Applied Language Learning

Applied Language Learning

Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center
Presidio of Monterey

Applied Language Learning

PB 65‑15‑01 & 02

The mission of Professional Bulletin 65, *Applied Language Learning* (US ISSN 1041‑679X and ISSN 2164-0912 for the online version), is to provide a forum for the exchange of ideas and information on instructional methods and techniques, curriculum and materials development, assessment of needs within the profession, testing and evaluation, and implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communications, psychology, and the social sciences.

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Applied Language Learning
Volume 25 (1&2)
2015

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How Language Learners Can Improve Their Emotional Functioning: Important Psychological and Psychospiritual Theories

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Emotion is "the primary human motive" (MacIntyre, 2002, p. 61). The human brain is an emotional brain, creating relationships among thought, emotion, and motivation in a complex dynamic system (Dörnyei, 2009). Emotion "functions as an amplifier, providing the intensity, urgency, and energy to propel our behavior" in "everything we do" (MacIntyre, 2002, p. 61). Learning is a powerful combination of cognition and emotion. Cognitive-developmental psychologist Jean Piaget (1981) described an array of emotions in learning: "[s]tates of pleasure, disappointment, eagerness, as well as feelings of fatigue, effort, boredom, etc., come into play. . . . [and] feelings of success or failure may occur . . ." (p. 3).

When I conducted research involving second and foreign language (L2) learner histories, i.e., personal stories told in learners' own words (see Oxford, 1996, 2011a, 2011b, 2013; Oxford & Cuéllar, 2014; Oxford, Daniel, Wei, & Richter, 2011; Oxford, Ehrman, & Lavine, 1991; Oxford, Lavine, Felkins, Hollaway, & Saleh, 1996; Oxford, Massey, & Anand, 2005; Oxford, Meng, Zhou, Sung, & Jain, 2007; Oxford, Pacheco Acuña, Solís Hernández, & Smith, 2014; Oxford, Tomlinson, Barcelos, Harrington, Lavine, Saleh, & Longhini, 1998), I discovered a panoply of emotions, connected in various ways with learners' personalities, goals, and appraisals of their own experiences. Some of the emotions were quite negative: anger, shame, guilt, self-disgust, and anxiety. However, other emotions experienced by these learners were highly positive: confidence, love, pleasure, pride, contentment, and joy. Certain histories also revealed learners' ability to shift resiliently from negative emotions to positive ones.

In narrative studies, other L2 researchers have also found a range of emotions, many of which were negative. In Pavlenko's (2006) investigation, the narratives of bilingual writers who had learned English as an L2 displayed "an array of emotions," such as guilt, insecurity, anxiety, worry, sadness, and confusion (p. 5). Research on Japanese women learning English identified emotions of longing, disappointment, sadness, powerlessness, and occasional confidence (Piller & Takahashi, 2006).

Research on language anxiety reveals that this frequently found emotion has many negative correlates for learners: (a) worsened cognition and achievement (Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Horwitz, 2001, 2007; MacIntyre, 2002), (b) negative attitudes toward the language (Dewaele, 2005), (c) decisions to drop the language (Dewaele & Thirtle, 2009), (d) less willingness to communicate (MacIntyre 2003), and (e) diminished self-confidence, reduced personality, and lowered personal agency and control (Horwitz, 2007; Horwitz & Young, 1991). At the same time, evidence exists that language anxiety can occasionally be stimulating and helpful (e.g., Marcos-Llinas & Juan Garau, 2009). The Janus-like, negative and positive natures of language anxiety can be explained from a psychotherapeutic perspective: "Anxiety has a negative expression in *Angst* or anguish and a positive one in excitement and anticipation" (van Deurzen, 2012, p. 153).

As a background to my own research with learner histories and as a means of deepening my understanding of learner anxiety and other emotions, I decided to study emotion theories. This article grew from that passionate interest. In this article, my aim is not to provide a review of research on emotions in L2 learning, nor to examine all theories of emotion (for a larger scope of theories, see Johnson, 2014; Lewis, Haviland-Jones, & Barrett, 2008).[1] Instead, I intend to describe several focused theories of emotion drawn from psychology and psychospirituality and to explain how they apply to L2 learning. The article is organized as follows: (a) resilience theory, (b) emotional intelligence theory, (c) well-being theory in positive psychology, (d) the theory of flow, (e) emotion theory in existential psychotherapy, and (f) psychospiritual concepts of emotion.

RESILIENCE THEORY

Resilience is the ability to successfully spring back from adversity. L2 learners need resilience in times of emotional, cognitive, and/or physical stress. The opposite of resilience often involves giving in to negative emotions, such as depression or anger, when situations become very difficult.

Some resilience theories and research studies emphasize "personal strengths (e.g., cognitive, social, emotional, moral/spiritual)" (Truebridge, 2014, p. 15), such as outgoing personalities, ability to enlist support and develop competence, problem-solving ability, and self-esteem (Masten & Obradovic, 2006; Werner & Smith, 1992). Benard (1991) listed the following components of resilience in an individual: persistence, hardiness, goal-directedness, achievement orientation, educational aspirations, belief in the future, a sense of anticipation, a sense of purpose, and a sense of coherence. Other theories and research contend that resilience also involves social factors, such as compassionate relationships, messages that focus on strengths, and opportunities for responsible participation (Luthar, Cicchetti, & Becker, 2000; Luthar, Sawyer, & Brown, 2006; Truebridge, 2014). Resilience was theoretically linked to "psychological fitness" in the military (Seligman, 2011, pp. 127, 240).

In a learner history study (Oxford, Meng, Zhou, Sung, & Jain, 2007), resilience in L2 learning emerged as the main theme. In that study, a Chinese learner of English overcame her embarrassment and shame about speaking English. To help her teacher, whose instruction was being evaluated by the district education authorities, the student stood up and spoke in English when other students would not. This action saved the teacher's reputation in the eyes of the inspectors and served to make the student feel competent, confident, and resilient. This was only one of the stories of resilience in the study. I believe that resilient individuals probably have a significant degree of emotional intelligence, which is the next topic.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE THEORY

Daniel Goleman's (2005) view of emotional Intelligence (or Emotion Quotient, EQ) grew out of prior work on multiple intelligences, empathy, neuro-linguistic programming, and transactional analysis. Goleman asserted that the intelligence quotient (IQ), or traditionally described intelligence, is too narrow to explain variation in human behavior and contended that it was essential to consider emotional intelligence. Goleman identified the domains of emotional intelligence as knowing and managing one's own emotions, motivating oneself, recognizing and understanding other people's emotions, and managing relationships. Emotional intelligence has been shown to reduce stress and anxiety, decrease conflict, improve relationships, and increase stability, self-motivation, social awareness, and harmony (Goleman, 2005). With increased awareness and effort, it is possible to develop new aspects of emotional intelligence in individuals and organizations (Goleman, 2005).

Emotional intelligence theory is useful for understanding differences in the attitudes and behavior of L2 learners and users. Dewaele, Petrides, and Furnham (2008; see also Dewaele, 2013) found that adult multilinguals with higher emotional intelligence had lower levels of foreign language anxiety in various situations and languages. They discovered that in communication situations such individuals, compared to individuals with lower emotional intelligence, perceived themselves as more capable of (a) gauging the emotions of their interlocutor, (b) controling their own stress, and (c) feeling confident (and hence less anxious). Other factors in lower anxiety and stronger confidence were younger age of acquisition of the foreign language, stronger socialization in that language, higher self-perceived proficiency, use of the language outside the classroom, communication with a larger network of people, and knowledge of more languages (Dewaele et al., 2008). The next section deals with well-being theory in positive psychology, which offers still other possibilities for explaining and enhancing emotional functioning.

THEORY OF WELL-BEING IN POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY

The goal of positive psychology is to "increase flourishing by increasing positive emotion, engagement, meaning, positive relationships, and accomplishment," said Martin Seligman (2011, p. 12), the father of positive psychology. According to So and Huppert (2009), "flourishing [is] . . . defined as having high positive emotion, plus being high on any three of the following: self-esteem, optimism, resilience, vitality, self-determination, and positive relationships" (in Seligman, 2011, p. 238).

In well-being theory within positive psychology, the acronym PERMA reflects five dimensions: Positive emotion (P), Engagement (E), Relationships (R), Meaning (M), and Accomplishment (A), all of which Seligman (2011) called "elements of well-being" (p. 16). As seen in PERMA, well-being theory emphasizes positive emotions rather than negative emotions. Oxford and Cuéllar (2014) and Oxford, Pacheco Acuña, Solís Hernández, and Smith (2014) applied well-being theory, with a focus on PERMA, to a number of histories of successful L2 learners. The investigators found that for these expert learners, positive emotions, such as love and joy, were more prevalent than negative emotions, such as sadness and anxiety. These learners were resilient, working to overcome their difficulties and throwing themselves into L2 learning.

Seligman (2011) endorsed Frederickson's (2001, 2003, 2004) "broaden-and-build" concept of positive emotions by saying "the positive emotions broaden and build abiding psychological resources that we can call on later in life" (p. 66). The broaden-and-build concept says that positive emotions, such as happiness, curiosity, and interest, broaden the individual's awareness and encourage innovative, diverse thoughts and actions. This broadened range builds skills and resources. For instance, pleasure in interacting with someone else can build up friendship and social skills, whereas joy in childhood's rough-and-tumble play can lead to motor skills, and curiosity can lead to searching skills. Positive emotions (a) "trigger upward spirals toward emotional well-being" (Frederickson & Joiner, 2002, p. 172), (b) broaden the scope of attention (Frederickson & Branigan, 2005), (c) contribute to resilience (Frederickson, Tugade, Waugh, & Larkin, 2003; Waugh, Tugade, & Frederickson, 2008), and (d) speed up recovery from cardiovascular situations related to negative emotions (Frederickson & Levenson, 1998).

In contrast to positive emotions, "[n]egative emotions warn us about a specific threat: when we feel fear, it is almost always preceded by a thought of danger" (Seligman, 2011, p. 139), such as sadness being preceded by a thought of loss or anger being preceded by a thought of trespass. Our negative emotional reaction is often disproportional to the actuality of the danger. Negative emotions narrow the individual's response options to survival behaviors (Frederickson, 2001, 2003, 2004). For example, anxiety leads toward the fight-or-flight response. The correlates of language anxiety mentioned earlier, such as

decreased willingness to communicate and diminished confidence, reflect Frederickson's concept of the "narrowing" results of negative emotions.

"[T]he negative, firefighting emotions . . . identify, isolate, and combat external irritants" (Seligman, 2011, p. 66) rather than broadening and building anything. Seligman (2011) mentioned that strong biological factors predisposed certain great people – Churchill and Lincoln, for instance – to sadness and depression, which could be ameliorated but never totally eliminated. Seligman (2011) argued that ordinary people, like great people, can "not only fight these feelings but also . . . live heroically: functioning well even when . . . very sad" (p. 53).

For the first time in the L2 field, I demonstrated how language anxiety (and implicitly other negative emotions) can be managed through particular emotional strategies (Oxford, forthcoming-a). For instance, positive psychology's ABCDE macro-strategy (Seligman, 2006, 2011), drawing on the theory and practice of Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy (REBT, Ellis, 2003), contains a set of interlocking strategies. Specifically, the learner must recognize that beliefs, especially irrational beliefs, about adversity cause consequent negative feelings (e.g., anxiety), but disputation, which means presenting counter-evidence, results in energization, or a positive change of mind (Seligman, 2006). Within the ABCDE macro-strategy, the strategy of identifying irrational beliefs – "I must/should" (dogmatic demands), "It's terrible" (awfulizing), "I can't stand it" (low frustration tolerance), and "I'm worthless and incompetent" (self/other rating) – is very important, especially for L2 learning. Many L2 learners hold dysfunctional, irrational beliefs about their own learning, and this contributes to language anxiety. The strategy of identifying irrational beliefs must always be accompanied by the strategies of (a) identifying counter-evidence and (b) creating a new mindset.

The ABCDE macro-strategy combats the pessimistic explanatory style (Peterson, Seligman, & Vaillant, 1988), which is often found in anxious learners. Well-being theory notes that "emotions don't follow inexorably from external events but from what you *think* about those events, and you can actually change what you think" (Seligman, 2011, p. 90). In REBT, the ABCDE macro-strategy is a central focus for personality change, but it can also be deployed to diminish L2 anxiety specifically. Founded on well-being theory in positive psychology (Peterson, 2006; Seligman, 2011; Vaillant, 2000), I listed a dozen additional strategies to help struggling learners in the L2 classroom (Oxford, forthcoming-a; see also Cohn & Frederickson, 2010).

THEORY OF FLOW

The theory of flow is related to positive psychology, but it is nevertheless often discussed on its own. Csíkszentmihályi (1990) described flow not as passive or relaxing but as occurring "when a person's body or mind is stretched to its limits in a voluntary effort to accomplish something difficult and worthwhile" (p. 3). Flow is comprised of complete engagement in an activity, merging of action and awareness without distraction, intrinsic motivation (autotelism, or the desire to do the task for its own sake because it is enjoyable), balance between challenge and skill (task is neither too easy nor too hard), heightened control (security and lack of worry about failure), effortlessness, lack of self-consciousness, and an altered perception of time (slowing down or speeding up) (Csíkszentmihályi, 1990, 1998, 2008, 2013; Csíkszentmihályi & Csíkszentmihályi, 2006).

Flow is associated with emotion by means of skill level and challenge. As noted, a state of flow occurs when the tasks' challenge matches the person's skill level. When skill level and challenge are imbalanced, lack of flow is assured and one of the following negative emotional states is likely to emerge: anxiety (higher challenge than skill level), boredom (lower challenge than skill level), and apathy (both challenges and skill levels are low) (Nakamura & Csíkszentmihályi, 2005). Peterson (2006) stated, "The aftermath of the flow experience is invigorating . . . [although] flow in the moment is non-emotional and arguably nonconscious. People describe flow as highly and intrinsically enjoyable, but this is an after-the-fact summary judgment, and joy is not immediately present during the activity itself" (pp. 66-67). Flow can produce emotions such as pleasure, joy, and excitement – but, as Peterson contended, after the experience is over. The following section takes a different turn, discussing emotion theory in existential psychotherapy.

EMOTION THEORY IN EXISTENTIAL PSYCHOTHERAPY

The goal of existential psychotherapy is to help people "gain insight into the unavoidable paradoxes that life presents and to gain strength from that knowledge," rather than to provide "quick pragmatic solutions" (van Deurzen, 2012, p. xiii). Emmy van Deurzen, the chief authority in the field of existential psychotherapy, proposed an explanation of a large array of significant emotions. See Figure 1.
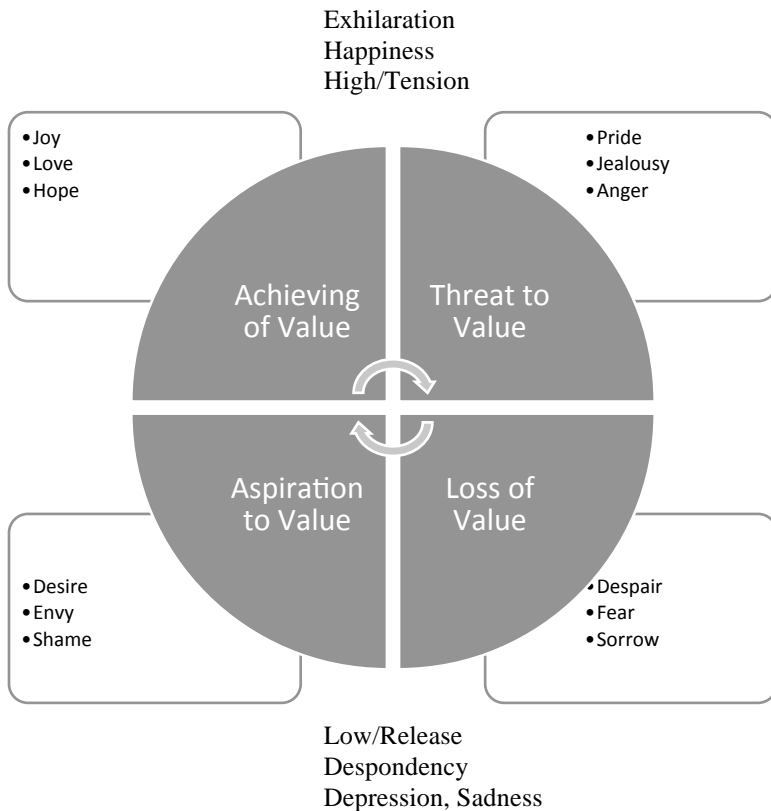
Exhilaration
Happiness
High/Tension

- Joy
- Love
- Hope

- Pride
- Jealousy
- Anger

Achieving
of Value

Threat to
Value

Aspiration
to Value

Loss of
Value

- Desire
- Envy
- Shame

- Despair
- Fear
- Sorrow

Low/Release
Despondency
Depression, Sadness

Figure 1: *The Compass of Emotion.*
(Adapted from Figures 5.1 through 5.7 in van Deurzen, 2012, pp. 151-155)

In Figure 1, exhilaration and happiness are at the high-tension apex of the "compass" or circle of emotion, whereas despondency, depression, and sadness are at the low-tension, release-based nadir. The emotions located in between occur in relation to our wanting something important (our value). In the upper right quadrant are pride, jealousy, and anger, which reflect perceived threats to value. Pride occurs when we still feel control of what we value but are perhaps too eager to show it off, suspecting that it might be under threat. Jealousy arises when what we value is being threatened and we feel that it might be taken away. Anger emerges when what we value is deeply threatened and we are making a last-ditch effort to get it back or to keep on grasping it.

Despair, fear, and sorrow are emotions in the lower right quadrant, and they signify the loss of value. Despair occurs when we recognize we might have to give up what we value. Fear is an apprehension that the threat might steal what we value, possibly requiring us to let go. Sorrow arises when we realize that the threat has actually taken what we value, and we have no choice but to let

go. At the bottom of the circle we experience general sadness and depression, a sense of being without energy.

The bottom left quadrant contains shame, envy, and desire, which together signify aspiring to what we value when we do not have it. Shame emerges because we feel we are unable to accomplish anything of value. Envy happens when we see what we value being gained by others; we feel we cannot be the same as they are, so we covet what they have. Desire occurs when we start reaching out once more toward what we value.

The upper left quadrant involves hope, love, and joy, which together signify the gaining of value once more. (However, in L2 learning, attaining what the learner values -- a personally acceptable degree of proficiency and self-confidence – might occur for the very first time, rather than "once more.") Hope springs forth when we have an inkling that we can actually gain what we value once again. Via love, we participate in committing to what we value and in working toward attaining it. Joy arises when we feel we are finally integrating with what we value. At the top of the circle we experience genuine exhilaration and happiness, reflecting a positive, high tension.

Figure 1 and its descriptions help us understand L2 learners. For instance, these learners feel shame when perceiving themselves unable to accomplish anything valuable in L2 learning. They experience envy when someone else can perform in the L2 better than they. They are hopeful when they feel they might someday be able to use the language effectively. They experience joy when they attain what they value, a desired level of proficiency and the self-efficacy and confidence to go with it. All of the emotions described by van Deurzen can apply to L2 learners, although the salience and frequency of the emotions will vary across learners and across time.

Anxiety is not specifically shown in Figure 1. van Deurzen (2012) indicated that anxiety is "a more general and basic experience" (p. 153). As noted earlier, van Deurzen described anxiety as being negatively expressed in anguish and positively expressed in excitement. She also stated, "The emotional cycle swings downwards from possession of something that is deeply valued, and considered essential, to its loss and eventual absence. The emotional cycle swings upwards from the sense of emptiness of existence through a lack of what is valued to an aspiration to obtain what is desired and to fulfillment in its ultimate possession" (van Deurzen, 2012, p. 153).

Figure 1 and its explanation imply that L2 learners who experience negative emotions, such as despair, fear, sorrow, shame, and envy, can hope to experience positive emotions, which are part of the same cycle. There is a "potential for transformation of destructive emotional experience to constructive emotional experience" (van Deurzen, p. 153). van Deurzen cautioned that loss and gain are not the same as failure and success and that letting go is as important as building up. She disparaged positive psychology's tools, which she considered to be overly simplistic techniques and one-sided solutions. Nevertheless, some positive psychology strategies, along with the psychospiritual concepts presented next and the theory of resilience mentioned

earlier, might help suffering L2 learners transform negative emotions to positive ones.

PSYCHOSPIRITUAL THEORIES OF EMOTION

Change, suffering, meditation, and peak experiences are psychospiritual elements relevant to L2 learning. Let us start with change, which individuals often experience as they learn a new language and culture. Change can be very stressful. "Change involves challenging what is familiar to us and daring to question our traditional needs for safety, comfort, and control. This is often perceived as a painful experience. Becoming familiar with this pain is part of your growth. Even though you might not like the feelings of inner disturbance, you must be able to sit quietly inside and face them if you want to see where they come from" (Singer, 2007, p. 99). From a psychospiritual standpoint, Singer's (2007) ideas imply that if L2 learners hide from their emotions, it is like protecting themselves from a thorn. The protective mechanisms become increasingly elaborate and ultimately harmful.

Instead, L2 learners should feel the negative emotions, learn from them, and then let them go. "If you want to be free of these energies, you must allow them to pass through you . . ." (Singer, 2007, p. 86), while learning from and respecting these negative emotions. "If you maintain your center, you can learn to appreciate and respect even the most difficult [emotional] experiences" (p. 86). Singer noted that some of the most exquisite poetry, art, and music have come from people experiencing emotional turmoil. "You can experience these very human [negative emotional] states without getting lost in them or resisting them . . ." (p. 86).

Spiritual sage Deepak Chopra (2004) addressed suffering, which involves a combination of negative emotions. "Suffering is pain that we hold on to" based on the mind's judgment that the pain cannot be escaped or that we deserve it (p. 65). "The secret cause of suffering is unreality itself" (p. 66), based on overlooking actual facts, adopting a negative perception, reinforcing that perception by obsessive thinking, getting lost in the pain without looking for a way out, comparing self to others, and cementing the suffering through relationships. Chopra argued that "there has to be detachment, making sure that suffering, no matter how real, isn't the *dominant* reality" (p.72). This is similar to Singer's suggestion of experiencing the negative emotions but making sure to let them go. Such detachment does not signify a detachment from the world of meaning and purpose (see van Deurzen, 2012); instead, it is a way back to that world.

Reaching out to others though loving-kindness meditation (Hutcherson, Seppala, & Gross, 2008) is an important psychospiritual step that L2 learners can take for experiencing a sense of well-being and sharing positive feelings. The meditator allows whatever negative feelings that might arise to go by without holding onto them, similarly to what was suggested by Singer and Chopra. He or she focuses on loving-kindness, or caring about others. When meditation is used as contemplative inquiry, knowing can be transformed into

love (Zajonc, 2009). Thus, meditation can release negative emotions and ground the individual in a much more positive way of being. Some L2 teachers teach learners to use the meditation-like affective strategy of slowly taking a deep breath and releasing it (Oxford, 1990), thus letting go of anxiety, sadness, and other negative emotions and gaining the possibility of more positive emotional states.

Maslow (1970) described peak experiences as transient but powerful moments of self-actualization. A peak experience is "a great and mystical experience, a religious experience if you wish – an illumination, a revelation, an insight . . . [leading to] 'the cognition of being,' . . . the cognition that Plato and Socrates were talking about; almost, you could say, a technology of happiness, of pure excellence, pure truth, pure goodness" (Maslow, 1971, p. 169). Peak experiences are especially joyous, exciting, ego-transcending moments in life, involving sudden feelings of intense happiness or ecstasy, creativity, meaning, well-being, wonder, awe, love, unity, empathy, limitlessness, and timelessness. In peak experiences, the person feels simultaneously more powerful and also more helpless than ever before (Maslow, 1970). Maslow (1971) indicated: "most people, or perhaps all people, have peak experiences, or ecstasies" (p. 168). There are countless triggers for peak experiences, such as deep meditation, great art, classical music, sex, dancing, natural childbirth, body-reverence, the beauty of nature, and even studying mathematics or science from an aesthetic viewpoint (Maslow, 1970, 1971). Peak experiences can never be a goal; they are byproducts of engaging fully in something meaningful. In analyzing L2 learner histories, Oxford and Cuéllar (2014) and Oxford, Pacheco Acuña, Solís Hernández, and Smith (2014) found that several successful learners had peak experiences. These experiences, permeated by a sense of joy, love, and excitement, were gained through interacting with teachers, fellow students, and native speakers in the target culture and experiencing the richness of the language.

L2 learners can benefit from these psychospiritual approaches. Letting go of negative emotions is an important first step. Meditating and using the affective strategy of deep-breathing are other ways to bring emotions under personal control. Openness to peak experiences is a significant psychospiritual gift.

CONCLUSION

This article has focused on a number of theories of emotion relevant to L2 learning. The perspectives started with the theory of resilience and moved to emotional intelligence theory. These were followed by two associated theories: well-being theory in positive psychology and the theory of flow. Next we came to the theory of emotion in existential psychotherapy and finally psychospiritual theories of emotion. Each of these theories has implications for L2 learners, who experience a very wide array of emotions as they attempt to develop language proficiency. Much more could be written about each of these theories, but in this

brief article I have offered initial keys to open emotion-related doors for L2 learners, teachers, and researchers.

NOTE

1. I also discuss other theories of emotion elsewhere. See "Neuroscientific, Cognitive, and Complexity Theories of Emotions Relevant to Language Learning" (Oxford, forthcoming-b) and "Social Psychological, Social Constructivist, Social Constructionist, and Critical-Poststructuralist Theories with Implications for Emotions of Language Learners" (Oxford, forthcoming-c).

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(De)Motivation in Preparatory EFL Classrooms

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This survey study aimed to explore EFL learners' (de)motivation in the preparatory classes at a tertiary institution in Northern Cyprus. It administered questionnaires to 105 preparatory learners and 30 language teachers. The statistical analysis revealed the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of .88 for the Learners' version, and .89 for the Teachers' version of the questionnaire. The analysis of the language learners' self-reports showed an overall adequate level of their motivation, whereas the teachers' perceptions were less positive. Importantly, the findings of the present survey indicated congruence between the participants' positive survey reports in terms of the Teacher factor. However, the learners' self-reports on low motivational level in terms of self-confidence, and the teachers' perceptions of their learners' lack of motivation in terms of the attitude of group members, attitude to English, the language course, as well as self-confidence warranted attention. These results are discussed in relation to the pertinent literature, and pedagogical implications are suggested for the language institution in the context of the survey.

INTRODUCTION

The research to date on learner motivation in language learning has grown in volume over the past decades (Benson, 1991; Dörnyei, 2001b, 2005; Ehrman, Leaver, & Oxford, 2003; Gardner, 1980, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Graham, 2004; Humphreys & Spratt, 2008; Liu, 2007; Ushida, 2005; Wright & McGrory, 2005). A plethora of studies has investigated multiple dimensions of motivation across three major frameworks: socio-psychological perspective (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1959), educational perspective (Dörnyei, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997), and process-oriented

perspective (Dörnyei, 2000). Motivation, "a desire to learn the second language, attitudes toward learning it, and a correspondingly high level of effort expended toward this end" (Gardner, 1978, p. 9), has widely been accepted as an important determinant in successful language learning. However, Ellis (1985) argues that it is not certain whether motivation maintains successful learning or successful learning improves motivation. Moreover, the research to date has related motivation to strategy use in second language learning (Chang, 2005; Chou, 2002; Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Oxford & Nyikos, 1993) and to other individual learner differences (Ehrman, 2000; Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998; Ely, 1986; Eysenck, 1979; Young, 1998).

Dörnyei (2001c) mentions demotivation among new motivational themes in applied linguistics, but the pertinent research, especially involving both learners and teachers in EFL contexts, is scarce. This study attempted to explore English language learners' (de)motivation at the preparatory level at an English-medium tertiary institution in Northern Cyprus. It conducted a survey involving questionnaire administration to EFL learners and their teachers.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In a review of TESOL history, Canagarajah (2006, p. 14) acknowledged the contributions of the previous motivational theories, frameworks, and models and noted that although "both sets of constructs - intrinsic/extrinsic and integrative/instrumental motivation - give the impression that one only needs the right motivation to succeed in language acquisition," and that "there are serious sociocultural considerations that shape one's motivation and the power to attain one's objectives."

The process-oriented approach to motivation in second language learning (Dörnyei, 2000, 2001a) highlighted the dynamic and changing nature of L2 motivation. In light of the complexity of the language classroom, Dörnyei (2001a, p. 13) observed: "...no single motivational principle can possibly capture this complexity... Therefore, in order to understand why students behave as they do, we need a detailed and most likely eclectic construct that represents multiple perspectives." In the same vein, Ushioda (1996, p. 240) emphasized the importance of prolonged learning rather than stability in that "within the context of institutionalized learning especially, the common experience would seem to be motivational flux rather than stability." Further, the process-oriented model focusing on the temporal dimensional nature of motivation in second language learning conceived of motivation as emerging across three stages as follows: pre-actional (choice motivation), actional (executive motivation), and post-actional (evaluation) stages, each of them referring to motivational functions and main motivational influences, respectively (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

In line with Dörnyei (2000, 2001a) and Ushioda (1996), Canagarajah highlighted the "multiple, contradictory, and changing" nature of motivation, underscoring the influence of strategies for negotiation of contextual constraints on learners' motivation and mastery of the target language (2006, p. 14). The role of the teacher in this regard was emphasized by Ellis (2005, p. 42) as

follows: "Teachers also need to accept that it is their responsibility to ensure that their students are motivated and stay motivated and not bewail the fact that students lack motivation." Therefore, McDonough (2007) cautioned that trying not to demotivate learners presents a real challenge for teachers. Demotivation was defined as "specific external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioral intention or an ongoing action" (Dörnyei, 2001b, p. 143). Accordingly, the demotivated learner was described as

> Someone who was once motivated but has lost his or her commitment/ interest for some reason. Similarly to 'demotivation', we can also speak of 'demotives', which are the negative counterparts of 'motives': a motive increases an action tendency whereas a demotive decreases it. (Dörnyei, 2001b, p. 142)

The following factors were regarded as potentially demotivational: teachers' personalities, commitments, competence, teaching methods; inadequate school facilities (large class sizes, unsuitable level of classes or frequent change of teachers); reduced self-confidence due to learners' experience of failure or lack of success; negative attitude toward the foreign language studied; compulsory nature of the foreign language study; interference of another foreign language that learners are studying; negative attitude toward the community of the foreign language spoken; attitudes of group members; and course books used in class (Dörnyei, 1998).

In this regard, Gorham and Christophel (1992) conducted research on demotivation in university classes involving 308 students. By comparing their motivational and demotivational levels, the researchers found that the teachers' positive behavior was the only factor that contributed to the students' overall motivation, whereas the order of the reported demotives was as follows: the teachers' negative behavior, the course and material, the teachers' attitude toward students (being unapproachable, biased, self-centered, insulting, and condescending), the learners' dislike and perceived lack of relevance of the subject area, time of day, length of class, personal factors, and the physical appearance of the teacher. Importantly, Gorham and Christophel (1992) reported that whereas students perceived motivation as a learner-owned state, they perceived lack of motivation as a teacher-owned state. The researchers therefore suggested that language teachers could play an important role in minimizing learners' demotivation in class.

Subsequently, Chambers (1993) conducted a study on demotivation with 191 students and 7 teachers in Leeds, UK. Specifically, the research investigated students' feelings, likes, dislikes, as well as their approval, and/or disapproval of certain approaches. The study revealed that according to the teachers' questionnaire reports there were a number of demotivated students. The majority of the students found language learning important; whereas half of the students reported that they did not enjoy learning the language, and the other half that they did not mind learning it. Interestingly, the students blamed their teachers for giving unclear instructions, shouting at them when they did not

understand a subject, using old teaching materials, or criticizing them. Further, the study showed that the demotivated learners had very low self-esteem and needed extra attention and praise. Therefore, Chambers cautioned that demotivated learners "do not want to be ignored or given up as a bad job; in spite of their behavior, they want to be encouraged" (1993, p. 16).

Another pertinent study on demotivation in second language learning was carried out by Ushioda (1998) with 20 French learners in Ireland. The research focus was on demotivating factors affecting second language learners' learning experience. The study demonstrated that although the learners were intrinsically motivated, they did not seem to be extrinsically motivated in that their answers "overwhelmingly targeted negative aspects of the institutionalized learning framework, rather than personal factors such as failing grades or negative self-perceptions of ability" (Ushioda, 1998, p. 86). Further, Dörnyei (1998) conducted a study in Hungary with 50 students of English and German as a foreign language. The research focus was on those learners who had been perceived as demotivated by their peers or teachers. The analysis of the interview data revealed that the largest category of demotives was directly related to the teacher.

Muhonen (2004) examined the demotivational factors that discouraged learners of English in a Finnish comprehensive school in Jyväskylä. The study involved 91 ninth-graders of which 50 were males and 41 females. The demotivational factors that emerged from the findings of the study were the teacher, learning material, learner characteristics, school environment, and learners' attitudes towards the English language. The analysis of the students' writings showed that the following teacher-related factors were the primary source of demotivation: teaching methods, class activities, the teachers' lack of competence and organizational skills, the teachers' poor English skills, their personality, and lack of authority and dedication.

In addition, Gan, Humphreys, and Hamp-Lyons (2004) investigated successful and unsuccessful students' learning experience in Chinese universities. The study revealed that the successful students were intrinsically motivated for learning English, and that the internal drives led them to studying English, whereas the unsuccessful learners did not mention their motivational experiences and perceived their teachers' teaching as not supportive and boring. The study also demonstrated that the unsuccessful students were extrinsically motivated as they were studying for examinations, but the examination factor decreased their interest and persistence in learning English. The results of the study showed that the motivational tendency of the learners was related to their characteristics, which might be part of their demotivators.

In another EFL context, Falout and Maruyama (2004) examined whether the demotivating factors varied between the lower-proficiency and the higher-proficiency language learners. A questionnaire was used to survey 164 college students in Japan. The findings of the study revealed that both the lower-proficiency and the higher-proficiency college students lacked self-confidence, which was the most demotivating factor for those learners. The study also found

that the less proficient learners started to develop negative attitudes towards English much earlier than their more proficient peers.

Subsequently, Falout, Elwood, and Hood (2009) explored the demotivating factors related to learning English, and a relationship, if any, between learners' past demotivating experiences and their present language proficiencies. The study was carried out in Japan with 900 university students. The results indicated that external factors were perceived as sources of learners' demotivation in learning, and less-proficient learners were susceptible to demotivation. The study also reported that the students had very positive experiences with their previous teachers.

Another research in a Japanese context by Kikuchi and Sakai (2009) investigated external factors reducing learners' motivation. The study involved 112 learners of English. It focused on five demotivating factors such as course books, inadequate school facilities, test scores, non-communicative methods, and teachers' competence and teaching styles. The results showed that the least demotivating factor was inadequate school facilities and the other four factors seemed to be more loaded.

Bekleyen (2011) examined the demotivational factors affecting 74 learners of English as a foreign language at a state university in Turkey. The findings indicated that the students were demotivated because they could not find a purpose for learning English. The classroom atmosphere, lack of technology equipment, and teachers' teaching styles were among demotivating factors for the students.

Another pertinent study by Jomairi (2011) explored the main causes of demotivation for EFL learners in Iran. The study involved 189 male and female learners from three different universities. It found that the teacher factor was the most important source of demotivation in the learners' learning. Lack of self-confidence was the second source of demotivation; students reported difficulties passing examinations or meeting university admission requirements rather than in the learning itself or interacting with the target community.

Ghasemi and Kaivanpanah (2011) examined the demotivating factors of 327 Iranian students from a junior high school, a high school, and a university. The findings of the study revealed that the learning context, materials and facilities, attitude towards the English speaking community, the teacher, experience of failure, and attitude towards the target language learning were demotivating factors for the learners. The results also demonstrated that the teacher and the experience of failure affected the female learners more than the male learners, whereas attitudes towards the English speaking community demotivated the male learners more than the female learners.

Recently, Farmand and Rokni (2014) examined the main demotivating factors among EFL learners at the tertiary level in Iran. The findings of the study resulted in six main demotivating factors, with failure to do as desired being the most influential source of demotivation. In addition, the study found other important demotivating factors such as learning materials, environmental factors, teachers, and attitudes towards communication.

The current survey attempted to explore learners' (de)motivation in preparatory EFL classes at an English-medium university in Northern Cyprus. The survey involved questionnaire administration to language learners and their English teachers to address the following research questions:

1) To what extent are the preparatory EFL learners (de)motivated in their target language learning?

2) What are the teachers' perceptions of their language learner's (de)motivational level?

3) How do the two groups of survey reports compare?

METHOD

In this survey, we intended to collect comprehensive factual, behavioral, and attitudinal data on the participants (Dörnyei, 2007). We adapted and employed a questionnaire that was originally developed by Falout and Maruyama (2004) on the basis of nine demotivational factors suggested by Dörnyei (2001b). Our survey was conducted in the EFL preparatory classes at an English-medium university in Northern Cyprus. All degree programs of the university are accredited by the Council of Higher Education in Turkey; many of the programs are accredited by international accreditation bodies in USA and Europe, such as the Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology (ABET) and the Agency for Quality Assurance through Accreditation of Study Programs (AQAS).

At the university, students who have passed the university entrance examination and the English Proficiency Test enroll in their degree programs; students with inadequate English proficiency are placed in the beginners, elementary, pre-intermediate, and intermediate classes at the English Preparatory School. The language instruction at the preparatory level aims to equip learners with adequate English language knowledge and skills necessary for their studies in the academic programs. The curriculum in the EFL preparatory classes is aligned to Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)[1].

Participants

This study involved two groups who volunteered and gave their written consent to participation; for the sake of confidentiality, each participant was assigned a code.

The first group comprised 105 EFL learners, 69 male and 36 female, aged between 17-31. In the Background Information part of the questionnaire, some participants reported previous travel experience to an English-speaking country. The learners also stated prior English language learning from seven months to 10 years. Moreover, the participants came from a variety of L1 backgrounds: mainland Turkish, Cypriot Turkish, Arabic, Azeri, Persian, Tajik, Kazakh, Sakha, Turkmen, and Kurdish. The learners' prospective major areas were Sciences, Social Sciences, Architecture, and Medicine.

The second group involved English teachers at the Preparatory School. Of 30 teachers, 25 were female and five male, with educational backgrounds ranging from B.A. degrees in English Language Teaching (ELT) and English Literature and Humanities (ELH) to M.A. degrees in ELT and Education. Their ages ranged from 35 to 50; of the 30 instructors, 26 were non-native and four were native English speakers. The EFL teachers' professional experience ranged from 14 to 23 years.

Data Collection Instruments

The present study collected data through a questionnaire designed by Falout and Maruyama (2004) on the basis of the (de)motivational factors proposed by Dörnyei (2001b). In their study, Falout and Maruyama (2004) reduced nine (de)motivational factors to six factors, in that they discarded the inadequate school facilities factor to assume a uniformity of education and educational facilities. Further, the researchers (2004) collapsed the factors of large class sizes, unsuitable level of classes, compulsory nature of the foreign language study, and course book into one factor, courses. Because most of L2 learning is English and few learners study a third language, Falout and Maruyama (2004) also discarded the factor of another foreign language interference. Thus, their modified factor list comprised (1) teachers, (2) courses, (3) attitude toward L2 community, (4) attitude toward L2 itself, (5) self-confidence, and (6) attitude of group members. The questionnaire comprised 47 statements on a 6-point Likert scale where 1=Strongly Agree and 6=Strongly Disagree. All statements were positively worded and the study revealed a high degree of reliability of the questionnaire (.87).

For the context of the present study, Falout and Maruyama's (2004) questionnaire was modified and prepared in two versions: for the EFL learners and their teachers (see Appendixes 1 and 2). The instrument was based on six (de)motivational factors such as Teacher (items 5, 6, 7, 18, 19, 44), Course (items 1, 8, 10, 20, 21, 30, 38, 45), Attitude to the Target Community (items 2, 11, 12, 22, 23, 31, 32, 39, 40, 46), Attitude to English (items 3, 9, 13, 24, 25, 33, 34, 41, 47), Self-confidence (items 4, 14, 15, 26, 27, 35, 36, 42), and Attitude of Group Members (items 16, 17, 28, 29, 37, 43). Both versions of the questionnaire comprised 47 statements. Because the participants in the survey were familiar with a 5-point Likert scale, the questionnaire used a 5-point Likert scale: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly Agree. While the Students' version of the questionnaire explored the preparatory EFL learners' self-reports on (de)motivation, the Teachers' version examined the English teachers' perceptions of the learners' (de)motivational level. Both versions were analyzed for reliability, the Cronbach's Alpha scores of .88 for the Learners' version and .89 for the Teachers' version indicated an adequate level of internal consistency.

Data Collection Procedures

The data were collected through convenient sampling; after receiving official approval from the administration, the researchers contacted teachers and their students who were willing to participate in the survey. Both versions of the questionnaire were distributed to the respondents during regular classes and Students' Self-study Center (SSSC) sessions. The participants were informed of the purpose of the survey and non-disclosure of their identity in any reports, given instructions to complete the questionnaire, including the background information; invited to ask questions, if any, at any point during the administration procedure. The administration procedure took 15-20 minutes. Because of the exam week and students' community involvement projects, the data collection took approximately one month. All the participants returned the completed questionnaires to one of the researchers.

Data Analysis Procedure

The completed questionnaire reports of the participants were checked for identification before being entered into *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS), version 21. The same procedure was applied to the background information reports of the respondents. Subsequently, frequency counts were used to screen for possible wrong data entry and missing cases. In accordance with the research questions, the statistical analysis yielded descriptive statistics (mean, frequencies, and standard deviations) on the EFL preparatory learners' self-reports, and their instructors' perceptions of their learners' (de)motivational levels. Furthermore, the collected quantitative data were also analyzed through t-test and ANOVA in order to find out whether there was a statistically significant difference, if any, between and across the respondents' questionnaire reports in terms of (de)motivational level, as well as various learner and teacher variables.

RESULTS

The EFL Learners' Survey Reports

The average mean score of the EFL learners' survey reports, M=3.74 (see Appendix 1), seemed to indicate an adequate motivational level in the preparatory classes. The language learners in the present study provided positive responses to 36 items (averaging 3.50 or higher) and less positive responses to 11 items (averaging below 3.50). The preparatory learners were highly motivated in terms of Attitude to the Target Community and to the Teacher. They provided most positive responses to such items as *If I have the opportunity, I would like to visit a country where English is predominantly spoken* (Item 32, M=4.48, SD=.83), *I imagine I would have good experiences in countries where English is predominantly spoken* (Item 22, M=4.41, SD=.73), and *I like my English teachers* (Item 18, M=4.36, SD=.77) (see Appendix 1).

However, the EFL learners were less motivated in terms of Self-confidence, Attitude to English, and Attitude of Group Members. They provided the most unfavorable responses to such items as *I don't mind getting low grades in English* (Item 15, M=2.35, SD=1.18)*, I have been happy with my grades in English* (Item 26, M=3.20, SD=1.13)*, My classmates cooperate with me in learning* (Item 29, M=3.06, SD=1.05), and *I don't think there are so many complicated things to learn in English* (Item 41, M=3.21, SD=1.08) (see Appendix 1). Subsequently, t-test and ANOVA were applied to identify differences, if any, between and among the preparatory learners' survey reports in terms of the variables of gender, age, learning experiences, and major. It should be noted that the results of both tests did not reveal any statistically significant differences in this regard.

Further, the analysis of the overall means of the EFL learners' survey reports across six (de)motivational factors demonstrated that they were highly motivated in relation to their teachers (M=4.11, SD=.89), and adequately motivated in relation to attitude to the target community (M=3.99, SD=88) and attitude to English (M=3.72, SD=.98). Whereas the preparatory learners were moderately motivated in terms of the attitude of group members (M=3.58, SD=1.02) and the language course (M=3.56, SD=1.01), but they were less motivated (M=3.15, SD=1.02) in self-confidence (see Table 1).

Table 1
The EFL Learners' Survey Reports across Six (De)Motivational Factors

Factors	Mean	SD
Teacher	4.11	.89
Course	3.56	1.01
Attitude to the Target Community	3.99	.88
Attitude to English	3.72	.98
Self-confidence	3.15	1.02
Attitude of Group Members	3.58	1.02

The EFL Teachers' Survey Reports

The average mean score of the EFL teachers' survey reports, M=3.45, seemed to indicate that they perceived the learners to be moderately motivated in their learning (see Appendix 2). Specifically, the instructors expressed their favorable perceptions in relation to 19 items (averaging 3.50 or higher) and less favorable perceptions of 28 items (averaging below 3.50).

The language teachers perceived the learners to be highly motivated in terms of the Teacher factor, because they provided the most positive responses to such items as *My instructions are good and clear for my language learners* (Item 6, M=4.56, SD=.50), *I am helpful to my language learners* (Item 7, M=4.36, SD=.88)*,* and *I like my language learners* (Item 18, M=4.23, SD=.56). Whereas the instructors expressed their less favorable perceptions of students' Self-confidence and Attitude to English, they provided the most negative

responses to such items as *My language learners don't mind getting low grades in English* (Item 15, M=1.93, SD=.94), *In the past my language learners could find a way to learn English effectively* (Item 35, M=2.76, SD=.89), and *Even if English is not a compulsory subject, my language learners would choose to study it* (Item 10, M=2.83, SD=.94). Subsequently, t-test and ANOVA were applied to identify differences, if any, between and among the English teachers' survey reports in terms of gender, age, and professional experience. The results did not reveal any statistically significant differences in this regard.

Furthermore, the analysis of the overall means of the EFL teachers' survey reports across six (de)motivational factors showed that they perceived their language learners to be highly motivated in relation to teachers (M=4.12, SD=.67), moderately motivated in attitude to the target community (M=3.56, SD=.78), and less motivated in attitude of group members (M=3.47, SD=.89), attitude to English (M=3.38, SD=.81), the language course (M=3.28, SD=1.04), and self-confidence (M=3.03, SD=.89) (see Table 2).

Table 2
The EFL Teachers' Survey Reports across Six (De)Motivational Factors

Factors	Mean	SD
Teacher	4.12	.67
Course	3.28	1.04
Attitude to the Target Community	3.56	.78
Attitude to English	3.38	.81
Self-confidence	3.03	.89
Attitude of Group Members	3.47	.89

The EFL Learners' and Teachers' Survey Reports

Comparison of the respondents' survey reports revealed that the overall averages of the EFL learners' positive self-reports and the teachers' perceptions were congruent in the Teacher factor (M=4.11 and M=4.12, respectively). Further, the overall averages of the learners' and teachers' responses were congruent in the following factors: Attitude to the Target Community (M=3.99 and M=3.56, respectively), the Course (M=3.56 and M=3.28, respectively), and Self-confidence (M=3.15 and M=3.03, respectively). However, the overall averages of the participants' responses were not congruent in terms of Attitude to English (M=3.72 and M=3.38, respectively) and Attitude of Group Members (M=3.58 and M=3.47, respectively).

Except for the Teacher factor, the instructors consistently saw learners as less motivated across the other factors than the learners saw themselves. The findings suggested an adequate motivational level and a promising degree of congruence between the participants. However, the learners' self-reported low motivational level of self-confidence, and the teachers' perceptions of the

learners' lack of motivation regarding attitude of group members, attitude to English, the language course, and self-confidence warranted attention.

        Further, t-test was applied to the survey data in order to identify if there was any statistically significant difference between the EFL learners' self-reports and their language instructors' perceptions. In this regard, a significant level of .05 was established as the confidence level. The survey items with a p-value less than .05 ($p<.05$) were identified as different in terms of statistical significance (see Table 3).

Table 3
The Most Statistically Significant Difference between the EFL Learners'(L) and Teachers'(T) Survey Reports

Item description	Mean L/T	SD L/T	p-value
2. Like English-speaking countries	4.26/3.46	.83/.63	.000
22.Imagine good experiences in English-speaking countries	4.41/3.30	.73/1.20	.000
46.Want to know more about English-speaking countries	4.07/3.43	.95/.72	.000
33.Interested in learning English	4.15/3.40	.98/.89	.000
47.Not bothered about having to learn things in English	3.78/3.06	1.03/.82	.000
4.Confident in learning English	4.04/3.06	.88/.82	.000
29.Classmates' cooperation	3.06/3.96	1.05/.55	.000
6. Teachers' instructions good and clear	4.11/4.56	.89/.50	.001

        The analysis identified a statistically significant difference between the teachers' and students' responses in Attitude to the Target Community factor, especially item 2 (*liking the countries where English is predominantly spoken*, $p<.05$), item 22 (*imagining to have good experiences in countries where English is predominantly spoken*, $p<.05$), and item 46 (*wanting to know more about the countries/cultures where English is predominantly spoken*, $p<.05$). The language learners' self-reports in relation to these items were consistently more positive than their teachers' perceptions of the learners' motivational level.

Further, the analysis demonstrated another statistically significant difference between the respondents' reports in Attitude to the English Language, specifically item 33 (*interest in learning English*, p<.05), and item 47 (*not being bothered about having to learn things in English*, p<.05). In the same vein, the preparatory learners' self-reported motivational levels in this regard were consistently higher than those perceived by their teachers. The analysis also showed a statistically significant difference between the learners' self-reports and teachers' perceptions in terms of the Self-confidence factor, especially in relation to item 4 (*confidence in learning English*, p<.05).

The participants' survey responses to the Attitude of Group Members factor and to the Teacher factor revealed that the teachers' perceptions of the learners' motivational level were more positive than the learners' self-reports in two statistically significant items, item 29 (*language learners' cooperation with their peers in learning*, p<.05) and item 6 (*teachers' instructions being good and clear for language learners*, p<.05).

Learner and Teacher Variables

Although no statistically significant difference was established between and among the participants' survey reports in terms of learner and teacher individual differences, we acknowledged their mediating role in this regard. Therefore, we examined the pertinent data regarding the overall means of the respective survey reports. Comparison of the EFL learners' and teachers' variables of gender, age, learning/professional experience, and prospective major for the learners revealed the following findings.

Gender

The survey reports suggested that both female learners (M=3.78, SD=.963) and teachers (M=3.46, SD=0.86) were somewhat more positive in their responses than their male counterparts (M=3.72, SD=.963 and M=3.37, SD=0.76, respectively). Further, the female learners reported to be at a high motivational level because of the Teacher factor, which was similar to the responses from female and male instructors. In comparison, the male learners reported to be highly motivated because of the Attitude to the Target Community factor. Regarding the least positive survey responses, interestingly, both female and male learners indicated they were at a low motivational level predominantly in relation to factors of Attitude to English, Self-confidence, and the Attitude of Group Members.

Age

Interestingly the youngest learners (M=3.75, SD=.96) seemed to be most motivated as compared to their older (M=3.69, SD=.96) counterparts. Whereas it was the older language teachers (M=3.51, SD=.82) who reported somewhat more positive perceptions of their learners' motivational level as

compared to their youngest (M=3.30, SD=.87) counterparts. The most positive survey response from the learners, regardless of age, was a high motivational level in relation to the Attitude to the Target Community factor, whereas the teachers perceived the learners to be highly motivationed because of the Teacher factor. For both learners and teachers, the least positive response was the Self-confidence factor, which led to low motivation.

Language Learning and Teaching experiences

The language learners with more experiences expressed a higher degree of motivational level than their less experienced counterparts. In the same vein, the more experienced instructors held more positive perceptions of their learners' motivational level than their less experienced counterparts. Learning and teaching experiences did not seem to influence the participants' most positive responses to the factors of the Attitude to the Target Community and the Teacher, or the least positive response to the Self-confidence factor.

Major

Finally, prospective majors in Medicine (M=4.13, SD=.721) reported to be overall highly motivated, which could be accounted for by the fact that English was the medium of instruction at the Medical Faculty, and that the student body included many international students for whom English was a common means of communication. Prospective majors in the Social Sciences (M=3.85, SD=.947) and Architecture (M=3.62, SD=.906) reported an adequate level of motivation because these majors required an extensive use of English. Prospective Sciences majors (M=3.56, SD=1.00) reported a moderate motivational level because of less demanding English requirements of their programs.

DISCUSSION

In this survey, the EFL learners' positive self-reports seemed to indicate an adequate motivational atmosphere in the preparatory classes. Our result was at variance with the related findings in the previous studies where language learners reported an overall low motivational level in English language learning (Bekleyen, 2011; Chambers, 1993; Gorham and Christophel, 1992; Dörnyei, 1998; Falout, Elwood & Hood, 2009; Muhonen, 2004; Ushioda, 1998). In addition, the learners in the present study were highly motivated in terms of their attitudes to the target community, which was somewhat consistent with the study results of Ghasemi and Kaivanpanah (2011).

Moreover, our finding of the language learners' high motivation related to their teachers was at variance with the results in Chambers (1993), Gorham and Christophel (1992), Dörnyei (1998), Farmand and Rokni (2014), Gan, Humpreys, and Hamp-Lyons (2004), Jomairi (2011), Kikuchi and Sakai (2009), and Muhonen (2004), which predominantly reported their language learners'

inadequate motivational level in relation to their teachers. Furthermore, the low motivational level of the EFL learners due to self-confidence and attitude of group members in the present survey supported the related results in Chambers (1993), Falout and Maruyama (2004), Jomairi (2011), and Dörnyei (1998), which reported that the EFL learners in these studies were demotivated by getting low grades and their peers' lack of co-operation.

The teachers' survey results indicated that they perceived the learners to be moderately motivated in learning. The instructors observed that the learners were most motivated because of their teachers and least motivated due to low self-confidence. Learners reported to have an adequate motivational level, but the teachers' perceptions of the learners' motivational level were consistently lower than what the learners reported. Further, the survey responses demonstrated congruence in terms of the learners' highest motivation due to the Teacher factor, and the least motivation in terms of the Self-confidence factor. The teachers' perceptions of the learners' low motivation because of the attitude of group members, attitude to English, the language course, and self-confidence warranted attention.

The findings of the present survey were at some variance with the findings of Falout and Maruyama's (2004) survey administered to Japanese EFL learners. The language learners in both surveys self-reported that they were least motivated in terms of self-confidence in learning the English language. The analysis showed that the EFL learners in both instructional contexts reported a high degree of motivation in the Attitude to the Target Community factor but a moderate and an inadequate motivational level in relation to the Course factor respectively. The current survey suggested that the language learners were highly motivated, whereas the Japanese learners were somewhat motivated in relation to the Teacher factor. Regarding Attitude to English, the EFL learners in this survey were adequately motivated, whereas in the Japanese context inadequately motivated. With regard to the Attitude of Group Members, the language learners in this study were inadequately motivated, whereas the Japanese learners were adequately motivated.

The high motivational level of the learners in relation to the Teacher factor in this study suggested a good rapport between teachers and learners. In addition, learners in the present study expressed a positive attitude to English, which was consonant with their positive attitude to the target community. Language teachers might have played an important role in this regard. The teachers' perceptions of learners' low motivation caused by attitude of group members, attitude to English, the language course, and self-confidence warranted further examination.

The current study has its limitations. The survey relied on one tool – a questionnaire administration to EFL learners and teachers, which provided only quantitative data. The questionnaire that was based on a 5-point Likert-scale did not include open-ended items to elicit qualitative responses. Moreover, the study did not involve any observation in order to obtain a comprehensive picture of the EFL learners' (de)motivational level in class. However, we believe that employment of a reliable data collection instrument, as well as involvement of a

statistically adequate number of the learner and teacher participants, provided reliable results for this survey. Future research on EFL learners' (de)motivational level in preparatory classes may add interviews with language teachers and learners to obtain qualitative insights; further investigate EFL teachers' and learners' views on (de)motivation in relation to other individual variables; and involve a larger number of participants for a more comprehensive survey.

CONCLUSION

The current study explored the (de)motivational levels of the EFL preparatory learners at an English medium tertiary institution in Northern Cyprus. By administering a survey to the preparatory learners and their English teachers, we collected comprehensive quantitative data on the learners' self-reports as well as the teachers' perceptions of learners' (de)motivational level. Further, we also investigated the survey responses in relation to the participants' gender, age, and language learning or teaching experiences, in addition to learners' prospective majors. Finally, the study compared the participants' responses regarding the (de)motivational levels of the learners.

This study contributes to the limited research on (de)motivation in language learning, especially involving learners and teachers in EFL contexts. The survey has provided the field of language education with pertinent novel data and insights. In addition, it has provided the language institution where the survey was conducted with comprehensive data on learner (de)motivation, made recommendations for improving language instruction, and proposed further research at the preparatory level. The study has identified factors that affect learners' motivation and called for prompt consideration and action on the part of both language teachers and administration.

The EFL learners' (de)motivational levels at the language institution are likely to change over the course of their further learning experiences (Dörnyei, 2000; Ushioda, 1996). Hence, language teachers' perceptions of learners' (de)motivational levels will change as well. Our results suggested that, as noted by Canagarajah (2006), the preparatory learners' respective sociocultural context may have shaped their (de)motivation across various factors. Finally, we acknowledge that the participants' individual characteristics may have affected their self-reports and perceptions.

NOTE

1. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) was developed to provide a common basis for the explicit description of objectives, content, and methods in second/foreign language education.
The CEFR
*   adopts an action-oriented approach, describing language learning outcomes in terms of language use;
*   has three principal dimensions: language activities, the domains in which they occur, and the competences on which we draw when we engage in them;
*   divides language activities into four kinds: reception (listening and reading), production (spoken and written), interaction (spoken and written), and mediation (translating and interpreting); and
*   provides a taxonomic description of four domains of language use – public, personal, educational, professional – for each of which it specifies locations, institutions, persons, objects, events, operations, and texts.

For reception, production, interaction, and some competences the CEFR defines six common reference levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2), using "can do" descriptors to define the learner/user's proficiency at each level. The common reference levels provide a basis for comparing second/foreign language curricula, textbooks, courses and exams. Together with the rest of the CEFR's descriptive apparatus, they can also be used to support the design of curricula, teaching programs, learning materials, and assessment instruments (Council of Europe, 2014).

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APPENDIX 1

The EFL Learners' Survey Reports

Rank	Item	Description	Mean	SD
1st	32	If I have the opportunity, I would like to visit a country where English is predominantly spoken	4.48	.83
2nd	22	I imagine I would have good experiences in countries where English is predominantly spoken	4.41	.73
3rd	18	I like my English teachers	4.36	.77
4th	34	If given the opportunity, I would like to see how well I could really speak English	4.32	.72
5th	5	My teacher helps me to solve problems in my English learning	4.27	.92
6th	7	My teachers are helpful to me	4.27	.76
7th	2	I like the countries where English is predominantly spoken (Britain, Australia, USA, Canada)	4.26	.83
8th	40	If possible, I would like to make friends with a native speaker of English	4.26	.78
9th	33	I'm interested in learning English	4.15	.98
10th	6	My teachers' instructions are good and clear	4.11	.89
11th	42	I am not embarrassed using English in my classes	4.08	.82
12th	46	I want to know more about the countries/cultures where English is predominantly spoken	4.07	.95
13th	4	I am confident in learning English	4.04	.88
14th	19	I like the way my teachers taught English to me	4.04	.89
15th	3	I like the sound of spoken English	3.97	.89
16th	24	Learning English is an exciting activity for me	3.94	.95
17th	39	The more I learn about countries where English is predominantly spoken, the more I like studying English	3.88	.96
18th	28	I don't feel inferior to my classmates because of my English ability	3.87	.90
19th	43	I like everyone in my group/classroom	3.83	1.13
20th	23	I have had a good impression of the people from the countries where English is predominantly spoken	3.81	.94
21st	47	The things I have to learn in English don't bother me	3.78	1.03

22nd	17	My classmates have not distracted me from studying English in class	3.72	1.04
23rd	36	I have not had embarrassing experiences in my English classes	3.72	1.00
24th	1	My classes go at an appropriate pace for me	3.70	.86
25th	11	I like the people from the countries where English is predominantly spoken	3.68	.90
26th	31	I have had a good impression of the countries where English is predominantly spoken	3.64	1.02
27th	38	The size of my English classes is appropriate	3.63	1.03
28th	44	My teachers teach me what I want to learn about English	3.62	1.12
29th	21	The English textbooks I have used are easy to understand	3.62	.85
30th	25	Learning English is not a painful task for me	3.61	1.02
31st	8	The level of my English classes is adequate for me	3.60	1.00
32nd	10	Even if English is not a compulsory subject, I would choose to study it	3.59	1.25
33rd	30	The English textbooks I have used are at my level	3.59	.85
34th	14	I was confident in learning English before/when I started my English classes here	3.58	1.09
35th	16	My classmates have not laughed at me because of my English ability	3.51	1.02
36th	20	I like the textbooks I use for my English classes	3.51	1.09
37th	37	I don't get demotivated by embarrassing experiences in class	3.49	.99
38th	12	I like the cultures of the countries where English is predominantly spoken	3.44	.94
39th	27	When faced with a problem in my English studies, I can get past it easily	3.40	.89
40th	9	I like how English grammar is constructed	3.30	1.03
41st	45	I don't think the number of English classes I have to take each week are too many	3.29	1.16
42nd	35	In the past I could find a way to learn English effectively	3.25	1.03
43rd	13	I like how English words are spelled	3.24	1.13
44th	41	I don't think there are so many complicated things to learn in English	3.21	1.08

45th	26	I have been happy with my grades in English	3.20	1.13
46th	29	My classmates cooperate with me in learning	3.06	1.05
47th	15	I don't mind getting low grades in English	2.35	1.18
		Overall Mean	3.74	

APPENDIX 2

The EFL Teachers' Survey Reports

Rank	Item	Description	Mean	SD
1st	6	My instructions are good and clear for my language learners	4.56	.50
2nd	7	I am helpful to my language learners	4.36	.88
3rd	18	I like my language learners	4.23	.56
4th	32	If given the opportunity, my language learners would like to see how well they can really speak English	4.10	.71
5th	5	I help my language learners to solve problems in English	4.03	.71
6th	40	If possible, my language learners would like to make friends with a native speaker of English	4.00	.78
7th	29	My language learners cooperate with their peers in learning	3.96	.55
8th	19	I like the way my language learners learn English	3.93	.52
9th	38	The size of my English classes is appropriate	3.90	1.12
10th	42	My language learners are not embarrassed using English in my classes	3.83	.83
11th	36	My language learners have not had embarrassing experiences in their English classes	3.76	1.04
12th	11	My language learners like the people from the countries where English is predominantly spoken	3.70	.70
13th	3	My language learners like the sound of spoken English	3.66	.59
14th	34	If given the opportunity, my language learners would like to see how well they could really speak English	3.63	.92

15th	44	I teach my language learners what they want to learn about English	3.63	.88
16th	43	My language learners like everyone in their group/classroom	3.63	.88
17th	28	My language learners don't feel inferior to their classmates because of their English ability	3.56	.77
18th	12	My language learners like the cultures of the countries where English is predominantly spoken	3.56	.72
19th	1	My classes go at an appropriate pace for my language learners	3.50	1.00
20th	8	The level of my English classes is adequate for my language learners	3.46	1.13
21st	2	My language learners like the countries where English is predominantly spoken (Britain, Australia, USA, Canada).	3.46	.68
22nd	9	My language learners like how English grammar is constructed	3.46	.81
23rd	46	My language learners want to know more about the countries/cultures where English is predominantly spoken	3.43	.72
24th	31	My language learners have had a good impression of the countries where English is predominantly spoken	3.40	.67
25th	41	I don't think there are so many complicated things for my language learners to learn in English	3.40	.89
26th	33	My language learners are interested in learning English	3.40	.89
27th	39	The more my language learners learn about countries where English is predominantly spoken, the more they like studying English	3.36	.92
28th	23	My language learners have had a good impression of the people from the countries where English is predominantly spoken	3.36	.71
29th	24	Learning English is an exciting activity for my language learners	3.30	.87
30th	22	My language learners would have good experiences in countries where English is predominantly spoken	3.30	1.20
31st	13	My language learners like how English words are spelled	3.30	.79
32nd	21	The English textbooks I have used are	3.30	1.05

		easy to understand		
33rd	16	My language learners have not laughed at each other because of their English ability	3.26	1.01
34th	25	Learning English is not a painful task for my language learners	3.26	.78
35th	37	My language learners don't get demotivated by embarrassing experiences in class	3.23	1.07
36th	17	My language learners have not distracted each other from studying English in class	3.23	1.07
37th	20	I like the textbooks I use for my English classes	3.20	.92
38th	47	The things my language learners have to learn in English don't bother them	3.06	.82
39th	45	I don't think the number of English classes my language learners have to take each week are too many	3.06	1.31
40th	27	When faced with a problem in their English studies, my language learners can get past it easily	3.06	.98
41st	30	The English textbooks I have used are at their level	3.06	.86
42nd	4	My language learners are confident in learning English	3.06	.82
43rd	14	My language learners were confident in learning English before/when I started teaching it	3.00	.87
44th	26	My language learners are happy with their grades in English	2.86	.77
45th	10	Even if English is not a compulsory subject, my language learners would choose to study it	2.83	.94
46th	35	In the past my language learners could find a way to learn English effectively	2.76	.89
47th	15	My language learners don't mind getting low grades in English	1.93	.94
		Overall Mean	3.35	

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Pedagogical Perspectives on Gendered Speech Styles in the Teaching and Learning of Japanese as a Foreign Language

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This study examines student perspectives on gender differences in Japanese speech. Expanding on a small-scale survey by Siegal & Okamoto (2003) that investigated the views of eleven Japanese-language college teachers, this study analyzes 238 questionnaire responses from 220 Japanese-language students at four universities and a US government language school, [1] and 18 Japanese-language teachers. [2] The results of the survey demonstrate that outside the classroom, 88% of students were exposed to gendered speech styles through the media: television, magazines, and cartoons. In-class discussion with teachers, however, was the primary method for learning about these different speech styles. Half of the student participants responded that gendered speech styles should be taught in the classroom because they are characteristic of traditional culture and the Japanese-language. The other half disagreed, asserting that speech styles are an individual's choice, and that the use of gendered speech styles is antiquated, prejudiced, and sexist. The findings suggest that a teacher needs to enhance students' knowledge of speech variations within-gender and their awareness of the link between linguistic forms and social meanings, in order to promote sociolinguistic and sociocultural competence. This will help students use appropriate speech styles in interacting with different people, while learning to choose and construct their own identities through newly-acquired language.

As Japanese language and gender studies have increasingly focused on ideologies of women's language, researchers have conducted critical discourse analysis of Japanese-language textbooks and the pedagogy of Japanese-as-a-foreign-language (Kumagai, 2008; Matsumoto & Okamoto, 2003; Ohara, Saft & Crookes, 2001; Siegal & Okamoto, 2003). Examining the homogenous representation of the Japanese language and culture in textbooks, researchers

have expressed concern about them because they may engender ideological associations between linguistic norms and traditional gender roles. They therefore advise teachers to aid students in the expansion of their sociolinguistic and sociocultural knowledge in order to adapt their language use to various situations and interactions.

These studies also call for an examination of learners' views toward gendered speech styles and their place in the study of Japanese-as-a-foreign-language. Previous studies on learners' perceptions of gendered language were limited to a small number of students residing in Japan (Endo, 1991; Siegal, 1994, 1996). The current study elicited and examined responses from 220 students in Japanese-language courses at four universities in the San Francisco Bay Area and a US government language school in California, as well as those from 18 Japanese-language teachers. This paper focuses on student responses; the teacher responses will be discussed in a separate paper.

A survey questionnaire was used to elicit responses. Students were asked whether they were aware of gender differences in speech, how and where they observed the gender styles, and what they thought of female or male speech style.

Whereas the awareness and views of speech styles have little effect on a learner's linguistic competence, knowing his/her awareness and views helps teachers understand a learner's motivation and attitudes in learning a second language. Motivation and attitude contribute to the development of language proficiency. One example is the Hernández study (2008), which showed that Spanish L2 learners' "integrative motivation"[3] played a significant role in developing oral proficiency.

The current study finds that students have different views toward gendered speech styles. Their interpretation of the speech styles influences their choice and use of language. Because linguistic forms accompany social meanings, it is important to develop learners' sociolinguistic and sociocultural competence. Making students aware of the gendered speech styles will help them differentiate their own speech styles in various communication situations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Japanese women and men speak differently, using women's or men's language – typically represented by the choice of sentence-final forms (e.g., *wa* – commonly categorized as the feminine form, and *da* – as the masculine form), address terms, self-reference terms, intonations, and honorifics (Kindaichi, 1982; McGloin, 1990; Mizutani & Mizutani, 1987; Shibamoto, 1985; Shibatani, 1990). These language distinctions are integrated into stereotypically different social and gender roles and behaviors (Ide, 1979). The women's language is believed to imply gentleness, indirectness, and politeness (e.g., Horii, 1990; Ide, 1982; Shibamoto, 1985).

Recent research, however, shows a considerable disparity between women's normative language and women's actual use of the language. Japanese women's actual speech is much more diverse with within-gender variations. Contemporary young Japanese women often forgo the use of so-called "feminine" forms and adopt the use of "masculine" forms (Kobayashi, 1993; Matsumoto, 1996; Mizumoto, 2006; Mizumoto, Fukumori, & Takada, 2008; Okamoto, 1994, 1995; Okamoto & Sato, 1992; Takasaki, 2002). Teenage girls, in particular, use gender-transgressing language and behaviors to resist traditional femininity (Miller, 2004). Researchers also find that women who have gained positions of authority in the professions strategically manipulate a diverse range of speech forms – sometimes polite and sometimes assertive (Abe, 2000; Smith, 1992; Sunaoshi, 1994).

Recent studies reveal that "women's language" was historically, ideologically, and culturally constructed during Japan's modernization period (Inoue, 1994, 2006; Nakamura, 2003, 2007). This idea of gendered language as an ideologically constructed norm is crucial when we reconsider the widely accepted connection between gendered speech styles and Japanese culture, and think critically about *Nihonjinron* (Theories on Japanese). The linguistic norms based on a female-male speech dichotomy and traditional gender roles are often cavalierly regarded as part of the unique Japanese culture and language. As Tai (2003) points out, it is important to critically examine our own preconceptions of Japanese language and culture.

Siegal's study (1994, 1996) reveals that learners' linguistic identities, such as those of Western women living in Japanese society, were affected by their own views of "women's language," and their awareness of the social meanings and the traditional femininity associated with the language.

In three natural conversations with native Japanese speakers, Siegal (1994) finds that speakers choose different linguistic forms following their hypotheses. For example, Sally, a 21-year-old college student, uses the plain form of verbs, avoiding the use of polite and stereotypical feminine forms, although she knows that women differentiate their speech styles depending on people and situations. Siegal points out that Sally's decision not to use the polite form (*desu/masu*) and honorifics reflects a negative view toward women's language, which is associated with "soft," "feminine," and "cute" characteristics in Japanese society.

Similarly, 25-year-old Arina views traditional Japanese femininity as "humility," and expresses a negative attitude toward the use of honorifics associated with humble behavior. She asks why women cannot use the male language. Arina prefers the polite form and Sino-Japanese words.[4] Her frequent use of Sino-Japanese words and her avoidance of sentence-final pragmatic particles such as *ne* characterize her speech as "stiff" (Siegal 1994, p. 646).

The oldest speaker, 45-year-old Mary, uses the Japanese epistemic modal *deshoo* to express politeness while presenting herself professionally as a high-school teacher. According to Siegal (1996), Mary's non-use of honorifics and her unawareness of multiple semantic-pragmatic facets of the use of *deshoo*

characterize her speech as too judgmental in conversations with her Japanese superiors. This was contrary to Mary's intention to express politeness.

Siegal's study (1994) highlights the necessity of developing learners' sociolinguistic competence and sociocultural awareness while considering their positions in society. According to Ochs' study (1993), the use of particular linguistic forms indirectly indexes social meanings, such as sociocultural beliefs about the linguistic behaviors of men and women. For example, the so-called feminine form *wa* directly signifies "delicate intensity" and indirectly signifies "female voice," which is then associated with a stereotype of women in society. In contrast, one of the "masculine" forms *ze* directly signifies "coarse intensity" and indirectly signifies "male voice" (p. 151), creating its own sociocultural implications.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study examines American students' perceptions of gendered speech patterns in Japanese. The research questions are:

1. Are learners aware of different gendered speech patterns, including the choice of sentence-final forms such as *wa*, *no*, *kashira*, *da, ze*, or *zo*, honorifics, and referential terms such as *"atashi," "boku,"* or *"ore"* outside of the classroom?

2. Do students learn gendered speech patterns in class and, if so, how do they learn them?

3. What are the learners' views, including their motivations and attitudes, toward learning and/or using gendered speech patterns?

METHOD

Participants

The sample consisted of 197 university students enrolled in Japanese-language courses at four universities in the San Francisco Bay Area and 23 students from the U. S. government language school. The universities are designated by the letters (A), (B), (C), (D), and the government language school by the letter (E). There were 99 female and 121 male students. Fifty two (52) students were enrolled in beginning, 149 in intermediate, and 19 in advanced courses. The distribution is shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Students by Institution and Categories

Categories	Number of Students					
Collegiate Institution	*(A)*	*(B)*	*(C)*	*(D)*	*(E)*	*Total*
Totals by Institution	59	57	36	45	23	220
Instructional Level						
Beginning	25	22	--	--	5	52
Intermediate	21	35	36	45	12	149
Advanced	13	--	--	--	6	19
Gender						
Male	29	34	13	26	19	121
Female	30	23	23	19	4	99
Age						
18 – 19	21	22	--	21	1	65
20 – 29	33	34	36	24	7	134
30 – Above	5	1	--	--	15	21

Assessment Instrument and Data Collection

The questionnaire was designed to collect information about students' perceptions of gender differences in the Japanese language, including their responses to the three research questions (see the student questionnaire in the Appendix). The questionnaire was administered to Japanese-language students at the four universities and the government language school in December 2007 and January 2008. After students completed the questionnaire, all responses were analyzed separately by institution, level of instruction, age, and gender. In the next section of "Results and Data Analysis," students' responses are displayed in Tables 2-9.

RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS

Research Question 1: Exposure to Gendered Speech Outside the Classroom

There were two types of answers to the questions –a yes or no answer, or a multiple-choice answer. In the "YES" or "NO" answers to question 1,194 (88%) of the 220 students answered "YES" and 26 (12%) answered "NO." This shows that a high percentage of the students were familiar with gendered speech

styles in their experiences outside of the classroom. The first part of Question 1 and the student responses are presented in Table 2.

Question 1, Part 1: Outside the classroom have you heard or noticed any difference between male and female speech patterns in Japanese (e.g., use of ~wa, ~no yo, kashira, atashi; use of ~da, ~zo, boku, ore)?

Table 2
Students' Awareness of Gendered Speech Patterns Outside the Classroom

Categories	Number of Student Responses		
	(Yes)	*(No)*	*Total*
Total Student Responses (All Institutions)	194 (88%)	26 (12%)	220
Institution			
(A)	48 (81%)	11 (19%)	59
(B)	50 (88%)	7 (12%)	57
(C)	34 (94%)	2 (06%)	36
(D)	39 (87%)	6 (13%)	45
(E)	23(100%)	--	23
Level of Instruction			
Beginning	41 (79%)	11 (21%)	52
Intermediate	135 (91%)	14 (09%)	149
Advanced	18 (95%)	1 (05%)	19
Gender			
Female	83 (84%)	16 (16%)	99
Male	111 (92%)	10 (08%)	121
Age			
18 – 19	55 (85%)	10 (15%)	65
20 – 29	121 (90%)	13 (10%)	134
30 – Above	18 (86%)	3 (14%)	21

Table 2 also shows the division of students into four categories: Institution, Level of Instruction, Gender, and Age. There are minimum variations between the responses of students by institution, gender, or age. In the level of instruction category, 91% of the students at the intermediate level and 95% at the advanced level had outside experiences with gendered speech styles, compared to 79% of beginning students. The result shows that even beginning students were aware of gendered speech styles outside the classroom.

Students who answered "YES" to Question 1 were asked where they had heard or seen the different speech patterns. They were given four choices: from friends; from television, magazines, and/or cartoons; from conversations

with male and female teachers; and from other sources. They could choose one or more answers. The second part of Question 1 and the responses are shown in Table 3.

Question 1, Part 2: If YES, where did you hear (or see) the differences? (Please circle all the sources that apply) (a) From friends; (b) From media (television, magazines, and/or cartoons); (c) From conversations with teachers (female and male); (d) From other sources (please specify).

Table 3
Students' Exposure to Gendered Speech Outside the Classroom (n = 194)

Group	a. Friends	b. Media	c. Teachers	d. Other Sources	Total
Total Responses	89 (42%)	171 (88%)	55 (28%)	39 (20%)	354
Institution					
(A)	22 (46%)	38 (79%)	8 (23%)	8 (17%)	76
(B)	19 (38%)	45 (90%)	13 (26%)	5 (19%)	82
(C)	21 (62%)	29 (85%)	15 (44%)	15 (44%)	80
(D)	18 (46%)	36 (92%)	9 (23%)	9 (23%)	72
(E)	9 (39%)	23(100%)	10 (43%)	2 (09%)	44
Level of Instruction					
Beginning	12 (29%)	36 (88%)	8 (20%)	3 (07%)	59
Intermediate	69 (51%)	119 (88%)	40 (27%)	32 (24%)	260
Advanced	8 (44%)	16 (89%)	7 (39%)	4 (22%)	35
Gender					
Female	34 (41%)	77 (93%)	22 (27%)	21 (25%)	154
Male	55 (50%)	94 (85%)	33 (30%)	18 (16%)	200
Age					
18 – 19	20 (36%)	49 (89%)	13 (24%)	8 (15%)	90
20 – 29	60 (50%)	105 (87%)	35 (29%)	28 (23%)	228
30 – Above	9 (50%)	17 (94%)	7 (39%)	3 (17%)	36

Because students could choose more than one answer, the 194 students answering "YES" gave 354 responses – 1.8 answers per student. Of the 194 students, 171 (88%) answered that they had been exposed to different speech patterns via (b) – television, magazines, and/or cartoons (Media). Regardless of institution, level of instruction, gender, or age, the highest number of students chose media. For example, of the 41 beginning students who answered "YES"

to Question 1, 36 (88%) selected media. Whereas the whole group – 89 (42%) out of 194 – identified "from friends" as the second major source for learning about gendered speech, only 12 beginning students (29%) learned from friends because of their limited ability to communicate in Japanese.

Research Question 2: Exposure to Gendered Speech in the Classroom

        Question 2 asked whether students learned gendered speech patterns in class. As shown in Table 4, of the 220 students, 154 (70%) answered "YES," 65 (30%) "NO," and 1 (.5%) both "YES" and "NO." The first part of Question 2 and the student responses are displayed in Table 4.

Question 2, Part 1: In class, were there lessons regarding differences in male and female speech patterns in Japanese?

Table 4
Number of Students Receiving Classroom Instruction in Male and Female Speech Patterns

Categories	Number of Student Responses		
	(Yes)	*(No)*	*Totals*
Total Student Responses (All Institutions)	154 (70%)	65 (30%)	219
Institution			
(A)	28 (47%)	31 (53%)	59
(B)	37 (65%)	20 (35%)	57
(C)	26 (74%)	9 (26%)	35
(D)	45(100%)	--	45
(E)	18 (78%)	5 (22%)	23
Level of Instruction			
Beginning	33 (63%)	19 (37%)	52
Intermediate	112 (78%)	36 (24%)	148
Advanced	9 (47%)	10 (53%)	19
Gender			
Female	91 (72%)	28 (18%)	99
Male	83 (69%)	37 (31%)	120
Age			
18 – 19	45 (69%)	20 (31%)	65
20 – 29	93 (70%)	40 (30%)	133
30 – Above	16 (76%)	6 (24%)	21

Table 4 illustrates considerable differentiation in student responses based on the collegiate institution attended. At university (D), 100% of students answered that they had learned these patterns in class, as did 78% of students at the government language school (E), and 74% of those at university (C). In contrast, 47% of students at university (A) answered "YES," and 53% answered "NO"; at university (B), 65% "YES" and 35% "NO". The answers indicated that the teacher determined whether or not students learned different speech patterns in class. The data also showed that speech patterns were taught to students at various levels.

Table 5 shows student responses to the second part of Question 2: how the patterns were taught in class.

Question 2, Part 2: If YES, how did you learn: (Please circle all that apply) (a) Textbooks; (b) Lecture; (c) Role-playing; and (d) Discussion with teachers in class, (e) Other (please specify).

Table 5
Students' Exposure to Gendered Speech in the Classroom

	Number of Responses					
Group	*a.* Text-books	*b.* Lectures	*c.* Role-Playing	*d.* Discussion with Teachers	*e.* Other	*Total*
Total	108 (70%)	106 (69%)	74 (48%)	105 (68%)	11 (07%)	404
Institutions						
(A)	14 (50%)	13 (46%)	4 (14%)	16 (57%)	1 (04%)	48
(B)	22 (59%)	29 (78%)	9 (24%)	24 (65%)	4 (11%)	88
(C)	25 (96%)	20 (77%)	16 (62%)	15 (58%)	4 (15%)	80
(D)	33 (73%)	35 (78%)	37 (82%)	35 (78%)	1 (02%)	141
(E)	14 (78%)	9 (50%)	8 (44%)	15 (83%)	1 (06%)	47
Level of Instruction						
Beginning	16 (48%)	22 (67%)	9 (27%)	21 (64%)	1 (03%)	69
Intermediate	88 (79%)	78 (70%)	63 (56%)	77 (60%)	9 (08%)	315
Advanced	4 (44%)	6 (67%)	2 (22%)	7 (78%)	1 (11%)	20

Gender						
Female	51	45	38	49	3	186
	(72%)	(63%)	(54%)	(69%)	(04%)	
Male	57	61	36	56	8	218
	(69%)	(73%)	(43%)	(87%)	(10%)	
Age						
18 – 19	24	34	21	28	3	110
20 – 29	(53%)	(76%)	(47%)	(62%)	(07%)	
30 – Above	71	65	47	64	7	254
	(76%)	(70%)	(51%)	(69%)	(08%)	
	13	7	6	13	1	40
	(81%)	(44%)	(38%)	(81%)	(06%)	

The 154 students who answered "YES" to the first part of Question 2 provided 404 responses to the second part of Question 2; a ratio of 2.6 answers per student. They learned the different speech patterns through (a) Textbooks –108 (70%); (b) Lectures –106 (69%); (c) Role-playing –74 (48%); and (d) Discussion with teachers in class –105 (68%). Whereas students learned equally from textbooks, lectures, and discussion with their teacher in class, role-playing was mentioned less often than the other three formats.

Question 2, Part 3 asked students to identify the source of classroom learning that was emphasized. Although we instructed students to provide only one answer, a few students provided two, and one student provided four, for a total of 161 responses. The distribution of the choices is as follows: (a) Textbooks – 36 (22%); (b) Lectures – 43 (27%); (c) Role-playing – 23 (14%); (d) Discussion with teacher in class –55 (34%); and (e) Other – 4 (3%). Table 6 shows that "discussion with teachers" was emphasized the most, and "lectures" was identified as the second most emphasized source. These responses demonstrate that a teacher's perception and attitude toward gendered language can have a great influence on students' learning. Student responses to the third part of Question 2 are displayed in Table 6.

Question 2, Part 3: If you chose more than one, which method was emphasized the most? (Please circle only one) (a) Textbooks; (b) Lectures; (c) Role-playing; (d) Discussion with teachers in class; (e) and Other (please specify).

Table 6
The Most-emphasized Method of Instruction in the Classroom

Group	a. Text-books	b. Lectures	c. Role-Playing	d. Discussion with Teachers	e. Other	Total
			Number of Student Responses			
Total	36 (22%)	43 (27%)	23 (14%)	55 (34%)	4 (03%)	161
Institution						
(A)	4 (14%)	9 (31%)	2 (07%)	13 (44%)	1 (04%)	29
(B)	5 (13%)	15 (39%)	5 (13%)	12 (32%)	1 (03%)	38
(C)	14 (52%)	3 (11%)	1 (04%)	8 (29%)	1 (04%)	27
(D)	4 (09%)	13 (29%)	13 (29%)	15 (33%)	--	45
(E)	9 (41%)	3 (14%)	2 (09%)	7 (32%)	1 (04%)	22
Level of Instruction						
Beginning	4 (12%)	10 (29%)	5 (15%)	14 (41%)	1 (03%)	34
Intermediate	31 (26%)	32 (27%)	18 (15%)	35 (29%)	3 (03%)	119
Advanced	1 (13%)	1 (13%)	--	6 (74%)	--	8
Gender						
Female	18 (25%)	20 (28%)	6 (08%)	27 (38%)	1 (01%)	72
Male	18 (20%)	23 (26%)	17 (19%)	28 (32%)	3 (03%)	89
Age						
18 – 19	4 (09%)	15 (33%)	9 (19%)	17 (37%)	1 (02%)	46
20 – 29	24 (25%)	26 (27%)	13 (14%)	31 (32%)	2 (02%)	96
30 – Above	8 (42%)	2 (11%)	1 (05%)	7 (37%)	1 (05%)	19

Table 6 shows that university (A) had the highest percentage (44%) learning via "discussion in class," in contrast with university (C) and the government language school (E) where "textbooks" had the highest percentage (52% and 41% respectively). Students at university (B) cited "lectures" (39%) as their main source of learning gendered differences in speech. This indicates that even when gendered speech patterns are taught in class, the teaching methods vary between institutions.

At all levels of instruction, the most emphasized methods for learning gendered speech were "discussion with teachers" (34%) and "lectures" (27%). These numbers were slightly higher in the beginning classes, with "discussion with the teachers in class" (41%) and "lectures" (29%).

Research Question 3: Learners' Views toward Gendered Speech

Question 3 asked students whether female learners should be taught to use female speech pattern, and male learners to use male speech pattern. Over half of the students agreed (113, 53%), and the rest disagreed (100, 47%) that female learners must learn to use female speech patterns and male learners must learn to use male speech patterns. Six answered "both" and one answered "not sure." The reasons provided for those who answered "both" indicated that they believed that language use depended on the situation. At university (C), 37% students responded with "YES", and 63% "NO." At the other end, 70% of students at the government language school (E) responded "YES," and 30% "NO." Student responses to Question 3 are shown in Table 7.

Question 3. Should female learners be taught that they must use female speech pattern, and male learners be taught that they must use male speech pattern?

Table 7
Number of Students Agreeing or Disagreeing that They Should Use Gendered Speech Patterns

Categories	Number of Student Responses		
	(Yes)	*(No)*	*Totals*
Total Student Responses (All Institutions)	113 (53%)	100 (47%)	213
Institution			
(A)	26 (46%)	30 (54%)	56
(B)	33 (61%)	21 (35%)	54
(C)	13 (37%)	22 (63%)	35
(D)	25 (56%)	20 (44%)	45
(E)	16 (70%)	7 (30%)	23
Level of Instruction			
Beginning	25 (50%)	25 (50%)	50
Intermediate	79 (54%)	66 (46%)	145
Advanced	9 (50%)	9 (50%)	18
Gender			
Female	49 (51%)	47 (49%)	96
Male	64 (55%)	53 (45%)	117
Age			
18 – 19	31 (48%)	33 (52%)	64
20 – 29	69 (53%)	60 (47%)	129
30 – Above	13 (65%)	7 (35%)	20

Reasons for the "YES" Answer. The 113 students who believed that they should use gendered speech patterns cited various reasons. The reasons are grouped into 11 categories as shown in Table 8. Each category contains three or more responses.

Table 8
Reasons for Students to Use Gendered Speech

n of Responses	Reason
1. 28 (25%)	Because gendered speech styles are part of Japanese culture, they should be taught and students should learn them.
2. 14 (12%)	Gendered speech patterns are characteristic of Japanese language.
3. 13 (11%)	Gendered speech patterns are socially appropriate and are the proper way to speak.
4. 12 (11%)	Learning gender patterns is important for interacting with Japanese native speakers effectively and appropriately.
5. 10 (9%)	Learning gendered speech helps students avoid the incorrect gendered speech when conversing with native Japanese speakers.
6. 9 (8%)	It is how native Japanese speakers talk.
7. 7 (6%)	Students should be able to use appropriate gendered speech to avoid embarrassment when they communicate with native Japanese speakers.
8. 5 (4%)	It is the Japanese traditional way of speaking.
9. 4 (4%)	It is good to be aware of gendered speech patterns, but leave the choice to students. Even though gendered speech is the correct way to speak Japanese, speakers should have options.
10. 3 (3%)	Students should learn gendered speech because they will encounter it when they speak Japanese.
11. 8 (7%)	Other reasons (vague): "it's convenient," "it gives us more perspective and is less confusing," and "to be better acculturated."

Reasons for the "NO" Answer. The answers of the 84 students who answered "NO" have been summarized into seven categories, each containing three or more responses. These responses are shown in Table 9.

Table 9
Reasons for Students Not to Use Gendered Speech

n of Responses	Reason
1. 33 (33%)	Although it is important to know gendered speech patterns, no one should be forced to use them. Students should have options.
2. 14 (14%)	Use of gender-specific speech is antiquated, sexist, and/or biased. Males and females are equal. While learning gender-specific speech may help a student better fit into a speech community, use of gender-specific speech is sexist and limiting, and should therefore be minimized.
3. 13 (13%)	Gendered speech is flexible and changing. Japanese women sometimes mix speech patterns, using both male and female speech styles. Male speech does not always imply masculinity nor does female speech always imply femininity.
4. 13 (13%)	Learning the Japanese language is difficult, and adding gendered speech makes it more so. Gendered speech patterns should be taught in advanced courses.
5. 5 (5%)	It is not necessary to know both speech styles in order to speak Japanese.
6. 3 (3%)	Gendered does not matter very much.
7. 3 (3%)	I don't understand why male and female speech is different.
8. 16 (16%)	Other reasons (vague): "to shake things up with your own taste," "simply, we should learn the same way," and "because we are learning a more modern and progressive Japanese."

Question 4 examined the interest students have in using gendered speech styles when they communicate in Japanese. It was a YES or NO question. The responses totaled 220. The first part of Question 4 and student responses are shown in Table 10.

Question 4, Part 1: Are you interested in using these forms? (a) Female forms; (b) Male forms; (c) Both; and (d) Neither.   If your answer is (d), Neither, why not?

Table 10
Student Interest in Using Female Forms, Male Forms, Both Forms, or Neither Form

	Number of Student Responses				
Group	*a.* *Female*	*b.* *Male*	*c.* *Both*	*d.* *Neither*	*Total*
Total Responses	23 (10%)	63 (29%)	125(57%)	9 (04%)	220
Institution					
(A)	5 (08%)	14 (25%)	35 (59%)	5 (08%)	59
(B)	9 (16%)	16 (28%)	31 (54%)	1 (02%)	57
(C)	3 (08%)	8 (22%)	24 (67%)	1 (03%)	36
(D)	4 (09%)	13 (29%)	26 (58%)	2 (04%)	45
(E)	2 (09%)	12 (52%)	9 (39%)	--	23
Level of Instruction					
Beginning	6 (12%)	12 (23%)	33 (63%)	1 (02%)	52
Intermediate	16 (11%)	43 (29%)	83 (56%)	7 (04%)	149
Advanced	1 (05%)	8 (42%)	9 (48%)	1 (05%)	19
Gender					
Female	23 (23%)	--	73 (74%)	3 (03%)	99
Male	--	63 (52%)	52 (43%)	6 (05%)	121
Age					
18 – 19	10 (15%)	12 (19%)	41 (63%)	2 (03%)	65
20 – 29	10 (07%)	41 (31%)	78 (58%)	5 (04%)	134
30 – Above	3 (14%)	10 (48%)	6 (28%)	2 (10%)	21

The distribution of the four choices was: (a) – Female forms – 23 (10%); (b) – Male forms – 63 (29%); (c) – Both – 125 (57%); and (d) – Neither – 9 (4%). The largest number of students – 125 (57%) – wanted to learn both forms. In the divisions between the four categories, the gender difference shows the most interesting result. Of the 121 male students, 63 (52%) wanted to learn only male forms. In contrast, of the 99 female students, 23 (23%) wanted to learn only female forms.

Nine students listed "neither." Their reasons included: "because it is a hassle, not a big deal," "I don't really feel compelled to use the forms and they are an extra step to memorize," "I just want to know a standard Japanese language," "difficult to learn," "I am not interested in speaking, only listening and reading," "it can be an interesting topic, but difficult to learn," and "there are non-gendered specific grammar speech patterns, so it is not necessary to learn gender specific speech."

Table 11 shows the different ways that students expect to use their Japanese-language skills. Because students were able to choose multiple answers, the 220 students provided 417 responses, a ratio of 1.9 answers per student.

The distribution of the four choices were: (a) Conversations with Japanese friends –173 (79%); (b) Studying in Japan –139 (63%); (c) Business – 77 (35%); and (d) Other – 28 (13%). The distinctive finding provided by these responses is that a large number of students – 139 (63%) plan on studying in Japan. The second part of Question 4 and the student responses are shown in Table 9.

The 28 students that selected "Other" provided a variety of reasons, including: "serving as a teacher of JET," "serving as a teacher of Japanese" (government language school), "identifying scripted speech patterns" (government language school), "volunteering at Japanese cultural events," "speaking like a guy when you feel something silly," and "enjoying pretending that I am gay."

Question 4, Part 2: If your answer is (a), (b), or (c), where do you plan on using it? (Please circle all that apply) (a) Conversation with Japanese friends; (b) Studying in Japan; (c) Business; and (d) Other (please specify)

Table 11
Where Students Plan to Use the Japanese Language

Group	Number of Responses				
	a. Conversations	b. Study in Japan	c. Business	d. Other	Total
Total Responses	173 (79%)	139(63%)	77(35%)	28 (13%)	417
Institution					
(A)	43 (73%)	37 (63%)	13 (22%)	10 (17%)	103
(B)	43 (75%)	39 (68%)	22 (39%)	3 (05%)	107
(C)	29 (81%)	17 (47%)	15 (42%)	6 (17%)	67
(D)	41 (91%)	35 (78%)	13 (29%)	3 (07%)	92
(E)	17 (74%)	11 (48%)	14 (61%)	6 (26%)	48
Level of Instruction					
Beginning	33 (63%)	33 (63%)	16 (31%)	5 (10%)	87
Intermediate	125 (84%)	96 (64%)	55 (37%)	15 (10%)	291
Advanced	15 (79%)	10 (53%)	6 (32%)	8 (42%)	39
Gender					
Female	77 (78%)	61 (61%)	33 (33%)	12 (12%)	183
Male	96 (68%)	78 (64%)	44 (36%)	16 (13%)	234
Age					
18 – 19	53 (82%)	43 (66%)	18 (28%)	6 (09%)	120
20 – 29	107 (80%)	86 (64%)	47 (35%)	17 (13%)	257
30 – Above	13 (62%)	10 (48%)	12 (57%)	5 (24%)	90

DISCUSSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The major findings of this study are: (1) outside the classroom, the media, including television, magazines, and cartoons was the major source of students' exposure to gendered speech style; (2) in-class "discussion" was the most used/emphasized method in learning and teaching gendered speech patterns; and (3) approximately half of the students answered that gendered speech patterns should not be taught, because gender-specific speech is sexist or biased, and that students should have the choice of whether they use these patterns. The other half of the students answered that these patterns should be

taught, because they are characteristics of the Japanese language and part of the Japanese culture.

Media Exposure

Regarding the first major finding of exposure to gendered speech in the media, although media shows linguistic variation in women's and men's use of the language, the variation should be examined by asking two questions: (1) how are gendered speech styles presented; and (2) which characters use these styles in their speech, taking into account their gender, social status, age, and non-linguistic behaviors, such as clothing and conduct.

The purpose for this investigation is that media portrays gender as a homogeneous entity, thus reinforcing the stereotypical linguistic and social norms (Chinami, 2007; Kinsui, 2003; Kumagai, 2010; Nakamura, 2007). Media also creates new stereotypes that manipulate the use of normative women's language (Matsumoto, 2011; Mizumoto, 2006; Takasaki, 2002). In girls' comics, for example, heroines that are depicted as "good girls" typically use "female" forms (Matsumoto, 2011; Takahashi, 2009).

Another example of the unrealistic use of "female" forms appears in the subtitles of two American movies, *The X-Files* and *Gone with the Wind* (Kumagai, 2010; Nakamura, 2007). In both contemporary and classic films, the female leads' speech was translated into the frequent use of "feminine" forms (e.g., *wa*, *no yo*), regardless of their social status, identity, occupation, age, or self-presentation (i.e., behavior, attitude, personality, or speech tone). This stereotypical translation can also be seen in interviews with Western women on television and published in women's magazines. As Mizumoto points out, female characters' use of "female" forms in the media shows a disconnection between the fictional world (and the media world of celebrity and publicity) and the actual daily use of language by women (Mizumoto, 2006, 2010).

In discussing the social conditions of public discourses, Fairclough (2002) stresses the need for critical discourse analysis on the use of language as a key element to understanding ideological representation embedded in media texts. Similarly, researchers point out that female and gender stereotypes are constructed through media discourse (Hayashi, 2002; Mizumoto, 2006; Nakamura, 2001; Reynolds, 1989; Satake, 2003).

By considering these studies and using critical discourse analysis, we can use the discourses that appear in the media and the textbooks as a starting point to discuss gendered speech styles with students. This will cultivate students' critical awareness of language ideologies.[5] Studying the relationship between language and ideology helps students to understand which speech style is regarded as normative or deviant, and how ideologies influence the language-users. The ideological interpretations of language use in the media can be used as authentic materials for intermediate and advanced learners. For a beginning class, authentic media discourse can also be introduced with the use of visual materials, such as television commercials and scenes from television programs. If time permits, showing commercials from decades past and from today is

useful in comparing speech styles, clothing, and gender roles. Moreover, discussions can be held through discourse analysis, using authentic media materials selected by both teachers and students.

Periodic screening of a Japanese movie show outside of the classroom also exposes students to gendered speech. We can choose older and contemporary movies. This will expose students to linguistic variations and changes, as well as Japanese dialects that are not presented in textbooks. Showing contemporary movies that showcase young people's innovative speech styles may rouse students' interest in the variation of speech (and writing) styles. The popular Japanese movie *Train Man*, for example, presents some recent popular cultural phenomena and a newly created mark – *kaomoji* (emotion), which young people use in email exchanges.

Intermediate and advanced students can discuss the character's linguistic and non-linguistic behaviors, including their social roles, and how other individuals or groups in the film might interpret their behaviors. Although a character's use of language might be represented as "yakuwari-go" (language that fits a particular character) (Kinsui, 2003), this discussion would help reveal the link between particular linguistic forms and associated social meanings.

In-class Discussion

Students reported that in-class discussion was the most used/ emphasized method; this indicates that, through discussion, instructors' perceptions and views toward gendered language can influence students' linguistic practices. Discussion cultivates students' pragmatic and sociolinguistic competence and develops learners' creativity in language practice. If, however, individual instructors believe that the Japanese language has gendered speech patterns intrinsically, they may automatically use stereotypical gendered language based on linguistic and cultural norms. As Siegal and Okamoto (2003) point out, this may result in the devaluing of linguistic diversity, which has been shown in recent sociolinguistic studies (e.g., Matsumoto, 2002; Okamoto, 1994, 1995; Okamoto & Sato, 1992).

This does not mean, however, that instructors should avoid teaching these patterns. Learning these patterns would help students understand within-gender variation, including contemporary young women's and men's unconventional speech styles. Discussion promotes learners' metalinguistic awareness by critically analyzing the "homogeneity" and "hegemonic ideologies" underlying gendered language.

Teaching and Learning Gendered Speech

Student responses to whether gendered speech should be taught and learned were equally divided. Whereas most students acknowledged the use of gendered speech as part of Japanese culture or the traditional Japanese way of speaking, some students viewed it as antiquated, sexist, or biased. Their views on gender equality are significant because a speaker's identity is linked to the

language he or she uses. The association of Japanese gendered speech with inequality should therefore be addressed.

Developing pragmatic and communicative competence will assist students in choosing appropriate speech styles in different situations, thereby helping them form their own identities through their newly acquired language. Siegal's three case studies of Western women in Japan (1994, 1996) showed that through their interactions with native Japanese speakers, they strategically constructed their own unique language style based on their negative attitudes toward stereotypical gendered language and women's subordinate position in society.

The current study presents two suggestions for developing students' sociolinguistic competence. First, teachers and students need to understand the wide range of within-gender variations in speech styles, including the use of feminine and masculine forms, non-stereotypical speech styles, standard Japanese, and dialects. The exposure and explanation of linguistic variety will help students understand that stereotypical speech styles are not the only choice available to them. Second, in addition to sociolinguistic and sociocultural competence, it is important to develop learners' "contextual competence" (Siegal, 1994, p. 647). They should be able to see the link between linguistic forms and social meanings; that is, the speaker's use of a particular linguistic form involves various factors. Besides linguistic ability, developing these competences will deepen the students' understanding of linguistic and cultural diversity in the real world.

CONCLUSION

The study contributes to the understanding of language learners' views and attitudes toward gendered speech styles. It is important to consider that, in conversation, the speakers' use of particular linguistic forms involve many factors, such as views and attitudes toward these forms, age, identities, societal positions, beliefs, interpretations of linguistic forms, and the social settings, which may or may not coincide with mainstream societal views and expectations. Listeners' views and attitudes, as well as their interpretations of linguistic forms, are equally significant. Interactions between interlocutors are therefore layered, complex, and dynamic.

Future research of learners' perceptions of gendered language can include or focus on students' experiences of living in Japan. By examining the relationships with the listeners, we may better understand how and why learners choose to use or not use gendered speech styles in different communication situations.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

NOTES

1. The government language school is located in California and provides culture-based language education in 24 languages to military and the Department of Defense language professionals. This study surveyed four groups of Japanese-language students at different proficiency levels in a 64-week instructional program. Instruction took place 5 days a week, 6 hours a day, with two to three hours of homework per night. The first group had 14 weeks of instruction, the second 35 weeks, the third 50 weeks, and the fourth was graduating. Because the purpose of this study was not to examine students' language proficiency levels, I subjectively assigned the 23 students to three levels – Beginning, Intermediate, and Advanced based on their length of study in order to provide a parallel perspective to the university assignments.

2. This study analyzes 238 questionnaire responses from 220 Japanese-language students at four universities and a U.S. government language school, as well as 18 Japanese-language teachers. The findings have been divided into two papers, one covering student responses and the other teacher responses. This article provides the findings and analysis of the student responses to the questionnaire. A second article will contain the findings and analysis of the teacher's responses.

3. In second language acquisition research, learners' motivations have been categorized as two basic types – instrumental motivation and integrative motivation. Exemplifying disagreement of research results, where motivation correlates to successful L2 acquisition, Ricento cites Au's study (1988) and notes that "the measurement of motivation and the theory behind these measurements were questionable" in scaling these motivation constructs (Ricento, 2005, p. 897).

4. Historically, Sino-Japanese (*kambun-* the language of Chinese origin) was "valued for its forma and erudite tone…and was the medium of official business, criticism and exposition, history and other serious literature." It had a "stiff, intellectual tone" (Twine, 1991, p.18). During the Meiji and Taisho periods (1868-1924), influenced by neologisms based on English and the speech style among male university students, female students' use

of Sino-Japanese compounds (*kango*) was characterized as "jogakusee kotoba" (speech style of female students) and criticized as 'unladylike' by influential language norm holders, such as novelists, educators and linguists (e.g., Bohn & Matsumoto, 2008; Endo, 1997; Inoue, 1994; Yonekawa, 1996).

5. Language ideologies have been defined as "a set of beliefs about language articulated by users as rationalization or justification of perceived language structure and use" (Silverstein, 1979, p.193), as "self-evidence ideas and objectives a group holds concerning roles of language in the social experiences of members as they contribute to the expression of the group" (Heath, 1989, p.53), and as "the cultural system of ideas about social and linguistic relationships, together with their loading of moral and political interests" (Irvine, 1989, p.255). Woolard points out that language ideology links macro level social forms and forms of talk, considering "the relation macrosocial constrains on language behavior to the microculture of communication action" (Woolard, 1998, p. 27), and that "simply using language in particular ways is not what forms social groups, identities, or relations (nor does the group relation automatically gives rise to linguistic distinction); rather, ideological interpretations of such uses of language always mediate these effects" (Woolard, 1998, p. 18).

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APPENDIX

(Completing this survey is optional; however I will appreciate your completion of this survey since I believe that it will contribute to the improvement of teaching Japanese language.)
This is an anonymous questionnaire designed to ask your opinions about learning Japanese language.
Please respond to the following questions.

Please circle
Gender: M   F
Age: 18 or 19   20 ~ 29   30 and Above
Course Level: Beginning   Intermediate   Advance   Other (please explain)

Questions:

1.   Outside the classroom have you heard or noticed any different speech patterns between male and female speech in Japanese?   (e.g., use of ~ *wa*, *~no yo*, *kashira*, *atashi*; use of *~da*, *~zo*, *boku*, *ore*)
          YES   NO
If YES, where did you hear (or see) differences? (Please circle all the sources that apply).
     (a) From friends
     (b) From television, magazines, and cartoons
     (c) From conversations between female and male teachers
     (d) From other (please specify)

2.   In class, were there lessons regarding differences in male and female speech patterns in Japanese?
          YES   NO
If YES, how did you learn? (Please circle all that apply).
     (a) Textbooks
     (b) Lecture
     (c) Role-playing
     (d) Discussions with teachers in class
     (e) From other (please specify)
If you chose more than one, which method was emphasized the most? (Please circle only one).
     (a) Textbooks
     (b) Lecture
     (c) Role-playing
     (d) Discussions with teachers in class
     (e) From other (please specify)

3. Should female learners be taught that they must use female speech pattern, and male learners be taught that they must use male speech pattern?

       YES   NO

If YES, why do you think so?

If NO, why not?

4. Are you interested in using these forms?
    (a)   Female forms
    (b)   Male forms
    (c)   Both
    (d)   Neither

If your answer is (d), neither, why not?

If your answer is (a), (b), or (c) where do you plan on using it? (Please circle all that apply).
    (a)   Conversation with Japanese friends
    (b)   Studying in Japan
    (c)   Business
    (d)   Other (please specify)

Thank you very much for participating in this survey.

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What Happens to Students' English after One Year of English-medium Course Study at University?

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A much under-researched issue in higher education is the extent to which English-medium university courses help students improve their English proficiency in an ESL context. Adopting a longitudinal, mixed methods design in which quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analyzed, the current study tracked English language improvement, or lack thereof, among 33 students over a 12-month segment of a Bachelor of Education degree (B.Ed.) program. The results revealed that on average, student scores showed very slight improvement both overall and across each of the four skill areas, although there was considerable variation among the students in the amount of improvement or lack of improvement made. Analysis of the interview data identified a combination of factors that might influence students' English language development in the B.Ed. program. Important implications of the results for pedagogical practices that facilitate ESL teacher trainees' English language proficiency development are discussed. Although this study took place in Hong Kong, it has value in other contexts where second or foreign language learners study disciplinary content through the target language.

INTRODUCTION

In the international context of accelerating globalization and marketization, English is progressively becoming the language of higher education (Coleman, 2007). Coleman points out that the wider use of English is promoted through scientific, educational and cultural cooperation, multinational

corporations, and the internationalization of professional and personal domains of activity. One of the significant changes within higher education in the past two decades has been a dramatic increase in the number of students for whom English is a second language studying in English-medium universities around the world (Arkoudis & Tran, 2010). Evans and Morrison (2011, p.387) outline four types of students undertaking degree programs through the medium of English:

1. Undergraduates in post-colonial societies in Africa and Asia, where the English-medium university is often the most enduring institutional legacy of British or American rule;
2. International students who possess the requisite means to pursue their studies in the English-speaking countries of North America, the British Isles, and Australasia;
3. Transnational students who undertake degrees awarded by universities in the major Anglophone countries through distance learning, local franchises, or overseas branch campuses; and
4. Students who take individual subjects or entire programs in English in non-Anglophone territories, where the national language is normally the main medium of instruction and assessment.

In Hong Kong, English was the dominant language during British colonial rule following the Second Opium War. Upon Hong Kong's transition to Chinese rule, English continued to be the predominant medium of international trade, communication and academic discourse. Although Cantonese is the most commonly spoken language in Hong Kong, English is used in government, the media, employment, and education, and is generally seen as a key to economic advantage (Lee & Leung, 2012).

In the past two decades, the issue of "declining" English standards has dominated the public discourse in Hong Kong (Evans & Morrison, 2011). Tertiary-level students' English language proficiency has caused increasing concern among stakeholders due in part to a heightened awareness of the role of English-language skills in successful completion of undergraduate studies (Lam, 2005). In fact, some English-medium universities in Hong Kong have been criticized by employers, the government, and the media for not producing graduates with requisite English skills (Lam, 2005), although this may be related to the shift from English- to Chinese-medium instruction in around three-quarters of the Hong Kong secondary schools (Poon, 2010). In response to the business community's concern about inadequate English proficiency of entrants into the workplace, the government launched the *Common English Proficiency Assessment Scheme* (CEPAS) for undergraduates at public universities in 2002, encouraging schools to strengthen English-language education. The government has selected the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) to assess English-language proficiency. IELTS gives test takers a score ranging from band 1 (non-user) to band 9 (expert user) for each test component – Listening, Reading, Writing, and Speaking. The individual scores are then

averaged and rounded to produce an Overall Band Score. Currently, the eight publicly funded universities in Hong Kong mandate IELTS as an exit test to assess undergraduate' ability in listening, reading, writing and speaking, although IELTS was designed for universities to screen students for admissions purposes.

The increasing concern about students' English language competence has renewed the debate over English-language development in higher education, particularly the development of students' academic English proficiency throughout their undergraduate studies. Although it is believed that language problems in the tertiary curriculum in Hong Kong are best addressed by using the language in the target study context (Bruce, 2002; Lam, 2005), limited empirical research exists on the extent to which this approach enhances students' English-language skills. This paper reports the impact of a 12-month English-medium disciplinary learning on students' English language skills development. It involves tracking changes in students' language proficiency, using pre- and post-IELTS test results over a 12-month segment of a teacher education program at a university in Hong Kong. Interview data was also used to investigate the factors that may influence students' English- language development.

REVIEW OF RELEVANT EMPIRICAL STUDIES

Relevant to the study are three empirical studies investigating the impact of English-medium university courses in English-speaking countries on English language proficiency among students from non-English speaking backgrounds. Storch and Hill (2008) investigated the impact of one semester of postgraduate study on the English language proficiency of 39 international students majoring in economics and engineering at a university in Australia. This study examined the results on reading and writing tests at the beginning and the end of the first semester. Although Storch and Hill concluded that studying in an English-medium university generally led to an improvement in English language proficiency, they cautioned that there might have been a practice effect, because the same version of the reading and writing test was used as pre- and post-test. O'Loughlin and Arkoudis (2009) investigated improvement on the IELTS score of 63 volunteer international students (30 undergraduate and 33 graduates) over their course of study at a major Australian university. The study showed that on average, student scores showed some improvement in Overall (pre-test 6.825; post-test 7.238) and across each of the four skill areas (Listening pre-test 7.087, post-test 7.587; Reading pre-test 6.889, post-test 7.421; Speaking pre-test 6.556, post-test 7.000; and Writing pre-test 6.444, post-test 6.651). The study revealed that not all international students who complete their degree at a university in an English-speaking country have developed their language skills in all areas.

More recently, Humphreys, Haugh, Fenton-Smith, Lobo, Michael and Walkinshaw (2012) examined variation and change in language proficiency among 51 international undergraduates over the first semester at a large university in Southeast Queensland, Australia. Their study also measured

IELTS-score gain at the beginning and the end of the semester, plus qualitative data from two rounds of focus group interviews. The study found that increases for Listening, Reading and Writing were marginal; only the increase in Speaking was statistically significant. Humphreys et al. (2012) stated that language proficiency was a complex and contested notion after comparing the interview data with the IELTS scores.

In summary, although the studies reviewed above have produced mixed results, they all suggest that the common expectation that studying in an English-medium university should automatically produce a significant improvement in students' English-language skills is not true. The three studies were conducted at universities in English-speaking countries. Building on these studies, the present study aims to analyze students' English-language development at a university in Hong Kong, in a non-native English context. The study will compare the scores of two IELTS tests, taken at the beginning and the end of students' first academic year. The study will offer insights into students' English-language proficiency development in disciplinary studies courses at a university.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE DEMANDS OF ESL TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

Higher education in Hong Kong exemplifies a special case of English as a Second Language (ESL) (Hyland, 1997). Although English is the principal language of instruction and assessment in Hong Kong's universities, research reveals that a large proportion of undergraduates lack the sufficient proficiency and subsequently experience difficulties meeting the English-language demands of university coursework (e.g., Littlewood & Liu, 1996; Hyland, 1997; Evans & Morrison, 2011; Gan, 2013). These Cantonese-speaking undergraduates are inadequately prepared before entering the university because of their Chinese-medium secondary education (Evans & Morrison, 2011).

The institution where the present study was conducted is the sole provider of university-level teacher training in Hong Kong. Given the fact that the entrance language requirement of this institute is lower than some other universities in Hong Kong (Gan, 2011), enhancing students' language development is particularly important.

Literature on second language teacher preparation suggests that ESL teacher education programs have complex English language requirements (Cruickshank, Newell, & Cole, 2003). Trainees need to reach a certain proficiency level to meet coursework demands such as class participation and presentations, essays, case studies, and other practical teaching assignments. In addition, the teaching practicum placements also require specific proficiencies in written and spoken English, along with detailed knowledge of the cultures of schooling and context-specific ways of interacting with colleagues and students (Cruickshank et al., 2003). This means that for teacher trainees for whom English is a second language, successful course completion means that the core language issues they must address encompass not just listening and reading

comprehension or success in academic writing, but their 'performance' of oral and written English in authentic classroom settings (Sawyer & Singh, 2007).

The teacher education program in the current study is a Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) program that prepares Chinese-speaking students as ESL teachers in secondary schools. The program covers the equivalent curriculum of a BA in English in addition to pedagogical training. Besides the mandatory IELTS test that they must take at the end of their four-year study, the B.Ed. students are also required to take the Language Proficiency Assessment for Teachers (LPATE). LPATE, designed by the government particularly for teacher trainees, specifies standards in the sub-categories of listening, reading, speaking, writing, and ESL classroom language use (Education and Manpower Bureau, 2004). Gan (2011) reported that for two consecutive academic years (2008-2009 and 2009-2010), an alarmingly large number of B.Ed. students were unable to reach Level 3 of LPATE, the minimum requirement for English language teachers in Hong Kong. The complex English language proficiency demands of the teacher education program range from completing the coursework and practicum placements to reaching the government-stipulated proficiency level for all qualified English-language teachers. Curriculum development for the B.Ed. program uses a Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach, which aims to help ESL teacher trainees develop subject content knowledge and English language proficiency simultaneously. The core courses in the B.Ed. program focus on three central areas: subject knowledge of English (e.g., Grammar Studies, English Literature), language pedagogical knowledge (e.g., English Language Curriculum, Second Language Acquisition), and language pedagogical skills (e.g., Practical Skills for English Language Teachers, Discourse Analysis for English Language Teachers). The medium of teaching and learning for all courses is English.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The current study aims to answer the following questions:

1. How much English proficiency improvement can be expected of undergraduates after their first-year English-medium course study in an ESL teacher education program in Hong Kong?

2. What are the students' perceived improvement and lack of improvement in English proficiency at the end of their first-year study in the program?

3. What factors influence the students' English language development in the program?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Initially, 37 first-year students who enrolled in the B.Ed. degree program agreed to participate in this study. Due to attrition, 33 undertook both

pre- and post-IELTS tests. Among the 33 students, 30 were females and three were males. Ten were native Mandarin speakers from Mainland China, and 23 were native Cantonese speakers from Hong Kong. In this article, pseudonyms were used to protect the confidentiality of the participants.

Instruments

The IELTS Test

The study was based on a pre- and post-test design. The IELTS test was chosen as a measure of English language proficiency for three reasons: 1) Because the participants in this study completed their secondary education in Hong Kong or Mainland China, they were admitted to the B.Ed. program through different entrance criteria for English proficiency; 2) IELTS is an internationally common yardstick for measuring English language proficiency; and 3) IELTS test results provide comparability across disciplines and institutions. The test consists of sections in Listening, Reading, Writing, and Speaking. Scores on each of the four sections are reported on a scale of 1 to 9, with 9 representing the highest level, and 1 the lowest, of proficiency, which are similar to the Novice and Distinguished level respectively in the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines. For this study, students took the pre-test at the beginning, and the post-test at the end of their first year in the B.Ed. program. The results of the pre-IELTS test are referred to as Test 1, and the post-IELTS test as Test 2 in this study. The results from Test 1 and Test 2 were analyzed quantitatively to answer Research Question 1 – how much improvement can be expected of students in the B.Ed. program? Paired t-tests were carried out to investigate a possible change between the two tests. Descriptive statistics of the two tests and score gains from Tests 1 to 2 were also calculated.

Interviews

Interviews based on an interview guide (Patton, 2002) were also conducted. Davis (1995), Lazaraton (1995), and Wintergerst and DeCapua (2001) point out that qualitative data such as interviews add an extra dimension by allowing researchers to explore issues often overlooked or unobtainable through quantitative methods. The richness and depth of such qualitative data are invaluable in leading to a full and thorough understanding of the particular phenomenon (Stake, 2000; Mercer, 2011). In this study, each participant was interviewed twice following the release of their IELTS test results. The purpose of the interviews was to understand students' English-language learning and the IELTS test experiences, and to explore the factors that might affect their English-language development. Each interview was guided by prompts and follow-up questions designed to elicit a description of the progress that the students thought they had made and what problems they felt still existed in spoken and written English. Most interviews, lasting between 40 and 60 minutes, were conducted in English, audio-recorded, and transcribed. Some interviews

that were conducted in Chinese were translated into English by a senior research assistant and further checked by the lead author. Data analysis used a constant comparative method (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003) to identify recurring themes and patterns. The comparison across cases enabled us to identify and code the major themes in the transcripts – the participants' perceived progress or lack of progress in their English proficiency, and the factors that might influence their English-language development. Each of these themes was supported by relevant quotes (Fisher, 2001). Consequently, it became clear that the data on participants' perceived progress or lack of progress in their English proficiency clustered into four main themes: listening, reading, writing, and speaking.

RESULTS

IELTS Tests

As displayed in Table 1, the means of the scores in Test 2 were slightly higher than those in Test 1, indicating some improvement. However, the differences did not reach significance level as reflected in the t-test statistics. The highest mean in Test 1 was for Listening (7.591), and it remained the second highest on Test 2 (7.667). Speaking ranked third on both Test 1 (6.485) and Test 2 (6.591), whereas writing scored the lowest on both tests (6.136 and 6.333 respectively). For this cohort of students, the strongest skill was Listening, followed by Reading, Speaking, and Writing on Test 1; the order was slightly different for Test 2: Reading, Listening, Speaking, and Writing. Echoing the findings of a previous study (e.g., O'Loughlin & Arkoudis, 2011), the statistics showed that students' receptive skills were stronger than their productive skills. (Refer to Appendix for individual scores on IELTS Test 1 and Test 2). We set the confidence level at .05. Table 1 showed that the *p* value for Listening, Reading, Writing, Speaking, and Overall were greater than .05, indicating no statistically significant difference between students' performances on the pre- and post-tests.

Table 1
T-test Statistics for the IELTS Test 1 and Test 2 (n =33)

	Test 1		Test 2			
	Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*	*t*	*p**
Listening	7.5909	.8240	7.6667	.80667	-.507	.616
Reading	7.5455	.97919	7.6818	.91701	-.794	.433
Writing	6.1364	.47224	6.3333	.55434	-1.713	.096
Speaking	6.4848	.65532	6.5909	.65496	-.839	.408
Overall	7.0303	.57100	7.1212	.50047	-1.139	.263

*p<.05.

Table 2
Improvement from the IELTS Test 1 to Test 2 (n = 33)

	Mean Gain	SD	SE
Listening	0.076	0.858	0.149
Reading	0.136	0.986	0.172
Writing	0.197	0.661	0.115
Speaking	0.106	0.726	0.126
Overall	0.091	0.459	0.080

Table 2 showed that, for this cohort of students, though the greatest improvement in Test 2 was in Writing (0.197), the improvement was marginal. There was also a marginal increase for Reading (0.136) and Speaking (0.106). The Listening test showed the least improvement (0.076). The areas of improvement appeared to be different from some previous studies. For example, Humphreys, et al. (2012) found that the main improvement in proficiency was in speaking; O'Loughlin and Arkoudis (2009) observed that the greatest improvement was in listening and reading. In our study, the relatively greater improvements were in writing and reading, which could be due to the fact that B.Ed. students' learning was judged primarily through written assignments. Students were required to read extensively prior to the written assignments. Much of the learning thus took place through reading and writing, whereas the need for spoken English was much less pronounced due to the ubiquity of Cantonese on and off campus.

The tables below explain further how students at each band level performed on the pre- and post-IELTS tests on Listening (Table 3); Reading (Table 4); Writing (Table 5); Speaking (Table 6); and Overall (Table 7).

Table 3
Listening Score Increases or Decreases across the IELTS Band Levels (n = 33)

Band Level on Test 1	*n*	Higher Score on Test 2	Same Score on Test 2	Lower Score on Test 2
6.0	1	1		
6.5	7	4	3	
7.0	4	4		
7.5	3	2		1
8.0	10	4	1	5
8.5	7		4	3
9.0	1			1

Table 3 showed that the Listening scores ranged from Band Levels 6.0 to 9.0 on Test 1, with almost one third of the participants scoring 8.0. Those who scored below 8.0 on Test 1 demonstrated a discernable tendency to score higher on Test 2, whereas those who scored 8.0 or above on Test 1 either had the same or lower scores on Test 2. Given the language environment where students did

not need to use English outside the classroom, this group of study participants' Listening scores might have plateaued at Band Level 8.0.

Table 4
Reading Score Increases or Decreases across the IELTS Band Levels (n = 33)

Band Level on Test 1	*n*	Higher Score on Test 2	Same Score on Test 2	Lower Score on Test 2
5.0	1	1		
6.0				
6.5	5	4	1	
7.0	5	2	1	2
7.5	7	3		4
8.0	3	1	1	1
8.5	9	3	2	4
9.0	2		1	1

Table 4 revealed that the Reading scores ranged from 5.0 to 9.0 on Test 1, with no one scoring at Band 6. The overwhelming majority (29 students) scored between Band Level 6.5 and Band Level 8.5 on Test 1, and those with scores of 7.0 above on Test 1 showed a tendency to score lower on Test 2.

Table 5
Writing Score Increases or Decreases across the IELTS Band Levels (n = 33)

Band Level on Test 1	*n*	Higher Score on Test 2	Same Score on Test 2	Lower Score on Test 2
5.5	6	4	2	
6.0	17	8	6	3
6.5	5	1	2	2
7.0	5		1	4

Table 5 demonstrated that the Writing scores ranged from 5.5 to 7.0. Half of the students scored 6.0 on Test 1. On Test 2, approximately half of the participants obtained higher scores, but the other half remained the same or went down. None of the five students who scored 7.0 on Test 1 showed any improvement on Test 2. The statistics suggested that for the participants in this study, Writing scores might have plateaued at an initial score of 6.0.

Table 6 below displayed that, the Speaking scores on Test 1 ranged from 5.0 to 7.5, covering six band levels. Among the 15 students who scored 5.0, 5.5 and 6.0 on Test 1, 10 scored higher on Test 2; whereas among the 18 students who scored 6.5, 7.0 and 7.5 on Test 1, only three scored higher on Test 2. Additionally, none of the six students who scored 7.5 on Test 1 demonstrated any improvement on Test 2. These results seemed to suggest that it was difficult for students at Band Level 6.5 or above to further improve their speaking.

Table 6
Speaking Score Increases or Decreases across the IELTS Band Levels (n = 33)

Band Level on Test 1	n	Higher Score on Test 2	Same Score on Test 2	Lower Score on Test 2
5.0	1	1		
5.5	1	1		
6.0	13	8	4	1
6.5	7	1	1	5
7.0	5	2	2	1
7.5	6		1	5

Table 7
Overall Score Increases or Decreases across the IELTS Band Levels (n = 33)

Band Level on Test 1	n	Higher Score on Test 2	Same Score on Test 2	Lower Score on Test 2
5.5	1	1		
6.0	1	1		
6.5	8	5	3	
7.0	11	4	6	1
7.5	9		5	4
8.0	3		3	

Table 7 showed that the highest Overall score on Test 1 was 8.0, and the lowest was 5.5. One-third of the students scored 7.5 or higher, one-third scored 7, and one-third scored 6.5 or lower on Test 1. As for score changes between Tests 1 and 2, only one-third scored higher on Test 2. More students at Band Levels 6.5 and 7.0 on Test 1 made improvements on Test 2. Although nearly one-third scored 7.5 on Test 1, none of these students made any improvement on Test 2. These statistics suggested that, for the majority of this cohort of students, Overall Band score 7.0 could be considered a plateau level[1], and hence it might be harder to progress beyond this level, particularly in consideration of the influence of individual, institutional, and sociocultural factors, which will be discussed in the next section of the paper.

Students' Perceived Improvement or Lack of Improvement

The interview data were analyzed to answer the following research questions: What are the students' perceived improvement and lack of improvement in English proficiency at the end of their first year of study? What factors influenced students' English-language development in the program? Qualitative analysis of the interview data allowed us to categorize students' perceptions into four main areas: listening, reading, writing and speaking.

Listening

Ten participants in this study completed their primary and secondary schools in mainland China and 23 completed theirs in Hong Kong. The interview data revealed that, at the beginning of semester one, nearly all mainland Chinese students experienced considerable difficulties in understanding lectures and conversations with their lecturers or peer classmates. They could not follow a lecture or a tutorial conducted entirely in English because they had never had any exposure to English-medium teaching of content subjects before their arrival in Hong Kong. They also reported that lecturers were generally oblivious to their listening difficulties, assuming that students had already reached a certain proficiency level to understand the authentic discourse of university classes. One student, Grace, commented that she could only understand 60% of the lecture content during the first few weeks. In addition to lectures, some mainland students had difficulty communicating with their teachers or fellow students. Angel's case illustrated this:

> In the first class of academic reading, the lecturer asked me a question. I could not understand what she was saying and could not answer her question.

By using strategies of previewing the lecture contents and studying the relevant subject-specific vocabulary prior to lectures and tutorials, these mainland students perceived themselves making remarkable progress and having adapted to the demands of university-level listening at the end of semester one. They felt that they had a better grip of academic English after one semester of study.

Some of the Hong Kong students in this study graduated from English-medium schools, and experienced no difficulties comprehending lectures. Some Hong Kong students who graduated from Chinese-medium schools, however, reported frustration with special or technical vocabulary with which they were unfamiliar – a problem that occasionally caused them to lose the thread of lectures and tutorials. By putting extra effort into learning technical vocabulary, they were increasingly coming to terms with comprehending the course content.

Reading

Several mainland Chinese and Hong Kong students reported that reading gave them considerable challenges in the B.Ed. program. They struggled with the high volume of unknown subject-specific vocabulary. Inability to tackle complex grammatical structures in subject readings, as well as the abstract and theoretical content of many academic texts, also hindered their reading comprehension of unfamiliar disciplinary genres.

All the students in this study felt that their overall academic reading proficiency had increased by the end of the first year of study. Most attributed their perceived reading improvement to the large quantity of required reading,

an increase of discipline-specific lexical knowledge, and a greater awareness of syntactic complexity.

Writing

The interviews revealed that, at the commencement of university study, almost all participants found academic writing most challenging. They reported that the English compositions they used to write at school, either in Hong Kong or mainland China, were between 100 and 300 words, but an essay assignment in the B.Ed. program ranged in length from 1000 to 2000 words. Length was not the principal source of difficulty. Much of the concern with academic writing was the result of the following: 1) uncertainty about course requirements; 2) nebulous expectations in written assignments; and 3) perception of academic writing as time-consuming and rhetorically foreign as a result of unfamiliarity with disciplinary genres. The second round of interviews showed that nearly all participants believed that academic writing was not as demanding as it was in the first few months in the B.Ed. program after completing the written assignments in their first year of study.

Speaking

There was a perception among most of the students that speaking was less demanding than the other skills because lectures and written assignments required listening, writing, and reading skills more than speaking. Speaking was the area where students found it hard to see tangible improvement. In fact, most courses afforded limited opportunities for speaking English. There were a few courses in which short oral discussion or presentation was organized. Such discussion or presentation lasted a few minutes for students to share information and ideas. Sometimes, students carried out the discussion in their native language, as one student reported:

> We often switched to Cantonese or Mandarin during oral discussion as this makes it more convenient to make ourselves understood and to understand what is being said.

Unlike universities in Singapore and India where English functions both as a campus lingua franca and classroom medium, the need for spoken English is less pronounced in Hong Kong universities. At the university where this study was conducted, academic communication outside the classroom, such as project work and study group discussions, is generally conducted in Cantonese. Students lived with Cantonese- or Mandarin-speaking roommates, socializing mostly in their native language. One student from an English-medium school in Hong Kong felt that her spoken English became worse as she progressed in the B.Ed. program:

> I used to have more accurate grammar during speech; now my friends often found me speaking English with wrong grammar.

Overall, in the second round of interviews, the majority of the students reported that they perceived no obvious improvement in their spoken English. The problems that they identified in the two interviews were the same: lack of confidence, grammatical errors, and an inability to think in English.

DISCUSSION

Despite the relatively small sample size of this study, which means that any generation should be made with caution, the study suggests that students with lower initial scores are more likely to improve their test scores than those with higher scores, and that students with higher initial scores are more likely to stabilize or regress – a finding that is consistent with those of Green (2005), O'Loughlin and Arkoudis (2009) and Humphreys et al. (2012). The findings of the present study show marginal increases in Listening, Reading, Speaking, Writing, and Overall scores after one year of English-medium course study in the B.Ed. program.

There are two possible explanations for marginal increases in the IELTS scores. One possibility is that English learning and development did occur in the B.Ed. program, but the gain in some cases was not sufficient to be reflected on the IELTS scale. The second possibility relates to the testing situation. The IELTS test, often used for entrance-screening purposes, assesses whether a student's English proficiency is sufficient for studying at an English-medium university (Davies, 2008). The test focuses on general academic proficiency, similar to what Cummins (1979; 2000) calls Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). What the students learned in the B.Ed. program, however, was discipline-specific. For example, the academic writing training the students received was discipline- and genre-specific; hence, considerably different from the more generic academic IELTS writing tasks. In this light, the data from this study provides empirical evidence for the argument that second language proficiency is not a straightforward, one-dimensional construct, and it encompasses a complex array of different dimensions that become more or less salient, depending on the context in which the construct of proficiency is being situated (Humphreys et al. 2012). The findings of this study thus echo an increasing awareness of the limitations of English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) courses in catering to students' discipline-specific needs and a call for provision of English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) courses to address students' discipline-related academic and linguistic needs (Liyanage & Birch, 2001).

The current study collected interview data to further understand the factors that might influence the participants' English-language development. The interviews revealed a general perception among the students that content lecturers were not committed to helping the students with language development. Students commented that most lecturers did not consider developing students'

English language proficiency as their responsibility. The B.Ed. program afforded few opportunities to develop students' spoken English skills because content learning was predominantly assessed through written assignments. In view of the present situation, innovative instructional methods are needed to encourage a shift from a teacher-dominated, product-oriented, and transmissional approach to one that is more process-oriented and learner-centered. This transformation will enable lecturers to create opportunities for students to acquire the speaking skills that they need in and out of the classroom.

Krashen (1988) argues that successful second language learning requires comprehensible input that actively engages the learner. Although the academic courses offered in the B.Ed. program are meant to impart subject knowledge of various fields, many students cannot fully comprehend course content. This is because the academic language in some courses use "less frequent vocabulary of English, complex syntax, and abstract expressions that are virtually never heard in everyday conversation" (Cummins & Man, 2007, p.801). This poses a great challenge to non-native English speakers. For example, one content course that the participants in this study found most difficult to understand was English Grammar. The course analyzed grammar from an integrated perspective, drawing insights from both formalist and functional approaches. Students complained that the lectures were replete with special terminology. One student commented: "I had no clue most of the time what was going on in the grammar lecture; perhaps it's due to the fact that I have never studied grammar before, and have always had problems following the instruction." It can be concluded that linguistically and cognitively challenging language in content areas may negatively affect both the learning of subject content knowledge and English language. Content lecturers thus need to provide language support for students to develop comprehension skills, understand content, and achieve language and content learning goals.

Lock (1996) also states that learning a second language means gaining progressive control over the systems of options in the new language, learning which options to select to make which meanings in which contexts. Students who do not yet have sufficient proficiency in English tend to have limited options (a few structures, some lexical items, and some unanalyzed chunks of language), whereas more advanced learners have developed a greater range of options and are able to make more subtle distinctions of meanings appropriate in various contexts (Derewianka, 2003). In the case of students in the B.Ed. program, relying solely on content lecturers' provision of language support is inadequate, and students need to actively use their linguistic environment to build knowledge of the second language (Gass, 2002). More opportunities to interact with others in a second language may give rise to frequent occasions of practicing and producing "comprehensible output" (Swain, 2005), where students may notice a gap in their knowledge of the second language, receive feedback from their interlocutor(s) about their language output, and refine their knowledge of the second language (Gan, 2013).

Hong Kong is often described as an "input-poor environment" of the English language where most communication beyond the university classroom

is in Cantonese, and English is rarely used in social intercourse (Flowerdew, Li & Miller, 1998). Students in the current study also confirmed that they had little contact with spoken English outside the classroom. Interestingly, mainland Chinese students all felt a need to learn spoken Cantonese because it was the preferred language for communication on and off campus, whereas Hong Kong students demonstrated a strong desire to learn Mandarin from mainland Chinese students. Although the university claims that English is the medium of instruction, some lecturers or tutors do not always use English in the classroom. One student, Stella, reported that she was rather disappointed when her lecturer used Cantonese most of the time in teaching contrastive analysis of English and Chinese grammar.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

Elder (1997) points out that teachers need to be able to correctly model important information, to tailor language to make it intelligible to students, to give clear instructions, and to process and synthesize feedback. "Without high levels of comprehension and considerable flexibility and fluency of expression it is unlikely that non-native speakers who are training to be teachers will perform effectively in this crucial area of their professional education" (p. 74). Richards (2010) also rates language proficiency as the most important skill among the ten core dimensions of expertise in language teaching. Recent literature of content-based instruction for second language students (e.g., Paesani & Willis, 2012; Stoller, 2004; Snow, 2001) also highlights that the development of second language proficiency should be considered an overarching goal of all content-based instruction programs.

The current study suggests that the forms of disciplinary teaching and learning in the B.Ed. program are limited in their capacity to help ESL teacher trainees improve their English proficiency, given the program's focus on content with little attention to language. The findings of this study indicate innovative pedagogical practices are important to teacher trainees' English language growth. Given that high level of English proficiency is essential for the teacher trainees' future careers, the B.Ed. program should employ instructional strategies in its content courses that afford ample opportunities for students to enhance their English language skills. The university should embed English language support in content courses. An important role for subject content lecturers in the ESL teacher training program is to draw students' attention to the way language is used in the content materials through carefully planned scaffolding and instruction. Such systematic scaffolding and instruction (Cummins, 2000; Wong Fillmore, 2009) help students simultaneously acquire content knowledge and develop language proficiency. Extensive reading is crucial for the development of the ability to interpret and produce increasingly complex written and oral language in a non-English environment. Meanwhile, students also need to be trained to utilize their linguistic environment. Through interactions, students will develop the skills of positioning themselves and others; evaluating and critiquing; negotiating subtle interpersonal stances; and making judgments.

Finally, the study suggests that the teacher trainers and disciplinary teachers need to pay attention to developing students' speaking skills by creating "an environment where the target language is the natural means of communication for learners and teacher alike, and where learners have the means at their disposal to effect such target language communication, confidently and spontaneously (Christie, 2013, p.14).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

NOTE

1. An IELTS Band 7.0 is roughly similar to 'Advanced Low' on the ACTFL scale. A Band 7.0 learner has operational command of the language, though with occasional inaccuracy, inappropriateness, and misunderstanding.

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APPENDIX

IELTS Test 1 and TEST 2 individual results

Test takers	Test 1					Test 2				
	L	*R*	*W*	*S*	*Overall*	*L*	*R*	*W*	*S*	*Overall*
1	8.0	7.5	6.0	7.5	7.5	8.5	8.0	6.0	6.0	7.0
2	8.0	7.5	6.0	6.0	7.0	8.0	7.0	6.0	7.5	7.0
3	6.5	7.5	6.0	6.0	6.5	6.5	8.0	6.0	6.5	7.0
4	7.0	6.5	6.5	6.5	6.5	7.5	8.5	6.0	7.0	7.5
5	6.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	6.0	6.5	7.0	7.0	6.0	6.5
6	6.0	5.0	5.5	5.0	5.5	7.0	6.0	5.5	5.5	6.0
7	7.0	7.0	5.5	6.0	6.5	7.5	7.0	5.5	6.0	6.5
8	6.5	6.5	6.0	6.5	6.5	7.0	8.0	6.5	6.0	7.0
9	8.5	8.5	6.0	7.0	7.5	8.5	8.5	6.0	7.0	7.5
10	7.0	7.0	6.0	7.5	7.0	8.5	9.0	6.5	6.5	7.5
11	6.5	6.5	6.0	6.0	6.5	7.0	6.5	5.5	6.5	6.5
12	8.5	8.0	7.0	7.0	7.5	8.5	8.5	6.0	6.5	7.5
13	6.5	7.0	5.5	6.0	6.5	6.5	6.5	6.5	5.5	6.5
14	8.0	7.5	5.5	6.5	7.0	7.5	7.0	7.0	6.0	7.0
15	6.5	7.5	6.0	6.0	6.5	8.0	7.0	7.0	6.0	7.0
16	8.5	8.5	6.0	6.0	7.5	6.5	8.0	6.0	6.0	6.5
17	8.0	7.5	6.0	7.5	7.5	6.5	7.0	5.5	7.0	6.5
18	8.0	6.5	6.0	7.0	7.0	7.5	7.0	6.0	8.0	7.0
19	8.5	7.0	6.0	6.0	7.0	8.5	8.5	7.5	6	7.5
20	8.5	8.5	6.5	7.0	7.5	8.0	7.5	7.5	7.0	7.5
21	7.5	6.5	6.5	6.0	6.5	8.0	7.5	6.5	7.0	7.5
22	6.5	8.5	6,0	6.5	7.0	8.0	7.0	6.5	6.0	7.0
23	7.5	8.5	6.5	6.5	7.5	8.0	9.0	6.0	6.5	7.5
24	8.0	7.0	7.0	6.5	7.0	8.5	6.5	6.5	6.0-	7.0
25	7.0	8.0	6.0	6.0	7.0	8.0	8.0	6.5	7.5	7.5
26	8.5	9.0	7.0	7.0	8.0	8.0	9.0	6.5	7.5	8.0
27	8.5	8.5	7.0	7.5	8.0	8.5	9.0	6.5	7.0	8.0
28	7.5	8.0	6.0	6.0	7.0	6.0	6.0	5.5	7.5	6.5
29	9.0	8.5	7.0	7.5	7.5	8.5	8.5	7.0	7.0	8.0
30	8.0	8.5	6.5	7.5	7.5	9.0	7.5	6.5	7.5	7.5
31	8.0	9.0	6.0	6.0	7.5	7.0	7.5	7.0	7.0	7.0
32	8.0	8.5	5.5	6.5	7.0	8.5	9.0	6.0	6.0	7.5
33	8.0	7.5	6.0	6.0	7.0	7.0	8.5	6.5	6.5	7.0

Note: L= Listening; R=Reading; W=Writing; S=Speaking.

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REVIEW

Language Teacher Education for a Global Society. *(2012). By B. Kumaravadivelu. New York, NY: Routledge. Pp. 148.*

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Kumaravadivelu's (2012) *Language Teacher Education for a Global Society* is a book that provides a coherent and comprehensive framework for teacher preparation in our era of increasing economic, cultural, and educational globalization. The book stresses the impacts of globalization on education and teacher education, and develops an argument that an imminent need exists to develop a new teacher education model. Although the book tends to focus on teacher preparation for English teaching, the underlying idea and concepts are applicable not only to English, but also to foreign language teacher education.

Kumaravadivelu (henceforth Kumar) proposes to transform the existing traditional teacher education programs into those more innovative. The book is designed as an in-depth examination of the elements in a modular model recommended by Kumar for teacher education in a globalized society.

Kumar's new teacher education model is called KARDS, Knowing, Analyzing, Recognizing, Doing, and Seeing. Through this model, Kumar intends to move away from the "traditional ways of designing a linear, product-based, transmission-oriented, and discrete course" towards "new ways of designing cyclical, process-based, transformation-oriented, and holistic modules" (Kumaravadivelu, 2012, p. x). It is his belief that only the classroom provides meaningful, context-sensitive pedagogic knowledge, and only practicing teachers have access to such knowledge. Nevertheless, current language teacher education prepares teachers to be consumers rather than producers of pedagogic knowledge, in spite of the fact that more responsibility and pressure are placed on practicing teachers, student teachers, and teacher educators to address the consequences that come with the rapidity of globalization. As such, Kumar calls for reviewing and revising language teacher education so teachers are enabled to be thinkers, researchers, and intellectuals who explore the unknown and challenging domains, make strategic decisions, and transform the traditional practices.

The book is composed of seven chapters. The first chapter provides an overview of the theoretical underpinnings in relation to the new teacher

education model. The chapter examines the existing language teacher education derived from global perspectives, i.e., post-national, post-modern, post-colonial, post-transmission, and post-method, and the three operating principles, particularity, practicality, and possibility. Post-national, postmodern, and postcolonial perspectives highlight the necessity of paying attention to the flow of global education and economy, and local linguistic and cultural sensitivities. They also call for respecting multiple forms of knowledge and practices while alerting the reader to the remnants of colonialism in scholastic, linguistic, cultural, and economic domains in language teaching. Post-transmission and post-method are perspectives that are more concerned with language teacher education. The five global perspectives are deeply interconnected and are symbiotically related to the three operating principles, which function as core tenets defining the way a model or a system operates. In regards to the KARDS model, the principle of particularity emphasizes sensitivity to local individual, institutional, social, and cultural contexts in which learning and teaching occur. The principle of practicality encourages teachers to develop context-sensitive theory from practice. The principle of possibility supports teachers to transform their personal and social identity by overcoming the existing constraints and set practices.

The sequential chapters respectively explore each componential module of KARDS: Knowing, Analyzing, Recognizing, Doing, and Seeing. In Chapter 2, the chapter on Knowing, Kumar focuses on teachers' knowing. The author begins with a philosophical distinction, *knowing* vs. *knowledge*. He perceives knowing as the process of inquiry and knowledge as a product. In exploring knowing, Kumar elaborates on three frames of reference: professional knowledge—intellectual content produced by experts; procedural knowledge—knowledge regarding instructional management strategies in the classroom; and personal knowledge—the individual teacher's knowledge of what works and what doesn't. Kumar emphasizes the importance of helping teachers develop their own personal knowledge.

In Chapter 3, Kumar focuses on analyzing learners' needs, motivation, and autonomy. He claims that teachers should develop knowledge and skills needed to analyze and understand learners' needs, motivation, and autonomy to better perform their duties. Kumar states that the needs of globalized societies and their job markets demand new ways of analyzing and understanding learners, and contends that a systematic analysis of learner needs, motivation, and autonomy includes "macro-level socio-economic and educational factors as well as micro-level matters related to learners' language use and learning purposes" (p. 38). Kumar has noted that intrinsic motivation can be more effective than extrinsic motivation as a motivator in human behavior. However, he also notes that shifting of motivational factors, such as the traditional concept of integrative motivation (e.g., Gardner) may not be as applicable in the current world due to the influence of cultural globalization and its consequent impact on individuals and countries.

Chapter 4, which deals with Recognizing, is about the importance of recognizing teacher identities, beliefs, and values, i.e., teachers' teaching Self.

Kumar examines the general concepts of identity, its formation, beliefs and belief system, values and value judgments, and ways to interrogate the teachers' teaching Self. He notes the necessity for teachers to interrogate their teaching Self using critical auto-ethnography, an investigative tool to conduct "one's subjective analysis and assessment of one's Self but done in a systematic and sustained manner" (p. 69). His intent is to draw a self-portrait that bridges the personal, the professional, the pedagogical, and the political selves.

In Chapter 5, the chapter of Doing, Kumar highlights that the practice of teaching, theorizing, and dialoging are intimately intertwined and are interdependent in a cycle of formation and transformation. Kumar regards teaching as an interactive activity where learning opportunities are created. He views that teachers can better understand what occurs in the classroom through classroom-based inquiry, which can lead to teacher theorizing. To Kumar, local practice and teachers' personal experience have more significance than professional theories of language learning and teaching, and this teacher theorizing can be enriched through the collaborative process of dialogic inquiry.

In Chapter 6, Kumar focuses on the concept of Seeing and delves into three different forms of seeing, i.e., seeing-in, seeing-as, and seeing-that. Seeing-in is a superficial seeing of objects as they appear without critical engagement. Seeing-as is an observation that connects and provides understanding of past and current classroom experiences. Seeing-that is a higher form of seeing that helps bridging conceptual knowledge and perceptual knowledge, as seeing-that is mediated by seeing and knowing. Kumar also examines three observational approaches: interaction, discourse, and critical. He claims that teachers', learners', and observers' perspectives should be taken into account so that one can meaningfully see what happens in the classroom.

In the concluding chapter, Kumar wraps up the book by highlighting the modular model that he proposes, its structure, the underlying concept of its design, and its functions. He underlines that the strength of the model lies in its sensitivity to local demands and its capability to respond to global circumstances. His modular model is a context-sensitive model for teacher education that enables practitioners to build a locally relevant teacher education program. The modules, Knowing, Analyzing, Recognizing, Doing, and Seeing, are intertwined, functioning in relation to the principles of particularity, practicality, and possibility.

In *Language Teacher Education for a Global Society,* Kumar provides a comprehensive model of teacher education. He presents some of the latest scholarship on language teaching and teacher education and discusses challenges and opportunities triggered by economic, cultural, and educational globalization. The model suggests a transformative way to conduct language teacher preparation. Each chapter is organized with content presentation, a summary of his argument, reading comprehension questions, and additional tasks that Kumar proposes, such as a list of reflective questions on the topic, and exploratory projects that encourage readers to explore and go beyond the topic in relation to real-life situations.

Language Teacher Education for a Global Society addresses the interests and concerns of a variety of audiences, such as student teachers, practicing teachers, teacher educators, and educational researchers involved in teacher education on the national and international level. The book is helpful to both professionals in language teaching and teacher education.

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UPCOMING EVENTS 2015

JANUARY

January 8-11 Linguistic Society of American (LSA) Annual Meeting, Portland, OR. Information: www.linguisticsociety.org.

January 8-11 Modern Language Association (MLA) Convention, Vancouver, Canada. Information: www.mla.org/convention.

January 8-11 American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages (AATSEEL), Vancouver, Canada. Information: www.aatseel.org.

MARCH

March 5-7 Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT), Atlanta, GA. Information: www.scolt.org.

March 12-14 Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (CSCTFL), Minneapolis, MN. Information: www.csctfl.org.

March 21-24 American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL), Toronto, Canada. Information: www.aaal.org.

March 25-28 Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) International Convention, Toronto, Canada. Information: www.tesol.org.

March 26 American Association of Teachers of Japanese (AATJ) Spring Conference, Chicago, IL. Information: www.aatj.org.

March 26-29, 25th Conference on Spanish in the United States: New York City, NY. Information: http://education.ccny.cuny.edu/sius2015/.

March 27-30 Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (NECTFL), Boston, MA. Information: www.nectfl.org.

APRIL

April 16-20 American Educational Research Association (AERA) Annual Meeting, Chicago, IL. Information: www.aera.net.

MAY

May 6-10 Computer Assisted Language Instruction Consortium (CALICO) Conference, Athens, OH. Information: www.calico.org.

May 25-30 NAFSA: Association of International Educators Annual Conference and Expo, San Diego, CA. Information: www.nafsa.org.

JUNE

June 13-15 International Society for Language Studies (ISLS) Annual Conference, Akita, Japan. Information: www.isls.co/index.html.

June 25-27 American Association of Teachers of Korean (AATK) Annual Conference, Monterey, CA. Information: www.aatk.org.

JULY

July 8-11 American Association of Teachers of French (AATF), Saguenay, Quebec, Canada. Information: www.frenchteachers.org.

NOVEMBER

November 20-22 American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages Annual Convention (ACTFL), San Diego, CA. Information: www.actfl.org.

November 20-22 American Association of Teachers of German (AATG) Annual Conference, San Diego, CA. Information: www.aatg.org.

November 20-22 American Association of Teachers of Japanese (AATJ) Fall Conference, San Diego, CA. Information: www.aatj.org.

November 20-22 Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA) Annual Conference, San Diego, CA. Information: clta-us.org.

November 21-24 Middle East Studies Association (MESA) Annual Meeting, Denver, CO. Information: www.mesa.arizona.edu.

INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

Submission Information for Authors

AIMS AND SCOPE

Applied Language Learning (ALL) is to increase and promote professional communication within the Defense Language Program and academic communities on adult language learning for functional purposes.

The Editor encourages the submission of research and review manuscripts from such disciplines as: (1) instructional methods and techniques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communication, psychology, and social sciences; and (5) assessment of needs within the profession.

SPECIFICATIONS FOR MANUSCRIPTS

Prepare the manuscripts in accordance with the following requirements:

- Follow APA style (the 6th Edition) – the style set by the American Psychological Association;
- Not exceeding 6,000 words (not including reference, appendix, etc.);
- Use double spacing, with margins of one inch on all four sides;
- Use Times New Roman font size 12;
- Number all pages consecutively;
- In black and white only, including graphics and tables;
- Create graphics and tables in a Microsoft Office application (such as Word, PowerPoint, Excel);
- Graphics and tables should be in Times New Roman font;
- Graphics and tables should not exceed 4.5" in width;
- Do not use the footnotes and endnotes function in MS Word. Insert a number formatted in superscript following a punctuation mark. Type notes on a separate page. Center the word "Notes" at the top of the page. Indent five spaces on the first line of each sequentially-numbered note; and
- Keep the layout of the text as simple as possible.

SUBMISSION REQUIREMENT

Applied Language Learning publishes only original works that have not been previously published elsewhere and that are not under consideration by other publications.

Each submission must contain (1) a title page, including author information; (2) abstract of the article; (3) five key words; and (4) manuscript, including references.

Send all submissions electronically to the Editor: jiaying.howard@dliflc.edu.

REVIEW PROCESS

Manuscripts will be acknowledged by the editor upon receipt and subsequently sent out for peer review. Authors will be informed about the status of the article once the peer reviews have been received and processed. Reviewer comments will be shared with the authors. Once an article has been accepted for publication, the author will receive further instructions regarding the submission of the final copy.

CORRESPONDENCE

Send all inquiries and editorial correspondence by email to the Editor: jiaying.howard@dliflc.edu.

Guidelines for Manuscript Preparation

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Divide your manuscript into the following sections, in the order listed below:
1. Title and Author Information
2. Abstract
3. Key words
4. Text body, including:
   - Acknowledgements (optional)
   - Notes (optional)
   - References
   - Tables and figures (optional)
   - Appendixes (optional)

REVIEW ARTICLE

It should describe, discuss, and evaluate several publications that fall into a topical category in foreign language education. The relative significance of the publications in the context of teaching realms should be pointed out. A review article should be 15 to 20 double-spaced pages.

REVIEW

Submit reviews of textbooks, scholarly works on foreign language education, dictionaries, tests, computer software, audio-video materials, computer and mobile applications, and other non-print materials. Point out both positive and negative aspects of the work(s) being considered. In the three to five double-spaced pages of the manuscript, give a clear but brief statement of the work's content and a critical assessment of its contribution to the profession. Keep quotations short. Do not send reviews that are merely descriptive.

COMMENTARY

ALL invites essays that exchange ideas and views on innovative foreign language education; and comments on matters of general academic or critical interest or on articles in previous issues. Essays should not exceed 2,000 words.

CALL FOR PAPERS

Applied Language Learning, a refereed journal published semiannually by the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center and Presidio of Monterey, is soliciting articles for publication.

The Journal *(US* ISSN 1041-679X and ISSN 2164-0912 for the online version) is to provide a forum for the exchange of ideas and information on instructional methods and techniques, curriculum and materials development, assessment of needs within the profession, testing and evaluation, and implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communications, psychology, and the social sciences. The journal seeks to serve the professional interest of language teachers, administrators, and researchers concerned with the teaching of foreign languages to adult learners. We welcome articles that describe innovative and successful practice and methods and/or report educational research or experimentation.

Please refer to Specifications for Manuscripts (p. 112).

All manuscripts should be electronically submitted to the Editor: jiaying.howard@dliflc.edu.

Deadline: Submissions are welcome at any point. Manuscripts received by *31 March* will be considered for the spring issue and by *31 September* for the fall issue of the journal.

THANK YOU REVIEWERS