

OnCUE Journal
Special Issue



Current English language research for tertiary education in Japan

Volume 6
2024

*Reports from the CUE Conference,
September 15-17, 2023*

OCJSI

Volume 6
2024 Special Conference Issue

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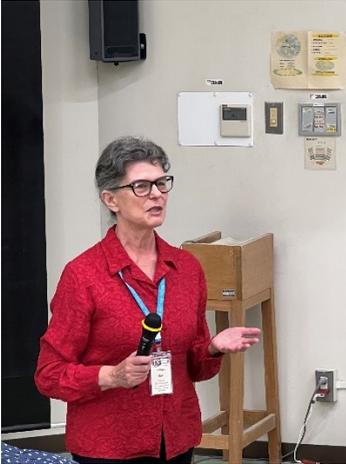
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Message to the Readers

This issue marks the thirtieth anniversary conference of the CUE SIG and its founding in 1993. CUE's founder and first journal chair Gillian Kay was in attendance and even presented a paper Understanding the Autistic Language Learner.



Gillian Kay

Dr. Laurel Kamada and Dr. Julia Kimura were plenary speakers, and Dr. Takaaki Hiratsuka, Jennie Roloff Rothman, Adrienne Verla Uchida, Kie Yamamoto, and Amanda Yoshida were invited panel speakers. Together, they contributed to CUE receiving the Parity Award from EVE (Equal Voices in ELT, <https://evecalendar.wordpress.com/>). Over 50 presenters spoke at the conference on September 15-17, 2023 at the University of Toyama, Gofuku campus, in the city where the very concept for CUE was born.



(L/R) Site host Theron Muller, CUE SIG President Fred Bacala, and CUE SIG founder Gillian Kay on stage during the conference.

The *OnCUE Journal Special Issue* is proud to present ten articles, including one self-reflection, stemming from that conference.

Thanks to the whole conference team, Toyama University, the city of Toyama, and all participants!

Glen Hill and Paul Moritoshi,

Co-editors for *OCJSI*, issue 6.

Practice-Oriented Paper

Impact of EMI on College EFL Learners in Taiwan

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EMI (English as a medium of instruction) is a global trend in higher education including in Taiwan. This study shows the challenges, engagement, and self-perception of students enrolled in EMI courses taught by a native English speaker and a Taiwanese instructor. It emphasizes the influential role of instructors' teaching methods, accents, and cultural backgrounds on students' participation, learning difficulties, and confidence. The findings suggest that both native-English and Taiwanese instructors play a crucial role in EMI courses, with implications for the design and implementation of effective EMI programs in Taiwan.

With the increasing globalization and internationalization, the importance of English is rising. English has become the most widely used language worldwide since a few decades ago. More and more non-native English countries consider English as the most important language. Taking Taiwan as an example, our government has a vision of becoming a bilingual country in 2030. The Taiwanese government plans to promote English Medium Instruction (EMI) in schools nationwide (Ministry of Education, 2022).

The purpose of EMI is to promote relationships between countries, improve global competitiveness, and enhance students' English ability; however, there has been controversy in recent years. For example, not many teachers are able to use English to teach academic subjects. They may have some difficulties with

English speaking or even have some trouble with the teaching materials written in English (Altay, Curle, Soruç, and Yuksel, 2021). In addition, some students are having difficulties comprehending classroom lectures and textbook materials because of their language proficiency level. (Aizawa and Rose, 2020) Because English is not the mother tongue or official language in Taiwan, the authors cannot help wondering: What is the impact of bringing EMI to college EFL learners in particular?

According to the definition provided by Oxford EMI Training, EMI refers to the use of English to teach academic subjects in countries where it is not the dominant language of communication (Dearden, 2015). For EMI courses, the delivery of content, the classroom environment, the assessment of students' outcomes, and learning sources should be in English. Though other languages can be used in a limited way in a specific situation, for instance, student-to-student interactions during the discussions may sometimes use their mother tongue to help their understanding and comprehension, the students need to present their outcome of the discussion in English (Dearden and Spain, 2021).

The purpose of this study is to collect opinions about EMI in two Introduction to Linguistics classes of college EFL learners in Taiwan. One is taught by a native-English instructor; the other is taught by a Taiwanese instructor. The authors would like to know how EMI had been implemented in the classes and overall feelings of the students taking the course, and their preferred learning styles as well as challenges they might experience in the EMI course. Additionally, the authors will find out if EMI helps students' language ability, or reduce their learning motivation, and discuss if there are more advantages or disadvantages for most students. EMI has become popular in Taiwanese universities. Additionally, an increasing number of studies have been done to scrutinize the differences between Taiwanese university students' attitudes and foreign students' attitudes toward EMI courses (Tu, 2012). Two main studies on this topic are summarized below.

First, Tu (2012) conducted a mixed population study to investigate students' attitudes toward EMI courses at Southern Taiwan University of Technology and Science (STUST). It aimed to discuss students' self-evaluation, learning

anxiety, and achievements toward EMI courses. The participants were Taiwanese students and foreign students, most taking EMI courses from engineering and business departments. According to Tu, foreign students have lower levels of learning anxiety, suggesting that they may be more comfortable with EMI courses. However, the results showed that local students have lower levels of learning motivation, which may indicate that they may not see the value or relevance of English in their academic pursuits.

Secondly, Yan (2018) used questionnaires and interviews to analyze students' learning outcomes toward EMI courses at STUST. The purpose was to investigate students' perceptions, difficulties, attainment, and expectations. The participants came from the departments of Applied English as well as International Management in Business and Finance (IMBF). There were some international students in the IMBF. EMI courses were perceived by students as beneficial to improving their English proficiency. However, the students from the Applied English department reported anxiety and challenges due to their English proficiency level. Conversely, the students from the IMBF department did not perceive any challenges or difficulties. The research also revealed that students had high expectations for the university to offer more EMI courses to further enhance their English proficiency.

Several studies have explored the challenges in English-medium instruction (EMI) courses across different countries. Aizawa and Rose (2020) found that Japanese students who learned English in a Japanese-medium environment (JPE) faced greater difficulties in EMI courses, such as slower reading speeds and a smaller vocabulary, compared to those taught in an English-medium environment (EME). In Turkey, Altay et al. (2021) discovered that higher English proficiency scores correlated with fewer challenges in EMI courses for Turkish students studying International Relations, and scores improved after receiving EMI. Galloway and Ruegg (2022) examined EMI lecture support needs in Japan and China, highlighting differences in priorities between domestic and international students regarding lecturers' English proficiency and teaching skills. In Vietnam, Vo et al. (2022) identified issues like varying student English proficiency, limited teaching resources, a lack of EMI workshops, and

student passivity in EMI courses.

Taiwanese universities are implementing EMI courses since 2002 (Tu, 2012) and there is research being done to evaluate the effectiveness and challenges of this approach. In the current study, the authors identify crucial difficulties that students encounter in EMI courses in order to address them and improve the learning experience. The suggestions that come out of this research can help guide future EMI course development and ensure that the needs of students are being met.

The research questions to be answered in this study include:

1. How is the students' engagement in EMI content courses?
2. What challenges have the students encountered (i.e., style differences, preferences, and difficulties)?
3. How have the students perceived their language fluency changes?

Methods

In a public university of science and technology in southern Taiwan, the undergraduate program in the English department offers a required linguistics course where all students are taught in English. The participants in this study were invited to participate voluntarily in three questionnaires. They were taking a required course, Introduction to Linguistics, conducted with EMI. All the students are Taiwanese majoring in English, learning English as the target language. There were 62 students who participated in this study. The participants in this study were divided into two groups since they had separate instructors. The class taught by Taiwanese professor is Group A ($n = 29$), the other class taught by the native instructor is Group B ($n = 33$).

The three survey instruments for data collection are bilingual versions: 1) Learning engagement scale for college students, 2) challenges in EMI courses (style differences, preferences, and difficulties), and 3) perception of students' language fluency changes. To determine these differences, an independent samples t-test was used to compare the mean scores of Group A and Group B for each item.

The learning engagement scale for college students (LESCS) questionnaire

(Lin and Huang, 2012) aimed to investigate students' engagement levels. The first section of this questionnaire asked for the participants' highest English proficiency score. The rest can be divided into five sections: skills (question items 1–4), sentiments (question items 5–9), behaviors (question items 10–13), attitudes (question items 14–17), and interactions (question items 18–20). The skills section aims to evaluate whether students can use strategies to memorize the main points and content in the class. The sentiments section focuses on investigating the interaction between teachers, students, and schools. The behaviors section aims to evaluate students' attendance rate and concentration in classes. The attitudes section aims to evaluate students' engagement and devotion toward the class. The interactions section focuses on evaluating the interplay between peers and teachers in the class.

The second questionnaire—challenges in EMI courses—was adapted from Chiu (2019). It can be divided into three sections: student's preference for different aspects of EMI courses (question items 1–6), changes of learning style (question items 7–15), and difficulties in EMI courses (question items 16–20). The changes of learning style section focuses on students' reflection on how their learning style has changed since starting EMI lectures. The difficulties section looks at the challenges students might face in EMI courses.

The third questionnaire looks into whether students perceive changes in language fluency changes before and after EMI (Aizawa and Rose, 2020). It asks students to reflect on their language proficiency in various areas such as speaking, listening, reading, and writing before and after taking the EMI course. This questionnaire can be divided into four sections: English listening ability (question items 1–4), English speaking ability (question items 5–9), English reading ability (question items 10–14), and English writing ability (question items 15–20).

The first questionnaire was delivered before midterm week. At the appropriate time, the authors explained the purpose of the research and emphasized the importance of filling out the first questionnaire. After midterm week, the second and the third questionnaires were delivered.

Results

The data is summarized below along with the average scores (M /Mean) and standard deviation score (SD).

Student's Engagement in EMI Content Course

Participants were asked to rate various aspects related to their experience in the EMI course (Table 1). It is observed that in the behaviors section, including items 10-13, participants from Group B gave higher scores on three questions compared to Group A. For example, in item 10 ("I hardly skip class"), the mean score from Group B is 4.30, higher than Group A's mean score of 4.00. Similarly, in item 12 ("Unless I am ill, I go to school"), Group B's mean score is 4.24, compared to Group A's mean score of 4.00. This suggests that students in Group B, who were taught by a native instructor, had a lower tendency to skip classes and demonstrated a more positive attitude towards the EMI course.

In interaction sections (items 18-20), Group B rated higher than that of Group A. For example, in item 18, "I actively raise questions during class.", ($M=2.70$), item 19, "I am eager to express my perspectives in course discussion.", ($M=3.06$), and item 20, ". During class, I enjoy putting questions to the teacher.", ($M=3.30$). These questions suggest that these students might have enjoyed the interactions with the native-speaker instructor. The higher scores in question 18, 19, and 20 indicate that the students in Group B, who were taught by the native-speaker instructor, actively raised questions, expressed their perspectives, and enjoyed interacting with the teacher during class.

In sum, the survey in engagement indicates that behaviors and interactions show evident differences in Group A and B. The native-speaker instructor was found to have a more encouraging impact for the EMI course.

Student Willingness to Engage with EMI

As shown in Table 2, there are differences between the preferences and experiences of students taught by the Taiwanese instructor (Group A) and those taught by the native-speaker instructor (Group B). Group A exhibited a stronger preference for certain aspects of EMI courses compared to Group B. For instance, Group A scored higher on question 1, "I enjoy EMI" ($M = 3.75$), and on question 6, "I

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of Students' Engagement from Groups A and B.

No.	Description	Group A ($n = 29$)		Group B ($n = 33$)	
		The Nationality of the Instructor		Native	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
SKILLS					
1.	I will take notes to memorize the major points of each class.	4.10	0.79	3.67	0.88
2.	I will apply what I learned to my assignments.	4.23	0.88	4.15	0.70
3.	I can identify the major points of class materials.	3.90	0.79	4.00	0.65
4.	I will use all means to comprehend class lectures.	3.97	0.75	3.94	0.74
SENTIMENTS					
5.	The university is one of my favorite places.	2.97	0.87	2.97	0.87
6.	I get along well with my classmates.	4.27	0.85	4.24	0.92
7.	I am proud to be at my university.	3.67	0.94	3.39	0.95
8.	The relationships between me and teachers are positive.	3.67	0.91	3.76	1.02
9.	Teachers show respect to me.	4.23	0.67	4.27	0.71
BEHAVIORS					
10.	I hardly skip class.	4.00	0.86	4.30	0.83
11.	I am seldom late for class.	3.83	0.78	3.94	1.13
12.	Unless I am ill, I go to school.	4.00	0.89	4.24	0.95
13.	I seldom fall asleep during class.	3.77	0.92	3.45	1.18
ATTITUDES					
14.	I preview every new unit before the class.	2.63	1.05	2.48	1.08
15.	I review at the end of each unit.	2.67	0.94	2.79	0.98
16.	When I'm in class, I pay complete attention to the teachers' lecture.	3.77	0.72	3.36	0.85
17.	If the lectures/class materials are boring, I will try my best to learn.	3.33	0.83	3.42	0.85
INTERACTIONS					
18.	I actively raise questions during class.	2.57	1.17	2.70	1.06
19.	I am eager to express my perspectives in course discussion.	2.87	1.26	3.06	1.07
20.	During class, I enjoy putting questions to the teacher	3.17	1.32	3.30	1.11

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of Students' Challenges from Groups A and B

No.	Description	Group A (<i>n</i> = 29)		Group B (<i>n</i> = 33)	
		The Nationality of the Instructor		Native	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1.	I enjoy EMI.	3.75	0.83	3.39	1.11
2.	EMI helps heat up classroom atmosphere.	3.13	0.78	3.22	0.85
3.	EMI allows me to discuss with classmates more often.	3.38	0.99	3.61	0.95
4.	EMI helps me interact with my teachers.	3.75	1.20	3.33	0.75
5.	I think EMI material is appropriate in terms of difficulty.	3.38	0.99	3.17	0.83
6.	I am willing to use EMI in the future.	3.75	0.97	3.28	1.15
7.	EMI helps me gain confidence in using English.	3.50	1.00	3.50	0.96
8.	EMI helps me gain deeper understanding in course.	3.13	0.78	2.89	1.05
9.	EMI helps me want to discuss with classmates in English actively.	3.13	1.05	3.33	0.88
10.	EMI helps me use English in daily life.	3.25	0.97	2.83	0.96
11.	EMI helps me gain higher scores in English Proficiency Tests (TOEIC, IETLS, TOEFL, etc.).	3.75	0.66	3.89	0.81
12.	EMI helps me develop the habits of preview before class and review after class.	2.25	0.83	2.78	1.03
13.	EMI helps me enhance my listening comprehension.	4.38	0.48	3.89	0.66
14.	EMI helps me communicate with English native speakers more naturally.	3.63	1.22	3.61	0.89
15.	EMI helps me realize my level of English.	4.50	0.50	4.11	0.74
16.	EMI helps me want to enhance my English.	4.13	0.60	4.00	0.67
17.	EMIL helps me set clear goals for my English studying.	3.75	0.97	3.67	1.05
18.	EMI activities help me stay focus in the class	4.00	0.50	3.72	0.65
19.	EMI helps me learn more about the situation of my study.	2.63	0.70	2.94	0.78
20.	I encountered many difficulties in EMI.	3.56	1.11	3.63	1.12

am willing to use EMI in the future” ($M = 3.75$). The result shows that students are taught by the Taiwanese instructor have more favorable attitude and greater willingness to use EMI in the future.

The Impact of EMI on Students’ English Ability

To better understand the effect of EMI courses on English proficiency, the mean scores for each question were calculated and compared. The students taught by the Taiwanese instructor (Group A) believed that EMI helps improve their English ability and boosts their confidence in using English. For example, in response to question 10, “EMI helps me use English in daily life,” Group A had a mean score of 3.25. Similarly, for question 13, “EMI helps me enhance my listening comprehension,” the mean score was 4.38. These results suggest that students taught by the Taiwanese instructor perceive EMI courses as beneficial for both practical English use and listening comprehension skills.

The Challenges Students Encounter in EMI Content

To better understand the students’ difficulties, the mean scores for each question were calculated and compared. Students taught by the native instructor experienced more challenges in the EMI class. For instance, in response to question 3, “EMI allows me to discuss with classmates more often,” the mean score was 3.61, while for question 20, “I encountered many difficulties in EMI,” the mean score was 3.63. These results indicate that students taught by the native instructor

face greater difficulties in EMI courses, reflecting challenges in engaging in discussions and managing course demands.

Students’ Perception of English Fluency Changes

Students from Group A perceived their English proficiency to be higher in listening, reading, and writing skills compared to students from Group B. Conversely, students from Group B perceived their speaking skills to be superior compared to those of Group A.

Listening ability. To measure changes in students’ English listening skill after receiving EMI courses, the mean scores for each question were calculated and compared. Students taught by the Taiwanese instructor (Group A) had

higher scores compared to those taught by the native instructor (Group B). For example, in response to question 1, "I'm able to understand the speaker with an unfamiliar accent," Group A had a mean score of 3.57; for question 2, "When I watch videos, movies, series, or TV shows, I'm able to understand the main idea without English subtitles," the mean score was 3.43; and for question 3, "I'm able to understand the listening text when the speaker speaks fast," the mean score was 3.29. These results suggest that Group A experienced significant improvements in their English listening ability as a result of the EMI courses.

Reading ability. To measure changes in students' English reading skill after receiving EMI courses, the mean scores for each question were calculated and compared. Students taught by the Taiwanese instructor (Group A) had higher scores compared to those taught by the native instructor (Group B). For example, in response to question 11, "I'm able to get the information from the long passage," ($M=4.00$), and for question 13, "When doing reading test, I am able to quickly find the paragraph where answers located in accordance to the questions," ($M=3.71$). These results suggest that Group A experienced significant improvements in their English reading ability as a result of the EMI courses.

Writing ability. To measure changes in students' English writing skill after receiving EMI courses, the mean scores for each question were calculated and compared. Students taught by the Taiwanese instructor (Group A) had higher scores compared to those taught by the native instructor (Group B). For example, in response to question 17, "I'm able to write various sentences to express my opinion," ($M=3.86$), and for question 18, "I am able to stick to the topic while writing," ($M=4.00$). These results suggest that Group A experienced significant improvements in their English writing ability as a result of the EMI courses.

Speaking skill. To measure changes in students' English speaking skill after receiving EMI courses, the mean scores for each question were calculated and compared. Students taught by the native instructor (Group B) had higher scores compared to those taught by the Taiwanese instructor (Group A). For example, in response to question 5, "I'm able to speak English without the long pause," ($M=2.94$), and for question 6, "I am able to share my opinions on a topic in English," ($M=3.53$). These results suggest that Group B experienced significant

Table 3 (this table is not referred to anywhere in the text)

Students' Perception of English Fluency Changes (Groups A and B)

No.	Description The Nationality of the Instructor	Group A (<i>n</i> = 29)		Group B (<i>n</i> = 33)	
		Taiwanese Mean	SD	Native Mean	SD
1.	I'm able to understand the speaker with the unfamiliar accent.	3.57	0.90	3.00	1.17
2.	When I watch videos, movies, series, or TV shows, I'm able to understand the main idea of them without English subtitles.	3.43	0.49	3.24	1.08
3.	I'm able to understand the listening text when the speaker speaks fast.	3.29	0.70	2.71	0.96
4.	When I hear a new word, I can remember the pronunciation and find the word.	2.86	0.99	3.47	1.04
5.	I'm able to speak English without the long pause.	2.71	0.70	2.94	1.03
6.	I am able to share my opinions on a topic in English.	3.43	1.05	3.53	1.11
7.	While speaking, even though I don't understand the speaker, I would still speculate the points and ask again.	3.86	0.99	3.82	1.06
8.	Talking to my teachers in English makes me feel confident and comfortable.	3.14	0.99	3.12	1.13
9.	I'm able to use the proper words when I speak English.	3.24	0.90	3.43	1.08
10.	While reading, I'm able to find out the main point from the text quickly.	3.43	0.90	3.41	1.13
11.	I'm able to get the information from the long passage.	4.00	0.76	3.59	1.11
12.	I read additional materials (books, novels, articles, news, etc. written in English) out of class.	3.14	1.12	3.06	1.20
13.	When doing reading test, I am able to quickly find the paragraph where answers located in accordance to the questions.	3.71	0.90	3.40	1.26
14.	Although I don't understand all vocabulary in a passage, I'm able to comprehend the passage.	3.57	1.05	3.76	1.07
15.	Although I don't understand all vocabulary in a passage, I'm able to comprehend the passage.	3.00	0.93	2.88	1.04
16.	While writing, I'm able to use the appropriate words or vocabulary.	3.57	1.18	3.18	1.20
17.	I'm able to write various sentences to express my opinion.	3.86	0.99	3.47	1.19
18.	I am able to stick to the topic while writing.	4.00	0.93	3.41	1.23
19.	I am able to finish a writing within reasonable time and word limit.	3.57	0.73	3.24	1.18
20.	I am able to use follow proper grammar rules while writing.	3.29	1.03	2.94	1.13

improvements in their English writing ability as a result of the EMI courses.

It is important to note that perception might not necessarily be equivalent to their actual language skills. Perception could be influenced by various factors, including confidence levels, cultural background, and exposure to different English accents. (Yan, 2018). Therefore, the higher perception of English proficiency in Group A does not necessarily mean that their actual language abilities are superior to those of Group B.

Discussion

The findings from three questionnaires suggest that native instructors create a more supportive environment in EMI courses, with their students showing greater levels of engagement. According to the first questionnaire, students perceive EMI as improving the quality of interactions between themselves and the instructor. Nevertheless, participants reported encountering some difficulties in EMI courses and frequently engaged in active discussions with peers when questions arose. Additionally, EMI contributes to enhancing participants' English fluency. Students taught by native instructors showed improvement in their English speaking skill, while those taught by Taiwanese instructors experienced gains in listening, writing, and reading skills.

Conclusion

The findings of this research revealed the positive effects of both Taiwanese and native English-speaking instructors in the context of teaching EMI courses. Students participating in the EMI course led by a Taiwanese instructor exhibited heightened enthusiasm for engaging with the course content. Furthermore, they reported a heightened sense of comfort in this setting, primarily because the Taiwanese instructor demonstrated a better grasp of selecting appropriate teaching materials and crafting class activities that were customized to meet the students' English proficiency levels. On the other hand, EMI courses taught by native English-speaking instructors were notably successful in bolstering students' learning behaviors and fostering increased interaction between teachers and students. It was evident that both groups of students indicated that EMI

had a significant impact on their improvement in listening comprehension, willingness to communicate in English, and their capacity to maintain focus and concentration during class.

In conclusion, the study highlights the importance of this educational shift in the broader context of the Taiwanese government's bilingualism initiative and presents valuable insights into the preferences and experiences of college English majors in Taiwan. These findings are instrumental in guiding the ongoing development and implementation of EMI programs in higher education in Taiwan and beyond.

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Received: October 31, 2023

Accepted: November 23, 2024

Practice-Oriented Paper

Investigating Mental Health and Well-being among Tertiary Language Teachers in Japan

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Teaching is widely recognized as one of the most stressful professions. This is particularly the case for language teachers who must contend with language anxiety, insecure working conditions, administrative demands, and the inherent stress of working in a foreign country. However, there is very little research available that investigates language teachers' mental health in the specific context of Japanese tertiary education. This paper presents two case studies of English language teachers working at two different universities in northern Japan. The case studies aim to forefront some of the psychological demands of working and living long term in Japan and suggest measures that can be taken to maintain teachers' mental health in both their professional and personal lives. In describing and reflecting on personal experiences with stress, burnout, and depression, the authors hope to generate some useful knowledge about a somewhat neglected area of foreign language teaching in Japan.

As readers of this journal are no doubt aware, teaching is a stressful occupation. As a predominantly social profession, teaching requires constant interaction with a diverse range of people. At the tertiary level these include students, other faculty, administrative staff, university executives, visiting faculty, parents, and often overseas university personnel. Given such a diversity of interlocutors with a corresponding diversity of interests and requirements, the potential for interpersonal conflict is ever-present (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). There are

also the inherent structural demands of the job: teaching, assessment, course management, research, publications and presentations, administrative duties, and professional development are probably the most prominent tasks amongst a myriad of roles and responsibilities the contemporary university teacher must deal with.

Cowie (2011) has highlighted how language teaching in particular includes a range of additional stressors. These include teaching overseas, cultural differences between the teacher and students, high emotional labor costs (King, 2016), and a feeling of negativity arising from perceiving the state of the profession as precarious (Mercer & Kostoulas, 2018).

Within the classroom itself foreign teachers are often required to take on a 'performative role' (Taylor, 2020), amplifying a pretense of positivity and enthusiasm in order to motivate students. Such a role is usually not expected of Japanese teachers of English. However, this performativity and constant exhibition of '*genkiness*' can be highly stressful (Ogbonna & Harris, 2004), often resulting in emotional exhaustion and professional burnout.

Intuitively (and perhaps from direct personal experience) we can understand how such stress-inducing factors can have a detrimental effect on both the quality of our teaching and the level of learning attained by our students. The following two case studies highlight some of these factors and how they can adversely affect both our professional and personal lives.

Case Studies

This paper presents two case studies of English language teachers working at two different universities in northern Japan. The case studies aim to forefront some of the psychological demands of working and living long term in Japan and suggest measures that can be taken to maintain teachers' mental health in both their professional and personal lives. In describing and reflecting on our own experiences with stress, burnout, and depression, the authors hope to generate some useful knowledge about a somewhat neglected area of foreign language teaching in Japan.

To present our case studies in a comparable manner, we have adopted the

sub-themes listed below.

- Causal context
- Stress
- Burnout / Depression
- Recovery

This provides a structure that facilitates the reader's understanding of our experiences and enables some common themes to be explored. Conversely, it also highlights how subjectively different our experiences were.

Although the authors' experiences do not always fit neatly into this framework, it provides a relatively coherent means of elucidating our case studies.

The data on which the case studies are based are a mixture of recollection and excerpts from online communication with family and friends. Depression, by its very nature, does not lend itself to rigorously academic data collection methods. If at times our accounts seem to shade too much into the anecdotal, then we ask the reader's indulgence for our necessary subjectivity.

Case Study 1

The following case study describes the second author's experiences aboard a research ship on a one-month educational voyage around Japan in February and March of 2023. The sections below describe the perceived causes and consequences of the various psychological stressors the author experienced onboard. Although some of the issues were exclusive to the voyage itself, many of the problems are analogous to those challenges faced by non-Japanese teachers working in Japan. However, being on the ship had the effect of exacerbating these factors.

Causal Context. Every year from February to March, around 80 students from my institution participate in a university-organized educational voyage around the South Pacific on board a training and research vessel. The ship is quite large: 88m long, with a crew of 33, and a maximum capacity of 157 passengers. Students and faculty spend six weeks on the ship, stopping at a number of foreign ports to participate in cultural exchange activities.

However, from 2020 to 2022 the voyage was cancelled due to the COVID-19 pandemic. It recommenced in the spring of 2023 but, with the

coronavirus still prevalent, the university decided that the voyage would only take place within Japanese waters. On board were 83 Japanese university students, and ten members of the university staff including faculty, medical doctors, and administrative personnel. The author was the only native English speaker onboard. For the duration of the voyage the author was expected to teach four English classes in total, and to converse with students in English.

As preparation for the voyage, there was a one-day orientation for faculty and staff in May 2020. This was followed by an overnight stay onboard the ship in August 2022. The ship departed from Tokyo in February 2023, calling at Ogasawara, Okinawa, Kagoshima, Kumamoto, Hiroshima, and ending the voyage in Yokohama.

Stress. Soon after the start of the voyage the author began experiencing elevated levels of stress and anxiety. Symptoms included constant worry, insomnia, feelings of hopelessness, and sweating. I experienced tingling sensations in my fingers and feet, and my heart rate seemed to be continually elevated. Under normal, everyday circumstances, I am not used to feeling these sensations and concluded that they were due to the environment of the ship. By the twentieth day of the voyage, I was physically and emotionally exhausted and experiencing symptoms typical of depression and chronic anxiety. I felt isolated and disconnected as evidenced by the messages I was sending friends and family (Appendix). Reflecting on my experience, I have identified two key factors that contributed to the initial stress and subsequent decline in my mental health. They were unclear responsibilities, and isolation. The latter can be further subdivided into linguistic, cultural and social isolation. The following sections describe these factors in detail.

Unclear Responsibilities. I have worked as an English teacher in Japan since 2004 and have always taken my responsibilities seriously. My first job was at an English conversation school and it soon became clear that non-Japanese teachers were treated differently to the Japanese teachers in that less was generally asked of us. I had always felt uneasy about this disparity, believing that we should be expected to work as hard as our Japanese colleagues. Onboard the ship I sensed a clear difference in expectations. I was expected to do a lot less than the other Japanese teachers and staff. I suspect that I was there as the token English speaker

in order to add an international flavor to the atmosphere on the ship. My duties amounted to giving an English class once a week and chatting with the students. As already mentioned, the ship normally visited different countries but due to the threat of COVID-19 our voyage was limited to Japan. This further diminished the importance of having an English teacher onboard the ship. My perceived lack of relevance, unclear responsibilities, and lighter workload created within me a sense of guilt. This situation was wholly unsatisfactory to me, and negatively affected my mental health.

Linguistic Isolation. My Japanese language ability is sufficient to function effectively in daily life, in the classroom, and with the administrative duties assigned to me at work. However, faced with the challenge of living in an entirely Japanese-speaking environment, I became overwhelmed. I failed to fully understand what was going on and I had to try to continuously second guess things, which was mentally exhausting. My inability to communicate effectively led to a sense of disconnection and exhaustion. There were extended periods at sea, for example six days from Ogasawara to Okinawa, without internet or cell phone connection which compounded my sense of linguistic isolation.

Cultural Isolation. This also played a critical role in my experience. Being immersed in a constant Japanese environment on the ship was a very intense and isolating experience for me. In my normal everyday life, I might be exposed to direct, unmediated Japanese culture for a few hours a day at most. This exposure comes in manageable doses where I have time to reflect and learn from the experience, and to take a break, both mentally, by talking with a non-Japanese friend, and physically, by exercising. On the ship though, these breaks were not available and instead I found this exposure unrelenting and exhausting. From compulsory early morning group exercises on the main deck through to our nightly teachers' meetings, I simply was not in tune to what was happening as everybody else was. Although I have lived in Japan for twenty years, this was by far my most intense and immersive exposure to Japanese culture given the sea-bounded environment of the ship. This daily, morning-to-night continuous exposure to Japanese culture left me feeling out of touch with my Japanese colleagues and the students.

Social Isolation. The most serious consequence of linguistic and cultural isolation was that, with one exception, I failed to establish a meaningful or supportive relationship with any of the teachers or administrative staff. A key component of my responsibilities onboard was to converse with the students in English, which I did. However, the average English level of the students was extremely low, and as I became more sleep-deprived and anxious, this role became more and more difficult. After a while, the unintentional nervousness that I evoked in students when they spoke to me in English became emotionally draining for me. As I became more exhausted, and more emotionally distressed, the gap between my usual external teacher persona and how I was feeling inside became ever wider. This in itself became an additional source of stress. I longed for someone simply to have a normal conversation with. Of course, as teachers we all have days when our enthusiasm for making small talk with students is low. However, in the intense environment of the ship, this feeling gradually became the norm for me, and I felt guilty about it. I was caught in a downward spiral. Compounding this sense of social solitude was my inability to communicate with family and close friends during the voyage due to the absence of an internet connection. This social isolation significantly contributed to the decline in my mental health.

Recovery. When I returned to my family home at the end of March 2023, I immediately sought medical help with my symptoms. I was diagnosed as suffering from depression and anxiety, and I was excused from work indefinitely. Things did not improve until around six weeks later, when I started to have short periods of feeling normal. I have a lovely home, a loving wife, and two great sons. Being in such a secure, loving and supportive environment contributed greatly to my recovery. I also started connecting with extended family more frequently and on a deeper level. This reconnecting with people was instrumental in my recovery. By the beginning of June, I was feeling back to my old self and resumed teaching again, albeit with a reduced workload. Writing these words in May 2024, I would say that I am fully recovered. The voyage lasted for a month, and it was too much for me. We all have different breaking points, and I clearly reached mine on the ship.

In light of the author's experience, a number of relatively straightforward

measures could be implemented to help to prevent a non-Japanese teacher undergoing similar difficulties while participating on the voyage, or other similarly intense contexts. Firstly, two non-Japanese teachers could participate instead of one. In this way, the pair could provide emotional support for each other. Each could be a soundboard for the other; an outlet to talk things through, and to vent frustration if necessary.

Another helpful step would be to better clarify the teacher's role while onboard. This would help to minimize any ambiguity and confusion inevitably present to some degree due to unavoidable linguistic and cultural miscommunication. Finally, clear guidelines for self-care practices in order to maintain one's mental health and wellbeing while on board should be part of the pre-voyage training for all teachers and administrative staff. Despite the importance and relative ease of implementing such measures, as far as the author is aware at the time of writing, no changes had been made to safeguard the mental wellbeing of the solitary non-Japanese teacher who participated in the voyage in the spring of 2024.

Case Study 2

This case study describes how the first author was unable to cope with an overwhelming workload. The issues contributing to this situation along with the subsequent burnout are described in detail. Again, some of these factors are unique to this particular case study, but overwork, exhaustion and burnout are, unfortunately, all too common in education.

Causal Context. In September of 2019, just before the start of the autumn term, one full-time teacher and one part-time teacher unexpectedly quit the university's English department. Neither resignation was anticipated but the full-time teacher left for medical reasons, and the part-time teacher found a permanent position at another university. Unfortunately, in the short time remaining before the term started in October, we could not secure any replacement faculty. Muroran is not Tokyo and as a small, blue-collar industrial town there is a very limited supply of potential adjunct faculty to draw on. In addition, timetabling issues meant that we could not cater to the availability of the one person who did express interest in

working at the university. As a result, each of the existing full-time faculty had to take on a significant number of extra classes. In my case, my workload increased from eight, ninety-minute classes a week, to thirteen classes, with two of those classes being taught on separate evenings from 8:15p.m. to 9:45p.m.

Concurrently, I was also working on the CREATE Project. This was a national educational project administered by Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) in conjunction with the Myanmar Ministry of Education. The aim of the project was to reform the entire Myanmar national primary school curriculum. I was one of two 'expert advisers' charged with planning, creating, and implementing the entire English curriculum. In practice, this meant week-long working trips to Myanmar every month, and almost daily coordination and contact with project members in order to meet various deadlines.

Stress. By late 2019 I was essentially working two full-time jobs. The constant strain of doing this was leading to insomnia. My mind would keep replaying the days' work, whilst also detailing what needed to be done the next day. It was an incessant loop of work badly done, work not completed, work yet to be started. Furthermore, there seemed to be no end to it. Any prospect of a break or temporary respite over the Christmas - New Year holiday period was extinguished by the demands of the CREATE Project. Understandably, since Myanmar is a predominantly Buddhist country, neither Christmas nor New Year are holidays.

At the end of January, the first reports started emerging from China of a highly infectious respiratory illness with a worryingly high mortality rate. By February, the world knew the term 'COVID' and because of it the world became a very different place.

For the CREATE Project, we had to suddenly switch our focus to editing the various textbooks for all of the elementary school grades, the related workbooks and teacher's guides so that they could be used for distance learning, with an emphasis on students self-studying with minimal resources. Then at the university, I was also co-opted onto a committee to design and implement an immediate plan for delivering all of our undergraduate and postgraduate classes online. In addition, I was concerned for my elderly parents back in Ireland. Their initial blithe disregard for COVID and aversion to mask wearing were very

disconcerting, particularly as I had no way of travelling back to Ireland to assist them should they fall ill.

Burnout & Depression. By the end of February 2020, I was physically and psychologically exhausted. An enervating combination of ongoing insomnia, constant anxiety, and never-ending work, with no sign of any let-up in sight led to what was subsequently diagnosed as 精神的崩壊 (*seishinteki hokai*), a mental breakdown. It was as if my mind had shut down. I withdrew from the world, staying in bed for the majority of the time, not communicating with family, friends, or work colleagues. My teenage son describes it as my “dark time”, when days would go by without me talking to either him or my wife.

I lost a significant amount of weight and would occasionally have severe heart palpitations and dizzy spells. These symptoms particularly concerned my wife as my father has a history of high blood pressure and has suffered several heart attacks, though my depression left me personally indifferent to my condition. My depression left me both unable and unwilling to recognize what was happening to my health.

Recovery. There were two main factors that put me on the road to recovery. The first was my wife’s consistent encouragement and cajoling to seek clinical psychiatric help. She arranged for me to visit a local psychiatrist. I found it difficult to relate my experiences to the doctor. He was sympathetic and offered good advice, but the cultural gap between us proved too much of a hindrance. My Japanese language competence was sufficient to articulate what was wrong with me and to understand the sensible advice he proffered, yet, I found it difficult to explain my feelings and my psychological state to this kindly Japanese gentleman. The problem was not so much *what* I wanted to say, but *how* I wanted to say it: the words, nuances, allusions, and metaphors I needed to use to describe my condition.

My wife was aware of my misgivings and so took it upon herself to see if there was any online English language counseling service I could use¹. Initially we considered the Tokyo English Life Line (TELL), but after we looked at their roster of counsellors, they all seemed to be American. Although we shared the English language, the cultural gap remained.

She then found Helplink, a free Irish state-funded counseling service for Irish people living abroad. I had my first online counselling session on March 25th and then a further seven sessions held weekly until mid-May. Being able to talk through my depression with an Ireland-based counsellor who specialized in counselling Irish emigrants was both an unbelievable stroke of (Irish) good luck, and an immense help in dispelling my depression.

The second factor that contributed to my recovery was reengaging with my students. I enjoy teaching. The stay-at-home directive issued by the Japanese government meant that I did not need to be (nor could I have been) present in a physical classroom. However, the move to online teaching and learning allowed me to be partially present - even if only as a disembodied voice talking over a series of PowerPoint slides. This gradual, displaced return to teaching beginning in the third week of April (and after four counselling sessions) also provided a more specific set of goals to aim for. Rather than just a vague notion of 'improvement', I tried to focus on specific aspects of online teaching and how I could facilitate student-to-student interaction. This was especially necessary for my first-year students who were scattered all over Japan and had never met each other. Their initial university experience was one defined by distance, isolation, and minimal interaction with their fellow students and faculty.

My recovery was gradual but progressive. By the beginning of May, my 'dark time' had thankfully brightened. I was sleeping better and tentatively reengaging with my family and colleagues. I had withdrawn from the CREATE Project and the university had facilitated a reduction in both teaching hours and administrative work. The combination of professional counselling and a reduced workload proved to be highly effective in regaining my mental wellbeing.

Recommendations

Although readers of this paper are unlikely to be asked to participate in a month-long educational voyage onboard a research vessel, or work on a national-level curriculum, characteristics of both case studies can offer lessons which might be used to reduce any adverse effects of culturally-related stress on foreign teachers working in Japan. These recommendations emphasize some of the precautions and

remedies the reader can take at the individual level. A considerably more difficult challenge is instigating remedial changes at the institutional level. Although there is a growing awareness of the increased workload at Japanese universities and the concomitant pressure and stress this puts on faculty (Watanabe, 2011; Kita et al., 2022), institutionally instigated measures to counter these developments are tokenistic at best, for example, posters directing faculty to mental health lines and enjoinders to take more annual leave. The principal obstacle, as with so much of tertiary education, is finance. Universities are not in a position to take on extra faculty in order to alleviate the workload of current faculty.

The authors must also take some personal responsibility for how events transpired. Neither of us were coerced into participating in a maritime research trip or overhauling the Myanmar elementary school English curriculum. Our insufficient Japanese language ability and reluctance to firmly decline also played a part. However, this is with the benefit of hindsight. Circumstances beyond our immediate control also had a significant impact. This confluence of factors ultimately resulted in a rapid decline of our respective mental health, a prolonged depression, and belatedly some form of recovery. From these experiences we would like to offer the following recommendations.

Japanese Language Skills

Foreign faculty should continuously work on improving their Japanese language skills. It is often the case that good language teachers make for bad language learners. In the same way as we advise our students on how to learn English (or other foreign languages) better, so we should apply the same advice to ourselves when studying Japanese. Enroll in a language class, practice regularly, and immerse yourself in Japanese conversation as much as possible. Finding a Japanese ‘study buddy’ can help boost and maintain motivation. Also signing up for a Japanese language proficiency test or course can have a similar effect. At work, it is important to ask for help when problems of understanding due to language arise, as seeking assistance is more beneficial than pretending to understand. It might be tempting to feign understanding, but it is better to swallow one’s pride and get help rather than storing up trouble for later.

Cultural Awareness and Sensitivity

It is also important for non-Japanese faculty to continually work on their levels of cultural awareness and sensitivity. Being able to understand cultural differences without immediate judgement can be an effective way to minimize frustration and other negative emotions (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005). Engage in some low-key anthropology. Observe and study Japanese customs and etiquette in both professional and personal contexts. Pay attention to non-verbal cues and body language as these are an important, albeit often overlooked part of Japanese communication.

Build relationships

Make an effort to build and maintain relationships, both professional and personal, with Japanese people. Join a local club, organization, or interest group to meet people who share your interest. It is a lot easier to communicate about something you are enthusiastic about. Be patient though; as with any group or organization gaining trust and building strong connections will take some time.

Social Connections

It is especially important that we prioritize and maintain our own established social connections with family and friends. Make a concerted effort to write emails, talk on the phone, meet for a coffee, or arrange a Zoom chat. Solid relationships will help us through the challenging times. Regularly and actively engaging with family and friends in order to nurture relationships will strengthen these connections.

Defined Work Responsibilities

Finally, both our experiences highlight the importance of clearly defining expectations and boundaries at work. It is essential to balance our professional and personal lives, and this means knowing when to turn down additional responsibilities.

Conclusion

It is the authors' hope that the accounts of their experiences will enable readers to gain some understanding of the impact of stress on our lives here in Japan. While

the extreme circumstances of the educational voyage in Case Study 1 exacerbated these factors, many of the same stressors are present to some degree in the daily lives of most expatriate teachers. Similarly, by understanding the effects of the excessive workload described in Case Study 2, teachers can be more aware of how they can take steps to ensure their own self-care and avoid falling into the same trap. By recognizing and addressing these factors, readers can better safeguard their mental well-being, ultimately contributing to a more fulfilling experience in Japan and better support for their students.

Notes

1. The Tokyo English Lifeline (TELL; <https://telljp.com/> tel. 0800-300-8355) is not the only service available in Japan. Others include Befrienders Japan (<https://www.befrienders-jpn.org/> tel. 81+03-5286-9090), International Association for Suicide Prevention (IASP; <https://www.iasp.info/>), Japan Healthcare Info (JHI; <https://japanhealthinfo.com/>), International Mental Health Professionals Japan (<https://www.imhjp.org/>), Japan 24-Hour Helpline (<https://www.japanhelpline.com/>), American Samaritans: Suicide hotline (24 hours, tel. +1-212-673-3000), and UK Samaritans: Suicide hotline (24 hours, tel. +44-8457 90 90 90).

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Received: October 31, 2023

Accepted: November 29, 2024

Appendix

Excerpts from social media messages to friends and family from the second author.

(*Facebook* message to friend 11.03.23)

I've been really struggling ***. It's been very tough. I've got anxiety all the time, just the intensity varies. I feel isolated on the ship because I don't understand what the other ten teachers are talking about, and I've not really managed to build any kind of relationship with any of them except one. Things reached a head after about a week, I hadn't slept a wink for two nights and I was at my wits end. I told my direct boss that I couldn't cope and I needed to get off the ship at the next port, that I was having a nervous breakdown.

(*Facebook* Message to father 22.03.23)

Hi Dad. I'm sleeping better, but I'm struggling. Everything seems overwhelming. I'm working through my list of things I've got to do, but I'm struggling with it. Life seems so complex and hard to manage. I want it to be simple.

(*Facebook* message to friend 20.04.23)

When we got to Ogasawara, I just felt so down, and I didn't understand why I felt that way. After all, we were in such a beautiful location. But inside, I felt awful. I couldn't sleep. Once I stopped sleeping properly, my condition got worse and worse. I'm back home now, and I've sunk into depression. I've been struggling to get out of it. I'm off work for two months. So I'm due to start work again at the end of May. My condition is improving but I still have bad days.

Practice-Oriented Paper

Student Perceptions and Teacher Concerns Regarding a CLIL Debate Course

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Research suggests that CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) courses can have a positive impact on student motivation and interest in addition to improving linguistic capabilities. However, when a CLIL English Debate course was introduced as a required course at a university in Tokyo, discussions among teachers raised questions about its appropriateness. The participation and motivation of students, the ability of lower proficiency students, and the appropriateness of materials were questioned. Surveys were designed to assess the students' perceptions of the course to evaluate whether their experiences matched the concerns of the teachers. Across all proficiency bands the quantitative data showed generally positive expectations at the beginning of the course and positive opinions at the end of the semester. This suggests that they did not share the concerns initially expressed by their instructors. Qualitative data was varied but generally positive. At first, students were nervous about their abilities but excited to improve their language and debate skills. By the end of the semester, they reported learning to think and communicate logically as well as how to focus on being understood. Responses provided insight into opportunities to improve the course design to better match their goals and expectations.

In 2020, a Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) English Debate course was introduced as a required course for all first-year students at a university in Tokyo as part of a curriculum redesign. The Coronavirus pandemic forced the first iteration to be taught online and in the following year instruction began online before returning to campus. It was taught entirely face-to-face for the first time in the 2022 academic year.

Discussions among teachers assigned to teach the course revealed some

common concerns. Few considered themselves experts on debate which caused them to feel concerned about the quality of content instruction. Misgivings about the appropriateness of the linguistic content, particularly for lower proficiency learners, amplified this reservation. Uncertainty regarding student motivation, participation, and capability were discussed, and the semester started with several teachers holding the belief that the course was appropriate only for higher proficiency learners.

This paper considers existing research on CLIL and details the results of two student surveys as a means of reflecting on the concerns of the teachers in charge of the course. A review of existing research and a reflection on the researcher's own experiences in the course were used to create the following three research questions.

1. What were the students' expectations before beginning the course?
2. What were the students' perceptions at the end of the semester?
3. What did the students believe they learned?

The goal is to determine whether these students shared the concerns detailed above and to identify ways for potential improvements to the course to better meet student needs.

CLIL as a methodology is understood as teaching content and language simultaneously in one course (Coyle, et al., 2010; Ennis, 2015; Llinares & Evnitskaya, 2021; Nitta & Yamamoto, 2020). Courses developed under this approach differ from traditional content or language classes in that learning objectives encompass both content knowledge and development of language skills, with the instructional method focusing on teaching and learning content in the target language (Coyle, et al., 2010; Nitta & Yamamoto, 2020), developing language skills necessary to communicate about the topic in a second or additional language (Coyle, et al., 2010; Llinares & Evnitskaya, 2021). CLIL has been gaining in popularity in recent decades (Aguilar & Muñoz, 2014; Bakken & Brevik, 2022) with proponents asserting that the intention is to improve multilingual education and better meet student needs (Aguilar & Muñoz, 2014; Nitta & Yamamoto, 2020).

CLIL courses fall along a spectrum as the prioritization of content

and language varies (Nitta & Yamamoto, 2020) making evaluation of the methodology challenging (Llinares & Evnitskaya, 2021). However, vocabulary gains have been observed with specific notes on receptive vocabulary (Agustín-Llach & Alonso, 2014), specialized vocabulary (Aguilar, 2012), and lower frequency vocabulary (Dalton-Puffer, 2011). Other reported beneficial learning outcomes include improved listening proficiency and grammatical knowledge (Aguilar & Muñoz, 2014) and breadth of communication styles (Dalton-Puffer, 2011). Conversely, Merino and Lasagabaster (2018) found benefits only from intensive CLIL courses and Pladevall-Ballester (2016) noted greater improvement in science classes as opposed to arts and craft and suggested that CLIL courses may be more effective for academic subjects. Additionally, receptive skills' increases tend to outpace those for productive skills (Yang & Gosling, 2014), though cooperative learning may reduce this discrepancy as pair and group work increases opportunities for language production (Vázquez, et al., 2015).

Student perceptions of CLIL are generally positive (e.g. Barrios, 2022; Cañado, 2018; Roiha & Sommier, 2018). Students reported being motivated and enjoying the tasks and group work (Zheng, et al., 2023). Learners also reported believing they had improved their language skills (Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2016) and feeling more able to express themselves in the target language (Roiha & Sommier, 2018). However, Barrios (2022) acknowledged that some learners did not enjoy CLIL courses and speculated that the intensity of the course and difficulty of the content may have caused some students to express dissatisfaction. Zheng, et al. (2023) noted that CLIL courses in cognitively challenging subjects were less popular, though they speculate that this may be due to these subjects being demotivating regardless of teaching method. Lasagabaster & Doiz (2016) reported that students did not like CLIL textbooks, instead preferring authentic materials. Learners also wanted more opportunities to practice the target language in class (Cañado, 2018; Yang & Gosling, 2014). Neither paper identified the reason behind this desire, and it may be due to the individual implementation in the programs studied or due to the inherent need for CLIL classes to serve two masters. CLIL instructors echoed students'

concerns about communicative opportunities (Szczesniak & Muñoz Luna, 2022) and they worried about a lower quality of content knowledge (Llinares & Evnitskaya, 2021) and the need for first language use to solve comprehension issues (Kao, 2023, Llinares & Evnitskaya, 2021; Yang & Gosling, 2014).

Method

For this study two surveys, combining quantitative and qualitative questions, were distributed to six debate classes. Each class consisted of approximately 20 students. Likert scale data were analyzed by assigning values ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). Participants represented all proficiency bands with level 1 as the most proficient and level 4 being the least proficient. The first survey was given following the course's first lesson to capture initial, pre-treatment expectations of the course and the second, post-treatment survey was given following the twelfth of 14 lessons and was intended to gather data regarding how the students perceived the course at the end of the semester and what they believed they had learned. The second survey was given following the twelfth lesson as opposed to the fourteenth to maximize the response rate since it was believed that fewer students would be willing to complete a survey after the final lesson when the course was officially over. Additionally, the final debates were split with one group performing in lesson 13 and another in lesson 14, so a survey given following the thirteenth lesson would have included responses from students with different experiences.

Results and Discussion

In total, 86 students responded to the first survey and 72 responded to the second. The results of the first survey were analyzed and discussed to address the first research question regarding students' expectations prior to beginning the course, while the second survey was addressed in two parts to answer the second and third research question regarding students' perceptions of the course at the end of the semester and their opinions of their own learning respectively.

Research Question 1

The first research question aimed to determine the expectations of the students at the start of the semester. The first survey asked about their experience with using English to learn content, their interest in the course and learning English in general, as well as their thoughts about how the course would go. The results below are not presented in the same sequence as the questions appeared on the survey. Overall, the results suggested a positive view of the course although nervousness regarding linguistic ability was common.

Table 1 shows students' reported experience with using English to learn content, showing that overall, more than half of participants reported having this experience.

A single-factor ANOVA found that the variation between proficiency bands was statistically significant at $p \leq .05$.

As seen in the following three tables, interest in the class, methodology, and continued English study was generally high across all proficiency bands.

Proficiency was correlated with interest in the course (Table 2) and learning content using English (Table 3) at $p \leq .05$, but the relationship with further English study (Table 4) was not significant. Prior experience with learning content in English was correlated with all three, indicating this may be a better predictor than proficiency. However, as experience was correlated with proficiency, it is difficult to disentangle the two.

Table 1

Q1. Have You Ever Learned About a Non-English Topic by Using English Before?

Proficiency band	Yes	No	Total	Percent yes
Level 1	13	1	14	92.86
Level 2	18	12	30	60.00
Level 3	13	13	26	50.00
Level 4	6	10	16	37.50
Total	50	36	86	58.14

Table 2

Q2. I am Interested in Taking This Course

Proficiency band	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Mean
Level 1	5	8	1	0	0	14	4.29
Level 2	6	13	9	2	0	30	3.77
Level 3	2	11	11	2	0	26	3.50
Level 4	4	5	7	0	0	16	3.81
Total	17	37	28	4	0	86	3.78

Table 3

Q5. I am Interested in Learning About a Non-English Topic With English Instruction

Proficiency band	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Mean
Level 1	5	7	1	1	0	14	4.14
Level 2	5	15	8	2	0	30	3.77
Level 3	0	13	8	5	0	26	3.31
Level 4	3	5	8	0	0	16	3.69
Total	13	40	25	8	0	86	3.67

Qualitative responses were similarly positive. There were 82 responses to the question “In your own words, how do you feel about taking this course?” with only nine responses categorized as negative versus 47 positives. Of the negative responses, four additionally included positive commentary. Positive responses referenced both linguistic improvement and course content, as is illustrated in the following examples.

“I thought this course helps me a lot since I want to study abroad and use English for my work in the future.”

Table 4

Q6. I Want to Study English More During My Time at This University

Proficiency band	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Mean
Level 1	6	5	3	0	0	14	4.21
Level 2	10	15	3	1	1	30	4.07
Level 3	2	18	3	3	0	26	3.73
Level 4	3	4	8	1	0	16	3.56
Total	21	42	17	5	1	86	3.90

“I’m looking forward to it because I can practice developing critical thinking skills.”

Despite overall positive expectations, confidence was relatively neutral, and participants were somewhat nervous about the course. Table 5 shows the participants reported level of confidence and Table 6 shows their reported level of nervousness.

An open-ended question allowed participants to specify what they were nervous about prior to beginning the course and responses indicated that most concerns were about linguistic and communicative ability, with 52 of 82 responses classified this way. Hesitation about public speaking was a distant second with 14 responses. Only four responses were related to course content.

Two more open-ended questions asked what the participants expected and what they were looking forward to in the course and the responses revealed a mismatch between their expectations and interests. There were 65 responses indicating an expectation regarding linguistic improvement and 25 focused on debate skills (including 16 responses mentioning both), however comments regarding what students were looking forward to often mentioned the classroom experience. Only 25 mentioned language skill improvement and seven mentioned debate skill improvement, while 38 talked about the experience of the debate and 24 referenced working with classmates. The enthusiasm for the

Table 5

Q3. I am Confident I Can Do Well in This Course

Proficiency band	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Mean
Level 1	1	2	6	4	1	14	2.86
Level 2	1	6	17	4	2	30	3.00
Level 3	1	7	9	8	1	26	2.96
Level 4	1	4	5	6	0	16	3.00
Total	4	19	37	22	4	86	2.97

Table 6

Q4. I am Nervous About Taking This Course

Proficiency band	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Mean
Level 1	1	5	3	5	0	14	3.14
Level 2	4	11	12	3	0	30	3.53
Level 3	5	11	6	4	0	26	3.65
Level 4	3	5	4	4	0	16	3.44
Total	13	32	25	16	0	86	3.49

classroom experience aligns with the findings of Zheng, et al. (2023), who noted positive responses to activities.

In summary, the first survey revealed generally positive expectations across all proficiency bands with high levels of interest. Students primarily expected language skill improvements, though they were primarily looking forward to the classroom experience. They also reported concerns about their ability to participate due to linguistic and communicative abilities, which aligns with the concerns of instructors of the course.

Research Question 2

The second survey asked students to report on their perceptions of the course at the end of the semester as well as to note what they thought they had learned. The second research question focused on their perceptions of the course which were overwhelmingly positive.

Three questions were asked to gauge the popularity of the course, the results of which are presented in Tables 7, 8, and 9.

Responses to all three questions were positive across all proficiency bands.

Table 7

Q1. I Enjoyed Taking This Course

Proficiency band	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Mean
Level 1	12	4	0	0	0	16	4.75
Level 2	8	5	4	0	0	17	4.24
Level 3	11	8	3	0	1	23	4.22
Level 4	4	11	1	0	0	16	4.19
Total	35	28	8	0	1	72	4.33

Table 8

Q9. I Want to Take More Courses Where I Learn About a Topic Through English Instruction

Proficiency band	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Mean
Level 1	7	7	1	1	0	16	4.25
Level 2	2	7	6	2	0	17	3.53
Level 3	4	5	7	7	0	23	3.26
Level 4	2	7	6	1	0	16	3.63
Total	15	26	20	11	0	72	3.63

Table 9

Q10. I Want to Continue Studying English

Proficiency band	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Mean
Level 1	11	5	0	0	0	16	4.69
Level 2	12	3	0	2	0	17	4.47
Level 3	8	10	4	1	0	23	4.09
Level 4	4	7	4	1	0	16	3.88
Total	35	25	8	4	0	72	4.26

While a single-factor ANOVA revealed a statistically significant difference across bands for interest in further CLIL courses and continued English study, the lowest proficiency band gave more positive responses regarding content through English instruction than the middle two bands, indicating proficiency may not be the reason for this difference but rather other variations between the classes may be the explanatory factor.

The qualitative data was also generally positive. Of 65 responses regarding participants' feelings towards learning debate with English instruction, 14 were clearly positive and the only negative comment expressed disappointment in a lack of opportunity to use debate skills out of the classroom. Additionally, when asked to report things they did not like, 41 of the 65 responses were some variation of "nothing."

When asked what they liked, responses matched the first survey with classroom experiences as the most prevalent response category. Of 65 responses, 21 mentioned classmates, 20 mentioned the teacher, and 19 referred to how the course was managed. Only 13 mentioned language skills and 11 mentioned content. Of the 24 replies for negative points that were not some variation of "nothing," two were about public speaking, four about classmates, five about difficulty, five about topic balance, one about the teacher's language difficulty, nine about administrative matters, and five about language. Of those five coded

as language, three were about difficulty and two noted they wished their group did not use Japanese for preparation. Administrative matters were varied but included things like scheduling and methods of creating groups.

Course difficulty did not seem to be an issue. Nearly all participants believed they did well with only a single reply disagreeing, and when asked if the course was too difficult the results were clustered around neutral with a slight lean towards disagreement, leaving no support for claiming the difficulty was inappropriate.

Qualitative data further supports the conclusion that the difficulty was appropriate. When asked which parts of the course were difficult, language and content were fairly evenly split and none of the replies could be marked as an egregious point of difficulty. Two examples are given here for illustration.

“In the actual debate, I had to accurately understand what the opposing team was saying and take some sort of reaction in a short amount of time.”

“Cross examination is hard for me because I have to guess the opponent’s opinion and think about questions and answers.”

Feedback regarding the textbook was also positive with no statistically significant variation across proficiency bands. Qualitatively, participants stated the book was useful for reference and easy to understand and the few negative responses just found it unnecessary. Qualitative data about the teacher was positive but generic and provided little insight.

Feedback regarding potential improvements to the course was varied. Individual or classmate improvement was the most common coding, followed by nothing, but comments requesting more chances for language practice and for increased opportunities to debate followed closely behind. This supports the findings of Cañado (2018) as well as of Yang & Gosling (2014) that participants in CLIL classes would prefer more opportunities for language use.

Overall, participants reported satisfaction with the course with very few negative responses or comments. There were minor points identified for adjustment related to classroom management and administrative issues, but the only negative comments that could be related to the CLIL approach were requests for more opportunities for practice.

Research Question 3

The third research question also draws on the responses from the second survey and focuses on what the participants believed they had learned over the course of the semester. Tables 10 and 11 show how much participants believed they improved their English skills and teamwork skills respectively and Tables 12 and 13 show how much they believed they learned about debate and about the topics they debated in class.

The responses indicated that the participants believed they improved in every area targeted by the survey. They reported improving their English proficiency,

Table 10

Q5. I Improved My English Skills by Taking This Course

Proficiency band	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Mean
Level 1	3	9	3	1	0	16	3.88
Level 2	3	9	5	0	0	17	3.88
Level 3	6	10	6	1	0	23	3.91
Level 4	5	11	0	0	0	16	4.31
Total	17	39	14	2	0	72	3.99

Table 11

Q8. I Improved at Working With a Team From This Course

Proficiency band	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Mean
Level 1	5	10	1	0	0	16	4.25
Level 2	6	10	1	0	0	17	4.29
Level 3	12	7	3	0	1	23	4.26
Level 4	8	7	0	1	0	16	4.38
Total	31	34	5	1	1	72	4.29

Table 12

Q4. I Learned a Lot About How to Have a Debate From This Course

Proficiency band	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Mean
Level 1	11	5	0	0	0	16	4.69
Level 2	9	8	0	0	0	17	4.53
Level 3	11	9	3	0	0	23	4.35
Level 4	7	9	0	0	0	16	4.44
Total	38	31	3	0	0	72	4.49

Table 13

Q6. I Learned a Lot About the Topics We Debated in Class

Proficiency band	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Mean
Level 1	7	8	0	1	0	16	4.31
Level 2	5	9	2	1	0	17	4.06
Level 3	9	8	6	0	0	23	4.13
Level 4	7	6	2	1	0	16	4.19
Total	28	31	10	3	0	72	4.17

improving teamwork skills, learning how to have a debate, and learning about the topics discussed in their debates. There was no statistically significant variation between the proficiency bands. These responses indicate that, from the students' perspective, the course effectively meets the goals set forth by Nitta & Yamamoto (2020) in their explanation of the new curriculum.

When asked which linguistic skills they believe improved, speaking was the clear leader, selected in 60 of 72 responses, followed by listening with 41. Writing was selected more than reading. These results diverge from previous research that

emphasized vocabulary acquisition (Aguilar, 2012; Agustín-Llach & Alonso, 2014; Dalton-Puffer, 2011) and receptive skills (Yang & Gosling, 2014). Debate requiring the learners to write and give speeches in class may be the cause of this difference and the emphasis on group activities may lend support to Vázquez, et al.'s, (2015) view that cooperative learning may reduce the focus on receptive skills often observed in CLIL.

When asked the open-ended question “What did you learn about debate from this course?” 46 of the 64 responses focused on content skills including parts of a debate, critical thinking skills, research skills, teamwork, and crafting persuasive arguments. Only 27 mentioned communication or linguistic skill improvement. Two specific themes that were commonly mentioned were improvement of argumentation skills and clarity of communication with 16 and 14 mentions respectively.

The results related to learning and skill acquisition were again positive, with content knowledge outpacing language skill improvement in the responses. This indicates that the concerns about the quality of content instruction expressed by the instructors in charge of the course and as seen in prior research were not supported by the data.

Conclusion

This paper used data from pre- and post-treatment surveys to assess the perceptions of university students in a required English CLIL debate course and to determine if they shared the concerns expressed by instructors of the course. The pre-treatment survey showed enthusiasm for the course and the CLIL approach and the post-treatment survey revealed that those positive attitudes persisted. Participants reported believing that they had improved their skills and knowledge in all areas targeted by the survey and that the activities and content were popular. As previous research suggested, there was an opportunity for improvement by increasing opportunities for communicative practice. Given the overall popularity of the course and reported benefits, small changes in lesson design targeted at communicative practice may further improve student perceptions and allow the course to do a better job meeting the CLIL goals of

improving linguistic proficiency while providing content knowledge in the target language.

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Received: March 11, 2024

Accepted: November 27, 2024

Practice-Oriented Paper

Language Teacher Wellbeing in Times of Change

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Wellbeing is a fundamental part of positive psychology and consistently acknowledging it is crucial. When the Covid-19 pandemic hit the education profession in 2020, it was a challenging time for related companies, institutions and teachers. Emergency Remote Teaching (ERT) was introduced to institutions in Japan from the 2020 academic year and this brought much pedagogical change. Due to disruptions that the pandemic forced on to the teaching profession, being in an emergency remote teaching environment may have had a negative influence on wellbeing. This paper presents a study that compares language teacher wellbeing during ERT with the time of current teaching post-pandemic. Respondents (N = 22) were surveyed anonymously to gauge a generalized rating in different elements of wellbeing to determine which areas improved or declined between ERT and the current teaching context. Findings found a general decline in wellbeing in most areas at the time of ERT. Positive and negative emotions displayed clearer results, with feelings of anxiousness having a higher rating during ERT. Participants rated engagement, meaning and accomplishment more highly in the current teaching context, however, similar readings were shown in relationships and health for both contexts.

Wellbeing is defined as a state of being comfortable, healthy or happy but which is not static and that can fluctuate over time (Mercer & Gregersen, 2020). It is known to be an essential element in living a happy and healthy life but also may help with thriving in a career, making social connections and enjoying life. According to Butler and Kern, (2016), factors impacting wellbeing can be defined and measured objectively (opportunities for education or environmental pollutants for example) and subjectively (terms such as ‘happiness’ and ‘flourishing’). One has to prioritize one’s own wellbeing before helping others and this applies to English language educators too. English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers for

instance are likely to have many responsibilities in the workplace. It may be a challenge to find time to work on their own wellbeing, which may have negative influences on their psychological state. Since a healthy and encouraging teacher is likely to promote a positive classroom environment for learners more than educators with negative states such as anxiety or stress (McCallum & Price, 2010), it seems important to help teachers to maintain higher levels of wellbeing.

Seligman (2011) suggested five measurable elements to wellbeing by creating the PERMA framework. These are: positive emotion, engagement, relationships, meaning and accomplishment. The model was created to give a theoretical understanding of happiness. Positive emotion includes feelings such as joy and happiness and can enhance performance at work, strengthen relationships and can also create optimism for the future (Kun et al., 2017). One can often lose track of time when engaged or engrossed in something which can bring happiness to ourselves or others. Relationships bring social connection with others such as family, friends, organizations and communities, creating a sense of belongingness. To feel that one's life is meaningful and purposeful can contribute to self-fulfillment. People generally enjoy accomplishing something which can increase their self-confidence and self-esteem. In achieving wellbeing, it is important to consider the past, look back on our lives and think to ourselves whether we achieved something and did it well (Kun et al., 2017).

PERMA has been widely mentioned in literature and has played a part in research articles and frameworks. Notably, Butler and Kern's (2016) PERMA Profiler, which was developed as a model to measure flourishing in individuals. Their framework includes Seligman's (2011) five core elements but with two additional components: negative emotion and health. They view these as important aspects of wellbeing because they believe the framework should be more multidimensional in order to capture the complexities of wellbeing. The PERMA framework could be adapted easily for the purposes of this study as its content and questions are highly relevant to this research.

Due to the Covid-19 pandemic, teachers transitioned to Emergency Remote Teaching (ERT) in the 2020 academic year. Defined as a temporary shift of instructional delivery to an alternate delivery mode due to crisis or emergency

circumstances (Hodges et al., 2020), ERT brought many difficulties and challenges. It entailed health concerns for many and additionally for language teachers it meant switching to unfamiliar platforms, underprepared with little or no training (MacIntyre et al., 2020). Studies found that teacher stress and burnout rose during the ERT period along with other concerns such as limited online teaching resources, workload and unreliable assessment tools and strategies (García-Álvarez et al., 2021). However, some positives may have come from ERT such as the development of new skills and greater flexibility with online formats (Moorhouse & Kohnke, 2021). Educator habits and behaviors were also rethought, reprioritized and reevaluated during the pandemic (Williams et al., 2021). Therefore, it could be said that ERT has had beneficial and/or adverse effects on teacher wellbeing. Educators have now transitioned back to a physical classroom with more conventional teaching approaches, but further attention on language teacher wellbeing should be prioritized in order for teachers to thrive post-pandemic.

Using the PERMA framework, this study asks: In which areas, if any, did language teachers' wellbeing improve or decline during the ERT and post-ERT periods?

Method

Timing

The study was conducted in July, 2023, just before the end of the spring semester. This was a time when institutions and companies had likely resumed the familiar teaching approaches that they had used before the pandemic began and ERT was introduced. Thus, the study was conducted at a time when individuals may still have clearly remembered how they had been affected during the period of change.

Participants

The main source of participants for this study was an online social media group called Online Teaching Japan (OTJ). It was chosen because it has more than 3,000 members, most of whom probably had experience of ERT in Japan, thus making it an appropriate target sample for this study. This is a very popular forum

in the English teaching community in Japan. The aim of the group is to act as a space for educators in Japan to share best practices and ideas related to teaching online. Educators may come from any teaching context such as university or high school. It was set up as a support network for English teachers in Japan during the ERT period and therefore provided a potentially valuable way for teachers to retain and improve skills and knowledge during ERT. Once permission was received from OTJ's owner to conduct the study, the survey was posted on the OTJ website. From the 3,000 members of the OTJ group, 22 participants responded (a response rate of around 0.73%) to the study.

Materials

A 40-item, quantitative Google Forms survey was used for this study. The survey's key objective was to obtain a generalized rating for each area in order to compare wellbeing during and after the ERT period.

The survey's first two questions collected demographic data including length of in-service practice in Japan and participants' teaching context(s) since April 1st, 2020 in Japan. This was the time when many institutions had already, or were transitioning to ERT. The remaining 38 questions were adapted from the seven areas of Butler and Kern's (2016) PERMA Profiler: positive emotion, negative emotion, engagement, relationships, meaning, accomplishment and health. Half (19 items) related to participants' experiences during the ERT period and the other half to their current teaching contexts. Each of the seven areas included three questions each, except health, which had only one. The health questions in the PERMA Profiler were all quite similar, so one question was favored here for simplicity. For example, the area of positive emotion had questions relating to joyfulness, positivity and contentment. Slightly re-worded equivalents were used for the current teaching context. Apart from the demographic questions, all incorporated an 11-point Likert scale ranging from '0' (not at all or never) to '10' (completely or always), as per the PERMA Profiler itself. This 11-point scale should yield higher resolution results making interpretation of those results easier and more meaningful.

Procedure

The survey was posted anonymously to the OTJ's website at the end of the 2023 Spring semester and remained open for data collection until early September, a span of approximately one month. It was hoped that the survey would collect many responses during this timeframe due to a fact that potential respondents would have more time while on vacation, but in retrospect this may have worked against the study. The survey was then closed.

Analyses

Data from the two demographic-related questions were analyzed manually then from question 3 onwards, data were analyzed using the Google Forms software which generated results as bar graphs. Those from both contexts (ERT and current teaching) were then compiled together and compared in order to view any emerging trends and to distinguish which areas received higher ratings.

Results

Of the 22 participants who took the survey, 15 had sixteen years or more teaching experience in Japan while another four had between ten and 12 years, showing that the respondents were experienced teachers. Figure 1 displays the breakdown of the teaching contexts which participants have experienced, with a very large majority indicating the university setting.

Table 1 shows the results for both *positive emotion* (*joyful, optimistic, content*) and *negative emotion* (*anxious, angry and sad*). The questions in the table are simplified to words or phrases. The ratings report which context rated more highly for each emotion. Comparing ratings for both contexts, where differences in ratings were not conclusive, they are rated as 'inconclusive'.

For the positive emotions, participants rated all three more highly currently. Conversely, the negative emotions of *sad* and *anxious* recorded a higher rating in ERT while feelings of *anger* had similar ratings overall in both contexts.

Figure 2 compares the results between the ERT and current teaching contexts in relation to the participants' frequency of anxiety. It shows that participants indicated feeling anxious more often during ERT.

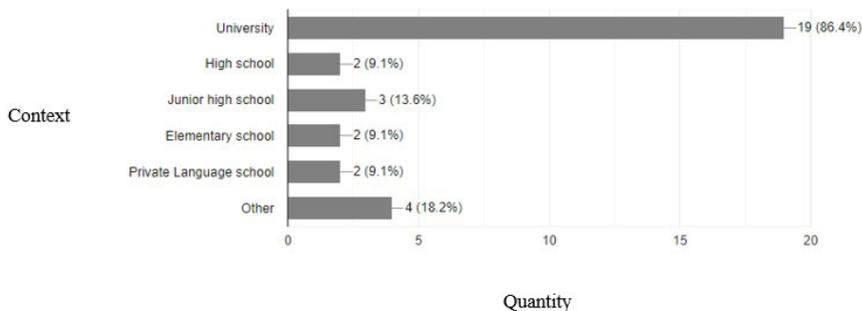


Figure 1. Context(s) taught in Japan since April 1, 2020

Table 1
Overall Ratings of Positive and Negative Emotion on ERT and Current Context Comparison

Area	Rating	Area	Rating
Positive emotion		Negative emotion	
Joyful	Higher currently	Anxious	Higher in ERT
Optimistic	Higher currently	Angry	Inconclusive
Contentment	Higher currently	Sad	Higher in ERT

Table 2 presents findings from areas *engagement* and *relationships*. All questions in both areas showed similar readings except for being excited and interested which showed higher ratings overall from respondents in their current teaching context.

Table 3 presents the results for the PERMA components of *meaning* and *accomplishment*.

For *meaning*, results are similarly inconclusive with respect to one’s work being purposeful and meaningful in both contexts. However, work that was valuable and worthwhile rated more highly currently, as did having a general sense of direction in one’s work. Regarding *accomplishment*, the progress towards accomplishing work-related goals and handling work-related responsibilities gave inconclusive findings although current context illustrates a higher rating for

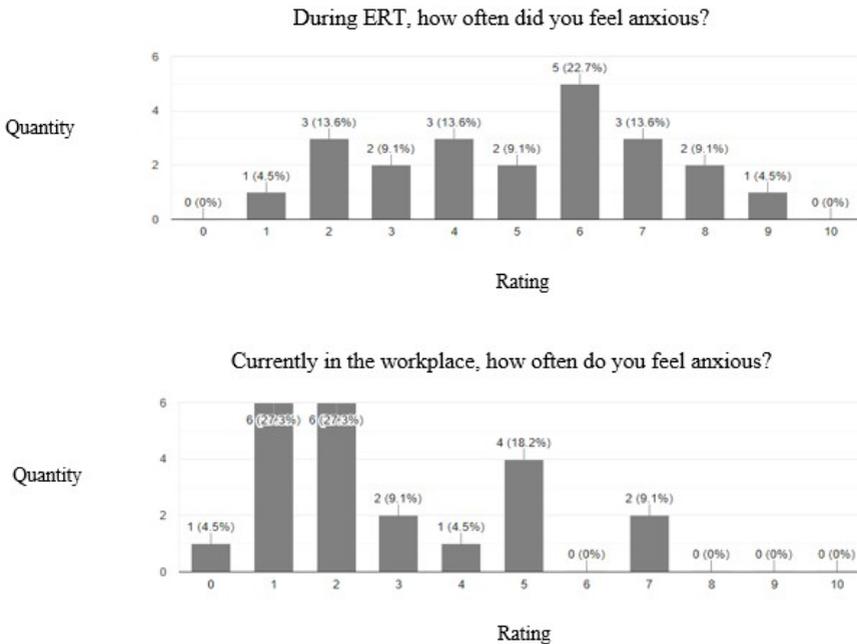


Figure 2. Ratings comparing anxiousness during ERT and current context.

Table 2

Overall Ratings of Engagement and Relationships on ERT and Current Context Comparison

Area	Rating	Area	Rating
Engagement		Relationships	
Become absorbed	Inconclusive	Receive help and support	Inconclusive
Excited and interested	Higher currently	Feel appreciated	Inconclusive
Lose track of time	Inconclusive		

achieving important work goals.

Ratings in both ERT and current teaching displayed an inconclusive result in the area of health.

Table 3
Overall Ratings of Meaning and Accomplishment on ERT and Current Context Comparison

Area	Rating	Area	Rating
Meaning			
Purposeful and meaningful	Inconclusive	Accomplishment	Inconclusive
Valuable and worthwhile	Higher currently	Progress towards accomplishing work-related goals	Higher currently
General sense of direction	Higher currently	Achieving important work goals	Inconclusive
		Handle work-related responsibilities	

Discussion

The study posited the research question: In which areas, if any, did language teachers’ wellbeing improve or decline during the ERT and post-ERT periods? The results will be discussed systematically and in relation to related literature, taking each context in turn. Reasons for the results will be suggested.

Emergency Remote Teaching Context

The large number of inconclusive results, as well as those that show an increase in *anxiety* and *sadness* during ERT (Table 1) are to some extent at odds with the results of other research which found positive outcomes for teachers during ERT. For example, the acquisition of new skills and new experiences through the novel use of online formats (Moorhouse & Kohnke, 2021) which might have warranted higher ratings in the areas of *accomplishment* or *meaning* than was found here (Table 3). Including survey questions related to skills acquired and how valuable they are may have yielded more positive results in those areas during ERT.

The higher levels of anxiety and sadness during ERT were likely the norm for so many during the pandemic due to bereavement, uncertainty and social

isolation. For example, Jerrim et al., (2022) found that teachers' work-related anxiety increased throughout the 2020/21 academic year with onsite instruction, longer working hours and live online lessons all attributing towards anxiety.

Furthermore, there were very likely opportunities for many teachers to reduce their commuting time and costs, so it is assumed that they could have refocused those resources more toward taking care of their health, generating another positive result for ERT. Some studies have found that stress decreased over time through ERT for teachers (Sacré et al., 2023) with work and family life becoming more balanced with a general feeling of optimism for ERT being likely factors for lowering stress. Therefore, some may have found working online during the pandemic a more positive challenge. This study's survey could therefore have benefited from the inclusion of additional items related to the extent to which ERT decreased stress, which might have highlighted some of the more positive aspects of the ERT period.

However, to keep the results in perspective, it must be pointed out that the higher ratings for *anxiety* and *sadness* were exceptional. The majority of the findings were either inconclusive, i.e., there was little discernable difference between the two contexts (Table 2), or there were higher ratings for participants' current teaching context.

Current Teaching Context

Comparing the respondent ratings in each of the seven elements in both contexts, Tables 1, 2 and 3 displayed either a higher or inconclusive rating for the current teaching context compared to ERT. Research has shown that teachers become energized after a face-to-face class (Moorhouse & Kohnke, 2021), thus participants in the study gave a higher rating for the specified positive emotions more frequently for their post-pandemic current context (Table 1). There may have been instances of more frequent stress and depression returning to on-campus teaching post-pandemic (García-Álvarez et al., 2021), but the majority of participants in this study more often responded positively. Being interested and feelings of excitement (Table 2), *joyful*, *content* and *optimistic* (Table 1) were positives rated more frequently post-pandemic.

Another area that participants rated more highly was *meaning* (Table 3). Going back to on-campus teaching after ERT may have promoted higher rates of feelings of value and worth in one's teaching. Much uncertainty came from teaching during the pandemic (Pourbahram & Sadeghi, 2022) thus, the majority of participants may have felt more certainty in the workplace post-pandemic with a perceived higher general sense of direction in their teaching. It may also suggest that educators may feel more comfortable with normal class approaches and surroundings that they were used to pre-pandemic rather than an emergency remote working environment.

Another finding showed that *health* displayed very similar ratings from respondents in both contexts. As previously mentioned, ERT may have been a good opportunity for some of them to devote more time to their health. To others however it may have been a barrier of disruption to their normal routine resulting in a more sedentary lifestyle.

From the results observed between the two contexts, it can be seen that experiencing a temporary shift away from usual teaching approaches can adversely affect language teachers' wellbeing in some areas but that a return to familiar surroundings and working practices may bring a wider range of positive affective outcomes.

Limitations

There were some limitations to this study which should be acknowledged here. Firstly, when the survey was distributed, it was anticipated before the study began that a higher return rate would have been achieved due to the large community of educators within the social media group targeted for this project. However, only 22 people responded, which may have made it difficult to separate out the two contexts more clearly.

Secondly, the survey lacked qualitative follow-up items to facilitate interpretation of the related quantitative results. Furthermore, the survey did not state a specific timeframe. Starting questions with "during ERT" denotes the entire duration of the remote teaching. As it is known, ERT was over a number of years for many and teachers' wellbeing may have been affected in different

ways at different stages of the pandemic. The initial stages for example may have seen more negative states, transitioning to more positive states in the final phases of ERT. The wording is therefore a confounding variable that makes interpreting the results more difficult. Following Jerrim et al., (2022), compartmentalizing the pandemic into four key stages and measuring wellbeing at each stage might have provided more definitive findings.

Conclusion

This study compared language teacher wellbeing during the time of ERT and teaching post-pandemic. The aim of the paper was to explore which of the seven elements (positive emotion, negative emotion, engagement, relationships, meaning, accomplishment and health) showed an increase or decrease in teacher wellbeing among the 22 participants.

The PERMA Profiler provided the framework for a 40-item quantitative Google Forms survey with participants giving generalized ratings. Results showed that participants were more *anxious* and *sad* during ERT than in their current teaching context. While ERT may have resulted in new, positive experiences for many, it also caused more anxiety and stress for others. Conversely, while a comparison of the results between the two contexts for some aspects of engagement, relationships, meaning, accomplishment and health were inconclusive, participants did report higher ratings for other aspects of engagement, meaning and accomplishment in their current teaching context.

Searching for ways to better ourselves as teachers should be an ongoing goal. It can foster more psychological states yet produce a positive teaching environment for learners. In addition, integrating more wellness practices into curricula for teachers is recommended in order to improve wellbeing across the education profession in post-pandemic times.

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Author bio

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Received: March 11, 2023

Accepted: November 28, 2024

Practice-Oriented Paper

Investigating the Rubric for a Writing Class Using Multi-Facets Rasch Analysis

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Analytical rubrics are commonly used to assess university students' writing skills; however, rubric validity (content of the rubric and rater interpretation) is a common concern. A rubric developed for use in a coordinated writing program at a large university in western Japan was investigated in spring 2022 for validity. Five raters evaluated the first and second drafts of student essays ($N = 14$). The raters' scores were analyzed using many-facets Rasch software. Subsequently, raters were asked to explain their scoring in individual interviews. The results showed that raters' scores were not consistent with the overall model. Of the five raters, only two had acceptable infit mean squares (1.05 and 0.79 vs. 0.55, 1.37, and 0.35). Additionally, the categories of Topic Sentence and Language/Format showed rater bias in the case of three out of the five raters (18 and 26 instances, respectively). During the interviews, the raters expressed diverging ideas of what constituted an effective topic sentence and to what degree lexical/grammatical errors affected readability. A summary of these results was provided to the program coordinators. After some discussion, a new rubric has been trialed for this coordinated writing program for the 2023 year.

This paper reports the findings of an exploratory study relating to rater behavior and the validity of a rubric for a university writing class. With this study, I aimed to explore raters' perceptions of using the rubric to assess student writing. I used a mixed methods approach that included insights from a many-facets Rasch analysis and rater interviews.

Fulcher and Davidson (2007) defined validity as reaching reasonable conclusions based on the inherent traits of the person being evaluated. Moreover, they suggested validity is circumstantial, as traits are assessed in a certain circumstance, with the assessed person's behavior appropriate for that

circumstance.

Messick (1995) outlined six areas that must be considered when evaluating the validity of an assessment instrument. These areas were content validity, substantive validity, structural validity, generalizability, external validity, and consequence validity. I will discuss content validity and substantive validity the most in this paper. Content validity concerns whether the content of the instrument matches the associated skills and knowledge to be evaluated. The basic construct, including its characteristics and limits, must be reflected in the instrument. Substantive validity means the response and behavior of the test taker is related to the content, or more broadly, the construct to be assessed.

In a pioneering study, Engelhard (1992) examined the ratings of 1,000 randomly chosen eighth-grade essay writing tests by 82 raters. These were high stakes tests required by a southeastern U.S. state. The raters used an analytical rubric with five scoring categories: content/organization, style, sentence formation, usage, and mechanics. Engelhard examined rater severity, relative difficulty of the writing tasks, and overall fit of raters to the model using many-facets Rasch analysis. Despite measures to ensure rater reliability, a large difference emerged in rater severity, with seven misfitting raters showing outfit mean scores of <0.6 or >1.5 . Additionally, rater severity ranged from -1.74 to 1.78 logits, and the overall severity differed significantly ($p < .01$). Nevertheless, the five domains of the analytical rubric fit the model with infit mean scores of 0.9 to 1.1 . Engelhard's research (1992) spoke to the challenges of rater reliability.

Wolfe and Smith (2007) gave detailed recommendations for assuring studies using Rasch analysis have reliability. These included examining the construct closely and ensuring data are unidimensional, confirming rater and test-taker invariance, and using item-measure correlation and other Rasch analysis output. All these elements showed a connection between the trait or construct to be measured and the instrument to be used. My study examines how clear the construct is in the minds of the raters as they read and apply the rubric.

Lukácsi (2021) examined the validity of an instrument to determine if writing samples were at the CEFR B2 (upper intermediate level, Council of Europe, 2001). A total of 36 questions based on information from the CEFR

B2 level were used to compile a decision-based scale and evaluate four samples. Following the initial review, the scale was then used to evaluate 30 student papers and then 150. The results of a many-facets Rasch analysis showed very good infit mean squares (the majority being around 1.0). This showed a process by which the validity of an instrument could be demonstrated and supported by having a clear construct, a relatively limited area for the rubric, and discussion among the raters.

The present study is a partial replication of Engelhard (1992). I used those procedures and Rasch measures to investigate the rubric used in of the EC3 Writing course at a large private university in western Japan. There was no *a priori* hypothesis.

Research Questions

1. How does overall severity differ between the five raters using the current rubric?
2. How does each rater fit the overall model? Is there evidence of rater bias?
3. How does each student fit the overall model?
4. Are all areas of the rubric being used? Or are most of the scores centered on certain numbers?
5. How do raters perceive the clarity and ease of use of the rubric?

Methods

Participants

These included an intact class taught by me of six male and nine female participants, all first-year university students (aged 18–20 years) majoring in applied social science at a large private university in western Japan. As part of a regular assignment, they wrote two drafts of an essay. Across the 25 classes of the EC3 Writing course, students were placed in groups with similar TOEFL placement test scores. My estimate of their CEFR writing proficiency was B1. EC3 Writing is a coordinated writing course that all students in the faculty needed to take, part of a required two-year, four-skills English program.

The English Language Education Committee of the faculty approved the

procedures for this study. Following the committee's guidelines, all participants signed an informed consent form that detailed the purpose of the study, research methods, and that participation was voluntary. The current course coordinator and program director were informed of the research.

Instrument

All of the instructors teaching the coordinated writing classes use a 10-point analytical rubric scale split into five categories (Topic Sentence, Support 1, Support 2, Conclusion, Language/Format) to assess student performance (Appendix). The rubric ratings as they are written tend to locate and place an average performance as a 7 out of 10. At the time of this study, the scale had been in use for several years, but the developer is unknown (L. Dickerson, personal communication, September 2023).

Procedures

I collected two drafts of short, persuasive student essays from 14 students between May and June 2022. I recruited raters (Table 1) mostly from other teachers in this writing course. Students were provided written feedback in English on the first draft detailing errors of language, organization, and content, then asked to revise. The essays, rater scoring, and subsequent Rasch analysis comprised one data set, while rater interviews, including think-aloud protocols, comprised a second data set. I also rated all of the papers. Two raters rated papers 1 to 7, while two other raters rated papers 8 to 14 (Table 2). Each rater scored both Draft 1 and Draft 2. Raters received the rubric copy, paper format and organization information, and a copy of the task. All essays were anonymized before raters received copies. The scores were analyzed by FACETS software (Linacre, 2022), and Figures 1 to 6 in this paper were output by the software. All categories of the rubric were anchored at 0.

After the Rasch output was analyzed, interviews with the raters were conducted. Think-aloud protocols were used. In these protocols, I asked raters to explain why they assigned a particular score to a certain student. I especially asked about students who did not fit the Rasch model or criteria areas which had high rater bias, especially Language / Format.

Table 1

Rater Biographical Details

Rater	Years in Japan	Years in school system in Japan	Years teaching writing in Japan	Highest degree	Pursuing Ph.D?	Nationality
1	25	15	15	M.A.	In progress	American
2	16	13	8	M.A.	In progress	Canadian
3	8	8	0	M.A.	In progress	American
4	10	10	7	M.A.	In progress	British
5	20	17	3	M.A.	No	Australian

Table 2

Rater Biographical Details

Rater	Student Essays Scored
1	1-14
2	1-7
3	1-7
4	8-15
5	8-15

Results

Wright Map and Statistics

Figure 1 shows the Wright Map. There is a range of student ability with 4 as the highest and 2 as the lowest. There are also differences in rater severity, with Rater 3 being most severe and Rater 1 being the most lenient. Draft 1 and 2 are of equal difficulty. For rubric criteria, Conclusion and Topic Sentence are the most difficult, while Support 1 and Support 2 are the least difficult.

I observed only minor difference between the scores for the two drafts (Figure 2). Infit mean-square results were .94 and .90 for Drafts 1 and 2, respectively.

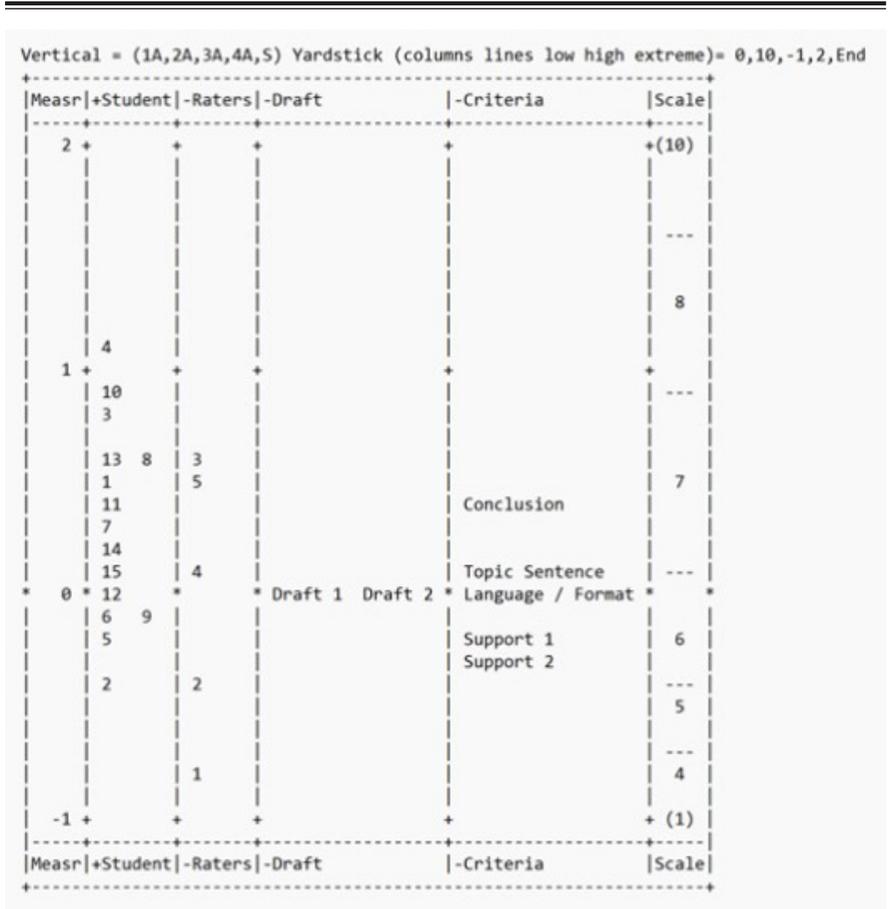


Figure 1. Wright Map.

Total Score	Total Count	Obsvd Average	Fair(M) Average	- Measure	Model S.E.	Infit MnSq	ZStd	Outfit MnSq	ZStd	Estim. Discrn	Displ.	Correlation PtMea	PtExp	N Draft	
1477	225	6.56	6.79	A	.00	.05	.94	-5	.99	.0	1.06	.11	.62	.67	1 Draft 1
1564	225	6.95	6.79	A	.00	.05	.90	-9	.92	-.7	.95	-.11	.72	.67	2 Draft 2
1520.5	225.0	6.76	6.79		.00	.05	.92	-8	.95	-.4			.67		Mean (Count: 2)
43.5	.0	.19	.00		.00	.00	.02	-2	.03	-.3			.05		S.D. (Population)
61.5	.0	.27	.00		.00	.00	.03	-.3	.05	-.4			.07		S.D. (Sample)

Model, Populn: RMSE .05 Adj (True) S.D. .00 Separation .00 Strata .33 Reliability .00
 Model, Sample: RMSE .05 Adj (True) S.D. .00 Separation .00 Strata .33 Reliability .00
 Model, Fixed (all same) chi-square: .0 d.f.: 1 significance (probability): 1.00

Figure 2. Statistics are listed such as infit mean square and outfit mean square for Draft 1 and Draft 2.

Thus, infit statistics were good, as a score of .70 to 1.30 shows a relatively good fit to the model (Linacre, 2023; Wright & Linacre, 1994). Average scores for Draft 2 were higher (6.95) than Draft 1 (6.56), suggesting some improvement.

Concerning the raters (Figure 3), two of the five raters showed a good fit to the model. Rater 1 showed an infit mean-square of 1.05, and Rater 5 showed .79. However, Raters 2, 3, and 4 produced infit mean-square results of .55, 1.57, and .35, respectively. Unfortunately, the results indicate these three raters did not fit the model.

I also noted differences in rater severity. Raters 3 and 5 were the strictest, giving an average score of 5.41 and 5.84 across the five 10-point categories, respectively. Raters 2 and 4 were in the middle with averages of 7.16 and 6.51, respectively, across the five categories. Rater 1 was the most lenient with an average of 7.82.

The student report was omitted to save space. Of the 14 students, the observed average (combining all scores) data was (MIN = 5.53, MAX = 8.07, $M = 6.76$). The fair average data was (MIN = 5.36, MAX = 7.74, $M = 6.70$). Infit mean square data was (MIN = .32, MAX = 2.61, $M = .96$). 7 of the 14 students fit the model, with InfitMS in the range from 0.70 to 1.30.

The results demonstrated each category had some bias (Table 3), which was determined by tallying and summarizing the data from the Rater Bias Report, as output by the FACETS software (Linacre, 2022). Topic Sentence, Support 2, and Conclusion had similar numbers of bias reports ($M = 25$). Language/format

Total Score	Total Count	Obsvd Average	Fair(M) Average	- Measure	Model S.E.	Infit MnSq	ZStd	Outfit MnSq	ZStd	Estim. Discrm	Correlation PtMea	PtExp	N	Raters
379	70	5.41	5.78	.56	.08	1.57	2.9	1.98	4.2	.82	.79	.65	3	3
467	80	5.84	5.94	.49	.07	.79	-1.2	.83	-.9	.78	.67	.51	5	5
521	80	6.51	6.58	.15	.09	.35	-4.5	.33	-4.7	1.24	.64	.45	4	4
501	70	7.16	7.23	-.36	.10	.55	-2.6	.57	-2.4	.94	.54	.53	2	2
1173	150	7.82	7.78	-.83	.07	1.05	.4	1.06	.4	1.09	.12	.48	1	1
608.2	90.0	6.55	6.67	.00	.08	.86	-1.0	.95	-.7		.55		Mean (Count: 5)	
286.6	30.3	.87	.76	.53	.01	.42	2.6	.57	3.0		.23		S.D. (Population)	
320.4	33.9	.97	.85	.59	.01	.47	2.9	.64	3.4		.26		S.D. (Sample)	

Model, PopIn: RMSE .08 Adj (True) S.D. .52 Separation 6.33 Strata 8.78 Reliability .98
 Model, Sample: RMSE .08 Adj (True) S.D. .58 Separation 7.10 Strata 9.80 Reliability .98
 Model, Fixed (all same) chi-square: 245.1 d.f.: 4 significance (probability): .00
 Model, Random (normal) chi-square: 3.9 d.f.: 3 significance (probability): .27

Figure 3. Rater information for Raters 1 to 5, including Obsvd Average (average score of the five categories) and infit mean square.

Table 3

Rater Bias Totals

Rater	Topic sentence	Support 1	Support 2	Conclusion	Language/ Format
1	3	6	14	7	12
2	3	0	3	6	9
3	5	3	5	2	5
4	6	2	3	6	4
5	7	4	1	5	4
Total	24	15	26	25	34

had the most bias at 34. Rater 1’s totals were nearly double those of the other raters in three aspects of the rubric, since Rater 1 rated twice as many essays.

Turning to the criteria items on the rubric, Topic Sentence, Language/Format, and Support 2 showed a good fit to the model (Figure 4) with infit mean results of 1.05, 1.19, and 1.03, respectively. Support 1 had a somewhat poor fit at .62 with an infit Z score of -2.56. The category Conclusion produced an infit mean result of 0.72 and an infit Z score of -1.89. These numbers appear to contrast with rater bias information, in which Topic Sentence and Language/Format appeared prominently in the rater bias figures. Overall, four of the rating

Total Score	Total Count	Obsvd Average	Fair(M) Average	- Measure	Model S.E.	Infit MnSq	Outfit MnSq	ZStd	Estim. Discrm	Correlation PtMea	N Criteria
550	90	6.11	6.22	.35	.07	.72	-1.8	.78	1.07	.80	4 Conclusion
595	90	6.61	6.66	.09	.08	1.05	.3	1.03	.2	.87	1 Topic Sentence
608	90	6.76	6.78	.01	.08	1.19	1.1	1.23	1.3	.66	5 Language / Format
634	90	7.04	7.00	-.16	.08	.62	-2.5	.70	-1.9	1.29	2 Support 1
654	90	7.27	7.17	-.30	.09	1.03	.2	1.03	.2	1.12	3 Support 2
608.2	90.0	6.76	6.76	.00	.08	.92	-.6	.95	-.3		Mean (Count: 5)
35.6	.0	.40	.32	.22	.00	.21	1.4	.19	1.2		S.D. (Population)
39.8	.0	.44	.36	.25	.00	.24	1.6	.21	1.3		S.D. (Sample)

Model, Populn: RMSE .08 Adj (True) S.D. .21 Separation 2.61 Strata 3.81 Reliability .87
 Model, Sample: RMSE .08 Adj (True) S.D. .24 Separation 2.96 Strata 4.28 Reliability .90
 Model, Fixed (all same) chi-square: 40.2 d.f.: 4 significance (probability): .00
 Model, Random (normal) chi-square: 3.6 d.f.: 3 significance (probability): .30

Figure 4. The five criteria items of the rubric are shown with fit statistics and the average score for each item (Obsvd Average).

categories produced values within the .70 to 1.30 range for infit mean square, which indicates the rubric categories mostly fit the model.

When examining whether all 10 ranking levels of the rubric (Figure 5) were used for each draft, I found that rankings 1, 2, and 3 were used the least overall (<4% of the time). Similarly, rankings 9 and 10 were also used infrequently (<11% of the time). However, rankings 6, 7, and 8 were used 71% of the time. It appears that more areas of the ranking scale could have been used. Gaps in the rubric, where there is no description, probably contributed to rater uncertainty as to the meaning of those ranking levels and subsequent unwillingness to use those (please see Appendix).

The Rasch-Andrich Thresholds (Figure 5) are neither consistently in order from highest to lowest, nor consistently in order from lowest to highest. These sequential sequences would indicate that all areas of the scale are being used. Instead, the numbers alternate between positive and negative figures. Therefore, it appears that not all areas of the rating scale were used.

Rater Interviews

Based on the rater interview data, it was clear that they were confused about the rubric items. On the surface, the analytical rubric with 5 categories appears to divide the task of evaluation among the five criteria of Topic Sentence, Support 1, Support 2, Conclusion, and Language/Format. An impression is given of 5 criteria areas, each with distinct and well-defined ranking bands, from 1 to 10. However, further investigation showed that the raters did not appear to have a

Model = ?B, ?B, ?B, ?B, R10

Score	DATA				QUALITY CONTROL			RASCH-ANDRICH		EXPECTATION		MOST		RASCH-	Cat
	Category	Counts	Cum.	%	Ave	Exp.	OUTFIT	Thresholds	Measure	at	PROBABLE	THURSTONE	PEAK		
	Used	%	%	Meas	Meas	MnSq	Measure	S.E.	Category	-0.5	from	Thresholds	Prob		
1	10	10	2%	2%	-.99	-.80	.5			(-2.10)		low	low	100%	
2	2	2	0%	3%	-.68	-.67	.7	.88	.35	-1.49	-1.80		-1.30	6%	
3	7	7	2%	4%	-.56	-.52	.6	-1.85	.33	-1.13	-1.29		-1.23	10%	
4	42	42	9%	14%	-.49	-.33	.5	-2.22	.27	-.84	-.98	-1.06	-1.10	35%	
5	25	25	6%	19%	-.11	-.12	.8	.29	.17	-.54	-.70		-.63	13%	
6	61	61	14%	33%	.07	.15	.7	-.88	.15	-.16	-.37		-.45	22%	
7	157	157	35%	68%	.55	.46	1.1	-.64	.12	.46	.10	-.41	-.11	47%	
8	100	100	22%	90%	1.00	.81	.7	1.09	.12	1.29	.89	1.09	.98	39%	
9	12	12	3%	92%	.84*	1.14	1.5	3.10	.18	1.99	1.64		1.79	9%	
10	34	34	8%	100%	.93	1.40	1.7	.24	.20	(2.89)	2.46	1.67	1.95	100%	
										(Mean)		(Modal)	(Median)		

Figure 5. Category statistics for the individual numbers of the rating scale, including percentage used.

some raters appeared to bring into Language/Format items not explicitly stated in the rubric.

For example, when discussing accuracy, Rater 2 stated, “I am compelled to find every single spelling and grammar mistake there is and to make sure the students are aware of those”. When I asked, “Do you feel you might be a little harsher, a little more conscientious, or thorough than other teachers?” Rater 2 answered, “All of the above.”

Rater 4 interpreted the rubric differently than Raters 2 and 3 in terms of the degree to which grammar issues affect readability, “...for the most part, it’s grammatically pretty good. There’s no major spelling errors or word choices that strain the reader.” The notion that some errors do not strain the reader very much appears not to be shared by the raters, and subsequently they did not have the same construct regarding accuracy of language as they rated. The rubric for Language/Format states, “There are grammar errors that considerably affect readability” for ranking 4, “There may be some grammar errors that slightly affect readability but is understandable without too much effort” for ranking 7, and “There are few, if any, grammar errors” for ranking 10. This may help explain why the Language/Format area (Table 3) for rater bias was the highest number and why some of the raters did not fit the model, as shown by their Infit Mean-Square statistics (Figure 3).

Discussion

We can see differences in the raters’ interpretations of the rubric. This is due to a lack of agreement on the constructs the rubric aims to assess. Returning to Messick’s (1995) concepts of validity, content validity is the connection between the knowledge and skills being assessed and the instrument’s representation of these. Some of the raters believed that originality was necessary for a good topic sentence, but some did not believe this. Some of the raters believed that even minor grammatical errors greatly reduced reader comprehensibility of a sentence, while others believed that the grammar errors had to be prominent to reduce comprehensibility. It appears that the lack of clarity in the raters’ understanding of the criteria items stems from the rubric. The infit statistics of the raters indicate

that the scores of the same student over several ratings by different raters were not very consistent, which relates to structural validity (Messick, 1995). Indeed, as discussed previously, Wolfe and Smith (2007) recommended that the construct be clear to be evaluated. If the construct is clear, and student ability level remains relatively constant, invariance will be present and consistent ratings should be given.

Based on the findings of this study, the current rubric requires revision. First, examples for each level of performance would help to add clarity. For example, topic sentences demonstrating poor, weak, satisfactory, and excellent performance should be included. As indicated in the interview data, raters expressed confusion regarding how to rate the novelty or originality of topic sentences. If raters are provided with examples of expected performance and opportunities to practice scoring, they will have a better understanding of the rating categories, rankings, and the constructs represented by those categories. These changes would improve content and substantive validity, as defined by Messick (1995).

Concerning the issues raised with the Language/Format category, Format should be a separate category. The Format category would include correct font type and size, double-spacing of the text, paragraph indentation, etc. Other aspects of the category would include academic standards, such as avoiding contractions. Under the category of Language, concrete examples of sentences containing errors, but at different levels of readability, should be provided. This would aid in having a relatively clear construct and a relatively limited area covered by the rubric for each category that Lukácsi (2021) recommended.

I must also acknowledge the limitations of this study. First, the sample size of students was small ($N = 14$). Another limitation is that their TOEFL scores were high, compared with the other students in EC3 Writing. Examining a middle and a lower-level class would have been helpful. Another limitation is that it was not possible to interview the person who created the rubric, as their identity was unknown. Additionally, it is a bit surprising in my study that many raters and students did not fit the model, as indicated by their infit mean scores, but that the individual rubric items, such as Topic Sentence, did fit the model.

Engelhard (1992) had a similar result in his study.

Conclusion

With this study, I reviewed a criteria scale to examine construct validity. Overall, the results indicated that the rating scale had specific weaknesses in terms of effectiveness. This is shown in infit mean square statistics of the raters and in the rater bias reports.

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Received: October 31, 2023

Accepted: November 23, 2024

Appendix

	Poor		Weak		Satisfactory			Excellent		
	1.0	2.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	6.0	7.0	8.0	9.0	10.0
Topic Sentence (15%)	Lacks clear main topic or is missing the contributing idea		Introduces the main subject with a controlling idea that is somewhat disconnected to the rest of the paragraph.				Introduces the main subject with a controlling idea that adequately guides the rest of the paragraph.			Introduces the main subject and has a clear controlling idea that guides the rest of the paragraph.
Support 1 (25%)	Not given or is unrelated to the topic. Details are too few, not written, or do not help the reader understand the support's connection to the topic sentence.		Somewhat related to the topic. Details are not clearly connected or do not help the reader understand the support's connection to the topic sentence.				Mostly connected to the topic. Details give the reader information that somewhat help in understanding the support's connection to the topic sentence.			Logical and clearly relevant to the topic. Details give more than enough information for the reader to clearly understand the support's connection to the topic sent.
Support 2 (25%)	Not given or is unrelated to the topic. Details are too few, not written, or do not help the reader understand the support's connection to the topic sentence.		Somewhat related to the topic. Details are not clearly connected or do not help the reader understand the support's connection to the topic sentence.				Mostly connected to the topic. Details give the reader information that somewhat help in understanding the support's connection to the topic sentence.			Logical and clearly relevant to the topic. Details give more than enough information for the reader to clearly understand the support's connection to the topic sent.

	Poor		Weak				Satisfactory			Excellent	
	1.0	2.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	6.0	7.0	8.0	9.0	10.0	
Conclusion (15%)	Missing from the paragraph.		Present, but does not offer a clear connection to the topic.				Adequately refers to the topic, or it offers an opinion, prediction, or suggestion that are somewhat connected to the topic.			Makes it clear that the paragraph is coming to a close. It restates the topic, or it offers a relevant opinion, prediction, or suggestion. This conclusion exceeds expectations	
Language / Format (25%)	Grammar errors greatly affect readability. The paragraph lacks a logical sequence, or the writing is off-topic for the assignment. Major formatting or stylistic errors.		Grammar errors that considerably affect readability. The paragraph lacks a logical sequence and is somewhat relevant to the assignment. Multiple Academic Writing and some formatting errors may be present.				May be some grammar errors that slightly affect readability, but it is understandable without too much effort. Paragraph is mostly logically sequenced and relevant to the assignment. Few or no Academic Writing or formatting errors.			Few, if any, grammar errors. The paragraph is written in perfect academic style. It is logically sequenced and all parts are relevant to the assignment, Perfect formatting.	

Practice-Oriented Paper

Self-Reflecting on Alienation and Teacher Well-Being

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In this paper, the authors reflect on their presentation ‘Alienation and Teacher Well-Being: A Research Agenda’ at the CUE 2023 conference. The presentation was intended both to introduce their ongoing project to the audience, and, through the audience’s response, to clarify issues in the framework that were unclear. The paper begins with a summary of the presentation, in which we introduced the concept of alienation, connected it to teacher well-being, and shared some experiences from our professional lives which illustrated this connection. Following this, we reflect on the audience’s response to the presentation, which led to the realisation that the term ‘alienation’ needs to be carefully distinguished from similar concepts such as ‘discrimination’. Additionally, questions from the audience highlighted the importance not just of documenting alienating working conditions, but also of discussing the possibility of overcoming these conditions, thus adding a new element to our ongoing project.

This presentation represented the first step in an ongoing research project, in which we are attempting to use the concept of alienation as a lens through which to view issues of teacher well-being. We had two goals in mind when planning this presentation. Firstly, we intended to introduce the concept of alienation to the audience and demonstrate its relevance to the topic of teacher well-being by sharing our own experiences of alienation in our professional lives. Secondly, the presentation was intended to act as a form of self-clarification. Our project still consists of multiple moving parts which we are yet to completely fit together,

and so we hoped that through giving this presentation and hearing the audience's responses, we would be able to discover the elements of our framework that are in need of further explanation. In this short reflection piece, we will outline the presentation, discuss some of the themes that emerged during our discussion with the audience (though without providing any details of the individual stories shared), and finally outline some of the issues we discovered to be in need of disambiguation moving forward.

Genesis of the project

This project began from a collision between our specialist areas of research—authenticity in the case of Richard, native-speakerism in the case of Rob—and the fact we were coincidentally writing autoethnographic chapters at the same time in which we were reflecting on certain work-related disappointments and feelings of professional estrangement (Lowe, 2024; Pinner, 2024). Through reading drafts of each other's work, we began to discuss ways in which the concept of alienation applied to both of our experiences, and was perhaps a useful lens through which to view questions of teacher well-being.

The presentation

We began our presentation by defining alienation, drawing particularly from the tradition of post-Marxist critical theory. Marx described alienation in the context of industrial capitalism as a loss of control over the direction of one's labour, and thus of opportunities to develop talents and skills in relation to one's work (Ollman, 1976). The contemporary critical theorist Rahel Jaeggi (2014) has reworked the concept to describe situations which represent a "disturbed relation of appropriation" (p. 151), in which people are unable to be "the author" of their own lives (p. 204). In other words, their choices are not freely made, but are rather determined by economic and social structures, thus leading to a life which has a feeling of inauthenticity.

We then each gave a short summary of our individual stories of alienation as foreign-language teachers working in Japanese universities. For Rob, this story focused on his early experiences of working at a university in Japan. In this context, he was essentialised as an "English gentleman" (Lowe, 2024, p.

24), treated as what Hall (1998) refers to as an “unacclimated alien” (p. 105) on campus, and as such discouraged from learning the Japanese language, or from integrating into his department. Partly as a result of this experience, he has been extremely hesitant to use Japanese in his classes and has high levels of anxiety when required to use the language with his colleagues. He also feels this early experience acted as a block to his integration into the professional culture of Japanese higher education. He attributes this early experience to the ideology of native-speakerism (Holliday, 2005), in which so-called native speakers of English are viewed as representatives of foreign language and culture and as inherently more skilled in the language than those considered to be non-native speakers. While this can result in high (even undeserved) levels of professional privilege and success, as indeed was experienced by Rob, it may also lead to teachers being seen *only* as representatives of language and culture, and not as qualified professionals (Houghton & Rivers, 2013). This perception led to Rob being treated as a linguistic and cultural resource rather than a colleague. As a result, he was strongly discouraged from learning the Japanese language, and this prevented his integration into the culture of the department. While not denying his own responsibility for his lack of fluency in Japanese, he suggested that this set of formative experiences, occurring early in his professional life, have had reverberations throughout his career, and still contribute to feelings of alienation and estrangement from his work.

Richard’s story focused on his experiences of burnout and professional alienation that stemmed from the treatment he received around his promotion from a tenure-track assistant professor to a tenured associate professor. Echoing many similar accounts that can be found regarding promotions within university departments (Hawley Nagatomo & Cook, 2018; Henry & Kobayashi, 2010), he found himself wondering if the reason for the sudden difficulties and hubris that arose around his promotion were related not to professional issues but as a result of discriminatory prejudices. The fact that a large proportion of the people he had worked alongside for five years revoked their support and used their own positions of power to prevent or slow his promotion from going smoothly caused lasting ill-feeling between him and some of his coworkers. Whilst he

felt some of this animosity may have been racially motivated, other events with other colleagues have made him realize that this may be due to a more complex and multifaceted set of discriminations and power harassments, many of which lie with old rivalries that were unknown to him at the time. Now, even with a tenured position, Richard often finds himself in a situation in which he is essentialised as merely a representative of foreign culture and internationalism, but rarely as a content expert or researcher. In other words, the qualifications and requirements for his position do not reflect the actual work that he does, a case that was echoed by several other university teachers in Japan present in the audience. The culture at the department has created a feeling of alienation in which he feels like he is not really a part of the department, despite now technically holding the same kind of position as his other colleagues.

Following Jaeggi's definition of alienation, these are both narratives in which the subjects are, on paper, extremely successful. Both have reached the position of tenured academic, to which many teachers aspire. However, through the functioning of professional ideology, and the churn of internal politics, both have also experienced feelings of alienation from their workplaces, as they have been kept in a peripheral state, or held at arm's length, by institutions at different points in their careers.

We then put forward some suggestions as to how alienation may influence teacher well-being and shared part of our rough plan to begin investigating these potential issues. As part of this, we invited members of the audience both to ask us questions and to share some of their own experiences.

Audience response

The audience began by probing our experiences more deeply. One question which stuck out to us was whether this alienation is a permanent state. In other words, is it possible for one to regain control of one's life, and overcome the feeling of being divorced from it? This was an extremely interesting point and one we were not prepared for. Our initial idea for the research project focused primarily on clarifying the circumstances that may cause alienation and not those that would resolve it. This helped us immensely in beginning to formulate a research agenda

that would have a practical focus with the goal of improving teacher well-being.

Several audience members either briefly shared their own stories of alienation or alluded to having experienced similar conditions to those we described. This seemed to suggest that research into teacher well-being using the framework of alienation could be fruitful, and that there may be many stories waiting to be told which would both help in our understanding of the causes of professional alienation for language teachers, and suggest ways in which these alienating circumstances could be avoided or alleviated in the future.

Issues for clarification

One issue that arose very clearly during our interactions with the audience revolved around exactly what was meant by *alienation*. While we began the presentation with a description of this term, it seems that in describing our own experiences of alienation, we gave the impression that the term is interchangeable with *discrimination*, as the audience members began to share instances in which they felt discriminated against by their workplaces. Whilst both of our stories stem from what could initially be quite accurately labeled as forms of discrimination, it is important to separate these two concepts. At a basic level, discrimination is an act, while alienation can perhaps be described as a mental state.

More seriously, the experience of alienation is not necessarily borne of discrimination. In fact, as Jaeggi (2014) explained, alienation can occur even when, on paper, a person is living an extremely successful life. To explain this, we can perhaps consider the following (imaginary) case of a teacher in Japan who is perfectly satisfied professionally with their status as a teacher and enjoys the elements of their job related to lesson planning, teaching, and professional development. However, if this teacher starts a family, they may begin to feel financial pressures to advance their careers. In the Japanese language teaching ecosystem, this often means advancing to a university position. That in turn means studying for academic qualifications, conducting research, and navigating the bureaucratic machinations of funding applications, peer review, administrative responsibilities, etc. Even if this person succeeds in obtaining the job they are working towards, they may not feel satisfied within it. Rather, they

may feel they have been pushed into a professionally unrewarding life by social circumstances beyond their control. This is the essence of alienation—the feeling that choices which should be under one’s control are not, and the estrangement that flows from this.

Conclusion

Our goal in this presentation was to take the first step towards a research project in which teacher well-being could be evaluated in terms of alienation, as defined by Marx and Jaeggi. We intended to outline our project and introduce these concepts to our audience. At the same time, we hoped to use the audiences’ reactions to see if the experiences described in our personal narratives would resonate with those in attendance and to help clarify issues in our own framework.

Our reflections on the session led us to three main conclusions. Firstly, the fact that our experiences seemed to resonate with those of the audience strengthened our belief that alienation is in fact a useful lens through which to view teacher well-being. People in the audience both recognised our experiences and also gave examples of ways in which they felt professionally alienated due to structures beyond their control. Secondly, from the audience’s questions, we realised that it may be important for us to focus not just on the causes of alienating conditions, but also on the possibilities for ameliorating these conditions. Finally, we recognised the importance of clearly defining our terms. If alienation is to be a useful construct, it needs to be clearly separated from concepts such as discrimination, otherwise we risk reinventing the conceptual wheel and adding nothing new to the literature. Overall, the presentation helped us to relay our research agenda to the audience, while at the same time coming to notice points in our framework which need to be clarified and addressed, thus strengthening our overall project.

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Received: October 10, 2023

Accepted: November 17, 2024

Practice-Oriented Paper

Strengthening Resilience in Japanese Tertiary Education through Student-Teacher Bonds

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The importance of solid student-teacher relationships is widely recognized as essential for academic success in education. This is particularly evident in the Japanese educational system, where these interactions are integral to “sensei culture”¹ and serve a vital role in shaping the educational experience. Students exhibit increased confidence in exploring new topics and embracing academic difficulties when they cultivate strong connections with their professors. The transition from secondary to higher education, a pivotal time in students’ life, is facilitated by help from educators. Understanding the concept of modality entails how students in tertiary education learn. In Japan, the modalities range from face-to-face learning to online classes, which affect how students’ transition from the former to the latter, calling for promoting student-teacher bonds. Theoretical foundations of the learner-teacher relationship are rooted in the interpersonal connection and support within the learning and development context. Prominent theories include attachment theory (Fearon & Roisman, 2017), which posits that a strong and positive learner-teacher relationship provides a solid foundation for students to engage with new challenges during their transition to a new learning environment. Social Learning Theory highlights the significance of observational learning and social interactions in influencing students’ behavior and learning (Woolfolk et al., 2008). Student-teacher relationships are essential in transitions in tertiary education because they are a critical aspect of academic success, as evidenced by an extensive body of research grounded in attachment, social learning, and self-determination theory.

The Concept of “Modality” in Tertiary Education

In tertiary education, the concept of “modality” refers to the different ways through which information is exchanged or presented. Modality acknowledges that individuals possess varying strengths and preferences in learning, leading them to interact with information through diverse modes to improve comprehension and retention of content (Verde & Valero, 2021). Modalities consist of verbal (spoken or written language), visual (diagrams and graphs), kinaesthetic (physical actions and hands-on experiences), interactive (group activities and discussions), and auditory (lectures and sounds).

In the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) and Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) domains, the modality has a great impact on learning and broader academic contexts as it determines how the learners gain, keep, and apply knowledge.

Today, especially in the wake of the recent pandemic, the prevalence of non-face-to-face teaching models has increased in tertiary education, enabling institutions to offer distance-based degrees and master’s programs (Ali, 2020). Consequently, teachers have been compelled to adapt their teaching techniques to accommodate various modalities.

The Visual, Auditory, and Kinesthetics (VAK) model, as described by Hardiana and Suyata (2018), emphasizes learning through three modalities. Instructional strategies have evolved to encompass various traditional, interactive, and online methods, reflecting the complex requirements of contemporary education. Figure 1 illustrates these instructional modalities, inspired by the VAK model. The diagram incorporates traditional verbal methods (e.g., lectures and discussions), visual techniques (e.g., graphs and multimedia), auditory strategies (e.g., podcasts and audio recordings), kinesthetic approaches (e.g., laboratory or fieldwork), interactive learning emphasizing collaboration, and online learning supported by digital platforms. These modalities constitute a contemporary educational framework that synthesizes various learning preferences with advancements in digital classroom methodologies.

The concept of educational modality extends beyond geographical boundaries, incorporating diverse delivery methods for academic programs

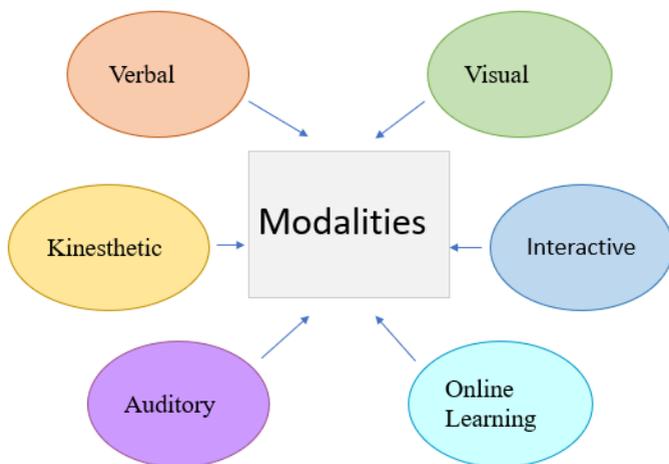


Figure 1. Current instructional modalities in tertiary education inspired by the VAK model.

worldwide. The Japanese tertiary education system exemplifies modalities through traditional in-person classes, online learning platforms, and blended approaches that integrate both of those methods. Although these methods are widely used worldwide, in Japan, the effectiveness of each modality is significantly affected by the quality of student-teacher relationships. The cultivation of these relationships is essential for facilitating a seamless transition from high school to university, irrespective of the selected modality. A comprehensive understanding of transitional dynamics and strategies for fostering strong student-teacher relationships is essential.

Understanding Transition and the Impact on Students

The concept of educational modality exceeds geographical limits, including many means to provide academic programs globally. The Japanese tertiary education system demonstrates modalities via conventional in-person courses, online learning platforms, and blended systems that integrate both methods. Although these strategies are widely used worldwide, in Japan, the efficacy of each modality

is significantly affected by the quality of student-teacher connections. Regardless of the chosen modality, the nurturing of these relationships is crucial for a smooth transition within the educational phases. Therefore, a deep understanding of transitional dynamics and strategies for cultivating robust student-teacher bonds is important.

The education journey requires that students shift from one academic level, educational institution, and environment, which can be challenging for them and affect their learning experiences. Liu and Zhang (2023) defined transition as the process by which a student moves from the structured learning environment of high school to the more independent and diverse realm of higher education. The transition significantly affects students academically, necessitating their adaptation to a new environment, different teaching methods, heightened responsibilities, and increased autonomy.

The transition affects students' socio-emotionally, necessitating the formation of new connections and potentially leading to alterations in their confidence and self-esteem due to the unfamiliar environment. Understanding the effects of transitions is crucial for creating a supportive environment that facilitates successful adaptation for students.

The Japanese tertiary education system includes various transitions and modalities. The shift from high school to university is largely contingent upon test scores and academic performance, enabling students to apply to their favored universities (Yamanaka & Suzuki, 2020). A significant transition takes place at the graduate level, as students' progress into master's and doctoral programs. Research institutes and private sector institutions frequently offer avenues for students to engage in advanced studies in fields such as science, technology, and engineering through private tertiary education (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2018). The Japanese tertiary education system also facilitates international transitions, allowing students from abroad to pursue higher education opportunities in Japan and involving interactions between them and Japanese students, faculty, and staff.

Students transitioning to new environments may face various psychological, social, emotional, academic, and interpersonal challenges. Their psychological

challenges could involve concerns, fears, and anxiety associated with the unknown during their adjustment to a new educational phase. These challenges become even more pronounced when students need to adapt to diverse or multicultural settings, where traits such as cultural empathy, flexibility, and emotional stability are essential for successful adjustment (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000). The students may also require trained counselors to offer them guidance and coping strategies throughout the process.

In addition, social challenges may include forming connections or seeking peer support, which can fluctuate during transitions (Packer & Thomas, 2021). Academic challenges frequently entail the availability of resources and support systems that assist students in navigating the requirements of their new academic settings. Emotional challenges focus on the need for a secure environment to articulate feelings and engage in discussions free from the fear of judgment. Interpersonal challenges may involve managing conflicts and disagreements in a new environment, underscoring the necessity of cultivating conflict resolution skills. Therefore, during the transition phase, the learners may have different needs that require holistic approaches to resolve or meet them (Table 1).

Table 1
Summary of Student Needs During Tertiary Education Transition

Possible Change	Potential Consequences
Psychological	Fear and anxiety
Social	Isolation and feelings of not belonging
Emotional	Feeling insecure
Academic	A new learning environment brings confusion, and stress due to expectations and disappointment
Interpersonal	Conflicts and misunderstandings with others

Theoretical Foundations of Student-Teacher Relationships

Attachment theory, social learning theory, and self-determination theory are some of the theoretical foundations supporting the importance of student-teacher relationships in Japanese education. Attachment theory suggests that a strong bond between the learner and the teacher is a foundation for students' psychological well-being and later relationships. The teacher can provide the learners with emotional support and a safe environment for learning and help them achieve a sense of belonging during their tertiary transition (Spilt & Koomen, 2022). Social learning theory suggests that a strong student-teacher relationship can facilitate positive behavioral modeling among the students. According to Cilliers (2021), new behaviors can be easily gained through imitation and observation. The teacher can become the role model for their students through promoting respectful communication and genuinely showing care to them, which will model their behaviors as they interact with other authoritative figures and their peers. Self-determination theory emphasizes intrinsic motivation, facilitating students' competence and autonomy in decision-making (Morris, 2022). When students perceive their teachers as caring and supportive during their transition, it enhances their sense of belonging and competence. They become encouraged and motivated to work hard in their new learning environment, which positively affects their academic achievement. Therefore, these theories reveal that when the bond between the student and their teachers is strong, tertiary education transition becomes swift and easy.

Supporting student-teacher relationships

Several literary sources underscore the significance of student-teacher relationships in the transition to higher education. Yoshimoto et al. (2023) conducted a thorough literature review indicating that the Japanese education system prioritizes harmony, granting teachers the authority to influence the learning environment. This dynamic serves as a motivator for students, leading to academic excellence. The findings suggest that a positive teacher-student bond in Japan is marked by constructive feedback and emotional support, which nurtures

a positive learning environment. Such relationships not only enhance students' academic performance but also create a sense of trust and belonging that eases their transition into new academic settings.

In addition to teacher-student dynamics, emotional intelligence (also known as emotional quotient, EQ) plays a critical role in fostering successful educational transitions. Parker et al. (2004) highlighted how EQ facilitates the development of positive relationships, particularly during the transition from high school to university. Teachers with high EQ can better manage their own emotions and respond empathetically to students' needs, creating an environment where students feel secure and valued. Parker et al.'s work emphasizes the importance of EQ in strengthening teacher-student bonds, which significantly contributes to students' motivation, emotional well-being, and academic success.

As illustrated in Figure 2, the formation of positive teacher-student bonds is influenced by key factors such as easy transitions, emotional support, and a great sense of belonging. These factors generate outcomes including improved trust, heightened motivation, and the capacity to give and receive constructive feedback. The arrows in the figure illustrate the flow of influence: factors on

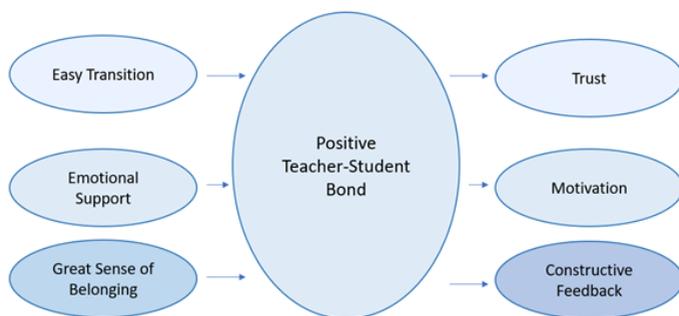


Figure 2. Factors contributing to and outcomes of positive teacher-student bonds.

the left contribute to the formation of teacher-student bonds (center), which subsequently lead to positive outcomes on the right. This visual illustrates the interdependence of these elements and emphasizes their importance in developing a supportive and motivating educational environment.

Integrating harmony, emotional support, and emotional intelligence into teaching practices enables educators to facilitate student success during transitional periods. These elements assist students in overcoming academic challenges while promoting a safe, inclusive, and motivating learning environment.

Strategies for Cultivating Positive Student-Teacher Relationships

A positive and efficient learning atmosphere is created when educators cultivate robust, supporting connections with pupils. Studies demonstrate that students have increased comfort and engagement in their learning when educators exhibit warmth, compassion, and support (e.g., Commissioner for Children and Young People, 2018). Moreover, constructive teacher-student connections facilitate educators in more successfully tackling both academic and behavioral issues (Epstein et al., 2008; Marzano et al., 2003; Goss et al., 2017). These techniques improve communication and illustrate the teacher's dedication to student achievement, fostering a collaborative and supportive classroom environment.

By showing empathy, teachers can demonstrate a genuine interest in their students' lives both inside and outside the classroom. This provides an opportunity for teachers to pay close attention to the challenges and needs of their students and empathize with them in various ways. At Okayama University Medical School, empathy between teachers and students was initially enhanced through a research project on mandatory multimodal comprehensive communication training known as "humanitude" (Fukuyasu et al., 2021). The university included humanitude as part of its curriculum, requiring students to participate in this research initiative. The initial training improved empathy among students and teachers; however, the effects diminished over time, indicating the necessity for continuous reinforcement to sustain empathy in

educational and professional contexts.

Conclusion

In conclusion, a strong relationship between students and instructor is essential throughout the transition to higher education, since it fosters academic achievement, substantiated by research rooted in attachment, social learning, and self-determination theories. The modality concept recognizes the various preferences in learning and the strengths held by each student. Transitioning to tertiary education means the learners are moving from their structured learning environment to a more independent one. In Japan, students transition from high school to university, to private and public institutions, and from face-to-face to online learning. The theories are essential because they prove that student-teacher relationships can promote effective learning and transition to tertiary education. Student-teacher relationships can be cultivated through communication, showing empathy, and understanding the needs of the students.

Notes

1. “Sensei culture” embodies the profound reverence for educators in Japan, extending the term “sensei” beyond the classroom to honor all professionals with significant expertise. This culture, rooted in Confucian values, regards educators as moral and intellectual guides. It promotes relationships that extend beyond academic instruction to encompass mentorship and personal development, thereby influencing Japan’s societal and educational ethos.

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Author bio

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Received: October 31, 2023

Accepted: November 23, 2024

Practice-Oriented Paper

The Importance of Names: Same Peer Recognition

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This paper explores the importance of students knowing each other's names in a classroom situation and that this knowledge encourages interpersonal communication, community, a sense of identity, and psychological safety within a class. This knowledge can also factor into academic and social success. Over eighteen months, student feedback responses from participants in six compulsory tertiary English courses were gathered and then reviewed. Courses drawn upon were advanced Global Skills (GS) (second-year listening and speaking course), advanced Reading and Writing (RW) (first-year course), and intermediate Listening and Speaking (LS) (first-year course). Referring to U.S.-based works exploring both identity and the use of "name tents" in establishing a sense of belonging for students, responses to activities where the author's students used mnemonics to remember their classmates' names was the main focus of this review. A number of student evaluations highlighted a sense of enhanced study environments due to knowing class members' names, a finding which correlates with the results of overseas' studies. The study is in the preliminary stages, and a more rigorous analysis of feedback will be undertaken in the future.

この論文では、教室の中で学生が互いの名前を知ることの重要性について探求すると共に、この知識がクラス内での対人コミュニケーション、共同体、アイデンティティの自覚、そして心理的な安心を促進するということについても研究する。このことは、学業や社会的成功につながる可能性もある。本研究は18ヶ月間にわたり、6つの必修英語科目を履修した学生のフィードバックを収集およびレビューした。使用したコースは、上級グローバルスキル(GS)(2年生のリスニングおよびスピーキングコース)、上級リーディングおよびライティング(RW)(1年生のコース)、中級リスニングおよびスピーキング(LS)(1年生のコース)である。このレビューは、学生の帰属意識の確立におけるアイデンティティと「ネームテント」の使用の両方を調査した米国の研究を参考に、学生がニーモニックを使用してクラスメートの名前を覚える活動にどう反応したかに焦点を当てた。多くの学生の評価は、クラスメートの名前を知ることによって学習環境が向上したという感覚について述べており、この結果は海

外の研究結果とも一致する。本研究はまだ初期段階であり、今後より厳密にフィードバックを分析する予定である。

This paper outlines the significance of first- and second-year students of compulsory English courses at a Japanese university where students recognise one another's names. This recognition can contribute to the development of interpersonal communication, community, a sense of identity, and psychological safety within a class. Knowledge of classmates' names can also indirectly factor into students' successes, both academically and socially. Student feedback responses from participants in six compulsory EFL courses taught by the author over an eighteen-month period (first-year advanced RW, first-year intermediate LS, second-year advanced GS) were collated and then inspected. U.S.-based works informed this review which investigated both identity and the effectiveness of the use of name tents in a large undergraduate biology class to encourage a sense of belonging for students. In addition, student feedback collected by the author on activities that encouraged the use of mnemonics to remember classmates' names is explored. The mnemonic system the author uses is whereby students choose an English word that begins with the first letter of their given name and something they like beginning with the same letter; this is used by everyone to remember them. For example, Apple Ayako likes avocados. This is a fairly common memorisation technique (Argawal, 2023). Some of the student evaluations imply that knowledge of classmates' names might encourage healthy study environments, a finding which corresponds with the results of overseas studies. The author's main goals were to discover whether benefits to knowing classmates' names were similar for undergraduate Japanese EFL learners and U.S. university students, and to also explore the effect of this knowledge on peer-to-peer relationships in the Japanese EFL classroom. This is a preliminary study and more thorough analyses of wider data will be undertaken in the future.

A sense of community and belonging can foster confidence and encourage exploration of identity. It can also precede motivation and engagement, particularly in the classroom (Alderman & Green, 2011; Booker & Campbell-Whatley, 2018; Cohn-Vargas & Steele, 2016; Dörnyei, 1998; Norton Pierce,

1995; Orejudo et al., 2020; Parsonson, 2012; Tobbell & O'Donnell, 2013). Learners of English as an additional language, whether they be in language classrooms or day-to-day life, have and develop multiple identities, some elements of which might not correlate with how learners more generally perceive or understand themselves (Dörnyei, 1998; Goharimehr, 2017; Norton Pierce, 1985; Rahimian, 2015). This can be disconcerting for learners, and confidence can decrease when attempting to use a target language, particularly as practical levels might not facilitate the levels of expression and communication that users desire. Negative perception of self and from others can stymie users (Dörnyei, 1998; Goharimehr, 2017; Norton Pierce, 1985). As such, the language classroom, or classes that are conducted in non-native tongues, can be far from psychologically safe (Goharimehr, 2017; Norton Pierce, 1985; Rahimian, 2015). "Identity safe classrooms" is a term used within U.S. education circles, but the idea can be applied more widely (Cohn-Vargas & Steele, 2013, p. 5 in Cohn-Vargas & Steele, 2016, p.23). These classrooms promote a sense of security "based on positive relationships with the teacher and among students" (p. 23). They are "intentionally free from teaching practices that implicitly or explicitly link students' identities...to academic performance" (p. 23). This sense of security can, however, precede academic and social success for students (Cohn-Vargas & Steele, 2013 in Cohn-Vargas & Steele, 2016). As stated above, using a different language for expression and communication can be threatening, particularly in compulsory classes, and/or as a beginning EFL student (Dörnyei, 1998; Goharimehr, 2017; Norton Pierce, 1985). Therefore, especially in communicative situations, feeling safe and developing trust and respect for fellow students is important (Booker & Campbell-Whatley, 2018; Cohn-Vargas & Steele, 2016; Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2023).

Similarly, teachers are better able to manage and connect with classes if they establish good relationships with their pupils (Alderman & Green, 2011; Carpenter et al., 2009; Cohn-Vargas & Steele, 2016; Orejudo et al, 2020; Tobbell & O'Donnell, 2013). Knowing their students' names (and students knowing their teachers' names) and being able to call on students directly can contribute

towards effective management (Parsonson, 2012; Tanner, 2013) and also help develop beneficial relationships (Cooper et al., 2017). Likewise, it can be easier for students to relate to one another if they have a sense of the other's identity. If a name can be put to a face, interaction and understanding potentially flows more readily. Cooper et al. (2017) reported students feeling more invested in classes, and some being more likely to contact teachers regarding both course issues and welfare if they perceive their names as known (Cooper et al., 2017). This can help lead to the identity or psychologically safe classroom. Finn and Zimmer (2012) outline how connection to instructors and peers is routinely used as a gauge of what Finn (1989) called student "belongingness" (p. 123), a commonly used term in studies of student engagement (Christenson et al., 2012). Students have reported that knowledge of names contributes to these connections (Cooper et al., 2017). Communication, collaboration, and active listening are some other elements conducive to a welcoming classroom community (Booker & Campbell-Whatley, 2018).

Research on students knowing one another's names suggests that some identified with one another beyond being a number due to the use of name tents (Cooper et al., 2017)

The Study

Research Questions

U.S. research on the use of name tents in tertiary education (pieces of paper folded to create a tent with a student's name on one side) shows good results for forming positive relationships from both student to teacher (and vice versa) and from student to student. Mnemonics, the system this author uses, are also a way for teachers to remember students' names and for students to remember one another (Argawal, 2023).

For courses that incorporate communicative practices, encouraging the remembrance and use of names within a classroom setting is "a low-effort, high-impact practice" (Cooper et al., 2017, p. 12). U.S. studies conducted on the positive effects on stakeholders of knowing each other's names have weighed up the worth of not only teacher-student relationships when names are used, but

student-student relationships (Booker & Campbell-Whatley, 2018; Cooper, et al., 2017; Poorvu Center, 2021).

Some common benefits highlighted in Cooper et al.'s 2017 research (studying the use of name tents) and corresponding research include the following: easier and more regular communication for stakeholders; broadening of horizons as communicative barriers decrease; student discussion of lesson topics outside of main classes; increased student confidence and community building; senses of belonging and being known; and feeling less like a “face in the crowd” (pp. 17–18).

Taking the benefits reported above into account, and considering the literature mostly focused on native users of English within non-language classroom settings, the primary objective of this study was to investigate whether similar benefits and attitudes were found among Japanese EFL learners the author teaches. Furthermore, a number of studies focused on the relationship between instructors and students, but the author was especially interested in knowing how classmates’ names might affect peer-to-peer relationships in EFL classes. The following research questions were identified to achieve this aim.

1. Are the benefits (if any) for Japanese EFL university students learning their classmates’ names similar to those for U.S. tertiary students in non-EFL situations?
2. Which peer-to-peer benefits to learning one another’s names, if any, did the Japanese university EFL students focus on?

Methods

In order to establish whether Japanese EFL university undergraduate students benefited in similar ways to U.S. undergraduate students if their names were remembered by their peers and instructors, and to explore the effects of this on peer-to-peer relationships, 174 general class feedback forms from six compulsory English courses taught across three semesters from 2022–2023 were analysed by the author. Details of the participants, instrument and procedure of research follow.

Participants of the study and setting

For this preliminary paper, responses from both semesters of 2022 and the first semester of 2023 have been used (174 responses from 191 students). Participant details can be seen in Table 1. The compulsory English classes were made up of non-English majors. The total of the class sizes differs from the number of responses received because not all students completed the feedback task or even attended classes. However, the majority of students submitted feedback

Materials

From approximately 2013 onwards, the author has asked students for written reflection in English on their classroom experience at the close of semesters. The author provides a survey in English, generally consisting of nine reflective questions about classes. Answers longer than a few words to the questions are requested. Surveys are not in Japanese since the courses are high level English classes. There were nine general questions on the surveys used for this research, and some answers to the following questions (below) contained information about mnemonic activities or classroom atmospheres. These were analysed for this paper:

- What can you remember learning this semester?
- Which activities did you enjoy the most? Why?
- What was enjoyable and you're glad that you learned it?
- What was difficult, but worthwhile?
- Please leave a comment about the class.

Table 1

Information on Participants

	Second-year GS Students	First-year RW Students	First-year LS Students
2022 (Semester 1)	33	34	X
2022 (Semester 2)	29	29	X
2023 (Semester 1)	X	39	27

Procedure

The surveys were made available to students via the Microsoft Teams LMS in the last lessons of the semesters. The study of this material is secondary use of non-identifiable information and is within keeping with the author's university's guidelines when conducting research in classes. Each of the submitted forms was searched for information about activities involving knowing names and also about the classroom atmosphere. Data were analysed by inputting responses containing these aspects into a table and noting where similarities occurred. These incidences were then examined for student attitude towards the activities, and percentages were calculated based on this data. The responses were also examined holistically to gain insight into student attitudes regarding the use of peer names and its potential impact on the overall classroom atmosphere.

Results

Cooper et al. (2017) extensively explored the use and effects of name tents as a memory aid. However, the author uses a common mnemonic system (Argawal, 2023) described in the introduction. In a semester with 28 lessons, the first few lessons include these activities. The nicknames, as the students call them, are also available in the LMS for reference.

Thirty-four responses to the feedback form distributed included information about the activities involving remembering names and their use (about 19%). Twenty-three (about 13%) of these were positive, eight (approximately 5%) were negative, and three responses were neutral (approximately 2%). Even amongst those deemed negative (students who described the activity as difficult), all but one also highlighted positive aspects of remembering names.

The survey did not contain a pointed question explicitly asking students about their opinion on the use of mnemonics for remembering names in the classroom. Therefore, the fact that almost 20% percent of all students chose to comment on the activity unprompted is indicative of the activity being memorable for a number of them. Some responses contained no overt reference to the mnemonic activities but commented on the classes being friendly and relaxed, and that students found it relatively easy to make friends. Table 2 displays

Table 2

Responses Related to Learning Names and/or Classroom Atmosphere

Responses	Number of students*
Knowing more students in the author's classes than in other classes.	1
Relaxed and friendly class atmosphere	10
Enjoying pair work and tasks	10
Making friends	5
Useful for the future	1
Useful for task work (in the English class)	5
Difficult task but worthwhile (and fun)	5
Shift in perspective from meeting a variety of students	1
Disliked task and considered it overly time-consuming	1

* The total is more than 34 due to some responses addressing more than one category.

some common themes in the students' responses to the questions detailed earlier.

The most common responses related to the atmosphere of the class (10) and working with partners (10 each). "By taking this class, I was able to learn the names of this class members and get involved. It was very fun. Thank you to all my friends" (Student E, 2022). Responses referencing mnemonic activities as a pathway to making friends, being useful for tasks and being difficult were of an equal number (5 each). Student J explicitly stated that they disliked the task. "I think self-introduce time (tell each other's nicknames) was too much." (2023). Student A stated that the task was useful for future interactions, citing interpersonal communication (2022). Related to classroom atmosphere, Student K wrote, "I was able to communicate with people [from] various place in Japan and countries around the world. As I interacted with them, my values changed."

Discussion

Results from end-of-semester feedback comments in the author's classes since 2013 generally mirror the findings of some U.S. studies. Cooper et al. (2017) observed that knowing names helped U.S. students build community, increase confidence, and communicate more easily with others. Student B (2022) wrote in reply to the question of which activities students enjoyed the most, "At the beginning of the class, we had the opportunity to memorize the names of the class members along with their nicknames, which I think was useful in subsequent classes." Student B highlights remembering names, so they have isolated it as an important task. This task seems to have helped in building community in that knowing one another's names "was useful in subsequent classes." This also implies that it helped with communication, considering that all of the English classes were communicative. To further support this claim, Student E wrote, "By taking this class, I was able to learn the names of this class members and get involved." They specifically mention their involvement in the class stemming from learning member names. This suggests that knowledge of members names assists in community building. Knowing names helping facilitate easier communication ("get involved") is assumed by the author from this response.

Not explicitly stating names, but related to classroom atmosphere, Student M wrote, "This class is one of my favourite classes in this university. It's not just that the teachers and students in the class get along very well, but in such a relaxed learning atmosphere, you can really learn a lot of knowledge that you couldn't learn before." As a number of students link the welcoming atmosphere of the class to having learned one another's names at the beginning of the course, this aspect might be more widely applied. If this is the case, Student M's comment seems to support the general idea that a psychologically safe classroom could lead to academic success (Cohn-Vargas & Steele, 2013 in Cohn-Vargas & Steele, 2016), and that knowing classmates' names could contribute to this. Thirteen answers specifically mention learning nicknames and connecting this either to a "fun" or enjoyable class, or to helping the class run smoothly. Again, this seems to imply that learning one another's names can help facilitate a healthy classroom environment, build student confidence, and aid in communication, as noted by

Cooper et al. (2017).

Although no response specifically referred to discussion of class topics away from the main lessons, future research has supported this observance, and student L stated, “I know many students in this class, and I remember less people in other classes than in this class. The students were very friendly and [I was] happy to discuss with them” (2022). This response could imply that student L interacted with students from the author’s classes outside of the lessons (“I know many students in this class.”). Five responses state that students made friends, suggesting that these relationships have extended beyond the lessons. Conversely, some students worried whether they could make friends at the start of the course, and possibly learning each other’s names added to a classroom atmosphere where they felt welcome, as seen in student D’s response: “I am really enjoyed in our class this term. I ... joined our class online for a long time. I used to be very afraid of nobody will willing to talk with me when I came to Japan and [physically] joined our class. But everyone were friendly and I worked with my partners very happy in these classes” (2022).

Cooper et al. (2017) noted a broadening of horizons as communicative barriers decrease with knowledge of classmates’ names. Student A (2022) wrote, “Although it is ridiculous, I think it is [worthwhile] to remember the names of the people in the class, although it is very difficult for foreign students, but it may be good for the future interpersonal relationship.” Moreover, student K (2022) believed, “I was able to communicate with people various place[s] in Japan and countries around the world. As I interacted with them, my values changed.” Although student K’s meaning is not clear, it would appear that classroom interactions helped the student develop new connections with others, which might have affected the way they viewed the world (“As I interacted with them, my values changed”). Student K’s feedback does not specifically mention the learning of names. However, the author believes that knowing each other’s names can help lead to a classroom atmosphere where students are more comfortable exchanging information with each other (as required by tasks), which seems to be supported by some of the replies of other respondents.

It would appear that a number of students enjoy using mnemonics to

remember one another's names as outlined in the method. Students seem to have found it a relatively easy way of facilitating classroom community and a sense of belonging.

Conclusion

This study is in its preliminary stages and naturally enough has a number of flaws. There is, however, a reasonable database. Responses students have provided over the years correlate with many of the findings of pre-existing literature, although most of the literature considered for this paper concentrated on student/teacher relationships rather than same peer relationships. Within the studies on same peer relationships, it would seem having a sense of connection to fellow students might encourage enthusiasm and comfort in a class. Within Japan, Carpenter et al. (2009) stated that "Interaction and positive relationships in peer and student-teacher interactions are crucial to creating a social ecology in which positive group dynamics can be cultivated and meaningful learning supported" (p. 299). The author agrees with this statement, and feels that promoting the remembrance of classmates' and student names helps lead to this. Social networks can lead to unintentional motivation (Carpenter et al., 2009), and this is not disputed. Safe and interesting classroom atmospheres can aid healthy student-student and student-teacher relationships, and that this atmosphere can possibly be partly achieved through student (and instructor) awareness of participant names. If instructors are not particularly concerned with developing an interest in their students, or in facilitating opportunities for students to know one another, then it follows that motivation decreases (Carpenter et al., 2009; Fukuda, 2013). Although remembering names is not suitable for everyone, it seems to be a direct and simple way to establish a form of interest among all stakeholders. A more thorough exploration of current and future data will hopefully expose further trends that support the idea that, as in the US, students learning one another's names in EFL classes in Japan holds many indirect individual, social and academic benefits.

In the author's face-to-face classes, review of student feedback submitted at the end of semesters has regularly highlighted the pleasure students have

in getting to know new people and in making friends. Learning one another's names has regularly been isolated as assisting this.

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Received: October 31, 2023

Accepted: November 23, 2024

Practice-Oriented Paper

Passive Use in Japanese EFL Learner English: a Corpus-based Study

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Japanese is considered a language that prefers to focus on situations rather than persons. Such event portrayal can affect L1 Japanese speakers' acquisition of English, a language thought to focus more on agents. Passives are a way of backgrounding agents, and L1 expression of agency could be reflected in their L2 use. Similar interference during L2 acquisition has been observed when examining argument structure and passivisation across various languages.

This corpus-based study examines written and spoken texts produced by L1 Japanese college students. It compares these to native English speakers' language and examines indications of L1 interference in passive construction use. It finds differences suggesting that structures are carried over into the learnt language, such as the adversative passive, a feature absent in English, and relative clauses that give prominence to actions rather than actors. Indications of a different perspective during event portrayal were also found. Furthermore, the study suggests that the various functions of the passive in Japanese can contribute to a wider range of EFL learners' use of some passive verbs, such as the potentially causative "made." "Make" causatives may be an area for further research on the perception of argument structure and agency during language acquisition.

Language acquisition can be affected by a world perception shaped by the learners' first language (L1). Whether these differences stem from L1 interference can be observed when examining behaviour shared by a number of learners with the same L1. This paper presents a contrastive study of a learner corpus and a native speaker corpus that examines the differences in how Japanese EFL learners use English structures compared to L1 English speakers. Because Japanese is frequently considered a language that prefers the backgrounding of agents (Ando, 2016; Hinds, 2012; Ikegami, 1981; Itasaka, 1971), it will look at passivisation, which

is one way backgrounding can be achieved. Observably different passive use in the writing and speaking of Japanese EFL learners compared to native English speakers could be an indicator of learner L1 interference linked to the expression of agency.

The paper first presents the features of the passive in Japanese and differences compared to English that may cause interference. It also reviews relevant studies that have observed L1 interference at a structural level between English, Japanese, and other languages. The data and methodology of the paper will then be presented, followed by a discussion of the results and concluding remarks. First, I will present the framework used in this study.

The following abbreviations are used below:

acc - accusative

dat - dative

nmlz – nominalizer

nom - nominative

npst – non-past

pass - passive

pol – polite

pst – past

top - topic

Passives and Agency

Compared to languages such as English, Japanese has been typologically characterised as a “situation-focused language” as opposed to a “person-focused language” (Hinds, 2012) and a “language of becoming” as opposed to a “language of doing” (Ando, 2016, p. 256; Ikegami, 1981, p. 283; Itasaka, 1971, p. 78). For example, Ando (2016) pointed out that in a Japanese sentence such as in (1) below, the event is presented as happening naturally rather than being caused by the actor, who is the subject in the English version. In this paper, I will present Japanese in its alphabetised (*romaji*) form for comprehensibility.

1. *Raigetsu, tenkyo-su-ru koto-ni nari-mashi-ta.*
Next.month move-do-npst nmlz-dat become-pol-pst

“I’m moving out next month.”

Furthermore, Shibatani (1985) mentioned passivisation as an act of “agent defocusing” (pp. 830–831) because it allows or, in some languages, requires the omission of the agent. Such observations suggest that Japanese prefers to put agents in the background.

Apart from defocusing, Yamaguchi (2001) examined the cognitive components affecting passivisation in Japanese and argues that *empathy* is a factor affecting the acceptability of various passive constructions. Empathy is, according to Kuno & Kaburaki (1977), a way to place the speaker’s viewpoint depending on whether they identify with actors in a described event (as in first-person accounts) or an event is described objectively (Kuno & Kaburaki, 1977). A cognitive linguistics approach may be useful when examining the number of passives used by learners as opposed to native speakers and the types of verbs chosen for passivisation.

Shibatani also demonstrates the comparatively wider range of passive use in Japanese by presenting the adversative passive. He gave example (2) to demonstrate this feature (1985, p. 842).

2. *Keisatsu-wa yōgisha-ni nige-rare-ta.*
police-top suspect-dat escape-pass-pst
‘The police had the suspect run away.’

The wide range of passive usage in Japanese may be another indication of the language’s tendency to focus on states or actions rather than on actors. Thus, different passive use by Japanese EFL learners in their English may be a sign of L1 interference for reasons such as agency perception. The next section presents previous research on such interference between various languages.

L1 Interference

When examining the argument structure perceptions of learners of Japanese, Yamada & Miyamoto (2017) pointed out that it is impossible for learners to delearn features of their L1 when acquiring a language that does not have those features. They observe that the learners’ L1 being a *pro-drop* or *non-pro-drop* language affects their interpretation of a null argument in Japanese. In other

words, the interpretation varied depending on whether their L1 allows subject ellipsis. Their study argues that speakers of a *pro-drop* language, such as Spanish, will interpret a null argument in Japanese in the same way they would an ellipted pronoun in their L1. Conversely, L1 speakers of *non-pro-drop* languages, such as English, do not show this restriction, allowing for ambiguity in interpreting a null argument in Japanese. In the test sentence shown in (3), speakers of Spanish consistently interpreted the ellipted element (e) as the bear's car, a feature carried over from their L1. Conversely, English speakers allowed a looser interpretation of (e).

3. *Kuma-wa jibun-no kuruma-o fui-ta.*

Bear-top self-gen car-acc wipe-pst

Soshite, Penguin-mo [e] fui-ta

And penguin-also wipe-pst

'Bear wiped his own car, and Penguin wiped [e] as well.'

Nakayama, et al. (2019) examined differences in the interpretation of pronouns and reflexives by Japanese EFL learners. They observed that learners found it easier to identify what noun phrase English reflexive pronouns were referring to if they were referring to the subject of a clause rather than an object, pointing to different levels of sensitivity to different elements of the argument structure.

Furthermore, Foucou and Kübler (2000) conducted corpus-based research in which they observed the difficulties that French students have with using the passive due to the less frequent use of the construction in their L1.

Like this current study, Appel and Murray (2023) used the International Corpus Network of Asian Learners of English (ICNALE) corpus. They compared English-language writing by students whose L1 is Japanese, Chinese, or Korean, focusing on lexical bundles. Their findings suggest that L1 affects L2 language production as the results for speakers of each language differed distinctly.

These various observations show that structural differences between L1 and L2 can affect how learners interpret or express semantic actors or agents and that this effect can stem from argument structure perception. The next section lays

out the method used to examine passive use in this study.

Data and Method

This paper uses data taken from the ICNALE corpus, developed by Ishikawa (2023), who described it as follows:

The ICNALE is a large collection of controlled essays and speeches by English native speakers and college students in ten Asian countries and areas.... [B]oth speeches and writings are based on the same common topics: ‘It is important for college students to have a part-time job’ and ‘Smoking should be completely banned at all the restaurants in the country.’ (Ishikawa, 2015, p. 5)

The focus on two topics reduces the possibility of accidental findings that may be due to differences in style or register. Ebeling (2016) pointed out that these would affect the results more than the corpus size.

Because this paper examines language produced by Japanese learners of English, only texts by Japanese students and native English speakers were chosen for comparison. The two types of texts were used to create one learner corpus (JPN) and one native corpus (ENS). To compile the corpora and examine the data, the AntConc application, developed by Anthony (2022), was used.

The ENS and JPN corpora had 230,082 and 368,590 tokens, i.e., words in total, and 7,739 and 7,097 types, i.e., unique words, respectively. The type-token ratios are 0.0336 and 0.0196, respectively, indicating that the ENS corpus’ language is more varied.

Due to the typical structure of English passives, I narrowed down the search to collocations as far as four words on the right and zero on the left of the node, be. This range was chosen due to the possible inclusion of adverbs (e.g., “be completely banned”) and to allow the inclusion of repetitions and corrections which were observed especially in records of spoken language. An examination of the most common collocations and the proportions of passive or past participle verb forms showed the distribution of passives in both corpora.

The statistical significance of different findings between corpora was calculated using a chi-squared test(χ^2). Hoffman, et al. (2008) suggested

this method, using the Corpus Frequency Wizard (<http://sigil.collocations.de/wizard.html>), to calculate to what extent findings may be accidental. The statistical significance of single tokens used with “be” was evaluated using log-likelihood, which Hoffmann, et al. (2008) described as a measurement of the statistical significance of collocates.

Results and Discussion

The most readily observable differences were found in the use of the base form “be” (Table 1). Therefore, only passives used with this form were examined. The higher frequency of some of the most common collocates in the JPN corpus may be due to a more limited scope of vocabulary used by EFL learners, given the corpus’ lower type-token ratio.

The passive “banned” being the most frequent collocate is predictable due to one of the two topics (“Smoking should be completely banned at all the restaurants in the country.”), as are other verbs used to describe permission or lack thereof (“prohibited,” “allowed,” and “forbidden”).

The most common passive verb with a semantic value unrelated to permission and, therefore, less likely to be frequent due to topic-specific bias appears to be “used” with a log-likelihood of 70.321 in the JPN corpus. A closer examination in context, however, reveals that 12 out of the 26 occurrences are in the combination “used to,” meaning “accustomed to.” If the passive “used” is then counted as only the remaining 14, its frequency is not statistically more significant than in the ENS corpus, which contains nine examples not listed due to their low log-likelihood.

The next most common apparent passive verb not describing permission or lack thereof in the ENS corpus appears to be “prepared” with a log-likelihood of 60.263. All 17 occurrences, however, are used in a way semantically similar to “ready,” suggesting that these tokens are adjectives and are, therefore, excluded from further discussion.

Thus, the most prominent passive verb not related to permission in the JPN corpus is “protected” with a log-likelihood of 31.476. It is used to describe protecting the rights of someone and, in one instance, it presumably is a direct

Table 1
ENS and JPN Corpora ‘Be’ Collocate Verb

Collocate	ENS Corpus			Collocate	JPN Corpus		
	Rank	FreqR	Likelihood		Rank	FreqR	Likelihood
banned	1	374	1506.731	banned	1	532	2839.290
allowed	5	61	199.360	prohibited	11	24	107.587
prepared	21	18	60.236	used	19	26	70.321
affected	26	16	52.924	allowed	20	17	59.176
left	40	14	37.591	forbidden	22	11	50.093
exposed	50	11	24.653	protected	33	6	31.476
permitted	57	6	22.136	damaged	40	7	26.801
gained	62	8	20.054	made	43	12	23.528
considered	62	8	20.054	taught	44	7	22.900
made	64	12	19.348	done	45	8	22.818
regulated	66	5	19.158	solved	50	5	21.365
				satisfied	52	6	21.167
				exposed	55	5	20.562
				controlled	63	4	18.577
				considered	63	4	18.577

translation of the Japanese *mamoru*, which also means to “adhere” to a standard, as it occurs with “morals.” The verb “damaged” is also frequently used in the passive. As shown in context (Appendix), some of this verb’s seven occurrences are somewhat unnatural, perhaps due to L1 influence at a lexical level. An experienced speaker may find the verb “affected” more suitable, as it appears more commonly in the ENS corpus.

The expressions preceding “made” (shown in context in Tables A3a and A3b, Appendix) are compellingly different. The difference in this verb form’s frequency between the corpora is not statistically significant ($X^2 = 0.912$). Nevertheless, there is prominently consistent use of modals in the ENS corpus, e.g., “a decision should be made” or “an argument that could be made.” In these instances, passive use seems to be a way for the speakers to avoid mentioning the authorities or anyone else who should make a decision, such as on a smoking ban.

The JPN corpus, conversely, includes diverse examples of the use of the passive “made” construction. The first example is, “People who are around border can be made to keep blessing the smoke.” It is not clear what the speaker means by “blessing.” It is possibly a mistranslation of “receive,” overgeneralised from the phrase “receive a blessing.” This assumed intended meaning of the verb, however, does not explain the use of the passive. This example may be an indication of the L1’s adversative passive interference.

The next example of “made” appeared in the following sentence: “If it is right, what problem is there when they think manners and smoking so that trouble may not be made to us?” The speaker is talking about the general issue of smoking, which may have led them to use the passive, to omit the agents that cause trouble and to utter a more generalised statement.

The following example occurs in this context: “For example, they make the machine which takes all smoke. It may cost a lot, but I hope it to be made.” It is not clear who “they” refers to in the previous sentence, but due to the combination “they make” in the previous sentence, the speaker appears to choose this construction to avoid repetition rather than remove agency from the description of the event.

The following “made” construction appears in the sentence, “And in the first place I believe that tobacco do not have to be made anywhere because tobacco contain a large number of poison only.” The Japanese loanword *tabako* has a wider range of use than the English “tobacco,” which may explain the use in this context. The sentence could be paraphrased as, “And in the first place, tobacco shouldn’t be smoked anywhere, because tobacco contains a large amount of poison.” The ENS corpus does not contain any instances of the passive of

“smoke.” This could indicate L1 interference as the JPN corpus also contains somewhat unnatural expressions such as “this restaurant cannot be smoked” or people “being smoked.” In the former example, the passive is possibly used to focus on the location or people affected by smoking, rather than on the smoker. The latter example may be another sign of the Japanese adversative passive interference and a preference to remove the subject in the argument structure in such contexts.

The following example’s context is, “I don’t think smoking should be banned completely everywhere so far because it would be so hard for smokers, but I hope something changeable stuff will be made as she said.” Despite the somewhat unnatural use of “changeable stuff,” the use of “made” is semantically similar to that in the ENS corpus as it indicates some sort of authority implementing a policy.

The example after that includes “should,” making it structurally similar to examples found in the ENS corpus: “Also, the restaurant which all the rooms is for the people who smoke should be made because the room where people can smoke is restricted and the room where people can smoke without any hesitation is necessary.”

The next sentence is another example of “made” used with “trouble.” In this case, too, agency is avoided, leaving it somewhat unclear who is causing the trouble: “It is trouble that be made breathing smoke which he doesn’t hope and his lung cancer risk becomes higher.”

The clause preceding the following example mentions the agent as “someone” who smokes. Therefore, agency is not avoided. “If someone smokes by us when we eat some delicious food, we will be made feel so bad by the smoke.”

The next example follows the same structure with “made” as those in the ENS corpus: “I think for smokers more kind policy should be made.”

The following sentence shows signs of L1 interference: “So we must choose a job that can be made much money by short hours.” The sentence indicates that the writer intended “job” as the structure’s focus. This becomes clear with a possible Japanese translation of “a job where much money can be made,” as seen in (4).

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4. [*takusan-no okane-o kaseg-e-ru*] *shigoto*
 much-gen money-nom earn-pot-npst job

The Japanese version is a noun phrase with “job” as the head modified by the relative clause *takusan-no okane-o kasegeru*, making the noun the semantically most prominent element and not mentioning the person who would be making money. This may be an indication of L1 interference at a cognitive level due to the shift of the empathy focus away from the person who is making money and towards the “job.”

The final occurrence of “made” in the JPN corpus tends to follow the same logic as examples from the ENS corpus, as it implies authorities or restaurant owners/managers as the agents. “Like restaurant we can enter with our pet, that we can make smoke can be made.”

Further verbs used in the passive in the JPN corpus were “taught,” “done,” “solved,” “satisfied,” “exposed,” “controlled,” and “considered.” Only “exposed” and “considered” also appear in the list of the 70 most frequent tokens in the ENS corpus, used significantly more in the native corpus ($X2 = 93.942$ and $X2 = 24.252$, respectively).

Both are used with semantically similar tokens in both corpora. “Exposed” is used in both corpora with words such as “smoke,” “harmful,” and “danger.” “Considered” is frequently used in both corpora at the end of clauses with modal verbs, i.e., “ought to be considered” or “can be considered.” These findings do not suggest L1 interference.

Some differences in lexical choices between the native and the learner corpus suggest that argument structure perception may influence the formation of passives by Japanese EFL learners to avoid the inclusion of a subject.

The use of “made” differed the most in each corpus. While native speakers used it predominantly to express decisions made by authorities, learners appear to use it as a broader means of causativisation. Causatives may be another point for examining differences and discussing underlying cognitive, syntactic, and semantic components that may suggest L1 interference.

The use of “made” to not only avoid agency but to suggest an adverse effect as well as a focus on an activity rather than the actor implies that there may be

cognitive factors that cause L1 interference. The use of the passive “made” or “smoked” can suggest that EFL learners carry over the empathy focus from their L1. The former is also used in a context that suggests overlap with the Japanese adversative passive. Differences in the use of other passives, such as “damaged” or “protected,” may be due to L1 interference at a lexical level.

While the ICNALE corpus gives information on the students’ levels, the relatively small number of passives examined made it difficult to establish whether their level was relevant to certain types of unnatural use. Also, an examination of course materials may reveal whether these differences are caused by methods used for language acquisition rather than structural differences between the languages.

Conclusion

This study examined the differences in the passive use of native speakers and Japanese EFL learners. It found differences due to lexical interference or limitations, such as the more extensive use of “damaged” and “protected” by learners. At a structural and cognitive level, L1 interference has been observed as a means to avoid agency by removing the subject in contexts suggesting adversativity and a shift of empathy focus away from the agent in order to focus on the event in contexts possibly influenced by the structure’s function in Japanese. The passive verb that showed the largest differences in use was “made,” pointing to the usefulness of further research on make-causatives.

The study was limited by the relatively small number of passives examined. It also did not have the scope to consider course materials.

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Received: March 13, 2024

Accepted: November 23, 2024

Appendix

Table A1

“Protected” learner corpus

a right to avoid smoking. Their rights are to be	protected at the same time. To achieve it, we have
more enjoy eating out. The morals of smoking must be	protected by smokers more strictly. We all have the right
Although some people say that smoker’s rights should be	protected, protecting rights of people who don’t want to
I don’t like smoking but smoking people should be	protected, so restaurant is public space and it is – it
and — uh and the right to smoke also should be	protected. So, completely separate it, um, those who don’t —
by smoking. Most people’s right to enjoy should be	protected. Third, smoking itself is not bad habits, but children

Table A2

“Damaged” learner corpus

some serious illness. Of course people who smoke to be	damaged but people who don’t smoke also to be
One don’t care cigar smoke, but another might be	damaged by the secondhand smoke. According to circumstances, the customer
damaged but people who don’t smoke also to be	damaged for their health. People whom age is less than 20
to ban smoking. Second, I think Japanese government will be	damaged. I guess that if all restaurant ban to smoke,
not only – not only the people who smoke can be	damaged, no smokers also can be damaged. So if they
who – who smoke – who smoke. No smoking people can be	damaged of them so the smokers should – should think that
who smoke can be damaged, no smokers also can be	damaged. So if they want to smoke at – if they

Table A3a

“Made” native corpus

decision that should be made by yourself, it should be	made	by a group. Uh, restaurant is a public place
their own futures. The financial gains that stand to be	made	by being diligent and hardworking in college as well
and so it's not a decision that should be	made	by one person but a group decision. Uh, smoking,
um, and smoking is not a decision that should be	made	by yourself, it should be made by a group.
I – I guess there is an argument that could be	made	about have smoking sections or that kind of thing,
source of income. I think that if colleges can be	made	affordable enough or students can be given grant so
nonsmoking section and a restaurant, but it will probably be	made	back in profits from all the new customers. If
will... I do agree completely. I think smoking should be	made	completely illegal everywhere in every country because it is
personal choice. I don't think that it should be	made	illegal, although I do think that it far – it'
know, what... I do not agree that smoking should be	made	illegal. Yes, it is harmful but to decide that
tobacco has addictive properties. I suppose a case could be	made	that restaurants which allow smoke filled air to mingle
the customers and the owners and why should smokers be	made	to feel like criminals or lepers? Smokers have been

Table A3b

“Made” learner corpus

separate them completely. People who are around border can be	made	to keep blessing the smoke. Finally, because recently people
think manners and smoking so that trouble may not be	made	to us? It is the cause of those who
So the place gathering people like restaurants has to be	made	a rule about smoking, which is decided not for
may cost a lot, but I hope it to be	made.	Also, the restaurant which all the rooms is for
place I believe that tobacco do not have to be	made	anywhere because tobacco contain a large number of poison
for smokers, but I hope something changeable stuff will be	made	as she said. What I want to say is
the rooms is for the people who smoke should be	made	because the room where people can smoke is restricted
having lung cancer than smoker. It is trouble that be	made	breathing smoke which he doesn't hope and his
us when we eat some delicious food, we will be	made	feel so bad by the smoke. I think the
it. I think for smokers more kind policy should be	made.	I agree with the opinion that smoking should be
different. So we must choose a job that can be	made	much money by short hours. But I think college
with our pet, that we can make smoke can be	made.	Some of my friends are smokers. They are good



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