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Introduction

We are delighted to release the *2023 NUFS Teacher Development Symposium Proceedings*. This issue contains six articles based on presentations from the third Teacher Development Symposium hosted by the Centre for Language Education and Development (CLED) at the Nagoya University of Foreign Studies (NUFS) held on Saturday, January 14th, 2023. The symposium provided opportunities for teachers and researchers to share knowledge, experience and activities relevant to teaching English as a foreign language and to discuss theoretical and practical issues in language classes.

The first article in this issue, written by Matthew Philbrick, reports on the usefulness of English Medium Instruction on Japanese university students' English proficiency and financial literacy. In the second article, Naoya Shibata explores correlations between language learning motivation and writing motivation based on quantitative data from a six-Likert scale survey. Berke Alp, who wrote the third article, reports on findings regarding linguistic relativity. Di Mi provides the fourth article to delve into challenges students and teachers can encounter in Collaborative Online International Learning and highlight the necessity of institutional support to address difficulties. The fifth article by Taylor Meizlish proposes the importance of designing local corpora to teach speech acts and assist learners in developing their pragmatic skills. In the last article, Kevin Ottoson presents frameworks for teaching culture and critical thinking in language classrooms.

The call for papers for the fourth NUFS Teacher Development Symposium, currently scheduled for January 2024, has already been announced on this website. The Teacher Development Symposium Committee would like to sincerely thank the contributors who submitted their manuscripts and worked through the double peer review process and the reviewers who took the time and effort to provide constructive and insightful feedback.

Personal Finance Instruction in the EFL Classroom

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Abstract

English-Medium Instruction (EMI) has become increasingly popular in EFL classrooms in recent years, and the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has specifically called for its implementation in universities across Japan. One exciting avenue for this kind of instruction in the context of Japan is the topic of personal finance, which is in dire need due to low levels of financial literacy among the general Japanese population. This paper outlines a reading course based on the topic of personal finance that was taught in a university setting in 2022 and which covered the topics of earning, spending & saving, credit cards, investing, housing, cryptocurrency, and retirement. Fourteen students participated in this course for the duration of a semester, eleven of whom completed pre-class and post-class surveys containing both qualitative and quantitative questions which analyzed how students' English proficiency and financial literacy levels changed over time. The results showed that students' TOEIC scores increased during this period, but not significantly. Students also self-reported improvements in reading, listening, and vocabulary knowledge. Students' self-assessed levels of financial literacy also increased as a result of taking the course, and this change was found to be statistically significant. Additionally, students indicated changes in their values and opinions regarding a variety of topics in personal finance.

Keywords: Personal Finance, EFL, Content Based Instruction, English-Medium Instruction

In the fall of 2020, I gave students in two of my English Communication classes a writing prompt for homework. "If you won the lottery and received ¥100,000,000, how would you spend the money?" Upon receiving their answers the following week, I found that the vast majority of students' answers could be summarized by either one or a combination of the following three responses:

"I would spend the money travelling around the world."
"I would buy a brand-new house."
"I would put my money in my bank account."

Not only was the uniformity in which these answers were given very surprising, as I had expected a larger diversity of opinions given that there were 50 responses, but also the dubious financial wisdom displayed by the students was quite shocking. While my students were very knowledgeable when it came to the realm of engineering, it seemed apparent that they were lacking in the area of financial literacy.

In spring 2021, I was asked to teach a special course at Toyota Technological Institute's International Communication Plaza (iPlaza). The course had to have at least seven 90-minute sessions with English as the medium of instruction, but no other stipulations were given as to its content. Wanting to help improve students' English proficiency while at the same time addressing the inadequacies in students' knowledge of personal finance, I decided to make a content-based reading course that focused on topics in personal finance. The class would cover six topics in seven weeks: earning, spending, credit cards, investing, housing, and retirement. My trial run for this class in spring 2021 got so much positive feedback from students that it was decided that I would teach the class every semester starting in 2022. I also made a number of reforms to the curriculum, including adding a lesson on cryptocurrency to address an important student need.

Financial Literacy in Japan

In their seminal paper entitled *Financial literacy around the world: An overview*, Lusardi and Mitchell (2011) define financial literacy as an understanding of compound interest, an understanding of inflation, and an understanding of risk diversification. To that end, they developed a three-question survey to serve as a benchmark for measuring financial literacy. The questions are as follows:

1) *Suppose you had $100 in a savings account and the interest rate was 2% per year. After 5 years, how much do you think you would have in the account if you left the money to grow?*

    -More than $102
    -Exactly $102
    -Less than $102

-Do not know

-Refuse to answer

2) *Imagine that the interest rate on your savings account was 1% per year and inflation was 2% per year. After 1 year, how much would you be able to buy with the money in this account?*

-More than today

-Exactly the same

-Less than today

-Do not know

-Refuse to answer

3) *Please tell me whether this statement is true or false. 'Buying a single company's stock usually provides a safer return than a stock mutual fund'.*

-True

-False

-Do not know

-Refuse to answer

Looking at the context of Japan, financial literacy does not appear to be high. Sekita (2011) measured financial literacy among the general Japanese population by asking the aforementioned three questions to 5,386 Japanese people, and his results showed that the majority could not correctly answer the questions. At the tertiary level, Japanese college students do not compare favorably to their international peers in this area either. Using two different test instruments to compare 395 undergraduate students in Sacramento, California and 216 undergraduate students in Aichi prefecture, Chinen and Endo (2014) found that the American students consistently demonstrated higher levels of financial literacy than the Japanese students. Similarly, Hahn and Abe (2021) had 1,006 university students in South Korea and 1,015 university students in Japan take an internationally recognized test of financial literacy, and they found that the South Korean students significantly outperformed the Japanese students on most questions. Clearly, there is a great need for financial education in Japanese universities since without such an education, these students are more likely to do things like undercounting the cost of inflation and ignoring beneficial investment opportunities, (such as shunning the stock market and keeping all savings in the bank), not diversifying their financial holdings (such as putting all their money into real estate), and failing to sufficiently plan for retirement.

English as the Medium of Instruction

English Medium Instruction (EMI), a term often referred to synonymously as Content Based Instruction (CBI) in North America and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in Europe, is the use of English to teach academic subjects where the first language of the majority of the local population is not English (Macaro et al., 2018). Richards and Rodgers (2014) have laid out the three central tenets of this approach as follows:

> *"People learn a second language more successfully when they use the language as a means of understanding content, rather than as an end in itself.*
>
> *Content-Based Instruction better reflects learners' needs for learning a second language.*
>
> *Content provides the basis for activating both the cognitive and the interactional processes that are the starting point for second language learning." (p. 118-119)*

While research regarding the benefits and drawbacks of EMI in the classroom compared to more traditional approaches to teaching English and content have so far been inconclusive (Macaro et al., 2018), nevertheless, EMI has been rapidly expanding around the world, quickly becoming a global phenomenon (Dearden, 2015). Japan has been no exception to this, and the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has called for Japanese universities to implement EMI courses in order to promote students' English proficiency as well as to help attract students from other countries to study in Japan (MEXT, 2012). To that end, in 2009 Japan launched the "Global 30 Project," whose goal was to accept 300,000 international students by 2020 (Tsuchiya & Murillo, 2019). MEXT later replaced this program in 2014 with the Top Global University Project, which funded the internationalization efforts of 37 universities in Japan, with one method being the promotion of EMI courses (MEXT, 2014). Thus, from MEXT's perspective, the propagation of EMI into new areas of content within universities is highly desired.

Research Issues and Questions

Given the fact that Japanese students tend to have low levels of financial literacy and that MEXT would like Japanese universities to expand the number of courses that are taught using EMI, could a personal finance course taught using English as the medium of instruction be used as a tool to not only increase Japanese university students' English proficiency, but also their knowledge of personal finance? That is the question this paper seeks to answer.

Method

Framework for Course

Based on the desire to both improve students' language proficiency and teach students about personal finance, it was decided that the content-based EMI approach would be used in the course. The course is content-driven rather than language driven, meaning that lessons were primarily designed to teach content based on the theme of personal finance, rather than designed to teach specific grammar structures, vocabulary, etc. With the exception of the lesson on cryptocurrency, this course uses only authentic materials created by native English speakers which are primarily intended for native English speakers.

The course has three explicitly stated goals. The first is to improve students' reading fluency, that is, student's ability to read with "accuracy, automaticity, and oral reading prosody" (Kuhn et al., 2010). Students taking this course are required to read numerous articles in English about different aspects of personal finance, and in doing so, students' reading fluency should improve. Second, the course focuses on topics that use much of the same vocabulary words that students will encounter on the TOEIC test. Students participating in this course will be exposed to some of these words, and thus they will be able to improve their performance on the TOEIC. Third, students taking this course learn about various aspects of personal finance (See next section for details). In taking this course, students are expected to be much better equipped to manage their finances and obtain financial freedom once they begin working in the real world.

Class Procedure

Each class follows the same basic procedures. First, students are assigned a short article to read prior to coming to each class which pertains to that week's topic. Students begin each class by taking turns reading out loud a second article related to that week's topic. The instructor occasionally interrupts the readings between paragraphs to provide scaffolding and further explanation regarding the reading content. Students are also free at any time to raise their hand to ask for clarification in regards to unknown vocabulary words and phrases or about difficult concepts in the article that they do not understand. After finishing the article, students answer several discussion questions posed by the instructor which are related to the topic of the two articles. For homework, students write short reflections in approximately 200 words about what they think of that week's lesson and what they learned from the class (whether it be related to the content of the class, new vocabulary words, etc.).

Class Content

The personal finance reading course is broken up into the eight class sessions shown in Table 1. A more detailed description follows.

Table 1

Class Schedule

Week 1	Earning
Week 2	Spending & Saving
Week 3	Credit Cards
Week 4	Investing I
Week 5	Investing II
Week 6	Cryptocurrencies
Week 7	Housing
Week 8	Retirement

Week 1: Earning

In this lesson, students are given an introduction and brief overview of the personal finance course and then are introduced to one of the fundamental components of personal finance: earning. Since almost all TTI students plan to work as engineers in the future, there probably will not be much variance in their primary earning power. Therefore, in this class, students read an article which details additional methods in which they can supplement their income in the future.

Week 2: Spending

In this lesson, students learn about the other key component of building wealth, spending. Many students are under the assumption that the only way to become rich is by having a high salary and earning your way up the wealth ladder. However, in reality, spending tends to be a more effective tool for building wealth since it is something you have far more control over compared to earning money. With this in mind, students are given reading materials which detail various ways to reduce their spending and thus increase their savings.

Week 3: Credit Cards

Many students tend to think of credit cards as an unmitigated good, but there are some serious drawbacks to credit card use that many students may not have considered. As such, in this lesson, students read about some of the advantages of credit cards, such as its convenience, consumer protections, and rewards programs, as well as its disadvantages, such as its interest payments, fees, and how people using credit cards tend to spend more on purchases than people using cash (Prelec & Simester, 2001, Raghubir & Srivastava, 2008).

Week 4: Investing I

As one of the most risk averse people on the planet (Hofstede, n.d.) many Japanese people are very hesitant to begin investing because, in their mind, investing is akin to gambling, with some people making huge returns, and others losing everything. Therefore, great care has to be taken when introducing the topic of investing to Japanese students. For this lesson, students are introduced to two important concepts. First, students read an article that looks at the results of a survey of over 10,000 millionaires living in the U.S. and lists trends and commonalities among them (Ramsey Solutions, 2022). Through reading this article, students learn that most millionaires are just everyday people who have learned how to cut spending effectively and invest consistently. Second, students read an article about the power of compound interest. The formula for compound interest is not very complicated:

$$F = P\left(1 + \frac{r}{n}\right)^{nt}$$

While many of the students at TTI are well aware of this formula, most students have never considered how they can use the principle of compound interest to enrich themselves. To illustrate this concept, students read an article which highlights the massive difference in earning potential that just a few extra years of investment can make (Ramsey Solutions, 2022).

Week 5: Investing II

Having established the principles of investing in the previous class, students are now ready to learn more advanced investing topics. In this lesson, students learn several key concepts. First, they learn about several different kinds of investments, such as stocks, bonds, mutual funds, and index funds. Next, students learn that while individual stocks' prices can go up or down, the long-term average growth for the US stock market is 10% a year. (Royal and

O’Shea, 2022) Therefore, diversifying stock holdings is key, either through holding many different kinds of stocks or by buying instruments like mutual funds and index funds that already contain a diverse selection of stocks. Finally, students are introduced to five different investment strategies: value investing, growth investing, active trading, dollar-cost averaging, and the buy-and-hold strategy (Ramsey Solutions, 2021).

Week 6: Cryptocurrencies

Cryptocurrency is a very difficult topic to cover in an EFL class, but since it has had such a surge in popularity in recent years, it would be irresponsible to not broach the topic. In this lesson, students learn three things. First, students learn about what cryptocurrency is and how it works. Second, students learn about some of the advantages of cryptocurrency, including its limited supply, its freedom from government and corporate oversight, its immutability, and its potential for extremely high returns on investment. Third, students learn about cryptocurrency’s many disadvantages, including its severe impact on the environment (McCarthy, 2021), its transactional bottleneck (Muli, 2019), its high volatility, its complete lack of intrinsic value, its lack of government regulation, its lack of consumer protections, its penchant to attract all manner of scammers and con artists (Karimov & Wojcik, 2021), and the ease at which its price can be manipulated (Griffin & Shams, 2018), among other things.

It should be noted that due to the difficult nature of this topic, authentic reading materials that both were comprehensible to students and also accurately and objectively described the topic of cryptocurrency could not be found for this lesson, so this author carefully summarized the topic in an article of his own making.

Week 7: Housing

Many Japanese people aspire to build and own their own home someday, but they are not always aware of the significant risks involved in house ownership. In this lesson, students read two articles and watch a short video that outline the true financial cost as well as opportunity cost of owning a home. Through this lesson, students learn how to better evaluate the true value of their future living choices in order to make an informed decision.

Week 8: Retirement

The continual decline of the Japanese population has cast suspicions on the sustainability of the Japanese National Pension Service’s ability to provide for people in their old age. While the long-term viability of such a program is still under dispute, the objective of this class is to ensure that students' future retirement plans do not rely on the whims of a handful of politicians in parliament. As such, students read two articles in this lesson. The first article looks at some of the long-term issues facing the National Pension Service in the future. The second article attempts to answer the question, "How much money do you really need to retire?" After reading these articles, students should be able to synthesize everything they have learned in the course in order to plan their path towards financial independence.

Participants and the Research Context

This ongoing class takes place at Toyota Technological Institute (TTI), a small engineering university in Nagoya, Japan, that has a total enrollment of approximately 500 students, and the class is held at TTI's International Communication Plaza (iPlaza). The course is open to everyone, including undergraduate students, graduate students, and post-doc researchers. In the year in which this research took place (2022), 14 students joined the course. Eleven students were male, and three students were female. The students' educational position in the university can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2

Number of Students in Course by Grade Level

1st year bachelor students	0
2nd year bachelor students	3
3rd year bachelor students	3
4th year bachelor students	4
1st year master students	0
2nd year master students	2
Doctoral students	0
Post-doc researchers	2

All bachelor and master students had TOEIC scores of at least 700, with the average coming out to 756. The two post-doc researchers were non-native English speakers from two different countries in Southeast Asia, so they had not taken the TOEIC test before.

This class is completely voluntary, and students enrolled in this course do not receive class credit, but undergraduate students do receive 1 English Step-UP Point (E-SUP point) for each class they participate in and do the homework for (they need 100 E-SUP points to graduate). Students joining the course are told in advance that their responses on the pre-class and post-class surveys will be used both for the purpose of future improvements to the course and for research publication purposes.

Upon entering the course, students were asked, “Why did you want to take this course?” Their responses can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3

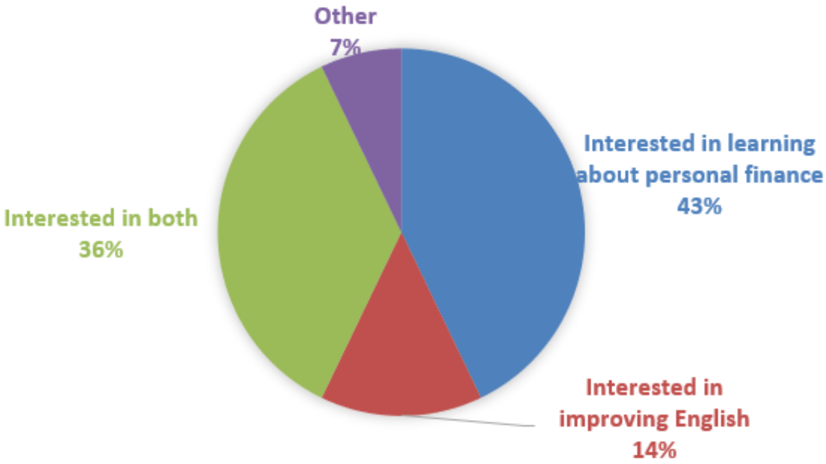
Students Responses Regarding Why They Decided to Take the Course

Introduced by Mr. Matthew in the lecture
For learning finance and English at the same time
Because I want to improve my reading skill, and I'm interested in personal finance.
Because I am interested in finance. I was interested in taking this course last year, but my TOEIC score wasn’t high enough. This year I met the requirements. (Translated from Japanese)
I find the topic interesting, and I want to learn about personal finance in Japan
I want an environment to use English.
Because I had never studied economics much before, so I wanted to get a grasp of the basics. (Translated from Japanese)
I'm interested in English and finance.
I didn't take any English class for this semester, so I thought I need to be active in iPlaza.
I want to learn more about investing to make extra money in the future.
Because I want to learn English and because I’m also interested in the content of the class. I wasn’t sure if my English was good enough to take the class, but the employees at iPlaza assured me that I was fine.
Actually I was planning to participate this course last year. But unfortunately, I had a lesson on the exact same time which this course was held. So this year, I'm looking forward to know more about financing and willing to improve my English speaking skill
I would like to handle my finances properly not only while I am living in Japan but also in general.
To have an insight about earning and spending

From this, we can break down the results into the following simplified graph in Figure 1 (following page). Looking at the results, we can see that over three quarters of students entering the course did so at least in part because they were interested in personal finance, half the students were interested in learning English, with the overlap between those two of 36% of the total students being interested in both.

Figure 1

Simplified results answering the question, "Why did you want to take this course?"



Data Collection Instruments and Procedures:

At the beginning of the course, students are asked to fill out a pre-class survey on Google Forms with one open-ended question and 11 close-ended questions that try to ascertain the following things:

Students' current English proficiency

Students' self-assessed general knowledge of personal finance

Students' values regarding finances

Students' expectations for the course (see Appendix A for complete pre-class survey)

At the end of the course, students are asked to fill out a post-class survey with three open-ended questions and 11 close-ended questions that are similar to the questions on the pre-class survey (see Appendix B for complete post-class survey).

Upon completion of both surveys, the results were compared to see if students' English proficiency, self-assessed knowledge of personal finance, and financial values have changed, as well as to see if their expectations for the class have been met. Quantitative data was compared using within-subject design t-tests due to having fewer than 30 students enrolled in the course. These t-tests were calculated by hand without the aid of any advanced statistical software.

Results/Findings

Out of the 14 students who have participated in this course so far, only 11 took both the pre-class survey and post-class survey. The following are the results of the survey questions as listed in Appendices A & B.

First, in the pre-class and post-class surveys, students were asked the following questions:

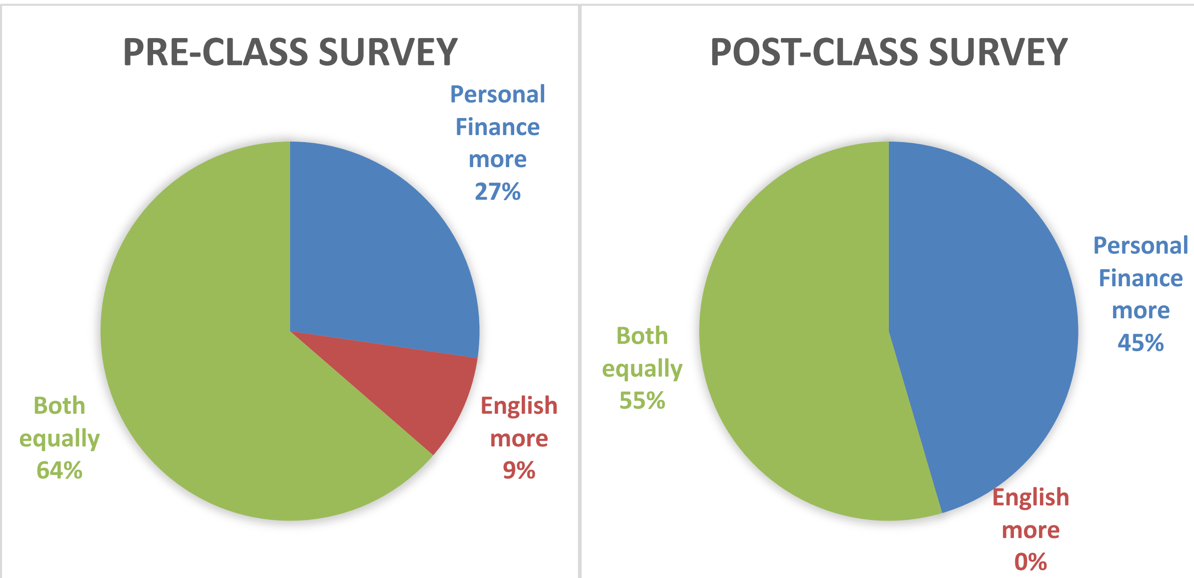
Pre-Class survey: Are you taking this class primarily to learn more English, or primarily to learn about personal finance?

Post-Class Survey: Do you think this course improved your knowledge of English or personal finance more?

The results are shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Purpose of Taking Class and Final Learning Results



From these results, we can see that the majority of students expected to learn both an equal amount of English and personal finance. Upon completion of the course, most students did say they learned the two equally, but not to the degree that they expected they would, and nearly half of students said they learned more about personal finance, while no one said they learned more English.

Next, we want to ascertain what skills students thought they would improve through the course and what skills they actually did improve. Therefore, the following questions were included in the survey:

Pre-Class survey: In what ways do you hope that this course will improve your English proficiency? Please select all options that apply.

-vocabulary
-grammar
-listening ability
-speaking skills
-reading ability
-writing skills
-confidence using English in general

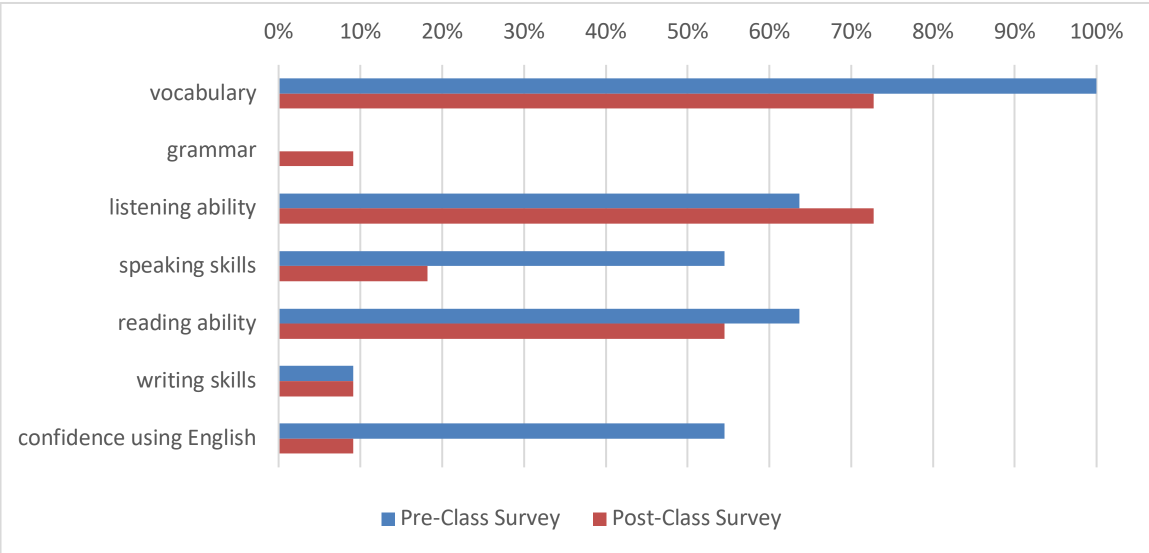
Post-Class Survey: In what ways do you think this course improved your English proficiency? Please select all options that apply.

-vocabulary
-grammar
-listening ability
-speaking skills
-reading ability
-writing skills
-confidence using English in general

The results are displayed below in Figure 3.

Figure 3

Students Anticipated Language Skill Improvements vs. Actual Results.¥



From these results, we can see that most students expected to be able to improve their vocabulary, listening ability, speaking skills, reading ability, and confidence in using English. While most students indicated that they did indeed increase their vocabulary (although to a lesser extent than expected), listening ability, and reading ability, only a few students indicated that their speaking skills and confidence in using English had improved to the extent that they had expected it. It should also be noted that all but one student indicated that they had improved their English ability in at least one of these skill areas.

Next, to get a more objective sense of whether students' English was improving or not, we asked students what their most recent TOEIC score was before and after the class. Most students at TTI (but not all) take the TOEIC test once a semester. The results are shown in Table 4. It should be noted that one of the students in the class had never taken the TOEIC test before, so this participant was unable to answer this question. Additionally, it is suspected that three students did not take the TOEIC test again between the pre-class survey and post-class survey, hence their self-reported most recent TOEIC scores remained the same.

Table 4

Students' TOEIC Scores

Participant number	Pre-Class Survey	Post-Class Survey
1	775	685
2	765	900
3	745	780
4	825	825
5	750	780
6	730	735
7	700	715
8	755	755
9	800	800
10	715	745

Pre-class survey student average: 756
Post-class survey student average: 772

From these results, we can see that the students in the class improved their TOEIC score by an average of 16 points. While it would be presumptuous to assume that this increase could solely be attributed to participation in this class, it is worth noting that the vast majority of students in the class were not taking any other English courses during this time, which is one reason they wanted to take the personal finance course in the first place.

In order to ascertain whether this improvement was statistically significant or not, a two-tailed t-test utilizing within-subject design was conducted. In order to achieve a confidence interval greater than 95%, a t-score of 2.262 was needed. However, after conducting the t-test, the t-score was only 1.73. Therefore, the results from this question were not statistically significant. More data will need to be gathered in the future in order to determine if students' English proficiency did in fact improve as a result of taking this class.

Not only did we wish to gather information about changes in students' English skills, but we also wanted to gather information about students' personal finance knowledge and values. To that end, students were asked a series of questions specifically about personal finance issues.

First, students were asked to rate themselves on a scale of 1 – 5 about how knowledgeable they were about personal finance, with "1" meaning " I know nothing about personal finance" and "5" meaning " I know most things about personal finance."

The results are shown below in Table 5.

Table 5

Students' self-rating regarding knowledge of personal finance, on a scale of 1-5.

Participant Number	Pre-Class Survey	Post-Class Survey
1	1	4
2	2	4
3	2	4
4	2	4
5	3	5
6	1	2
7	1	5
8	4	5
9	1	4
10	2	3
11	1	3

Pre-class survey student average: 1.8
Post-class survey student average: 3.9

Since students were not studying about personal finance outside of the class, it can be assumed that this increase is due to students' participation in the course. In order to ascertain whether these results were statistically significant or not, a two-tailed t-test utilizing within-subject design was conducted. The resulting t-score was 7.347, which greatly exceeds 4.587, which is the t-score needed to have a confidence interval of over 99.9%. Therefore, these results are indeed statistically significant, demonstrating that according to the students' perceptions, their knowledge of personal finance increased greatly.

Next, students were asked the following question about spending vs. earning in the pre-class and post-class surveys:

Which do you think is more important when attempting to gain wealth?

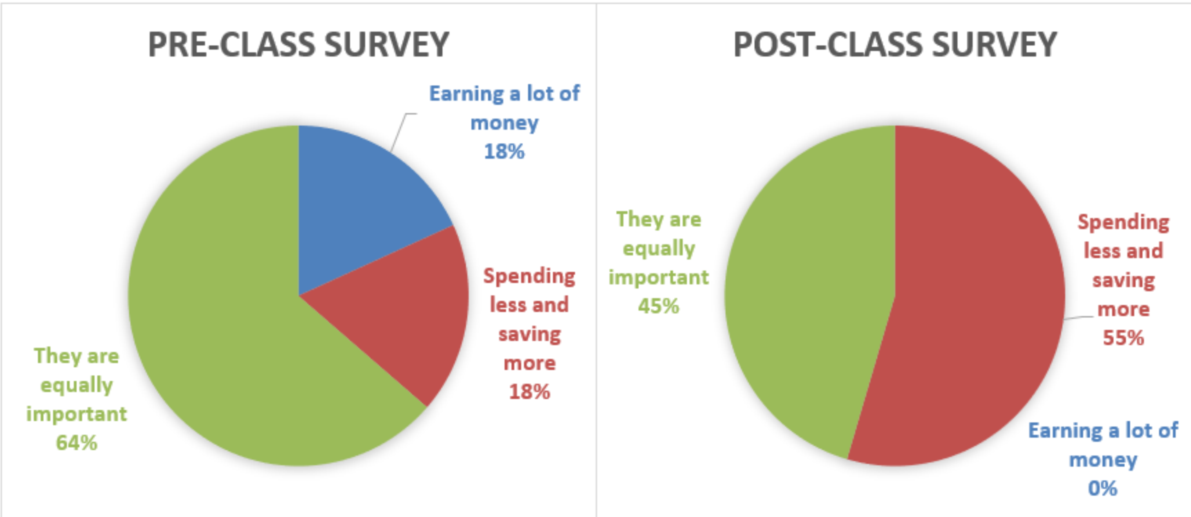
-Earning a lot of money

-Spending less and saving more

-They are both equally important

Figure 4

Answers to "Which do you think is more important when attempting to gain wealth?"



The results are shown in Figure 4, above. From these results, we can see that many students had a change in values during their time in the class. This is likely due to the fact that students read articles that suggested that reducing spending was a more effective way to increase savings rather than increasing earnings, especially since many Japanese companies' salary levels are fixed based on seniority rather than merit, which makes increasing earnings very difficult to do.

Next, students were asked the question, "In the future (after you graduate), what percent of your income do you plan to save every month? (Write "I don't know" if you don't know.)" The results are shown in Table 6 on the following page:

Table 6

Students' Future Income Savings Plans

Pre-class survey student average: 29% (36% "I don't know")
Post-class survey student average: 22% (9% "I don't know")

At first glance, it would appear that taking the class caused students to save less not more, but upon further analysis, we see a significant percentage of the class initially had no savings plan at all, and as a result of taking the class, they were able to decide upon savings plans, so this could still possibly be seen as a success.

Next, students were asked how they planned to save and invest their money in the future. The results are shown in Figure 5 on the following page. From Figure 5, we can see there were a number of changes between the pre-class survey results and post-survey results. First of all, after taking the class, there was a huge surge in interest in investing in stocks, mutual funds, and index funds, with 100% of students indicating in the post-class survey that they planned to invest this way. Second, students ceased having any interest in investing in cryptocurrency after completing the course. Third, the number of students interested in buying governments bonds doubled in the post-class survey.

Next, students were asked, "20 years from now, what kind of place do you plan to live in?" The results can be seen in Figure 6 on the following page. From these results we can see that over the course of the class, the undecided students made decisions about their future housing plans, fewer students became interested in buying new houses, and more people became interested in renting apartments. This demonstrates that students are beginning to think for themselves about what living situations are specifically in their own best interests in the near future.

Figure 5

How Students Plan to Save and Invest Their Money in the Future.

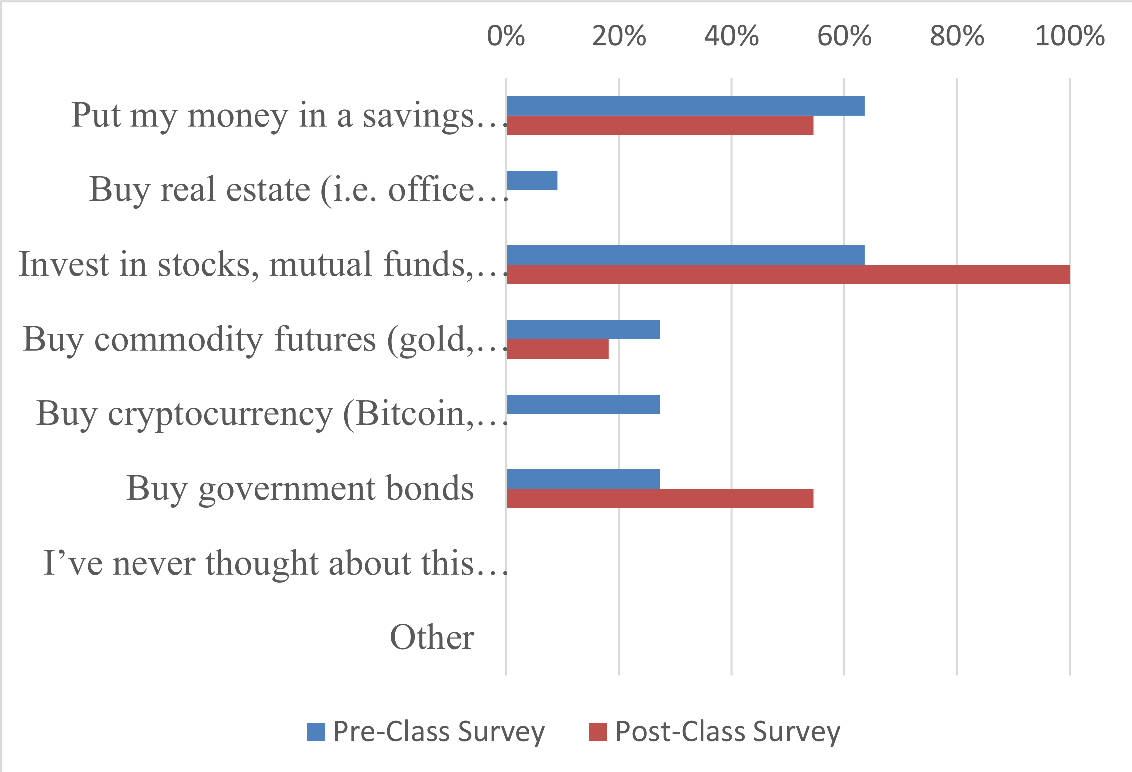
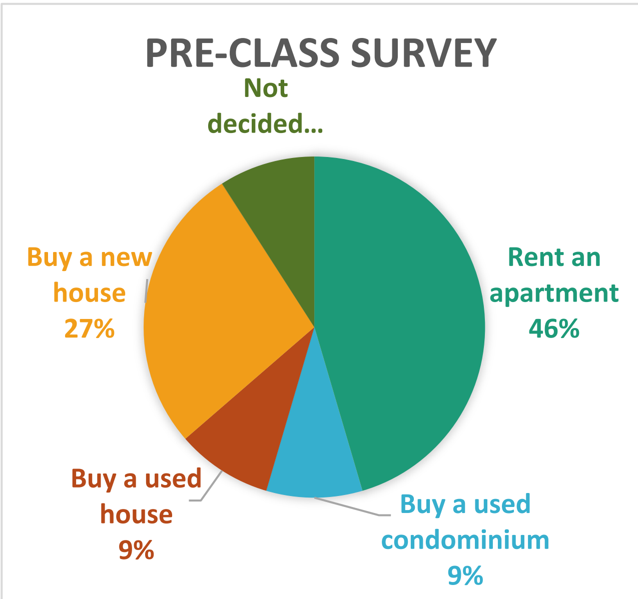
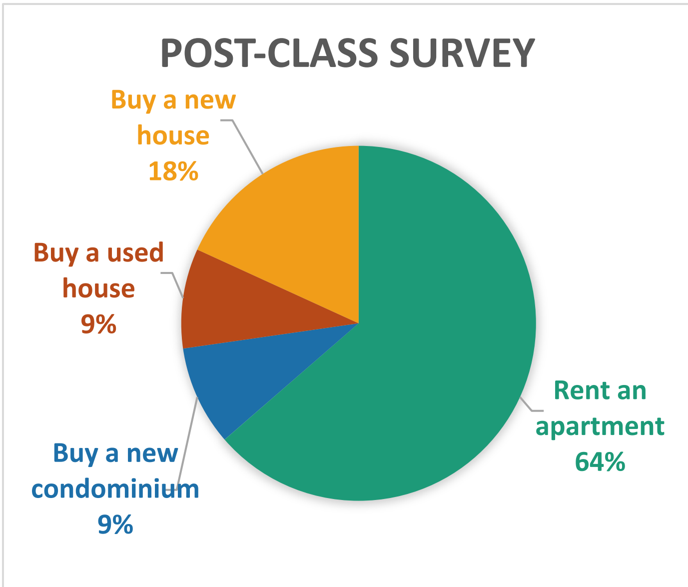


Figure 6

Students' housing plans in 20 years





For the next item, students were asked in both surveys what age they planned to retire. The results are shown on the next page in Table 7.

Table 7

Students' Planned Retirement Age

Pre-class survey student average: 61 (1 Never retire)
Post-class survey student average: 61.1 (2 Never retire)

From these results, we can see there was little to no change between the pre-class and post-class surveys, so despite one of the focuses of the class being on saving for retirement, this class seemed to have very little effect on students' intended age of retirement.

Next, students were asked in both surveys how much money they thought they would have at retirement. The results are shown in Table 8. From these results, we can see that not only were students more confident in how much money they would have at retirement (since everyone was able to give a number in the post-class survey), but also the amount of money students expected to have at retirement doubled. While the reasons for students' increased confidence in their anticipated level of retirement savings goes beyond the scope of the data gathered in the surveys, based on the responses on students' weekly reflections, it is suspected that the main reason for this doubling is because students learned about the power of compound interest during the two lessons on investing and realized how much money they stand to gain by investing early on in their careers.

Table 8

Students Anticipated Level of Savings at Retirement.

Pre-class survey student average: ¥36,666,667 (2 Not sure)
Post-class survey student average: ¥ 72,818,182

For the next item, students were asked how much money they thought they would need at retirement. The results are shown in Table 9.

Table 9

Students' Estimate as to How Much Money They Will Need When They Retire.

Pre-class survey student average: ¥51,250,000 (3 Not sure)
Post-class survey student average: ¥ 61,600,000 (1 Not sure)

There are a number of conclusions we can draw from these results. First, students were more confident about how much money they needed at retirement since more students wrote down numbers for this question in the post-class survey. Second, students realized they would need a bit more money at retirement than they had originally anticipated. Third, comparing the results of this question with the last one, students did not think they would be able to save enough money for retirement in the pre-class survey, but in the post-class survey, students became confident that they will have more than enough money than what will be needed at retirement.

Next, in the post-class survey only, students were asked which lesson they thought was the most valuable to them and why. The results are shown in Table 10:

Table 10

Students' Opinions about Which Class They Found to Be Most Valuable

Week 4: Investing 1
Week 5: Investing 2. It's given me confidence that I'm starting to invest in index funds.
Investment I learned a lot of specifics about investing.
Retirement was valuable to me because I don't think about it in daily life.
Retirement
The one about investment is the most valuable to me because there is much knowledge that I didn't know before.
Spending - It was the most beneficial topic for me.
For me, lesson about cryptocurrency was most valuable because I've never learned about this topic and have been interested in it.
Class of Investing because I was just thinking to save all my money in my bank account, and I learned that the value of money is decreasing annually.
Investment because I thought it was a way to increase money with little risk.
The method of good investment was helpful to me. For example, I learned the problems of day trading. Before the class, I was afraid of investing, so I was thinking that I would just deposit money in the bank, but I have found that if I start investing from a young age, I can save money efficiently. That's the best part.

From these results, we can see that that the two investing lessons were by far the most popular classes with students. Students' responses tended to echo the same thing regarding these two lessons: Prior to the lessons, they either did not know much about investing at all or thought it was a risky endeavor and had planned to put most of their money in a bank account, but thanks to what they learned in class, they realized how much they stood to gain by investing and thus gained the confidence to do so. The second most popular lesson was the one on retirement, with one student noting how they had not really thought about retirement planning before taking the class. Thus, from these results, it can be concluded that the decision to spend two classes covering the topic of investing was warranted.

Next, on the post-class survey, students were asked which class was the least valuable to them. The results are shown in Table 11.

Table 11

Students' Opinions about Which Class They Found to Be the Least Valuable

Week 2 spending, because while spending control was important, methods for doing so were not new knowledge.
Earning. I understand that saving is more important than that after the class but it doesn't mean it's useless.
All lessons were valuable to me.
Investing 1 was not valuable to me because I knew about basic information of Investment.
None
The first one (earning). This is because the class was a list of knowledge. I don't have to attend the class. I can know the thing if I read the documents.
I don't have it.
There aren't such a class but there are difficult article for me to read.
Class of earning money. Because it was about earning little money for little jobs. But it doesn't mean to remove the class because it is a necessary topic to begin the course.
Credit Cards Because there were many things I already knew.
bit coin. because I wasn't interested in bitcoin.

From these results, we can see that there was not much consensus about which class was the least valuable, but the first class on earning was chosen by the most students. When making their choices, most students indicated that they made their selection because they already knew the contents of the lesson, but some students emphasized that they still thought that these concepts were very important for everyone to know.

Table 12

Students' Answers to the Question, "Would You Recommend This Class to Others?"

I will recommend to start investing as early as possible.
I'd do. It was the first time for me to take a legit finance course and I learned a lot. Everyone should know about finance.
Yes. You can improve English skills, especially reading skill, and learn about money management.

Yes I would. We can improve listening and reading skills in this class.
Yes, definitely will recommend this class to others.
I recommend this class because it’s a valuable opportunity to speak English regularly.
I will because this class gave me a lot of fundamental and important knowledge for my money and became the time to review my future plan.
Of course, I'll recommend this class because it's informative, especially about finance. Matthew’s advice in this class should be helpful when I encounter financial problems.
I recommend this class to my friends, because "personal finance" is something everyone will use, but you won't learn in normal class.
Yes. It is worth taking the class because there are so many things you can't afford not to know.
I will recommend this course to my friends. I think it's a good idea to learn about money before getting a job.

Finally, on the post-class survey, students were asked if they would recommend this class to others. The results are shown in Table 12. Looking at the results, 100% of the students who completed the survey said they would recommend the class to others, with the most common reason being the usefulness of the information about personal finance, and the second most common reason being that students could improve their English skills.

Discussion

Looking at these results, it appears that the students who took this course and completed both surveys seem to have appreciated the course and benefited in some way. First, every single student who took the post-class survey said that they would recommend this class to others in the future. Based on this, we can only presume that they found the course useful.

Second, all but one student self-reported some kind of improvement in their English proficiency. TOEIC scores also went up on average. However, the gain in TOEIC scores was not statistically significant, so we cannot conclude that the increase in scores was necessarily a result of students taking this class. Even if the results had been statistically significant, it would not necessarily have followed that this was solely due to the course since students may have been learning English on their own time while taking this class. Nevertheless, it is somewhat reassuring that the vast majority of students at least perceived their English ability to have improved as a result of the class, and this provides some justification for continuation of the course. Additionally, implementation of this course also aligns well with MEXT’s goal of expanding EMI courses into Japanese universities (MEXT, 2014), which provides further justification for its inclusion in university curriculum.

Third, this course seems to have improved students' financial literacy. This was measured in two ways. First, students' self-evaluation regarding their knowledge of personal finance greatly improved between surveys, with every single student who took the course and completed both surveys indicating an increase, and this change was shown to have been statistically significant. Second, students' values and opinions regarding issues in personal finance also seem to have changed as a result of taking the course. Students began gravitating towards cutting spending as the primary means to increase savings as opposed to increasing earnings. Students became more interested in investing in stocks, index funds, mutual funds, and government bonds in the future. Students also became more interested in renting an apartment in the future as opposed to other living arrangements, such as buying a house. More students also became able to predict how much money they would need to have at retirement. Finally, students gained an increased confidence that they would have enough money saved at retirement to match their anticipated level of need. While it is impossible to prove that all of the new values and opinions that students espoused in the post-class survey are objectively better than their previous views, the changes at the very least demonstrate that students are engaging with the content of the course and thinking for themselves about their financial prospects in the future.

There are three main limitations to this study. First, 14 students have participated in this course so far, but three students did not complete both the pre-class and post-class surveys. This was due to a variety of reasons, some of which did not in any way pertain to dissatisfaction in the course, such as one student switching universities before the end of the semester. In any case, it is impossible to know what these dropouts would have indicated if they had completed both surveys, but there are concerns that their answers might have differed from the students who completed both surveys, and this could potentially threaten the validity and generalizability of the results.

Second, while this study did observe an increase in students' financial literacy by analyzing students' self-evaluations and the changes in their financial values and opinions over time, these two methods were not quantitatively objective and instead relied on self-perceptions and self-reporting. Testing instruments akin to those developed by Lusardi and Mitchell (2011) would have given more definitive quantitative data on changes to students' financial literacy over time. Perhaps this could be explored in future studies on this topic.

Third, this study had a very limited dataset since only 11 students completed both surveys. One consequence of this was that the case for utilizing EMI to teach personal finance was not as strong as it could have been since the increases in students' TOEIC scores did not end up being statistically significant. More data points would help to mitigate this problem. However, since this study is still ongoing, it is hoped that this particular problem will be rectified in the future as more students participate in the course.

Conclusion

Based on the information presented here, it seems quite apparent that there is a great need for personal finance education in Japan. A personal finance reading course, such as the one outlined above, seems to be a great way to kill two birds with one stone by both increasing students' financial literacy levels while at the same time increasing their English proficiency. The results from this particular study have been positive so far in both of these aspects, so perhaps this is an area of instruction in which other English teachers in Japan might choose to pursue in their own classrooms in the future. So far, the course described in detail here has been confined to the seven topics of earning, spending, credit cards, investing, cryptocurrency, housing, and retirement, but lessons for more topics are actively being developed for future use, with the hopes that this course will be able to fit into a standard 15-week semester in the near future.

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BIO DATA

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Appendix A: Pre-class Survey

The following survey was taken by students before the start of each semester's class:

1. Why did you want to take this course? このコースに申し込んだ理由をお聞かせください。

2. Are you taking this class primarily to learn more English, or primarily to learn about personal finance?

この講座を希望したのは主に英語を学びたいからですか、それとも personal finance について学びたいからですか。一つ選択してください。

-Primarily to learn English 主に英語を学びたい

-Primarily to learn about personal finance 主に personal finance を学びたい

-Both equally 同じ比重で両方学びたい

3. In what ways do you hope that this course will improve your English proficiency? Please select all options that apply.

このコースを受講することで、以下のどの英語力が伸びると期待していますか。複数回答可。

-vocabulary 語彙力

-grammar 文法

-listening ability リスニング力

-speaking skills スピーキング力

-reading ability リーディング力

-writing skills ライティング力

-confidence using English in general 英語を使うことの自信

4. What was your most recent TOIEC score? 直近の TOEIC スコアを教えてください。

5. On a scale of 1 - 5, how knowledgeable do you think you are about personal finance? With"1" meaning " I know nothing about personal finance" and "5" meaning " I know most things about personal finance".

personal finance についてどれくらい知識があると思いますか。1～5 で記入してください。1 全く知識がない ～ 5 知識がある

6. Which do you think is more important when attempting to gain wealth?

富を得ようとするには何が大切だと思いますか。

-Earning a lot of money たくさん収入を得ること

-Spending less and saving more 支出を抑えより多く預貯金にまわすこと

-They are equally important 上記 2 つは同等に大切

7. In the future (after you graduate), what percent of your income do you plan to save every month? (Write “I don’t know” if you don’t know.) ____%

卒業後、毎月収入の何％くらい預貯金するつもりですか。わからなければ “I don’t know”と記入してください。

8. How do you plan to save/invest your money in the future? Please check all that apply.

将来どのように預貯金/ 投資するつもりですか。複数回答可。

-Put my money in a savings account in my bank. 自分の銀行口座に預金する

-Buy real estate (i.e. office buildings, shops, apartments, and homes) 不動産投資 （事務所、店舗、アパート、マンション家など）

-Invest in stocks, mutual funds, and index funds. 株、投資信託、インデックスファンド

-Buy commodity futures (gold, oil, food, etc.) 商品先物（金、オイル、食品など）

-Buy cryptocurrency (Bitcoin, Ethereum, etc.) 仮想通貨（ビットコイン、イーサリアムなど）

-Buy government bonds 国債

-I’ve never thought about this before. 考えたことがない。

-Other: ___________________

9. 20 years from now, what kind of place do you plan to live in?

20 年後にどんな住まいに住んでいたいですか。

-Rent an apartment 賃貸マンション

-Rent a house 戸建て賃貸

-Buy a used condominium 中古分譲マンション

-Buy a new condominium 新築分譲マンション

-Buy a used house 中古一戸建て

-Buy a new house 新築一戸建て

-Live in a parent's house for free 親と同居（家賃なし）

-Other: ___________________

10. At what age do you plan to retire?

何歳でリタイアしたいですか。

11. How much money do you think you will have when you retire?

定年時にいくらお金があると思いますか。

12. How much money do you think you need to retire?

リタイアするのにいくらお金が必要だと思いますか。

Appendix B: Post-class Survey

The following survey was taken by students in each class upon its conclusion.

1. Do you think this course improved your knowledge of English or personal finance more?

この講座を受講して英語力が伸びたと感じますか、それとも personal finance についての知識がついたと思いますか。一つ選択してください。

-English more

-Personal Finance more

-Both equally

2. In what ways do you think this course improved your English proficiency? Please select all options that apply.

受講して、どの英語力がついたと感じますか。複数回答可。

-vocabulary 語彙力

-grammar 文法

-listening ability リスニング力

-speaking skills スピーキング力

-reading ability リーディング力

-writing skills ライティング力

-confidence using English in general 英語を使うことの自信

-My English proficiency did not improve 英語力は伸びなかった

3. What was your most recent TOIEC score?

直近の TOEIC スコアを教えてください。

4. Now that you have finished this class, on a scale of 1 – 5, how knowledgeable do you think you are about personal finance? (With "1" meaning "I know nothing about personal finance" and 5 meaning "I know most things about personal finance.")

受講し終えた今、personal finance についてどれくらい見識が深まったと思いますか。レベル 1 から 5 の中から選択してください。（レベル 1 ；personal finance について理

解していない。レベル５；personal finance についてほぼ理解している。）

5. Which do you think is more important when attempting to gain wealth?

富を得ようとするには何が大切だと思いますか。

-Earning a lot of money たくさん収入を得ること

-Spending less and saving more 支出を抑えより多く預貯金にまわすこと

-They are equally important 上記２つは同等に大切

6. In the future (after you graduate), what percent of your income do you plan to save every month? (Write “I don’t know” if you don’t know.) ____%

卒業後、毎月収入の何％くらい預貯金するつもりですか。わからなければ “I don’t know”と記入してください。

7. How do you plan to save/invest your money in the future? Please check all that apply.

将来どのように預貯金/ 投資するつもりですか。複数回答可。

-Put my money in a savings account in my bank. 自分の銀行口座に預貯金する

-Buy real estate (i.e. office buildings, shops, apartments, and homes) 不動産投資 （事務所、店舗、賃貸住宅(家主)）

-Invest in stocks, mutual funds, and index funds. 株、投資信託、インデックスファンド

-Buy commodity futures (gold, oil, food, etc.) 先物取引（金、オイル、食物など）

-Buy cryptocurrency (Bitcoin, Ethereum, etc.) 仮想通貨（ビットコイン、イーサリアムなど）

-Buy government bonds 国債

-I’ve never thought about this before. 考えたことがない。

-Other: ______________________

8. 20 years from now, what kind of place do you plan to live in?

20 年後にどんな住まいに住んでいたいですか。

-Rent an apartment 賃貸マンション

-Rent a house 戸建て賃貸

-Buy a used condominium 中古分譲マンション

-Buy a new condominium 新築分譲マンション

-Buy a used house 中古一戸建て(持ち家）

-Buy a new house 新築一戸建て(持ち家）

-Live in a parent’s house for free 親と同居（家賃なし）

-Other: ______________________

9. At what age do you plan to retire?

何歳でリタイアしたいですか。

10. How much money do you think you will have when you retire?

定年時にいくらお金があると思いますか。

11. How much money do you think you need to retire?

リタイアするのにいくらお金が必要だと思いますか。

12. Out of all our personal finance lessons during this semester, which lesson do you think was the most valuable to you? Why?

今回の personal finance の中で、どのトピックが有益でしたか。理由をご記入ください。

13. Out of all our personal finance lessons during this semester, which lesson do you think was the least valuable to you? Why?

今回の personal finance レッスンの中で、どのレッスン内容が面白くなかったですか。理由をご記入ください。

14. Would you recommend this class to others? Why or why not?

このコースの受講を他の人に勧めますか。勧める場合はその理由、勧めない場合も、その理由をご記入ください。

The Correlation Between Language Learning Motivation and Writing Motivation

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Abstract
This research paper aims to examine the correlation between language learning motivation and writing motivation based on quantitative data collected from 250 Japanese EFL learners. Dörnyei and Taguchi's (2010) questionnaire for exploring language learning motivation and Graham et al.'s (2022) questionnaire for exploring writing motivation were adopted and combined for this investigation. The data were analysed using Kendall's tau correlation coefficient and Bayes factors. The results revealed (very) weak-to-moderate positive correlation between language learning motivation and writing motivation. Therefore, these two variables are not interchangeable. Based on these statistical findings, I suggest that (second or foreign language) writing teachers should examine both language learning motivation and writing motivation to validate their assumptions about students' writing proficiency development. To further examine their motivation strength, specific motivation types (e.g., promotion, prevention, grades, competition, cultural interest, and curiosity) should also be selected based on writing course goals.

Keywords: language learning motivation, writing motivation, correlational study, Bayes factor

Extensive research has been conducted on learner motivation since the 1980s (Gardner, 1985; Dörnyei, 2013; Loewen, 2020). Notably, a significant surge in research on motivation has been detected since 2009 (Boo et al., 2015; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). As motivation is considered one of the most important individual difference variables for engaging in and disengaging from language learning and other activities (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021; Gass et al., 2020; Lightbown & Spada, 2021), researchers sometimes conduct surveys to examine learner motivation and predict learning outcomes. Ryan (2019) maintains that many recent studies aim to investigate and further understand the relationships between motivation and other research areas, such as speech development and linguistic awareness. Nevertheless, as various complex factors, including teacher beliefs, learning circumstances, and cultural and social beliefs regarding the necessity of target languages and activities, can affect motivation, definitive conclusions are difficult to draw in motivation studies.

In this research paper, second language is defined as any additional language that a person uses in second or foreign language contexts. In the field of second language writing, language learning motivation is adopted as a variable to examine a correlation to writing development and proficiency. On the other hand, as the degree of motivation varies depending on activities, writing motivation is utilised to predict writing outcomes. Although it seems that language learning motivation and writing motivation can be used interchangeably, the correlation between language learning motivation and writing motivation still needs to be investigated so as to validate research findings and judge the appropriate use of motivation types in second or foreign language writing research studies. Therefore, to address this research issue, the present study was conducted with 250 Japanese EFL university students in central Japan.

Literature Review

Motivation

In this research paper, motivation is defined as reasons for engaging in specific activities, including language learning and writing. As Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) highlighted, "it provides the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain the long, often tedious learning process" (p. 72). Hashemian and Heidari (2013) also mentioned that motivation strength can affect language learners' successful learning involvement in complex tasks. Learners with high language learning motivation can develop their language abilities faster and engage in learning more deeply than those with low language learning motivation (Gass et al., 2020). These arguments can also be applied to writing activities; writing motivation can be a stimulus for engaging in writing activities and maintaining a longitudinal writing process.

Regardless of the target activities (e.g., language learning and writing), motivation can be categorised into various orientations, such as instrumental motivation (e.g., motivation to promote careers and earn more profits) and integrative motivation (e.g., motivation to be involved in the target community and to know about the target cultures and subject matter). Lightbown and Spada (2021) stated that both instrumental and integrative motivation are relevant to (un)successful language learning outcomes, learner autonomy, and learning engagement, even though the type of motivation can be considered a better predictor of language learning outcomes. For example, Shibata's (2019) case study on two Japanese EFL high school students' outside-of-class learning reported that a successful language learner had both instrumental and integrative motivation types, whereas an unsuccessful learner had only instrumental motivation to learn English outside the classroom. Based on these findings, having both types of language learning motivation can facilitate language learning more noticeably than having only one motivation type.

Since language learning is a broad activity, it is necessary to explore the motivation to engage in specific (learning) activities in order to estimate the potential of learners. In fact, Dörnyei (2020) stated that although much research has been conducted to delve into the roles of motivation in general second language learning engagement, few studies have investigated the differences between overall second language learning motivation and other types of motivation to develop specific language abilities and activities, such as second language writing abilities and activities. This limitation illustrates the importance of estimating associations between language learning motivation and other kinds of motivation to be able to fully comprehend the roles of motivation in fostering or hindering second language learning and activities.

Language Learning Motivation and Writing Outcomes and Proficiency. In the field of second language writing, correlations between language learning motivation and writing outcomes and proficiency have been investigated. Hashemian and Heidari (2013), for example, conducted a research study between language learning motivation/attitudes and second language writing performance with 30 Iranian postgraduate students of Teaching English as a Foreign Language. Correlational statistical test results revealed a moderate positive relationship between integrative motivation and second language writing test scores; however, no significant correlation was found between instrumental motivation and second language writing test scores. They also discovered that learners' attitudes towards writing activities can affect second language writing performance. Based on these findings, Hashemian and Heidari (2013) maintained that integrative motivation and attitudes towards writing could play an important role in successful second language writing performance. These findings might suggest that the strength of integrative language learning motivation can estimate learning outcomes (Lightbown & Spada, 2021). However, Hashemian and Heidari's (2013) study had a noticeable limitation in terms of the small sample size (N=30), which could affect the distribution and statistical test results. Accordingly, larger sample sizes are vital to further examine the correlation between learners' affective variables (e.g., language learning motivation and attitudes) and second language writing abilities. Although the data collection instruments were different, Nasihah and Cahyono (2017) investigated the correlation between language learning motivation and second language writing achievement among 100 Indonesian EFL upper secondary school students and reported on a statistically significant positive correlation between language learning motivation and second language writing achievement. This research finding emphasises the importance of arousing students' language learning motivation in order to facilitate their continuous engagement in learning to write and their writing achievement.

Writing Motivation and Writing Outcomes and Proficiency. Since writing is the main activity in second language writing classes, motivation to write has also been investigated to examine its correlations with various factors, such as willingness to write, writing experiences, writing performance and proficiency, in order to contemplate possible methods for writing teachers to develop learners' writing engagement and writing abilities. Wright et al. (2019) mentioned that writing motivation strengths can predict writers' performance and form learners writing experiences and outcomes. Rafiee and Abbasian-Naghneh (2020) also reported on a strong positive correlation between writing motivation and willingness to write, based on quantitative data collected from 157 upper-intermediate English majors in Iran. Similarly, Süğümlü et al. (2019) explored the correlation between writing motivation and writing abilities in Turkish secondary educational contexts. Quantitative data collected from 230 students indicated that learners with a higher writing motivation acquired higher writing test scores. In addition, positive relationships between writing frequency and writing motivation were detected. Based on these findings, Süğümlü et al. (2019) stated that writing motivation can influence writing engagement and performance. Cahyono and Rahayu (2020) also reported on positive relationships between writing motivation and writing proficiency and found that female students had higher writing motivation and higher writing proficiency. Other studies have also illustrated that learners with higher writing motivation improve their writing performance, whereas learners with lower writing motivation do not fully engage in writing activities (Fritzsche et al., 2003; Hayes, 1996; Wright et al., 2019). Accordingly, the positive correlations between writing motivation and writing engagement, abilities, and outcomes can be considered generalisable.

The roles of writing motivation in writing engagement have been discovered (Graham et al., 2021). Nevertheless, in order to further consider possible pedagogical approaches to develop learners' writing abilities and engagement, writing teachers and researchers still need to raise their awareness of other psychological factors, such as writing anxiety and self-efficacy. Li (2022), and Sabti et al. (2019) investigated the relationship between writing motivation and various forms of psychological anxiety and self-efficacy, and discovered positive associations between writing self-efficacy and writing motivation, as well as negative associations between writing motivation and writing psychological anxiety. Based on these results, both studies highlighted the necessity of increasing learners' writing motivation and alleviating their writing anxiety. Similarly, Yu et al. (2019) also underlined the importance of teacher roles in enhancing learners' writing motivation and engagement whilst reducing their negative psychological factors and disengagement. These arguments are applicable to developing language learning motivation and conducting language learning activities. Hence, examining learners' language learning motivation and writing motivation may be important for second language writing teachers and researchers to design and develop materials and curricula for writing courses to facilitate their language learning and writing activities. However, the associations between these two psychological variables have not been fully investigated.

Research Issues and Research Questions

Although a noticeable surge of research studies on motivation has been detected in the second language acquisition and applied linguistics fields (Boo et al., 2015; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015), this does not necessarily mean that any motivation type can be utilised interchangeably to explore learners' language proficiency levels and learning outcomes. In the field of second language writing, two positive correlations have been found: (1) between language learning motivation and second language writing ability development, and (2) between writing motivation and second language writing ability development. However, few studies have explored the relationship between language learning motivation and writing motivation. Nonetheless, researchers still need to articulate the correlation between these two psychological variables to contemplate whether these motivation types can be used interchangeably in future second language writing research studies and second language writing classes. Therefore, this correlational study aims to address this issue. As language learning motivation and writing motivation have two main traits (instrumental motivation and integrative motivation), the following two research questions (RQ) were formulated:

RQ 1: To what extent does instrumental language learning motivation correlate with instrumental writing motivation?

RQ 2: To what extent does integrative language learning motivation correlate with integrative writing motivation?

Method

Participants and the Research Context

In this study, 250 Japanese EFL learners (125 males and 125 females) in central Japan completed an anonymous online survey to explore the correlation between language learning motivation and writing motivation. At the end of July 2021, I explained the research purpose to the participants in Japanese in order to avoid miscommunication. As the English courses were compulsory, the students were also assured that they could complete the survey under the condition of anonymity, and that their answers would not affect their academic grades. In the following class, all students consented to participate in this correlational study and took the online survey via Google Forms.

The demographic data illustrated that their ages ranged between 18 and 22 years, and their academic majors included human relations, psychology, business, technology, jurisprudence, English language teaching, British and American culture, English communication, and world liberal arts. In addition, the survey results also indicated that, regardless of their academic majors or grades, 23% started to learn English at the age of seven and earlier, about 57% of the participants did at the age of nine, and the other 20% did at the age of 12. The present study did not consider academic major or age factors in investigating the correlation between language learning motivation and writing motivation; instead, in this investigation, this diversity was perceived as generally representative of Japanese EFL university learners.

Data Collection Instrument and Procedures

In this correlational study, Dörnyei and Taguchi's (2010) questionnaire on language learning motivation and Graham et al.'s (2022) questionnaire on writing motivation were adopted and combined to examine the correlation between these two motivation types. Both survey questionnaires were designed to explore various types of motivation, including the fear of assimilation and self-regulation. A six-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree) was utilised for all question items to avoid neutral answers.

Table 1

Brief Description of Each Motivation Sub-Types in Survey Instruments

Target Activities	Motivation Types	Sub-Motivation Types	Sample Descriptions
Language Learning (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010)	Instrumentality	Promotion	To work globally
		Prevention	Not to fail classes
	Integrativeness	General Integrativeness	The importance of learning the target language to learn about and engage in the target language community
		Travel Orientation	To travel globally
		Cultural Interest	To like films in the target language
		Attitudes towards Target Language Community	To like meeting people from target language community
Writing (Graham et al., 2022)	Instrumentality	Grades	To get better grades
		Competition	To know/perform better than others
	Integrativeness	Curiosity	To learn about intriguing matters
		Involvement	To imagine/understand target contexts and content

As Table 1 shows, this study explored two main motivation types: instrumental and integrative motivation. From Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010), two types of instrumental language learning motivation (subtypes: prevention and promotion) and four types of integrative language learning motivation (subtypes: general integrativeness, travel orientation, cultural interest, and attitudes toward a target language community) were adopted. From Graham et al. (2022), on the other hand, two instrumental writing motivation types (subtypes: grades and competition) and two integrative writing motivation types (subtypes: curiosity and involvement) were explored. These survey questionnaires were selected for this study insomuch as sufficiently high item reliability and validity were reported by Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) and Graham et al. (2022, 2023). Although Dörnyei and Taguchi's (2010) book contained the Japanese version of the questionnaire as well as the English version, Graham et al. (2022) had only the English version. Therefore, I translated the question items of Graham et al. (2022) into Japanese and asked my research assistant to back translate the instrument. As the back-translated version corresponded to the original version, the translation accuracy was ensured.

Following Nemoto and Beglar's (2014) suggestion that survey questionnaires should be piloted with at least 30 people, the instrument was piloted with 30 Japanese EFL learners who were only considered pilot study participants to scrutinise item reliability before the actual study. Since the use of the reliability scale type has been debated recently in applied linguistics (McKay & Plonsky, 2021; McNeish, 2018; Raykov & Marcoulides, 2019), in both the pilot and main studies, the internal consistency reliability of each sub-motivation variable was estimated using both Cronbach's alpha (α) and McDonald's omega (ω) through free statistical analysis software called JASP (version 0.16.4.0) (JASP Team, 2022). In the present investigation, Cohen et al.'s (2018) benchmark for internal consistency was used to judge the internal consistency of the survey questionnaire (Table 2). Dörnyei and Dewaele (2023) maintain that internal consistency reliability should aim to reach at least 0.7 in second language acquisition and relevant fields even though 0.8 and higher would be more preferable. Plonsky and Derrick (2016) report that internal consistency scores between 0.7 and 0.8 are perceived as acceptable in applied linguistics. As their statements also support Cohen et al.'s (2018) yardstick, this can be considered appropriate for estimating the statistical reliability of the data collection instrument.

As Table 3 on the following page shows, regardless of the target sub-motivation variables, the internal item consistency reliability of the survey questionnaire was higher than 0.7 in both pilot and main studies. These reliability scores fulfilled the benchmarks of Cohen et al. (2018), Dörnyei and Dewaele (2023), and Plonsky and Derrick (2016), illustrating the usability of the survey instrument and the reliability of quantitative data in examining correlations between language learning motivation and writing motivation in the present study.

Table 2

The Benchmark for Internal Consistency

>0.90	very high reliable
0.80-0.90	highly reliable
0.70-0.79	reliable
0.60-0.69	marginally/minimally reliable
< 0.60	unacceptably low reliability

(cited from Cohen et al., 2018, p. 774)

Table 3

Scale Reliabilities of Survey Instruments

Target Activities	Motivation Types	Sub-Motivation Types	Scale Reliabilities (Pilot, N=30)		Scale Reliabilities (Main, N=250)	
			α	ω	α	ω
Language Learning (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010)	Instrumentality	Promotion	0.77	0.78	0.80	0.79
		Prevention	0.75	0.76	0.76	0.76
	Integrativeness	General Integrativeness	0.81	0.81	0.80	0.81
		Travel Orientation	0.79	0.80	0.78	0.79
		Cultural Interest	0.73	0.74	0.78	0.79
		Attitudes towards Target Language Community	0.80	0.81	0.76	0.77
Writing (Graham et al., 2022)	Instrumentality	Grades	0.85	0.86	0.81	0.82
		Competition	0.79	0.80	0.77	0.78
	Integrativeness	Curiosity	0.80	0.81	0.79	0.80
		Involvement	0.82	0.83	0.85	0.86

Note. N = number of participants; α = Cronbach's alpha; ω = McDonald's omega.

Data Analysis Instruments and Procedures

Quantitative data were analysed using the following two procedures with JASP (JASP Team, 2022). Firstly, the data were explored descriptively to examine means and standard deviations (SD). In addition, skewness, kurtosis, and Shapiro-Wilk test results were also estimated in order to judge whether the datasets fulfilled the assumptions of having normal distributions and whether parametric or nonparametric statistical testing was appropriate to measure correlations between language learning motivation and writing motivation. Secondly, as the Results Section indicates that normal distributions were not detected, Kendall's tau-b correlation coefficient, which is employed as degrees in nonparametric correlational statistical tests (Turner, 2014), was used to examine correlational relationships between these two psychological variables. In this study, correlations between the same types of language learning motivation and writing motivation were estimated. That is, the relationships between instrumental language learning motivation (promotion and prevention) and instrumental writing motivation (grades and competition), and between integrative language learning motivation (general, travel orientation, cultural interest, and attitudes towards a target language community) and integrative writing motivation (curiosity and involvement), were estimated using Kendall's tau-b correlational tests. In addition, Evans' (1996) benchmark was adopted to judge the degree of the correlation coefficient (Table 4). Based on these procedures, the general degree of correlation between the two target psychological variables was estimated.

Table 4

Evans' (1996) Correlation Coefficient Benchmark

Correlation Coefficient	Strengths
0–0.19	very weak
0.20–0.39	weak
0.40–0.59	moderate
0.60–0.79	strong
0.8–1.0	very strong

Even if (very) strong correlation coefficient scores are detected, the probability of obtaining statistical results still needs to be estimated in order to validate the quantitative findings. Although the null hypothesis using p-value, defined as "[a] number that indicates the level of **statistical significance** for the results of a statistical test" (Loewen & Plonsky, 2016, p. 137, bold in original), is prevalent in quantitative research studies, the overreliance and reliability of p-values have been criticised (Wasserstein & Lazar, 2016). As a countermeasure, Held and Ott (2018) and Norouzian et al. (2019) proposed that Bayesian statistics could address this issue and increase the validity of the research findings. More recent studies in applied linguistics and other relevant fields have utilised Bayes factors to compensate for the drawbacks of p-values (e.g., Cheng & Almore, 2019; Shibata, 2021a, 2021b, 2022; Shibata & Zoni Upton, 2023; Xiao-Desai, 2019). Notwithstanding, as Bayes factors are still considered unfamiliar to many researchers to interpret confidently, providing both frequentist statistics (p-values) and Bayes factors allow them to better comprehend the statistical results. Thus, in addition to the p-value, Norouzian et al.'s (2019) Bayes factor clarification scale was utilised to further estimate the probability of the research findings in this investigation and to consider the correlation between language learning motivation and writing motivation (Table 5, following page).

Table 5

Bayes Factor Clarification Scale

Bayes Factor $(\frac{Alternative}{Null})$	Strengths of Evidence
>100	Decisive evidence for *Alternative*
10-30	Very strong evidence for *Alternative*
3-10	Substantial evidence for *Alternative*
1-3	Anecdotal evidence for *Alternative*
1	Hypothesis Insensitive evidence (No Evidence for either hypothesis)
1/3-1	Anecdotal evidence for *Null*
1/10 - 1/3	Substantial evidence for *Null*
1/30 - 1/10	Strong evidence for *Null*
1/100 - 1/30	Very strong evidence for *Null*
< 1/100	Decisive evidence for *Null*

(cited from Norouzian et al., 2019, p. 252, italics in original)

Results

The present study attempted to examine the extent of correlation between language learning motivation and writing motivation based on quantitative data that were collected using a six-point Likert scale questionnaire that had been adapted from Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) and Graham et al. (2022). Tables 6 and 7 (following pages) report on the descriptive statistical test results concerning participants' language learning motivation and writing motivation strengths. The mean values of each language learning sub-motivation type illustrated that the participants had somewhat high motivation for promotion (Instrumental), general integrativeness, and cultural interest, as well as high attitudes toward a target language community (Integrativeness), whereas they had somewhat low language learning motivation for prevention (Instrumental). On the other hand, regardless of sub-motivation type, their writing motivation was (somewhat) low. Based on these statistical findings, in this specific research context, the participants were motivated to learn the target language but not write. Nevertheless, the lowest and highest scores in each section indicate that some learners had noticeably high or low language learning motivation and/or writing motivation. Additionally, noticeably high standard deviation scores were estimated for each section. Hence, it is necessary to remember that motivational strengths vary among participants.

As examining only mean scores and standard deviation scores cannot judge whether the assumption of having a normal distribution in data sets was fulfilled, skewness, kurtosis, and Shapiro-Wilk test results were also examined to further comprehend the descriptive statistical results. The skewness, kurtosis, and Shapiro-Wilk test results indicated that no normal distribution was detected in any of the sections. Accordingly, instead of the Pearson correlation test (a parametric model of correlation test), Kendall's tau correlation coefficient test (a nonparametric model of correlation test) was considered appropriate to measure the correlation coefficient between language learning motivation and writing motivation.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistic Results of Language Learning Motivation

	Instrumentality		**Integrativeness**			
	Promotion	Prevention	General	Travel Orientation	Cultural Interest	Attitudes towards a Target Language Community
Mean	4.81	3.69	4.94	4.07	4.66	5.08
SD	0.78	0.97	0.85	1.04	0.91	0.80
Skewness	-0.69	0.12	-0.42	-0.08	-0.47	-0.88
Kurtosis	-0.29	-0.47	-0.76	-0.07	-0.26	0.14
p-value of Shapiro-Wilk	< .001	0.002	< .001	< .001	< .001	< .001
Minimum	2.8	1.8	3.0	1.30	2.25	3.00
Maximum	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.00	6.00	6.00

Note. SD = Standard Deviation

Table 7

Descriptive Statistic Results of Writing Motivation

	Instrumentality		Integrativeness	
	Grades	Competition	Curiosity	Involvement
Mean	3.88	2.79	3.85	2.99
SD	1.16	1.05	1.33	1.26
Skewness	-0.45	0.38	-0.55	0.31
Kurtosis	0.18	-0.25	-0.53	-0.36
p-value of Shapiro-Wilk	< .001	< .001	< .001	< .001
Minimum	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Maximum	6.0	5.8	6.0	6.0

Note. SD = Standard Deviation

Table 8

Correlation Between Language Learning Motivation and Writing Motivation (Instrumentality)

			Instrumental Language Learning Motivation	
			Promotion	Prevention
Instrumental Writing Motivation	Grades	Kendall's Tau B	0.06	0.31
		p-value	0.196	<.001
		BF	0.22	$2.459 \times 10^{+10}$
		Upper 95% CI	0.14	0.39
		Lower 95% CI	-0.02	0.22
	Competition	Kendall's Tau B	0.27	0.43
		p-value	<.001	<.001
		BF	$5.402 \times 10^{+7}$	$1.106 \times 10^{+21}$
		Upper 95% CI	0.35	0.51
		Lower 95% CI	0.19	0.34

Note. BF = Bayes Factor, CI = Confidence Interval

Note. Kendall’s tau correlation coefficient test was utilised.

Table 8 (previous page) demonstrates association between instrumental language learning motivation (subtypes: promotion, and prevention) and instrumental writing motivation (subtypes: grades, and competition). Based on Kendall's tau-b correlation test results, correlations between most language learning sub-motivation variables and writing sub-motivation variables were detected with high Bayes Factors. However, no correlation was identified between instrumental language learning motivation (subtype: promotion) and instrumental writing motivation (subtype: grades) (Kendall's Tau B = 0.06, p = 0.196, BF = 0.22). A moderate positive correlation between instrumental language learning motivation (subtype: prevention) and instrumental writing motivation (subtype: competition) was found (Kendall's Tau B = 0.43, p < 0.001, BF = 1.106×10+21), whilst weak positive correlations were revealed between instrumental language learning motivation (subtype: promotion) and instrumental writing motivation (subtype: competition) (Kendall's Tau B = 0.27, p < 0.001, BF = 5.402×10+7), and between instrumental language learning motivation (subtype: prevention) and instrumental writing motivation (subtype: grades) (Kendall's Tau B = 0.31, p < 0.001, BF = 2.459×10+10). Moreover, the confidence interval (CI) of each correlation also supported the statistical correlations between the language learning sub-motivation types and writing sub-motivation types.

Table 9

Correlation Between Language Learning Motivation and Writing Motivation (Integrativeness – General Integrativeness, and Travel Orientation)

			Integrative Language Learning Motivation	
			General	Travel Orientation
Integrative Writing Motivation	Curiosity	Kendall's Tau B	0.14	0.09
		p-value	0.002	0.046
		BF	23.14	0.852
		Upper 95% CI	0.22	0.17
		Lower 95% CI	0.06	0.01
	Involvement	Kendall's Tau B	0.10	0.16
		p-value	0.038	<.001
		BF	1.071	84.60
		Upper 95% CI	0.18	0.24
		Lower 95% CI	0.01	0.07

Note. BF = Bayes Factor, CI = Confidence Interval

Note. Kendall's tau correlation coefficient test was utilised.

Tables 9 (previous page) and 10 (below) describe Kendall’s tau correlation coefficient test results for integrative language learning motivation (subtypes: general integrativeness, travel orientation, cultural interest, and attitudes towards a target language community) and integrative writing motivation (subtypes: curiosity, and involvement).

Table 10

Correlation Between Language Learning Motivation and Writing Motivation (Integrativeness – Cultural Interest, and Attitudes towards a Target Language Community)

			Integrative Language Learning Motivation	
			Cultural Interest	Attitudes towards a Target Language Community
Integrative Writing Motivation	Curiosity	Kendall's Tau B	0.18	0.10
		p-value	<.001	0.03
		BF	984.332	1.393
		Upper 95% CI	0.27	0.18
		Lower 95% CI	0.10	0.02
	Involvement	Kendall's Tau B	0.26	0.10
		p-value	<.001	0.03
		BF	$1.983 \times 10^{+7}$	1.321
		Upper 95% CI	0.34	0.18
		Lower 95% CI	0.18	0.02

Note. BF = Bayes Factor, CI = Confidence Interval
Note. Kendall’s tau correlation coefficient test was utilised.

Examining only p-values and confidence intervals in each section, correlations between all integrative language learning sub-motivation variables and integrative writing sub-motivation variables appeared to be adequate because p-values in all sections were lower than 0.05, which is the general benchmark for judging statistical significance in a dataset, and the differences between the upper and lower 95% confidence intervals were small.

Based on both p-values and Bayes factors, (very) weak positive correlations were identified between integrative language learning motivation (subtype: general integrativeness) and integrative writing motivation (subtype: curiosity), between integrative language learning motivation (subtype: travel orientation) and integrative writing motivation (subtype: involvement), and between integrative language learning motivation (subtype: cultural interests) and integrative writing motivation types (subtypes: curiosity, and involvement). However, the Bayes factor for an association between integrative language learning motivation (subtype: travel orientation) and integrative writing motivation (subtype: curiosity) represented substantial evidence for the null hypothesis, which showed no correlation between these two psychological variables. This finding contradicts the argument assumed from the p-value ($p = 0.046$), and thus it is difficult to validate the association between one integrative language learning sub-motivation type and one integrative writing sub-motivation type. Accordingly, the correlation between language learning motivation (subtype: travel orientation) and writing motivation (subtype: curiosity) was excluded to avoid invalid conclusions.

Similarly, based on p-values, very weak positive correlations were detected between integrative language learning motivation (subtype: general integrativeness) and integrative writing motivation (subtype: involvement), and between integrative language learning motivation (subtype: attitudes towards a target language community) and both integrative writing sub-motivation types (curiosity, and involvement) (general integrativeness–involvement: $p = 0.038$, attitudes–curiosity: $p = 0.03$, attitudes–involvement: $p = 0.03$). Nonetheless, Bayes factors underlined that these results could be considered anecdotal evidence to support the relationships between these psychological variables (general integrativeness–involvement: BF = 1.071, attitudes–curiosity: BF = 1.393, attitudes–involvement: BF = 1.321). Based on these findings, it is doubtful to fully validate statistical correspondents between integrative language learning motivation (subtype: general integrative motivation) and integrative writing motivation (subtype: involvement), between integrative language learning motivation (subtype: attitudes towards a target language community) and integrative writing motivation variables (subtypes: curiosity, and involvement).

This study measured correlations between instrumental language learning motivation (subtypes: promotion, and prevention) and instrumental writing motivation (subtypes: grades, and competition), and between integrative language learning motivation (subtypes: general integrativeness, travel orientation, cultural interest, and attitudes towards a target language community) and integrative writing motivation (subtypes: curiosity, and involvement). Based on the p-values, although the relationship between instrumental language learning motivation (subtype: promotion) and instrumental writing motivation (subtype: grades) was excluded, it should be noted that (very) weak-to-moderate positive statistical correlations between the other combinations were detected. Notwithstanding, Bayes factors further examined these relationships and highlighted some indeterminate evidence of associations between integrative language learning motivation (subtype: travel orientation) and integrative writing motivation (subtype: curiosity), between integrative language learning motivation (general integrativeness) and integrative writing motivation (subtype: involvement), and between integrative language learning motivation (subtype: attitudes towards a target language community) and both integrative writing sub-motivation types (curiosity, and involvement). Consequently, regarding instrumentality, positive statistical correlations were found between prevention and competition, and between prevention and grades, and between promotion and competition. Regarding integrativeness, positive associations were discovered between general integrative language learning motivation and writing motivation for curiosity, between travel orientation and writing involvement, and between cultural interests and integrative writing motivation types (curiosity and involvement).

Discussion

This study examined the correlation between language learning motivation and writing motivation based on the quantitative data collected from a survey questionnaire adopted from Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) and Graham et al. (2022). However, in this investigation, gender factors, age factors, academic major fields, writing proficiency levels, and writing outcomes were not considered as variables to estimate correlations between language learning motivation and writing motivation. These factors can influence the statistical correspondence between these two psychological variables. Future studies should address these limitations to further explore the correlational relationships between language learning motivation and writing motivation.

Based on the statistical results, overall instrumental/integrative language learning motivation and overall instrumental/integrative writing motivation might not be interchangeable. Furthermore, the use of Bayes factors illuminated some questionable associations between language learning sub-motivation variables and writing sub-motivation variables, which were not observed when analysing only p-values. These results highlight the necessity of selecting motivation types appropriate for teachers and researchers for the main language course objectives. If writing courses primarily aim to facilitate learners' target language learning, instructors may need to be aware of their language learning motivation. On the other hand, if writing courses mainly attempt to help learners to improve their writing abilities, teachers may need to observe their writing motivation. By selecting appropriate motivation types, teachers and researchers can realise students' learning or writing objectives and develop materials and curricula to facilitate their engagement in class activities.

When narrowing down language learning motivation types and writing motivation types, (very) weak-to-moderate correlation coefficients were still detected. These findings do not support the idea that language learning motivation and writing motivation are sufficiently correlated to use them interchangeably to comprehend learners and predict their learning outcomes and writing development in second language writing courses. However, they illustrate the necessity of future studies that collect qualitative data to further explore the factors that establish these relationships. As Williams (2023) states, the relationship between writing development and language acquisition can be seen from sociolinguistic factors; qualitative data may clarify similar motivational factors for learning languages and developing writing abilities.

As not much research has revealed the influence of motivation on certain learning and acquisition processes (Ryan, 2019), future investigations should collect learners' motivation and writing test results periodically. Although the present quantitative study attempted to estimate correlations between language learning motivation and writing motivation, future studies should collect both quantitative and qualitative data from various perspectives and delve into the effects of language learning motivation and writing motivation on learners' second language writing developmental processes. Furthermore, as Loewen (2020) underlines the importance of exploring teachers' roles in influencing learners' motivation, teaching approaches to raising their motivation need to be investigated (Li, 2022; Sabti et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2019). Motivation can vary due to various external and internal factors (Lightbown & Spada, 2021). Therefore, periodic data collection can help further observe motivators and demotivators to contemplate external and internal factors in second language writing courses.

Conclusion

Although motivation has been conceptualised as a stable psychological factor, various factors, including language learning environments and experiences, can fluctuate degrees of orientation (Lightbown & Spada, 2021). Due to this dynamic nature, as Scheidecker and Freeman (1999) highlighted, "[m]otivation is, without question, the most complex and challenging issue facing teachers today" (p. 116). However, motivation remains an important individual difference variable in determining learners' engagement in target activities. Thus, language teachers need to be highly concerned about their students' motivation strengths and types to design and develop their language courses and materials and consider approaches to facilitate their learning engagement. Furthermore, they need to remember that target language skills and activities can affect learners' motivational strengths. For example, there is a possibility that some learners have strong language learning motivation but weak writing motivation, and vice versa. Therefore, in second language writing, it is preferable for teachers and researchers to understand both students' language learning motivation and writing motivation so that they can consider their language learning and writing outcomes. If possible, it would be more beneficial for instructors to select specific (sub-)motivation types to examine the appropriateness of writing tasks and topics and set writing course objectives. No writing instruction or activity can foster all learners' abilities in all settings (Hyland, 2022; Matsuda & Silva, 2020). However, understanding learners' specific (sub-)motivation strengths can also enable teachers and researchers to develop writing materials and curricula during academic terms and years; that is, their motivation strengths can be utilised as part of formative assessment for materials and curriculum development. Accordingly, second language writing teachers and researchers need to identify which motivation type plays an important role in their writing courses and objectives so as to assist learners in developing their writing abilities and learning outcomes.

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BIO DATA

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Linguistic Relativity: Implications for Second Language Acquisition

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Abstract

This paper reflects on modern approaches to Whorfian linguistic relativity research that have recently gained popularity (Athanasopoulos & Casaponsa, 2020) in connection with bilingualism and second language acquisition. The current study examines Japanese EFL bilingual speakers' categorization of agentive and non-agentive descriptions of an event in English and Japanese. The participants were put in two groups and were given three similar illustrations of an event. They were given five English and Japanese (respectively) written descriptions. They were then asked to match the illustrated events with the descriptions. Participants used mostly non-agentive language when using Japanese (e.g., "The vase is broken") and agentive language (e.g., "He broke the vase") when using English descriptions. Results from this study show that linguistic and cultural patterns play a role in how people use agency, which might suggest the influence of language on cognition.

Keywords: Linguistic Relativity, SLA, Japanese EFL Students, Bilingualism

In the past decade, various interdisciplinary researchers have renewed their interest in Linguistic Relativity Hypothesis (LRH), more commonly known as the Sapir-Whorf (1929) hypothesis (SWH). One reason why the interest in SWH has regained popularity can be explained with the growth in empirical research into the effects of language on cognition and bilingualism (Athanasopoulos et al., 2016). The basic idea of linguistic relativity states that "languages vary in their semantic partitioning of the world; the structure of one's language influences the manner in which one perceives and understands the world; therefore, speakers of different languages will perceive the world differently" (Gentner & Goldin-Meadow, 2003, p. 4). For a long time, linguistic relativity was considered a 'weaker' version of linguistic determinism, which defines language as a tool that determines our thoughts (Kuhn, 2012; Pavlenko, 2014). In the 1990s, both linguistic relativity and linguistic determinism were stigmatized by popular linguists, such as Pinker (1994), who regarded them as "an example of what can be called a conventional absurdity" (p. 57). Most of the stigmatization against linguistic relativity that started in the 1990s has now made a revival with the new growing number of empirical studies (Athanasopoulos & Casaponsa, 2020). Most of these empirical studies focus on nonverbal codes such as motion, color, time, and space (See reviews by Gleitman & Papafragou, 2013; Wolff & Holmes, 2011). These studies argue that by over-simplifying linguistic relativity as 'language determines our thoughts,' we are looking at the wrong question; the focus should be on under which circumstances cognitive processes are influenced by which linguistic categories (Athanasopoulos & Bylund, 2013). Most comments about linguistic relativity focus on monolingual speakers, mainly because when SWH was popular, there were not many bilinguals, or bilingualism was not as expected (Pavlenko, 2014). However, with the help of globalization and the advancements in language acquisition, SWH has returned to the center of attention mainly because of its effects of bilingualism. Athanasopoulos and Bylund (2014) claim that language diversity in syntactical and lexical categories may help us understand crosslinguistic cognitive differences, which may be important for language learning.

This essential new field could offer additional information into second language acquisition and a deeper investigation into "second language" (L2) speakers' minds and perceived reality. Many scholars interested in bilingualism and second language acquisition have recently started investigating the relationship between language and thought (Cook & Bassetti, 2011; Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008). A common feature in most of these L2 speakers' research is that most of these speakers are language learners living in monolingual contexts (Boroditsky, 2001). This paper focuses on Japanese EFL learners, primarily for their learning contexts and similar linguistic backgrounds. As a highly growing nation, Japan's advancements in English language education have exponentially grown in the last decade, with the introduction of JET program in 1987 and other similar teaching exchange programs (Fujimoto-Adamson, 2006).

Literature Review

The early attempts at understanding the relationship between language and cognition led many linguists and scientists to dig deeper into this concept and introduce the roots of what we now call the linguistic relativity hypothesis. LRH was first developed by scholars Edward Sapir (1884-1939) and Benjamin Lee Whorf (1897-1941). They have extended Franz Boas' (1858-1942) ideas of the effect of language categories: The categories of language compel us to see the world arranged in certain definite conceptual groups, which, because of our lack of knowledge of linguistic processes, are taken as objective categories and which, therefore, impose themselves upon our thoughts (Boas, 1966, p. 289).

Later, Whorf cemented this idea with what we now call the linguistic relativity principle: Users of markedly different grammars are pointed by their grammars towards different types of observations and different evaluations of externally similar acts of observation, hence are not equivalent as observers but must arrive at somewhat different views of the world (Whorf, 2012, p. 282).

As mentioned earlier, at the time, most linguists focused on the monolingual effects of what Whorf described here due to the fact that the world was in turmoil (See Pavlenko, 2014). Both Sapir and Whorf believed in the human mind's ability to go beyond its mother language, and they believed in multilingualism (Pavlenko, 2014, p.10). Thus, with the changing world, it is essential to acknowledge the universality of bilingualism and advance our understanding of LRH to a bilingual perspective. Before moving on to the next chapter, it is crucial to understand what bilingualism means.

Defining Bilingualism

Bilingual speakers can be defined as speakers who use multiple languages in an everyday context. It is important to differentiate between different types of bilingual speakers based on how they acquired their second language. According to Nacamulli (2015), we can classify different types of bilingualism into three categories: compound bilinguals, who acquire two linguistic codes at the same time with a unitary set of concepts; coordinate bilinguals, who learn two sets of concepts at the same time in different environments; and subordinate bilinguals, who acquire their second language by using their first language. It is essential to distinguish these differences, but it is also important to remember that all types of bilinguals can be fluent in their second language.

There are other factors to be considered when we talk about bilingualism. *Age of acquisition* (AoA) refers to the age the bilinguals acquire their second language. *Context of acquisition* (CoA) refers to which context the speakers learn their second language. *Language proficiency* refers to the level of achievement in second language acquisition. *Modes of engagement with language* refer to whether or not speakers actively use their second language in everyday life (Pavlenko, 2014). All of these factors are vital when we define bilingualism. It is important to consider the factors that affect the relationship between language and thought, which is the primary concern of this study.

Bilingualism to Second Language Acquisition

When linguist Susan Ervin-Tripp (1927-2018) suggested the idea that bilingualism constitutes "an exceptionally favorable ground for testing the Whorfian hypothesis" (Walker et al., 1954, p. 201), the increase in bilingualism recently shifted many linguists' interests to the effects of linguistic relativity in understanding L2 learning and the relationship between language and cognition in the L2 speaker's mind. According to Bylund and Athanasopoulos (2014), learning a second language may significantly impact second language acquisition (SLA) more than previously thought. Learning a new language is about learning new linguistic systems and categorizing reality and, consequently, the perceived world, which points out the importance of investigating the effects of linguistic relativity.

Verbal and Nonverbal Evidence

Lucy (1997) claimed that linguistic relativity and diversity should not be confused as the latter does not relate to thought. To understand the cognitive changes in L2 speakers' minds through linguistic relativity, we need to think about the role of the language. Slobin (1987) suggested the idea of thinking for speaking, which can be easily distinguished from Whorf's linguistic relativity. Slobin (1987) claimed that "we encounter the contents of the mind in a special way when they are being accessed for use. In terms of my title (thinking for speaking), the activity of thinking takes on a special quality when employed in the activity of speaking" (p. 435). The thinking-for-speaking hypothesis should not be confused with Whorf's relativistic position of language and thought, which aims to focus more on the impact of language on world perception, as thinking-for-speaking emphasizes "a special form of thought that mobilized for communication" (Slobin, 1987, p. 436). Then, we must shift our attention to nonverbal behavior to see the relativistic effects on cognition.

Nonverbal evidence aims to eliminate the influence of language (Cook et al., 2006). Thus, nonverbal behavioral evidence can be collected with categorization, memory tasks, sorting, and matching tasks. Recently, there have been multiple types of research done by linguists on concepts such as motion (Bylund & Athanasopoulos, 2014), memory (Filipovic, 2011; Boroditsky et al., 2003), and time (Casasanto et al., 2004). However, it may be impossible to disregard the importance of language in observing the relationship between language and thought since any experimental and empirical task uses language in situational contexts and for instructions to carry out how to do the tasks (Cook et al., 2006).

The Concept of Agency

As mentioned before, focusing on nonverbal evidence and creating a situational context involving language as verbal evidence is essential. Ahearn (2001) defined agency as "the socioculturally mediated capacity to act" (p. 112). We all act on everything that happens to us daily, whether intentional or accidental and verbalize our actions through specific linguistic notions. Although it seems easy to define what agency is, it is hard to address how it is constructed. Fausey et al. (2010) claimed that 'causal agency' can be composed of physical and social contexts and can be equally important. It is impossible to disregard the impact of social structures, culture, specific situations, and differences in language patterns when we consider agency. Thus, it is hard to pinpoint the reasons for using agency in the language but focusing on each factor individually would be the key to start.

Research Issues and Questions

Although the current paper focuses on portraying verbal and nonverbal behavioral evidence for linguistic relativism in bilinguals, it should be noted that the issue goes beyond linguistic limitations. Bilingualism, by nature, comes in different forms. Ervin and Osgood (1954) used three different conceptual terms to differentiate bilingualism based on language-learning histories: 'coordinate,' 'compound,' and 'subordinate' bilingualism.

This research relies on visual stimuli (picture categorization) as nonverbal evidence and the concept of agency as verbal evidence. Relying entirely on nonverbal evidence is almost impossible as language (verbal evidence) is required to contextualize the task. With that in mind, our main concern is to see how learning a second language has changed bilingual speakers' cognitive changes and how they perceive the world.

Method

Participants and the Research Context

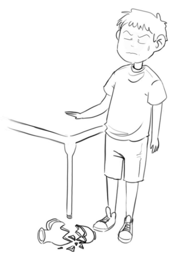
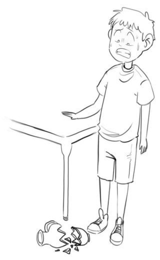
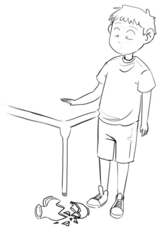
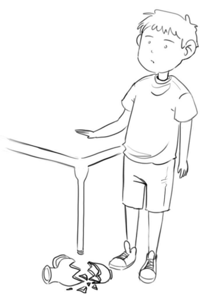
Thirty-two (19 female, 13 male) university-age (18-21) Japanese English speakers of Intermediate and Upper-Intermediate levels participated in the study. The participants were selected to be active bilinguals. They were all selected for the fact that they have similar L2 proficiency and similar backgrounds. They all reported starting learning English in similar circumstances, actively, at the age of 12. They were told to complete the study in class without any time constraints. All participants gave their consent to be a part of language research. Participants were divided into two groups; sixteen of the 32 participated in the English version, and sixteen participated in the Japanese version. The groups were chosen randomly, and no statistical difference was identified between the two groups.

Data Collection Instruments and Procedures

Participants were given three illustrations (out of five) of a boy marked as Boy A, Boy B, Boy C, Boy D, and Boy E. The illustrations portray a boy beside a table and a broken vase on the floor in seemingly identical ways. The only difference between each illustration was the boy's facial expression, indicating a possible reaction change in each situation. The illustrations did not contain any captions. The illustrations were selected based on their universality; the boy depicted in the images has no racial clues, cultural indications, or captions. The objects represented in illustrations were also universal, indicating no cultural elements. Table 1 shows each illustration and some captions written for this paper.

Table 1

The Boy and a Vase Table 1 – Illustrations of Boy A, B, C, D, and E

 **Boy A - A stern expression, also seemingly worried, indicative of a stressful situation.**	 **Boy B - A rather more expressive face, portraying the boy about to burst into tears, indicating guilt.**	 **Boy C - In this illustration, the boy's facial expression shows feelings of shock and regret, indicating an accident.**
 **Boy D - A more expressionless face, indicating surprise without a hint of guilt.**	 **Boy E - An utterly expressionless face, indicating nothing about the situation.**	

Participants were put into two random categories and asked to match three random illustrations with the English and Japanese sentences given to them (in separate groups). They were asked to find the sentence that ideally describes the situation. They matched the sentences with the illustrations at their own pace and received minimal verbal instructions on what to do, matching the sentences with illustrations. Illustrations were put in random groups and mixed multiple times. Table 2 shows the sentences given to participants both in English and Japanese. The sentences were chosen depending on their degrees of directness, which the agency's usage can describe. The sentences were translated into Japanese as accurately as possible by a Japanese-English bilingual, considering the differences in directness play an essential role and considering the natural differences between the two languages.

Table 2

English and Japanese Sentences with Various Degrees of Directness, Agency Usage

English Version	Japanese Version
The vase broke.	花瓶が割れた
He broke the vase.*	彼が花瓶を割った*
He made the vase break.*	彼のせいで花瓶が割れた*
He knocked the table, and the vase broke.*	彼がテーブルにぶつかって花瓶が割れた*
The vase is broken.	花瓶が割れている

*degrees of directness
-simple transitive causative
-a periphrastic causative (indirect)
-causal conjunction

Data Analysis Instruments and Procedure

The participants' categorization preferences were analyzed based on how they matched the sentences with illustrations. The data were collected, and the numbers were coded using the Non-parametric test, Mann-Whitney U test, and normal approximation since the data contains ties and identical values. The difference between the value of Group 1 and Group 2, Japanese and English groups, was not big enough to be statistically significant. The p-value equals 0.9033 ($p(x \leq Z) = 0.5484$). The observed common language effect size is 0.52, meaning a random value from Group 1 is more extensive than Group 2. Group 1 median is 12%, whereas Group 2 is 13.5%.

Findings

Initial results show that participants spend more time than expected deciding which sentence fits best to which illustration. This can be narrowed down to two reasons:

(a) The seemingly identical illustrations, when observed closely, surprised and confused some participants.

(b) The sentences, again seemingly identical in meaning, might have seemed too similar for participants to decide how to describe the situation.

Some participants stated, "It is hard," while trying to do the task. Figure 1 below and Figure 2 (following page) show the results of the study.

Figure 1

The Results of the English Version

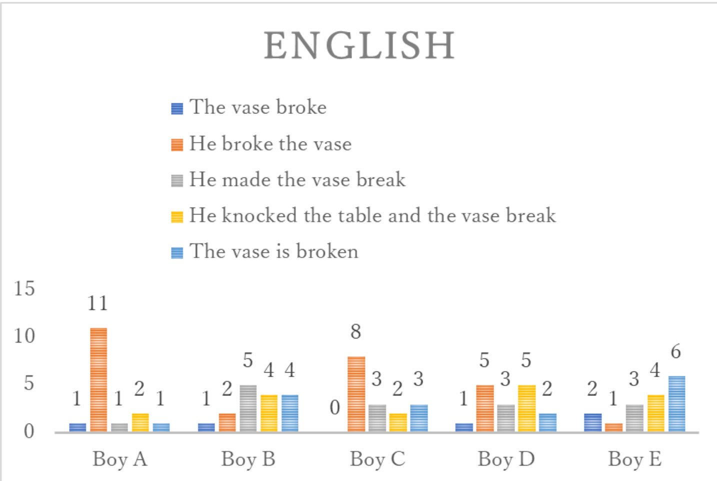
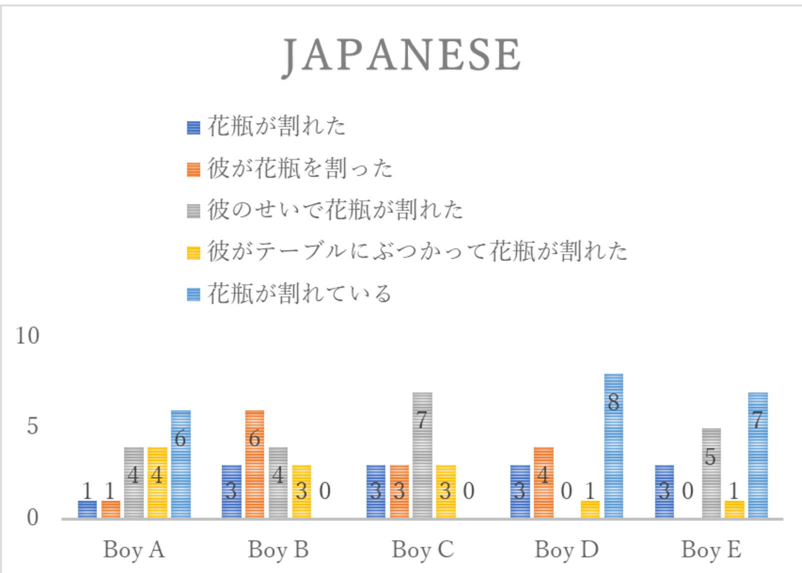


Figure 2

The Results of the Japanese Version



Individual Analysis

Boy A - Figure 1 shows that ‘He broke the vase’ was the most selected answer for 11 out of 16 people. In contrast, Figure 2 shows that ‘花瓶が割れている’ (The vase was broken) was the most selected answer for six out of 16 people.

Looking at the illustration, we can see that the boy illustrated has indicative signs of a stern, worried look on his face, which might suggest a stressful situation. The participants matched ‘He broke the vase’ and agentive sentences to describe the illustration, whereas they selected a non-agentive usage for the Japanese version.

Boy B - In Figure 1, we see ‘He made the vase break’ was the most selected answer for five out of 16 people, and ‘He knocked the table, and the vase broke’ was the second most selected answer for four out of 16 people.

In contrast, Figure 2 shows ‘彼が花瓶を割った’ (The vase is broken) as the most selected with six out of 16 people. For this illustration, participants also opted for a non-agentive sentence to describe the illustration, while for English versions, they selected agentive sentences.

Boy C - Figure 1 shows ‘He broke the vase’ as the most selected version for eight out of 16 people, while Figure 2 shows ‘彼のせいで花瓶が割れた’ (He made the vase break) as the most selected answer for seven out of 16 people.

For both English and Japanese versions, participants preferred agentive sentences.

Boy D – In Figure 1, we see ‘He knocked the table and the vase break’ and ‘He broke the vase’ were the most selected answers for ten out of 16 people, whereas Figure 2 shows ‘花瓶が割れている’ (The vase is broken) as the most selected answer with eight out of 16 people.

Once again, participants selected non-agentive sentences for the Japanese version, while they preferred agentive sentences for the English version.

Boy E – Figure 1 and Figure 2 show ‘The vase is broken’ as the most selected answer for both English and Japanese versions.

The only illustration had the same result for both the Japanese and English versions.

Discussion

Results from the study demonstrate that except for the last illustration, Boy E (as shown in Figure 1), participants preferred agentive language for the English version, whereas, for the Japanese version, there was a tendency to use more non-agentive language (as shown in Figure 2). Among five illustrations, Boy B, Boy C, and Boy E were the ones that shared a standard answer for both English and Japanese participants. When we examine these illustrations, we can see that Boy B and Boy C are the ones that show visible facial expressions (see Table 1) that can be interpreted as feelings of guilt, shock, and regret.

In contrast, Boy E, unlike Boy B and C, portrayed the least expressionless face. Boy A and Boy D illustrations got different answers from English and Japanese versions, the Japanese ones being non-agentive.

The differences in perception depend on various factors. According to Lupyan (2012) and Wolff and Holmes (2011), When there is a categorization task to be done, individuals will rely on everything available, including linguistic resources, to complete the task at hand. For this reason, the language can be regarded as a ‘meddler’ or augmenter of that categorical concept. Thus, it appears that participants relied on both the visual stimuli and the linguistic cues before they selected the most accurate answer for the illustrations given to them, but which one we can say they relied on the most is something we need to consider. Before we can answer this question, we have to consider the difference between *online utilization* of language, which lets participants access language at the moment they are making a categorical decision, *or thinking after language effects* (as suggested by Wolff & Holmes, 2011) in which “participants rely on language to complete a subsequent categorization task” (Bylund & Athanasopoulos, 2014, p. 966). In this current research, participants relied on linguistic cues to help them categorize the illustrations after they read the linguistic cues, which might suggest the usage of linguistic patterns of L2 speakers when making decisions. However, there are other factors we must consider, such as cultural patterns and factors that might affect the cognitive restructuring of L2 speakers.

It is essential to consider the interrelationship between language and culture. Languages are cultural creations; one cannot think of a culture without a language or a language without being part of a culture, so considering the effects of culture on the results of this study is essential. We might ask if the differences between L1 and L2 cultures affect the results of this study and how that might change the aim of the research. Societies have different concepts of the self; compared to interdependent societies, like East Asian societies, people in independent societies, like Western societies, are more likely to focus on a ‘single proximal cause’ for an event (See Chiu et al., 2000; Choi et al., 2003).

Like culture, Bylund and Athanasopoulos (2014) stated the importance of certain factors that might affect the cognitive restructuring of L2 speakers: ‘language proficiency, language contact, the context of an acquisition, bilingual language mode, age of L2 acquisition and length of immersion in an L2 context.’ Just like the effects of culture, we cannot underestimate the effects of all these factors when we consider the results of this study. As mentioned earlier, most participants have different levels of L2 proficiency. Since the participants were all EFL students, it should be noted that they were not as immersive in the second language as other bilinguals. Participants, however, can be put into the same group regarding the ‘age of L2 acquisition’ and the ‘context of an acquisition,’ which refers to the naturalistic versus instructed learning of L2.

Conclusion

The illustrations and linguistic tools proved effective in seeing specific cognitive differences. Although there are many factors to consider, the differences in agentive and non-agentive usages in Japanese and English versions of the same visual stimuli proved specific perceptive changes in bilingual speakers and offer future research into the field.

This study has limitations and shortcomings, such as the small sample size. The study would be more effective with short videos of the same action instead of simple illustrations to make the actions and reactions more visible. It is a small-scale study investigating linguistic relativity, bilingualism, and SLA research, but I plan to conduct further large-scale research into understanding relativity and bilingualism.

As a final remark, it is essential to conduct further research into relativity in SLA to understand how the bilingual mind works; it will help language learners and teachers to design better courses suitable for each student’s cognitive needs. Understanding the diversity of a bilingual mind and how it cognitively functions can provide language teachers with an enormous source for their courses. By observing the perceptual differences in bilingual speakers’ minds, we could, as language teachers, redesign our courses that can suit students’ needs.

Moreover, as mentioned earlier, it is essential to distance ourselves from all misconceptions about linguistic relativity, which is constantly over-simplified by linguists as radical linguistic determinism (See Pinker, 1994). Instead, we should concentrate on Whorf’s view, which can be interpreted not as thinking is only available through language but as languages highlight diverse patterns of thinking (Athanasopoulos & Bylund, 2012).

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BIO DATA

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Collaborative Online International Learning: Challenges for Students and Teachers

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Abstract

Collaborative Online International Learning (COIL), a form of virtual exchange, enables students from different countries and areas to acquire cultural knowledge, language skills, and intercultural competence in a real context through different experiences. Through online interactions with international peers, students gain different experiences from classroom learning. While providing numerous benefits, COIL proposes various challenges and difficulties. The purpose of this study was to present some challenges encountered by both students and teachers in previous COIL projects and to explore how to improve COIL practice through making changes and seeking various support. The results showed that the greatest challenge for students was language proficiency and the greatest barriers to teachers were finding a long-term partner with similar pedagogical aims, motivating students and obtaining technical support.

Keywords: Collaborative Online International Learning, Challenges, Changes and Support

In the 21st century, global communication and exchange, especially through the internet and other means of virtual communication, strengthen the connection between people of different countries and different cultures. In frequent communications, the competencies of language and intercultural communication increasingly present their prominent significance. To meet the demand of social development, institutions of higher education must recognize the value of incorporating online collaborative activities in teaching in order to provide students the opportunity to interact and engage with peers in collaborative learning（Munoz-Escalona, et al., 2022). New teaching and learning methods are generated in various forms of virtual exchange, such as globally networked learning, telecollaboration, collaborative online learning, virtual transnational education (TNE), as information technology and education combined (Guth, 2013). The application of virtual exchange enriches language teaching approaches and enhances students' learning outcomes. In spite of the benefits of virtual exchange, it also brings great challenges to language instructors and learners.

The purpose of this study was to collect feedback from students who had experience in participating in COIL projects and teachers who had experience in other COIL projects. The objective was to synthesize and analyze the challenges and difficulties they had faced in the whole process. Meanwhile, the expected changes and support for COIL from the teachers' perspective were discussed. The results might shed light on future COIL projects, help avoid potential problems, and guarantee the success of intercultural collaboration.

Literature Review

Collaborative Online International Learning (COIL), as one form of virtual exchange, connects people in different countries to develop collaborative projects that students do together across time zones, language differences, and geographical distances using online tools. It could be a part of a curriculum course to support students' learning goals, give opportunities to engage hands-on with course concepts and new ideas, and – most importantly – explore them from different cultural perspectives.

Studies on COIL always concern intercultural competence development. Intercultural competence refers to "the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on one's intercultural knowledge, skills and attitudes" (Deardorff, 2006, pp. 247–248). The affordance of COIL in building intercultural competence is reported in many studies.

Affordance of COIL

Based on internet technology and innovative online pedagogies, COIL provides students with opportunities for global experiences. Through COIL, students gain meaningful exchanges between peers which enhance their international and intercultural understanding (Chan, 2010; Guth, 2013; Rubin & Guth, 2015). Studies on building intercultural competence through COIL prove a development in intercultural collaboration skills in a greater awareness and openness to cultural differences and a change in perspective and stereotype (De Castro et al., 2019; EVOLVE Project Team, 2020; Guth, 2013; Itakura, 2002; O'Dowd, 2021). Meanwhile, improvement in language competence, such as oral English skills, especially fluency, and writing skills, has also been reported (Angelova & Zhao, 2016; Guth, 2013; Lu et al., 2014; Moratinos-Johnson et al., 2018). The relationship students develop with an international partner motivates them to maintain good study habits and enhanced conceptualization of the course content (Skagen et al., 2018). In recent years, there have been some studies on virtual exchanges in which participants use a second language, most commonly English. Guarda (2013) found that it can lessen learners' anxiety when interacting with other learners of this language and cement participants' feelings of proximity and mutual support. Teachers commonly reflected that their teaching practice had been transformed in positive ways, such as experiencing a unique learning environment and receiving a great deal of resources and training from institutions, gaining new perspectives from international partners, and confidence in their own approach (Guth, 2013). Therefore, COIL can be seen as a rewarding, sustainable and multi-functional teaching method for both students and teachers.

Challenges of COIL

O'Dowd and Ritter (2006) identified four levels at which factors can contribute to 'failed communication': the individual, classroom (or methodological), socio-institutional and interaction. On the individual level, the factors regard learners' level on motivations and expectations towards the exchange project. On the classroom level, the factors are teacher-to-teacher relationships, task design, learner-matching procedures, local group dynamics and a pre-exchange briefing. On the socio-institutional level, the factors include technology and general organization of the students' courses of study. On an interaction level, O'Dowd and Ritter (2006) identified "the misunderstandings and tension which arise from cultural differences in communicative style and behavior" (p. 634). These four levels well summarized and categorized all the challenges of COIL. O'Dowd and Ritter (2006) also argued that it was always a combination of interconnected factors that led to failure.

Like any course held for the first time that may run into logistical issues, teachers conducting COIL courses face similar logistical issues, such as a heavy workload, unclear guidelines for assignments, time differences, lack of time to effectively complete collaborative or peer-dependent tasks, especially in situations where there is a significant time difference (Guth, 2013). Guth (2013) revealed the reasons for students' drop-out were internet and technology, the impediment of [the English] language and differences in academic culture compared to their counterparts. Similar issues, as well as partners' absences and broken communication, were the drawbacks reported in teachers' reports and students' diaries (Bueno Alastuey, 2011). As for the constraints of different tools and modes of communication, written form communication can lead to misunderstandings as the speakers are invisible (Ware & Kramsch, 2005). Although synchronous communication can avoid this misunderstanding and motivate students' participation, it also requires students to be able to become competent in both switching linguistic and semiotic codes and become fluent in delivering information in new codes (Hampel & Hauck, 2006).

In order to incorporate a new teaching approach into the class and to exploit it for language and intercultural learning, teachers need to develop a series of new skills and attitudes (O'Dowd, 2013). E-literacy, which highly demands institutional support, is the first barrier to setting up and running exchange projects (Marcillo & Desilus, 2016; O'Dowd, 2009). Technology issues are more frequently observed as the greatest concern among inexperienced teachers. However, the greatest barrier perceived by experienced teachers was time (Helm, 2015). The organizing and integrating of an exchange can be a very complex and time-consuming process (O'Dowd, 2013). It generally takes a great amount of time and energy, which forces some teachers to stop. The difficulty also lies in finding an appropriate and steady partner with similar aims, able to adapt programs to different institutional and students' expectations (O'Dowd, 2009, 2013). Starke-Meyerring and Wilson (2008) highlighted that partners could share common visions, approaches and practices, which was important to the long-term sustainability. The difficulties in how to include online exchanges in course syllabi and course evaluation schemes also propose great challenges for teachers. As for the evaluation, Guth (2013) found teachers "were more inclined to focus on aspects of these courses that could not be assessed or that had not found a 'universal' method of assessment", instead of using traditional assessment methods, such as quantitative surveys (p. 25). It is rather problematic to give evaluations on the basis of commitment and participation (O'Dowd, 2009). Without sufficient recognition in the form of marks, it is quite difficult to motivate students to be engaged in projects with time and effort. Additionally, traditional learning environments, methods and pedagogies do not work in COIL courses (Guth, 2013), and pedagogical support is highly needed (O'Dowd, 2009). O'Dowd (2009, pp. 6–7) concluded that difficulties resulted in telecollaboration remaining on the periphery of foreign language teaching, and only teachers and students "who are willing to take it on as an 'add-on' activity apart from traditional skills-based language activities" would exploit it. Therefore, how to integrate COIL into a course, instead of using it as an extra activity, restrains the development of language teaching and proposes another challenge for teachers.

Research Issues and Questions

The aim of this study was to provide a picture of the current state of a COIL project between Chinese and Japanese L2 learners of English in universities and to explore what difficulties and challenges teachers and students had encountered, how teachers reflected on the development of COIL through improving it and calling for support. The research questions in this paper are the following:

1. What difficulties did students encounter in the COIL project with Japanese partners?
2. What difficulties did teachers usually encounter in practicing COIL projects?
3. What changes and supports were expected from teachers' perspectives in COIL practice?

Method

Two different questionnaires were developed. One was aimed at Chinese university students who had participated in COIL collaboration with Japanese partners to find out their personal experience and opinions on the collaboration; the other one was designed for university instructors in a Chinese institution who had experience in carrying out COIL practices in order to explore their difficulties in online exchange. Two questionnaires were designed in Chinese. Therefore, all participants could provide answers in their native language so as to avoid English language competence being a barrier for students to provide sufficient and detailed responses for this study. Besides, all questions were designed in the form of open-ended questions to elicit more spontaneous responses.

Participants and the Research Context

There were 41 university students and seven university instructors who responded to the surveys. They all participated in a COIL project which was blended in a college English course and themed on communicative skills through weekly oral discussions before the survey. All the Chinese students were majors in foreign languages, 24 were learners of Japanese and 17 were learners of French. None of them had any experience in online international collaboration. The seven university instructors had teaching experience of 17.3 years on average and 3-6 years' experience in COIL teaching. Most of them had practiced COIL teaching so many times that few of them could recall the exact number. According to their responses, they had carried out COIL for about 17 times on average (See Table 1). Each instructor approximately carried out about 3.6 times of COIL practice per year. Therefore, the instructors who participated in this survey had sufficient experience in ordinary classroom teaching and COIL practice.

Table 1

General Information About Teachers' COIL Teaching Experience

Participants	**Years of teaching experience**	**Years of COIL practice**	**Number of COIL practices**	**Number of COIL practices per year**
1	12	6	about 30	about 5
2	16	5	about 20	about 4
3	20	4	about 25	about 6
4	25	5	about 15	about 3
5	10	5	12	2.4
6	18	5	10-20	2-4
7	20	3	4	1.3
on Average	17.3	4.7	about 17	about 3.6

Data Collection Instruments and Procedures

Helm (2015) carried out surveys of open-ended questions on a total of 210 university educators from more than 100 institutions in European institutions in 23 different countries in order to find out barriers to teachers and on 131 students to explore their attitudes toward telecollaboration. Her study included a broad geographic distribution of respondents. Therefore, some of her questions were adapted and applied in this study.

The questionnaire for students mainly concerned questions about the difficulties in the COIL project, such as '*What difficulties did you run into in this COIL?*'; while the questionnaire for instructors concerned more questions about challenges, changes to make and the support they needed, such as '*What changes and support do you expect?*'. These two questionnaires, in the form of open-ended questions, were created on Wenjuanxing, a website for online surveys. Then, the links to these two questionnaires were shared with students and teachers correspondingly through WeChat, a social media platform used for contacting students and teachers in daily teaching activities, in the class discussion group and teachers' discussion group at the end of a semester when all COIL projects were over. By clicking the link, students and teachers were navigated to the web page of their survey. After they finished all the questions, they completed the survey by clicking the submit button.

Data Analysis

The data collected from students and teachers were used for textual analysis. Initially, the author identified all the feedback points and assigned 'type of challenges' to code responses manually, such as pronunciation, understanding, and expressing. New codes were continually added to it during the coding process. For example, pronunciation was the most frequently mentioned word in the feedback from students, so it was included in the list of codes. In the responses, Chinese students used different Chinese words, such as "du yin (the way you read it)" or "fa yin (pronunciation)". By checking the whole sentences, the author found literally they all referred to pronunciation, so they were all coded as pronunciation. Then, the author sorted these types of challenges into five different categories: language competence, involvement, time, cultural difference and cognitive difference. Eventually, these five different categories of challenges were discussed according to the four perspectives, individual, classroom, socio-institutional, and interaction, identified by O'Dowd and Ritter (2006) and reported in percentages. The accuracy of coding was checked before reporting.

Results and Discussion

The survey results from students and teachers were reported separately according to the four perspectives identified by O'Dowd and Ritter (2006): individual, classroom, socio-institutional, and interaction.

Challenges for Students

Among the 41 Chinese students, 36 reported their challenges in this COIL project. The spontaneous responses on challenges students had encountered converged on issues of language competence (individual level), involvement (individual level), time (socio-institutional level) and cultural difference (interaction level).

On the Individual Level. Language competence was the greatest barrier to students. The top issue of language competence came from pronunciation (20.7%). Students expressed nearly all of them, Chinese and Japanese, having accents, which caused difficulty in understanding. The second issue of language competence was understanding (15.5%). The way people talk varies a lot from culture to culture. The Japanese language is full of rhythm, and for each constituent is finished with a marker and a pause, which sounds quite different to Chinese students. Besides, when Japanese students describe a new thing or a phenomenon in their culture with unfamiliar vocabulary, it was even harder for Chinese students to understand fully. Chinese students observed similar difficulties which occurred to their

Japanese partners. The challenges were also prominent in the language output as seven Chinese students responded that they failed to express ideas in English properly, clearly and quickly (12.1%). It always took some time to convert their thoughts into English, and the problem of insufficient vocabulary made the situation worse (3.5%). The challenge caused by language competence was described as broken language communication by 8 students (13.8%). Overall, the issues concerning language competence took up 65.4% of all challenges. Students' involvement also proposed challenges to the COIL project. Late responses (1.7%), low participation (5.2%) and awkward silence (3.4%) in communication blocked mutual communication and decreased partners' motivation (See Table 2).

On the Socio-Institutional Level. The one-hour time difference between Japan and China didn't cause any challenge to students as it happened between Asian and European/American partners. However, unpunctuality, canceling or postponing an appointment, and an unmatched timetable made students feel frustrated and disappointed (10.3%), which directly influenced the succeeding collaboration and effects of COIL.

The results of challenges to teachers converged on the classroom level, individual level and socio-institutional level. Unlike Helm's (2015) findings, no culture clashes, misunderstandings, or reinforcement of stereotypes on the interaction level were reflected in teachers' spontaneous responses.

Table 2

The Challenges Students Encountered in COIL Project

Challenges		Frequency	Percentage
Language competence	Broken language communication	8	13.8%
	Vocabulary	2	3.5%
	Pronunciation	12	20.7%
	Understanding	9	15.5%
	Expressing	7	12.1%
Involvement	Late responses	1	1.7%
	Low participation	3	5.2%
	Awkward silence	2	3.4%
Time		6	10.3%

Cultural differences	2	3.5%
Cognitive differences	1	1.7%
No difficulty	5	8.6%
Total	***58***	***100%***

Challenges for Teachers

On the Classroom Level. The greatest challenge, reported by 71.4% of the teachers in this study, was to find a good partner in COIL practice. The partners who were easy-going, cooperative, full of ideas and having comparatively high expectations and supervision on students were considered ideal. 42.9% of the teachers reflected on the difficulty in having different teaching aims. It is unavoidable that partners have different pedagogical aims according to their own course syllabi, students' backgrounds and motivation. If the difference is too huge, all students will eventually lose their motivation and the collaboration may result in broken communication and lower achievement. The issue of finding a good partner also intertwines with the issue of matching of learners. Students' background, such as age, learning experience, language competence, should all have been taken into consideration. The Chinese students in the COIL project in this study were all second language learners of English at an intermediate level. Their language proficiency is typically another issue to consider before a COIL project is set up (28.6%). Whether the language proficiency is good enough to guarantee successful communications is above all other factors when an instructor chooses a partner. A good partner can help to narrow the gap through designing appropriate tasks, providing clear guidance and motivating students constantly.

Therefore, the standard of an ideal partner is not only the commitment of the instructor, but also about whether both teachers' pedagogical aims, course syllabi and students' backgrounds can match. Guth (2013) similarly stressed the importance of faculty partners' in-depth discussions about institutional cultures, language proficiency, time zones, and student expectations. O' Dowd (2009) also identified the difficulties of building up reliable and steady partnership. Besides, on the classroom level, 42.9% of the teachers in this study found students, not only Chinese students, had a lack of motivation; however, they didn't provide any explanation of the reasons (See Table 3). It is rather worthwhile to conduct further research studies on whether the motivation had been low since the COIL partnership was built or it dropped sometime during the project.

On the Individual Level. Although all teachers in this survey practiced COIL for more than three times per year on average, only one teacher proposed that "I put in too much energy and time into COIL (14.3%), which exhausted me and shook my belief in COIL. However, it is quite delighted to see the students' gains through COIL" (See Table 3). Generally, dozens of emails and tens of hours of online meetings are invested, especially during the initial period of setting up a COIL collaboration, followed by weekly communication between two teachers on students' reactions and responses to see if any change of syllabus or flexibility in time and deadline is in need. Guth (2013) also proposed that faculty partners needed to monitor student interaction and collaboration carefully, in case that intervention and supports were in demand. It is truly a challenge to invest a great amount of time and energy for teachers (Bahari, 2022). Due to this fact, O' Dowd (2009) proposed that "only the highly motivated pioneering teachers who are particularly convinced of the benefits of this activity and who are probably engaged in research related to its outcome" would invest time and energy to the practice and research of COIL (p. 6). Hence, the great occupation of personal time restricts the wider application of COIL among more teachers.

On the Socio-Institutional Level. Time difference is another unavoidable issue (28.6%) (See Table 3 below), especially when collaborations are cross-continental.

Table 3

The Challenges Teachers Encountered in COIL Project

Challenges	Frequency	Percentage
Finding an ideal partner	5	71.4%
Differences in teachers' aims	3	42.9%
Technology issues	3	42.9%
Lack of students' motivation	3	42.9%
Time difference	2	28.6%
Very different level of language proficiency	2	28.6%
Lack of time and energy	1	14.3%

The hours available to all group members are so much shortened by time difference. Texts are left unanswered until the following day and natural flows of conversations are broken. It is hard to find a time slot for an online meeting, even if students compare their timetables and put aside their personal issues, such as part-time jobs, or sickness. The time difference issue hugely hinders the communications, makes the students feel frustrated and even ignored, and thus it gradually lowers students' motivation after the initial period of a COIL project.

The lack of technical support, especially an appropriate platform for students' communication, was reflected on by 42.9% of the teachers (See Table 3), which is in confirmation of many other studies (Helm, 2015; O' Dowd, 2013). The lack of a feasible platform creates great barriers in communication, hugely frustrates teachers' and students' motivation and even results in reinforcing stereotypes. Therefore, a charge-free platform for teaching purposes, with the function of chats, online meeting, voice message, uploading pictures, videos and files, but without any restriction in registration or location, is in urgent need.

How to Improve COIL

To investigate the difficulties and challenges for teachers in depth and to improve the COIL project in the future, two other questions were designed in the questionnaire for teachers: What changes should be made in order to improve COIL and what supports are needed? The feedback was still analyzed from the four levels; however, no feedback on the interaction level was reported.

On the Classroom Level. The expected changes and support mainly focused on formulating the syllabus, including standardizing the syllabus (57.1%), improving task forms (14.3%), choosing more academic themes (14.3%) and adjusting the duration (14.3%) (See Table 4, following page). "The teaching syllabus should be constantly improved and perfected" stated by a teacher participant. As Helm (2015, p. 213) concluded "having a well-established syllabus and project is one way of relieving educators of some of the time burden that the organization of telecollaboration projects imposes, and would also facilitate integration into curricula and recognition with credits." Each teacher has his own design of the COIL syllabus according to individual teaching aims and the expectation of partner, which provides COIL projects quite a lot of flexibility. However, to the seven teachers in this study, each of whom teaches two to three classes of the same course, the COIL projects have to be standardized in order to guarantee the fairness of assessment and consistent learning objectives of all students.

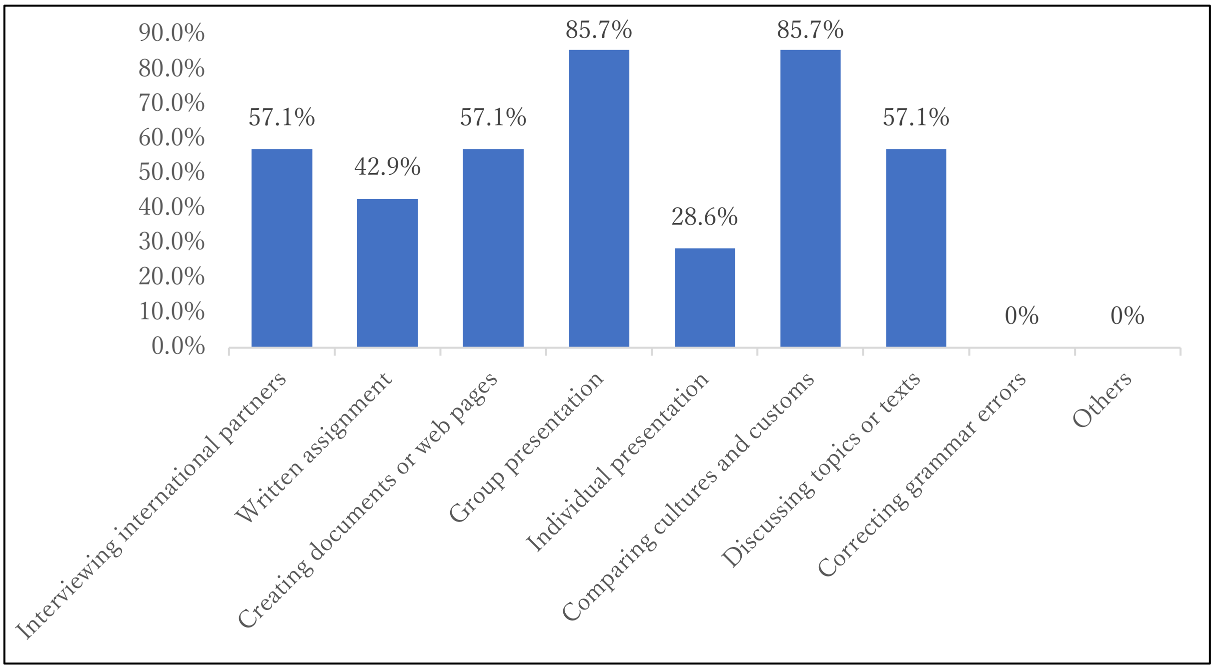
Table 4

The Expected Changes and Support of COIL Projects

Level	Changes and support	Frequency	Percentage
Classroom	Standardizing syllabus	4	57.1%
	Improving task forms	1	14.3%
	Choosing academic themes	1	14.3%
	Adjusting the duration	1	14.3%
Socio-institutional	Sharing experience	2	28.6%
	Assessment	1	14.3%
	Blending COIL into course	2	28.6%
	Building up steady partnership	2	28.6%
	Having a coordinator	2	28.6%
	Technical support	3	43.9%
	Institutional support	3	43.9%
Individual	Providing training for students' intercultural competence	1	14.3%

Figure 1

The commonly designed tasks in COIL projects



Improving the task forms is one way to standardize the syllabus. The tasks commonly designed by the teachers in this study from high to low in percentage were group presentation

(85.7%), comparing cultures and customs (85.7%), interviewing international partners (57.1%), creating documents or web pages collaboratively (57.1%), discussing topics and texts (57.1%), written assignment (42.9%) and individual presentation (28.6%), which reflected that teachers generally stressed more on the learning outcomes of a whole group on the basis of team work and communication than individual achievement, chose more oral practices than written assignments in forms, and preferred cross-cultural comparison to general topics in content (See Figure 1, previous page). After practicing COIL for years, most teachers would combine different task forms in the whole process of COIL to provide students exercises in different skills and avoid a motivation decrease after students repeat the same task week by week.

On the Socio-Institutional Level. Like any courses, COIL practice also requires collaborative wisdom from teachers within and beyond a team. In order to make COIL projects more rewarding to students, teachers reflected their need in sharing experiences with other teachers (28.6%). How to balance COIL, as a blended part, with ordinary classroom teaching is another change to make (28.6%). Besides, one of the teachers stressed the form of assessment (14.3%) (See Table 4). Sharing experience, especially in how to improve COIL and vary task forms and assessment forms with other teachers, greatly enhance teachers' pedagogical skills and teaching motivation. Therefore, regular teaching activities, such as staff training, teaching forums and workshops, are highly and urgently expected. To facilitate teaching, some institutions and organizations offer various support for educators, such as the SUNY COIL and UNICollaboration platform.

The need for steady partnerships (28.6%) can be categorized together with the need of a coordinator (28.6%) (See Table 4). For example, one teacher responded:

> *Building up institution-to-institution partnership would bring positive results in using unified syllabus, steady partnership and unchanging time in teaching calendar, then it wouldn't cost teachers too much time and energy before setting up each COIL project. The time and energy saved would be spent on summarizing and reflecting COIL practice and eventually on composing research papers. It (teachers building up new partnerships) is really a big waste to COIL project.*

A coordinator could greatly help building up an institution-to-institution partnership and maintain it. He could look for suitable partners who share similar pedagogical aims and whose students' backgrounds were not hugely different, "do the contact in early period of setting up a COIL project," and "complete the reflective part in the last stage." "A full-time coordinator could make the COIL teaching sustainable."

This study also reveals institutional support is highly expected (43.9%) (See Table 4). One teacher provided her demand with an explanation that "the institution should highlight the prominent place of COIL in course management." Their needs were concerning supporting COIL teachers on institutional policy level, such as decreasing COIL teachers' workload. Technical support (43.9%) is in close connection with support from institutions and the society.

On the Individual Level. Although only a few students reported difficulty in intercultural communication, one teacher proposed "it is necessary to provide students some preliminary training on intercultural competence before COIL project" in order to communicate successfully and avoid cultural misunderstandings and even stereotypes.

Limitations

The study presented several limitations. This study was only a case study concerning Chinese university students' experience in one COIL project with Japanese partners and instructors from the same Chinese university. It could not represent every language learner or foreign language educator involved in COIL projects. The international partners of these Chinese instructors were from a much broader geographic scope, such as Brazil, Mexico, Switzerland, The Netherlands, America and Japan. A large-scale survey on the Chinese students in all these collaborations is very likely to provide more information for research. In regards to the survey tools, only one open-ended question concerning the difficulty encountered in COIL was included in the questionnaire for students. Various question forms were needed in order to elicit more responses. This study just provided a broad overview. To address the issues in depth, large-scale quantitative research with well-designed questionnaires are needed.

Conclusion

This study attempted to contribute to a broader reflection of COIL practices in higher education in China in terms of the challenges to students and teachers as well as the expected changes and support from the teachers' perspective. The results inspired us to improve COIL practice and support instructors of COIL on the classroom and socio-institutional level in order to reach greater achievements and fully integrate COIL into university curricula.

From the students' perspective, the greatest challenges were language proficiency on the individual level; while from the perspective of teachers, the greatest barriers appeared to be finding a long-term partner with similar pedagogical aims, motivating students and obtaining technical support on the classroom level and socio-institutional level. Most of the challenges are not isolated ones, they are usually interconnected (O'Dowd & Ritter, 2006). In order to improve the effectiveness of COIL practice, institutions need to facilitate teachers with pedagogical support by organizing faculty training, setting up workshops, forums and conferences across institutions, funding for travel, and providing technical support, as well. A full-time coordinator can better maintain the partnership among institutions, save teachers' time for conducting COIL practices and coordinate the academic activities on the institutional level. To guarantee the sustainable development of COIL, students' and instructors' enthusiasm and engagement are far from enough. It also requires the involvement and facilitation on the socio-institutional level.

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BIO DATA

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Pragmatics and a Locally-made Corpora: A Toolkit for Teaching Speech Acts

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Abstract

Language learners' effective use of language, their communicative competence, depends not only on grammatical and textual competence, but pragmatic competence. To develop pragmatic competence, language used in instruction needs to be contextualized. In addition, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) stipulates that language for instruction should be as authentic as possible. Corpora-based pragmatics can address both of these requirements by providing authentic contextualized language. However, although available corpora contain vast amounts of authentic language, they are not well-suited to instruction due to their overwhelming volume and lack of contextual information. This study endeavored to create a corpus for instructional purposes of a particular speech act and explain the creation process for other teachers to employ. Language for the corpus was provided by university EFL instructors via a discourse completion task. The findings show a large variety of communicative strategies used by advanced speakers that are often not presented in textbooks.

Keywords: Pragmatics, Instructed Pragmatics, Corpus Pragmatics, Speech Acts, Suggesting

Before becoming an EFL teacher, I studied linguistics as an undergraduate. My first classes were in morphology and syntax: how words are formed and ordered in phrases across human languages. I was exposed to the great variety of structural patterns languages employ. Some languages required grammatical forms that did not exist in my native language of English. One such grammatical form, which usually appeared as a verb inflection, was an "evidential." These serve to report the source of the information that the speaker is presenting. Sources can be reported speech such as "I was *told* there is a fire in the field," specific sensory sources such as "I *saw* a fire in the field," or (auditory evidence) "I *heard* there is a fire in the field." Speakers of languages with grammaticalized evidentials can easily indicate, or in some languages are required to indicate, how they know something. I saw clearly how languages differed in *structure*. Linguists often abstract out grammatical systems from context to study them in isolation and determine their underlying rules. This is necessary just as the language learner may study grammar or vocabulary in isolation to learn and practice its rules.

When I moved from studying language as a phenomenon in a linguistics classroom to an instrument of communication in a foreign language classroom and then to studying abroad in a foreign country, I became much more interested in how language *functioned in context*. After years of study to acquire knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, when I put that knowledge to use in context, I became acutely aware that the phrases I attempted to use often did not have the effects I intended. I would hear “No one says that anymore” or “That’s too polite.” Although teachers had occasionally taught me some phrases were more “polite” than others, it was mostly through my own trial and error that I learned what to say to teachers, shopkeepers, bus drivers, or friends to request permission, invite to lunch, or ask for information. Additionally, the relationship I assumed a university student like myself had with these people, influencing how I should speak to them, was based only on my own experience in my home country. In the language classroom, I had heard generalizations about my foreign languages, such as Germans are very direct and Japanese were much less so. Yet how that translated into my choice of words was mostly left for me to determine through trial and error. Even though I was comfortable with intermediate grammar and vocabulary, I felt much less so choosing my language appropriately. Many studies now confirm this experience that grammatical ability does not guarantee comparable pragmatic competence in a foreign language (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Bouton, 1996; Boxer & Pickering, 1995; Kasper, 1997).

My experience learning a foreign language and most influentially studying abroad in the host culture led me toward an interest in the branch of Linguistics known as Pragmatics, which studies language use in context. First studying it within the framework of linguistics, I found the terminology and concepts immensely useful to discuss and understand how language is used to negotiate human interactions, such as indirectness, face-needs, and politeness strategies. Outside the classroom, I found that speakers could tell when an utterance was “rude,” “polite,” or “tactful,” but often could not articulate why. In my experience, only when speakers disagree on whether an utterance is appropriate does the need to discuss *how* and *why* arise. In such discussions, I often observed how teachers’ and learners’ lack of pragmatics terminology made discussions so difficult to have as there were few shared concepts and terms to facilitate discussions. As a language learner and then teacher, I came to strongly believe incorporating the concepts and terminology of pragmatics into the language classroom gives teachers and learners a shared framework to discuss and learn the appropriacy of language use.

The Current Study

To incorporate pragmatics into the language classroom, teachers need to identify the contextual factors that affect language use (sociopragmatics) and the language that would be appropriate depending on those factors (pragmalinguistics). Pragmatics can provide the sociopragmatic concepts and terminology, but the "appropriate language" presented in textbooks is often overly formal, limited, and inauthentic. Teachers can look to available corpora such as the Corpus of Contemporary American English for authentic language. However, since these corpora are not organized by language functions, such as "suggesting" nor do they give contextual information critical to choosing appropriate language, they are not particularly useful or convenient for gathering language to teach language functions (Suzuki, 2009). The context necessary for pragmatic information to be gathered goes far beyond the "co-text," the words before and after the language in question. It should also include the situational and cultural context (Culpeper et al., 2018).

To remedy this, the current study endeavors to create a small-scale corpus of authentic language targeted at the speech act of suggesting. 11 participants, who are all EFL teachers at Nagoya University of Foreign Studies, completed a Discourse Completion Task (DCT) consisting of eight situations which were designed to elicit suggestions. The language that participants used was then categorized and annotated for use in the language classroom. Results showed that participants used a wider variety of pragmalinguistic resources than is typically presented in textbooks. While textbooks typically present only "head acts" in the teaching of speech acts, the authentic language gathered in the corpus consisted mostly of "supporting moves." The case can then be made that these supporting moves deserve more attention in instructional materials.

Theoretical Background

Pragmatics

Pragmatics can be defined as "the study of communicative action in its sociocultural context" (Kasper & Rose, 2001), and it studies the linguistic choices speakers make depending on contextual and interpersonal factors. Leech and Thomas (1983) first subdivided pragmatics into pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic components. Pragmalinguistics refers to the linguistic resources for conveying communicative acts and relational or interpersonal meanings. Such resources include strategies like directness and indirectness, routines, and a large range of linguistic forms which can intensify or soften communicative acts. For example, to suggest, one could simply say, "How about Starbucks?" but one could also say, "Pardon me for bothering you, but if you don't mind walking just a little, there is Starbucks just a few minutes away that has an excellent selection of coffee that perhaps you might like." Both statements attempt the "act" of suggesting, but they index very different relationships between the two speakers. Speakers must choose the language that matches their perception of the relationship they have with each hearer appropriately.

In contrast, sociopragmatics refers to the social perceptions and norms on which speakers base their interpretation and performance of communicative acts (Leech, 1983). Speech communities have differing assessments of social distance and social power between speakers as well as the degree of imposition involved in various communicative acts (Blum-Kulka & House, 1989; Olshtain, 1989; Takahashi & Beebe, 1993). The typical relationship between parent and child, two classmates, or boss and employee in a speech community underlies the assessment of language appropriacy. These assessments are negotiable and can be altered through the dynamics of conversational interaction such as in Fraser's (1990) notion of the "conversational contract." The conversational contract is what participants expect from each other in terms of rights and responsibilities, but they can be altered through discourse.

Pragmatic Competence

Speakers require knowledge of both the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic factors to effectively communicate. If one is requesting a favor from a coworker, the request will likely not be fulfilled by the hearer if either of these are lacking: if the request is inappropriate in the sociocultural context (sociopragmatic) or inappropriate linguistic forms are used in making the request (pragmalinguistic). This ability is conceptualized as *pragmatic competence*. Pragmatic competence is a necessary component of communicative competence because it enables speakers to maintain and negotiate interpersonal relationships through language. Though an utterance may use accurate grammar, it may not be received well by a superior at work. For example, saying to one's boss at work, "Smoking is a disgusting habit. You should quit." The suggestion will likely be refused because giving health advice to a superior at work is inappropriate (sociopragmatically) and the language used is also inappropriate (pragmalinguistically).

Teaching Pragmatics

Most aspects of pragmatics have been demonstrated to be teachable through classroom instruction, such as speech acts: complaint and refusal (Morrow, 1996), implicature (Bouton, 1994; Kubota, 1995), apology (Johnson & deHaan, 2013), requests (Ren & Su, 2017), suggestion (Aufa 2014), and pragmatic routines (Tateyama et al., 1997; Wildner-Bassett, 1994). Explicit instruction, by which teachers provide meta-pragmatic information, has been recognized as generally more effective than implicit instruction, mere exposure to contextualized input (Ishihara, 2010). See the summary of existing interventional studies in Alcon and Martínez-Flor (2008) and Kasper (2001). See Jeon and Kaya (2006) for a meta-analysis of the research in instructed pragmatics. In my own experience, explicit terminology is engaging and effective with learners. I am frequently pleased at students' reactions to such terminology, as if they have just gained words to say what before was only a feeling or vague notion.

Speech Acts

The range of instructional fields in pragmatics is rapidly expanding but the most well-researched area is that of the teaching of *speech acts*. Tatsuki (2016) reviewed nine pedagogical collections published from 2001 to 2016 and found that speech act theory activities made up 71.6% of activity topics. As the notion of functionalism arose in linguistics, classifying language according to its function rather than form, speech act theory was a natural offshoot, which views language as a strategy to accomplish real-world actions. Speech Act theory as proposed by Austin (1962), conceives utterances as action. Examples of speech acts include requesting, apologizing, and suggesting. The speech act contains three acts:

- Locutionary Act - The language itself and the literal meaning of the words
- Illocutionary Act - The actual intended meaning of the words
- Perlocutionary Act - The effect of the words, the intended outcome.

Examples of the three acts in suggesting would look like:

- Locutionary Act: "Why don't we always put the key in the same spot so we don't lose it?"
- Illocutionary Act: *I suggest we put the key in the same spot.*
- Perlocutionary Act: *Speakers put the key in the same spot.*

There is often a conventionalized locution which does not literally correspond to the illocution. The phrase "Why don't we…?" is not understood as asking for a reason why something is not done but is conventionally understood as making a suggestion. Phrases for suggesting such as "Why don't we…?" or "You could…" are *head acts*, the nucleus of the speech act which accomplishes the act independently of other language used. The phrase "so we don't lose it" functions as a *supporting move* by offering a reason, sometimes called a *grounder*. There is a great variety of supporting moves as well as what are variously called *modifiers* or *softeners*. Speech acts such as requesting, refusing, and suggesting may be regarded as a *face-threatening act* (FTA) (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Martínez-Flor, 2005; Trosborg, 1995). They impose on the hearer's freedom of action and potentially damage the hearer's need to be accepted and liked by the speaker if the speech act is refused. (Leech, 2014). The hearer's freedom of action is conceptualized as *negative face* and their need to be liked and accepted as *positive face*. These face needs must be carefully managed by the speaker when making a face-threatening act.

Suggesting

The current study focuses on language used for the speech act of suggesting. The speech act of suggesting is an illocutionary act in which the speaker undertakes to give advice/instructions, offer help, or make a proposal for the benefit of the hearer. In one sense it is a *face-enhancing act* for the speaker because the speaker attempts to benefit the hearer, thereby increasing the speaker's value to the hearer. In this sense, 'suggestion' is assumed to be an *expressive* or *convivial* according to Searle's classification (Searle, 1979). Conversely, the suggestion also imposes on the hearer's freedom of action if the hearer accepts and follows the suggestion. In this sense is can be classified as a *directive* in which the speaker attempts to direct the behavior of the hearer.

Textbook Language for Suggesting

When textbooks approach the teaching of suggesting, head acts are most often the focus. Head acts are easy to identify and grasp for learners and should not be discarded. However, even what is usually presented in textbooks as head acts can be dated and too formal. Jiang (2006) noted that the most frequently used structures for suggesting in naturally occurring data were not always taught in textbooks. Further, the structures that were taught were far less common. See Jiang (2006) for comparisons between naturally occurring language and that which is presented in textbooks. Additionally, supporting moves or modifiers are often absent in textbooks, even though the current corpus creation project will demonstrate their prevalence higher than that of head acts in naturally occurring language. Teachers are often left to rely on intuitions, media, and the rare, published corpus of a select few speech acts available to find authentic language for instruction.

Method

Corpus Creation

To remedy this lack of authentic language available for the teaching of speech acts, I attempted to create my own small-scale corpus of language targeted at a particular speech act. I chose the speech act of suggesting because I have taught this speech act many times and wanted to test whether the language I had been teaching to students was authentic or not. I relied mostly on teaching head acts but considering the language collected in this corpus, the case for teaching supporting moves was greatly strengthened. I believe this corpus creation process to be replicable and practical for teachers wishing to teach speech acts with authentic language. I will detail the creation process below.

Participants and the Research Context

The participants who provided language for the corpus were 11 university-level English language instructors at Nagoya University of Foreign Studies. Eight were native speakers and three were not. All had between 3-10 years of university level teaching experience except one who had 1-2 years of experience. These participants were primarily selected for ease of data collection so that other teachers and researchers can easily replicate this corpus collection process. Attention was not paid to English proficiency levels although all participants had M.A. degrees in teaching or related fields and experience teaching English. Pragmatic competence was not measured, and as some participants were not native speakers, their pragmatic norms may differ. The data was collected using Google Forms and participants were compensated for their time. Participants were told at the beginning that their responses will be used to create an authentic corpus of language with which to instruct students in the act of “suggesting.” For each situation presented to participants, they were instructed to “write what suggestion you would make, word for word.” They were presented with an example situation and response before beginning. Participants were then presented with eight situations and four further questions about their teaching experience and use of corpora.

Data Collection Method

The tool used to collect language for the corpus was a Discourse Completion Task (DCT).

DCTs were originally developed by Blum-Kulka (1982) to examine the speech acts of native and non-native speakers of Hebrew. Since then, they have been used extensively in studies of L2 speech act production (for a review of DCT use see Kasper, 2008; Kasper & Rose, 2002; and Taguchi & Roever, 2017). DCTs typically involve presenting a participant with a brief scenario describing a setting and followed by a dialogue that has at least one open slot to be completed. DCTs are often designed to target a particular speech act, such as requesting or refusing. The situation description usually involves information on the setting, relationships between interlocutors, social distance, and the goal(s) of the interaction. An example situation from this study is as follows:

> *You see a new classmate who you don't know well on campus. He/She is parking a bicycle next to a doorway blocking the entrance. There is a bicycle parking space nearby. What would you say?*

Participants were instructed to respond appropriately in each situation as if they were university students. The DCT consisted of eight situations that were crafted by manipulating the principles of Power, Distance, and Imposition, which I will explain below.

Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory viewed the formation of speech acts dependent upon and constrained by three dimensions: Power, Distance and Imposition.

- Power is the relative power or status difference between speakers, such as between a boss and employee (large difference) or close friends (small difference).
- Distance is the social distance between speakers: lifelong friends (low distance) compared to two speakers meeting for the first time (high distance).
- Imposition, sometimes referred to as Risk, indicates the degree of time or effort being asked of the hearer and the potential risk to the relationship between speakers by attempting the speech act.

Situations were created with unique constellations of Power, Distance, and Imposition, resulting in eight situations (Appendix A). In Table 1, "+" represents high Power, Distance, or Imposition and "–", indicates low. The first four situations were suggesting to a classmate. A classmate indexes roughly equal Power. The latter four situations were suggesting to a teacher. A teacher indexes a larger power differential. In situations #1, #2, #5, and #6, the social distance between speakers was low. In situations #3, #4, #7, and #8, the distance was high. The Imposition was relatively low in situations #1, #3, #5, and #7, and relatively high in #2, #4, #6, and #8. It was hypothesized that situations of low overall P/D/I, such as #1 and #2, would require fewer politeness strategies and elicit more direct language, while the inverse would be true of situations of higher overall P/D/I such as #7 and #8.

Table 1

P/D/I Configurations of the Eight Situations in the DCT

Situation #	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Power	–	–	–	–	+	+	+	+
Distance	–	–	+	+	–	–	+	+
Imposition/Risk	–	+	–	+	–	+	–	+
Overall	– – –	– – +	– + –	– + +	+ – –	+ – +	+ + –	+ + +

Note. These are the configurations of P/D/I used in this DCT.

Creating the DCT questions

Configuring the three variables can be done as follows. I consulted Aufa's (2014) DCT of suggesting for reference. As an example, let us examine situation #1 in the DCT:

> *You see your close friend on campus. He/She wants to buy a coffee but doesn't know where to buy a coffee nearby. What would you say to him/her?*

The three variables of Power, Distance, and Imposition were configured as follows:

- Low Power is indexed by "friend" because friends typically have a lower power differential between them. Other options for hearers include "classmate" or "co-worker." "Younger sibling" can be used for a negative power difference in favor of the speaker.
- Low distance is indexed by "close friend." Other options include "friend you are close with," or "friend you have known for a long time." "Close friend" was chosen for its naturalness in English. In Situations #5 and #6, in the case of a teacher, "teacher you are close with" was chosen for the same reason.
- Low Imposition was specified by "He/She wants to buy a coffee." This was selected because it was hypothesized most participants would suggest a coffee shop that was convenient rather than one in a distant and hard to

access place. This demands a relatively low expenditure of time and effort on the part of the hearer. If the coffee turned out to not please the hearer, the loss of time and effort is presumed to be relatively low. The Risk of suggesting a coffee shop was hypothesized to be low as the hearer has already expressed a desire to buy a coffee so the suggestion was welcome.

Next, let us consider high Power, high Distance, and high Imposition/Risk situation creation by way of situation #8:

You are talking with your new English teacher who you are not very close with after class. He/She is a heavy cigarette smoker and complains there is no place to smoke on campus. He/She looks very stressed and coughs often. You always think he/she should quit. What would you say to him/her?

The three variables of Power, Distance, and Imposition were configured as follows:

- High Power is indexed by "teacher," as the participants were instructed to answer as if they were students. Teachers generally have power and status advantages over their students as they are entrusted with their instruction and grading.
- High Distance is specified by "new teacher who you are not very close with." As this situation was meant to contain the greatest Distance, it was emphasized twice by "new" and "who you are not very close with."
- High Imposition was specified by "You always think he/she should quit." This forced participants to make a suggestion to quit smoking rather than something less imposing such as suggesting smoking before coming to campus. Quitting smoking is often difficult and painful, hence imposing a great deal of time and effort on the hearer. Additionally, suggesting that someone quit smoking potentially implies they have made a poor personal choice in continuing to smoke. This implied judgement reflects badly on the hearer's positive face and threatens the relationship between speakers by the potential insult. In addition, "he/she complains there is no place to smoke on campus" indicates a resistance from the hearer to quitting smoking, thereby theoretically making the hearer even less receptive to a suggestion to quit.

In between situations #1 and #8 were additional unique configurations of P/D/I.

Classifying Language

Head Acts. I will follow the classifications of Martínez-Flor (2005) by classifying head acts as Direct, Conventionalized (direct), and Indirect as it is an authoritative work in the study of suggesting and the categories are useful salient concepts that are approachable for both students and teachers (Table 2).

Table 2

A Taxonomy of Suggesting by Martínez-Flor (2005)

TYPE	STRATEGY	EXAMPLE
DIRECT	Performative verb	I suggest that you ... I advise you to ... I recommend that you ...
	Noun of suggestion	My suggestion would be ...
	Imperative	Try using ...
	Negative imperative	Don't try to ...
CONVENTIONALISED FORMS	Specific formulae (interrogative forms)	Why don't you ...? How about ...? What about ...? Have you thought about ...?
	Possibility/probability	You can ... You could ... You may ... You might ...
	Should	You should ...
	Need	You need to ...
	Conditional	If I were you, I would ...
INDIRECT	Impersonal	One thing (that you can do) would be ... Here's one possibility: ... There are a number of options that you ... It would be helpful if you ... It might be better to ... A good idea would be ... It would be nice if ...
	Hints	I've heard that ...

Note. Suggesting head acts categorized as direct, conventionalized (indirect), and indirect.

The head act is the nucleus of a speech act and realizes the speech act without the need of other language (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). Head acts are underlined in the following tables. Direct and conventionalized forms of head acts are easy to identify such as "Why don't you…?" or "You might…," but it is notable that indirect forms such as "I've heard that…" can be considered head acts depending on context. Direct and conventionalized forms clearly propose a suggestion to the hearer from the speaker that is understood as such by both. Indirect forms do not unambiguously propose a suggestion and hence give plausible deniability to both parties that the utterance was intended as one. This politeness strategy is understandably employed to lessen the force of the suggestion to the point because it need not be interpreted as a suggestion by the hearer. Thus, the hearer can more easily refuse it by not interpreting it as such. Indirect "head acts," if they are classified as such, often occur in addition to a direct or conventionalized head act. This would seem to imply that they do not accomplish the speech act independently, at least in the eyes of the speaker.

Supporting Moves

Language beyond what can easily be identified as a head act was classified as "supporting moves" and then categorized by function. The annotation scheme was developed with reference to other annotation schemes (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Gao, 1999; Li, 2010; Trosborg, 1995; Weisser, 2018) but all judgements were made by the author. See Appendix C for a recommended annotation scheme by Trosborg (1995). Although there exists a wide range of annotation terminology both within pragmatics and instructed pragmatics for such phrases, for the purposes of instruction, terminology was selected to favor accessibility to teachers and students alike. For example, instead of "grounder," which in pragmatics typically indicates reasons, explanations, or justifications, "giving reasons" was used. Syntactic categories such as "internal" and "external modifiers" were also avoided as they do not indicate function. Although annotation terminology from pragmatics research can be directly used, I recommend teachers use their own judgement and adapt the terminology for their students.

Results

Next, I will examine the results from three situations in the DCT.

Situation #1: Low P/D/I

Situation #1 prompt:

> *You see your close friend on campus. He/She wants to buy a coffee but doesn't know where to buy a coffee nearby. What would you say to him/her?*

Table 3

Situation #1: Head Acts and Supporting Moves

Participant	Head Acts	Supporting Moves
1		Are you looking for somewhere to buy a coffee?
2	I can take you to a coffee shop nearby. (conventionalized indirect)	
3		There's a Starbucks up the road past the grocery store. Just take the first right at the light. There's a place called Ando Cafe that's pretty good, too. They've got really good cheesecake. I bet you can find it on Google maps."
4	Why don't you try Starbucks? (conventionalized indirect)	It's just round the corner.
5		There's a cafe just over there. They have nice coffee.
6	Let me show you where to buy some coffee. (conventionalized indirect)	
7	I heard that coffee in ** cafe in the ** building is good. (indirect)	I never actually buy coffee, but
8	Want me to take you there? (conventionalized indirect)	There is a really nice cafe nearby.
9	You can get them at Seven near ~~ building. I can walk with you. (conventionalized indirect)	I need coffee to wake me up.

Note. Head acts and supporting moves used by participants in situation #1

To analyze the supporting moves on their own, let us plot them according to function:

Table 4

Situation #1: Functions of Supporting Moves

Function	Language
Confirming intent (utterances which reaffirm wants or needs)	Are you looking for somewhere to buy a coffee?
Informing (utterances that give relevant information)	There's a Starbucks up the road past the grocery store. Just take the first right at the light.
Giving Reasons (utterances that give reasons for the suggestion)	There's a place called Ando cafe that's pretty good, too. They've got really good cheesecake. I bet you can find it on Google maps. They have nice coffee. I heard that coffee in ** cafe in the ** building is good. There is a really nice cafe nearby.
Offer of assistance (utterances that offer help or support)	I can walk with you.
Empathizing (utterances that show understanding of another's feeling)	I need coffee to wake me up.

Note. Supporting moves used by participants in situation #1 categorized by function.

Of the 11 participants, two were excluded due to not submitting the exact words they would use instead of a description of what they would say; "I would first ask what type of coffee they are specifically looking to buy then would direct them accordingly." Head acts were used by six of nine participants while the other three only used supporting moves. Four participants used a head act followed by supporting moves while two used only a head act. This situation of overall low P/D/I contains frequent use of conventionally indirect head acts, such as "why don't you…?" and "you can (get them at…)," with only one indirect head act, "I heard that…is good." Supporting moves are present but minimal. Most participants used only one or two. The most preferred supporting move was "giving reasons." Other supporting used were "confirming intent," "informing," "offer of assistance," and "empathizing."

Situation #4: Low P, High D/I

Situation #4 prompt:

> *You see a new classmate who you don't know well on campus. He/She is parking a bicycle next to a doorway blocking the entrance. There is a bicycle parking space nearby. What would you say to him/her?*

Table 5

Situation #4: Head Acts and Supporting Moves

Participant	Head Acts	Supporting Moves
1	<u>It might be better.</u> (indirect)	Hey, just want to let say, there is a place over there where you can put your bike.
2	<u>You may want to </u>move your bike. (conventionalized indirect)	Hi. We take the same class. It probably blocks the entrance.
3		Excuse me, I know this is a convenient place to park, but your bicycle is actually blocking the entrance...
4	<u>It might be better </u>to put your bike in the space over there. (indirect)	Hey,_ Yeah, it's no big deal! Easy to miss.
5	<u>Follow me, I can show you</u>. (conventionalized indirect)	Hi xxx, we're in the same xxx class, right?! You cycle to school too? I usually park at the bicycle parking over there.
6		You might want to be careful parking here.
7	<u>You should park </u>your bike at the bike parking, (conventionalized indirect)	it's this way.

Participant	Head Acts	Supporting Moves
8		There's a bicycle parking space ____.
9	You should leave it over there. (conventionalized indirect)	I don't think you can leave your bike here;
10	You want to park your bike over there in a parking space. (conventionalized indirect)	Hi, (Name)! I can show you.

Note. Head acts and supporting moves used by participants in situation #4.

Table 6

Situation #4: Function of Supporting Moves

Function	Language
Address (utterance which greets or recognizes the hearer)	Hey Hi Hi, (name) Hi, xxx Hi
Disarmer (utterances that signal awareness of potential offense)	just want to say Excuse me,
Giving reasons (utterances that give reasons for the suggestion)	It probably blocks the entrance your bicycle is actually blocking the entrance…
Informing (utterances that give relevant information)	there is a place over there where you can put your bike it's this way
Empathizing (utterances that show understanding of another's feeling)	I know this is a convenient place to park. Easy to miss.
Offer of assistance (utterances that offer help or support)	I can show you.

Function	Language
Camaraderie/friendliness (utterances which show connection and interest)	We take the same class. We're in the same xxx class, right?! You cycle to school, too?

Note. Supporting moves used by participants in situation #4 categorized by function.

One participant opted not to attempt a suggestion and explained this choice by saying "I wouldn't say anything, I don't know them well enough to get involved." Of the ten participants who attempted a suggestion, head acts were used by seven while the other three only used supporting moves. All seven of the participants who used a head act also used supporting moves. The most preferred supporting moves were "address" and "camaraderie/friendliness." Other supporting moves used were "address," "informing," "giving reasons," "disarming," and "empathizing".

Situation #8: High P/D/I

Situation #8 prompt:

You are talking with your new English teacher who you are not very close with after class. He/She is a heavy cigarette smoker and complains there is no place to smoke on campus. He/She looks very stressed and coughs often. You always think he/she should quit. What would you say to him/her?

Table 7

Situation #8 Head Acts and Supporting Moves

Participant	Head Acts	Supporting Moves
1		Are you okay? It must be inconvenient for you, but it may be a good chance.
2		Professor, I am sorry if it is rude to you, but it might be a good opportunity for you to reflect upon your smoking habits and your health condition.
3		Are you okay? That sounds like a bad cough.
4		That cough sounds bad, are you okay?

Participant	Head Acts	Supporting Moves
5	Maybe you would consider quitting smoking? (Conventionalized indirect)	Ms./Mr. (Name), I don't want to be rude, but you seem very stressed about finding a place to smoke on campus and you are always coughing. My dad used to be a heavy smoker but after he quit, he seems happy and healthy.

Note. Head acts and supporting moves used by participants in situation #8.

Table 8

Situation #8 Functions of Supporting Moves

Function	Language
Hinting (utterance which indirect refers to the reasons for suggesting)	Are you ok? That sounds like a bad cough. It must be inconvenient for you. You seem very stressed about finding a place to smoke on campus and you are always coughing.
Disarmer (utterances that signal awareness of potential offense)	I am sorry if it is rude to you
Relevant case (utterances that provide relevant examples)	My dad used to be a heavy smoker but after he quit, he seems happy and healthy.
Polite Address (utterance which politely greets or recognizes the hearer)	Ms./Mr. Professor

Note. Supporting moves used by participants in situation #8 categorized by function.

Of the 11 respondents, only five attempted to say anything with the other six responding “I wouldn’t say anything.” or “Nothing.” Some participants offered reasons for not making a suggestion: “I would just feel uncomfortable” and “Giving health advice to a teacher (older person) is not appropriate.” One participant used a head act “Maybe you would consider quitting smoking?” but with the modifiers such as hedges (“maybe”), hypotheticals (“would”), and an indirect verb to soften the suggestion (“consider”). This head act came after numerous preparatory supporting moves. The other four participants used only supporting moves. Preferred supporting moves were "hinting," "polite address," and "disarmer" while one participant used a "relevant case" of their own dad quitting smoking.

Discussion

Head Acts and Supporting Moves

Across all the situations, the most salient feature of participants' responses was the use of supporting moves. Head acts alone were extremely rare and supporting moves were often used without any head act. The most face-threatening situation, #8 of high P/D/I, saw only one participant of five use a head act and even this was used in conjunction with multiple supporting moves to mitigate the threat of the head act. Situation #1 saw the highest incidence of head acts with two participants using head acts without any supporting moves. This would seem to imply that speech acts in situations of low P/D/I can be accomplished solely by head acts although most participants did use at least one supporting move along with their head act. This confirms Taguchi's (2016) findings which showed that low P/D/I situations were perceived as less difficult to perform speech acts in compared with those of high P/D/I situations. Situation #4 displayed a middle way between the two with head acts used by most participants but accompanied with multiple supporting moves. It can reasonably be concluded that speech acts in situations of low P/D/I require fewer supporting moves and those of high P/D/I requires more.

Teaching Implications

From the three situations presented above, I would now like to present some teaching implications that can be drawn from such a corpus creation process.

In situation #1 of low P/D/I, head acts were the most used of all the situations in this DCT while supporting moves were minimal. The supporting moves of "giving reasons" and "informing" were the most common. Preparatory moves, supporting moves that proceed the head act and prepare the hearer, such as "confirming intention", were only used by one participant. If students evaluate a situation as having overall low P/D/I, they can then be taught that head acts are appropriate and supporting moves can be used but are not always necessary. Supporting moves can consist primarily of "giving reasons" and other information to justify the suggestion but "disarmers" and other preparatory supporting moves are not necessary. A formula for suggestions in such situations can be presented as "head act" + "giving reasons/informing."

In situation #4 of low Power, high Distance, and high Imposition, head acts were slightly less prevalent than those of situation #1 but still used by six of ten participants. Supporting moves were more common and more verbose than in situation #1. Preparatory supporting moves such as “address,” “disarming,” and “camaraderie/friendship” were used by six of ten participants. Students can be instructed that head acts are appropriate in situations of low P, high D, and high I but should be accompanied by supporting moves. When Power is low, “camaraderie/friendliness” strategies are appropriate and can be used to emphasize the closeness and equal status of speakers before attempting a head act. “Camaraderie/friendliness” strategies were far less common in situations #5, #6, #7, and #8 with a hearer of higher power. It can be inferred this is because showing camaraderie with a superior would be inappropriate due to the Power difference. A formula for suggestions in such situations can be presented as “address” + “disarmer” or “camaraderie/friendliness” + “head act” + “giving reasons/informing.”

In situation #8 head acts were rare. They were only used by one of five participants who attempted a suggestion. The one head act present uses indirect hedging language, “Maybe you would consider…,” and occurs after multiple preparatory supporting moves. Students can thus be taught that in situations of high P/D/I, head acts can be used but must be proceeded by supporting moves. The preferred supporting moves to be taught are “hints,” “polite address,” and “disarmer.” Furthermore, it can be implied that hinting can be enough to make a suggestion in a situation of high P/D/I. A formula for suggestions in such situations can be presented as “polite address” + “disarmer” + “hint” + (“head act”).

Table 9

Teaching implications drawn from situations #1, #4, and #8

Situation	**Head acts and supporting moves**	**Preferred supporting moves**	**Formula for suggesting**
Situation #1: • Low P • Low D • Low I	Head acts are appropriate and supporting moves minimal.	• Giving reasons • Confirming intent • Informing	head act + giving reasons/informing
Situation #4: • Low P • High D • High I	Head acts are appropriate but supporting moves are necessary.	• Address • Camaraderie/ friendliness • Disarmer	address + disarmer or camaraderie/friendliness + head act + giving reasons/informing

Situation #8: • High P • High D • High I	Head acts are likely inappropriate. If used, multiple supporting moves are necessary.	• Hints • Polite address • Disarmer	• polite address • + disarmer • + hint • + ("head act").

Note. Teaching implications drawn from the results of situations #1, #4, and #8.

Standardization of P/D/I

Although it is relatively easy to manipulate Power and Distance, Imposition is much harder to standardize. To create situations with identical degrees of Imposition, such as #2, #4, #6 and #8 which are theoretically the same "high" degree of imposition, the same situation would need to be used. That is, "suggest (person) quit smoking" and only the Power and Distance of the hearer be changed. This would yield: #2 "suggest a close friend quit smoking," #4 "suggest a new classmate quit smoking," #6 "suggest a teacher you know well quit smoking," and #8 "suggest a teacher you don't know well quit smoking." These repetitive tasks would be monotonous and likely confusing for participants. In an effort to elicit natural language from participants in a variety of situations, each situation contained a unique topic for suggestion, such as suggesting someone buy a different coat, move their bicycle, or speak up in class. The drawback of doing so was that speakers likely rated some situations which were designed to be low Imposition as perhaps "moderate" or even "high" and vice versa.

Conclusion

Language collected via a small-scale corpus can be used to identify authentic language to teach in the instruction of a chosen speech act. After creating a DCT based on the principles of P/D/I, the collected language should be categorized into head acts and supporting moves. Head acts can be classified as direct, conventionalized (indirect), and indirect following Martínez-Flor (2005). Supporting moves can be classified into functional categories using an annotation scheme such as Trosborg's (1995) in Appendix C or Li's (2010) in Appendix D. Teachers can adapt the categorization terminology to be more accessible for their students. Patterns of head acts and supporting moves for the chosen speech act in each situation can be abstracted out and used for instruction. A minimum of two DCT situations are recommended for such a corpus; one situation of low P/D/I and one situation of high P/D/I. Additional situations with different configurations of P/D/I will provide a larger variety of head acts and supporting moves. Situations should use realistic situations to elicit natural and varied language. Intercoder reliability between creators of the DCT and classifiers of the collected language would be preferable to create situations reliably indicating high or low P/D/I and reliable categorization of collected language. This is a major limitation of data collected in this current study which was designed and analyzed by only one author. Nevertheless, I believe the data is still useful and reliable for the purposes of instruction. The purpose of this study was to outline the necessary principles and relevant research for any teacher wishing to replicate this process for their speech act of choice.

Although head acts are present in at least one participant response in every situation, there is a higher occurrence of supporting moves across all situations. As P/D/I increases, the ratio of supporting moves over head acts increases. Classroom instruction can reflect this finding by instructing students to use more supporting moves and fewer head acts as P/D/I increases. In future works, I intend to present how language instructors can teach speech acts, such as suggestions, in a more effective manner by creating their own corpus and incorporating explicit pragmatic instruction.

BIO DATA

Taylor Meizlish holds a BA in Linguistics and an MA in Linguistics: Language Teaching Specialization. His interest is in developing students' pragmatic competence by applying the insights of Linguistics and Pragmatics to the EFL classroom. He currently teaches at Nagoya University of Foreign Studies.

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Appendix A

DCT Situations

Situation #1	You see your close friend on campus. He/She wants to buy a coffee but doesn't know where to buy a coffee nearby. What would you say to him/her?
Situation #2	You see your close friend at a clothing store. He/She is going to buy an expensive coat from that store. You have seen the same coat for a cheaper price at another store. What would you say to him/her?
Situation #3	You are in English class. Your new classmate who you don't know well is being quiet and not answering questions in class. You think he/she knows the answer but is just a little shy. What would you say to him/her?
Situation #4	You see a new classmate who you don't know well on campus. He/She is parking a bicycle next to a doorway blocking the entrance. There is a bicycle parking space nearby. What would you say to him/her?
Situation #5	You see your English teacher who you are close with on campus. He/She wants to buy lunch on campus but he/she doesn't know what restaurants there are on campus. What would you say to him/her?
Situation #6	You are talking with your English teacher who you are close with. He/She is going to buy an expensive and outdated smartphone. You have seen a much cheaper and newer one in another store. What would you say to him/her?
Situation #7	You are having lunch and talking with your new English teacher you are not very close with. He/She wants to visit a local sightseeing spot this weekend. You know a good place you think he/she would like. What would you say to him/her?
Situation #8	You are talking with your new English teacher who you are not very close with after class. He/She is a heavy cigarette smoker and complains there is no place to smoke on campus. He/She looks very stressed and coughs often. You always think he/she should quit. What would you say to him/her?

Note. DCT Situations used in the current study.

Appendix B

Suggesting Head Acts and Supporting Moves

Head Acts
Direct
You should…
Why don't you…?
How about…?
You could…
Maybe you could try…
It might be better to…
Would you consider…?
I heard that…
Indirect

Supporting moves	
Address	Hi, Hey, Professor, Hi (name)
Giving Reasons	Because X… There is… It probably blocks the entrance.
Disarmer	I don't mean to be rude Excuse me
Offer of Assistance	I can show you I can take you there
Camaraderie/ friendliness	We take the same class. We're in the same xxx class, right?! You cycle to school, too?
Empathizing	I know this is a convenient place to park. I have the same idea. I'm shy, too.
Confirm intent	Are you sure you're gonna buy this one? Do you have to buy this one? If you are interested in… Are you thinking about changing your phone?
Hint	That sounds like a bad cough. It must be inconvenient for you. You seem very stressed about finding a place to smoke on campus and you are always coughing.
Informing	I usually use ** store because they have good prices. Just take the first right at the light.
Relevant Case	My dad used to be a heavy smoker but after he quit, he seems happy and healthy.

Note. A sample of head acts and supporting moves from this corpus.

Appendix C

Internal and External Modification Strategies

Internal Modification Strategies

Type	Name	Function	Examples
Syntactic Downgraders	Conditional Clause	Employed by speakers to distance themselves from the suggestion	I would like to ask, if you could maybe to do this firsthand?
	Interrogative	Used to downtone the impact of the suggestion by appealing to the hearer's consent	Could you point me the clear solutions for this problem?
	Negation	Employed by speakers to downtone the force of the suggestion by indicating their lowered expectations of the suggestion being given	You couldn't repeat what you have explained please?
Lexical/Phrasal Downgraders	Appealer	Used by the speakers to appeal the hearer's benevolent understanding	*You know,* you shouldn't drink too much alcohol…
	Hedge	Used to indicate tentativeness, possibility and lack of precision	Is it possible if we can arrange a meeting during the holidays *somehow*?
	Politeness marker	Employed by the speakers to bid for their hearers' cooperation	Could you give more explanation, *please*?
	Subjectivizer	Explicitly expressed by the speaker to show his or her subjective opinion to the state of affairs referred to in the proposition	I *believe* morality is important than appearance...

External Modification Strategies

Name	Function	Examples
Grounder	Provides reasons, explanations, and justifications for the suggestions	Erm, unfortunately, I really don't understand this topic here…
Preparator	Short utterance that intends to prepare the hearer for the suggestions	May I give you a suggestion?
Imposition Minimizer	Reduces the imposition placed on the hearer by the suggestion offered	I will return them immediately, the next day…
Disarmer	Remove any potential objection the hearer might raise	I am not trying to be smart, but I just need you to …

Note. External and Internal modification strategies for speech acts by Trosborg (1995).

Appendix D

Politeness Strategies: Internal and External Redressive Actions

POLITENESS STRATEGY	ACTION	EXAMPLE
INTERNAL REDRESSIVE ACTION	Subjectivizers	*I think* it'd be better to go to the movies.
	Appealers	Let's do it tomorrow, *okay?*
	Past tense	I *wanted to* get him a book for present.
	Cajolers	*You know*, I think you should take that course.
	Politeness markers	Let's try once more, *if you don't mind*.
	Subjunctive forms	It'd be better *if we finished* it today.
	Downtoners	You should *perhaps* move to another place.
EXTERNAL REDRESSIVE ACTION	Grounders	How about going to the beach. *I bet we will have a great time there.*
	External politeness markers	You'd better drop that course. *What do you think?*
	Preparators	*Can I suggest something?* I think you have to take some time off work.
	Downgrading commitments	*I'm not too sure* but I think you need to check it online.
	Imposition minimizers	I think you should go and talk to the manager *if you are not against it.*

Note. Politeness strategies divided into Internal and external redressive actions by Li (2010).

Frameworks for Teaching Culture and Critical Thinking in the Language Classroom

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Abstract
The push for Japanese institutions of higher education to internationalize their curriculum and foster global *jinzai* (global human resources) is evident through recent governmental initiatives (e.g., CAMPUS Asia, Global 30 Project, Top Global University Project). While research, and discussion on internationalization the curriculum has focused on mobility programs like study abroad (Hammond & Radjai, 2022; Yonezawa, et. al, 2009), the COVID-19 pandemic has prevented many students from participating in these internationalization efforts. As a result, internationalization at home efforts through virtual exchanges like Collaborative Online International Learning (COIL), have increased in popularity. While virtual exchanges offer more inclusivity by allowing all students to participate in international exchanges, not all language teachers can facilitate a virtual exchange in their classroom. This paper presents frameworks to internationalize their classroom material through fostering linguistic skills and intercultural competence that the Council on Promotion of Human Resource Globalization Development (2012) describes as global *jinzai*.

Keywords: intercultural communicative competence, global jinzai, teaching culture

Internationalization efforts by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (henceforth MEXT) are aimed at fostering university students who can interact effectively and appropriately in a global context. These so-called global *jinzai* (global human resources) are described by the Council on Promotion of Human Globalization Resource Globalization Development, an advisory council established in 2011 under Japan's prime minster and his cabinet, as young people who can proactively meet challenges and succeed on a global stage (Yonezawa, 2014). According to MEXT (2012), global jinzai can help enhance Japan's global competitiveness and international relations. MEXT (2018) implicitly acknowledges that through its new Course of Study, the fixed teaching standards for kindergarten to high school, global jinzai cannot be merely fostered at the tertiary level. Global jinzai must be intentionally developed beginning from early childhood education. Starting from the primary school level, the new Course of Study sets aims at deepening young learners' understanding of language and culture and fostering an attitude willing to communicate appropriately with others in a foreign language (MEXT, 2018). Despite the importance placed on internationalizing the curriculum, to the best of the author's knowledge, MEXT did not provide practical or theoretical approaches to foster global jinzai. Thus, this paper aims to provide two frameworks that can assist teachers in working toward the Japanese government's internationalization aims.

Theoretical Background

Global jinzai are defined as those who possess the following factors: "1) linguistic and communication skills, 2) self-direction and positiveness, a spirit of challenge, cooperativeness, and flexibility, a sense of responsibility and mission, 3) understanding of other cultures and a sense of identity as a Japanese" (Council of Promotion of Human Resource for Globalization Development 2012). Starting from the primary school level, the new Course of Study aims at deepening their understanding of language and culture and fostering an attitude willing to communicate appropriately with others in a foreign language.

These objectives of a deepened understanding of language and culture along with willingness to interact appropriately and effectively put in place by the Japanese government, fit within the knowledge, attitudes, and skills described in Byram's (1997) model of intercultural communicative competence and Deardoff's (2006) process model of intercultural competence (see Figures 1 and 2).

Byram's (1997) model of intercultural communicative competence was developed for language teachers. Crucial to this model is the political education component. This component, strategically centered in the middle, sees the intercultural speaker as possessing a certain degree of critical cultural awareness (see Figure 1, next page).

Figure 1

Model of Intercultural Communicative Competence (Byram, 1997)

Skills
interpret and relate
(*savoir comprendre*)

Knowledge
of self and other, of interactions: individual and societal (*savoirs*)

Education
political education, critical cultural awareness
(*savoir 'enganger*)

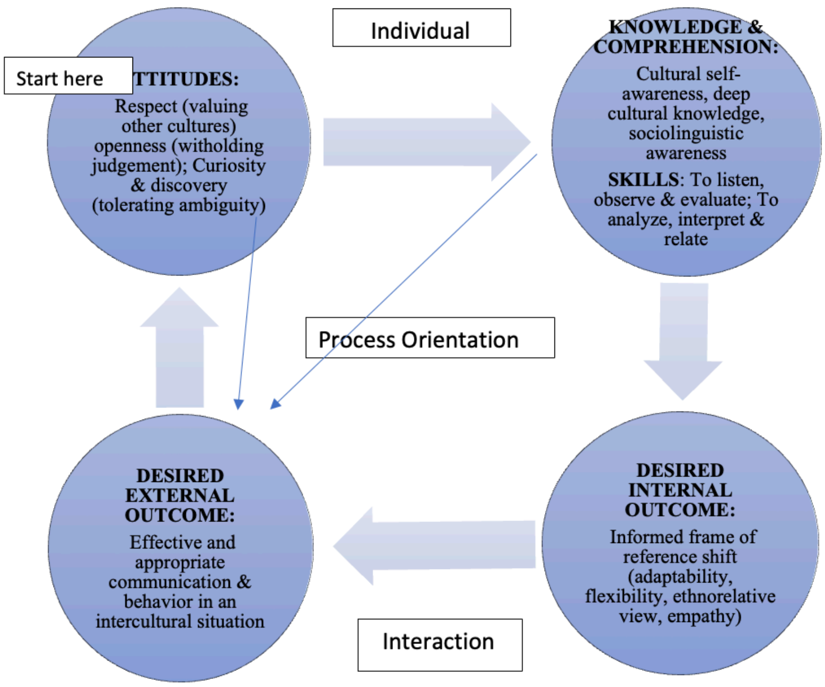
Attitudes
relativizing self, valuing others
(*savoir être*)

Skills
discover and/ or interact
(*savoir apprendre/ faire*)

Note. Adapted from Byram (2021, p. 44).

Figure 2

Process M*odel of Intercultural Competence (Deardorff, 2006)*



Byram, in a lecture on intercultural competence and foreign language teacher education, states that the intercultural speaker must have a certain degree of all these components; however, to have a certain degree of intercultural communicative competence, one should aim to develop other components not presented in the model in Figure 1 (Hamid Saffari, 2013). For example, nothing is mentioned about non-verbal communication involvement (e.g., chronemics, proxemics, haptics). These are left out as Byram thought it might be unreasonable to expect language teachers to aim to develop non-verbal communication competence in addition to the other attitudes, knowledge, and skills.

Deardorff's (2006) process model of intercultural competence in Figure 2 sees the development of intercultural competence as a lifelong process that begins with the requisite attitudes of curiosity, openness, and respect. Based on Deardorff's (2004) dissertation research using a Delphi technique to gather opinions about intercultural competence from intercultural researchers in North America and Europe, Deardorff (2004) put forth this process model and a pyramid model to conceptualize the development of intercultural competence. Deardorff (2006) defines *intercultural competence* as "the ability to interact effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on specific attitudes, intercultural knowledge, skills, and reflection" (p. 249). Crucial to this conceptualization is the appropriateness as not defined by oneself; rather, the appropriateness of the interaction must be deemed appropriate by the interlocutor. The intercultural speaker cannot deem the interaction appropriate simply by themselves.

As mentioned previously, the Japanese government has placed emphasis on communicating effectively and appropriately with others. Implicit in the rationale for incorporating these attitudes, knowledge, and skills is the reality that intercultural competence does not just happen naturally. It must be intentionally developed. Thus, to develop intercultural competence, language instructors can benefit greatly by having frameworks that they can use in their teaching to foster the attitudes, knowledge, and skills necessary to interact with others effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations. This paper aims to present two frameworks put forward by Moran (2001): 1) cultural elements framework, 2) cultural knowings framework. Noonan (2018) describes the attractiveness of these frameworks through their ease of use, versatility, ability to use the textbook material on a deeper level, and to build mental processes to help students develop critical cross-cultural awareness.

Describing 'culture'

Prior to discussing the frameworks that allow for examining culture and language on a deeper level, it can be helpful for teachers to describe to their students what kind of culture we are talking about. When our students think of culture, they will often think of what is often referred to as “Big C” culture. The “Big C” culture encompasses the architecture, art, music, or literature that often comes to mind when we think of a particular country. These aspects of a group’s culture are often presented on postage stamps and featured prominently in language textbooks. While “Big C” culture is important, it does not tell us much about the everyday lives of the people in that particular group (Noonan, 2018). In contrast, the “Little c” culture makes up elements (i.e., products, practices, people) of a culture that we encounter in our everyday lives (e.g., products-business cards, coupons; practices-greetings, apologies, negotiations; people-clerks, custodians, bus drivers). For students to understand the concept of “Big C” culture and “Little c” culture, instructors may want to utilize the help of metaphors to explain both types of culture.

Metaphor #1: Culture as an iceberg

One popular metaphor is the iceberg model of culture. Crucial to understanding this metaphor is the fact that what we see about a culture is not as big as what we do not see. Culture is like an iceberg, in that what we see explicitly (e.g., communities, products, practices, persons, and symbols) represents the tip of the iceberg. In contrast, the tacit culture represents the perspectives (e.g., perceptions, beliefs, attitudes) that is much bigger in size and hidden from our view under the surface (Berardo, 2012; Brake et al., 1995, as cited in Moran, 2001; Levine, et al., 1987; Weaver, 1993). Thus, a goal for cultural learning is to continually aim to probe the deeper parts of the iceberg to seek to understand the perspectives that drive the actions and behaviors of others (Berardo, 2012).

Metaphor #2: Culture as an elephant

Another popular metaphor for culture is that culture can be an elephant. As the popular story of the blind men and the elephant goes, one blind man in the back touching the tail says, “The elephant is like a rope; it’s tough, long, and thin.” While another blind man touching the side of the elephant disagrees and says, “No! The elephant is like a brick wall”. Next, another blind man who is touching the leg says, “No, No, No! The elephant is like a column of a building.” While on their own, they are all correct to a certain extent, but when they put all their ideas together, they can start to build a clearer picture of the elephant. The same applies to understanding a culture. Our collective experiences and understandings with another group can start to build a better understanding of that group of people. However, we cannot rely solely on one experience or perception to understand the myriad of products, practices, communities, persons, and perspectives of a particular group.

Metaphor # 3: Culture is a fish in water

Another useful metaphor for culture is the fish out of water phenomenon. As the old Chinese proverb goes, “If you want to know what water is like, don’t ask a fish.” The fish out of water expression refers to being out of one’s comfort zone. It is once we are out of our regular environment, we start to develop a better understanding of our environment. Involved in that understanding is the realization of our dependency on our cultural environments (Berardo, 2012). The same can be applied to the understanding of a group’s culture. Outside of our culture, we encounter different products, practices, communities, persons, and perceptions. Encountering these differences can allow us to compare and relate the difference to that of our own. Thus, we develop a better understanding of our own culture. Hokusai’s print, *The Great Wave off Kanagawa (Kanagawa-oki Nami Ura),* is unique in the fact that it is the only one of the 36 views of Mt. Fuji that is taken from outside of Japan. This print can be a useful visualization for Japanese students of the reflecting back upon Japan that will take place over the course of the year and throughout their lifetime. The author uses this picture as the cover slide to every class’ PowerPoint slides as a reminder to constantly try to see your own culture from an outsider’s perspective.

Source culture and target cultures

When referring to culture in the language classroom, the terms ‘C1’ and ‘C2’ are often used. C1 refers to the student’s own culture or *source* culture. C2 refers to the *target* culture. EFL textbooks in Japan have often presented C2 culture as that of the cultures in the US, Canada, UK, Australia, and New Zealand. Cortazzi and Jin (1999) in their examination of cultural content in EFL textbooks refer to C3, C4, and C5 cultures, or *international* target cultures, as neither the source or target cultures of both English and non-English-speaking cultures around the world.

Cortazzi and Jin (1999) describe the perceived benefits of textbooks that feature the target or international target cultures as developing the learners’ abilities to 1) talk to visitors, 2) be a visitor, 3) develop intercultural knowledge and skills, 4) indirectly develop a sense of their own identity. Conversely, EFL textbooks that feature the C1 or source culture can develop the learners’ ability to talk to visitors and directly develop a sense of their own identity. Additionally, Noonan (2018) argues for giving students opportunities to talk about their C1. Some of the benefits of talking about the students’ C1 are that it allows for students to do the following:

1) to speak about their own culture, which is often ignored in textbooks
2) to develop knowledge and pride in their own culture
3) to critically analyze possible negative aspects of their culture
4) to see their culture from an outside perspective and thus to critically analyze cultures with more sensitivity.

Moran's (2001) cultural elements framework and cultural knowings framework presented in this paper can allow the teacher to incorporate both the source culture and the target cultures in the learning classroom. These frameworks allow the students to explore both the source and target cultures on a deeper level that is often presented in the textbook. Additionally, Noonan (2018) describes how these versatile and easy-to-use frameworks help develop the mental processes necessary for cross-cultural critical awareness.

Framework 1: Cultural elements framework

The first framework is Moran's (2001) cultural elements framework. This framework allows for students to focus on an element or elements of a culture in greater detail. Thus, the students can develop their ability to critically analyze other elements of a culture in greater detail. The cultural elements framework involves looking at a particular cultural phenomenon and looking at the following elements of that aspect: 1) products, 2) practices, 3) persons, 4) communities, and 5) perspectives. For example, products are things that a culture creates and uses (e.g., chopsticks, bottle scrapers, convenience stores). The practices of a culture can involve behaviors and social interactions (e.g., apologizing, exchanging greetings, exchanging business cards, negotiating, writing New Year's cards). Then, the persons are the people acting in a culture (e.g., custodians, office workers, security guards, store clerks, taxi drivers). Next, the communities are groups of people sharing values and behaviors (e.g., Buddhist monks, club members, EFL teachers, sports fans). Finally, the perspectives of a culture are the underlying beliefs shared by many of its people (e.g., filial piety, respect for the elderly, time as a commodity). Moran (2001) suggests that teachers present a list or elicit a list of cultural phenomena. The list of phenomena can include the following: a concert, a food market, a game, a harvest, a marriage ceremony, a mode of transportation, a musical instrument, or a restaurant. Once a phenomenon is chosen, then the teachers can ask the students to answer the following questions presented by Moran (2001):

Figure 3

Questions to Ask When Analyzing Cultural Phenomena (Moran, 2001).

Questions for analyzing cultural phenomena
• What are the key products? *-What are the physical settings, the artifacts, the social institutions?* • What are the essential practices? *-What do people say and do? How do they interact with one another?* • What are the central perspectives? *-What are the underlying perceptions, values, beliefs, or attitudes?* • What specific communities are involved? *-What groups participate directly?* *-What groups participate indirectly?* • How do individual persons respond? *-Who are the people that participate?* *-What is their personal relationship with this phenomenon?*

Figure 4 (following page) illustrates how taking a cultural element like a *tachigui* (standing while eating) soba restaurant, a specific type of restaurant found on train platforms in Japan, can be analyzed by its products and practices as well as the communities, persons, and perspectives involved with them. Prior or following this activity, the teacher should have the students look at a type of restaurant in one of the target cultures of the language they are studying. See Moran (2001) for an example of the cultural elements of drive-thru restaurants, a common style of take-out service from restaurants that originated in the United States slightly before the mid-20th century.

Moran (2001) describes how completing this activity will reveal the difficulty of identifying the products, practices, perspectives, and communities of cultural phenomena we are not familiar with. Even with the cultural phenomena we are familiar with, this activity can present its challenges. Teachers can refer to the metaphor of a fish out of water and remind the students how difficult it can be to clearly see all the cultural elements involved with a phenomenon, particularly when that is the only environment we have lived in. According to Berardo (2012), when beginning to work across cultures, it is imperative to try to understand one's own ocean and its influences.

Figure 4

Cultural Elements of a Tachigui Soba Restaurant

Products	**Practices**	**Communities**
The products can include some following…food and ingredients, menu, ticket machine, chopsticks, pitcher of water/tea, bowls, glasses, napkins, worker uniforms, signs, counter, blueprints of the restaurant space on the train platform, physical organization of the restaurants	Knowing how to… order soba from the ticket machine, use currency, distinguish from a wide variety of soba or *udon* options, (*kishimen* if in Nagoya), participate in any exchanges with the staff, recognize the appropriate product, eat, and slurp noodles, use chopsticks, and stand and eat at the same time, Stand an appropriate distance from other customers.	The communities include patrons commuting by train, train station staff, members of the town, commuters who use this train line regularly, employees, mangers, restaurant suppliers, investors, food distributors. Also, those who choose not to eat at a standing soba restaurant for various reasons (e.g., political, or social)
Persons	**Perspectives**	
The people involved are various persons all with a unique story and background based on age, gender, race, ethnicity, social class, religion, education, and profession. Each person (e.g., employee, manager, investor, customer, supplier) brings different perspectives to the standing soba restaurant whether they participate in it or not.	The perspectives can include attitudes towards food and meals, perceptions of time and convenience associated with travel by train. The perception that time as a valuable resource that can be saved, spent, or wasted, along with the efficient use of time in standing soba restaurants. The phrase tachigui, standing while eating carries meanings for members of Japanese culture. Meanwhile, other groups and individuals may carry perspectives in opposition to tachigui culture.	

Framework 2: Cultural knowings framework

The following cultural knowings framework can be used to supplement the content related to interactions in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) textbooks or materials used in the classroom. Moran (2001) details the role for the teachers when it comes to learning about the nature of the interactions. Figure 5 (following page) shows the teacher's role for each of the cultural knowings.

Figure 5

Cultural Knowings and Teachers' Roles

	Content	Language function	Activities	Outcomes	Teachers' roles
Knowing how	Cultural practices	Participating	Developing skills	Cultural behaviors	-Model -Coach
Knowing about	Cultural information	Describing	Gathering information	Cultural knowledge	-Source -Resource -Arbiter -Elicitor
Knowing why	Cultural perspectives	Interpreting	Discovering explanations	Cultural understanding	-Guide -Co-researcher
Knowing oneself	Self	Responding	Reflection	-Self-awareness -Personal competence	-Listener -Witness -Co-learner

Note. Adapted from Moran (2001, p. 18).

Hansford, et al. (2001) describe how the framework helped a teacher integrate cultural learning into a unit of a textbook that included a focus on apologies. The language function of the unit was the use of because and so. Thus, the teacher focused on the use of because and so in the context of apologizing. When apologizing in English one might use the word "because" (e.g., "I'm sorry I'm late because my bicycle had a flat tire.") to explain why the unfortunate event happened. Likewise, someone might use the word "so" to explain what the person will do to return the favor (e.g., "I'm sorry I couldn't pay for lunch today, so I will pay for your lunch tomorrow.") Then Hansford, et al. (2001) provides cultural objectives for the unit on apologies included examining the similarities and differences between appropriate apologies in Japan and North America. Included in the objectives were non-verbal and verbal aspects of appropriate apologies in both cultures. Figure 6 shows an outline the cultural knowings and the goals for the unit.

Figure 6

A Visual Summary of Activities Using the Cultural Knowings Framework

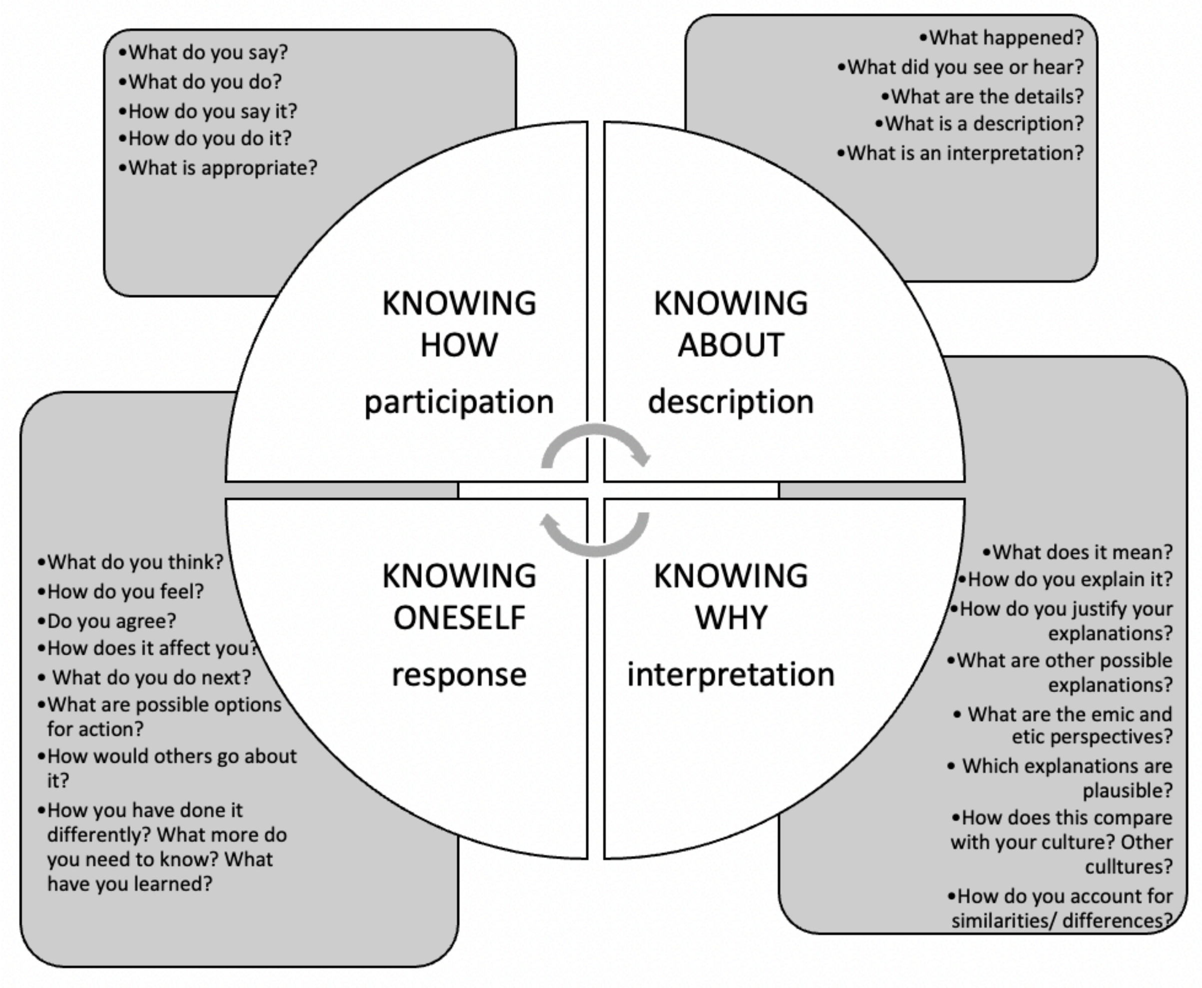
Knowing about Students learn:	**Knowing how Students experience:**	**Knowing why: Students explore:**	**Knowing oneself: Students reflect upon:**
-that different apologies exist; -North American style apologies; -The patterns of using because and so; -the verbal and non-verbal components in North American and Japanese style apologies; -appropriate verbal and non-verbal behaviors in North American and Japanese apologies.	-apologizing in a variety of ways in North American styles and Japanese styles; -how to respond to apologies in North American and Japanese styles.	-reasons why some apologies might be considered polite or impolite by North Americans and Japanese; -appropriate inappropriate nonverbal behaviors for giving apologies in North America and Japan.	-their own ways of apologizing; -their feelings and attitudes toward North making apologies in North American and Japan; -their own reaction to North American styles of apologizing; -their own culture regarding apologies; -personal views about when apologies are appropriate or inappropriate.
Suggestion for teachers	**Suggestion for teachers**	**Suggestion for teachers**	**Suggestion for teachers**
Model a dialogue and apology and have the students perform the verbal and non-verbal language. Students comment on the experience.	Present a picture (possibly of someone apologizing in the C2). Lead the students through the start of a D.I.E. activity, students describe what they see in the picture.	Ask the students to interpret the cultural meanings of what is happening in the picture. Research the cultural meanings ahead of time. Students comment on this process.	After interpreting the social scene in the picture, ask students to explain the significance it has on them personally.

Note. Adapted from Hansford et al., (2001, p. 34).

Once the objectives are set, it is time for the teacher to facilitate the learning of these knowings. Figure 7 presents a series of sequences that has a particular focus. The series of sequences can either start with participation or with the response. Moran (2001) provides these questions that can focus on the teacher's roles and responsibilities at each stage.

Figure 7

Focus questions for the Cultural Experience



Note. Adapted from Moran (2001, p. 141). *Start with either participation or description.

Moran (2001) describes beginning the sequence by having the students participate in some sort of an experience. In this case, it might be a role-play of a situation where they need to apologize. One student can pretend as if they are waiting for their friend to meet them, then the friend appears and needs to apologize for being late. The degree of lateness and the situation's context will dictate the apology style. Additionally, the teacher can present and model a short sample dialogue that contains both verbal and nonverbal language. Then the students can take part in the dialogue with a classmate. After the students have the experience, the teacher can help the students to continue the sequence of description, interpretation, and response. For Moran (2001), the teacher needs to be keenly aware of which part of the sequence he or she is focusing on the students. The objectives must be clear, and the teacher should be mindful of their role in reaching the objectives and how they can be assessed. Figure 8 presents Moran's (2001) cultural knowings and objectives.

Figure 8

Objectives for Moran's (2001) Cultural Knowings

	Outcomes
Knowing how	1) learners can accurately and effectively perform the behaviors 2) learners can choose the appropriate form of behaviors
Knowing about	1) learners can recall or reiterate the information presented to them 2) learners can separate fact from their interpretation or evaluation 3) learners can distinguish between fact and opinion in the information presented to them.
Knowing why	learners can explain the following… 1) understandings of the target culture on their own terms. 2) understandings of the target culture using outside frameworks 3) comparisons and contrasts of the target culture to other cultures.
Knowing oneself	Learners can express the following… 1) an awareness of one's own culture 2) an awareness of oneself as a cultural being 3) an awareness of one's perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, values, and feelings 4) an awareness of culture learning strategies and as oneself as a cultural learner

Conclusion

This paper gives an overview and examples of two of Moran's (2001) frameworks for facilitating the teaching of culture into the classroom. These frameworks provide a practical approach to internationalizing the curriculum from the primary to the tertiary level. Regarding Moran's (2001) cultural elements framework, the versatile and user-friendly framework will enable teachers to examine the elements of a culture presented in EFL textbooks on a deeper level by looking at the products, practices, people, communities, and perspectives that influence a cultural phenomenon. Additionally, by using Moran's (2001) cultural knowings framework, teachers can help students understand how to engage in everyday exchanges and interactions effectively and appropriately by guiding the students in taking part in an experience, describing it, exploring why it happened in that way and what it means, and reflecting on it. Utilizing these frameworks to examine culture on a deeper level gives students a space to actively share their experiences, ideas, and opinions with others from similar and different backgrounds, and develop crucial thinking skills necessary to examine their own culture and the cultures of others.

BIO DATA

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