how I could clarify the resources to improve students' learning experiences.

Refining the Materials

I decided to persevere, as I had learned in my previous experience that teaching materials were seldom perfect when first conceived; therefore, this would need to be an iterative process of continual improvement. Thus, during the first update, I resolved to streamline the activities to make them more straightforward. I did add a new warm-up activity, though, to contextualise and introduce the concept. In the activity, students were presented with pairs of sentences of equivalent meaning. One sentence was written as a metaphor and the other as a literal statement. Students were then asked which they preferred and why? Some examples are shown in Figure 6.

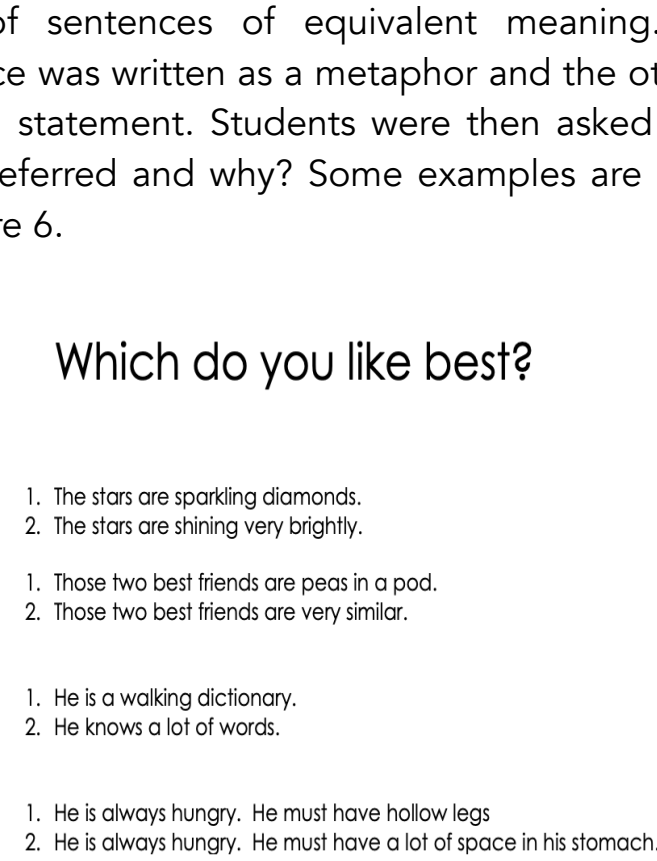


Figure 6. Literal and Metaphoric Sentence Pairs

After completing this activity several times now, the results have been quite consistent: almost unanimously, the students prefer the metaphoric versions of the sentences. Many students comment that the metaphors conjure images in their minds, making them richer and more interesting. The one exception to this rule is in the fourth pair of sentences. While the metaphor is still generally preferred, some students opt for the literal version, saying that the metaphoric sentence and its use of 'hollow legs' is too difficult to follow. This activity has facilitated some valuable insights: firstly, students are naturally drawn to metaphoric language; and secondly, more complex, or unusual metaphors can

As for the rest of the materials, the song worksheets were simplified to focus on the metaphor process, while poetic language elements such as assonance and alliteration were removed. I also steered students away from complex songs with deep and layered metaphoric meaning when they chose songs to analyse.

Another aspect that I believed could help improve learning was to exploit more of the available technology, so accordingly, all the worksheets were remade as *Google Docs*, rather than using *MS Word*, and were distributed via *Google Classroom*. *Google Docs* are good for collaborative working and enable a class to all work on the same document at the same time and see each other's answers in real-time. These changes made all the materials smoother to distribute, work on and review; moreover, the students were better able to access and reflect on the activities and materials. be jarring. This first insight certainly gave me the confidence to continue refining these materials. The second chimed with the research findings: complex metaphors can frustrate learners if they have not had time to develop their interpretive skills in English. Therefore, complex metaphors should probably be avoided in this foundational phase.

These changes improved the flow of lessons and eased the confusion some students felt when analysing metaphors; however, some needed support to understand their songs. I felt that students still needed a better understanding of the mechanics of metaphors to be more able to interpret the meanings by themselves. Therefore, I decided to consult the literature again to give students a simplified framework for understanding metaphors. It seemed like they needed a more structured approach with more examples and illustrations but one which still needed to emphasise simplicity and ease of understanding. Over the course of several iterations of teaching the materials, a more structured model has been developed iteratively to include the following six stages.

Stage 1: Define

More focus was needed on this section of the materials to add impact to the definitions. Therefore, more extensive but illustrative slides, with less text, were created. Some examples are shown in Figure 7.

Figure 7. Example Slides to Define and Explain Metaphor

Stage 2: Model

This is an extension of the metaphor card activity, but now groups are asked to clearly explain the salient feature that is borrowed from one item to describe the other (in the metaphor). In CMT, there are technical terms for these parts of the metaphor, but I have found that a simple example such as the one shown in Figure 8 is enough to help the students explain their metaphors clearly, without the need for technical language.

	Metaphor	**Explanation** (what feature of the subject is used to describe the object?)	**Meaning**
Eg	**The school was a zoo**	**A zoo (object) is full of wild animals. Can't be controlled. Lots of noise and no rules.**	**The school (subject) is noisey and full of wildness, like a zoo.**
1	America is a melting pot		
2	Her voice was music to his ears		
3	Life is a roller coaster		
4	Their home was a prison		

Figure 8. Example Explanation of a Metaphor

Stage 3: Conceptualise

Students are now shown examples of conceptual metaphors in this phase, with related linguistic metaphors like those previously discussed in the theoretical framework section of this paper, such as up is good (I'm floating on air; I was on a high; I'm on cloud 9).

Stage 4: Analyse

There is now just one structured group analysis, which uses the worksheets shown in Figure 3 and Figure 4, plus one individual (student-chosen) song analysis. The number of activities in this stage could be reduced as the clearer, more structured definitions helped students comprehend the concept more quickly. In both these activities, like in stage 2, there is now also an explicit requirement to explain the salient feature used for the description in the metaphor.

Stage 5: Create

Students are asked to output what they have learned in this stage by creating an original song in groups that must contain at least one original metaphor. These are recited to the class and the students use a Google Form to vote for their favourite.

Stage 6: Practice

This final stage consists of ongoing practice. Over the course of this learning process, students have built up a range of practices that can become a toolkit to understand metaphors and songs in increased detail. Thus, they should be able to use popular songs as a virtually limitless self-study resource. Moreover, it is also possible that these tools could help learners make more sense of the often confusing, metaphorical mutterings of English speakers more generally.

Conclusion

This can be quite a challenging activity for first-year students, but this difficulty has been mitigated by giving students clear examples, structured activities and supported practice. When these materials were first implemented, the resources were not as thoroughly developed, so students struggled with some tasks. In response, I refined the slides and worksheets after each use, aiming to find the right balance between simplicity and detail. The use of visual images has helped enormously cement the concept in students' minds, as have the worked examples provided in the worksheets.

Technology has also been immensely valuable for managing the process of developing and conducting the lessons. The collaborative nature of *Google Classroom*, *Docs* and *Forms* has been effective in creating, sharing and reviewing materials. Moreover, these tools have also allowed the resources to be used in a remote/online setting and face-to-face situations. However, in essence, the materials consist of slides and worksheets; even the voting forms could be replicated with a show of hands or a ballot. Thus, while technology is useful, a lack of it should not be an obstacle.

This approach has been iteratively developed to become a process that genuinely seems to open students' eyes to the layers of meaning in metaphors and songs as well as English communication more generally. My experience has been that it is then possible to see the influence of this increased understanding in students' writing, speaking and questioning. However, this claim ultimately needs to be tested empirically, and that is the next step for the model laid out in this paper. I hope that by sharing these experiences here, I have put forward a persuasive argument for the importance of teaching metaphor and that some of the approaches outlined will encourage others to incorporate some of this learning into their classes. Furthermore, on a more general note, it is my wish that this iterative approach of continual improvement has demonstrated one accessible way in which individual educators can move from linguistic theory to classroom practice.

References

Beirne, D. (2017). Metaphors of Madmen. *University of Birmingham English Language Research Journal* (2), 1–36.

Lakoff, G & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors we live by*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press

Littlemore, J. (2001). Metaphoric competence: A language learning strength of students with a holistic cognitive style? *TESOL Quarterly, 35*(3), 459–491.

Littlemore, J., & Low, G. (2006). Metaphoric competence, second language learning and communicative language ability. *Applied Linguistics, 27*(2), 268–294.

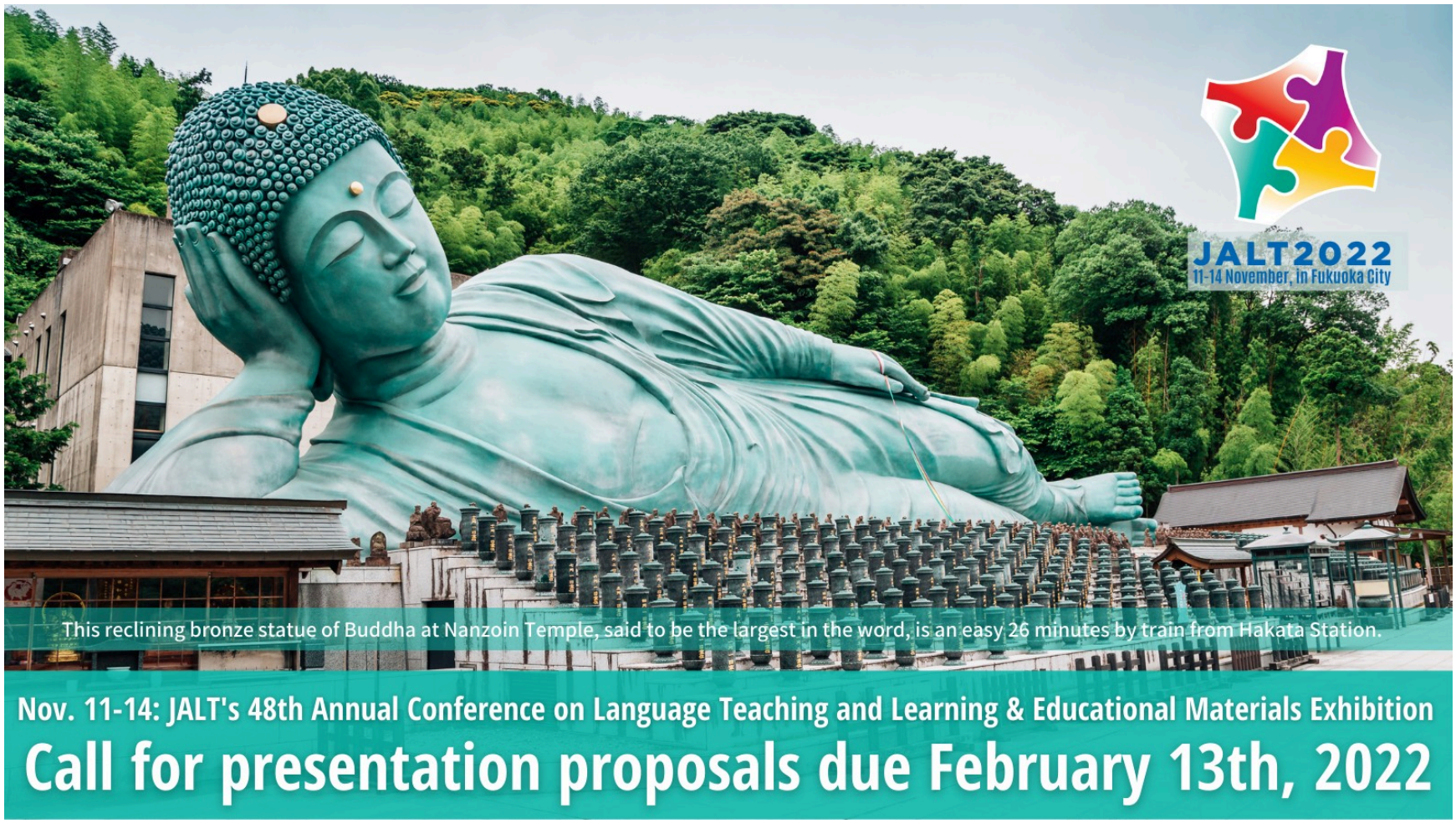
Littlemore, J., Chen, P. T., Koester, A. & Barden, J. (2011). Difficulties in metaphor comprehension faced by international students whose first language is not English. *Applied Linguistics, 32*(4), 1–23.

Low, G., Littlemore, J., & Koester, A. (2008). Metaphoric competence, second language learning and communicative language ability. *Applied Linguistics, 29*(3), 428–455.

Steen, G., Dorst, A. G., Herrmann, J.B, Kaal, A. A., Krennmayr, T. & Pasma, T. (Eds.). (2010). *A method for linguistic metaphor identification: From MIP to MIPVU*. John Benjamins.

Author Bio

Denver Beirne is a senior lecturer at Kanda University of International Studies. His research interests include metaphor, materials development, dialect and corpus linguistics.
beirne-d@kanda.kuis.ac.jp



A Mini-Unit for Teaching Introductions with Formulaic Sequences in Academic Writing

Kyle Hoover
Kanto Gakuin University

Student difficulties with writing introductions for research papers often stem from a lack of knowledge about their rhetorical functions, which are generally put into practice through the use of formulaic sequences (FSs). Research has shown that usage of FSs is crucial for effective academic writing (Hyland, 2008; Cortes, 2013), and they should be given explicit instruction in writing classes. This article provides a mini-unit that teaches students how to write effective introductory sections using FSs commonly found in academic writing to perform rhetorical moves. The mini-unit consists of prediction and noticing exercises, a pre-writing exercise, and a peer feedback exercise, which can be easily incorporated into an existing writing assignment. Through the repeated exposure, noticing, usage, and reflection provided by these exercises, students are expected to retain knowledge and effective usage of FSs in their writing. In addition to teaching students metatextual knowledge of FSs, the mini-unit teaches metacognitive skills for identifying, understanding, and using these rhetorical moves effectively in students' own writing. The design of the mini-unit acknowledges the different needs for teaching discipline- and genre-specific rhetorical moves, and is therefore easily adaptable to different language proficiencies, writing proficiencies, and fields.

Introduction

Students often struggle with writing research article introductions. Often the problem stems from students simply not understanding the rhetorical purpose of introductory sections: they allow the writer to organize and frame expectations for a reader before he or she reads the rest of the essay. Students in writing classes often learn to write highly formulaic introductions: begin with a "hook" to catch your readers' attention, state the thesis, and then summarize what each of your paragraphs will be about. Many English learners are taught the basic five-paragraph essay format when preparing for English proficiency testing, as these tests explicitly call for such organization. While this might be an acceptable place to start for intermediate English learners just beginning to write longer essays, the demands of academic English and academic writing necessitate a more nuanced control of rhetorical organization and purpose.

The following paper details a mini-unit for students in an English academic writing class with the purpose of teaching how to write introductory sections in academic writing. Special attention is paid to the rhetorical functions of formulaic sequences (FSs) commonly used in introductions in academic writing, also referred to as lexical bundles or sentence frames. Specifically, the mini-unit teaches the metacognitive (skills and strategies) and metatextual (genres and discourses) knowledge necessary to read and write effective introductions. It can easily be modified for different language or writing proficiency levels, different essay sections, or different subject-specific genres. The mini-unit is built on the assumption that in order to effectively teach discourse-specific reading and writing strategies, attention needs to be paid to discourse-specific language in the form of FSs. The paper begins with an overview of FSs and the rhetorical functions of introductory sections, which is then followed by the mini-unit lesson plans.

Formulaic Sequences, Rhetorical Moves, and Introductory Sections

Formulaic sequences are defined as groups of words that appear frequently in a particular order in a corpus of written work. In other work on FSs, they have been referred to by various terms, such as "templates" or "sentence frames." For the purposes of this paper, these terms are used more or less interchangeably, as they all point to the regular usage of certain phrases to perform rhetorical moves and discursive functions. Biber and Barbieri (2007), writing about a specific subset of FSs called lexical bundles, refer to them as "building blocks in discourse" that are "neither idiomatic nor structurally complete" (p. 270). As a building block, they are used as "interpretive frames" for the information in a

sentence; they signal to the reader how the information is to be read. They enable readers familiar with them to predict how information is organized and process it more easily. Therefore, students who lack this knowledge will find course readings more difficult. Student success with reading complex genres, such as academic research articles, is often related to their knowledge of genre and discourse, which includes knowledge of relevant FSs (Dhieb-Henia, 2003). Without discourse-specific FS knowledge, students are less apt at both reading and writing. In terms of teaching FSs, results may not be immediate. In order for FS instruction to be effective, students need exposure to them in the context of course material, and even then the immediate outcome may be an increased awareness while reading, rather than increased and more accurate usage during writing (Cortes, 2006). Because FSs may be challenging to learn, it may be more effective to teach reading and writing strategies that will help students 1) identify those FSs specific to their field, and 2) use them effectively in their own writing.

Researchers have categorized formulaic sequences commonly found in academic writing based on their rhetorical function. For example, Hyland (2008) describes three categories: research-oriented bundles which structure activities and experiences (*the performance of*), text-oriented bundles which organize the text and its meaning (*in terms of*), and participant-oriented bundles which focus on the writer or reader (*it should be noted that*). In their Academic Formulas List, Simpson-Vlach and Ellis (2010) categorized FSs into referential expressions (*as can be seen in*), stance expressions (*it is important to*), and discourse organizing functions (*in the present study*). Shahriari (2017) further categorized academic FSs into common-core bundles, which are typical of academic writing in general, and section-specific bundles, which tend to be more common only in certain parts of research articles, such as the introduction. Cortes (2013) identified the major moves writers of research articles make in their introductions and connected them to representative FSs: 1) establishing a territory (*the importance of*), 2) establishing a niche (*little is known about*), and 3) presenting the present work (*the aim of this paper is to*).

Because there is a clear connection between FSs and corresponding rhetorical moves (Cortes, 2013; Shahriari, 2017), teaching FSs in the classroom is a worthwhile endeavor to help students perform the rhetorical moves necessary to improve their writing. Several studies have measured the efficacy of using FSs in the writing classroom. Thomson (2016) found that explicit instruction in FSs resulted in some increase in their use in the short term, but not in the long term due to the fact that the study's intervention was over a short period of time. On the other hand, Liou and Chen (2018) found in their longer study that explicit instruction had a more significant, longer-lasting effect on the learning of FSs. Therefore, explicit instruction continued over a period of time may be necessary for learning FSs and the rhetorical moves they perform.

Mini-Unit: Teaching Formulaic Sequences and Rhetorical Moves for Introductions

The following mini-unit is designed for a high-intermediate to advanced English general academic writing class, but it can be modified for other proficiency levels and subjects. The mini-unit serves two purposes: First, and most immediately, the unit teaches students how formulaic sequences function in an introductory section to orient the reader and frame the topic. Second, it reinforces the skills of 1) noticing patterns in reading and 2) making generalizations about language used by experienced writers. In other words, in addition to the *metatextual* knowledge of discourse, genre, and appropriate language, students also learn *metacognitive* strategies, or self-regulated learning skills that they will need to continue their learning beyond the classroom. The mini-unit should ideally be taught in the context of a larger writing project for which students are learning to write their introductions. Because of the mini-unit's length, it should be spread out over several class periods. It is organized into several parts: 1) a short lesson on the introductory section as a rhetorical feature and examples of FSs commonly used in introductions in academic writing; 2) two activities where students notice FSs and their corresponding moves in a class reading and sample student writing; 3) a short pre-writing activity where students practice using FSs in their own introductions; and 4) a peer-feedback activity.

Short Lesson: Introducing Formulaic Sequences and Rhetorical Moves

Many students view introductions as a set, rigid

feature of an essay. However, the mini-unit begins by introducing students to the concept that essay introductions serve a rhetorical function: they are an important tool for the writer to communicate her or his ideas to the reader. The teacher can give a short lecture on the concept of FSs, which may be referred to as "sentence formats" or "templates" to students. Students should learn that sequences commonly used in introductory sections are markers of experienced writers, and they point to specific rhetorical moves that experienced writers make in their writing (Cortes, 2013). Students should know that by becoming familiar with common formulaic sequences, they will improve their writing and reading ability. At this point in the lesson, students should be given a reference list of common sequences and their corresponding function used in introductions, along with examples and possibly translations into corresponding phrases in the students' native language. This list could be used for further practice, such as gap-fill exercises.

There are several factors to consider when creating the list of target FSs for this mini-unit. As conventions of introductory sections vary from field to field and genre to genre, teachers need to decide what rhetorical functions are most appropriate for their class. For example, writing an effective introduction in a scientific research article may require a different rhetorical move set than in a literary critique. Teachers must also consider the language proficiency level of their students, as well as the specificity of the subject. For example, is the class a general academic writing class for intermediate students, or a research article writing class for advanced medical students? The rhetorical move set needed for the context of the class determines the specific sequences that should be taught to students. As Shahriari (2017) suggests, common cross-discipline sequences should be taught to lower-proficiency students who are not as familiar with academic writing, while discipline-specific sequences are needed for advanced learners writing in specific fields.

There are many resources from which teachers can select appropriate formulaic sequences for their class. The Academic Formulas List, compiled by Simpson-Vlach and Ellis (2010), can be easily accessed at the EAP Foundation's website (https://www.eapfoundation.com/vocab/academic/afl/). A list of core sequences drawn from written and spoken registers and a list of only sequences from written registers are provided. For example, the three most frequent formulas in the core list are *in terms of*, *at the same time*, and *from the point of view*. Because these are cross-genre, general academic English sequences, they are appropriate for general academic writing classes. Another useful resource is the University of Manchester's Academic Phrasebank (https://www.phrasebank.manchester.ac.uk/), which provides sentence structures organized by rhetorical function, rather than FSs organized by frequency. Especially useful for this mini-unit is the "Introducing Work" section, which gives sentence templates for functions such as establishing importance. For example, "X is fundamental to…" or "X plays a crucial role in…" Teachers can use resources like these to compile their own lists of formulaic sequences which are best suited for their students.

One more resource worth mentioning is Graff and Birkenstein's influential writing handbook, *They Say/I Say*. The book, used widely in L1 university first-year writing settings, provides a series of writing templates which are organized based on rhetorical moves used to engage in academic conversations. It aims to teach students how to use moves for argumentative writing in particular, which are "so common that they can be represented in *templates* that you can use right away to structure and even generate your own writing" (Graff & Birkenstein, 2014). The book includes chapters on representing the ideas of others through summarizing and quoting, as well as presenting the writer's own ideas by responding to others. Although Graff and Birkenstein are clearly referring to formulaic sequences in their use of the term "template," the primary goal of the book is to explain the rhetorical moves signified by the templates. In fact, in his corpus analysis of the templates provided by the book, Lancaster (2016) found that *They Say/I Say* does not include the most frequent wordings actually used by writers. Although *They Say/I Say* is evidently not as accurate a resource for frequently-used formulaic sequences as the previously mentioned lists, it remains a useful resource for accessible explanations of rhetorical moves in academic writing. These explanations could be supplemented with templates found in the Academic Formulas List or the Academic Phrasebank.

Class Reading: Noticing Formulaic Sequences and Rhetorical Moves

The second part of this mini-unit involves teaching students to notice how writers actually use these moves in their writing. The teacher should select a class reading containing the targeted FSs based on the needs of the course. For a lower-level class, a short text created specifically for the lesson would be appropriate. For an advanced class, authentic texts such as published research articles are appropriate. In order to lay the groundwork for students' understanding of the reading, teachers can ask students to make predictions. When making predictions, students read only the introductory section of the reading. Then, they make predictions regarding what the rest of the essay will be about, underlining or highlighting what led them to those predictions and thinking about their own knowledge of the topic. This could be a short discussion in pairs or as a class.

Next, the teacher should have students focus on the specific language used in the introduction of the reading. Students look for the FSs introduced in the short lesson, underlining or highlighting them, then consider their rhetorical functions. A simple way to prompt students to think about rhetorical moves is to ask, "What is this phrase/sentence doing?" This helps clarify to students that the FS performs a function in the text that can help them grasp the writer's meaning more clearly. After students identify and analyze the function of the target FSs in the introduction, they should read the rest of the reading, checking for how accurate their predictions were. This activity encourages students to think about how the introductory section, with the help of FSs, sets up the rest of the essay, shapes reader expectations, and frames how the text is read.

Student Writing: Comparing Successful and Weaker Writing Samples

Beyond examining how experienced writers write their introductions, it is also useful for students to compare successful student writing with weaker student writing. Students can do the same predicting-checking activity on sample student essays. Students read only the introduction of the successful sample, underline important sentences or phrases, and make predictions. Then they read the rest of the paper, checking if their predictions were correct. Students discuss if the paper follows up on the set up of the introduction. If it does, they should consider how it set up the body of the essay using formulaic sequences. If not, they should consider what the writer could have done to improve it. Students repeat the same procedure with the weaker sample—predicting from the introduction and then checking with the rest of the essay. At the end, students can discuss these questions:

- What were the differences between the two papers?
- Which paper was stronger? Which sentence frames (FSs) did the writer of the stronger sample use?
- Which sentence frames (FSs) could the writer of the weaker sample have used to make their introduction more effective?

This short predicting-checking activity is an important step in developing metacognitive awareness of strategies and metatextual awareness of genre (Wong & Storey, 2006). By evaluating stronger and weaker writing, students have a clearer idea of how to effectively use FSs in their own papers.

Pre-Writing Activity: Accessing Metatextual Knowledge

Before students begin writing their introductions—they may have a draft partially written already—a pre-writing activity can be an effective method of activating background knowledge in preparation. In Anderson's ACTIVE framework for teaching reading, activating background knowledge is a key step to prepare students for a challenging text (2009). It also applies to a challenging writing situation because it prepares students' metatextual knowledge before they write. Students are asked to answer these questions:

- What will my reader need to know before they read the body of my essay?
- What introductory moves will be most useful to me in my introduction?
- What phrases or sentence frames (FSs) can I use to make those moves?

This short writing task not only has students plan out their introductions, but it also asks them to access their knowledge about introductions in general.

According to Wong and Storey (2006), metacognitive awareness about writing increased when students were asked to predict and reflect, because it focused students' thinking before and solidified what they had learned prior to writing. Accessing metatextual knowledge about introductions and formulaic sequences in this task helps solidify students' generalized knowledge about writing introductions due to the fact that it is accessed within the context of each student's own specific writing situation. Students will be more aware of useful rhetorical moves while they are writing their introductions.

Peer Feedback Activity: Reflecting on Use of Formulaic Sequences and Rhetorical Moves

After students have written their essay draft, including an introduction, they can use the predicting-checking strategies they have learned previously to give each other peer feedback on their papers, with special focus on their introductions. Students would follow basically the same procedure as before: read only the introduction of the draft, underline important sentences or phrases, make predictions, and then read the rest of the draft and check whether the predictions were correct or not. When reading the body of the draft, students should mark areas that were set up by the introduction, or otherwise areas that the introduction did not set up. Students can provide short written feedback at the end of the draft by answering these questions:

- How effectively does the introduction set up the rest of the essay?
- How well did the writer use introductory moves?
- Which phrases or sentence frames did the writer use to make those moves?

This peer-feedback activity provides the writer with several pieces of information. It gives them a short piece of summative feedback from which they can see how well their introduction was received by their peer. In addition, it provides a text marked up with areas that the reader felt were effective or lacking. Writers can then decide whether or not they need to include certain information in their introduction.

In addition to the immediate benefit of peer feedback that can be used to revise their essays, students also continue to benefit by increasing metacognitive and metatextual knowledge. Wong and Storey (2006) found that "peer-editing students showed significantly greater development in the awareness and the actual use of effective writing skills than self-editing students" due to their need to access metacognitive knowledge during the feedback process (296). Peer feedback activities benefit students' metacognitive knowledge of reading and writing skills because they are a form of reflection on those skills (Anderson, 2009). Again, by applying those skills to a specific context—giving feedback to a peer's writing—students are able to further solidify their knowledge of what a good introduction does and which rhetorical moves/FSs help facilitate it.

Conclusion

The purpose of this mini-unit is to familiarize students with the notion that writers use a combination of rhetorical moves to create an effective text, and that these moves are often performed through highly formulaic language, or formulaic sequences. Through repeated exposure, noticing, usage, and reflection, students are expected to retain knowledge and effective usage of FSs in their writing. The mini-unit can easily be modified for different language or writing proficiency levels, different essay sections, or different subject-specific genres. For example, in an advanced scientific research writing class, the unit could focus on how researchers present data and express their interpretations of the data. In an intermediate level writing class, the focus could be on how to provide supporting evidence for a claim. In any case, the purpose of the mini-unit is not only to increase students' discourse and genre knowledge of introductions and the connected lexical knowledge, but also to increase students' metacognitive knowledge of the strategies necessary for their further learning. In order to become successful writers, students must develop a strong set of reading and writing strategies alongside their language and discourse skills. Therefore, the focus of writing teachers should be a cultivation of these strategies, as well as the awareness and knowledge needed to self-initiate their use. Introductions are but one aspect of writing students need to know, but the emphasis on cultivating strategies should extend to all areas of writing instruction.

References

Anderson, N. J. (2009). ACTIVE reading: The research base for a pedagogical approach in the reading classroom. In Z. Han & N. J. Anderson (Eds.), *Second Language Reading Research and Instruction* (117-143). The University of Michigan Press.

Biber, D., & Barbieri, F. (2007). Lexical bundles in university spoken and written registers. *English for Specific Purposes, 26*(3), 263-286.

Cortes, V. (2006). Teaching lexical bundles in the disciplines: An example from a writing intensive history class. *Linguistics and Education, 17*(4), 391-406.

Cortes, V. (2013). The purpose of this study is to: Connecting lexical bundles and moves in research article introductions. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 12*(1), 33-43.

Dheib-Henia, N. (2003). Evaluating the effectiveness of metacognitive strategy training for reading research articles in an ESP context. *English for Specific Purposes, 22*, 387-417.

Graff, G. & Birkenstein, C. (2014). *They Say/I Say: The moves that matter in academic writing* (3rd ed.). W. W. Norton & Co. Inc.

Hyland, K. (2008). As can be seen: Lexical bundles and disciplinary variation. *English for Specific Purposes, 27*(1), 4-21.

Lancaster, Zak. (2016). Do Academics Really Write This Way? A Corpus Investigation of Moves and Templates in "They Say/I Say". *College Composition and Communication, 67*(3), 437-464.

Liou H. & Chen W. (2018). Effects of Explicit Instruction on Learning Academic Formulaicc Sequences for EFL College Learners' Writing. *Taiwan Journal of TESOL, 15*(1), 61-100.

Shahriari, H. (2017). Comparing lexical bundles across the introduction, method and results sections of the research article. *Corpora, 12*(1), 1-22.

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

Thomson, H. E. (2016). Presenting Lexical Bundles for Explicit Noticing with Schematic Linguistic Representation. TESL-EJ, 20(2), 1-12.

Wong, H. & Storey, P. (2006). Knowing and doing in the ESL writing class. Language Awareness, 15(4), 283-300.

Author Bio

Kyle Hoover was born and raised in Fresno, California, USA. He graduated with his MA in Literature from California State University, Fresno, where he studied Japanese literature and English composition studies. He currently teaches at several universities in Japan.

My Experience with Reflective Diaries in the Classroom

Tom J. A. Batten
SEIHA NETWORK Co, LTD

Introduction

I had never been the kind of person to maintain a diary. What few attempts I did make in my earlier years started out with the best intentions and convictions, but always followed the same trajectory. Daily entries would slowly degrade into "every few days", every few days would in turn reduce to weekly, and weekly to monthly.

It wasn't just an issue of quantity either, but also quality. The earlier entries would richly describe the events of the day and my emotive responses to them. While it would be a stretch to say it made for riveting reading, there was, at least, a sense of purpose and integrity to the writing. However, in my entries I seemed progressively disinterested and flippant, clearly reflecting the growing resentment I had for the time required for the diary's upkeep. Time which, I probably felt, could have been better invested in more entertaining endeavors.

Clearly, one would not put a lot of confidence in my ability, as an English teacher, to successfully implement diary usage into my classes, nor to eventually emerge championing their utility as a tool for reflective teaching and learning. And yet, here we are.

Why Diaries?

Before examining reflective diaries and their uses, we must first have an understanding of reflective practice, which, as Cirocki and Farrell (2020) point out, is a "complex construct (p.6)". An early, general definition of reflective practice comes from Schön (1984), who describes it as an ability to reflect on one's actions so as to engage in a process of continuous learning, while Boud, Keogh and Walker (1985) claim it involves "intellectual and affective activities" which individuals engage in to achieve new "understandings and appreciation" (p. 19). Taking the concept into a classroom context, Lyons (1998) argues that teachers undertake reflective practice by asking questions about the effectiveness of their teaching in relation to the needs of their learners. From the learner's perspective, reflective practice can promote critical thinking necessary to analyse the effectiveness of their efforts, and decision-making skills to foster planning and continuing improvement (Rolheiser, Bower, & Stevahn, 2000). Lastly, Farrell (2015) includes in his definition of reflective practice the act of systematically collecting data about one's practice.

It is within the data collection aspect mentioned in Farrell's definition that reflective diaries come into play, as one of the possible tools of collecting said data. According to Bailey (1990), learner diaries present a "first-person account of a language learning or teaching experience, documented through regular, candid entries in a personal journal and then analysed for recurring patterns or salient events" (p.215). Saliency refers to how noticeable or prominent a particular topic or event is; these could be stated with apparent emotion or exclamation and would suggest significance. They also allow the researcher to understand both the observable context and also the internal context, such as the learners' attitudes and emotive responses to their teacher's instruction and their own learning progress (Oxford, 2011). The diary also makes for a useful reflective teaching tool, allowing the teacher to not only observe, but to take the first step in reflecting on and about their practice (Barlett, 1990).

From herein, I will discuss my experience with diaries both as reflective learning and reflective teaching tools. At the time, I was teaching in a large young learners' conversation school. The school's ethos was that English teaching should be delivered in a fun, active, and energetic manner, to appeal to the fluttering attention span of a typical child. As such, teachers were generally young with little previous teaching experience, with the ability to entertain learners held in just as high a regard as the ability to educate them. While in-house training was sporadically provided to teachers, the focus generally swayed towards company policy as

opposed to teachers' professional development. On occasion, the company would permit attendance of conferences and external workshops, but invitations were usually limited to managers or other senior staff. This was perhaps my biggest motivation for undertaking my MA in TESOL; there seemed to be no other way I could develop my professional knowledge to any significant degree.

Back to the teaching situation, I wanted to change the way my junior high classes were taught, as the school's insistence that the "fun factor" be a key component didn't always sit well with me. This seemed fine for the younger students, but it didn't always feel like an appropriate fit for my older students, namely those of middle school age. While I certainly wasn't resistant to providing a lively atmosphere in my classes, I also suspected that my students needed more than just to be entertained for an hour and wanted a more serious approach to learning. After all, several of them had the pressure of EIKEN proficiency tests and high school entrance exams looming, and this was a big motivator for them coming to my classes in the first place.

The dilemma for myself was how to identify the learning goals of the students and what type of activities resonated with them, whilst at the same time remembering the fact that we were, first and foremost, a conversation school. It seemed like a difficult balancing act, until the idea occurred to me to just have the students tell me what they thought was best for them. It was around this time that I first became aware of student and teacher diaries while undergoing my MA TESOL studies. I knew that I would need an appropriate means of qualitative data collection to gain an insight into my students' thoughts, and the use of diaries seemed to be the perfect fit.

I chose two small junior high classes wherein I would implement the diary usage. All students were aged between 13 and 14 years old at the time. My classes were team-taught, with myself acting as the lead teacher and model for English usage and a Japanese teacher of English (JT) providing translation duties and classroom support.

The students themselves were typical teenagers: shy, lacking in confidence, and difficult to elicit oral productions from. My idea was that the diaries might highlight what they enjoyed in my class and what they didn't, as well as activities they found achievable and those they found overly challenging. At the end of every month these were collected and analysed for salient themes which might suggest areas for change in my teaching. If I could successfully make the learning progress more engaging and applicable to their learning needs, perhaps they would participate more actively in class. At the same time, I would upkeep my own teaching diary so I could honestly assess how effective my lessons had been.

The rules for maintaining the diaries were purposefully simple and clear: the students and I should write our reflections on each class, much like action logging. Action logging involves learners recording their feedback, reflections, and evaluations which are then reviewed by the teacher and used to refine teaching practice where necessary (Miyake-Warkentin et al., 2020). Benefits for students from action logging include increased attentiveness, integrated lesson review through the writing of their reflections, and having some sway in the running of the class. For teachers, benefits include knowing what does and doesn't work for their students, thereby increasing teacher confidence in their teaching efficacy, and better relations with their students (Murphey, 1993).

My students were permitted to write in Japanese and encouraged to keep entries concise and relevant. They were prompted to describe which parts of the lesson they enjoyed and which parts they did not, as well as to elaborate on any other pertinent reflections they had, such as difficulty of the tasks and their assessment of their own performance.

Students' Reflections

Over the course of five months my JTs and I reviewed our students' entries and refined our teaching accordingly. Some key findings will now be quickly outlined, along with the teachers' interventions. We established that some students wanted more conversation practice to overcome their speaking anxiety, so more time and activities were allocated to this, along with some speaking strategies to help boost their proficiency and confidence. At another juncture, it was noted that some students wanted to improve their grammatical competency in preparation for upcoming EIKEN

tests. The teachers provided for this through grammar exercises reminiscent of those found in the tests. Other examples included the more trivial, such active warmup activities after some students admitted they were arriving to class feeling tired and sleepy after a long day at school. Generally, the students reported favourably to my interventions and my JTs and I did see some gradual improvements in their performance and engagement. These observations were echoed by Hooper (2020) who, during a yearlong tenure using action logging with his university students, noted a range of improvements and positive reactions from his interventions. Similar to my own findings, Hooper's attempts to introduce more active and communicative warmup activities resulted in a relaxed and comfortable environment, while an effort to train skills conducive for passing standardized tests such as TOEIC and TOEFL were also appreciated among his students.

Teacher's Reflections

While some useful insights into the student experience were gained, it was perhaps my own diary which was the most enlightening in the long term. By admitting my worries, frustrations, or missteps in classes, I was creating an honest inventory of shortcomings I had as a teacher and essentially committing to paper my will to remedy those shortcomings.

During my tenure with the teacher diary, there were several instances of teaching activities carried out in my lessons which I retrospectively felt could have been done better. I will detail one example here, although first a little context will be necessary. At the time, I was attempting to instil a greater degree of learner autonomy into my students by introducing them to learning strategies. Benson (1997) distinguishes three broad approaches to learner autonomy: the technical perspective, the psychological perspective, and the political perspective. The technical perspective emphasizes the use of skills and strategies for unsupervised learning, which are specific behaviours, actions, steps, and thought processes that students use to enhance their own learning (Oxford, 2003). Learner strategy instruction is beneficial to L2 learners as it helps them to become better at learning and enables them to become independent and confident learners (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). I had decided to divide these strategies into four sets according to the four key language skills (speaking, writing, listening, and reading) and spending some lessons focusing on each skill.

Going into this project, I was slightly worried it might be too much to expect junior high students to adopt more independence in their learning. The impression I had gained was that autonomy is generally seen as a domain for adult language learning, due in most part to the fact that studies concerning learner autonomy had predominantly been focused on adult learning, as observed by Padmadewi (2016). Furthermore, as noted by Carreira et al., (2013), the majority of studies using the Self-Determination Theory, an influential theory delving into autonomy and its link to motivation, have also focused on adults and higher grades of adolescent learners.

This disposition was reflected in the diary where I had made several references to apprehension and a lack of confidence: "I didn't feel too confident about how well things would go in today's lesson" and, in the same entry, "I'm feeling bad about the choice of writing strategies" (this was because in hindsight, I felt some of the writing strategies were not very applicable to junior high students). I continued:

> *This is a learning experience for me and I've learnt that more thought should be given for their learning situation when training in strategy usage. As a consequence, I have to ensure that the listening strategies I plan to introduce next are a lot more realistic and helpful for middle school students.*

For the next set of strategy training, listening strategies, I took a more considered approach, having learnt from my mistakes and so we see an increase in confidence and general positivity: "I was feeling more positive about these strategies as I chose them more carefully and wisely, bearing in mind my students' age". There was also an improvement in how this set of strategies was taught. Having previously relied on just verbally explaining, I had learned that a more interactive approach would be beneficial for the students. This

time, I implemented activities which would require the students to put the strategies into use:

> *I decided to show some strategies in use, as opposed to just explaining them (which in hindsight was an obvious idea, I feel silly for not having done this before!). So, I chose two strategies which both related to guessing the overall message from context, clues, words which are understood, etc.*

The activity itself was simple but effective; students listened to a passage and had to guess the gist of what they heard using some of the strategies they had been taught. It is hard for me to imagine that without making the commitment to record my reflections and regularly review them, I would have this drive or the perception to successfully undertake continual self-improvement.

Lessons Learned

From looking back at these entries, we can see how I gradually gained in confidence and became more astute in my approach. I had learned how to better support my students' learning through the use of scaffolding, whereas previously the idea would not have even occurred to me. It appears that by disclosing my own worries and apprehensions in my diary, I could use these as incentive prompts with which I could measure my maturation as a teacher. It is very likely that without the diary, the confessions and revelations would never have materialised and, consequently, neither would my desire to challenge myself by stepping out of my comfort zone.

In conclusion, my venture with diaries was an enlightening and empowering experience. They allowed me to make my lessons more applicable to my students' needs and to foster a more relatable and inclusive learning environment. I also have no doubt that I am now a more confident and flexible teacher; one who has come to appreciate, not fear, constructive criticism and being honest with oneself.

Is a Reflective Diary for Me?

Implementing learner diaries is not going to be appropriate for all learning contexts. The reliable upkeep of the learner diary itself requires a certain level of discipline and maturity that will typically only be found in adults or those in tertiary education. Indeed, at times it was a challenge to elicit fruitful reflections from young teenagers who, at the best of times, found it difficult to open up about their feelings. In this case, a more appropriate approach may be action logging, or even the adoption of "exit slips" (Miyake-Warkentin et al., 2020), which can be seen as a simplified variant, or precursor, to action logs. Reduced in form and only needing a few minutes at the end of class to complete, they can provide the simplest of prompts to encourage the less forthcoming students, covering elementary considerations such as what was good, bad, or needed more explanation (Miyake-Warkentin et al., 2020).

Practicality must also be taken into consideration. The larger the class, the greater the burden for the teacher to meaningfully analyse all the student diaries and prioritise the potentially larger number of salient themes which may need to be addressed. Lastly, some degree of teacher autonomy may be needed in order to make meaningful amendments to one's pedagogy. Those of us who find ourselves working towards tight syllabi or are expected to teach within restrictive institutional parameters may not have the required freedom to make the use of diaries viable.

However, I see no reason why a language teacher would not benefit from starting their own reflective teacher diary. It is not easy, at least to begin with. We naturally like to avoid inconvenient truths which might be an afront to our sense of worth or, dare I say it, our ego. This will start to change, however, when we realise that we are becoming better teachers by confronting and addressing our flaws, not by hiding from them. For those who are interested, I would offer the following advice.

First, know that it is a commitment of time and effort. As teachers, we often find ourselves with enough of a workload at the best of times, and the formal upkeep of a diary will only add to the never-ending list of things to keep on top of. One must be prepared to sacrifice some time each day to make thoughtful entries which will provide enough insight to be useful upon review.

Punctuality and timeliness are important factors, as it is essential that the entries be made at the earliest opportunity. As Ericsson and Simon

(1980, 1993) explain, one of the potential limitations of diary data is its reliability in regard to memory; information is only stored in a person's short-term memory briefly, after which it is only stored in the long-term memory and thus becomes less reliable. To mitigate this limitation, Ma and Oxford (2013) propose keeping a notebook to write down useful notes and key words directly from the short-term memory, which can later be transferred into coherent sentences within the diary. For those who have a busy class schedule where there's simply not enough time to put pen to paper after every single lesson, this is a fair compromise.

Lastly, have at least a loose plan for how often you will review your diary entries. I found that a cyclical approach worked well for my own teaching circumstances. I would review my diary towards the end of each month and have an action plan ready for the coming month. Having such a structure helps the process to become habitual and reduces the risk of missing entries.

I hope that by sharing my experience I have demonstrated just how beneficial diaries can be to our classroom. I also hope that I might have even persuaded some of you to give it a try for your own classes. With a little commitment each day, and perhaps a little courage to be honest with oneself, any teacher can learn about themselves just as I did and, crucially, learn how to become a better teacher.

References

Bailey, K. M. (1990) The Use of diary studies in teacher education programs. In Richards, J. C. & Nunan. D (eds.), *Second Language Teacher Education.*

Barlett, L. (1990). Teacher development through reflective teaching. In Richards, J. C. & Nunan. D (eds.), *Second Language Teacher Education.*

Boud, D., Keogh, R., & Walker, D. (1985). Reflection, turning experience into learning. London; New York: Kogan Page; Nichols.

Carreira, J.M., Ozaki, K., & Maeda, T., (2013). Motivational model of English learning among elementary school students in Japan. *System*, *41*, 706-719.

Cirocki, A., &Farrell, T.S.C. (2020). Reflective practice for professional development of TESOL practitioners. *The European Journal of Applied Linguistics and TEFL, 1.*

Ericsson, K. A., & Simon, H. A. (1980). Verbal reports as data. *Psychological Review*, 87, 215–251.

Ericsson, K. A., & Simon, H. A. (1993). *Protocol analysis: Verbal reports as data*. Rev. ed. Cambridge, MA: Bradford Books;MIT Press.

Farrell, T. S. C. (2015). Promoting teacher reflection in second language education: A framework for TESOL professionals. Routledge.

Hooper, D. (2020). Action logs as mediational means for teacher development. *Language Teaching Research*. 24, 1-13. DOI: 10.1177/1362168820918362

Lyons, N. (1998). Constructing narratives for understanding: Using portfolio interviews to scaffold teacher reflection. In N. Lyons (Ed.), With portfolio in hand – Validating the new teacher professionalism (pp. 103–119). Teachers College Press.

Ma, R., & Oxford, R.L. (2013). A diary study focusing on listening and speaking: The evolving interaction of learning styles and learning strategies in a motivated, advanced ESL learner. Elsevier Ltd.

Miyake-Warkentin, K., Hooper, D., & Murphey, T. (2020). Student action logging creates teacher efficacy. In P. Clements, A. Krause, & R. Gentry (Eds.), Teacher efficacy, learner agency. JALT. https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTPCP2019-40

Murphey, T. (1993). Why don't teachers learn what learners learn? Taking the guesswork out with action logging. English Teaching Forum, 31, 6–10.

Oxford, R. L. (2011). Teaching and researching language learning strategies. Pearson Longman.

Padmadewi, N. N. (2016). Techniques of promoting autonomous learning in the classroom. Journal of Education and Social Sciences, 3, 45-52.

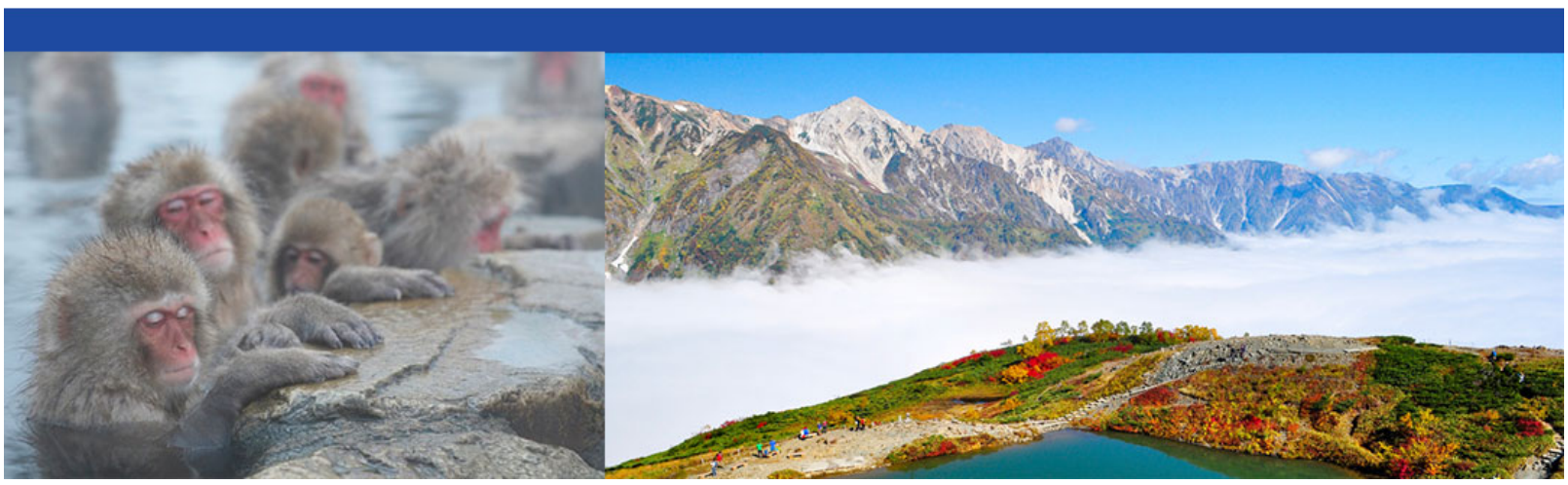
Rolheiser, C. Bower, B., & Stevahn, L. (2000). The portfolio organizer: Succeeding with portfolios in your classroom. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Schön, D. A. (1983). The reflective practitioner: how professionals think in action. Basic Books.

Author Bio

Tom Batten has a master's degree in Teaching English as a Second Language from Kumamoto University. His research interests include learner development and autonomy.
tom.batten0@protonmail.com

PanSIG
University of Nagano
July 8-10, 2022



Engaging Students - My Journey from Imitator to Innovator

Robert Remmerswaal
Kumamoto Gakuen University

Reflecting on my journey, I have moved from imitating my coworkers to designing my own curriculum. Today, my pedagogy is heavily influenced by situated learning, distributed cognition, and gamification. I explain how these are used in different combinations based on the type of student I am teaching. First, I provide some detail on these theories. I then give some examples of their application and the activities used in my classes. An important step in my journey was to define my own pedagogy to create a lens through which I could evaluate activities for my classroom. This made it easier to choose and implement my course objectives. The goal with each activity I design is to engage students while achieving worthwhile learning outcomes. Examples of how I use these theories to meet course goals come from my kindergarten, English school, and university classes.

Introduction

Throughout my journey as an English language instructor, I have always wanted to get my students more engaged in my classes. I believe that to enjoy my job, my students need to enjoy the class, at least most of the time. Along my journey, I have incorporated a few teaching approaches into my teaching strategy and pedagogy. I have applied various aspects of situated learning, situated conversations, gamification, distributed cognition, and some behaviorism to keep my students motivated and engaged in my classroom. As I teach a wide range of ages, from kindergarten to adults, the strategies I use differ based on age, maturity, time together, and English level. The development of my strategies began from my desire to be a better teacher.

Beginning My Journey

Before moving to Japan, I had several years of experience in a large technology firm as well as a Canadian bank. Those workplaces relied heavily on technology and were always seeking ways to increase efficiency with better tools. When I chose to move to Japan, I prepared to become a teacher by taking an online TEFL course and observing a few English lessons. In 2015, my teaching journey began as a full-time teacher at an Eikaiwa (English language school). It was there that I realized just how much I still needed to learn.

I started by shadowing my coworkers and I was encouraged to imitate their pattern in my classes. Initially, this is what I did, but I did not believe students were meeting their potential. One limitation of an Eikaiwa is how easily students can quit. This means that student enjoyment must be balanced with student learning. I found that student enjoyment would often become the focus whenever enrolment numbers decreased. After a few months of imitation, I moved from full imitator to partial creator by shifting more focus on learning. However, I was unsure of how to achieve this. I decided to replicate the drill and repeat style from my own childhood language learning.

My first target was reading, as I was shocked by ten-year-old students struggling with phonics after five or more years at the school. I chose a reading textbook, assigned vocabulary homework, and gave tests. Students had to memorize and repeat vocabulary to succeed in class. This drill and repeat style had success. Within six months students were reading, but they often complained of the difficulty, tediousness, and dislike of this style. This reminded me of the feelings I had when learning in that same way. I began searching for teaching tools that could make the process more enjoyable and efficient, drawing from my previous experience with technology.

As I searched for different tools and methods to use in my classroom, it quickly became overwhelming. My searches online resulted in finding too many potential tools to properly evaluate them all and many differing opinions as to which was the best or provided the most benefit for students. I would often research and trial one tool enough to feel confident it was a worthwhile choice, only to learn of another tool and feel uncertain which would be best. This resulted in a lot of researching and

hypothesizing with very little action taken.

I began to consider my own pedagogy and realized I was unable to define it. As I researched educational theory, I decided it would be beneficial for someone to guide me through this process. This led me to register for a Master of Educational Technology. In this program I gained a new perspective from which to evaluate technology, frameworks, and theories to apply to my classroom, as well as a better idea of my own pedagogy. With this new mindset, I was motivated to experiment and integrate the theories of situated learning, distributed cognition, gamification, and behaviorism to better engage my students.

Theoretical Framework

Developing and internalizing these different strategies assisted in me defining my own pedagogy. My methods include teaching through collaboration, students utilizing each other as resources, and guiding students into critical thinking. The following briefly details the theories I use.

Situated Learning

Situated learning plays a large part in my pedagogy. It claims that students are more likely to learn when they are actively participating in the learning experience (Northern Illinois University Center for Innovative Teaching and Learning, 2012). Learning should take place through relationships between people and connecting prior knowledge with authentic, informal contextual learning (Northern Illinois University Center for Innovative Teaching and Learning, 2012). These situations must be realistic, problem centered activities that allow students to learn through their completion (Stein, 1998).

The role of an instructor is then to guide students towards greater proficiency, provide scaffolding and support for beginners, track progress and assess what students produce, build collaborative spaces for learning, and encourage reflection (Stein, 1998). Reeves, Harrignton, and Oliver (2002) provide ten guiding points for creating authentic, situated activities, as listed below.

1. Have real-world relevance rather than decontextualized or classroom-based tasks.
2. Require multiple interpretations of tasks, with students needing to create smaller tasks to complete the larger tasks.
3. Require substantial amounts of time to complete.
4. Require different perspectives with students finding their own relevant information from a variety of sources.
5. Require collaboration.
6. Provide a chance for students to reflect on their own work and that of the social group.
7. Go beyond a single subject area or field.
8. Include assessment that is integrated into the task and based on real world assessment, not artificial assessment.
9. Create a final product, not a product preparing for something else.
10. Allow for diverse outcomes or various solutions.

Situated Conversations

Situated learning does not always meet the constraints of an English classroom. I created a group of activities that I refer to as situated conversations to fill this gap while adhering to the principles of situated learning when possible. The main deviation from situated learing is they do not require substantial amounts of time, assessment, or a final product. This allows them to be used within a single class period. It is similar to situated learning in that students are active participants, connect prior knowledge with informal contextual learning, and the situations are realistic with problematic scenarios introduced by the teacher, who remains the guide. These are a great way to expand student vocabulary and sentence patterns while engaging students in critical thinking. These conversations rely on students sharing their experiences and opinions while explaining their reactions and rationale.

To do this, a variety of scenarios are discussed in class, the teacher prompts students to participate, and problems or alternate scenarios are introduced by the teacher or other students. Critical thinking is necessary for students to explain the rationale for their behavior or opinions. The teacher's role is to prompt students to explore new vocabulary and develop the skills to express and defend their opinions. Expressing opinions is what brings this beyond a role-playing activity, such as ordering at a restaurant. The goal is not to prepare students for a specific future experience, but rather to explore

vocabulary and sentence patterns by using informal contexts and the prior experiences of the students.

A question could be, "Have you ever hit another car in a parking lot? What did you do? Why? What would you do if this happened tomorrow?" Some follow-up questions include, "Do you think something bad would happen if you did nothing?" "What would you do if someone hit your car?" The teacher or other students can continue asking questions and sharing their own opinions on the situation. The teacher should take time to explain new vocabulary and sentence patterns as they arise in class. By connecting vocabulary and sentence patterns with prior experiences and beliefs, students should have a stronger connection with what was learned, making it easier for them to recall the lesson as needed.

Distributed Cognition

This theory relates to course organization and considers what resources are available to students. Distributed cognition stipulates that our ability to think and process goes beyond our own brains and utilizes other people, tools, and artifacts (Swan & Shea, 2005). In my classrooms, students are therefore a resource for other students to use, along with the teacher, their personal devices, and any computers in the room. Additionally, all processes that are required for a task should be considered and ordered to best make use of student time and all available resources (Rogers & Ellis, 1994). To accomplish this, a teacher should be aware of when and how to introduce resources and the order of the learning tasks should attempt to use time efficiently. Furthermore, distributed cognition puts emphasis on where or from whom knowledge can be accessed rather than knowledge acquisition (Hutchins, 2000). In my classroom, I interpret this as allowing students to utilize online translation software as desired and teaching students how to use these tools to express themselves, rather than focus on vocabulary memorization. I do believe vocabulary is an important piece of language learning, but students should be aware of the tools that are available to them on their language learning journey.

Gamification

Gamification is typically taking any mundane task and making it rewarding using game elements and game design in a non-game context (Werbach & Hunter, 2012), for example, earning badges from an app for walking a certain distance. Users are motivated by incorporating things such as leader boards, points, and immediate feedback. The user feels empowered and understanding the game becomes important to succeed, which leads users to engage in the process (Flores, 2015). There are many ways to implement and design an activity with gamification, but in general they have been shown to improve student engagement, motivation, attendance, and academic performance (Hung, 2017). One of the most used features is a points system. Dignan (2011) states that users see points as a reward even when they are not connected to a tangible reward because they give a sense of validation.

Dignan (2011) notes that gamification has the potential to encourage students to cheat or game the system for the sake of points. Some worry that gamification can be exploitative, oversimplifies a task, and that the associated learning analytics do not translate into actual learning (Hung, 2017). Not all gamification has these downfalls, but these criticisms must be considered in the design of any activity that utilizes gamification. For example, with an app that rewards steps, a person may be inclined to shake their phone or find other ways to artificially increase their step count if the reward is seen as valuable. As the value of the reward increases, this inclination to game the system also increases.

The benefits must outweigh the risks of gamification when contemplating its use in the classroom. To weigh the risks and rewards, Hung (2017) makes several suggestions in his review of current literature, as follows:

- Ensure that students receive meaningful feedback and can learn from the activity.
- Consider if gamification will improve the student experience of the course through increased learning, a sense of progress in the course, or more timely and useful feedback.
- Choose desired learning outcomes before considering technology or any game mechanics; technology should not be at the center
- Any analytics provided by a gamified system should not be the main benchmark for student learning progress.

- Always go back and revise for improvements based on your experience, new research, and data that you accumulate.
- Use gamification for the enjoyment of the students and the teacher.

Behaviorism

I apply this method to remedy classroom problems. Behaviorism often involves tokens, praise, parental feedback, and other methods to encourage or discourage certain behavior (Besalel-Azrin et al., 1977). My application is limited to young learners, where it is used to prevent students from distracting or discouraging each other. This includes rewarding good behavior with praise and increased chances to participate as well as discouraging poor behavior with a warning system.

Classroom Activities

The age, maturity, and English level of my students plays a role on which theories I choose to apply to my classroom. Long, complex, authentic tasks do not fit well with younger children. Using a time-out would not be useful with university students. Below, I detail a few activities used to engage students in my various classrooms.

Kindergarten

With this age group, behaviorism is used to reinforce positive behavior. My method is to reward good behavior with additional opportunities to participate at the front of the class. Students catch on quickly that poor behavior results in being passed over for games and activities and adjust their behavior accordingly without direct discipline from a teacher. With classes ranging from 18-45 students, there are rare circumstances where I discourage inappropriate behavior directly. However, I have found positive reinforcement will often suffice.

Other aspects have been gamified. For example, many students use katakana English when giving answers. To encourage proper pronunciation, I use a game that rewards pronunciation. First, students line up behind their favorite card and then chorus after me the vocabulary word using the target sentence pattern. I use my hand to gesture the intonation for the phrase when I speak and when the students chorus the phrase back. After two tries, I declare one line of students, with the best intonation, the winners. I try to be expressive with my face and body language to show when they are parroting well and when they make a mistake. After using this game, I noticed students started using correct pronunciation during the review lessons.

Eikaiwa

There are a wide range of ages at an Eikaiwa, which require their own techniques for engagement. Currently, I teach young elementary grades and adult students.

Children

Improving student reading first inspired my journey, but I now use some fun activities to engage students. I noticed some students did not associate phonics with reading and appeared to fall behind in class due to this disconnect. By gamifying the reading experience, students begin to see reading and memorizing phonics as a way to win a game. The game starts with the class reading together, then the teacher reads while clapping to establish a rhythm. Students repeat this rhythm, and the clapping gets faster with each round. Like a game, students get lives, which are usually tied to the time available and the difficulty of the reading. If you make a mistake or lose the rhythm, you lose a life and can try that level again. To win, you must complete the final speed level before running out of lives. All students have a chance to win and typically understand the rules after their first attempt. Students can parrot the teacher at first, but to succeed they must be able to either memorize or read quickly. Since utilizing this method, I have observed my lower students remembering their phonics and sight words with much more accuracy.

Some aspects of behaviorism are used in moderation. This includes warning points given for talking repeatedly out of turn, hitting other students, or other poor behavior. In the rare case, students will reach three points and be given a time-out. This tends to be used with elementary grade one students who are very excited to be with their friends. Warning points are used after a reminder that their current behavior is not appropriate. There is a chance to have the points removed with appropriate behavior. If several students continue to speak with each other or are otherwise distracted, I will stop the activity instead of giving everyone warning points. I find that this age group has certain days when sitting still is not an option and it is

important to be flexible with the activities. By the third grade of elementary school, a verbal reminder about behavior will typically suffice.

In higher level classes, vocabulary gets explored with situated conversations. The textbook I use has new vocabulary each unit. These words are explored by relating them to the lives of the student. For example, if "Traffic" was a new vocabulary word, I may ask about traffic on the way to class that day, feelings about traffic, and other questions of this nature. Students are exposed to the word many times in a short period and can apply it to their everyday lives. I have observed students able to naturally recall and use these words weeks later. Students are often introduced to the perspectives of other students and are required to use critical thinking in forming and weighing their opinions against those of the other students.

Adults

My adult students typically pay for their own lessons, demonstrating motivation to be in the class, and usually opt for a class that is textbook centered. Situated conversations are drawn out from the textbook material to stimulate and engage students. If there was a story about a concert, I would use concerts as a topic to draw out student experiences, opinions, and feelings. It is a mix of sharing experiences, discussing hypotheticals, and learning new vocabulary. These situated conversations have been used with my lowest adult students, who are still working on conjugating the 'be' verb, all the way to my fluent students. Many idioms and new words are added to the working vocabulary of these students. I write down and define new words as they are encountered, giving students a physical and/or digital copy at the end of class. Often students use these words appropriately in future lessons. Occasionally they are added to the word list two or three times before students remember them.

University

I have the greatest flexibility and responsibility to create a curriculum in these classes. All my courses are taught with students having access to computers. I have implemented various activities and assignments, but a few are worth sharing for their engaging qualities.

The first is gamified vocabulary and comprehension questions. Using the free-to-use kahoot.com, I create quizzes that students take in class, with results shown live. Questions are presented on the classroom screen and each student or group answers the questions on an internet connected device within twenty seconds. The faster an answer is given the higher the points received. Scores are shown after each question, motivating the individual or team to answer quickly and correctly. To avoid students manipulating the system, these quizzes are only worth participation marks, the desire to accumulate points is therefore internally based. I also allow students to use the Internet to find an answer, but with 20 seconds, it is not very useful. The results provide insight into vocabulary or sections in the reading the students likely do not understand. I am then able to address misunderstandings or allocate more time for missing vocabulary in my lesson. This has also been a great way to wake students up in morning classes and get them engaged for the rest of the period.

Another task is to create a situated learning environment, where I introduce potential work scenarios to my students. I then divide students into groups and provide assignments related to email creation. Students are given freedom to write from the perspective of any employee within any business (real or fake) and can choose the target recipient(s) of the emails. Some examples are emails related to marketing, partner relationships, collaboration, and job applications. Certain tasks are done in groups and others are done individually. At first, groups can be slow to collaborate, but after I meet with each group and ask a few questions, a lively group discussion is started. Once an idea is chosen, students will typically actively participate on the task in class, engage in group discussions, and ask me questions to improve their writing quality. Students appear to enjoy writing from the perspective of an employee.

Discussion

In presenting my journey at the SUTLF 6 conference, a few audience members shared other ways they engage their students in the classroom. One teacher encourages student participation by giving two points to students who participate in class without a prompt and one point to students who participate after being called by name. These points are then used as a reference when creating a final grade. Another teacher includes peer evaluation in

each class. She found that this encouraged students to be engaged as they know the person next to them will be evaluating them shortly. Both teachers reported observing increased engagement when using these methods.

The methods I have mentioned keep my students and me interested in the lesson. However, it must be noted that none of activities have been researched for effectiveness. I have observed higher student engagement in my classroom when using them, but these are anecdotal observations. I am always thinking of ways to improve these activities and create new ones as well.

Reflecting on my journey has reminded me just how important it was to understand my pedagogy. My initial struggle to choose a tool for my classroom was related to my inexperience as a teacher. I wanted to choose a tool before choosing the methods and goals for the class. I started my journey thinking that a tool would lead my decision to learning outcomes and methods, when in fact it is the desired learning outcomes, and the desired methods, that should guide my choice of tools. Defining my pedagogy provided a lens from which to evaluate activities for their learning outcomes and to imagine ways to make them more engaging. Imitation was a necessary first step in my journey and as I continue to teach, I believe imitation will continue to play a part in the courses I create. The ideas and work of others are a great inspiration and provide an opportunity to learn and improve my own activities. In this way, I believe that I am an innovator who can use imitation as a tool.

References

Besalel-Azrin, V., Azrin, N. H., & Armstrong, P. M. (1977). The student-oriented classroom: A method of improving student conduct and satisfaction. *Behavior Therapy, 8*(2), 193-204. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0005-7894(77)80268-2

Dignan, A. (2011). *Game frame: Using games as a strategy for success.* Simon and Schuster.

Flores, J. F. F. (2015). Using gamification to enhance second language learning. *Digital Education Review, 27*, 32-54.

Hung, A. C. Y. (2017). A critique and defense of gamification. Journal of Interactive *Online Learning, 15*(1), 57-72.

Hutchins, E. (2000). Distributed cognition. In J. Wright (Ed.) *International Encyclopedia of the Social and Behavioral Sciences.* Elsevier Science.

Reeves, T., Herrington, J. & Oliver, R. (2002). Authentic activities and online learning. *Quality Conversations, Proceedings of the 25th HERDSA Annual Conference, Perth, Western Australia*. 562-567.

Rogers, Y., & Ellis, J. (1994). Distributed cognition: an alternative framework for analysing and explaining collaborative working. *Journal of information technology*, *9*(2), 119-128.

Northern Illinois University Center for Innovative Teaching and Learning. (2012). Situated learning. *Instructional guide for university faculty and teaching assistants.* https://www.niu.edu/citl/resources/guides/instructional-guide

Stein, D. (1998). Situated Learning in Adult Education. *ERIC Digest, 195*, 1-7.

Swan, K., & Shea, P. (2005). The development of virtual learning communities. In S. R. Hiltz & R. Goldman (Eds.) Learning Together Online. (pp. 239-260). Routledge.

Werbach, K., & Hunter, D. (2012). *For the win: How game thinking can revolutionize your business.* Wharton School Press.

Author Bio

Robert Remmerswaal currently teaches university students and has experience teaching all ages in a variety of settings. He is interested in new ways of engaging students and enjoys bringing new activities to the classroom. Currently, he is using Minecraft to increase the time students spend using English outside of the classroom.

Japanese High School Students' Perceptions of Autonomy Needs Support

Olya Yazawa
Showa Women's University

The aim of this study was to examine how teachers affect students' English learning motivation in Japanese high school settings. The results showed that the second-year students appeared to be less satisfied with autonomy need fulfillment with English teachers than the first-year students. The sources of their dissatisfaction supported the idea that autonomy need supportive teachers should be less controlling and authoritarian in the classroom and use more comprehensive instructions to enhance understanding among students.

Introduction

Dörnyei, when reviewing student motivation, concluded that teachers have a considerable impact on learning motivation and therefore have a responsibility to enhance it in their students (2001). Individual teacher behavior in the classroom has been found to be a major factor influencing students' motivation in Japanese high schools (Kikuchi, 2009). According to the self-determination theory of motivation (SDT), the autonomy need is one of the three basic needs a student must have satisfied in order to develop self-determined motivation to learn English (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Under such circumstances, it is now more important than ever to examine teacher-related factors influencing English language learning motivation in Japanese settings, focusing on how motivation evolves through school years, and how it is affected by student-teacher interactions. This study looks in some detail at the relationship between autonomy need support and self-determined motivation to learn English for students, as well as differences in perceived autonomy need support from English teachers between first year and second year Japanese high school students.

Literature Review: Self-Determined Motivation and Teacher Effect on Autonomy Need Support

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) is one of the cognitive theoretical frameworks employed in contemporary research on language learning motivation. The theory states that all people are innately self-determined to learn and that motivation explicitly relates to the learner's satisfaction of the autonomy need in the classroom (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Deci & Ryan, 2008). The SDT considers any motivation as having a fluid nature, drifting inside a continuum of learner self-determination, and ranging from non-self-determined motivation to highly self-determined (Figure 1).

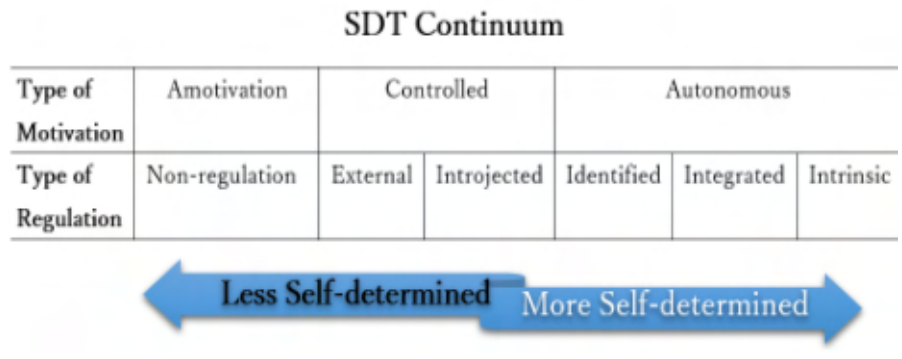


Figure 1. SDT Continuum (Adapted from Deci & Ryan, 2008)

From the least self-determined to the highly self-determined, the regulations, which control these motivations, are defined as the following. There is no regulation of the behavior for the state of amotivation, wherein the students have no desire or intention to do the task. Controlled motivation is ruled by external regulations (directed by external rewards and punishment) and introjected regulations (driven by shame or approval seeking). Finally, identified regulations (maintained by conscious valuing of the activity), integrated regulations (directed by full awareness and internalization of values), and intrinsic regulations (driven by pure interest) fuel autonomous motivation (Figure 1).

Both autonomous and controlled motivation energize and facilitate learning. However, the latter is associated with declined psychological well-being among students and diminished academic achievement. The more autonomous the type of motivation people have, the more voluntarily they initiate actions. On the other hand, when people behave according to the expectations of others and

feel external pressure, they are fueled by controlled motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008).

According to SDT, individuals are more motivated, feel more self-determined, and show higher levels of well-being when the following three basic psychological needs are satisfied: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Autonomy need is a desire for personal endorsement of one's own behavior. A need for competence is manifested in the drive to challenge and master skills in the process of learning. Finally, a need for relatedness is described as a longing to find a personal connection with peers and teachers (Deci & Ryan, 2002). These three needs are strongly interrelated: students who have one need met are also more likely to have the other needs satisfied. Of the three needs, the need for autonomy is the focus of SDT research and is arguably the most important need to moderate learning motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2002). If the students' need for autonomy is satisfied, they are more willing to participate actively in the classroom and show higher achievement and less procrastination (Reeve, 2016).

Unfortunately, such autonomy need satisfaction is not always equally provided in all cultures and societies. Markus and Kitayama (1991) compared research results from different countries and suggested that there are individualistic and collectivistic societies. Individualistic societies—such as those found in North America or Western Europe—support the personal freedom of identity choice and separation from social contexts. Collectivistic societies such as Japan, on the other hand, promote maintaining harmony with others and fitting in by engaging in socially approved roles. Deci and Flaster (1995) mentioned in their earlier work on motivation that "Japan, though different and less oppressive than the Soviet Empire, also represents a version of controlled collectivism" (pp. 135-136). Tubbs (1994) stated that the Japanese educational system places too much emphasis on rules and authority figures in comparison with personal autonomy.

Therefore, based on the literature, it is possible to assume that in Japanese high schools, students are given little autonomy need satisfaction. As mentioned, SDT relies on the autonomy need as the main driving force of human motivation. Thus, in line with this theory, the following hypothesis are proposed: the more autonomy need support from their teachers the students in this study experience, the higher their self-determined motivation to study English will be.

Methodology: Participants

The study was conducted in a Tokyo metropolitan high school. First- and second-year students were asked to participate in this study at the end of the academic year 2018 (n=386, Grade 1=176, Grade 2=210, Boys=178, Girls=208). The students had already experienced having classes for a year or more with three different native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) and seven Japanese teachers of English (JTEs).

Instruments

The students took a survey (Appendix A) adapted from Agawa and Takeuchi's motivational questionnaire (2016). This questionnaire was reported by Agawa and her colleague to have higher validity and reliability than the one developed by Hiromori (2006) that had previously been widely used in Japanese educational research field (Agawa & Takeuchi, 2016). Items addressing students' satisfaction of needs for relatedness were excluded from the present study, as its focus was specifically on the need for autonomy. The autonomy need items were modified to address students' level of satisfaction with JTEs and NESTs separately. The students were asked to use their smartphones to access an online version of the questionnaire and respond to 32 statements by selecting level of agreement on a Likert scale (1 = *not true at all*, 2 = *not true*, 3 = *cannot say*, 4 = *true*, and 5 = *very much true*).

The average Global Test of English Communication for Students (GTEC) score of the English proficiency test, which is mandatorily used in Tokyo metropolitan high schools, was 380 points. According to the GTEC grade system, this score falls into the range of Primary Level 3 (GTEC, n.d.). The third part of the questionnaire consisted of three open-ended narrative frames: "Compared to JTEs, foreign teachers are...," "Compared to NESTs, Japanese teachers are...," and "During my English lessons there are the following things I want my teacher to do…."

Quantitative Results

The data collected from the questionnaire

items were analyzed using traditional descriptive statistics of SPSS software. The sample average for identification as a motivational regulation was 3.83. This was followed by external regulation at 3.13, intrinsic regulation at 3.06, and finally amotivation at 2.2 (Table 1). After integrating different types of motivation into a self-determination index (SDI) (Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992) by assigning a weight of +2 to intrinsic, +1 to identified, -1 to external and -2 to amotivation, it became evident that the students in this study can be interpreted as moderately self-determined with a positive SDI of 2.5. An average mean of 3.43 for autonomous motivation versus 3.12 for controlled also characterizes the students as more autonomously motivated than controlled.

To find out whether Japanese high school students perceive NESTs and JTEs differently, one sample t-test was conducted to compare means and find whether there was any significance in variance. The results revealed that the students sampled demonstrated only a marginally higher autonomy need fulfillment score with their NESTs (M 3.56) than with their JTEs (M 3.46).

According to the results obtained, the perception of teacher autonomy need support at a moderate level of significance correlates with intrinsic motivation (r = .389, $p < .01$ for NESTs and r = .345, $p < .01$ for JTEs). That is, in the Japanese high school educational environment where teachers are perceived by students as autonomy need supportive, the level of students' intrinsic motivation is higher than in the situation when teachers are not perceived as such. Identified regulation showed a slightly lesser level of correlation with autonomy need satisfaction (r = .302, $p < .05$ for NESTs and r = .295, $p < .05$ for JTEs). These findings support the SDT assumption that the more the autonomy need is satisfied, the more internalized learning motivation is (Figure 1).

The data were further analyzed for correlations to investigate possible positive or negative dependencies among various variables (Appendix B). Two variables appeared to be correlated to the students' grade year: autonomy need fulfillment and English language proficiency level. First, there was a slightly negative correlation between the students' year and the autonomy need fulfillment in classes with both NESTs (r = -.248, $p < .001$) and JTEs (r = -.157, p = .002). At the same time, a small positive correlation was found between the students' grade year and GTEC score (r = .181, $p < .001$). Therefore, second-year students had higher English proficiency levels than first-year students, but lower autonomy need satisfaction.

English proficiency level also had statistically significant, but very small, positive correlations with the following variables: autonomy need fulfillment with NESTs (r = .120, p = .02), intrinsic motivation (r = .240, $p < .001$), and identified regulation (r = .173, p = .001). Proficiency was negatively correlated with external regulation (r = -.310, $p < .001$) and amotivation (r = -.317, $p < .001$). As a general trend in this study, higher English proficiency levels among Japanese high school students were related positively to autonomy need satisfaction with native teachers and autonomous motivation and negatively to controlled motivation.

Qualitative Results

In the third part of the questionnaire, the students were asked to write a couple of sentences in Japanese comparing NESTs and JTEs and explaining what they want their teachers to do in the

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Mean Difference 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Higher
Intrinsic	64.346	385	.000	3.06434	2.9707	3.1580
Identified	101.507	385	.000	3.83463	3.7604	3.9089
External	66.563	385	.000	3.12781	3.0354	3.2202
Amotivation	46.395	385	.000	2.20000	2.1068	2.2932

Table 1. Motivational Items

English language classroom. Some of the differences and similarities are listed below.

Fifty-three first year students (34%) commented that NEST lessons are useful, especially for learning pronunciation. Twenty-six second graders (25%) shared the same sentiment. "Their pronunciation is great" and "we can learn good pronunciation and authentic vocabulary from them" were among the common answers.

Twenty-nine first-year students (19%) wrote that it was difficult for them to communicate with NESTs compared to JTEs. The most common answers were "I don't understand what they say," "their pronunciation is too good to understand," "they use many difficult words," or "my English is very bad, so I can not talk to them." Twenty-eight second-year students (30%) expressed similar difficulties in communication.

Ninety-six first-year students (67%) wrote that JTEs are easier to communicate with, writing that "we can use Japanese with them" or "they are easy to understand." Only forty-six second-year students (48%) shared this perception.

Eleven first-year students (8%) reported the nature of some JTEs to be controlling by writing "they always tell us what to do," "they think that they are always right, and I do not like this feeling," or "they are nagging." Seventeen percent of second-year students had similar negative feelings towards JTEs, stating that "they are bossy," or "they are critical."

Finally, in the third narrative frame the students wrote about what they wanted JTEs and NESTs to do in English classes. Their comments were coded into the following categories: communicative skills, intrinsic entertainment, academic skills, practical things, and nothing in particular. The most frequent answer was "nothing" as 43 first-year students (37%) and 16 second-year students (23%) stated that they had no idea what they wanted from JTEs and NESTs in English classes. Seven first-year students (6%) identified practical skills as the main thing they wanted to learn in the classroom by writing "teach us something we can use when we go abroad" or "teach us something we really can use outside Japan." The same number of second-year students (10%) expressed similar wishes.

Twenty-three first-year students (18%) expressed a desire to learn more communicative skills by accentuating "I want to talk more," "teach us communication," and "I want to talk in English." Nineteen second-year students (27%) mentioned that they would prefer more "talking one-to-one" and "free talk" in their English classroom.

Discussion

The results showed that autonomy need satisfaction had a positive correlation with self-determined motivational variables and English proficiency. Therefore, according to the findings of this study, the fulfilment or frustration of the autonomy need of Japanese high school students has a great impact on motivation to learn English in class. The connection between autonomy need support and intrinsic and identified regulations highlighted existing findings (Deci & Ryan, 2008) which demonstrate a relationship between teacher support and students' enjoyment and involvement in the educational process. It is important to note that the higher the level of internalization of motives, the higher the correlation coefficient. The presence of a negative connection between autonomy need satisfaction and the external motivation of the students confirmed the research hypothesis that in an environment in which the teacher is controlling the students, the latter's external motivation dominates By comparison, when the teacher supports students' needs, pronounced intrinsic and identified motivation prevail.

In this study, the second-year students had lower perceptions of autonomy need satisfaction in their English classes compared to the first-year students. It's possible that the age difference of the first- and second-year students positively affected the latter's need for learner autonomy. The older students are, the more autonomy they desire. However, in practice, teachers are perceived as not providing enough autonomy support in the classroom to facilitate this psychological development. This may be well explained by a possible increase in autonomy need in the second year, which was no longer satisfied when given the same level of support as the first-year students received.

More second-year students than first-year students regarded JTEs as having a controlling personality, and a lesser number of second-year students than first-year students found JTEs easy to communicate with. The analysis also revealed that more second-year than first-year students had

difficulties in communicating with NESTs. As all three basic psychological needs are strongly interrelated, it is possible to assume that an increased desire for better understanding and more communication among the second-year students reflects their longing for relatedness in the classroom. Their frustrated need for relatedness may affect their perception of autonomy support provided by both types of teachers. Further research is needed to look at satisfaction of all three needs to find support for this assumption.

Interestingly, the English proficiency level rose in second-year students relative to first-year students. At the same time, the number of second-year students who claimed they could not understand English also increased. This sudden decrease in "understanding" despite the increase in proficiency might be due to the significant amount of time spent preparing for university entrance examinations (Kikuchi, 2009). Second-year students may feel that after all the time they spent preparing for these tests, they still did not understand their NESTs, resulting in a sense of loss of control of their learning environment.

Conclusion

The high school students that participated in this study manifested a small statistical difference in their perceptions of native and non-native teachers' autonomy need support in the English classroom. The results from the motivational aspect indicated that although the students' intrinsic motivation was not significantly high with a total sample mean of 3.05, when viewed alongside their identified regulation score of 3.8, it suggests that the students' motivation was moderately self-determined (SDI 2.5) and more autonomous than controlled.

When it comes to grade/age variation in motivation, the results showed that the second-year students appeared to be less satisfied with autonomy need fulfillment in English classrooms than the first-year students with both NESTs and JTEs. The fact that second-year students felt less psychological support than first-year students is indirect evidence that as students progress throughout their high school studies, their perception of teacher control changes as the focus shifts to studying for university entrance examinations. This is perceived as pressure and a restriction of their freedom, frustrating students' need for autonomy and in many respects, their competence, and as a result, may perform a negative function in the educational process.

The sources of their dissatisfaction were partially revealed in the qualitative component of the study and supported the idea that autonomy-need supportive teachers should be less controlling and authoritarian in the classroom and instead be more understanding and easy to communicate with. The limitation of this study is that it only looked at one psychological need: autonomy. All three basic psychological needs are positively interrelated in this study (Appendix B). Therefore, the author suggests a possibility that the need for relatedness was less satisfied in older students too. More comprehensive research is needed to look at all three type needs satisfaction in Japanese high schools.

The combination of quantitative and qualitative results of this study supports the belief that motivation is complex and multifaceted. English language teachers in Japan could learn how to be autonomy need supportive, as long as they critically evaluate the quality of student-teacher relationships in their classrooms. If teachers become more responsive, listen more and talk less, give students choices and time for independent work, and make opportunities for students to take the initiative, in other words, become more autonomy need supportive to their students, it may be possible to predict an increase in older students' perceptions of autonomy need satisfaction, followed by a possible rise in self-determination, motivation, and achievement.

High school teachers of English in Japan are advised to reflect on their classroom practices and find ways on how they can become more autonomy supportive to suit the needs of different levels of students. One approach does not fit all, as a range of factors such as age, social status, gender, and so forth, can influence students' motivation. Therefore, teacher-student communication practices, such as reflective feedback questionnaires, could be implemented in schools as a means of needs assessment. It is hoped that the results of this study may be useful to educators and researchers in the field to link theory with practice and to further explore methods and techniques to create a more autonomy-supportive educational environment in Japanese educational settings.

References

Agawa, T., & Takeuchi, O. (2016). A new questionnaire to assess Japanese EFL learners' motivation: Development and validation. *Annual Review of English Language Education in Japan, 27*, 1-16. https://doi.org/10.20581/arele.27.0_1

Deci, E. L., & Flaster, R. (1995). *Why we do what we do*. Penguin.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (Eds.). (2002). Handbook of Self-determination. University of Rochester Press.

Deci, E., & Ryan, R. M. (2008). Self-determination theory: A macrotheory of human motivation, development, and health. *Canadian Psychology, 49*(3), 182-185. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0012801

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivation strategies in the language classroom.* Cambridge University Press.

GTEC. (2017). Score. *Benesse Corporation.* http://www.benesse-gtec.com/fs/about/ab_feedback

Hiromori, T. (2006). The effects of educational intervention on L2 learners' motivational development. *JACET Bulletin, 43*, 1-14.

Kikuchi, K. (2009). Listening to our learners' voices: What demotivates Japanese high school students? *Language Teaching Research, 13*(4), 453–471. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168809341520

Markus, H. R., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological Review, 98*(2), 224-253. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.98.2.224

Reeve, J. (2016). Autonomy-Supportive Teaching: What It Is, How to Do It. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-981-287-630-0_7

Tubbs, W. (1994). The roots of stress-death and juvenile delinquency in Japan: Disciplinary ambivalence and perceived locus of control. *Journal of Business Ethics, 13*(7), 507-522. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00881296

Vallerand, R. J., & Bissonnette, R. (1992). Intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivational styles as predictors of behavior: A prospective study. *Journal of Personality, 60*(3), 599-620. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.1992.tb00922.x

Author bio

Olya Yazawa is a full-time lecturer at the Business Design Department of Global Business Faculty at Showa Women's University, and a member of the Japan America Global academic research team. She specializes in Business English, Academic Writing, and Self-Determined Motivation in tertiary education in Japan.

Appendix A: Autonomy Need Scale

Amendments to the Agawa-Takeuchi Scale

外国人先生の授業では、自分の努力が実ったという充実感が得られることがあると思う。
外国人先生の授業では、「できた」という達成感が得られることがあると思う口
外国人先生の授業での自分の頑張りに満足している。
外国人先生の授業では、和気あいあいとした雰囲気があると思う。
外国人先生の授業では、閉じ教室の仲間と仲良くやっていると思う。
外国人先生の授業のグループ活動・ペアワークでは、協力し合う雰囲気があると思う。
日本人先生の授業では、自分の努力が実ったという充実感が得られることがあると思う。
日本人先生の授業では、「できた」という達成感が得られることがあると思う口
日本人先生の授業での自分の頑張りに満足している。
日本人先生の授業では、和気あいあいとした雰囲気があると思う。
日本人先生の授業では、閉じ教室の仲間と仲良くやっていると思う。
日本人先生の授業のグループ活動・ペアワークでは、協力し合う雰囲気があると思う。

Motivational Items Used Unchanged from the Original Questionnaire

Intrinsic motivation factor items:
英語に接すること自体が好きなので勉強する。
英語を勉強することで、初めて気づくことがあると嬉しい。
英語を学ぶことに刺激を感じるので勉強する。
解らなかった英語が解るようになると嬉しいので勉強する。
私が英語を学ぶのは、英語が話されているのを聞くのが心地よいからだ。
私が英語を学ぶのは、英語を話していると気持ちがよいからだ。

Identified regulator factor items:
いろいろな場面で英語は役立つと思うから勉強している。
英語を使える人になりたいから勉強している。
英語を使えないと、将来困りそうだから勉強している。
私が英語を学ぶ理由は、英語が自分の成長にとって役立つと考えるからだ。
自分の将来のためには、英語は大切である。
自分の進路のためには大切な科目だから勉強する。

External regulation factor items:
英語を勉強するのは、テストがあるので、しかたなく。
単位を取るために英語を勉強している。
勉強しろと言われるので英語をやっている。

Amotivation factor items:
英語の学習は時間の無駄であるという感覚がある。
英語を学んでも何にもならないと思う。
なぜ英語を学ぶ必要があるのか、理解できない。
とにかく英語の勉強はもうしたくない。
自分にとっての英語を学ぶ意義がわからない

Correlations

		year	gender	Gtec	ANEST	AJTE	INsic	IDN	EX	AM	SDTlevel
year	Pearson Correlation	1	.030	.181**	-.248**	-.157**	-.018	-.041	.018	.022	-.028
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.562	.000	.000	.002	.729	.427	.727	.661	.587
	N	386	386	386	376	380	386	386	386	386	386
gender	Pearson Correlation	.030	1	.050	-.047	-.035	.079	.106*	.025	-.143**	.107*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.562		.323	.361	.491	.124	.038	.626	.005	.035
	N	386	386	386	376	380	386	386	386	386	386
Gtec	Pearson Correlation	.181**	.050	1	.120*	.059	.240**	.173**	-.310**	-.245**	.302**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.323		.020	.249	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000
	N	386	386	386	376	380	386	386	386	386	386
ANEST	Pearson Correlation	-.248**	-.047	.120*	1	.740**	.389**	.303**	-.206**	-.208**	.349**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.361	.020		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	376	376	376	376	371	376	376	376	376	376
AJTE	Pearson Correlation	-.157**	-.035	.059	.740**	1	.345**	.292**	-.171**	-.197**	.317**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.491	.249	.000		.000	.000	.001	.000	.000
	N	380	380	380	371	380	380	380	380	380	380
INsic	Pearson Correlation	-.018	.079	.240**	.389**	.345**	1	.618**	-.477**	-.454**	.826**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.729	.124	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	386	386	386	376	380	386	386	386	386	386
IDN	Pearson Correlation	-.041	.106*	.173**	.303**	.292**	.618**	1	-.344**	-.591**	.758**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.427	.038	.001	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	386	386	386	376	380	386	386	386	386	386
EX	Pearson Correlation	.018	.025	-.310**	-.206**	-.171**	-.477**	-.344**	1	.623**	-.739**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.727	.626	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	386	386	386	376	380	386	386	386	386	386
AM	Pearson Correlation	.022	-.143**	-.245**	-.208**	-.197**	-.454**	-.591**	.623**	1	-.851**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.661	.005	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	386	386	386	376	380	386	386	386	386	386
SDTlevel	Pearson Correlation	-.028	.107*	.302**	.349**	.317**	.826**	.758**	-.739**	-.851**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.587	.035	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	386	386	386	376	380	386	386	386	386	386

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

JALT TD SIG

About the JALT TD SIG

The JALT Teacher Development SIG is a network of foreign language instructors dedicated to becoming better teachers and helping others teach more effectively. Active since 1993, our members teach at primary and secondary schools, universities, language schools, and in various other contexts. New members are always welcome to join our conversation and share their experiences with other teachers. (Please note that the name was officially changed from Teacher Education & Development SIG in early 2016.)

Become a TD SIG Member

Joining:

TD is a special interest group (SIG) of the Japan Association of Language Teaching (JALT). To join TD, you must be a JALT member. Information on joining JALT is available on the JALT web site (jalt.org). If you are already a JALT member, you can also add a TD SIG membership to your existing JALT membership. Please see the JALT membership page for information on joining in the TD conversation.

Benefits:

Joining TD connects you to a network of teacher colleagues who are interested in growing professionally. Members receive the most current issue of TD's Explorations in Teacher Development (ETD) Journal by email, and can participate in our mailing list. TD also sponsors and co-sponsors events throughout the year to help teachers gain experience in mentoring and presenting.

TD SIG Officers

SIG Coordinator:
Jon Thomas, Hokusai Gakuen University

Publications Co-chairs:
Nicholas Kasparek, Eikei University of Hiroshima
Ryo Mizukura, Meiji University

Publicity Chair:
Ewen MacDonald, Kanda University of International Studies

Treasurer:
Sam Morris, Rikkyo University

Webmaster:
Ewen MacDonald, Kanda University of International Studies

Members-at-large:
Adrianne Verla Uchida, Nihon University

Contact the JALT TD SIG

jalt.td.sig@gmail.com

Connect with us online

td.jalt.org
facebook.com/TeacherDevelopmentSIG
twitter.com/JALT_TD_SIG
youtube.com/channel/UCyh0CMnZrzBl-iePXQeRxfA

Meet theTD SIG Publications Team

Ryo Mizukura, Co-managing Editor

Ryo Mizukura is a senior assistant professor at the Organization for International Collaboration at Meiji University in Japan. He is also a PhD candidate in Lleida university in Spain. His research interest is in the translingual identity of language teachers and students, language ideology, and English as a Lingua Franca in higher education.

Nick Kasparek, Co-managing Editor

Nick Kasparek is an English lecturer at Eikei University of Hiroshima and a PhD student in curriculum studies and teacher education at Texas Tech University with interests in theory, narrative inquiry, and post-qualitative research. He has recently begun serving as one of the managing editors of Explorations in Teacher Development.

Junyuan Chen, Assistant Editor

Junyuan Chen serves as an assistant editor in the JALT Teacher Development SIG. She is currently a Ph.D. candidate at the University of Arizona, with focuses on Japanese linguistics and Second Language Acquisition & Teaching. Her current research interests include Japanese sociolinguistics and foreign language teaching, especially language teacher identities.

Matthew W. Turner, Layout editor

Matthew W. Turner is an English language lecturer at Toyo University, Tokyo. His research interests include reflective practice, professional development, podcasting, accessible tourism, and support for language learners with disabilities. He is a cofounder and co-presenter of The TEFLology Podcast and the CLIL Voices podcast.

Rachel Patterson, Proofreader

Rachel Patterson serves as the Assistant Academic Director and part-time instructor at the Berlitz-ELS program at the Kindai University Faculty of International Studies. Her focus is on teacher training and development, study abroad and formal assessment. She currently lives in Nara and spends her free time gardening, studying Japanese and wood burning.

Andrew Hoffman, Proofreader

Andrew Hoffman has been teaching in Japan for nine years and has taught at every level from kindergarten to senior high school. His research interests include the practical applications of corpus linguistics, task-based teaching, teaching young learners, teacher development, and team-teaching.