Home Truths from Abroad?
A TESOL Blueprint for the Mediation of L1/L2 Language Awareness

by

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Declaration

I, Neil Morgan, hereby declare that this thesis
is entirely my own work, and confirm that the thesis has not been
previously submitted for a degree at another university.
Home Truths from Abroad?

A TESOL Blueprint for the Mediation of L1/L2

Language Awareness

Abstract

The status of the cross-linguistic dimension of second language learning, and hence of L2 pedagogy, appears to have been systematically underplayed in epicentric, i.e. flowing from centre to periphery, theories of second language acquisition (SLA). Indeed, following the advent of cognitivism, mainstream SLA theory has frequently sought to marginalize anything suggestive of a contrastive paradigm. SLA conceptions of the nature of the influence of a learner’s first language on L2 acquisition and performance have tended to take the form of reductive dichotomies of the interference versus facilitative resource type – a mutually exclusive either/or interpretation. Consciously or otherwise, epicentric theories of L2 learning and pedagogy have filtered down to the language improvement and language awareness components of TESOL initial teacher education (ITE) and in-service education and training (INSET), where the focus is exclusively monolingual L2 and necessity all too often masquerades as principle. Against this backdrop, the present inquiry set out to evaluate the perceived benefits of an explicitly cross-linguistic (L1/L2) approach to language awareness on an L2 ITE program for pre-service trainees from the Japanese EFL context. Based on the evaluative response data from the non-native speaker (NNS) program participants, I invoke the notion of analytic generalization to argue that an explicit focus on selected cross-linguistic aspects of L2 learning, together with awareness-raising in respect of a range of context-specific ESOL-related issues has the potential to positively contribute both to trainees’ L2 development and to their development as pre-service TESOL professionals. The thesis further argues for a more holistic appreciation of the dynamic, complex nature of cross-linguistic influence viewed within a broader, context-specific conception of the L2 Teacher Language Awareness (L2 TLA) construct.
Prologue: A Personal Vignette

Looking back, I find I can trace the genesis of this study to a specific time and place, and to a particular, pronounced, and persistent feeling that descended on me like an intractable virus at that time and in that place. The time was the summer of the millennium, and the place Osaka, teeming commercial heartland of the Kansai. The feeling itself was a potent cocktail of disappointment, growing realization, and that smouldering form of resentment one feels when one has seen through some form of institutional pretence having at first been taken in by appeals to professionalism and claims of authenticity.

A hundred or so of us had gathered to attend a continuing professional development session – one of a number of such sessions held at regular intervals in various strategic locations throughout Japan – which would lead, after the completion of a formal assignment, to the award of a full ‘Certificate in Teaching English to Japanese Students’, which was to be suitably embellished by the addition of the sponsor’s and agent’s details.

The presenters were all qualified, experienced, and highly competent practitioners within the Japanese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context, and the program included modules on the teaching and learning of vocabulary, grammar, reading, motivation, classroom management and activities, and Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), among several others.

What was it, then, that sounded the wrong note, so to speak, and led, in this participant at least, to such a palpable sense of dissatisfaction? It was, I think, a
profound sense of dissonance as between program title and program content. By this I mean that the program content was uniformly generic, while the program title implied and therefore demanded specificity.

The same program could, I felt, have been run in Spain or Thailand or Turkey with minimal alteration to the content. And yet the program had been promoted on the basis of a purported specificity – it was, after all, a ‘Certificate in Teaching English to Japanese students’, not Spanish students or Thai students or Turkish students or any other mono- or multilingual grouping one might care to nominate. Program references to the EFL issues specific to Japanese learners were, by and large, conspicuous by their absence, as generic observation followed generic observation.

All of which led me to wonder – exactly what would a professional development program aimed specifically at fostering an increased ability to meet the EFL needs of Japanese learners look like? What would the main areas of linguistic focus be? And how, exactly, would these be conceptualized for and made accessible to program participants so as to facilitate their practical application?

But perhaps one should not be too critical. One could, after all, choose to take the view, as many do, that the primary function of courses aimed at fostering professional development is not so much to provide sets of ready-made answers, but rather to spur in participants an ongoing search for (individual) insight, however indirectly. And yet, the nagging suspicions remain. And why, given the focus, should the two objectives necessarily be thought of as incompatible?
Home Truths from Abroad?

A TESOL Blueprint for the Mediation of L1/L2

Language Awareness

Introduction

As the prologue vignette implies, this thesis is the product of a cumulative and enduring fascination with the learner language I encountered over an extended period as an ESOL instructor in the Kansai region of western Honshu, Japan. As for the motivation underlying the thesis’ perspective on its subject matter, two themes will, I trust, have already emerged from the prologue as significant: a relatively uncontroversial belief in the need for applied linguistics to take due account of context and contextual specificity, and an intuitive desire to explore the possibilities for a reconciling of apparently oppositional constructs and tendencies – the facilitative and the inhibitory; teaching and learning; the generic and the particular; the ready-made answer and the unconstrained spirit of inquiry. My engagement with the latter concern was, as it happens, coincident with the – perhaps belated – recognition within the field of applied linguistics of the value - some would say the necessity - of a willingness to move beyond the specious comforts offered by static, reductive representations in order to more fully engage with the dynamic complexity of real-world (linguistic) phenomena.

The thesis will detail the design, delivery and evaluation of a fifteen-week language awareness program - or rather, program module - for a group of nine pre-service trainees from the Japanese EFL context at the University of Warwick’s Centre for Applied Linguistics in the spring and summer of 2010. The language awareness module was essentially concerned to raise awareness among the trainees of the cross-linguistic (L1/L2) dimension of second language (L2) learning – this via the experiential learning made possible by the adoption of a (trainee) L2 teachers as L2 learners perspective.
The thesis is, then, to be regarded first and foremost as a language program evaluation and its status as a case study is, therefore, conferred as a de facto by-product. Specification within the case study genre would additionally confer upon the study the labels ‘evaluative’ and ‘instrumental’ - the former on account of its orientation to its subject matter and the latter on account of its concern to explore the potential wider relevance of the findings in respect of applied linguistics theory and practice. In terms of its content and structure, the thesis comprises five principal sections, represented in turn by the five chapters as follows:

Chapter one comprises a review of the relevant literature as it applies in respect of three key domains: the Japanese EFL context; second language acquisition (SLA); and language awareness (LA). With context acting as the point of departure, the chapter’s three principal sections are arranged sequentially as above, and are linked by their natural areas of interface.

Chapter two details the methodology in respect of the initial recording of L2/interlanguage production data from the context of focus; the derivation of a prototypical L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage profile; the development of context-specific L2 instructional materials – these three phases together constituting the foundations for the study; and the design and delivery of the 2010 cross-linguistic language awareness program module, together with its subsequent evaluation.

Chapter three consists of an abridged chronological narrative account of the 2010 cross-linguistic language awareness program module. The central positioning of this account within the structure of the written thesis is perhaps emblematic of the extended preparation which preceded its delivery and the (ongoing) evaluation which has followed. The present inquiry may be further characterized as falling under the rubric of practitioner research, and the narrative account owes much in terms of its construction and content to the research journal which I maintained for the duration of the 2010 program in order to record the more salient details of my developing perspectives (as program instructor) on, and trainees’ responses to, its evolution and delivery.

Chapter four provides an evaluative counterpart to the descriptive, narrative account given in chapter three. The one-off nature of the 2010 cross-linguistic language awareness program module – the module represented a genuine innovation and no
plans exist or were contemplated to reprise the module in its 2010 setting – enabled a
degree of evaluative ‘distance’ subsequent to the module’s conclusion. Thus, any
inherent tensions there may have been in respect of my practitioner (i.e. program
instructor) and researcher roles during the module’s delivery were immediately
dissipated upon its conclusion, leaving the way clear for the evaluation to proceed as
pure research, free of any proprietary, i.e. commercial, interest on my part. The
program evaluation itself was contingent upon the extensive evaluative response data
elicited from the participants (i.e. the trainees) via a range of essentially qualitative
(non-numerical) data-generation techniques, and utilized procedures such as thematic
analysis in order to ensure the necessary degree of evaluative cohesion. For, while the
nine program trainees constituted units of analysis in their own right and instances of
intra-group variation were duly recorded and accounted for, it was at the aggregate
level of the group that the evaluative response data were ultimately intended to apply.

Chapter five offers a discursive, forward-looking response to the principal findings in
respect of the inquiry’s research agenda. Pedagogical constructs central to the inquiry,
most notably the Teacher Language Awareness (TLA) construct, are reassessed in
terms of their essential nature and composition in light of the research findings, as are
mainstream SLA conceptions of the nature of the influence of a learner’s L1 on his or
her acquisition of and performance in L2. A TESOL blueprint for the mediation of
cross-linguistic (L1/L2) language awareness is developed, and its potential for
practical application is examined. Finally, the potential wider relevance of the salient
findings of the inquiry in respect of applied linguistics theory and practice is explored
with reference to the notion of ‘analytic generalization’ – that is, generalizing to
theory, or, as I shall argue, to practice via theory.

The concluding chapter summarizes the inquiry’s principal findings; reiterates the
inquiry’s contribution in respect of applied linguistics theory and practice;
acknowledges the inquiry’s limitations; and identifies emergent aspects which would
likely repay further research.
Chapter One: Literature Review

1.1 Introduction

The trajectory of this review of those aspects of the TESOL/applied linguistics literature most closely associated with the subject matter of the thesis describes a full circle (Figures 1 and 2 overleaf), with the Japanese EFL context constituting both its point of departure and its ultimate destination. I believe this trajectory to be appropriate for two reasons. Firstly, it links the various themes to be explored in a manner that is chronologically consistent with my own professional engagement with these aspects of TESOL/applied Linguistics, thereby elucidating the genesis of the study. Secondly, such a trajectory will serve to highlight context as the primary determinant, mediating filter and ultimate arbiter in the analysis, interpretation, evaluation and application of the diverse findings reported in the literature under review.

The review comprises three principal sections:

The first provides an overview of the Japanese EFL context, the aim of which is to delineate a Japanese contextual specificity and highlight the extent of its modulating impact upon a range of EFL-related issues.

The second foregrounds the notion of ‘interlanguage’, and discusses the theoretical underpinnings of the interlanguage dataset which has informed the inquiry. I shall then look at various conceptualizations within the second language acquisition (SLA) literature, including SLA representations of cross-linguistic influence, second language (L2) learner awareness of salient form/meaning connections, and L2 learning viewed as an inherently cross-linguistic endeavour.

The third section offers an in depth analysis of the construct of ‘language awareness’, with a particular focus on its interpretation and application in respect of both the professional practice of L2 instruction and the professional development of L2 instructors. The significance of the cross-linguistic dimension is then reintroduced, reinforcing the relevant connections with the principal themes of focus and the specificity of the Japanese EFL context.
Figure 1. Situating the Research at the Intersection of 3 Domains of Inquiry

Figure 2. Literature Review – Structure, Flow and Interfaces

Section 1: Japanese Context

Section 2: Second Language Acquisition

Section 3: Language Awareness

Form-Focused Instruction

Interlanguage Data

Contextualized L1/L2 Dimension
1.2. The Japanese EFL Context

1.2.1 Japan’s Contextual Specificity

By elevating context to the status of primary determinant, mediating filter and ultimate arbiter one is, as it were, raising the stakes. I do so with the intention of creating a discursive space wide enough to accommodate a degree of exploration in addition to the substantiation required by such a claim. Whilst one might wish to make this claim for the generic notion of ‘context’ per se, the literature under review points to the Japanese context as one characterized by an unusually high degree of modulating regulatory power vis-à-vis the exogenetic and its subsequent internal dissemination. Indeed, the management of ambiguous tensions latent in the ‘essentialized images’ of internal and external (Kubota R., 2002) emerges as a recurrent theme in respect of the context of focus.

Seargeant (2005a) articulates the subliminal messages that lie behind these ‘essentialized images’ and their attendant discourses, and cautions against a superficial Western misreading of Japan based on outward signs of the familiar – ultra modernity, cutting-edge technology, and unabashed consumerism – which has led to Japan being reflexively co-opted (or, as ‘essentialized image’, adopted) as the prototypical locus and motif of the science fiction genre. In this connection, the reflexive equation of contemporary Japan with an imagined futurity is seen as a consequence of the convergent globalizing mindset of the science fiction genre; a tendency which necessarily bypasses that country’s geographical, historical, and by extension its political, specificity (Seargeant, 2005a).

The essentially contrastive orientation of the 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Language Awareness Program aims to raise awareness on the part of the program’s L1 Japanese/L2 English learner participants of the – primarily linguistic – consequences of this contextual specificity, and to enhance their potential to engage with the relevant language varieties. In order to more adequately define the object(s) of this awareness, this opening section will outline the contextual background to a variety of issues located at the L1 Japanese/L2 English interface.

Schirokauer (1993) traces the principal historical movements and events that have impacted both materially and psychologically on Japan and its people throughout the
In reviewing the historical context, one is struck by the salience of the internal responses to externally-initiated contact, and by the defining psychological significance attributed to these encounters within the Japanese socio-political context. In this regard, the arrival in Sagami Bay south of Edo (modern day Tokyo) of Commodore Matthew Perry of the United States Navy with his ‘Black Ships’ on June 3rd, 1853 has come to symbolize the de facto twilight of the Tokugawa Shogunate and its two-hundred year period of self-imposed isolation, known in Japanese as ‘Sakoku’ (Hillsborough, 1999).

The events of 1853 would appear to constitute an example of such a historically and psychologically defining encounter par excellence. Despite the passage of time, the magnitude of the impact of these tumultuous historical events on the Japanese national psyche has led commentators such as Itoh (2000) to theorize the presence of the ideological residue, the so-called ‘Sakoku mentality’, as having significant explanatory power in accounting for Japan’s continuing separatist orientation vis-à-vis the wider world.

This theme is echoed in Seargeant, wherein the ‘Sakoku mentality’ is attributed ‘…vestigial significance in the way that Japan now regulates both its relations with and image of the outside…’ (Seargeant, 2005a:309). Indeed, the mutually-defining nature of the internal/external dichotomy may be seen as a functional heuristic in the analysis of the prevailing sociological dynamics offered in Seargeant (2005a, 2005b) as they relate to, and impact upon, the Japanese EFL context.

A further theme that emerges in the aftermath of the transition from the Tokugawa Shogunate to the Meiji Era is the dynamic tension between continuity, as represented by Japanese tradition on the one hand, and change/modernization as represented by ‘Westernization’ on the other. Seargeant cites the policy of ‘Wakon Yousai’ (‘Japanese spirit with Western learning’), which was advocated by the renowned Meiji Era educator and founder of Keio University, Yukichi Fukuzawa (1853–1901), as an example of:

...a responsive measure intended to preserve Japanese cultural identity and national sovereignty, while adapting to the global challenges that were reshaping the world at the end of the nineteenth century. (Seargeant, 2005a:311)
The policy of ‘Wakon Yousai’ therefore represents an initial and formative attempt at the macro level to reconcile conflicting belief systems in the interests of the preservation of a distinct national identity. The insistence on the preservation of a distinct national identity constitutes both a socio-cultural leitmotif and a political agenda which, with varying degrees of explicitness, continues to find expression in diverse aspects of the Japanese context.

The immediate concern being to avoid the humiliating fate suffered by China at the hands of foreign colonial powers, Meiji Era policy was fashioned in an expedient cocktail of admiration for and fear of the West (Schirokauer, 1993). Emulation was seen by many as offering Japan the surest route to the security that a competitive standing vis-à-vis the West would afford the nation. During the period of industrialization and the opening of the country to international influence that followed the Meiji Restoration of 1868 there was an immediate requirement for access to outside knowledge – primarily held in English, but much of it in other languages, most notably German and French. Translation of these languages into Japanese was therefore seen as the principal aim of study, in order to expedite the inward transmission of ideas and technology. These socio-political realities constituted both the context and the rationale for the subsequent development of educational policy in Japan – particularly with regard to the place of foreign languages within the curriculum.

1.2.1.1 A Separatist Orientation and Foreign Language Education

The long-term conditioning effect that this initial orientation has exerted on English language education in Japan will be detailed in the analysis to follow, and its relevance in terms of practitioner (language) awareness will, I hope, become increasingly evident. The analysis of themes originating at the macro level will now centre on the twin internal political discourses of ‘Kokusaika’ (‘internationalization’) and ‘Nihonjinron’ – the doctrine of Japanese exceptionalism, and the related Japanese sociological concept of ‘Dochakuka’ (‘indigenization’). The analyses of the Japanese EFL context viewed in the light of ‘globalization’ offered in Kubota R. (2002) and Seargeant (2005a) regard the twin discourses of ‘Kokusaika’ and ‘Nihonjinron’ as indispensible to any understanding of the socio-cultural and political dynamics which underlie internal conceptions of Japan’s orientation to the international community,
and upon which the nation’s (language) educational policy is either overtly or covertly premised.

Kubota R. (2002) highlights the prominent role that the political discourse of ‘Kokusaika’ has played in Japanese education reforms since the mid 1980s. By combining an emphasis on the development of modes of self-expression that will facilitate greater ‘international understanding’ (‘kokusai rikai’) with an emphasis on the affirmation of a distinctly Japanese national identity, Ministry of Education directives have sought to resolve what to Western eyes might appear as contradictory tensions, as between ‘internationalization’ on the one hand, and Nationalism on the other.

Thus, Kubota R. (2002:17) sees a desire ‘…to communicate distinct Japanese perspectives to the rest of the world’ as the primary motivating force behind the expressed emphasis on a more ‘communicative’ orientation with regard to (English) language education. McConnell (2000), in the context of the ‘Japan Exchange and Teaching’ (JET) program, makes the point that the term ‘international understanding’ ‘…does not imply diminishing national boundaries between individuals but improving understanding between groups who would always be fundamentally different’ (cited in Kubota R., 2002:23). In this connection, one may view Ministry of Education guidelines as functionally pre-empting the premises underlying the move to a more ‘expressive’ orientation with respect to (English) language learning via the stipulation that ‘…teaching materials for junior and senior high school English courses should enhance a student’s awareness as a Japanese person in the international community’ (Kubota R., 2002:23, emphasis added).

The analysis provided by Kubota R. (2002) interprets the political discourses of ‘Kokusaika’ and ‘Nihonjinron’ and their interface with reform of language education policy as exposing retrograde essentializing tendencies within the Japanese policy-making establishment. This analysis highlights an essentialized monolithic Japanese nationality, which presumably reflects interests at the national policy-making level. Allied to this is the ‘Anglicization’ which results from the interested essentializing of the image of the ‘international’ as being synonymous with ‘Westernization’. This permits the uncritical presentation of conceptions wherein ‘unitary’ takes the place of

When extended into the area of language and language learning, these essentializing tendencies function to promote a convergence towards standardized linguistic norms which would appear to run counter to the current trend in the applied linguistics discourse, in which linguistic pluralism is to be accepted, if not positively welcomed, as an inevitable reality (Matsuda, 2003a; Kubota R., 2002). Kubota R. (2002) reports findings which suggest that these idealizing, essentializing tendencies characterize the presentation of Japanese as a second language, thus mirroring the representation and presentation of its English L2 counterpart in the Japanese context. The clear implication of the interpretation offered in Kubota R. (2002) is that Ministry of Education directives given in the name of ‘internationalization’ (‘Kokusaika’), far from relaxing linguistic and socio-cultural borders, may instead be serving to reinforce them.

By, in effect, recasting the concept of internationalism (Seargeant, 2005a), what we are left with is internationalization as ‘simulation’ (Baudrillard, 1994), wherein Japan manages and regulates its external relations very much on its own terms, the agenda being discernably reflective of an ethno-psychologically separatist orientation (Harasawa, 1974) suffused with the discourse of ‘Nihonjinron’.

1.2.2 The Linguistic Aspect

Predating and informing the twin discourses of ‘Kokusaika’ and ‘Nihonjinron’ is the Japanese sociological concept of ‘Dochakuka’ (‘indigenization’), the seemingly compulsory modulation of external influence which Harasawa (1974) believes is an historical trait dating at least from the Heian period (794–1185), when Chinese literature was first introduced, and to which numerous commentators attribute the paradoxes inherent in the semantic, phonological and functional co-opting and ‘reconfiguring’ (Seargeant, 2005a) of English which so characterizes the context of focus.

Neustupny and Tanaka (2004) identify the linguistic aspect as a key element in respect of Japan’s external relations, an insight hinting at the somewhat tangential status assigned to English within the wider socio-political dynamics of the Japanese
context. The tensions vis-à-vis relations with the ‘external’ suggested by Neustupny and Tanaka (2004) were identified in Gorsuch (2000:676), where it was observed that, ‘…along with other societal institutions in Japan, education has become a venue for an ongoing debate about Japan’s place in the world.’ Thus it is that the apparent contradictions inherent in the discourse of ‘Kokusaika’ highlighted in Kubota R. (2002) have clear parallels in the way ‘The (English) language itself has a prominent alternative presence within society which does not conform in any sense to the ideals of universal linguistic communion’ (Seargeant, 2005a:316). In view of its centrality to considerations of language awareness, I shall now examine the nature of this ‘alternative presence’.

English, despite a flourishing ELT scene, does not enjoy widespread currency in Japan. In this connection, Kachru and Nelson (2001) note that, in the Japanese context, the use of English is highly restricted as to range (i.e. domains of use), and has therefore not acquired any degree of depth (i.e. social penetration). Neustupny and Tanaka (2004) do, however, identify what they refer to as an ‘English Repository variety’, which is seen as complementing contemporary and historical varieties of Japanese; these together comprising standard Japanese social currency. This ‘English Repository variety’ therefore essentially functions as imported lexis, and as such ‘…represents a means of enriching the Japanese lexicon’ (Neustupny and Tanaka, 2004:11).

The transition involves the assigning of a written ‘Katakana’ form to each item of imported lexis. Characterized by a regular, open consonant/vowel (CV) syllable structure, the Katakana syllabary functions as the primary system for representing the sounds of imported lexis in the native language and, as such, serves as the de facto vehicle for the transcription of words of a studied foreign language. Thus, when any word of non-Japanese origin is written in Katakana, ‘…it is subjected to an obligatory phonemic restructuring whereby the phonemes … are substituted for the ‘closest match’ from the open syllable Katakana inventory’ (Makarova et al, 2004:121).

The concept of ‘Dochakuka’ (‘indigenization’) may be invoked to account for the naturalization of the ever-growing bank of English loan-words which, via their availability as a ‘Repository’ variety, constitute a significant component of the Japanese lexicon, to which they are now, arguably, indispensible. In addition to the
‘obligatory phonemic restructuring’, the naturalization process typically involves morphological alteration (contraction) and possible further indigenization via semantic extension or appropriation. In such cases, the etymology is traceable to English, but the descendent lexis is uniquely Japanese (Stanlaw, 2004; Seargeant, 2005a). Indeed, it would perhaps be hard to overstate the extent of the mediating influence that the process of ‘Katakana-ization’ has at the L1 Japanese/L2 English interface, even beyond the obvious phonological impact (Martin, 2004).

Harasawa (1974) identifies a marked L1 Japanese-centricity as characterizing the collective psychotypological profile of the Japanese. This, Harasawa (1974) contends, manifests itself as a seeming inability at the subconscious level to acknowledge the ‘reality’ of languages other than L1 Japanese, with the result that languages other than L1 Japanese (including English) appear unreal and abstract by comparison, removed from any functional significance as a viable means of communicating life’s realities. Thus, Harasawa (1974) sees the powerful psychological and sociolinguistic forces which have shaped, and continue to shape Japanese attitudes to foreign language and the learning thereof as having significant explanatory power in respect of perceived deficiencies in Japanese L1/English L2 performance at the aggregate societal level.

These sentiments are echoed by Hyde (2002), and by O’Sullivan (1996:107-108), the latter observing that, ‘Japanese people are not used to using English as a vehicle for communication’ since the Japanese ‘are not trained to think of English as a means of communication.’ The above observation hints at the co-opted functionality of ‘English’ within the Japanese social context, and suggests a substantive relationship between this co-opted functionality and the way in which English is conceptualized as a subject for, and object of study. Within this context, English is essentialized first as an ‘image’, and then as a ‘product’, thus allowing the natural conflation of the educational with the commercial. As Seargeant (2005b:337) observes,

...the idea of English education as a product, carefully constructed and tailored to the needs and expectations of the market, becomes a significant factor in the way the language exists within society and one that vies with pedagogic theory for influence over the way the language is learnt.

Before moving on to examine the implications of the foregoing analysis for English language education in some detail, one further aspect of the context of focus wherein
the language is presented as ‘image’ abstracted from its function as language merits coverage as exemplifying the co-opted functionality alluded to earlier. The commercial reconfiguration of English in public contexts, in which the language is deployed as a purely semiotic means of communication to create desired associations in the minds of consumers is seen as significant in this regard (Hyde, 2002; Seargeant, 2005a). Any notion of linguistic communication is immediately precluded by the arbitrary, enigmatic, almost surreal use of grammar, syntax, collocation, register, tone and lexis to adorn the full range of commercial and media offerings. Primarily visual and strategic, these ‘fragments of language’ are ‘connotative’ rather than ‘denotational’ (Seargeant, 2005a) and, as such, fulfil a purely decorative, emblematic and peripheral function (Hyde, 2002).

The degree of dissonance that has emerged in respect of the co-opted functionality of English within the Japanese societal context vis-à-vis its primary international function as a means of communication is among the most salient and influential aspects of the Japanese sociolinguistic macro-context, and as such would appear to constitute a legitimate (and potentially rewarding) area of focus when viewed from a language awareness perspective.

1.2.2.1 Japanese English or English Japanese?

At this point it is perhaps appropriate to consider the extent to which the ubiquitous instantiations of Japan’s ‘emblematic English’, together with the substantial and ever-growing bank of loan-words which comprise the ‘English Repository’ referred to earlier constitute a nativized, indigenous, and therefore legitimate, variety of English. Commentators such as Matsuda (2003 a) reject what they see as an excessive ‘Inner Circle’ orientation to ELT in calling for the incorporation of a ‘World Englishes’ perspective in a curriculum focused towards the teaching of ‘English as an International Language’ (EIL).

Other commentators, such as Tan (2005), go further, believing that the recently sanctioned (in academic circles) promotion of the concepts of ‘identity’ and ‘ownership’ justifies the reconceptualization of English as a plurality, wherein varieties which express and reflect the social and cultural aspects of a non-native English speaking society (Tan, 2005; Morrow, 2004) are accepted as genuine, i.e. legitimate varieties of English. In this connection, Jenkins (2000:12) notes a possible
theoretical shift away from ‘Inner-Circle’ norm-dependency, citing Crystal (1995:364): ‘…the question of whether autonomous norms can develop in a foreign language situation (such as Japan) remains unresolved.’ There would, then, appear to be a clear case for awareness-raising, given the degree of dissonance alluded to earlier.

In so far as they have been articulated in the Japanese context, arguments in favour of a conception of English which more adequately reflects the language as a plurality would thus far appear to have made little headway at the policy-making level, where influential commercial interests and the essentializing discourse of ‘Kokusaika’ continue to ensure the de facto convergence on standard North American and British varieties as the approved target models. Alternatively, one could take the view, contra Tan (2005), that the term ‘Japanese English’, in contradistinction to ‘Indian English’ or ‘Nigerian English’, in fact represents something of a misnomer. A recurrent theme punctuating much of the commentary is the perception that, by virtue of its limited range of use, the extensive phonological and semantic alteration and its co-opted functionality, this imported, indigenized lexis is no longer English; it is now an integral part of Japanese social currency, and it has, to all intents and purposes, become Japanese. This proposition inevitably has implications for second language pedagogy, in which connection it is worth recalling Kachru’s contention, cited in McKay (2002:54), that in the ‘Expanding Circle’, where English does not have an official role, its use should be norm-dependent, since there is no regular internal use of the language.

If one takes the view that the indigenized ‘Repository variety’ does not constitute an autonomous norm, then the concepts of ‘interlanguage’ (Selinker, 1972) and ‘error’ have renewed validity vis-à-vis the preferred exonormative standards. In this connection, James (1998) cites Baxter’s contention (Baxter, 1980:56) that Japanese learners of English ‘do not perceive themselves as being speakers of English’, and maintains that, ‘For as long as FL learners are prepared to see and call themselves ‘learners’, the assumption that they wish to conform is surely a reasonable one to make’ (James, 1998:17).
I now propose to examine several related aspects of the status quo which, taken together, are seen in the literature as militating against the attainment of high levels of L2 English proficiency, and which occasion the perception of the Japanese EFL context as being, in many respects, an ‘acquisition-poor’ environment. The modulation of interaction with the external at the macro level within Japanese society that was highlighted earlier and which was associated with the strong indigenizing trait of ‘Dochakuka’ (Harasawa, 1974) has its counterpart at the micro level, in the psycholinguistic mediation of L2 English via L1 Japanese. This systematic pedagogical bias against direct engagement with L2 English is highlighted in Martin (2004) as being a common denominator at primary, secondary and tertiary levels. In this respect, little appears to have changed since Bryant (1956) characterized the situation as one in which students typically learnt about English in Japanese. The L1 mediation and modulation of L2 English which characterizes the instructional context may be identified as both a cause and a consequence of limited L2 English proficiency (Hyde, 2002), thereby serving to perpetuate the perceived constraints on proficiency.

The pervasive mediation via L1 at the L1 Japanese/L2 English interface, together with the modulating impact of the Katakana syllabary, constitutes a further series of challenges to which the thesis study will seek to respond, primarily by raising awareness of these issues among the ITE program participants.

This preference for a tangential approach, and the concomitant aversion to direct engagement with and in L2 English is likewise noted by Yamakawa (2004) and Christensen (1989), both of whom ascribe a significant proportion of L1 Japanese/L2 English ‘interlanguage’ to the programmatic mediation of L1. It was earlier noted that translation into Japanese was long seen as constituting the principal aim of foreign language study, this being so in order to expedite the inward transmission of ideas and technology. It was further noted that such an approach in respect of foreign language pedagogy was entirely consistent with more generally established tendencies toward the modulation of the external. The prioritizing of decoding from English over encoding into English ensured the widespread diffusion of techniques oriented to the former within mainstream education (Smith, 2004), and Barfield et al (2004:154) cite
‘institutionalized paralysis and pedagogic conservatism’ in accounting for their continued resilience.

1.2.3.1 Distorting Effects of a Co-opted Functionality

This institutionalized pedagogic conservatism, explored in some detail in Gorsuch (2000), finds expression in the form of the life-defining university entrance examinations. The idea of a co-opted functionality encountered earlier in the discussion of the social context is exemplified by the institutionalized gate-keeping role accorded to English within Japanese society and its utilitarian function as a screening mechanism in respect of access to higher education. In this connection, Ryan and Makarova (2004:52) highlight function as the primary determinant of form, the analysis pointing to a degree of intractability:

*Particular emphasis is given to elements of English which are testable in a written examination requiring short answers, most of which can be graded by a computer. Despite highly-publicized government-led attempts to give more weight to listening and speaking skills, they remain relatively difficult to test and therefore receive less attention, or are taken less seriously, than more easily testable skills.*

Shillaw (2004) documents the consequences of the universities’ privileging of the testability criterion, noting a high incidence of washback, that is, the deterministic influence that examination form and content exert upon instructional practice, which Shillaw (2004) sees as effectively conditioning L2 English instruction at the secondary level. Neustupny and Tanaka (2004) highlight the displacing of English by ‘examination English’ (‘juken eigo’), and Shillaw (2004) reports that English instruction is ‘subverted’; the washback factor effectively blurring the distinction between teaching (instruction) and testing (assessment).

Despite repeated expressions of concern and calls for reform, Kikuchi (2006), following Brown and Yamashita (1995), noted that very little had changed in this regard. Indeed, given that Harasawa (1974) expressed the view that fundamental change to this aspect of the educational context was the ‘categorical imperative’ from which all other reforms would automatically follow, radical revision of the university entrance examinations to better reflect the primary, unmodulated, communicative
function of English would appear to be the single most significant – and pressing – requirement. The co-opted gate-keeping function of English effectively constitutes a commercial nexus which recalls Sargeant’s (2005b:337) characterization above of English language education as a ‘product, carefully constructed and tailored to the needs and expectations of the market.’ Gorsuch (2000) similarly identifies the tacitly commercial nature of the university entrance examinations, wherein the market manages needs and expectations and co-ordinates universities, teachers and preparatory instructors (the purveyors), the high school students and their families (the buyers) and the examinations and preparatory materials (the products).

In the context of the washback factor highlighted above, it has become increasingly apparent that the discrete-point format characterizing the vast majority of English language tests in Japan, from the university entrance exams to standardized English proficiency tests such as TOEIC, TOEFL and STEP (Society for the Testing of English Proficiency), which themselves constitute a ‘major shaping force in the English teaching market in Japan’ (Makarova et al, 2004:121), effectively marginalizes active L2 English language production skills. More recently developed oral/aural focused alternatives such as SITE (Standard Interview Test of English) have failed to make any significant impact on the market, and the corporate sector is increasingly making employment and promotion contingent upon minimum TOEIC scores. Context-specific issues such as these surely merit a place in the awareness-raising syllabus of L1 Japanese/L2 English teacher education programs.

1.2.3.2 Hidden Agendas?

the widespread perception that there may be a significant element of window-dressing attached to top-down directives ostensibly aimed at initiating substantive reform of English L2 instructional practice.

In a paper recalling LoCastro (1996), Gorsuch (2000) examines a variety of variables which potentially influence the perception and implementation of curriculum interventions imposed top-down by centralized agencies with respect to the Japanese EFL context. Gorsuch (2000) notes the essentially political, expedient, and symbolic function served by centrally-produced curriculum documents, and identifies the disparity that has emerged between stated objectives and instructional practice as resulting from a decoupling of (specified) content on the one hand, and (unspecified) instruction on the other. By divorcing content specifications from instructional practice, policy statements such as the ‘Course of Study for Senior High School’ (1992) are perceived as pedagogically ambiguous.

Thus, despite the stated focus on the improvement of students’ oral/aural communication skills in ‘The Course of Study for Senior High School’, the document’s specifications have effectively been ‘subsumed…into the prevailing culture of university entrance exam preparation’ (Gorsuch, 2000:701). Indeed, consideration of these and related aspects of the status quo has prompted Neustupny and Tanaka (2004:25) to conclude that the interests of the teaching profession are at best inconsistent with the idea of far-reaching reform.

The suspicions regarding some form of hidden agenda implicit in much of the commentary (e.g. McConnell, 2000) are made relatively explicit in Gorsuch (2000:678) thus:

*A politically inspired educational reform effort, such as that culminating in ‘The Course of Study’, itself a product of compromise (Lincicome, 1993), is filtered through many layers of bureaucracy. In Japan, the dispersion of external efforts to bring about changes that may radically alter teachers’ instruction is perhaps intentional. Lincicome (1993) characterized Japanese career educators as mostly concerned about maintaining the status quo and as skeptical about the politically motivated move to make future citizens more ‘international’.*
In a similar vein, Smith recounts the marginalization of Ministry of Education directives regarding the upgrading of oral/aural proficiency: tellingly, ‘oral communication’ ‘slots’ are ‘conceptualized as distinct entities’ (Smith, 2004:38) – distinct, that is, from the serious business of a focus on ‘examination English’, which, perhaps predictably given the weight of societal and parental expectations and the existence of a substantial ancillary educational infrastructure, proceeds in spite of such minor distractions. Smith (2004) is, nevertheless, clear in warning of the futility of attempting the wholesale importing of methodology which is insensitive to the Japanese cultural context, believing that the way ahead lies in ‘evolution not revolution’ (Smith, 2004:43). Such a pragmatic approach would appear to have much to commend it: Ryan and Makarova (2004) report that in clashes involving social and pedagogic imperatives, it is the social imperative that habitually wins out.

1.2.3.4 Summary

This section has examined several related aspects of the status quo which, taken together, are seen in the literature as militating against the wider attainment of high levels of L2 English proficiency, and which regularly occasion the perception of the Japanese EFL context as being, in many respects, an acquisition-poor environment. These aspects of the status quo, then, form a perennial backdrop to the L2 educational activities of a range of actors, from learners and teachers to teacher trainers and materials developers, and represent agendas that often appear to be pulling in opposite directions. I therefore see awareness-raising as the necessary point of departure for the development of autonomous responses on the part of ITE participants.

1.2.4 L2 English - Constraints, Possibilities and Preferences

Thompson (1987, 2001) sets out the extent of compulsory English study in secondary and tertiary education, which is to be further enhanced in 2011 with the mandatory extension of English study to the Japanese primary sector. This quantitative aspect of English study is often contrasted with the qualitative aspect; the juxtaposition highlighting the perceived inadequacies of the system. If one conceives of efficiency as the ratio of output to input, then mainstream L2 English language education in Japan would appear to be relatively inefficient in terms of its ability to foster a high degree of (oral/aural) communicative proficiency in the majority of learners (Harasawa, 1974).
The Harasawa (1974) critique was, as it happens, chronologically coincident with the emergence in Japan of the ‘eikaiwa’ (‘English conversation’) phenomenon, which rapidly established itself in the commercial sector as a de facto corrective reaction to the systematic bias against the use of English for genuinely communicative purposes within the mainstream EFL context.

Despite the perception of institutionalized inertia and reactionary tendencies which manifest themselves, inter alia, in an unwillingness to entertain possible methodological alternatives, such as those seen as requiring native-like proficiency (Smith, 2004), the evolving context has increasingly and inevitably propelled methodological considerations further up the pedagogical agenda and heightened the awareness of (and focus on) the L2 English language skills of L1 Japanese instructors. In this connection, Hammerly (1991) is unequivocal in its identification of low L2 proficiency levels among L2 teachers as a major determinant of sub-standard L2 learning outcomes. The raising of practitioner language awareness would therefore appear to have the potential to make a significant contribution in this regard.

In respect of the context of focus, Neustupny and Tanaka (2004) highlight the significant mismatch that often exists as between the status of an L1 Japanese/L2 English instructor – let us say, a professor of English at the tertiary level – and their practical command of the target language. Undertaken with regard to the mandated introduction of English language education at the primary level in 2011 (2009 in Yokohama), Butler’s attitudinal survey (Butler, 2004) similarly highlights substantial gaps between teachers’ perceived L2 English proficiency and the minimum level needed to teach English effectively, together with the attendant insecurities felt by many of these instructors.

The realization that the mandatory nationwide extension of English language education to the primary sector would likely be problematic given the shortage of suitably qualified instructors led to the establishment in 2003 of the ‘Certification Council for Primary School English Teachers’. Known locally by its more user-friendly acronym ‘J-SHINE’, the Certification Council has undertaken a coordinating and development role, bringing together numerous special interest groups, enlisting the services of those with English language ability from the ‘eikaiwa’ sector and the local community, and providing basic training in Primary classroom methodology in
order to address the shortfall in the number of suitably qualified Primary-level L2 English instructors.

A lack of fluency among L2 instructors at all levels within the mainstream educational context – primary, secondary and tertiary – is seen as having psychological as well as practical consequences, since: ‘...students receive the underlying message that communicating comfortably in English is an unattainable goal’ (Martin, 2004:54). As a consequence of the limited L2 English proficiency of a significant proportion of Japanese L1/English L2 instructors, the L2 English of the greater number of these instructors exhibits de facto many of the interlanguage features present in the English of their learners (Corder, 1981). This, together with the ubiquity of the co-opted ‘idiosyncratic’ English – in the sense of Corder’s ‘social dialect’ (Corder, 1981) – which constitutes standard Japanese social currency, means that negative cognitive feedback is regularly absent at the very points in the system where it is most needed. White (1991) and James (1998) set out the consequences for interlanguage development, wherein faulty conceptions of L2 which have been induced by elements of the instructional context represent an additional drag on learners’ L2 English proficiency.

The questionable standard of much of the pre-service instructional training, which is heavily biased towards formal, often abstract knowledge of fields such as literature or linguistics – both in terms of L2 English proficiency and language teaching methodology – together with the dearth of consistent, quality in-service professional development, is seen as a further area of concern (Harasawa, 1974; Martin, 2004; Matsuda, 2003a; Barfield et al, 2004; Nagasawa, 2004) in respect of mainstream provision within the Japanese EFL context. The perceived shortcomings alluded to above represent further issues which the thesis study will seek to address via the principled integration of a ‘language awareness’ approach to initial teacher education (ITE) with considerations of L2 classroom methodology.

Given the degree of convergence towards a more or less unitary conception of an L2 English target – i.e. North American Standard English – which commentators such as Kubota R. (2002) view as both a consequence and a central premise of the essentializing discourse of ‘Kokusaika’, the presence of a sociolinguistically ambiguous ‘performance variety’ as an integral component of Japanese social
currency may be seen as representing a complicating factor with regard to the EFL instructional context.

A review of the literature in this connection reveals a certain tension developing between the applied linguistics profession/academy, with its desire to reconceptualize L2 English targets as a plurality within an evolving ‘World Englishes’ framework (e.g. Matsuda, 2003a), and a significant number (a majority?) of learners (and ‘teacher/learners’) for whom the acquisition of a prestige ‘Inner Circle’ variety represents the surest route to personal fulfillment and/or professional advancement. Representative of this latter view is Kubota M. (2006), who denies any necessary assumed link between a desire to emulate or approximate to a given ‘Inner Circle’ standard and a desire to signify any form of cultural affiliation or identification by so doing. Kubota M. (2006) rejects the notion that instructors should promote varieties which their learners would, for whatever reasons, view as compromised targets.

In the context of focus, studies with respect to learners at the secondary level (Matsuda, 2003b) and at the tertiary level (Takeshita, 2000) report a clear preference among L1 Japanese/L2 English learners for ‘prestige’ ‘Inner Circle’ varieties of ‘Anglo-American’ English as superior target models, and a concomitant disinterest in non-native varieties, including the local indigenized performance variety, to the evident frustration of the reports’ authors. Butler (2007) reports similar findings in respect of L1 Japanese/L2 English instructors at the primary level. Takeshita (2000) explicitly addresses the disconnect that has emerged between learners’ idealized preoccupation with native English speakers and native-speaker models on the one hand, and the perceived value of a broader view of inter-cultural communication via the concept of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) on the other.

The studies by Shimizu (1999) with respect to the continued marked ‘Inner Circle’ focus of recruitment for Assistant Language Teacher (ALT) positions, and Yamanaka (2006) with respect to a similarly marked ‘Inner Circle’ focus with respect to secondary level EFL textbooks’ treatment of cultural issues point to the chicken-and-egg circularity in respect of the representation and perception of the idealized images alluded to above.

McKenzie (2008) posits ‘media-transmitted stereotypes’ as likely being a significant factor underlying learners’ awareness and orientation in favour of ‘prestige’ varieties
in the Japanese EFL context, and is consistent with earlier studies (Chiba et al, 1995; Matsuura et al, 1999) highlighting such preferences among L1 Japanese/L2 English learners. With reference to the ongoing debate within the field of applied linguistics alluded to above, McKenzie (2008) confirms the need to balance a mindful accommodation of learners’ preferred language learning goals with the promotion of an informed awareness of language as a plurality. The idealization and valorization of a unitary native-speaker target model for L2 English within the Japanese EFL context inevitably constitutes a further aspect of the status quo which the thesis study will seek to interrogate – again, from a perspective within an emerging language awareness framework. In light of the foregoing then, I see awareness-raising across a range of context-specific language-related areas as a prerequisite for informed L2 pedagogical choice.

1.3 SLA Conceptualizations of the Principal Themes of Focus

1.3.1 Interlanguage Data

Having provided an overview of the literature in respect of the salient aspects of the Japanese EFL context, I shall now examine the principal theoretical underpinnings of the data set represented by materials references 0101–3615 (www.neilmorgan.info/sayonaramaterials.pdf). I regard this data set and its companion analysis (www.neilmorgan.info/interlanguageprofile.pdf) as central elements in both the genesis of the present study and in its implementation, since these data provide the connection - a bridge, as it were – between the Japanese EFL context and my professional interest in this particular aspect of ‘Language Awareness’, or, to put it another way, between ‘Language Awareness’ and my professional engagement with this particular aspect of the Japanese EFL context. The following review additionally links the context of focus with many of the central concerns of SLA, and prepares the ground for a step-by-step account of my procedures in respect of data generation and subsequent materials development, with which I shall open the chapter detailing my methodology.

In order to facilitate the integration of the various theoretical and empirical aspects of the analysis to follow, I shall present a brief initial summary of the interlanguage data set as a prelude to a consideration of a number of themes implicit in the construct of ‘interlanguage’ and their perceived implications in respect of L2 pedagogy. The data
set represented by materials references 0101–3615 comprises L2 learner (L1 Japanese/L2 English) oral production data collected over a twelve-year period (1997–2009) in remote EFL settings in two ‘eikaiwa’ language schools in Osaka (Toyonaka) and Kobe (Sannomiya), Japan, from the interactional and conversational output of a sizeable number of adult learners of proficiency levels ranging from ‘false beginner’ to ‘low advanced’. These data constitute, in a sense, a representative sample of the collective interlanguage ‘errors’ of L1 Japanese learners of English. As such, these may be regarded as common denominator errors, that is, ‘errors’ which may be expected to occur (in a probabilistic sense) with some considerable frequency in a monolingual L1 learner population.

In respect of the data set, the definition of ‘error’ given in Lennon (1991:182) below is seen as having merit, as pedagogical applications of such descriptive data will necessarily require a comparative, i.e. a teleological, dimension: ‘A linguistic form or combination of forms which, in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would, in all likelihood, not be produced by the speaker’s native speaker counterparts.’ The Lennon definition above is endorsed in James (1998), its perceived advantage being that, by holding semantic intention and contextual factors constant, it effectively isolates linguistic form as the sole variable for attention.

The interlanguage data, and the accompanying analysis thereof, may be seen as revealing and representing a ‘prototypical L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage profile’, in that the majority of the features collated and described will likely be present in and characteristic of the L2 English interlanguages of the majority of learners in the Japanese EFL context. In this connection, it is worth recalling Corder’s observation (Corder, 1981:20, emphasis in original) that ‘there would be little point in describing the speech of a three-year-old unless it was expected ultimately to throw light on the speech of the three-year-old.’ While predictive validity is not of direct concern per se, the ‘prototypical interlanguage profile’ may be thought of as possessing a degree of a priori predictive validity in a probabilistic sense at the aggregate, collective level of a monolingual L1 learner population. NB: ‘predict’ is used here and hereafter in James’ more limited sense of ‘pre-identify’ (James, 1980:145).
O’Sullivan (1996) and Thompson (1987, 2001 in Swan and Smith eds., 1987, 2001) provided the formative inspiration in the collation of the interlanguage data set in the context of focus, the pedagogical rationale for which is offered in James (1998:181) thus:

*The main value of L1 transfer-based diagnosis is that it can lead to the compilation of compact and practical profiles, not of individual learners’ interlanguages, but of the shared characteristics of the interlanguages of a group of learners, a group having the same L1.*

As Odlin (1989:35) notes,

*Such a record does have the predictive value that other kinds of knowledge of past events have. A record of temperatures in the month of July in Texas for several years is likely to be a good predictor of average temperatures in Texas next July. Similarly, a record of errors in French made by English-speaking students in previous years can serve as a predictor of errors that English-speaking students will make in a French course next year.*

Several observations may be made with regard to the psycholinguistic validity of this particular interlanguage production data set as follows: The instructional context being ‘eikaiwa’ (‘English conversation’) settings, the focus of the instructional brief was primarily directed at the encouragement, development and automatization of learners’ L2 English oral production skills. As such, the (classroom/lobby area) methodology may be broadly characterized as ‘speaking to learn’ (Day, 1986; Swain, 1995); this in marked contrast to the prevailing instructional methodology and, indeed, the co-opted functionality of English study in the wider social context as set out in some detail in the foregoing analysis.

Student-teacher and student-student classroom and lobby area interaction was characterized by an unusually high degree of freedom, including a remarkably high degree of freedom of initiation and topicalization, i.e. learner control of the discourse (see Thornbury, 2002 in this connection). The typical patterns of interaction closely reflected Thornbury’s (2006) commendation of student-initiated reality-based information-gap pair and group activity as affording the optimal route to the
attainment of the instructional goals above concerning the encouragement, development and automatization of learners’ L2 English oral production skills.

1.3.1.1 Interlanguage Data as Authentic Social Interaction

At this point in the analysis, I propose to draw on a paper by Rampton (1999) in order to more fully illustrate the character and quality of the typical patterns of interaction which generated the L2 English oral production data on which the project is based. Rampton (1999), drawing on Bernstein (1996), essentially seeks to reconfigure the analysis of L2 interactions in terms of the extent to which the participants in these interactions exhibit orientations of ‘similarity’ or, conversely, of ‘difference’. By emphasizing the nature and quality of the L2 interactions as products of consciously adopted social orientations, Rampton (1999) adds some much-needed analytic clarity in respect of somewhat specious distinctions – such as that habitually drawn between ‘classroom’ and ‘naturalistic’ learning environments – which have resulted in the ‘empirical oversimplification’ of much of the SLA research work to date.

The main thrust of Rampton’s (1999) argument is that one must avoid the misleadingly easy temptation to equate salience with significance, whereby less salient but highly significant details such as participant orientation within the dynamics of interaction ‘…tend to get obscured by dichotomies that privilege relatively peripheral incidentals such as physical location’ (Rampton, 1999:335). The pedagogical approach adopted will therefore occupy centre stage in such a reformulation, in which connection Rampton (1999:325) reports that:

> In pedagogies oriented to ‘competence’…there is a fundamental emphasis on the similarity between the participants. There may be differences between students and between students and teachers, but these are seen as complementary and together they can lead to the actualization of a common potential (emphasis in original).

The take-home message of Rampton’s (1999) reconfiguration thus appears to be that analysis of the specific quality of L2 interactions – viewed through the prism of participant orientations – has the potential to take us beyond the deceptively easy assumptions and inferences engendered by largely specious macro-level typologies such as ‘classroom’ versus ‘naturalistic’, or ‘formal’ versus ‘informal’.
In other words, we as researchers have much to gain from the realizations that a) the character of a given L2 interaction is not necessarily predetermined by the setting in which it occurs, and that b) (crucially) the character of L2 interactions may be altered and their quality enhanced by the adoption of pedagogies ‘…in which authority passes from institutional to interpersonal relationships’ (Rampton, 1999:330). In making explicit the pedagogical and ideological orientations and emphases obtaining in the L2 learning situations which yielded my original L2 English oral production data over the period 1997–2009, I am seeking to address Rampton’s (1999:327) caveat that:

*If the redefinition of learning situations in terms of similarity and difference is to provide any empirical purchase, it needs to be framed in a way that could capture the active orientation of the people and institutions being studied.*

Legenhausen (1999) differentiates between ‘authentic social interaction’ on the one hand, and ‘pseudo-communication’ on the other, and presents a selection of interactional (student-student pairwork) exchanges which vividly illustrate the contrasting nature of the learners’ L2 output. I believe the differentiation between ‘authentic’ and ‘pseudo’ communication as set out in Legenhausen (1999) to be of considerable significance in respect of the oral L2 production data generated over those twelve years in the Japanese EFL context for a number of reasons. These include, inter alia, my desire to foster in my L1 Japanese learners a greater capacity to tolerate the ambiguity implied by the need to negotiate meaning (within a supportive environment) – Japan being seen as a culture which rates relatively low on scales of ‘ambiguity tolerance’. As Legenhausen (1999:171) notes in this connection: ‘Since foreign language learners typically have to cope with partial or total incomprehension, high tolerance of ambiguity should be one of the major educational objectives’, adding that: ‘…strategies for coping with partial incomprehension are not sufficiently activated and practised in traditional classrooms.’

My own pedagogic approach in the context of focus may therefore be seen as a corrective reaction – an attempt to compensate for what I perceived to be an excessively low tolerance of ambiguity. In a similar vein, my desire to actively engage my learners’ extramural identities in authentic conversational interaction amounted to a corrective reaction to the telling observation made by O’Sullivan (1996:107-108) cited earlier that: ‘Japanese people are not used to using English as a
vehicle for communication’ (since the Japanese) ‘…are not trained to think of English as a means of communication.’

Furthermore, as Legenhausen (1999:181) observes, genuine – as opposed to pseudo – interaction and communication will necessarily reveal a range of interlanguage structures in learners’ L2 oral output as a by-product of ‘the legitimization of error as part of the creative construction process’ identified in Rampton (1999:325). Leaving aside for a moment the numerous affective benefits associated with the engagement of learners’ extramural identities in L2 classroom interaction noted above, my own pedagogical approach over the period 1997–2009 was, in large measure, premised on a belief that the more aware I was of the features of my learners’ L2 English interlanguages, the better placed I would be to assist them in their subsequent L2 development.

1.3.2 SLA Conceptualizations and L1 Influence on L2

Concerned as the present inquiry is with the cross-linguistic dimension of language awareness among L2 teachers and learners, a review of the SLA literature as it applies in respect of cross-linguistic influence in learner interlanguage is clearly fundamental to an appreciation of the inquiry’s theoretical underpinnings. This section of the literature review will therefore concern itself with SLA conceptualizations of the nature of the influence of a learner’s first language on his or her acquisition of and performance in a second or subsequent language.

Kellerman, in a paper on the influence of the L1 in interlanguage, likens the significance of the role accorded the L1, i.e. cross-linguistic influence, within the applied linguistics SLA research community to the chequered history and geographical status of Poland on a map of Europe, ‘…with ever-changing expansions and diminutions of its territory and even occasional disappearances’ (Kellerman, 1984:120). The reasons for these fluctuating perceptions, as Selinker’s (1992) historical analysis makes clear, may be traced directly to the strength of the initial claims made on behalf of the ‘Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis’ (CAH) (Lado, 1957; Fries, 1945; Fries, 1957). Selinker (1992) presents this as a dialectical process, wherein Lado (1957) was perhaps guilty of ‘overstating’ his case, leading to a similarly overstated antithetical reaction wherein SLA conceptualizations sought to
minimize and marginalize the role of L1 when the empirical evidence was found to contradict many of the applied CAH predictions in respect of L2 learner performance.

These fluctuating perceptions in respect of the significance of the role of the L1 in the process of L2 acquisition were mirrored by changing perceptions of the nature of the role of the learner’s L1 in his or her acquisition of and performance in a second or subsequent language. In this connection, Ellis R. (1994:343) offers the following summary:

_One clear advance in transfer research has been the reconceptualization of the influence of the L1: whereas in Behaviourist accounts it was seen as an impediment (a cause of errors), in Cognitive accounts it is viewed as a resource which the learner actively draws on in interlanguage development._

Here we see SLA conceptualizations proceeding as one paradigm superseding another à la Kuhn (1962), and Ellis R. (1994) is unequivocal in his approval. The extract from Ellis R. (1994) above is, I believe, representative of the oppositional conceptualizations, passim the SLA literature, of the nature of the influence of a learner’s first language on his or her acquisition of and performance in a second or subsequent language – these being, essentially, ‘inhibitory’ (associated with the Behaviourist paradigm), and ‘facilitative’/’resource’ (associated with the Cognitive paradigm).

The representation of the nature of the influence of a learner’s first language on his or her acquisition of and performance in a second or subsequent language as either inhibitory or as facilitative constitutes a binary conceptualization, and, furthermore, one which may be said to be oppositional in character.

A further element in this mode of representation is the assumed mutual exclusivity (either/or) of the conceptualizations; that is, because ‘inhibition’ and ‘facilitation’ are inherently contradictory concepts, a learner’s L1 may not, by definition, be both inhibitory and facilitative simultaneously with respect to the acquisition of and performance in an L2. Thus we have a binary oppositional conceptualization of the nature of the influence of the L1 – a dichotomy – the elements in which are, by definition, held to be mutually exclusive.
1.3.3 L2 Learning as a Cross-Linguistic Endeavour

One obvious means by which to ensure that the meaning component of the input is adequately catered for is, of course, the instructional utilization of the learners’ L1 in order to lighten the demands on learners’ cognitive processing capacity. Having thus broached the subject of the instructional use of the learners’ L1, I should like to devote some time to the submission, advocated in Widdowson (2003), that the acquisition of a second language is, by definition, a cross-linguistic endeavour. This submission would appear to be in marked contrast to much of the de facto conventional wisdom prevalent in second language pedagogy in recent years, which has tended to marginalize the cross-linguistic dimension of second language acquisition and to stigmatize anything suggestive of a contrastive paradigm (see Hammerly, 1991 for a cogently-argued critique of this tendency in SLA research and monolingual TESOL methodology as motivated primarily by considerations of practical expediency). In this connection, it is worth recalling the contention in James (1998:63) that too many SLA theoreticians are pre-disposed to regard interlanguage ‘…sui generis, as if its speakers were a newly discovered lost tribe in Amazonia.’

The Widdowson (2003) critique in respect of this marginalization of the cross-linguistic dimension in SLA is essentially based on the premise that second language learners proceed via a process of ‘compound bilingualization’ through stages of interlanguage development, i.e. second language learning is essentially a ‘compound bilingual experience’. The nature of this learning experience must, by implication, share features characteristic of the nature of more general human learning, of which it is a subset, wherein prior, i.e. previously-learned, knowledge is extended to the area of new knowledge and existing knowledge is a crucial mediating factor in the internalization of new information (Ausubel, 1968; Sajavaara, 1986). Clearly, in the domain of (L2) language learning, ‘existing knowledge’ is constituted primarily in terms of knowledge of L1. Dodson (1967), Leontiev (1970), Marton (1981 a; 1981 b), Hammerly (1991) and Widdowson (2003) are thus united by a recognition of L2 learning as a cross-linguistic endeavour and a disaffection with the tendency of ‘direct’ monolingual approaches to L2 English instruction to marginalize this cross-linguistic dimension. In this connection, Widdowson (2003:154) observes that:
...one of the most striking features of monolingual second language teaching is that it would appear to take no principled account whatever of a major factor in second language learning (emphasis in original).

I shall quote the Widdowson position here in some detail, as, given its focus on the cross-linguistic dimension in second language pedagogy, it serves as an informative prelude to a consideration of the cross-linguistic dimension of language awareness, both in terms of L2 instruction and in terms of the type of L2 teacher development that will have the potential to inform this instruction.

The following extract then, provides a concise summary of the Widdowson (2003:159-160) position:

...monolingual teaching is at odds with the bilingualization process which learners necessarily engage in when they draw on the language they know as a resource for learning the language they do not. One obvious way of dealing with this disparity is to devise a bilingual pedagogy which exploits this process and seeks to direct it. Such a pedagogy would involve bringing contrastive analysis into classroom methodology in the form of translation and other activities which engage the learners in the exploration of the relationship between the two languages as alternative encodings of meaning. If transfer is such a major factor in interlanguage development,...it is hard to resist the conclusion that activities of this kind should be a major factor in the teaching which seeks to induce it.

I should, perhaps, offer a qualification here regarding Widdowson’s (2003) use of the phrase ‘the relationship between the two languages’. There is, of course, no direct non-lexical relationship between (L1) Japanese and (L2) English per se; rather, it is learner perceptions that will establish L1/L2 ‘relationships’ (see Kellerman, 1977) and, as Py (1996) notes:

The learner...does not have a global and objective view of these systems. When he (sic) brings these systems into contact with each other, it is most often where a particular problem arises from difficulty in communicating or learning, or from an attempt to adjust the interlanguage to a specific case.

In a similar vein, Hammerly (1991) estimates that EFL instruction which takes full account and makes judicious use of the L1 may be up to twice as efficient as
instruction which excludes all consideration of the L1, and advocates the use of bilingual procedures as a means of effectively ‘deconditioning’ L2 learners to their internal L1 stimuli and ensuring that learners are able to produce accurate, ‘correct’ L2 formulations, i.e. translation equivalents, in the overt presence of L1 stimuli (see also Cook, 2010; Butzkamm and Caldwell, 2009; Witte et al., 2009 in this connection).

The overt approach favoured in Hammerly (1991) would appear to be supported by the findings in Lightbown and Spada (2000:211) suggesting that: ‘L1 constraints which appear to influence (syntactic) patterns in interlanguage are not readily available for meta-linguistic reflection.’

1.3.3.1 A Posited Role for Strategic Consciousness-Raising

In the context of a monolingual L1 learner population, Lightbown and Spada (2000:212) favour strategic consciousness-raising through:

...explicit instruction, including contrastive L1/L2 information...for students who share the same L1 and whose utterances are comprehensible to other students and thus serve as comprehensible input which may confirm each other’s interlanguage patterns.

The term ‘consciousness-raising’, of course, carries with it the implication of accessibility, that is, the information should be accessible to learners, as it is learners’ ‘consciousness’ that is to be ‘raised’ by this information. Marton (1981 b) advocates the construction of a ‘pedagogical contrastive grammar’ which, it is contended, is ‘the ultimate purpose of contrastive studies’ and which is seen as ‘an important aid in the processes of learning and teaching foreign languages’. However, seen in the context of ‘consciousness-raising’, the term ‘pedagogical contrastive grammar’ would, I believe, benefit from the qualification offered in James (1998), in which a distinction is drawn as between ‘explication’ and ‘explanation’, which goes to the heart of the notion of accessibility. According to James (1998), ‘grammars’ explicate, and are therefore seen as relatively inaccessible to learners. The ‘consciousness-raising’ seen as vital to effective L2 learning is, by contrast, brought about via explanation, hence the value of effective mediation by well-informed instructors and well-prepared instructional materials (Hammerly, 1991).
With regard to consciousness-raising in respect of the limits of L1/L2 equivalence in the Japanese EFL context, let us consider for a moment the observation in Rutherford’s (1983) paper on language typology and language transfer in respect of the contrasting SOV/SVO canonical word order of (L1) Japanese and (L2) English that: ‘Japanese learners of English do not at any time produce writing in which the verb is wrongly placed sentence-finally.’ Now, such a finding might be taken as evidence in support of a universalist position; a denial of cross-linguistic influence in second language acquisition. However, we would be remiss in our analysis if due account were not taken of the instructional context in which this L2 English writing ability was developed. And this instructional context requires that Japanese learners of English spend countless hours in diligent, comparative study of Japanese/English canonical word order constituents. Given this degree of explicit (contrastive) instruction, it would surely be a major surprise if Japanese learners of English did in fact produce L2 writing with the verb placed sentence-finally. It seems to me that findings such as those reported in Rutherford (1983) could equally be taken as evidence in support of the adoption of an explicitly contrastive approach to L2 instruction.

Would that the causal connections between L2 instruction and acquisition were this straightforward, however! While there would appear to be a relatively high degree of congruence between the formal instruction (input) of the SOV/SVO word-order contrast and its acquisition by L2 learners, such a degree of congruence would appear to be absent in respect of a significant number of L2 English language elements within the context of focus – morphological plural markers, to highlight but one example.

Krashen (1982), R. Ellis (1990) and DeKeyser (1998) detail a range of considerations which ostensibly have a bearing on these aspects of the relationship between L2 instruction and acquisition: the degree of, inter alia, formal and functional ‘complexity’ of a L2 language item or rule, the complexity of the processing operations involved, the ‘transparency’ of form/function relationships and the degree of (perceived) communicative redundancy are factors which may be expected to combine and interact to determine the degree of consonance or dissonance between the (meta) cognitive transmission and apprehension of a given L2 item or rule and the facility of its acquisition (i.e. internalization/automatization) by L2 learners.
Thus, if one were to represent the four possible combinations of ‘easy’/‘hard’ to ‘learn’/‘acquire’ in a simple two by two matrix format, the L2 English SVO canonical word order rule would appear (for L1 Japanese learners in this instance) to occupy the ‘easy to learn’/‘easy to acquire’ quadrant. The L2 English morphological plural marker rule(s), by contrast, would appear (for L1 Japanese learners) to occupy the ‘easy to learn’/‘hard to acquire’ quadrant – perhaps implying a need for a greater degree of focal attention and the instructional use of performance-related techniques aimed at promoting internalization and automatization in L2 learners.

At any rate, such an alternative conceptualization, by taking full account of the operation of the (prior) instructional context, and in line with the observations of Hammerly (1991) and Lightbown and Spada (2000), might lead one to formulate the twin hypotheses that a) those features of word order which are given the requisite degree of explicit instructional coverage – as is the case with the SOV/SVO canonical word order contrast – are more likely to be attended to in learner L2 production, and b) that those features of (contrastive, vis-à-vis L1) L2 syntax which slip under the radar, as it were, i.e. do not, for whatever reason, receive (the requisite degree of) explicit instructional coverage are, by contrast, more likely to be unattended to in learner L2 production (see Odlin, 1996). With particular regard to the Japanese EFL context, it would appear that questions relating to a theoretical optimum degree of contrastivity in respect of formal instruction remain unasked, let alone unanswered.

There is, I believe, no necessary conflict between the proposition advanced in Selinker (1992) that ‘interlingual identification’ (Weinreich, 1953) constitutes the primary SLA learning strategy, and the contention advanced in Hammerly (1991:116) that:

> It is important that early (L2) samples highlight differences rather than similarities so as to show clearly the falseness of the 1:1 hypothesis or general expectation of linguistic similarity with which most students come to the second language program.

If one considers Ringbom’s (1987) view that the inability of learners to make interlingual identifications across non-cognate languages with a high degree of contrastive amplitude will serve to heighten the degree of covert cross-linguistic influence, then it may be that the provision of accurate translation equivalents and
‘supportive’ contrastive information will be required in significant measure in order to help learners to overcome what would otherwise be an inhibitory absence of momentum in the formative stages of SLA.

1.3.3.2 Form-Focused Instruction and a Bilingual Approach to Language Awareness

There would appear to exist an interface, an intuitive commonality between the twin concepts of ‘Language Awareness’ and ‘Focus on Form’. The term ‘form-focused instruction’ (FFI) (Spada, 1997), given that it has the potential to cover ‘…a wider range of instructional types that concur with theories of the role of consciousness and attention in L2 learning (Schmidt, 1993; 1997; Sharwood Smith, 1993), regardless of whether they are reactive or proactive or relatively obtrusive or unobtrusive’ (Norris and Ortega, 2001), and which allows for the integration of form- and meaning-focused components, would appear appropriate in respect of the present study. FFI is seen as appropriate because ‘negative’ evidence in the form of feedback recasts may not be sufficiently explicit to ensure that learners realize that the recast is a (‘negative’) reaction on the part of the instructor to the accuracy of the form, rather than a ‘positive’ reaction to the content, i.e. a confirmation of meaning (Nicholas et al, 2001) (see also White, 1991; James, 1998).

Ellis R. et al (2001) cite Van Patten’s (1990) information-processing model, which posits that, due to limited processing capacity wherein attention to form essentially competes with attention to meaning, L2 learners will have difficulty attending to linguistic form in contexts wherein attention to meaning is paramount, for example in the context of the productive and receptive communication of messages (see also Batstone, 2007). Given this premise, FFI will be required to supplement meaning-focused instructional activity. It follows, therefore, that to be effective, FFI will need to ensure that the meaning component of the instructional input, i.e. its comprehensibility, is adequately catered for in order that learners may effectively attend to form-meaning and form-function mappings and thereby promote interlanguage development. A cross-linguistic focus, by ensuring that the meaning component is attended to, will likely facilitate such an outcome.

It would appear that language proficiency is likely to be among the key non-structural factors involved in L1–L2 transfer; ‘transfer’ being defined in Faerch and Kasper
(1987) as ‘a psycholinguistic procedure by means of which L2 learners activate their L1/Ln knowledge in developing or using their interlanguage’. In this connection, Odlin (1989:133) cites the contention in Taylor (1975) that less proficient learners exhibit a relatively high degree of reliance on transfer from L1. This being the case, the contention in Taylor (1975) that the apparent differences in reliance on transfer are largely reflective of the differences in the L2 knowledge base available to learners of varying proficiency levels is seen as being entirely consistent with the claims made in respect of the general nature of human learning alluded to earlier (Odlin, 1989).

The social context of acquisition will likely be a further non-structural factor with the potential to modulate the nature and degree of cross-linguistic influence (Odlin, 1989), in which case ‘sociocognitive’ perspectives such as that advocated in Batstone (2007), which acknowledge the sociolinguistic aspects of SLA in addition to their psycholinguistic counterparts, may offer an angle from which to orient L2 learning in respect of (cross-linguistic) FFI. Given the centrality of learner perceptions to the processes of SLA (Gass and Selinker, 1994) and the significance attached to the socio-psychological aspects of L1–L2 transfer (Faerch and Kasper, 1987), it may well be that an accelerated progress through stages of interlanguage development would repay FFI that includes a significant element of cross-linguistic language awareness. It is to a consideration of this notion of ‘cross-linguistic language awareness’, and its potential to inform the content of L2 teacher development programs in respect of monolingual L1 contexts, that we will now turn our attention.

1.4 Language Awareness

1.4.1 Introduction

The intuitive interface that connects form-focused instruction (FFI) with the concept of ‘language awareness’ is further highlighted by the observation in Ellis N. (2006) that ‘salience’ is additionally a psychological phenomenon (see also Sharwood Smith, 1999), a proposition which would seem to imply a) the need for a degree of congruence between instructional practice on the one hand and the learning process on the other, and b) the desirability of developing in learners a long-term orientation towards awareness of language in order to promote the perception of salience in input. The latter implication, of course, pre-supposes a similar orientation on the part of teachers as a necessary condition for the active promotion of such an orientation in the
learners in their charge, and would, therefore, suggest a central role for considerations of language awareness within programs designed to promote the professional development of L2 instructors.

I first propose to look at various conceptions of ‘language awareness’ as they apply in respect of the professional practice of L2 instructors. Following this, I shall discuss the notion of ‘cross-linguistic language awareness’, and proceed to examine some of the possible ways in which the notion of cross-linguistic language awareness might inform the various conceptions of ‘language awareness’ as they apply in respect of the professional practice of L2 instructors. I shall then move on to examine the extent and nature of the integration of the various conceptions of ‘language awareness’ in programs aimed at the professional development of L2 instructors, before concluding the review by highlighting the potential of a cross-linguistic approach to language awareness to inform the design and content of programs aimed at the professional development of L2 instructors – specifically, L1 Japanese/L2 English instructors operating within the Japanese EFL context.

**1.4.2 Language Awareness and L2 Professional Practice**

‘Teacher Language Awareness’ (TLA) and ‘cross-linguistic language awareness’ being, as it were, subsets of ‘language awareness’, the discussion that follows will proceed from the general to the specific. A similar move from general to specific may be identified in the ways in which Shulman’s (1987) original concept of a ‘knowledge base for teaching’ has had its focus progressively sharpened so as to more adequately reflect developing concerns within the field of TESOL. Andrews (2003) notes the centrality of the relationship between a) (teachers’) knowledge of subject-matter content and b) (teachers’) knowledge of pedagogy, which was a defining feature of Shulman (1987), and which led to the development of the construct of ‘Pedagogical Content Knowledge’ (PCK); PCK representing ‘…that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding’ (Shulman, 1987:8). For Shulman, the nature of this relationship is both ‘transformative’, i.e. the capacity of the instructor to transform his or her knowledge of the subject matter into representations which are pedagogically appropriate, and ‘adaptive’, i.e. the necessity of the instructor having the capacity to adapt these representations in the light of contextual requirements.
TESOL concerns with the language awareness of instructors may thus be seen as originating within the wider context of a focus on the development of teachers’ subject-matter knowledge as a component of PCK (Shulman, 1986, 1987; Brophy, 1991; Gess-Newsome and Lederman, 1999; Turner-Bisset, 2001). With specific regard to TESOL, Andrews (2003) draws on the generic PCK construct to inform the more language-focused concept of ‘Teacher Language Awareness’ (TLA), which is seen as comprising both ‘knowledge about language’ (KAL) and ‘knowledge of language’, i.e. language proficiency. Andrews (2003) sees the relationship between a L2 teacher’s KAL and language proficiency as operating on a number of levels, with the latter mediating the former in contexts where L2 functions as the medium of instruction. By way of a working definition, I shall use Thornbury’s (1997: x) definition of the term, cited in Andrews (2007: ix), as a useful point of departure, whereby the construct ‘Teacher Language Awareness’ may be described as: ‘The knowledge that L2 teachers have of the underlying systems of the target language that enables them to teach that language effectively.’ TLA is thus seen as being metacognitive in nature, that is, it:

...involves an extra cognitive dimension of reflections upon both knowledge of subject matter and language proficiency, which provides a basis for the tasks of planning and teaching. (Andrews, 2003:86)

TLA is further seen as encompassing an awareness of language from the learner’s perspective, a perspective which would include the nature of the learner’s developing interlanguage and learner perceptions regarding language, language learning and L2 instructional content.

In response to concerns centering on the perception of conflicting (linguistic) representations expressed in Freeman (2002) regarding the applicability of the PCK construct in the context of L2 learning (i.e. ‘language as subject matter’), Andrews (2003) asserts that the concerns expressed in Freeman (2002) rather point to the desirability of ‘…the inclusion of TLA as an additional component of PCK specific to the language teacher’ (Andrews, 2003:89).

Andrews and McNeill (2005:160) identify two dimensions of TLA: the ‘declarative’ dimension, i.e. ‘…the nature, breadth and depth of teachers’ knowledge, beliefs and awareness of the language systems’, and the ‘procedural’ dimension, i.e. ‘…how
teachers’ knowledge, beliefs and awareness impact upon their professional practice.’ Andrews and McNeill (2005:159) highlight the sub-optimal teaching and learning outcomes which are seen as resulting from a failure on the part of teachers to attend to issues of language to the same degree as issues of methodology, and advance the view that, because teacher-mediated language forms a significant component of the input that learners receive,

...the extent and...adequacy of L2 teachers’ engagement with language content in their professional practice is a crucial variable in determining the quality and potential effectiveness of any L2 teacher’s practice.

Indeed, this idea of the centrality of TLA to the quality of the pedagogical mediation of L2 to learners forms one of the principal take-home messages in Andrews (2001:88), namely that ‘…the key influence of TLA is on the way in which input is made available to learners.’ This point goes to the heart of what is meant by ‘language awareness’, as it suggests a connection between TLA, i.e. the language awareness of teachers, and the language awareness that resides, perhaps latent, within learners. In this latter connection, Bolitho et al (2003) caution against a top-down, transmission view of a pre-fabricated ‘language awareness’; rather, the authors present a conception of LA as an approach, wherein learners are encouraged to make discoveries concerning language form, function and meaning for themselves. Bolitho et al (2003) thus distinguish a teaching approach that might be characterized by, inter alia, explicit FFI (see Van Lier, 2001), from what is termed a ‘language awareness approach’, wherein a central pedagogical concern is the fostering of a ‘spirit of enquiry’ in learners.

Such an approach is seen in Bolitho et al (2003) as essentially inductive, and as incorporating principles of affective engagement and experiential learning in order to promote learner autonomy and facilitate the development of cognitive skills applicable beyond the confines of the classroom. The authors maintain that such an approach, given the likely existence of contextual constraints upon its wholesale implementation, may profitably complement more traditional form-focused instruction. Borg (1994) outlines five features of a ‘language awareness methodology’, which shares, and, indeed, informs, many of the inductive,
experiential, ‘discovery’ principles evident in the ‘language awareness approach’ in Bolitho et al (2003), and which is perhaps reflective of broader educational aims.

In respect of language awareness as a state of mind, there would seem to be a growing concern, reported in (inter alia) Svalberg (2007), Andrews and McNeill (2005), Thornbury (1997), with the questionable standard of L2 teachers’ content knowledge, i.e. (primarily) their declarative knowledge of the L2, which Andrews (2003) sees as dating back to the late 1980s. Allied to this perceived shortfall in declarative knowledge (a shortfall not exclusive to native L2 English instructors) are concerns regarding the quality of L2 teachers’ procedural and pedagogic knowledge, the ability of L2 teachers to effectively translate declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge, as well as concerns regarding L2 language proficiency; a shortfall in this last category having the potential to impact negatively on diverse aspects of L2 instructors’ professional practice. In this connection, Wright (1991) notes the psychological importance for L2 teachers (for example, with regard to confidence) of adequate levels of L2 proficiency and knowledge about language (KAL).

Svalberg’s (2007) ‘state-of-the-art’ article on ‘language awareness and language learning’ concludes that, although there would appear to be facilitating effects of TLA on learner language awareness, ‘…precise causal relationships are complex and difficult to determine’ (Svalberg, 2007:301). There may, however, be an unfortunate ‘circularity’ as regards the relationship between TLA and learner language awareness: Svalberg (2007) posits a consensus to the effect that for L2 teachers to use LA effectively, they require not only a high level of TLA, but also ‘…first-hand learner experience of an LA approach’ (Svalberg, 2007:302, emphasis added). If this requirement for first-hand learner experience is indeed a substantive one, it is clearly one which will have major implications for L2 teacher development programs.

Notwithstanding the complexity and lack of visibility attending the causal relationship between TLA and learner language awareness, the key role implied for the teacher in the mediation of input to learners and in the facilitation of the restructuring process in respect of learner interlanguage is seen as depending unambiguously on an assumed level of TLA (Andrews, 2007). At this point in the discussion, I think it worth recapitulating to the earlier consideration of studies detailing the respective merits of explicit versus implicit FFI (see, for example, Zhou, 1991). One is continually struck
by the lack of any reference in such studies to the quality of the instruction under review, be it ‘explicit’ or ‘implicit’, ‘proactive’ or ‘reactive’. The notion of ‘quality’ is, of course, at least partially subjective and presumably problematical to operationalize, although it is surely no less central to the effectiveness of L2 instruction as a result. In this connection, Andrews (2007) posits a likely correlation as between an L2 instructor’s TLA on the one hand, and the quality (i.e. effectiveness) of that L2 instructor’s mediation of instructional content on the other.

With regard to the construct of TLA itself, the model proposed in Edge (1988) would appear to have had a significant formative influence. The Edge (1988) model conceptualizes TLA as comprising three interrelated competences, representing, as it were, ‘knowledge bases’: those of ‘language user’, ‘language analyst’ and ‘language teacher’. Andrews (2007) offers the following profile in respect of the three interrelated competences, or ‘roles’:

*The language user role concerns the teacher’s language proficiency and determines that teacher’s adequacy as a model for students. The language analyst role relates to the teacher’s language systems knowledge base, and his / her ability to understand the workings of the target language. The third role, that of language teacher, is dependent on the teacher’s familiarity with a range of TEFL procedures and the possession of underlying theoretical knowledge about language pedagogy, and involves making appropriate and principled decisions about the use of those procedures.* (Andrews, 2007:185)

### 1.4.3 Cross-Linguistic Language Awareness

By way of an entrée into a discussion of a cross-linguistic approach to language awareness, one may recall the Widdowson (2003) critique of those mainstream approaches within TESOL which have tended to marginalize the cross-linguistic dimension of second language acquisition and to stigmatize anything suggestive of a contrastive paradigm. Corder (1981), it would appear, abhors the ‘c’ word, using the term ‘applied comparative linguistics’ in pointed preference. A principal motive for quoting Widdowson (2003) in extensio earlier was to make explicit the reasoning behind Widdowson’s (2003:159-160) call for the adoption of a pedagogy that would involve:
...bringing contrastive analysis into classroom methodology in the form of translation and other activities which engage the learners in the exploration of the relationship between the two languages as alternative encodings of meaning...

The Association for Language Awareness (ALA) journal ‘Language Awareness’ devoted a special issue (vol.5:3 and 4, 1996) to ‘Cross-Linguistic Approaches to Language Awareness’, the lead article of which (James, 1996) makes the connection with the Widdowson position outlined earlier. James (1996) cites the contentions in George (1972:180) that a) the advent of Audiolingualism represented and heralded ‘an anti-intellectual style of thinking about education generally’ by virtue of its overriding prioritization of automaticity and its concomitant relegation of the cross-linguistic dimension, and that b) ‘When time for translation is excluded, time for reflection is excluded also’ (George, 1972:180).

The years since these sentiments were expressed have, of course, witnessed a general shift towards ‘reflectivity’ across diverse educational contexts. There would appear to be an intuitive natural affinity between the constructs of ‘language awareness’ and ‘reflectivity’, as is evidenced by the link made in Bolitho et al (2003), cited above, between a ‘Language Awareness approach’ and ‘Reflective Practice’. James (1996) implicitly accepts this natural affinity by situating its promotion of a cross-linguistic approach to language awareness within the founding framework adduced in Hawkins (1981, 1984), wherein ‘language awareness’ is conceptualized as a ‘subject’, linking and informing L1 and L2 learning and facilitating a greater understanding of both via reflection grounded in ‘applied comparative linguistics’ (Corder, 1981).

The James (1996) analysis distinguishes between the complementary concepts of ‘awareness’ (seen as applying in respect of aspects of existing knowledge) and ‘consciousness’ (seen as applying in respect of knowledge yet to be acquired). James (1996) cites the contention in Snow (1976:154) that learning proceeds via an initial consciousness of that which we do not yet know. Since two language systems are interactive during the bilingualization process (Widdowson, 2003), the process of second language learning is held to be facilitated via consciousness-raising - defined as ‘activity that develops the ability to locate and identify the discrepancy between one’s present state of knowledge and a goal state of knowledge’ (James, 1996:141) –
(in respect of L2) and ‘awareness-raising’ (in respect of L1). This recalls the tenet advanced in James, (1994), wherein explanation requires that the unfamiliar (new) be presented in terms of the familiar (known) (see also Widdowson, 2003).

According to James (1996), learners’ ‘cross-linguistic intuitions’ (cognitions) and ‘cross-linguistic awareness’ (meta-cognitions) are guided and developed by the provision of cross-linguistic input, which promotes L2 awareness by heightening learners’ perception of ‘contrastive salience’ (Kupferberg and Olshtain, 1996). External provision (via instructors and/or materials) of cross-linguistic input will be required, as learners will initially lack the L2 resources to carry out these data-driven cross-linguistic comparisons – although this requirement may be expected to diminish as learners progress through stages of interlanguage development and acquire a degree of learner autonomy in respect of cognitive interlingual comparisons. In this connection, James (1996) cites a model explanation involving L1 English and L2 German and utilizing the ‘unfamiliar in terms of the familiar’ tenet to bring about a tangible insight (a tangible gain in L2 knowledge) in such a way as to ‘…create a learning-willingness or ‘permeability’ in the learner that will also enhance learning thereafter’ (James, 1996:146).

This, of course, directly parallels the ‘product’ and ‘behavioural outcome’ views of language awareness goals encountered in our earlier discussion of Wright and Bolitho (1993) in respect of L2 ITE and INSET programs. Just as in that earlier discussion, the conceptualization of language awareness goals as ‘product’ and ‘behavioural outcome’ need not, and, it may be argued, should not be an either/or proposition; the two may rather be seen as complementary, with tangible gains in L2 knowledge leading to a developing awareness which will in turn yield fresh insights (L2 knowledge gains) - and so the cycle continues, each stage in the cycle progressively ratcheting up the learner’s ‘language awareness’, KAL and L2 proficiency levels.

The cross-linguistic dimension is seen as playing a potentially significant role in the promotion of the perceptual salience of L2 items. Odlin (1996) demonstrates the correlation between high levels of contrastivity in respect of L1/L2 translation equivalents and high levels of perceptual salience. It would appear axiomatic that a heightened awareness of L1 is a prerequisite for the derivation of maximum benefit from these kinds of cross-linguistic comparisons, and in this respect the influence of
Hawkins (1981, 1984) on James (1996) is evident. Recalling the link that was made in the earlier review of the SLA literature between perceptual salience and the learner’s psychotypological profile, the analysis presented in James (1996) posits that in cases where salience of L2 items is contrast-dependent, an explicit contrastive focus may be required in order to bring about acquisition.

Among the many issues raised in James (1996) is the question of whether, in using this form of applied comparative linguistics, it would be more profitable to proceed from a focus on commonality, i.e. the highlighting of L1/L2 isomorphisms to a subsequent consideration of areas of contrast, as advocated in Poldauf (1995), or to initially prioritize the exposing of L1/L2 contrasts, as advocated in Hammerly (1991).

Further questions suggest themselves in respect of the context of focus, among which are whether the notions of ‘language distance’ and ‘psychotypology’ (Kellerman, 1977, 1978) might not be of some relevance; if so, whether there might be implications in respect of the Japanese EFL context, given that Japanese (L1) and English (L2) exhibit a high degree of contrastive amplitude; and how, within this instructional context, one is to view pedagogically the significant and ever-growing bank of loan-words – the so-called ‘English Repository Variety’ – which, considered in an L2 learning context, would appear to function as something of a double-edged sword.

1.4.4 Language Awareness and L2 ITE/INSET

Commentators such as Wright and Bolitho (see, for example, Wright and Bolitho, 1993) acknowledge the influence of the Edge (1988) model in the formulation of the TLA construct and its application in respect of L2 instructor development programs. The mode of integration of the three principal components of the model is essentially flexible; the sequential progression in Edge (1988) from ‘user’ to ‘analyst’ to ‘teacher’ is seen as appropriate to an extended pre-service/initial teacher education (ITE) program, with the operational focus shifting from language improvement to applied linguistics to methodology, respectively.

As may be gleaned from the foregoing, the construct of TLA appears to be assuming a progressively higher profile as an integral component of L2 teacher development programs; certification being in many cases contingent upon its successful
demonstration by trainees (Andrews and McNeill, 2005). With specific reference to the development and application of declarative L2 knowledge in the context of ITE programs, Elder et al (2007) note that, while meta-linguistic knowledge is clearly not synonymous with ‘language proficiency’, both are seen as key factors in respect of effective L2 instruction.

Elder et al (2007) further note that the assumption that non-native English L2 teacher trainees do not share the inadequacies in respect of L2 English grammatical knowledge and awareness identified in many of their native speaker counterparts (Bolitho, 1988; Andrews, 2003) would appear to be ‘highly questionable’, citing research (Green and Hecht, 1992; Alderson et al, 1997; Elder et al, 1999; Renou, 2000; Elder and Manwaring, 2004) which highlights a limited ability on the part of non-native L2 English teacher trainees to adequately verbalize meta-linguistic knowledge in L2 English, and which further reveals a degree of conceptual and meta-linguistic confusion. Elder et al (2007) view the presence of these identified ‘inadequacies’ as a cause for concern.

The study by Elder et al (2007) touches on several important aspects of L2 instructional practice, as manifested in ITE programs. These include questions regarding the nature of the assumed relationship between declarative L2 knowledge, use of meta-linguistic terminology and instructors’ ability to formulate and articulate L2 explanations adequately and in a manner that is accessible to learners. The salient findings of the Elder et al (2007) study reveal a ‘disturbing lack’ of meta-linguistic knowledge and underlying conceptual and terminological awareness, shortcomings which were clearly apparent in the trainees’ ability to appropriately convey the requisite (corrective) information in L2.

These findings raise numerous questions regarding the potential for pedagogical confusion when sub-standard meta-linguistic knowledge of L2 is misapplied in FFI contexts. In respect of its relevance to ITE programs and the Japanese EFL context, the most salient point made by Elder et al (2007) is, perhaps, its highlighting of the dangers of an undue focus on the development of L2 meta-linguistic knowledge which is independent of the development of the skills set essential for its pedagogical application: ‘The cognitive sophistication involved in the former may sometimes be in conflict with the simplification skills required for the latter’ (Elder et al, 2007:238).
The salience of this point is, I believe, heightened by its relevance to both L2 and L1 medium-of-instruction, both of which apply in the Japanese EFL context.

The findings of studies on the transfer of L2 KAL to L2 instruction (Andrews, 1997, 1999; Cajkler and Hislam, 2002; Morris, 2002; Lamb, 1995; Pennington and Richards, 1997) cited in Bartels (2005) reveal numerous difficulties, a finding which would suggest that this issue does need to be addressed in the design and implementation of ITE and INSET programs.

1.4.4.1 Questions of Program Focus in L2 ITE/INSET

Contrasting responses to the arguments advanced in Freeman and Johnson (1998) perhaps suggest an appropriate direction for the orientation of L2 teacher training and development programs: Bartels (2005) applauds the central emphasis Freeman and Johnson (1998) place on the activity of teaching itself; an emphasis it is felt is implied in the term ‘L2 teacher development’. By contrast, Yates and Muchisky (2003) warn of the dangers of a reconceptualization of the knowledge base for L2 teacher development which marginalizes language, and which fails to reflect the centrality of adequate levels of declarative knowledge of L2 as the sine qua non of competent L2 instruction.

Given that the domain we are concerned with is L2 instruction and the professional development of competent L2 instructors, it may be viewed as undesirable for programs aimed at the professional development of competent L2 instructors to focus on either the development of L2 declarative knowledge or situated pedagogical skills to the exclusion of the other. It may instead be preferable to attempt to integrate these (and other) knowledge bases in a manner wherein they might inform one another within the context of L2 ITE or INSET programs.

In this connection, Cots and Arno (2005) draw on the framework proposed in Edge (1988) and later refined in Wright (1991), Wright and Bolitho (1993) and Wright (2002) in analyzing the nature and extent of the interface between the three competences of language user, language analyst, and language teacher in respect of ITE provision. Cots and Arno (2005) conclude that a focus on the transmission of declarative L2 knowledge may operate to the exclusion of due focus on consideration of procedural aspects of L2 knowledge – a finding which may reflect the dominance
of a formal, structural type of descriptive linguistics in many pre-service programs. The authors also highlight the likelihood of this ideological focus on the explicit, declarative aspect of L2 knowledge exercising a formative influence on the methodological repertoire of the next generation of EFL instructors.

The foregoing analysis points to the key role played by ‘tangibility’ as an attribute of KAL (Bartels, 2005): tangibility (as opposed to abstraction) is seen as being strongly facilitative of KAL transferability to pedagogical contexts, and as a means to effectively bring about the integration of the various knowledge bases on which the (future) L2 instructor must draw.

Given the twin premises that a) there exists a marked correlation between the congruence of ‘practice’ tasks and ‘target’ tasks on the one hand, and the successful transfer of the knowledge implied therein on the other (Lesgold et al., 1988) and that b) contextualized pedagogical application of this implied knowledge constitutes the target domain, it surely follows that L2 ITE programs should strive for an appreciable degree of congruence between input content (‘practice tasks’) and (as far as may be identified) its contextualized pedagogical application. This is to say, in light of findings which suggest that (presumably due to the cognitive demands of information processing) novices are especially dependent on a high level of surface similarity in respect of practice and target tasks (Novick, 1988), it may be ‘…especially important for novice teachers to have educational experiences in their teacher education programs which are clearly similar to the experiences they will have as teachers’ (Bartels, 2005:408).

Significantly, given that studies (Anders, 1995; Leinhardt and Greeno, 1986; Leinhardt and Smith, 1985; Tamir, 1992) appear to indicate that the declarative knowledge of experienced instructors is at least partially organized in ways which emphasize linkages with pedagogical representations, routines and explanations which mediate this knowledge to learners, Bartels (2005) cites research suggesting a general absence of the types of educational experiences on ITE programs that might facilitate a similar organization of declarative knowledge in program trainees.

Viewed within the context of L2 ITE, the foregoing would appear to imply, inter alia, that providers of L2 ITE (and, indeed, L2 INSET) require an appreciation and
understanding of the context(s) in which trainees will need to operate and the essential character of the learners the trainees will be instructing within this context.

While acknowledging the need for more research on the precise nature of L2 teachers’ acquisition of KAL in ITE and INSET contexts and its subsequent (non) transference to L2 instructional contexts, Bartels (2005) concludes that ITE and INSET providers need to take greater account of the type of (context-specific) KAL and language awareness L2 instructors (will) need, rather than proceeding from assumptions based around the types of applied linguistics knowledge which these providers have historically seen themselves as offering, i.e. providers need to adopt a consumer-driven, as opposed to a producer-driven orientation in respect of L2 ITE and INSET provision.

Clearly, this type of context-specific focus may be largely precluded in the case of an ITE program aimed at native English speakers, as at this early stage the contexts in which these trainees will be operating will not yet be known, either to the program providers or to the trainees themselves; even if they are known, they will likely differ by trainee. However, in the case of non-native pre- or in-service trainees in cases where the context of operation is known with a high degree of certainty and is uniform across the trainee group, it would perhaps be counter-intuitive for program providers not to take due account of this context in the design and implementation of ITE and INSET programs. In this connection, Andrews (2007) advances the view that ‘…the specifications of what is required of a professional L2 teacher should include a thorough, context-specific analysis of TLA-related competences…’ (Andrews, 2007:203-204, emphasis added).

In a similar vein, by incorporating the conception in Wright and Bolitho (1993) of trainees as ‘learner-users’ of L2, Barnes (2002) details an ITE program for Modern Foreign Language teacher trainees which utilizes an L2 TLA ‘needs analysis’ component for trainees, thus reflecting the ‘developing’ nature of trainees’ L2 proficiency and ‘language awareness’ emphasized in Wright and Bolitho (1993). Barnes (2002:208-209) maintains that L2 ITE trainees appreciate this L2 ‘upgrade’ ‘…from a dual perspective – as a way of strengthening their own linguistic ability, and as a source of ideas and possible role model for their teaching.’
This, of course, recalls our earlier discussions of the desirability of integrating the trainees’ various knowledge bases, thereby ensuring that the KAL aspect of TLA does not become isolated from the pedagogical, i.e. methodological aspects in respect of its context of application (Wright, 2002), and of the possible advantages of affording L2 ITE program trainees language awareness experiences as learners (see Wright, 2002 – ‘language awareness as methodology’).

Wright’s (2002) highlighting of language awareness as a ‘goal’ of language teacher education invites an exploration of the precise nature of this goal. Two aspects readily come to mind (see Wright and Bolitho, 1993); these being language awareness as a ‘product’, i.e. a tangible gain in trainees’ L2 proficiency and/or L2 KAL which will then be available for subsequent transfer to pedagogical contexts, and language awareness as a ‘behavioural outcome’, whereby trainees are encouraged ‘to become autonomous explorers of language’ (Wright, 2002) – an outcome which will itself likely result in the generation of further (tangible) insights, insights which will similarly be available for subsequent pedagogical application.

Bolitho et al (2003:255) summarize the central concerns and point to a number of design and research possibilities in respect of L2 ITE programs for non-native speaker trainees as follows:

*Pre-service training courses usually include a Language Systems component (often taught by specialists in grammar, phonology, semantics, etc.) and (for non-native teachers) a Language Improvement component, designed to ensure that they have the required level of proficiency. But neither proficiency in a language nor knowledge about that language are sufficient on their own to equip a teacher to teach it. Trainee teachers need to be able to analyze language, to apply different strategies for thinking about language (analogizing, contrasting, substituting, etc.) in order to be able to plan lessons, to predict learners’ difficulties, to answer their questions, and to write and evaluate materials. Only if they are able to think for themselves about language will they be able to do all this. All this implies working within a model of teacher education which promotes independent and critical thinking. Many teachers will recall the difficulty they have experienced in applying the theoretical knowledge of language systems acquired on their pre-service training course to real classroom situations. The
model which has most in common with a Language Awareness approach is Reflective Practice, a process which allows trainees to use their own experience of language and language learning as a starting point for questioning and reflecting, thereby establishing a strong basis for learning selectively about language, and applying this learning in planning for classroom action. Language can be approached in this way, inductively, on a teacher education course, and can have an impact (this would be an interesting area to research) on the language proficiency of non-native speaker trainees. The effect of all this on trainees’ self-esteem, as they become their own experts rather than relying on received knowledge, cannot be underestimated.

The formative influence of this extract from Bolitho et al (2003) in respect of ITE design and research possibilities upon, inter alia, Tuzel and Akcan (2009) is clearly evident, in particular the section to which emphasis has been added. The cyclical nature of this process is, I feel, especially significant, and is a point to which I shall return to elaborate on a little later. Tuzel and Akcan (2009) report that ‘language awareness training’ had an extremely positive impact on the target language use of the pre-service English teachers who participated in the study - these participants describing the language awareness training experience as ‘invaluable’ (Tuzel and Akcan, 2009:281).

1.4.5 Cross-Linguistic Language Awareness and ITE Provision

In light of the earlier definition of TLA (after Thornbury, 1997: x), I now offer the following definition of the construct ‘Cross-Linguistic Teacher Language Awareness’:

- The knowledge that L2 teachers have of the underlying systems of the L2, the learners’ L1, and the scope and nature of L1–L2 cross-linguistic influence that enables them to teach the L2 (more) effectively to monolingual L1 learner groups.

It would thus appear axiomatic that the closer one moves to considerations of context, the greater the significance the cross-linguistic dimension of L2 pedagogy assumes. This point is exemplified in the discussion of ‘approaches to the teacher education curriculum’ in Roberts (1998), wherein an L2 teacher trainee’s content knowledge is
mediated by contextual knowledge to inform the construct of PCK. Roberts (1998) accordingly presents a ‘protosyllabus of objectives’ for ITE programs in which consideration of contextual factors is seen as a key component in the construction of the principal knowledge bases for effective L2 instruction.

In a similar vein, Wright (2002) identifies the cross-linguistic dimension as an important element in the sensitization process which a language awareness approach aims to set in motion, observing that, ‘A linguistically aware teacher not only understands how language works, but understands the student’s struggle with language and is sensitive to errors and other interlanguage features’ (Wright, 2002:115). Indeed, Wright (2002) uses the term ‘linguistic radar’ to describe this sensitization to features of the L2 system, recalling the earlier use of the term with regard to the comparative analysis of, for example, syntax in the Japanese EFL context.

More general perspectives on ITE (see for example, Kagan, 1992) posit the need for student teachers to identify with ‘the reality of pupils’ experience of learning’ (Roberts, 1998:80) as a crucial realization to be engendered within ITE. A focus on the cross-linguistic dimension would therefore appear to offer an ideal route to such a realization – not least because ITE trainees will be in a position to capitalize on their own previous and ongoing experiences as learners within the same sociolinguistic and educational context.

Here we may recall Corder’s (1981) point that non-native English L2 instructors were once in the very same position as their learners, and thus once shared – likely still share – many of the features of their learners’ interlanguages – hence ‘learner-users’ (Wright and Bolitho, 1993). In this connection, it is interesting to note that the Japanese word for ‘teacher’ – ‘sensei’ – literally means ‘one who has gone before’/‘one who has travelled the path before’. This term is, it would seem, particularly apt in the context of L1 Japanese/L2 English language learning.

Viewed within the context of a language awareness approach to L2 ITE (Bolitho et al, 2003), a focus on the cross-linguistic dimension would appear to offer program providers the potential to a) mitigate the limitations of purely ‘experiential’ learning identified in Jarvis (1991), and b) provide a coherent route by which supervisors might make the difficult transition from directive to non-directive roles (see Roberts,
1998). With regard to the first of these affordances, Wright (1991) notes the importance of trainees’ perceptions of (program) tangibility and credibility, observing that it is vital for program providers to strike an appropriate balance between ‘exploration’ and ‘information’. Roberts (1998) maintains that the presentation of new information is an essential feature of ITE courses. It is essential, however, that this new information be presented as input in ways that immediately connect with trainees’ prior or current states of knowledge, and that this input be tangible, i.e. be represented by the use of concrete examples (Roberts, 1998).

The provision of tangible cross-linguistic informational input would, I believe, satisfy these requirements on a number of levels: connections with prior and current knowledge states would result in real L2 knowledge/insight gains for trainees, thus establishing at the outset the value and credibility of a language awareness approach.

With regard to the second of these affordances, the transition from directive to non-directive provider roles, an initial provision of (cross-linguistic) L2 knowledge gains/insights via ‘language awareness’ will, it may be assumed, encourage the subsequent development of a more autonomous ‘explorational’ orientation on the part of trainees. This orientation may have an initial focus on the L1/L2 interface, but can be expected to broaden thereafter, for example, by serving as the basis for L2-internal comparative analyses.

1.4.5.1 The Elusive Goal of Contextual Relevance

In respect of the majority of L2 teacher education programs, an L2-internal focus dominates, and trainees are left to make the L1 connections themselves. The de facto norm is for educational institutions to offer programs generically-styled, for example, ‘MA TESOL’, rather than context-specific programs titled, for example, ‘MA in Teaching English to Japanese L1 speakers’, thus reflecting a producer-driven orientation (although commercial, in addition to pedagogic considerations, would appear to justify the provision of, say, an ‘MA in Teaching English to Mandarin Chinese L1 speakers’).

Borrowing the phrase ‘home truth’ from the thesis title, there would seem to be little merit, as Widdowson (2003:156) observes, in making a virtue out of necessity, as the universalist, monolingual agenda has succeeded in doing for so long. A concomitant
tendency may be identified in this connection: practical considerations in respect of L2 teacher education provision have effectively marginalized the cross-linguistic dimension of SLA pedagogy, hence trainees are encouraged along the lines of ‘apply these theories to your particular context’, or ‘analyze these theories in respect of your particular context’ – in effect, a ‘DIY’ approach to contextualization.

In this connection, the Moussu and Llurda (2008) ‘State-of-the-art’ article on non-native English L2 instructors cites research (Govardhan et al, 1999; Polio and Wilson-Duffy, 1998; Braine, 1999; Liu, 1999; Oka, 2004; Canagarajah, 2005; Holliday, 2005) which questions the relevance of much of the content of North American TESOL programs, including MA TESOL programs, to non-native English L2 instructors planning a subsequent return to their EFL instructional contexts.


Significantly, given the generic nature of the majority of L2 teacher education programs highlighted in the foregoing analysis, the ITE case study offered in Wallace (1991:147), although containing the stipulation – ‘principle 1’ - that, ‘The course should be relevant to the educational and professional needs of the target population, and to the needs of the community which they will serve as professional educators’ (emphasis in original), omits any reference to notions of cross-linguistic language awareness in the checklist of program aims and objectives.

With regard to considerations of knowledge transfer and contextualization, Wright (2002:128) maintains that, ‘Creating a shift from new knowledge to classroom reality is the vital stage in the LA learning cycle.’ This being the case, the adoption of a context-specific, cross-linguistic orientation might well provide the degree of integration and program cohesion necessary for this ‘vital’ transition. By the same token, the absence of due consideration of the cross-linguistic dimension may render this transition problematic and/or reduce the likelihood of it ever occurring.
A final observation: The implied directionality of Wright (2002) above is, I think, worthy of note. Proceeding ‘from new knowledge to classroom reality’ (emphasis added) hints at the dangers inherent in a producer-driven orientation – perhaps even to the extent of inviting difficulties in respect of subsequent knowledge transfer. It may be that a more cyclical approach, one proceeding from classroom reality to new knowledge and then back to classroom reality has the potential to offer a truly consumer-driven, contextualized and responsive alternative.

Under this (idealistic?) arrangement, due consideration of the (linguistic) realities of the Japanese EFL context would inform the design and delivery of ITE and INSET programs catering specifically for L2 English instructors operating within that context, and the immediate relevance of the input would likely facilitate its acceptance on the part of trainees and subsequent transfer to the ‘chalkface’ of the Japanese EFL context.

Wright and Bolitho (1993) was, in many ways, a significant paper, not least in respect of its thought-provoking title: ‘Language awareness: a missing link in language teacher education?’ It seems to me that, absent due consideration of the cross-linguistic dimension, (teacher) language awareness – and hence ITE/INSET L2 teacher education – is, and will remain, incomplete.

1.4.6 Conclusion

The first of the three principal areas of focus covered by this review of the literature highlighted the salient features of the Japanese EFL context. A variety of historical, socio-political, sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic factors were highlighted as key determinants of the status quo, and a number of the most salient contextual features were identified as significant in respect of the principal themes with which the thesis study will concern itself. These contextual features were seen as representing substantive challenges to which a study centred on the design and provision of a pre-service ITE language awareness program for trainee L1 Japanese/L2 English instructors within the Japanese EFL context will be required to respond.

The second of the review’s three principal sections linked the Japanese EFL context with many of the central concerns of SLA via an examination of the theoretical underpinnings in respect of the L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage data set. There
then followed a discussion of those aspects of the SLA literature identified as being most closely associated with the psycholinguistic aspects of the status quo within the context of focus. A ‘natural interface’ between the psycholinguistic aspects of the status quo within the Japanese EFL context and the construct of ‘language awareness’ was posited, and a tendency to marginalize the cross-linguistic dimension of SLA within mainstream L2 pedagogy was highlighted. The ubiquity of binary oppositional conceptualizations within the TESOL/applied linguistics discourse was noted, and the appropriateness of this form of representation in respect of L1 influence on L2 acquisition/performance was called into question. The ground was thus prepared for a fuller interrogation of SLA representations within the thesis from a language awareness perspective.

The construct of ‘language awareness’ was then examined in some detail, with particular emphasis on its interpretation and application in respect of L2 language teacher education. The potential of the language awareness construct to make a valuable contribution to trainees’ L2 KAL in respect of initial L2 teacher education was duly recognized, and it emerged that the cross-linguistic dimension, despite attempts in certain quarters to promote its wider acceptance, appears to continue to be relatively under-researched and under-utilized, both within mainstream L2 instruction and in respect of the language components of L2 teacher education programs.

1.4.7 Research Questions

The thesis study – an evaluative case study centring on the innovative language awareness component of the Spring/Summer 2010 Hiroshima University ITE program at Warwick University’s Centre for Applied Linguistics – is premised on the belief that such a program has the potential to be of considerable benefit to participants, both in terms of their L2 language development and in terms of their development as trainee L2 English instructors. Accordingly, the thesis will seek to address the central research question as follows:

- To what degree might an explicitly cross-linguistic approach to language awareness enhance the perceived value of an L2 ITE program?

This in terms of:

- Participants’ L2 language development
Participants’ development as pre-service TESOL professionals
Participants’ cognitive/affective responses to key elements and aspects of the program

In addition to the evaluative stance I adopt in respect of the central research question, I shall also be concerned to record and explore the various practical issues and experiential responses encountered in the delivery of an explicitly cross-linguistic language awareness module in the belief that such descriptive data will likely be of benefit in cases where practitioners deem the study’s findings relevant to their own particular contexts and L2 ITE/INSET requirements. The structure of the thesis will therefore reflect the need to include a comprehensive descriptive element within the reporting of qualitative case study research highlighted by, among others, Hancock and Algozzine (2006:16) and Gillham (2000:101).

The inquiry will additionally seek to address the following research sub-question:

- How might a transition from a state of teacher-dependent language awareness to a state of autonomous language awareness be effected such that this latter is capable of being sustained and developed by trainees subsequent to the initial focus on an L2 ITE program?

The central research question, together with the associated sub-question, represents an overt engagement with many of the principal themes highlighted in the review of the TESOL/applied linguistics literature above, and, while the research methodology will seek to respect the emergent quality of the case as it evolves in context, initial hypotheses have been formulated and will be evaluated as the study unfolds in light of the data generated.

Given the premise advanced in section 2.2 above that certain aspects of the dichotomous SLA conceptualizations regarding the nature of the influence of a learner’s first language on his or her acquisition of, and performance in, a second or subsequent language as being either facilitative or inhibitory - the two assigned characters being semantically and conceptually mutually exclusive - may, in fact, be problematic, I should additionally like to consider:
The possibility of there being alternative modes of representation which are consistent with the attested interlanguage data from the Japanese EFL context and, if so, how such a mode of representation might relate to constructs of Language Awareness and Teacher Language Awareness, both in general and in respect of the context of focus.
Chapter Two: Methodology

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is structured in accordance with the chronological evolution of events following my sensing – alluded to in the Prologue - that Japanese contextual specificity was being underplayed in the professional development of EFL instructors. Figure 3 overleaf sets out the developmental sequence of events marking the present inquiry – a sequence which may, I believe, constitute a template for similar context-specific practice and/or practitioner research.

I will therefore open the chapter with an account of the process in respect of the collection of the L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage data set, the theoretical underpinnings of which were set out in the Literature Review above. I shall then recount how this data set was used as the basis for the compilation of a probabilistic common denominator-style profile of L1 Japanese/L2 English learners, the purpose of which is to inform L2 pedagogy. I shall then go on to detail the role this interlanguage profile played in informing the development of a set of teaching and learning materials which are specifically targeted at L1 Japanese learners, in that the materials are designed to explicitly address the interlanguage features revealed by the profile and the empirical data on which it was based. I will then move on to outline the rationale for the selection and design of the case study, making clear the relevance of the case’s principal features as a response to the inquiry’s central research question.

There will then follow an outline of the design of the 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Language Awareness Program and a breakdown of the various program elements and aspects to be evaluated in respect of the research questions.

I shall then detail:

1. The inquiry’s methodology and supporting rationale in respect of the generation of data from the 2010 Language Awareness Program.
2. The inquiry’s methodology and supporting rationale in respect of the analysis of data from the 2010 Language Awareness Program.

The chapter will conclude with a review of various ethical considerations seen as relevant to the conduct and representation of the present inquiry.
Figure 3. Practitioner Research: Process and Sequence for the L1/L2 Language Awareness Program
2.2 Procedure in respect of Interlanguage Data Collection

The various theoretical considerations underpinning the generation of the L2 English oral production data that constitute the point of departure for the present inquiry were set out in some detail in the Literature Review above. In line with the literature reviewed in this connection, I believe that the L2 oral interlanguage production data may be classified as ‘observational’, i.e. non-manipulative (James, 1998; Selinker, 1992; Levenston, 1982) and ‘interactionally authentic’ (Ellis R. and Barkhuizen, 2005). This is an important point, as the methodology in respect of the generation of such data has a bearing on the construct validity of samples of ‘learner language’, in which connection Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005:9) note that unelicited, (interactionally) authentic L2 use ‘…is viewed as affording the best data for examining (learners’) underlying knowledge systems (competence).’

I therefore see the interlanguage data set comprising materials references 0101–3615 as being markedly distinct (qualitatively) from samples of learner language collected in more typical (i.e. ‘formal’) instructional settings, where such data – often textual – are unlikely to be adequately representative of learners’ underlying L2 competence due to the highly restricted nature of the interactions and the operation of both ‘external’ and (learner-) ‘internal’ ‘constraints’ upon the type of learner language produced (Corder, 1981). Corder (1981) laments the highly restricted nature and the lack of spontaneous authenticity characteristic of typical patterns of linguistic interaction within formal instructional contexts, which are viewed as consequences of an unfortunate focus on (the teaching of) language as a ‘code’, to the exclusion of the development of communicative competence in response to genuine communicative needs (Corder, 1981).

A further point relating to the psycholinguistic validity of the interlanguage data set concerns the question of interpretation; correct interpretation being seen as a prerequisite for an accurate analysis of learner language (Corder, 1981). With regard to the context of focus, my familiarity with the learners and the learners’ idiosyncratic (i.e. ‘social’) dialect, together with the use of techniques of ‘negotiation’ to supplement my contextual awareness ensured that the accurate retrieval of meaning was relatively unproblematic.
This in turn permitted the accurate L2 reconstruction and reformulation of the samples of learner language. Being concerned with interlanguage competence, i.e. ‘implicit’ language knowledge, at the aggregate ‘collective’ level, the psycholinguistic validity of the interlanguage data set was further enhanced by the collation of multiple instantiations – Kellerman’s (1984) ‘tokens’ – over a period of more than a decade, thus providing me with repeated confirmation of underlying patterns of form and meaning in respect of L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage.

The data set was found to be remarkably consistent with the ‘profiles’ offered in both O’Sullivan (1996) and Thompson (1987, 2001 in Swan and Smith eds. 1987, 2001). This would further suggest that the interlanguage data which I collected in ‘remote’ EFL settings in Japan over the period 1997–2009 (materials references 0101–3615), together with the observational data that would have informed both O’Sullivan (1996) and Thompson (1987, 2001), are indeed reflective of an underlying competence – a ‘transitional competence’, to use Corder’s (1981) term – at the aggregate level within the Japanese EFL context.

2.2.1 Interlanguage Examples

Having outlined the rationale underlying my pedagogical approach in respect of my brief to encourage, develop and automatize my L1 Japanese learners’ L2 English oral production skills in the Literature Review above, I should now like to present a series of examples, the aim of which is to familiarize the reader with the various procedures involved in the generation and collation of the original interlanguage data set in Japan over the period 1997–2009. These examples will additionally enable the reader to follow the subsequent application of the interlanguage data set in terms of the derivation of the ‘Prototypical L1 Japanese/L2 English Interlanguage Profile’ and the production of the ‘Wasei Eigo ni Sayonara’ (WENS) teaching and learning materials - the former providing the grounded context for the latter, and the latter forming the textual basis for the 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Language Awareness Program.

As I became increasingly familiar with the oral L2 English output of my L1 Japanese learners at the ‘eikaiwa’ conversation schools, I became attuned to the lexis, syntactic structures, pronunciation, and intonation patterns that learners in that context routinely used. I made a conscious decision to record in writing the features of my learners’
interlanguages that were ‘common’ in both senses of the word, i.e. I was interested in recording those language features – consistent with Lennon’s (1991) definition of ‘error’ given in the Literature Review above – which were routinely used by an overwhelming majority of my learners across a surprisingly wide range of proficiency levels. I was not interested, therefore, in recording ‘one-off’ errors – the idiosyncratic products of very particular utterances on the part of individual learners, with no wider significance beyond the particular utterance. In other words, I was on the lookout for shared ‘patterns’ in the interlanguages of my learners.

To illustrate this, let us take the positioning of adverbial time references as an example of such a language feature. Time and time again, I would hear my learners produce sentences such as ‘Tomorrow I will go to Kobe’, ‘Last week I took (the) TOEIC’, ‘In December I will go to Australia’, ‘Yesterday I played tennis’, and so forth, in which the adverbial time reference was placed sentence-initially. Indeed, this appeared to be very much the ‘default’ interlanguage setting of the overwhelming majority of L1 Japanese speakers I encountered over the period. The sense of cognitive dissonance I routinely experienced on hearing adverbial time references placed sentence-initially (as opposed to sentence-finally, as is more usual in English) led me to search for explanations for this pattern. Research very soon supplied a strong candidate – L1 Japanese, in which adverbial time references are routinely placed sentence-initially. The Japanese ‘romaji’ equivalents (with the adverbial time references underlined) for the four examples quoted above would be ‘Ashita Kobe ni ikimasu’, ‘Senshu TOEIC o shimashita’, ‘Ju ni gatsu Osutoraria ni ikimasu’, and ‘Kinoo tenisu o shimashita’, respectively.

2.3 Derivation of a Prototypical L1 Japanese/L2 English Interlanguage Profile

By making careful note of hundreds upon hundreds of such language features in the oral (and indeed the written) L2 English output of my learners and numerous other L1 Japanese speakers with whom I conversed in English over the period 1997–2009, I was able to derive what I refer to as a ‘Prototypical L1 Japanese/L2 English Interlanguage Profile’, similar in nature to the profiles offered in O’Sullivan (1996) and Thompson (1987, 2001), although exceeding O’Sullivan (1996) and Thompson (1987, 2001) in both the scope and detail of coverage. The rationale for the
construction of the ‘Prototypical L1 Japanese/L2 English Interlanguage Profile’ was premised on James (1998:181):

*The main value of L1 transfer-based diagnosis is that it can lead to the compilation of compact and practical profiles, not of individual learners’ interlanguages, but of the shared characteristics of the interlanguages of a group of learners, a group having the same L1.*

The compilation of a ‘Prototypical Interlanguage Profile’ entailed the construction of a data-driven descriptive taxonomy, which Ellis R. and Barkhuizen (2005) see as a key element in maximizing the potential of such a data set for pedagogical application. Allied to this, and following James (1998), I see the fact that learners in the context of focus are, as the literature reviewed above reveals, teleologically oriented towards idealized native-speaker target norms as justifying the comparative orientation of the data set and profile in respect of psycholinguistic validity, as ‘cognitive comparison’ will be a naturally-occurring and pervasive feature of learners’ internal engagement with L2 (James, 1998; see also Selinker, 1992 with respect to ‘interlingual identifications’). While mindful of the potential for overlap or multiple assignment i.e. the viable assigning of interlanguage features to more than one ‘error’ category, I grouped the interlanguage data according to the following contextualized taxonomy of fourteen principal ‘error’ types:

- Considerations of syntax and word order
- Instances of omission
- Instances of underuse and/or avoidance
- Instances of overuse
- Instances of misuse
- Instances of confusion between X and Y (and Z)
- Instances of confusion regarding X
- Morphosyntax and confusion regarding lexical category
- Considerations of style and register
- Autonomous semantic extension and idiosyncratic rendering/usage
- Instances of misspelling
- Phonetic, supra-segmental and prosodic considerations
- Instances of potential pragma-linguistic failure
• Non-English loan-words

In order to complement the categories above, I created an additional category reflecting what I perceived to be anomalies in the interlanguage data, believing that the presence of this additional category would broaden my perspective and could potentially offer me fresh insight in respect of L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage processes.

I believe that the L1 Japanese/L2 English Interlanguage Profile may be said to be ‘prototypical’ in that the majority of the features detailed will likely be present in and characteristic of the L2 English interlanguages of the majority of learners in the Japanese EFL context. While predictive validity is not of direct concern per se, the Prototypical Interlanguage Profile may, I believe, be regarded as having a degree of predictive validity - recall James’ (1980:145) term ‘pre-identify’ - in a probabilistic sense at the aggregate level.

To refer back to our earlier example, the apparent predisposition among L1 Japanese/L2 English learners to position adverbial time references sentence-initially in both oral and written output is detailed in the ‘Prototypical Interlanguage Profile’ under the rubric ‘Considerations of syntax and word order’ within the taxonomy of fourteen principal ‘error’ types above.

The ‘Prototypical Interlanguage Profile’ was then used to inform the design of a set of dedicated bilingual learning materials, entitled ‘Wasei Eigo ni Sayonara’ (WENS), aimed at raising awareness among L1 Japanese learners of English of these prototypical interlanguage features in juxtaposed contrast to the grammatically correct, more ‘natural’ or more commonly produced and/or recognized L2 formulations.

The prototypical interlanguage features presented in the profile are all cross-referenced with the relevant unit number(s) in the WENS learning materials. Thus, the entry entitled ‘Contrast in the positioning of adverbial time references’ in the ‘Prototypical Interlanguage Profile’ directs readers to unit numbers 0403 and 0505 in the WENS learning materials, where this particular interlanguage feature is pedagogically addressed. The ‘Prototypical Interlanguage Profile’ entry invites readers to consult materials reference numbers 1113, 1503, 1506, 1901, 2803, 2806,
3106 and 3411 for additional attested examples of this particular interlanguage feature.

2.4 Procedure in respect of the Development of the L2 Learning Materials

Having compiled a significant number of features which I saw as characterizing L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage, I set about the development of pedagogic materials aimed at addressing each of the features in turn. The interlanguage features were addressed via a standardized format comprising L1 background and L1/L2 contrastive information and examples of typical errors or ‘unnatural’ L2 formulations. I initially wrote entirely in English, and subsequently had the relevant sections of the materials – comprising my L2 reformulations of the attested interlanguage utterances, meta-linguistic information, exemplification, and instructional rubrics for exercises - translated into L1 Japanese – a design feature which I viewed as desirable in respect of the materials’ facility as a self-study aid.

The idea was essentially that, via the explicit provision of contrastive information, L1 Japanese/L2 English learners could be guided in the identification and diagnosis of erroneous or unnatural L2 English formulations and, via the provision of apposite examples and opportunities for (productive) practice, would then be able to more closely approximate ‘standard’ L2 English forms.

With regard to the format of the WENS learning materials themselves, the structure is as follows: The five hundred and forty basic interlanguage features recorded in Japan over the period 1997–2009 have been organized into thirty-six units, with each unit dealing with fifteen of the basic interlanguage features.

Within each unit, three of the fifteen interlanguage features have been highlighted, and these three features are addressed in detail – this coverage typically taking the form of an L1 Japanese meta-linguistic explanation of the language point at issue, several examples thereof, and opportunities for learners to engage with practice exercises involving production of the relevant language feature. The materials therefore cover a total of one hundred and eight interlanguage features in detail. Where practice exercises are included in a unit (approximately 40% of cases), full answer keys have been provided.
2.4.1 Some Examples of the Materials’ Content

As the total size of the materials precluded their being bound in a single volume, I had the materials bound in three separate volumes for convenience – numbered 1, 2 and 3 – each containing twelve units. Essentially, however, the materials’ three volumes should be seen as comprising a single text. Each of the text’s thirty-six units exhibits a uniform layout as follows: Fifteen of the five hundred and forty basic interlanguage features are itemized on the left hand side of the page. Thus, taking the example feature cited above, the attested utterance, ‘Tomorrow I will go (to) Kobe’ appears as item number 03 in unit 04, and is therefore given the materials reference number 0403.

Immediately opposite the attested interlanguage item, on the right hand side of the page, there is a grammatically correct, more ‘natural’ or more commonly produced and/or recognized formulation – a ‘reformulation’. I myself was responsible for producing these reformulations – presented as the formulations of an idealized ‘native speaker’. Thus, the reformulation in respect of materials reference 0403 - the reformulation of the attested interlanguage utterance ‘Tomorrow I will go (to) Kobe’ – appears as ‘I’m going to Kobe tomorrow’.

Within each unit, the page containing the attested interlanguage utterances and my reformulations thereof is immediately preceded by L1 Japanese translation equivalents of my reformulation of each of the fifteen attested interlanguage utterances with identical materials reference numbers, together with a blank space in which learners are encouraged to attempt initial translations of the L1 Japanese formulations (for diagnostic purposes).

Thus, the page in unit 04 immediately preceding the page containing the attested interlanguage utterance ‘tomorrow I will go (to) Kobe’ and my reformulation ‘I’m going to Kobe tomorrow’ as the third item contains the L1 Japanese translation equivalent ‘Ashita Kobe ni ikimasu’ (printed in L1 Japanese using a standard combination of ‘Kanji’ Chinese characters and Japanese Hiragana script).

These pages are followed in turn by two pages containing an L1 Japanese metalinguistic explanation of the language point (i.e. the contrasting positions typically occupied by adverbial time references in L1 Japanese and L2 English), appropriate
examples and production practice exercises. There then follows a page containing an answer key to these practice exercises. This particular language point is one of three highlighted for special focus within the unit, as is the case in each of the thirty-six units comprising the WENS materials.

Let us now consider another example, one which illustrates learner need, pedagogical function and (recurrent) methodology in respect of the materials. A considerable degree of uncertainty is associated with lexical choice in cases where essentially unitary L1 Japanese concepts and lexical items are regarded and expressed as pluralities in L2 English. An example of this phenomenon, appearing under the rubric ‘Instances of overuse’ in the ‘Prototypical Interlanguage Profile’, concerns the overuse/misuse of the L2 English verbs ‘know’ and ‘understand’ which occurs when learners, unaware of the internal complexities (i.e. the lexical range) of the L2, fall back on L1 and its known L2 equivalents.

The Japanese verbs ‘kizuku’ (‘notice’/‘realize’) and (especially) ‘wakaru’ (‘know’/‘understand’/‘tell’/‘recognize’/‘find out’, etc.) have numerous potential L2 translation equivalents, only a limited number of which (i.e. ‘know’ and ‘understand’) are widely apprehended among the learner population in the Japanese context. The three L1 Japanese sentences, ‘Sore wa totemo yoku niteita node watashi wa dochira ga dochira ka wakaranakatta’, ‘Watashi no shougakkou no sensei wa watashi no koto ga wakarimasen deshita’, and ‘Kinoo wakarimashita’ all use the same verb – ‘wakaru’.

The L2 English translation equivalents, however, call for three different verbs: ‘They looked very similar, so I couldn’t tell which was which’, ‘My old elementary school teacher didn’t recognize me’, and ‘I found out yesterday’, respectively. As is to be expected, Japanese learners at all but advanced levels of proficiency routinely produce evidence of a limited knowledge of L1–L2 lexical equivalence – hence the attested interlanguage utterances ‘I couldn’t understand which was which’, ‘My old elementary school teacher didn’t understand who I was’, and ‘I knew yesterday’ (materials references: 3014, 3013 and 1308 respectively).

The ‘Prototypical Interlanguage Profile’ refers readers to unit 3002 in the WENS materials, which addresses this feature of L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage in detail. The L1 Japanese meta-linguistic explanation of the language point in focus is
followed by a section the aim of which is to assist the learner in differentiating the plurality of L2 translation equivalents when set against visual cues and L1 stimuli. There then follows a practice exercise encouraging learners to produce the correctly differentiated L2 forms in the overt presence of the (unitary) L1 stimuli using the preceding section as a model and guide. As it was my pedagogical intention to encourage learners to make informed L2 lexical production choices in the overt presence of the L1 stimuli (Hammerly, 1991), bilingual ‘language awareness’ exercises throughout the WENS materials serve to ‘diffract’ essentially unitary L1 lexical forms, resulting in greater learner awareness of a plurality of L2 translation equivalents.

The WENS program materials are, therefore, a response to the Japanese EFL context. They are, however, in a sense also one of its products, in that they share – or at any rate overtly reflect - that context’s prevailing exonormative, teleological (i.e. idealized native speaker) orientation. I therefore sought to balance or compensate for this particular aspect of the materials via the dedicated inclusion of additional program elements with the potential to interrogate and challenge this exonormative orientation – an orientation with which, by their own admission, the participants themselves had approached their 2010 study-abroad program at the University of Warwick’s Centre for Applied Linguistics; a venue indeed not twenty miles from the birthplace of the most celebrated native speaker of them all.

2.5 Rationale in respect of Case Study Selection and Design

2.5.1 The Case Study Approach

Having thus developed a dedicated context-specific set of L2 teaching and learning materials which I felt addressed directly the issues concerning professional development program content set out in the earlier Prologue, the next step was to locate an appropriate forum in which to test, i.e. evaluate, the efficacy of my personal response to these context-specific issues. In terms of research design, I identified the case study approach as being particularly well-suited to this role, in which connection Yin (2009:19) observes: ‘…case studies have a distinctive place in evaluation research.’
At this point, I shall present Yin’s (2009:18) twofold technical definition of a ‘case study’ in order to highlight the linkages that should properly exist between the logic of design, data collection techniques, and specific approaches to the analysis of data:

1. A case study is an empirical inquiry that:

   - investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when
   - the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.

2. The case study inquiry:

   - copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points, and as one result
   - relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion, and as another result
   - benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis.

Yin (2009:19-20) identifies four key applications which characterize the case study approach with respect to evaluative research. These are the facility to:

1. Explain the presumed causal links in real-life interventions that are too complex for ... survey or experimental strategies.
2. Describe an intervention and the real-life context in which it occurred.
3. Illustrate certain topics within an evaluation, again in a descriptive mode.
4. Enlighten those situations in which the intervention being evaluated has no clear, single set of outcomes.

The definitions of ‘case’ offered by Dyson and Genishi (2005:119-120) and Walton (1992:121) are, respectively:

A case, be it a community, a classroom, or a program, is not a separate entity but a located one, existent in some particular geographic, political, and cultural space and time.
And:

*An 'instance' is just that and goes no further. A 'case' implies a family; it alleges that the particular is a case of something else. Implicit in the idea of the case is a claim.*

While necessarily partial views, the above definitions highlight in turn the situated (contextual) and axial (relational) nature of case study research (Richards, 2011).

The reviews by Van Lier (2005) and Duff (2008) highlight the numerous influential contributions made by case studies within the field of applied linguistics, and Richards (2003:21) offers this commendation of the genre:

*In a field as broad geographically, socially and intellectually as TESOL, where generalizations are likely to be blandly true, suffocatingly narrow or irresponsibly cavalier, the power of the particular case to resonate across cultures should not be underestimated.*

The various applications enumerated by Yin (2009:19-20) above highlight the capacity of the qualitative/mixed methods case study to effectively address research issues by moving beyond a purely descriptive mode, and we may thus employ the typological label ‘evaluative case study’ (Merriam, 1988; Bassey, 1999; Patton, 2002; Richards, 2011) in respect of the present inquiry.

### 2.5.2 Selection of the Case of Focus

Figure 4 overleaf sets out the principal criteria on which the Spring/Summer 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Trainee Teachers Group was selected as the case study of focus in respect of the present inquiry. As my concern with the substantive issues underlying the research questions pre-dated case selection, the selection criteria necessarily reflected the requirement that the case of focus should possess the potential and afford the opportunity to address these research issues systematically and comprehensively.

I saw Bryman’s (2008:56) notion of ‘exemplification’, whereby a case may be chosen because it ‘exemplifies a broader category of which it is a member’, as providing a key rationale in respect of the need to simultaneously focus my attention on several intersecting populations. Thus, program/study participants had to fulfill the following...
Figure 4. Principal Selection Criteria for the 2010 Hiroshima University Trainee Teachers Group as the Case Study of Focus
criteria: they had to be Japanese nationals whose first language was Japanese; they had to be learners of English as a foreign language within the Japanese EFL context; and they had to be pre-service L2 English instructors, i.e. initial teacher education (ITE) trainees.

Figure 4 presents an important additional criterion, namely the requirement for the (cross-linguistic) Language Awareness Program and the concomitant research inquiry to be logistically and practically viable. In this connection, the Centre for Applied Linguistics at the University of Warwick offers an annual fifteen-week spring/summer program for pre-service L2 English teacher trainees from the Department of English Language Education at Hiroshima University, Japan. The Program Director, Cheryl (all names are pseudonyms), aims to provide participants with a varied and balanced program of L2 English development, appreciation of literature, exposure to British culture, and the development of teaching skills. Program participants usually number around a dozen.

I had been aware of the existence of the Warwick/Hiroshima University Trainee Teachers Program for some time when I met Jasmine, one of the Directors of the Short Courses at Warwick’s Centre for Applied Linguistics informally in the summer of 2009. By the autumn of 2009 my thoughts had crystallized to a degree such that I felt able to put a formal quid pro quo proposal to the Short Course Directors, Jasmine and Luke: I would teach a free-standing module on the spring/summer 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Trainee Teachers Program under the rubric ‘Language Awareness’ in the belief that such a module would have the potential to add value to the overall program. At the same time, my in situ presence as a program instructor would afford me an ideal opportunity to generate valuable data in respect of my research agenda. Fortunately, my proposal was extremely favourably received.

The 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Trainee Teachers Group was slightly smaller than usual, numbering nine participants (six male and three female). Their names (altered to pseudonyms for the reporting of the research) are as follows: Yuriko (F), Shunta (M), Tomoya (M), Takashi (M), Shinsuke (M), Shoko (F), Yuya (M), Ayako (F) and Koji (M). All nine are Japanese nationals whose first language is Japanese. All nine participants are, in a sense, ‘products’ of the Japanese EFL context, in that their formative EFL learning experiences occurred wholly within this context,
and would thus have been mediated by many if not all of its characteristic features. All nine are second year (of four) undergraduate students in the Department of English Language Education at Hiroshima University, Japan, and all are intending to pursue future careers as L2 English instructors within the Japanese EFL context. The nine participants therefore fulfilled the selection criteria alluded to above.

Were the present inquiry a multiple-case study, with each participant constituting a separate case in its own right, I would of course have provided a fuller profile of each individual participant in order to inform any cross-case comparisons I might wish to make. However, as will be detailed presently, the single-case design meant that the participants’ evaluative response commentaries were to be analyzed and represented at the aggregate level of the group (intra-case). Furthermore, I thought it preferable that intra-group personality, cognitive or experiential contrasts should emerge naturally and directly from the responsive accounts of the participants themselves, rather than my running the risk of reading too much into or perhaps misreading any such intra-group background contrasts as significant.

I felt that the Hiroshima University Trainee Teachers (as a group), having fulfilled the relevant selection criteria, were ideally suited as participants in this particular program and the attendant research inquiry. The research study may therefore be said to possess a built-in element of ‘falsifiability’, in that were my cross-linguistic language awareness program deemed to have fallen significantly short of its intended outcomes, there would be little reason to expect more favourable results in respect of other, less obviously suitable, participant groups.

As this was an initial teacher education program, all nine participants were themselves L2 English learners in addition to being trainee L2 English instructors. I viewed this dual participant orientation of teacher/learner as a crucial aspect of the program, the reason being that the program participants had the opportunity to experience ‘language awareness’ insights first-hand, as learners (experiential learning). I anticipated that this experiential learning would increase the likelihood of the participants utilizing the notion of (cross-linguistic) ‘language awareness’ in their subsequent role as L2 instructors (see Svalberg, 2007 in this connection).

Because the Warwick/Hiroshima University Trainee Teachers as a group are (historically) focused on furthering their development as future L2 English
instructors, i.e. developing their L2 pedagogical/methodological skills, I identified an opportunity to unify two key program aspects, namely the focus on L2 English proficiency and the focus on L2 pedagogy/methodology – aspects which the literature suggests (e.g. Wright, 2002) are best integrated on such programs but which are all too often, it seems, addressed in isolation.

A final point with regard to the selection of an initial teacher education program as the case study focus for my research concerns the relative strategic significance accorded pre-service programs vis-à-vis their in-service counterparts. The reasons for this are largely self-evident, having to do with notions of ‘tabula rasa’ and the perceived inefficiencies of re-training or un-learning. For this reason it seemed to me that, if (cross-linguistic) language awareness programs or program components are to be introduced and implemented on any significant scale, the pre-service stage would appear to be the natural starting point for such an innovation.

The case study design, following the two by two matrix model presented in Yin (2009:46), therefore took the form of a single case with multiple units of analysis – the 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Trainee Teachers’ Language Awareness Program constituting the ‘case’ of focus, and the nine program participants constituting the nine individual ‘units of analysis’ (Figure 5 overleaf). I elected to use broken lines to demarcate the nine program participants in Figure 5 in order to convey my intention that this ‘case’ is concerned first and foremost with an evaluative analysis applying at the aggregate level of the group. In other words, while I have taken due note of intra-group variation, i.e. variation among program participants, it was the collective response to program content, ‘averaged out’ over the group so to speak, that I was primarily concerned to record. This concern applied not only in terms of the quantitative aspects of the program, wherein numerical mean pre- and post-test scores and evaluative program ratings were calculated, but also in terms of the qualitative aspects of the program, wherein I used a variety of thematic analyses to highlight recurring ‘commonalities’ in the data.

I kept Stake’s (2005) notion of ‘instrumentality’ – indicating that a given case has been selected (at least partially) on the basis of its broader relevance – at the forefront of my thinking when carrying out the evaluation of the 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Language Awareness program study. In addition to the potential of this
Figure 5. Case Study Design: Single Case, Multiple Units of Analysis

Context:
The Spring/Summer 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Trainee Teachers Program

Case:
The Spring/Summer 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Language Awareness Program

Units of Analysis:
The Spring/Summer 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Language Awareness Program Participants
particular case as an arena in which to test hypotheses and evaluate propositions of the type highlighted earlier in respect of the central research question, I saw this case as having broader relevance on two distinct levels, which I term (program) ‘content’ and (program) ‘approach’.

The ‘content’ level is concerned with the context-specific nature of the program content, which suggests relevance for L1 Japanese/L2 English learners, teachers and trainee teachers. The ‘approach’ level is concerned with the presence of a cross-linguistic dimension in respect of L2 instructor professional development, which suggests relevance for both ITE and INSET programs for teachers of monolingual L1 learner groups and recalls Yin’s (2009) notion of ‘analytic generalization’. In other words, the program concept is to be generalized and the program content particularized for any given L1/L2 context.

2.6 Practitioner Research

Given my dual role of program instructor/researcher, the inquiry is to be categorized as ‘practitioner research’ – undertaken and represented from an insider, emic perspective. The sponsors and administrators of the 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Language Awareness Program were not the primary audience for its evaluation. This fact, together with the one-off nature of the 2010 Language Awareness program, qualified my interest in the program and its representation as ‘professional’ rather than ‘proprietary’. Having said this, Taber (2007:16) reminds us that a degree of subjectivity is inherent in the conducting and reporting of practitioner research:

_Inevitably, any argument presented in an educational research study will in part depend upon data, and in part upon the interpretation of that data – an interpretation that draws upon the author’s own theoretical perspectives._

This inherent subjectivity calls for transparency and for the inclusion of methodological safeguards to counteract possible interpretive predispositions on the part of the practitioner-researcher. In the context of the present inquiry, such safeguards include, for example, the triangulation of data from multiple sources and attempts to put myself at one remove from the generation of data via the use of ‘neutral’ L1 Japanese interviewers and L1-L2 translators with no proprietary interest.
in the Warwick/Hiroshima University program or vested interest in the research outcomes. In the conduct of the present inquiry and its subsequent reporting, I have made every attempt to manage this inherent subjectivity (Holliday, 2007) with the requisite degree of reflexivity (Alvesson and Sköldberg, 2009).

As a direct consequence of this perceived need for reflexivity on my part and my desire to avoid accusations of subjective bias in the reporting of a practitioner research study I have sought to, as it were, de-personalize the inquiry’s main findings – by which I mean that I have carefully avoided explicit reference to the 2010 language awareness program content as being a manifestation of my own TLA. For this reason, I felt that the thesis’ treatment of the module in terms of my own TLA and any impact this may have had on participant learning outcomes should remain relatively implicit. Allied to this concern is the point made by Andrews (2007) regarding the inherent difficulty of unambiguously identifying causative associations between TLA and learning outcomes.

Because the line notionally demarcating analysis from interpretation is, at best, unclear, I have consistently sought to use the participants’ evaluative commentary as my point of departure and have, wherever possible and as far as space allows, included verbatim contributions from the participants in my reporting of the inquiry’s findings. I see this centre-stage inclusion of participant commentary as an important methodological safeguard or discipline in respect of representational validity. In this way, potential advantages in respect of my insider perspective and proximity to the program participants and potential disadvantages in respect of my subjective interest in the design and delivery of the language awareness module as a practitioner are to be brought into balance via the reflexivity demanded by my role as a researcher with responsibilities to an evaluative audience on the one hand, and to the study’s participants on the other.

2.7 2010 ITE Cross-Linguistic Language Awareness Program Design and Evaluation

2.7.1 Program Design

The annual fifteen-week Spring/Summer Hiroshima University Trainee Teachers Course at the University of Warwick’s Centre for Applied Linguistics is typically
organized into three ‘study phases’, each of five weeks’ duration. While not self-contained as such, the division of the course into distinct phases has traditionally allowed course providers/tutors the space to take stock of the developing program, plan ahead and incorporate such adjustments to the direction and content of the program as might be suggested by this facility for formative evaluation. I therefore decided to divide the WENS teaching and learning materials into three separate volumes so as to achieve a degree of perceived congruence with the overall course structure and to assist me in respect of the pacing of program content.

The broad aims of the program, as set out above, centre on L2 English language development, an appreciation of literature, an exposure to British culture and the development of participants’ teaching skills. In terms of content, the program typically evolves from year to year in light of feedback from course providers and Hiroshima University participants. The 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Trainee Teachers Program was the first to feature a dedicated (cross-linguistic) ‘language awareness’ component.

A note on wording: as this ‘language awareness’ program module was the sole focus of the research inquiry, I shall refer to this module as ‘the program’, this being synonymous with the ‘language awareness program module’. References to the wider 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Trainee Teachers Program will by contrast be made explicit in order to differentiate the two.

The program, with its focus on the cross-linguistic dimension of language awareness, was designed as an informed response to the Japanese EFL context. The program was informed pedagogically by the data and experience from which the WENS teaching and learning materials and the Prototypical L1 Japanese/L2 English Interlanguage Profile were derived. It is in this sense that the physical research setting was ‘reflective’ of a wider context (Holliday, 2007:80): The program was explicitly reflective of the Japanese EFL context.

The research setting thus became a physical and metaphorical point of rendezvous - the nexus of numerous data, issues, participants, influences and agendas. The nine 2010 program participants from Hiroshima University arrived at the research setting both physically and cognitively via the mediating influence of the Japanese (EFL)
context as, in a sense, products of this context, and their return to Japan following the fifteen-week program signalled the due re-contextualization of program content.

Figure 6 overleaf provides an abridged chronological overview of the program over the fifteen-week period. Figure 6 shows the three distinct ‘study phases’, together with the percentage of total ‘language awareness’ program contact time accounted for by each of the three phases. The principal elements of the program have been set out in abbreviated form in Figure 6 by program week. The percentage figures reveal an uneven distribution of class contact time over the three five-week phases of the ‘language awareness’ program module, with contact time in phase three significantly exceeding that in phase one, which in turn exceeded that in phase two.

2.7.2 Program Evaluation

Having set out the essential design features of the language awareness program module, I shall now move on to considerations in respect of the evaluation of the module. The essential point to stress in this regard is that because the annual Warwick/Hiroshima University program evolves from year to year and Hiroshima University participants are only eligible to attend one program, there will be no attempt at a precise quantification of program ‘value’ due to the absence of ‘like-with-like’ participant experiences. In any case, ethical considerations would likely preclude the kind of controlled comparison that would be required to arrive at an accurate, quantifiable measure of module value. Rather, the evaluation will address the essential ‘worthwhileness’ or otherwise of the module, given that the inclusion of a cross-linguistic language awareness component or module, or indeed any given component or module, within an L2 ITE/INSET program carries an opportunity cost in terms of an alternative component or module foregone.

In view of its utility as a flexible heuristic, I decided to use Lynch’s (1996) ‘Context-Adaptive Model’ for language program evaluation as my starting point in respect of the evaluative analysis of the 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Language Awareness Program. As Figure 7 overleaf illustrates, stage one of the model process required the identification of the audience(s) for and the goal(s) of the evaluation - these then going on to inform the analytic design as well as the mode(s) and content of the evaluation’s subsequent representation.
Figure 6. 2010 Language Awareness Program – A Chronological Overview: % = % of Total LA Program Class Time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase 1 (29%)</th>
<th>Phase 2 (23%)</th>
<th>Phase 3 (48%)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Week 01</td>
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<td>RE</td>
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<tr>
<td>EC</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

V1 = Program Materials – Volume 1, etc.
IC = Participant Informed Consent Paperwork
IT = Initial (Diagnostic) Testing
FG = Focus Group Interview Session
M1 = First Micro Teaching Practice Session
M2 = Second Micro Teaching Practice Session
FT = Follow-Up (Achievement) Testing
EF = Evaluative Feedback on LA Program
PP = Pronunciation Practice (Modified Katakana)
LP = Participant Language Point Presentations
EI = Individual Participant Exit Interviews
LF = Focus on English as a Lingua Franca
LM = Language Awareness Monitoring Project
WS = Participant ‘Views on Issues’ Worksheets
MF = Teaching/Learning Materials Feedback
RE = Micro Teaching - Reflective Evaluation
CL = Cross-Linguistic LA Focus (metalinguistic)
EC = Regular Error Correction Reviews Initiated
Figure 7. Context-Adaptive Model for Language Program Evaluation

Step 1: Audience and Goals

Step 2: Context Inventory

Step 3: Preliminary Thematic Framework

Step 4: Data Collection Design / System

Step 5: Data Collection

Step 6: Data Analysis

Step 7: Evaluation Report

(Lynch, 1996:4)
In so far as these groups may be said to be distinct, I identified the principal audiences for the evaluation as being:

- L2 and teacher development program instructors
- L2 and teacher development program curriculum developers
- L2 and teacher development program sponsors and administrators
- The wider applied linguistics research community

I have represented the necessary mediation of the program evaluation in respect of these wider audiences in Figure 8 overleaf - a process which operated in parallel with the context-adaptive process model set out in Figure 7.

The evaluative goals in respect of the program were consistent with and strongly reflective of the central research question, this being:

- To what degree might an explicitly cross-linguistic approach to language awareness enhance the perceived value of an L2 ITE program?

This in terms of:

- Participants’ L2 language development
- Participants’ development as pre-service TESOL professionals
- Participants’ cognitive/affective responses to key elements and aspects of the program

While the evaluative goals in respect of the program were indeed reflective of the research (sub-) question, I should like to emphasize that, although this (cross-linguistic) language awareness program is essentially innovatory in its design, no extraneous activities were introduced into the program purely on account of there being a research agenda – in other words, in terms of its composition, the program was designed and delivered with pedagogical, as opposed to research goals as the primary consideration. This, I believe, has served to reinforce the validity and integrity of the evaluative dimension of the program as research.

Although I myself was responsible for the design and delivery of the 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Language Awareness Program, and developed the program materials and taught the entire program module, I did not include myself - as
Figure 8. Language Program Evaluation at Three Levels

- Participant Program Evaluation

- Researcher Evaluation of Level 1

- Audience Evaluation of Level 2
‘program instructor’ – as the subject of any of the evaluative elicitations. This was because I wanted the program, i.e. content, to be the sole focus of the participants’ evaluations, in other words, I thought it was essential that the participants evaluated the ‘song’ and not the ‘singer’.

As Figure 8 makes clear, my own evaluation of the program (level 2) was, of necessity, largely conditioned by and dependent upon the evaluative perceptions of the program participants (level 1). I therefore incorporated due provision for the recording of participants’ perceptions (i.e. evaluative feedback) as a key design element within the program. The central research question (above) anticipated, as well as reflected the program participants’ dual orientation as L2 learners and (trainee) L2 instructors. The data generation process – i.e. the elicitation and recording of participants’ evaluative perceptions of various aspects of the program – was therefore designed to explicitly address this dual orientation, and is detailed, along with its underlying rationale, in section 2.8 below.

The central research question explicitly specifies three areas of evaluative focus. With regard to the first of these – participants’ L2 development – it was apparent that the naturalistic setting in which the program was delivered had the potential to introduce a multitude of confounding variables in respect of the interventions and evaluation thereof. This, together with the fact that the non-random assignment of and interaction between members of the Warwick group (under my tutelage) and its sister Edinburgh group precluded any notion of (quasi-) experimental design, internal validity, and control group comparison, persuaded me that there were no effective means by which to de-couple the evaluative aspects of the research inquiry from the subjective perceptions of the nine program participants. Given this premise, the administering of standardized pre- and post-tests in order to objectively evaluate the efficacy of program content (i.e. under ‘controlled’ conditions) was similarly precluded as methodologically problematic.

My solution involved the integration of an initial diagnostic test and a later follow-up test with program content, so as to promote explicit consideration of this content, its context-specific implications and associated learning and developmental outcomes on the part of the program participants. In this way, the efficacy of the program with regard to participants’ L2 development was operationalized qualitatively as the extent
to which the participants themselves attributed their (perceived) L2 English proficiency development directly to the program content. As (pre-/post-) testing arrangements were oriented towards achievement, ‘L2 proficiency development’ was therefore operationalized in terms of participants’ engagement with program content – a procedure I felt to be consistent with the centrality of program evaluation to the research inquiry. Full details in respect of the design and administering of both the initial and follow-up tests are set out in the section on data generation which follows.

Being derivatives of the central research question, the generation and analysis of data was guided by my prior identification of the following four aspects for evaluative focus:

- Program participants’ L2 English development as an attributed result of the program’s L1/L2 awareness-raising focus.
- The efficacy of the context-specific contrastive teaching and learning materials used in the program.
- Program participants’ pedagogical awareness of a range of (Japanese EFL) context-specific issues.
- The efficacy of the cross-linguistic focus of the ‘language awareness’ program.

2.8 Methodology and Rationale in respect of Data Generation

The various research instruments used to generate the data for the study are summarized in Table 1 overleaf, and will be elaborated in detail in sections 2.8.1 - 2.8.6 to follow.

2.8.1 An Attempt to Quantify Participants’ Learning Achievements

A key element in the inquiry’s evaluative focus was the extent of participants’ L2 English development as an attributed result of the program’s L1/L2 awareness-raising focus. Because of methodological concerns centring on the futility of attempting to establish meaningful controls within the naturalistic setting of the program, I felt it was essential that the facilities for initial and follow-up achievement testing be augmented by extensive reference to the perceptions of the participants in this regard – hence the important qualification, ‘attributed’. The methodology in respect of this
### Table 1. Tabular Summary of Data Generation Methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Generation Tool</th>
<th>Primary Purpose</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initial Cross-Linguistic LA Test</td>
<td>Diagnostic Base-Level Measurement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follow-Up Cross-Linguistic LA Test</td>
<td>Program Achievement Measurement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Researcher’s Journal</td>
<td>Recording of LA Module Delivery and Developing Researcher Cognitions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant Learning Journals</td>
<td>Recording of Participants’ LA Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant Cognition Elicitation Worksheets</td>
<td>Advance Organizing of Participant Cognitions Prior to Focus Group Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Video-Recorded Focus Group Interview</td>
<td>Discussion of Participant Perspectives on Aspects of the Japanese EFL Context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WENS Materials Feedback Schedule</td>
<td>Recording of Participants’ Evaluation of LA Program Materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written Evaluative Feedback Assignment</td>
<td>Recording of Participants’ Evaluation of LA Program and Its Relevance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Generation Tool</td>
<td>Primary Purpose</td>
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<tr>
<td>LA Class Audio Recordings</td>
<td>To Allow Detailed Retrospective Access to LA Class Content/Interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audio-Recorded Exit Interviews</td>
<td>To Record Participants’ Evaluative Feedback Commentary on LA Module</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal E-mail Communications</td>
<td>To Elicit Stakeholder Perspectives on LA Module and Maintain Researcher/Participant Contact Post Module</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interlanguage Development Worksheets</td>
<td>Recording of Participants’ Awareness of their Interlanguage Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus Group Interview – Participant Response Schedule</td>
<td>To Elicit Participants’ Cognitive and Affective Responses to the Focus Group Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson Plans / Reflective Lesson Evaluations</td>
<td>To Record Participants’ Planning of and Reflections on the LA Micro-Teaching Sessions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director’s 2010 Program Overview Report</td>
<td>To Place the Evaluation of the LA Module within the Context of the Overall 2010 Program Evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010 Program Feedback Questionnaire</td>
<td>To Record Participants’ Rating of the LA Module Relative to the Other Program Modules</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
aspect of the evaluation was therefore a combination of basic quantitative, and more nuanced qualitative analysis. With regard to the former - the administering of pre- and post-tests - the procedure was as follows:

The initial diagnostic test, which was administered on April 28th, 2010 (week one, day three of the program), was oriented to the notion of trainee L2 teachers as L2 learners, and, as such, constituted a basis for ongoing experiential learning as the program unfolded. The test essentially involved the elicitation of L1 Japanese to L2 English translation equivalents using photocopied pages from the WENS materials, i.e. the – as yet unseen - program content. The L1 Japanese test cues for the elicited L2 English translation equivalents on each photocopied page were, in fact, the L1 Japanese translation equivalents of my reformulation of the fifteen attested interlanguage utterances which featured on the opening page of each of the WENS materials’ thirty-six units.

The need to balance such factors as available time and anticipated test-taker fatigue with adequate and representative coverage of the program content material resulted in my decision to select twelve worksheets, i.e. photocopied pages (unit numbers: 05, 07, 11, 12, 14, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 22 and 30), from the thirty-six WENS units, that is, one third of the worksheets potentially available, and to allow a total of ninety minutes for the completion of the test. These parameters gave the participants an average of seven and a half minutes to complete each of the twelve worksheets – this averaging out to thirty seconds for each of the fifteen elicited translation entries on each of the twelve standardized worksheets.

The participants completed the exercise individually under test conditions and without the aid of dictionaries. I felt that the marking scheme adopted in respect of both the initial diagnostic test and the follow-up achievement test had to be sufficiently finely calibrated so as to permit a finely-grained analysis of the test answer formulations (i.e. L2 English translation equivalents) produced by the participants. For this reason, I decided to allocate a potential maximum of ten credits for each of the one hundred and eighty test entries - fifteen entries times twelve worksheets, reflecting a composite of multiple evaluation criteria – facets such as grammatical accuracy, semantic equivalence and transparency, socio-pragmatic appropriateness, correct spelling and punctuation, syntactical awareness, the use of suitable registers and the appropriate
degree of formality. Acceptable alternative L2 English translations of L1 test cues offered by the test-takers – alternative to the L2 reformulations that I myself had produced and included in the WENS materials, that is – were of course equally eligible for potential maximum credits.

The potential maximum total test score for each participant was therefore one thousand eight hundred credits – a figure which I felt provided the requisite degree of calibration; enabled the establishment of a realistic initial test baseline score for each participant; allowed for a degree of intra-group differentiation, and facilitated the subsequent quantification of initial to follow-up test differentials.

The follow-up test was held in the afternoon session on July 28th (week fourteen, day three of the program). The format adopted for the follow-up test was exactly the same as that used for the initial diagnostic test three months previously on April 28th, with identical test items (this fact was not revealed to the participants in advance of the follow-up test) and identical test conditions and requirements. The one notable difference concerned the scheduling: whereas the initial test had taken place in the morning, when the test takers might be expected to be relatively alert, the follow-up test was held in the afternoon, immediately after lunch, when the test takers might be expected to be relatively less alert. In addition, the scheduling resulted in a clash between any revision that the participants might have been intending in respect of the follow-up test and their preparation for the second micro-teaching practice session, and thereby precluded an exclusive focus on test preparation. The participants were, if anything, disadvantaged by the scheduling of the follow-up test relative to that of the initial test.

The criteria adopted for the grading of the follow-up test were identical to those used in the grading of the initial test. I graded the follow-up test ‘blind’ to avoid any undue influence which might exert itself as a consequence of my being aware of whose test paper I was grading. The procedure was as follows: I printed out the numbers one to nine on adhesive label tape, and had the nine participants each select a number while I was out of the room. The participants committed their code numbers to memory and/or secretly recorded them and attached their numbered adhesive labels against a name sheet which I had prepared for the purpose. The participants - I nominated Yuya - then sealed the name list containing the test codes in a prepared envelope, which I
kept unopened until I had completed all the grading. The participants used their code numbers in lieu of their names on their follow-up test papers. The assigning of code numbers took place a week or so before the test to ensure that I did not overlook this step on the actual day of the test. I made a point of checking that all the participants remembered their code numbers on the Monday of week fourteen, two days prior to the test, and again on the day, immediately prior to the test.

2.8.2 Exploring Participants’ Perspectives on the Japanese EFL Context

The limited sample size (nine) precluded any notions of the program participants’ views in respect of a range of key context-specific issues at the L1 Japanese/L2 English interface functioning as a ‘survey’ in any meaningful, representative sense of the word. Rather, this aspect of the inquiry served a different function, and the actual documenting of the participants’ views in this regard was, in a sense, a secondary by-product of its primary function, which was very much part and parcel of the program’s agenda and internal dynamic. In other words, exactly what the participants thought with regard to these context-specific issues was very much of secondary importance. Of far greater concern was that the participants be aware of these issues and of the desirability – indeed the necessity - of engaging with them as part of their ongoing professional development. For this reason, I took the view that the generation of feedback data from the participants regarding this awareness-raising and the provision of opportunities to begin to engage with these issues was where the real value lay in respect of the program and its subsequent evaluation.

The second of the central research question’s three evaluative aspects, as set out above, concerns the perceived value of the program in terms of the participants’ development as pre-experience TESOL professionals within the Japanese EFL context, and the third of the four program aspects for evaluative focus identified above centres on participants’ pedagogical awareness of a range of (Japanese EFL) context-specific issues. The elicitation of the participants’ views in this connection therefore served an important initial awareness-raising function, laying a foundation for ongoing pedagogical consideration well beyond the limited duration of the program itself. I shall now detail the procedures used for the generation of data in this regard.
In line with the program objective above, and in view of its potential to offer both convergent and divergent perspectives on a range of fairly tightly-defined issues against a background of homogeneity and shared experience (Bryman, 2008), I identified ‘the qualitative focus group interview’ as a particularly suitable forum for data generation.

Bryman (2008:474–475) highlights a number of the key defining features of this particular interview genre as follows:

The focus group method is a form of group interview in which: there are several participants (in addition to the moderator/facilitator); there is an emphasis in the questioning on a particular fairly tightly defined topic; and the accent is upon interaction within the group and the joint construction of meaning. As such, the focus group contains elements of two methods: the group interview, in which several people discuss a number of topics; and what has been called a focused interview, in which interviewees are selected because they ‘are known to have been involved in a particular situation’ (Merton et al, 1956:3) and are asked about that involvement. The focused interview may be administered to individuals or to groups. Thus, the focus group method appends to the focused interview the element of interaction within groups as an area of interest and is more focused than the group interview...the focus group has become a popular method for researchers examining the ways in which people in conjunction with one another construe the general topics in which the researcher is interested...In focus groups participants are able to bring to the fore issues in relation to a topic that they deem to be important and significant...This is clearly an important consideration in the context of qualitative research, since the viewpoints of the people being studied are an important point of departure.

In a similar vein, Krueger and Casey (2000:83) delimit the purpose and function of focus groups - in a manner consonant with the earlier discussion of case studies - thus:

...the intent of focus groups is not to infer but to understand, not to generalize but to determine the range, and not to make statements about the population but to provide insights about how people in the group perceive a situation.
The potential of a focus group as a consciousness-raising forum, functioning as a prelude to participant-initiated engagement with praxis (Kamberelis and Dimitriadis, 2005; Gillham, 2005) pointed to the benefits of its principled inclusion towards the earlier stages of the research inquiry.

The focus group interview was accordingly scheduled for May 13th, 2010 - week three, day four of the program. The relatively early engagement with key issues meant that the focus group forum acted as an early point of thematic reference, both for the program participants, and for me as a) program instructor and b) researcher. Why week three, day four rather than week one, day one? Given such factors as the pre-experience status of the participants, I anticipated a relatively low level of considered prior engagement with the issues of focus among the participants. It therefore seemed appropriate to strike a balance between allowing sufficient time for ‘priming’ such that the participants would not be coming to the focus group session ‘cold’, and the desirability of early engagement with key issues alluded to above.

I identified a dozen or so sub-areas of focus; twelve being the number of initial questions of focus which Krueger and Casey (2000) cite as a typical and appropriate number for a two-hour focus group session. Having identified what I felt were the key sub-areas of focus, which I termed the ‘inventory of issues’, I formulated the following series of elicitation cue questions for the focus group session:

Focus Group Interview Guide – Inventory of Issues:

- Is it important for Japanese people to learn English? Why (not)?
- In which aspect(s) of English proficiency do Japanese learners most need to improve? Why?
- Should Japanese learners follow target models such as US English, or is ‘Japanese English’ an acceptable variety? (Why/Why not?)
- Do you think (L1) Japanese influences your L2 English? If so, how? Do you think (L1) Japanese is a help or a hindrance in learning English? Why?
- What does the term ‘Katakana English’ mean to you? Do you think words of foreign origin should be written in Katakana or in English? Why?
- What do you think of the current university entrance exam system in terms of its impact on the teaching and learning of EFL?
• What is your opinion of the role, significance and value of L2 English proficiency tests such as the TOEIC, which are so prevalent in Japan?
• Do you think it is better for Japanese learners of English to have native English-speaking teachers or teachers whose L1 is Japanese? Why?
• What are the key attributes that an L1 Japanese English teacher should possess in order to be a proficient English teacher?
• Do you think the medium of instruction (in the Japanese EFL context) should be L1 Japanese or L2 English? Why?
• How can L1 Japanese learners become more fluent L2 English speakers?
• How do you feel about the ubiquitous and somewhat idiosyncratic ‘public English’ on view in Japan? Why?

I operationalized the ‘priming’ of a consideration of the inventory of issues among the program participants via the production of an equivalent number of elicitation worksheets – printed handouts given to participants to complete in advance of the focus group interview forum, each of which functioned as a visual and conceptual stimulus in respect of a particular sub-area of focus.

I was aware that, in priming the program/focus group participants for consideration of the various sub-areas of focus, I needed to stop short of leading the group towards (single) pre-determined positions on the topics in question. I therefore decided to conceptualize the elicitation worksheets as the juxtaposition of contrasting viewpoints - parameters delimiting a range of possible positions on the various issues in relation to which respondents were to position themselves and provide an accompanying rationale.

In addition to providing an opportunity for participants to process relevant input and rehearse personal perspectives on the inventory of issues – thus potentially prefiguring focus group responses/contributions - the advance worksheets served to pre-inform me of the (potential) nature and range of participant perspectives and hinted at potentially profitable lines of inquiry. Notwithstanding their (primary) priming function in respect of the focus group interview session, the elicitation worksheets constituted a potentially valuable data set in their own right. I had the participants engage with the first of the elicitation worksheets on April 27th 2010 – week one, day two of the program, and all were completed by May 13th, the day of the
focus group session. I collected all of the elicitation worksheets upon completion for review and analysis.

Key focus group parameters highlighted by the relevant literature relate to duration - two hours being a widely-accepted standard, and to size - generally a minimum of six and a maximum of twelve participants (Krueger and Casey, 2000). The focus group interview in respect of the 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima program, comprising nine participants, therefore fell comfortably within these size parameters, and the standard duration of two hours was accordingly scheduled on the program timetable.

I had originally intended to conduct the focus group interview in L2 English, and to moderate the session myself. However, interaction with the participant group in the two weeks or so prior to the focus group session had revealed L2 English proficiency levels which I felt were uniformly below those required for the unconstrained processing and articulation of participants’ views.

One could, nevertheless, have made the case for an attempt in L2 - for example, on the grounds that it would have provided an opportunity for the development of participants’ L2 discussion skills. However, I felt that the facility of unconstrained processing and articulation afforded by the use of participants’ L1, together with the added gravitas of a more formal L1 discussion of professionally and contextually relevant issues – would enable the participants to more firmly establish the conceptual foundations for their subsequent professional engagement with the issues and would ultimately translate into richer, better quality data with a higher degree of external validity. In other words, this was most definitely not ‘focus group discussion as L2 classroom activity’.

On May 6th the decision was taken, in consultation with my colleagues at Warwick’s Centre for Applied Linguistics, to switch the focus group interview medium from L2 English to L1 Japanese. The two moderators, my L1 Japanese colleagues Masaki and Chiharu, were free to exercise discretion over sequencing, coverage, pacing, and lines of follow-up inquiry within the conceptual and programmatic framework provided by the inventory of issues. The interview was, therefore, ‘semi-structured’ . The two-hour focus group session, which I observed as a non-participant, was video and audio-recorded. Program participants’ cognitive and affective reactions to the focus group
session and its perceived value were later elicited, and these were duly recorded in written form.

2.8.3 Meta-Data

All of the regular classroom sessions over the fifteen-week program were audio-recorded, totalling in excess of fifty hours’ worth of data which was potentially available for subsequent transcription and analysis. Because ‘personal agency is an important part of qualitative inquiries and the ‘meta-data’ generated by the researcher offer valuable insights into the project’ (Dornyei, 2007:160), I decided to maintain a research journal for the entire duration of the fifteen-week program. The main functions of the research journal were to generate a chronological overview of program events as they unfolded; record descriptive sequences and participant reactions; record decision-making processes; detail a variety of specific instantiations; and establish points of contact in respect of the research (sub-) question.

The maintenance of the research journal in terms of the recollection of detail was facilitated by the maintenance of a separate journal, which served as a more immediate (i.e. following each program session), less formal vehicle for field notes, analytic memos and the like and from which the main research journal entries were formulated and updated on a regular basis, usually at the end of each program week. In addition to its valuable role as a retrospective data reference, the maintenance of a research journal assisted me in the ongoing process of program planning and development.

In order to facilitate the ongoing recording of language awareness program study content and any concomitant realizations, observations and reactions this might give rise to I gave each of the participants an A5-sized program study journal to accompany their personal copy of the WENS learning materials. It was envisaged that these participant journals would result in ongoing personalized records of each participant’s engagement with the language awareness program content. The journals were photocopied at the conclusion of the program and these copies were retained by me as a data set. The journals were then returned to the participants on a permanent basis.
2.8.4 Participants’ Reflections on LA Micro-Teaching Practice

The literature reviewed in the opening chapter highlighted the desirability of integrating the (L2) language and (L2) methodological/pedagogical components of (especially pre-experience) L2 teacher education programs. For this reason, numerous opportunities for participants to engage in micro-teaching sessions were built into the language awareness program. Participants’ evaluative reflections on their performance in these micro-teaching sessions constituted a key element within the ITE program and provided an additional data set in respect of the research inquiry.

I made use of a four-point checklist for reflective lesson evaluation in order to elicit participants’ reactions to their performance in the micro-teaching sessions. The four questions to which participants were invited to respond were as follows:

- Was the target of the lesson achieved?
- Were the learners happy, working and interested?
- Was I adequately prepared for the lesson?
- If I were to teach the lesson again, what would I do differently?

I felt that this four-point checklist struck the right balance between breadth of coverage and user-friendliness/simplicity. The fact that I had first encountered this checklist on my own pre-service teacher training course and found it to be extremely useful for reflective lesson evaluation from day one of my own TESOL practice indicated to me that it was pitched at the right level for an initial teacher education program.

2.8.5 Elicitation of Participants’ Evaluative Feedback on Key Program Aspects

I shall now detail the procedures by which the more substantive evaluative data were generated – these data essentially taking the form of evaluative feedback elicited directly from the program participants. The second of the four program aspects for particular evaluative focus identified above concerns the perceived efficacy of the dedicated context-specific, contrastive L1/L2 teaching and learning materials which formed the textual basis of the program and which accounted for the lion’s share of program content. Accordingly, I developed the following nine-point schedule via
which to elicit written evaluative feedback from the program participants with regard to the perceived efficacy of the WENS materials:

- How much do you think you have learned from these materials?
- How do you feel about the materials’ L1/L2 focus, which draws attention to differing English and Japanese word and sentence patterns, meanings, pronunciation, intonation and use?
- Did you find examples of your own ‘mistakes’ in the textbook?
- In your view, how typical are the ‘common errors’ covered in the textbook of the English of most Japanese learners?
- Do you think that the textbook is relevant and helpful to you in terms of your own English language learning needs?
- Do you think that the textbook is relevant and helpful to you in terms of your future needs as an English teacher in Japan?
- Have these materials been useful for you in terms of giving you ideas about what to teach your students, and how you might be able to teach effectively in the Japanese EFL context?
- How do you think other Japanese learners of English and other Japanese teachers and trainee teachers of English would feel about these materials?
- Have you seen any other similar textbooks to this in Japan?

I distributed the schedule to the participants towards the end of phase three of the program and collected the completed schedules during week fifteen, the final week of the program. By way of triangulation, these data were supplemented by and cross-referenced with additional references to the program materials across other modes of feedback elicitation for consistency.

All four of the program aspects for particular evaluative focus were explicitly addressed in a reflective written evaluative program feedback task undertaken by the program participants on the afternoon of Friday, July 30th, 2010 (week fourteen, day five). The timing of this session was significant, as it gave me the option of making the results of the follow-up test available prior to the participants undertaking the written evaluative feedback assignment. It was decided that the written evaluative feedback assignment should be structured as a relatively formal in-class activity, undertaken on an individual basis – this to minimize the possibility of ‘groupthink’
responses - under supervision. I was not present during this task, which was supervised by Cheryl, the Course Director. This was by design, lest my presence should exert any perceived influence in respect of participants’ responses. Dictionaries and other learning aids were allowed, and participants were free to consult Cheryl on any points related to the production of the written assignment. The session lasted approximately two hours, and participants were invited to produce around 750 words.

With regard to assignment format, I had to consider whether to opt for an open, freer task yielding an extended piece of writing, the focus of which would to a considerable extent have been autonomously determined by the participants, or to opt for a more structured format providing greater direction. The latter option would ensure that key program aspects would be addressed by the participants and that these same program aspects would be addressed by all participants, thereby facilitating comparative analysis of the evaluative responses.

Both approaches appeared to have merit in terms of the nature of the data they might potentially generate. In the event, I opted for a semi-structured approach, the instructional guidance rubric indicating the aspects of the program on which participants’ evaluative comment was required. Listed below are the questions requiring evaluative comment:

- Has the Language Awareness Program been relevant and helpful to you in terms of meeting your needs as a Japanese learner of English?
- Has the Language Awareness Program been relevant and helpful to you in terms of meeting your needs as a trainee teacher in the Japanese EFL context?
- What do you think of the ‘Wasei Eigo ni Sayonara’ (WENS) textbook? Is it relevant and helpful in terms of your learning and professional teaching needs?
- Do you think that this kind of Language Awareness Program would be relevant and helpful for other Japanese learners of English and other teachers or trainee teachers in the Japanese EFL context?
- Has the Language Awareness Program contributed to your knowledge and thinking about learning and teaching in the Japanese EFL context?
It was made clear to the participants in advance of the task that their feedback would not be evaluated in terms of either linguistic accuracy or preferred responses, but rather would constitute a valuable contribution to the research project in which they were participating.

The participants’ written evaluative feedback on the language awareness program had an oral counterpart in the form of audio-taped one-to-one ‘exit’ interviews. These exit interviews were held in the final week of the program - week fifteen - and were conducted in L1 Japanese for essentially the same reasons that L1 was earlier judged the superior interactional medium in respect of the focus group; that is, its potential to provide a richer data set on account of the clear disparity between participants’ L1 and L2 proficiency levels, with particular regard to semantic clarity in online oral production.

Scheduling constraints meant that the nine exit interviews were conducted on two separate days; five – Tomoya, Shunta, Shoko, Ayako and Yuya – on the afternoon of Monday, August 2nd, and the remaining four – Koji, Yuriko, Shinsuke and Takashi – on the afternoon of Wednesday, August 4th. The exit interviews each lasted between thirty and forty-five minutes. The interviewer worked from a basic ten-point interview guide sheet, the questions on which (reproduced in full below) were derived from and strongly reflective of the inquiry’s evaluative research agenda (Richards, 2003):

- How was the Language Awareness program for you? Because…?
- Do you think your English has improved as a result of the Language Awareness program? If so, in what respect(s)?
- On a scale of 1 to 10, 10 being the highest, how useful have you found the Language Awareness classes? Because…?
- What do you understand by the two terms, ‘Teacher Language Awareness’ and ‘Cross-linguistic Teacher Language Awareness’?
- Are you planning to apply or incorporate this (cross-linguistic) language awareness knowledge and approach in your future teaching within the Japanese EFL context?
- Please describe a typical class from the Language Awareness program. Did you enjoy/value this style of class?
● Has the Language Awareness program been relevant and helpful to you in terms of meeting your needs as a Japanese learner of English? Because…?

● Has the Language Awareness program been relevant and helpful to you in terms of meeting your needs as a trainee teacher in the Japanese EFL context? Because…?

● What do you think of the ‘Wasei Eigo ni Sayonara’ textbook? Is it relevant and helpful in terms of your learning and professional teaching needs? Because…?

● Do you think that this kind of Language Awareness program would be relevant and helpful for other Japanese learners of English and other teachers or trainee teachers in the Japanese EFL context? Because…?

In recommending the one-to-one interview as a complementary source of data and a potentially valuable component of case study design, Gillham (2005:70) provides the following taxonomy of defining features in respect of the ‘semi-structured’ interview format:

● The same questions are asked of all those involved.

● The kind and form of questions go through a process of development to ensure their topic focus.

● To ensure equivalent coverage (with an eye to the subsequent comparative analysis) interviewees are prompted by supplementary questions if they haven’t dealt spontaneously with one of the sub-areas of interest.

● Approximately equivalent interview time is allowed in each case.

● Questions are open – that is the direction or character of the answer is open.

● Probes are used according to whether the interviewer judges there is more to be disclosed at a particular point in the interview.

A semi-structured interview, allowing participants a degree of response latitude within an essentially uniform programmatic inventory of inquiry (above) therefore appeared to offer the most appropriate format via which to address the central research question given the analytical requirements for inter-participant (unit of analysis) comparison and the meaningful summary of the aggregated responses (Johnson and Weller, 2002:499). As Gillham (2005:75) notes in this connection, ‘A
semi-structured interview anticipates analysis, and facilitates the organization of that final stage.’

I was assisted in the subsequent transcription and Japanese-to-English translation of the nine exit interviews by my L1 Japanese colleagues at Warwick’s Centre for Applied Linguistics, Yuri and Asako – to whom I owe a considerable debt of gratitude.

2.8.6 Key Stakeholder Perspectives on the 2010 Language Awareness Module

Data generation in respect of the central research question additionally drew upon three related sources of documentary evidence: the 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Trainee Teachers’ post-program feedback questionnaire, which included the recording of participants’ satisfaction ratings in respect of individual program elements on a scale of one to five; the Course Director’s 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima program summative overview report; and personal e-mail communications between the researcher and the 2010 program Directors.

The first of these is used as a standard means of eliciting evaluative feedback from the participants on various aspects of the overall program each year. The Course Director then incorporates the salient features of this questionnaire data - along with subjective and impressionistic feedback - in a formal written descriptive and evaluative summary - the primary audience for which is the participants’ sponsoring department at Hiroshima University, Japan. These three additional data sources facilitated the evaluation of the language awareness program module within the broader context of the overall 2010 program.

2.9 Methodology and Rationale in respect of Data Analysis

2.9.1 Evaluative and Non-Evaluative Data

I elected to separate the analysis of program data into two broad categories:

- Analysis of those data directly associated with the evaluation of the 2010 Language Awareness Program.
- Analysis of those data which were not directly concerned with the inquiry’s evaluative dimension.
I shall, therefore, present a two-part analysis of data to reflect this demarcation:

1. A Narrative Account of the 2010 Language Awareness Program
2. An Evaluative Account of the 2010 Language Awareness Program

To illustrate this analytical demarcation, let us take the analysis of the focus group interview session, held in week three of the program, as an example. I viewed the presence of the focus group interview session – as a forum for the stimulation of discussion and reflection – as being of potentially greater significance than the substantive content insofar as the evaluation of the program was concerned. I therefore assessed the focus group session as a program component – primarily, though not exclusively, with reference to the written feedback from the participants – at one remove from its content. The findings in respect of this analysis are accordingly presented in the second of the data-analysis chapters, i.e. the evaluative account of the program. The session’s substantive content was, however, drawn upon as a data source in respect of the first of the data-analysis chapters, i.e. the narrative account of the program.

The narrative account of the 2010 Language Awareness program is the product of the requirement for a relatively concise yet rich analytical description of the program from an insider (emic) practitioner/researcher perspective capable of sustaining and contextualizing the subsequent evaluation. I opted for a chronologically-based account of the program as being an appropriate format via which to address this requirement, and the retrospective character of its construction allowed the inclusion and highlighting of details which were to emerge (post-analysis) as significant in respect of the evaluation.

Evaluative analysis of the 2010 Language Awareness program centred on the following seven aspects, identified as particularly significant in terms of a response to the inquiry’s principal research question:

1. Participants’ L2 Language Development
2. Participants’ Development as Pre-service TESOL Professionals
3. Focus Group Interview
4. Core Program Materials
5. Integration 1: Language and L2 Methodology
The evaluative aspect extended beyond the quantitative dimension and considerations of merit and worth to include analysis of the ways in which the participants interpreted and characterized various program elements.

The evaluative account of the 2010 Language Awareness program is positioned at level 2 of the 3-level evaluation model set out in Figure 8 earlier. The analysis was undertaken and has been presented so as to reflect the primacy of the participants’ (elicited) evaluative responses to pre-identified aspects of the program. However, the inclusion of various additional elements within the final evaluative remit allowed me to draw on the entire corpus of evaluative commentary in order to achieve a more comprehensive, reflective and panoramic perspective on the program and its evaluation.

The semi-structured format used for the generation of the bulk of the evaluative data facilitated inter-participant (i.e. like-with-like) comparison, and so lent itself to the tracking of intra-group variation as well as the identification of consensus views in respect of particular topics. This semi-structured format additionally ensured that context and co-text were retained intact (and the integrity of the data maintained) during (thematic) analysis (Bryman, 2008:553).

2.9.2 Managing the Quantitative Aspect

The methodology in respect of the generation of quantitative pre- and post-test data was detailed in the preceding section. Analysis of these data proceeded as follows:

By totalling the one hundred and eighty individual test item scores, I arrived at a total test score (out of 1800) for each of the nine program participants, which I then converted to a percentage score for subsequent ease of graphic display. I then calculated the average (mean) test score for the group as a whole. This procedure was identical in respect of the pre- and post-tests. By subtracting the pre-test scores from the post-test scores, I arrived at the differential for each participant, and likewise obtained an average (mean) pre- to post-test differential for the group as a whole.
I wanted to be able to record a quantitative bottom-line evaluation of the language awareness program as a whole for each of the program participants, hence the inclusion of item number three on the exit interview guide: ‘On a scale of 1 to 10, 10 being the highest, how useful have you found the Language Awareness classes? Because…?’ These results were duly recorded. Where a participant had rated the program by giving two numerical ratings on an either/or basis (this was the case with three of the nine participants), I simply took the midpoint (mean) value of the two as the program satisfaction rating for that participant. Thus, if a participant gave their program satisfaction rating as ‘7 or 8’, I recorded the rating as a ‘7.5’ for that participant. An average (mean) program satisfaction rating was then calculated for the group as a whole.

I was then able to derive a ranking order (in practice, this order was an approximate one, due to the presence of three pairs of identical program ratings) based on the participants’ quantitative evaluation of the program. This ordinal ranking of the participants would then be available for (non-statistical) comparison with, for example, an ordinal ranking based on the participants’ pre-/post-test improvement, or with ordinal rankings of the participants which I might subsequently derive in respect of alternative variables, including those which might be constructed ex post facto following analysis of the response data.

2.9.3 A Key Role for Thematic Analysis

One would anticipate that data generated in respect of the participants’ views on a range of key issues at the L1 Japanese/L2 English interface would naturally lend themselves to analysis and interpretation at what might be termed a ‘thematic’ level. The verbal data generated via the focus group forum, together with the written data generated via the ‘elicitation’ worksheets which chronologically preceded the focus group, were accordingly subjected to a thematic analysis in order to facilitate the identification, analysis, interpretation, and reporting of both surface-level and deep-level patterns, i.e. ‘themes’ within and across the two data sets. The following description of a ‘theme’ is offered by Braun and Clarke (2006:82, emphasis in original) by way of a definition:
A theme captures something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set.

The six-phase methodology in respect of thematic analysis presented by Braun and Clarke (2006:87) may, the authors believe, be employed as part of an inductive (i.e. data-driven), or deductive (i.e. theory-/analyst-driven) approach, and may be applied at the ‘semantic’ (surface item) or ‘latent’ (interpretive) level. Alternatively, a mixed approach, employing various configurations of the above, may offer the possibility of a more nuanced analysis. Braun and Clarke (2006:84, emphasis in original) set out the relationship between latent and semantic levels of thematic analysis thus, in a manner which presupposes a prior engagement with the relevant literature:

...a thematic analysis at the latent level goes beyond the semantic content of the data, and starts to identify or examine the underlying ideas, assumptions, and conceptualizations – and ideologies – that are theorized as shaping or informing the semantic content of the data.

... Thus, for latent thematic analysis, the development of the themes themselves involves interpretative work, and the analysis that is produced is not just description, but is already theorized.

Initial coding of data (including multiple coding to permit analysis at different levels) results in categories which may then coalesce in the mind of the researcher into overarching themes (see appendix 17 for a sample of the initial coding notes made in respect of transcribed exit interview data). The process of refinement - recursive rather than linear - may require the further generation of sub-themes, which Braun and Clarke (2006:92) see as ‘…useful for giving structure to a particularly large and complex theme, and also for demonstrating the hierarchy of meaning within the data.’ Appendix 17 presents a sample of the initial coding notes which I made prior to thematic analysis of exit interview feedback data in which the emergence of many of the themes highlighted as significant in the evaluative account of the 2010 program may be traced. Braun and Clarke (2006) highlight the perceived advantages of thematic analysis as including:
• *Its facility for use within a participatory research paradigm, wherein participants enact a ‘collaborative’ role.*

• *Its ability to effectively summarize key features of a large corpus of data, and/or offer a ‘thick description’ of the data set.*

• *Its capacity to highlight both similarities and differences across the data set.*

• *Its capacity to allow for social as well as psychological interpretations of data.*

In the event, it would not prove possible (nor, I think, was it desirable) to delimit a precise one-to-one correspondence between the areas (i.e. program aspects) selected for evaluative focus and the vehicles or instruments used for the elicitation of evaluative response data. Because the various areas of evaluative focus were informed by elements ranging across the total corpus of evaluative response data, the thematic analysis initially required the compilation of a dedicated data set drawn from across the total data corpus in respect of each of the program aspects identified for evaluative focus (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The motivation for the production of a ‘thematic map’ from my analysis of the participants’ cognitive and affective responses to the focus group interview was both intrinsic and instrumental, i.e. the thematic map was constructed in order to assess the merits of the focus group (as genre) as a forum for the exploration of (perhaps previously un-/under-considered) context-specific EFL-related issues within the context of such L2 ITE (and, indeed, INSET) programs. A particular metaphor suggested itself during the thematic analysis of the evaluative response commentary on the focus group session, and the thematic map was consciously developed with this metaphor in mind.

Because the conception of Teacher Language Awareness that I was advocating extended well beyond a narrow linguistic focus to include awareness of a range of context-specific EFL-related issues, I elected to analyze the evaluative responses to the focus group interview in advance of the responses to the other program aspects which I had identified for evaluation, and in this way move the analysis from the general to the particular. The focus group interview thus contained the DNA, as it were, of the entire program, including its underlying rationale. In the event, the analysis of the evaluative response data on the focus group interview yielded themes
which were found to extend and recur throughout the entire corpus of evaluative data, and which I was able to draw on in the construction of an analytical framework based on participants’ apparent orientation to aspects of uncertainty. This framework, which served as a reference in the analysis and interpretation of the participants’ evaluative feedback on key aspects of the 2010 program may, I believe, have the potential for generic application in respect of L2 ITE/INSET program design.

2.10 Ethical Considerations Regarding the Conduct and Representation of Research

The research project was the primary motivating force behind the 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima (cross-linguistic) Language Awareness Program, and involved the active participation of nine (six male and three female) undergraduate students from Hiroshima University, Japan. The methods used in respect of the generation of research data were consistent with the program requirement to provide the nine participants with as enjoyable, stimulating, and informative a learning experience as possible. The fact that participation in the research project was on an entirely voluntary basis and that the participants were free to withdraw at any stage without penalty was made explicit at the outset. The rationale in respect of the various methods and instruments used for the generation of research data and their links to program and research aims was made explicit and transparent to the participants at all times.

Prior informed consent regarding their active participation in the research project was sought from all nine participants, who were furnished with a detailed ‘Participation Information Statement and Consent Form’ on University of Warwick headed paper (see appendix 16) to inspect and sign at the outset of the project, and translations of the relevant particulars were provided in the participants’ first language of Japanese as a courtesy. Prior informed consent for the research study was additionally sought and obtained from the Directors of the Short Courses at Warwick’s Centre for Applied Linguistics and from the Warwick/Hiroshima University Teacher Training Course Director/Lead Tutor. Any requests for confidentiality on the part of the participants will be respected, for example, by the deletion of any material so specified. The names of those participating in the research study from Hiroshima University, together with staff and students at Warwick’s Centre for Applied Linguistics (with the
single exception of my own), have been altered so as to protect the real identities of those concerned. This undertaking to use pseudonyms applies in respect of all modes of presentation of the research data, be this in records, the thesis itself, or any reports or papers which might arise from the study.

My role and status with regard to the conduct of the research inquiry were made explicit to the participants at the outset, and participants were informed in respect of the use(s) to which data will or may be put. No form of deception was engaged in at any stage of the research inquiry. All hard data have been stored in secure, locked cabinets, and all e-data generated in the course of the inquiry have been password-protected. The appropriate duration in respect of data storage will be decided in full consultation with program participants. There was no risk, either physical or psychological, to any of the program/research inquiry participants. The principled articulation of participants’ perspectives constituted a central aim of the inquiry: validation and confirmation of all factual information by the program participants was sought throughout the course of the inquiry as integral to the verification and subsequent representation of the research findings.
Chapter Three:
Data Analysis, Part 1: 2010 Language Awareness Program
- A Narrative Account

3.1 Introduction

Firestone (1993:18) cites Stake (1978) and Lincoln and Guba (1985) in highlighting the primary requirement for researchers to present sufficiently detailed descriptive data – this in order that readers may be in a position from which to make informed ‘similarity judgments’ wherever potential transferability of case study findings enters as a consideration. Accordingly, I shall now present an abridged chronological narrative account of the 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Language Awareness Program by program week so as to fully contextualize the evaluative account which follows, highlighting salient features of each week’s instructional activity, the evolution of the program, and my personal reflections thereon. Program content is detailed in full by program week in appendices 1-15.

The following account has been distilled from a variety of documentary sources, including field notes, various items of written work produced by the participants, and the research journal which I maintained for the duration of the program. Seventy-five of the one hundred and eight (70%) language areas of focus detailed in the WENS materials were explicitly addressed in class on a teacher-directed basis. A significant number of the remaining language areas of focus detailed in the instructional materials were addressed in class on a complementary, participant-directed basis.

Program elements and areas of focus essentially fell into one of three categories: Some were planned pre-program, and were thus part of the program syllabus (‘type 1’); others were not planned pre-program, but rather were evolutionary, responsive mid-program initiatives and adjustments (‘type 2’); still others were the result of extemporary and opportunistic decisions, made in mid-stream during lessons (‘type 3’). Type 1 elements essentially comprised the areas of cross-linguistic focus addressed by the WENS teaching/learning materials. Type 2 elements typically consisted of areas of focus falling under the general rubric of ‘classroom English’, for example, the use of so-called ‘concept questions’ to more effectively demonstrate
learner understanding. Type 3 elements were frequently items of L2 lexis which suggested themselves as a natural extension in respect of the focus on type 1 elements. I recalled from my experience of the Japanese EFL context just how highly valued the introduction of such colloquial language is among learners, who prize the opportunity to access L2 material ‘beyond the textbook’, as it were. By explicitly breaking down the various program elements and areas of focus in this way, I hope to add valuable experiential detail to this descriptive account, and so bring the reader closer to my thought processes and the day-to-day decision-making which shaped the delivery of the program.

I shall, on occasion, be referring to the two standard configurations in respect of participant interaction which I adopted for the language awareness program on account of there being nine participants: Figure 9 overleaf illustrates a ‘round-the-class’ format, which I would typically use in the early practice stages of a newly-introduced language point. The round-the-class question-and-answer format enabled the participants to produce and hear interrogative, positive and negative forms, and had the added advantage of ease of monitoring for accuracy. Figure 10 overleaf illustrates a typical 3x3 group configuration. Language point practice might involve a move from a round-the-class to a 3x3 format (curved arrow). The 3x3 format also featured regularly in discussion and conversational activities; these characterized by freer (autonomous) intra-group interactional patterns.

I should here reiterate the point made in the preceding Methodology chapter that I view the presence of the focus group interview session – as a forum for the stimulation of discussion and reflection – as being of greater significance relative to the interview’s substantive content insofar as program evaluation is concerned. Clearly, a sample size of only nine participants precludes any claim to the effect that the views expressed within the focus group forum are meaningfully representative of wider opinion within the Japanese EFL context. The focus group session will therefore be assessed as a program component in some detail in the chapter which follows this one: ‘Data Analysis (2) – An Evaluative Account of the 2010 Language Awareness Program’. I shall, however, refer to the substantive content of the focus group session as an additional source of data at various points in this narrative account – for example where this content adds to an understanding of a particular issue of focus.
2010 Language Awareness Program – Standard Participant Interaction Patterns:

Figure 9. Configuration 1: Round-the-Class

Figure 10. Configuration 2: 3x3 (‘Island’) Groups
3.2 A Chronological Narrative Account

3.2.1 2010 Language Awareness Program - Week 1

After orienting the nine participants in respect of program aims, expectations and content, I set an initial diagnostic test (for baseline measurement) and had the group engage with the program’s principal teaching/learning materials together with several key issues in respect of the Japanese EFL context. Routine patterns of classroom interaction and a relaxed, low power-distance atmosphere were quickly established (see appendix 1 for full program details).

Having made a conscious decision to use sizeable chunks of our limited class time to highlight and explore language areas that the diagnostic test had revealed as candidate subjects for awareness-raising, I set to work on the analysis of the initial diagnostic test papers almost immediately, noting areas of strength and weakness that would assist me in the ongoing task of lesson planning. Problematic (initial) test items drawn from volume one of the WENS teaching/learning materials were identified for explicit coverage during phase one (i.e. weeks 1-5 incl.) of the program. Thus, materials reference 0701 (i.e. unit seven, item one), dealing with the use of the preposition ‘in’ to indicate time remaining to future events, was selected as a language point of focus very early on (for week one, day four) – the participants having without exception offered either ‘I will go to Hawaii two weeks later’ or ‘I will go to Hawaii two weeks after’ as L2 translation equivalents - mirroring the L1 Japanese formulation. Indeed, my research journal entry for Thursday, April 29th, 2010 includes the following observation:

"...Interacting with the participants, I can hear at every turn the identical features of L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage I’m so familiar with – underlining the fact that these trainee teachers are very much learners themselves..."

This observation reflects the early sense of confirmation I felt – a sense strengthened by my analysis of the initial test data – that the pre-program ideal of ‘experiential learning’ in respect of L2 teacher development was indeed a realistic and realizable program objective.

The methodology by which the pre- and post-test scores were arrived at was detailed in the previous chapter. In descending order, the participants’ initial diagnostic test scores were as follows:

- Shoko: 1218/1800
- Yuriko: 1205/1800
- Yuya: 1159/1800
- Ayako: 1133/1800
- Shinsuke: 1055/1800
- Takashi: 1051/1800
- Shunta: 1038/1800
- Koji: 1028/1800
- Tomoya: 1002/1800

These nine scores gave an average (mean) score of 1099/1800 for the group as a whole.

Figure 11 overleaf reproduces a representative example of data from a test sheet (one of twelve such sheets) showing one participant’s (Ayako) initial test answers. I selected Ayako as representative as her initial test score (1133) was the closest to the group mean score (1099), and the summed score for this particular test sheet (89/150) very closely approximated Ayako’s average (mean) score across each of her twelve test sheets (94/150). Ayako’s test sheet sample revealed clear evidence of L1 influence, and her answers in respect of six of the items – 02, 03, 08, 13, 14 and 15 (highlighted in column C) – were in fact identical to the anticipated (pre-identified) error patterns for L1 Japanese learners (highlighted in column B) which I had included in the WENS teaching/learning materials.

The worksheets eliciting the participants’ views on various L1 Japanese/L2 English ‘interface’ issues which I was using to set up the focus group interview in week three provided me with a valuable early indication of the participants’ perspectives in
Figure 11. Sample test data, reproduced from a participant’s (Ayako) initial diagnostic test sheet (from WENS, unit 14) – one of twelve such test sheets per participant:

Column A gives the L2 English translation equivalents of the L1 Japanese cues;
Column B gives the (attested) pre-identified interlanguage ‘error’ forms;
Column C gives the participant’s L2 English translation of the L1 Japanese cues.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>(A) Suggested L2 Target Form</th>
<th>(B) Pre-identified ‘Error’ Form</th>
<th>(C) Participant Initial Test Answer</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>This room is very spacious.</td>
<td>This room is very wide.</td>
<td>This room is very large.</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>I failed the exam.</td>
<td>I lost the exam.</td>
<td>I lost the exam.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>I passed the test, but it was very difficult.</td>
<td>I passed the test, but it was too difficult.</td>
<td>I passed the exam, but it was too difficult.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>I enjoyed it / I enjoyed myself.</td>
<td>I enjoyed.</td>
<td>I had a good time.</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>Let’s play tennis (together).</td>
<td>Let’s play tennis with us.</td>
<td>Let’s play tennis together.</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>I joined this company five years ago.</td>
<td>I entered this company five years ago.</td>
<td>I started working on this company five years ago.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07</td>
<td>I’m looking for a job.</td>
<td>I am looking for my job.</td>
<td>I’m looking for a job.</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08</td>
<td>Most Japanese people love Karaoke.</td>
<td>Almost Japanese love(s) Karaoke.</td>
<td>Almost Japanese like Karaoke.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09</td>
<td>I answered the questionnaire.</td>
<td>I answered (the) enquete.</td>
<td>I answered questionnaire.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Takoyaki is delicious.</td>
<td>The taste of Takoyaki is delicious.</td>
<td>Takoyaki is delicious.</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I was shocked.</td>
<td>I was shock.</td>
<td>I was shocked.</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Would you like some coffee?</td>
<td>Do you have some coffee?</td>
<td>Would you like a cup of coffee?</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>No, I don’t know it.</td>
<td>No, I don’t know.</td>
<td>No, I don’t know.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>…late at night…</td>
<td>…in (the) midnight…</td>
<td>…in midnight…</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Yes, I’ve seen it.</td>
<td>Yes, I have seen;</td>
<td>Yes, I watched;</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

89
respect of the program’s cross-linguistic dimension. Because of the centrality of this cross-linguistic dimension to both the research inquiry and to the program itself, I will quote the participants’ responses in respect of two of the worksheets in full, adding a brief commentary where appropriate in order to signal, and to orient the reader to, emerging program themes. The response data below were generated on week one, day three. The issue of focus in this instance is whether having Japanese as a first language (L1) is a help or a hindrance in the learning of English as a foreign language. My research journal entry for Friday, May 7th 2010 records the observation that several of the participants appeared to be conflating this question with the question of preferred medium of L2 instruction, which we will come to presently, in the account of week two. The response data (unedited) were as follows:

*I think if we don’t use Japanese to study English it will be more difficult, because if we don’t use Japanese, we have to think in English all (the) time. And we’re not familiar to English in our daily lives, our mind will be confused so much. To study foreign language is very complicated.* (Tomoya)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Tomoya, 28.4.2010.

*I think that Japanese will help us to learn English even if there are a lot of differences between Japanese and English, because I think if we can know the difference of the word order, we can translate it like a puzzle easily into Japanese. Some English are used as the same meaning in Japan.* (Takashi)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Takashi, 28.4.2010.

Takashi’s response encapsulates many of the sentiments expressed by the participants in this connection, as well as reflecting many of the program’s central themes; as one might expect, I was sensitive to the degree of congruence that existed between the two.

*I think Japanese is necessary for me to study English because Japanese help us understand English very much. However we must not rely on Japanese too much, which I mean Japanese is only (a) tool to study English effectively.* (Yuya)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Yuya, 28.4.2010.
I think my Japanese language is a bit hindrance in us learning English because there are many differences between Japanese and English, for example, word order, usage of adjective, and something like that, and pronunciation is very different from English. (Shoko)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Shoko, 28.4.2010.

I think I can’t understand English plainly without the explanation in Japanese because English explanation is sometime obscure for me. Then, Japanese explanation helps me understand. Of course, there are many expression we can’t transrate into Japanese. (Ayako)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Ayako, 28.4.2010.

Effectively tailoring L2-medium explanations to the learner audience is a major challenge for NS instructors; presumably all the more so for NNS instructors.

I think for Japanese people, it is a little difficult to learn English because there are many differences between Japanese and English, for example, words, usage, word order, pronunciation, and so on. (Yuriko)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Yuriko, 28.4.2010.

I think it’s helpful to use Japanese language in learning English, and it’s also essential. Because it’s too difficult to study English without using Japanese language. (Shunta)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Shunta, 28.4.2010.

These sentiments were to be directly contradicted by Shunta’s later feedback comments (weeks 14/15) – a case of ‘you can’t please all of the students all of the time’. Instances such as this – only evident to me upon later review – hinted at the need for me to effectively differentiate between ‘contradictory responses’ and ‘developing views’ vis-à-vis the evaluative analysis of the program. Unfortunately, time constraints (the participants departed the UK immediately following week fifteen) did not permit an exploration of these perceived contradictions in the response data.
I think Japanese language interrupts me of learning English because Japanese grammar doesn’t link to English. Furthermore, the Katakana English makes us confuse to pronounce English. (Shinsuke)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Shinsuke, 28.4.2010.

If you want to learn English without the support of Japanese language, who are you at all? (Koji)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Koji, 28.4.2010.

In terms of my search for commonalities at the aggregate (group) level, two themes in particular emerged from the analysis of the above responses, these being:

- The evident disparity, i.e. distance between the two languages.
- The difficulty – and, indeed, the affective undesirability – of engaging directly with L2 without the mediating scaffold of L1.

The issue of ‘identity’ is also clearly traceable in several of the responses, as, I believe, are the contradictory tensions inherent in the two themes identified above – contradictory tensions which I suspect are highly significant in respect of the Japanese EFL context.

3.2.2 2010 Language Awareness Program - Week 2

Week two saw an intensification of the participants’ engagement with a number of key issues at the L1 Japanese/L2 English interface, and the ceding of a degree of responsibility in respect of language exploration to the participants themselves (see appendix 2 for full program details).

As was the case in week one, the (teacher-directed) language points covered during week two were selected - following my analysis of the participants’ performance on the initial diagnostic test - to address areas of relative weakness. Week two of the program saw the introduction of one of the principal (ongoing) tasks via which I hoped to promote the participants’ engagement with the cross-linguistic dimension of language awareness, and to link this with the development of their awareness of L2 pedagogy. These key program aims were addressed as follows:
Prior to week two’s instructional activity, I had prepared fifty-four coloured adhesive strips (six for each of the nine participants), on each of which was printed a ‘common error’ drawn from the bank of interlanguage data. Participants were to select a strip ‘lucky-dip’ style, affix this into their learning journals, and search the WENS materials for ‘their’ common error and its reformulation, together with any metalinguistic background information that accompanied the entry. Having familiarized themselves with the relevant information as a homework task, the participants were to take turns in presenting their language point to the group during the following lesson.

At every opportunity – until it became routine practice – I encouraged the group to speculate as to why it was that these language points appeared as ‘common errors’ within the Japanese EFL context. L1-L2 cross-linguistic influence was frequently cited by the participants as a key factor in this connection. I felt that this activity showcased the dual orientation of the participants as learners and trainee teachers, and could thus be said to possess many of the ingredients of experiential learning. I had therefore identified this as a potentially high-valence technique in respect of the program aims, and made extensive use of the activity during the initial weeks of the program as a small-scale stepping stone to the later micro-teaching sessions. Informal formative feedback from the group was very positive, and it was extremely gratifying to see how enthusiastically the participants were engaging with these language awareness tasks. My research journal entry for Friday, May 7th 2010 records the following observation in respect of the discrete language point presentations:
One of the participants, Yuriko, made what I thought was a particularly perceptive observation during her presentation — one that had, moreover, never occurred to me when I was putting the WENS text together! The point Yuriko made was this: L1 Japanese learners will habitually produce the formulation — as all of the participants themselves did in the initial diagnostic test — ‘I can speak Chinese a little’, instead of the more natural ‘I can speak a little Chinese’. In addition to reflecting a common — though flexible — L1 word order, this ‘common error’ may well have been induced by elements of the instructional context — so-called ‘transfer of training’. This occurs because Japanese learners are essentially taught that English adverbs occupy a sentence-final position, as exemplified by the ‘I can speak Chinese fluently’, ‘She sings well’ type of construction. I was extremely impressed by Yuriko’s detective skills, as this was precisely the kind of language analysis and awareness I was hoping to encourage among the participants.

I viewed this episode as significant in that it provided a vivid illustration of the kind of reflective insight that participants can potentially bring to such a program given the appropriate space. Here we might recall the assumed trade-off in respect of professional development which I critiqued in the thesis Prologue: my initial observations with regard to the prototypical interlanguage form had acted as a catalyst for reflective analysis in at least one of the participants, which had then generated a fresh and potentially productive pedagogical insight.

In the introduction to this narrative account I alluded to what I termed ‘language awareness extension activities’, via which I was hoping to facilitate the participants’ access to L2 lexis ‘beyond the textbook’, as it were. These ‘extensions’ were essentially attempts on my part to extend our original cross-linguistic focus so as to
generate further L2-internal insights and, in so doing, add to the participants’ productive L2 repertoire. In a sense, then, I was using the initial cross-linguistic focus as a point of departure for, or a gateway to, a more general awareness of language. Thus, the cross-linguistic language awareness I was striving to promote was intended to be more than an isolated end in itself.

I shall now spotlight an example of this type 3 program element which, though occurring in week two of the program, drew upon type 1 program content from week one and resonated through to week fifteen and, I hope, well beyond. First, a little cross-linguistic background: Japanese makes significantly less use of non-gradable adjectives than does English, relying instead on a range of intensifiers. L1 Japanese learners have difficulty differentiating between gradable and non-gradable adjectives in L2 English, and formulations which are not consonant with L2 English co-occurrence restrictions but perfectly viable in L1 Japanese, such as ‘Japanese food is very delicious’ and ‘Tokyo is very huge’, are routinely produced.

Ayako, our ‘representative’, had produced the pre-identified form, ‘It was very delicious’, in respect of item 0501 on the initial diagnostic test, as had a number of the other participants – if not on the initial test, then certainly at the week one welcome lunch! WENS materials reference 0501 (week one, day four) accordingly highlighted the co-occurrence restrictions on various intensifiers in respect of gradable and non-gradable adjectives. In so doing, the unit introduced a number of (unfamiliar, on account of their colloquial nature) non-gradable adjectives, such as ‘loaded’, ‘filthy’, ‘deafening’, ‘hilarious’ and ‘freezing’. My research journal records that additional items of vocabulary, such as ‘starving’, came up as the mid-morning break approached, and that at lunch on week one, day five, one of the participants (Shoko) asked me if it was unnatural to use the intensifier ‘very’ in conjunction with the adjectives ‘starving’ and ‘stuffed’.

Week two, day five saw me draw on the non-gradable adjectives from week one, such as ‘starving’, ‘boiling’ and ‘freezing’, plus phrases such as ‘I died!’ in order to highlight the stylistic device of exaggeration. I then introduced a number of L2 lexical items routinely employed for the purpose of exaggeration, and the participants enjoyed trying them out in their 3x3 groups. While we had moved from a cross-linguistic to an L2-internal focus, we might note that this focus nevertheless retained a
contrastive element, in that the linguistic device of exaggeration is far more common in (L2) English than it is in (L1) Japanese.

Fast-forward to week fifteen, and (at the risk of deflating any suspense the reader might be feeling ahead of the evaluative account of the program) I was gratified that two of the participants, Shoko and Shunta, in response to a feedback question on the number of insights gained via the teaching/learning materials, had both answered with a single word which demonstrated evidence of their uptake on this point: ‘Millions!’

Week two saw an intensification of the participants’ engagement with the elicitation worksheets ahead of the week three focus group interview. In keeping with my central focus on the cross-linguistic dimension, I reproduce here the participants’ views (uncorrected) in respect of the medium of instruction. The issue of focus in this instance is whether the learners’ L1 (Japanese) should be used in L2 English classes, or whether a ‘direct’ method, using L2 English as the medium of instruction, might instead be preferable:

_I think it’s better for Japanese students to study English with Japanese language. Because some of (lots of) Japanese students don’t like to study English or don’t understand English language. So if Japanese English teachers use English in class, it’s stressful for them._ (Shunta)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Shunta, 7.5.2010.

_I think only speaking English is not effective for Japanese students because they don’t know so much English words, idioms, usage, and so on. It will make student confusing, I’m sure, because students haven’t been familiar with English since their birth._ (Tomoya)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Tomoya, 7.5.2010.

It is striking how frequently negative images, such as ‘stressful’, ‘don’t understand’, ‘difficult’, ‘confusing’ and ‘stress’, appear in the participants’ responses. As the reader will recall from the earlier review of the Japanese EFL context, the study of L2 English all too often engenders these kinds of associations for Japanese learners.
I think all-English is self-satisfaction of teachers. There are some students who are not good students, so we have to use not only English but Japanese. Teachers have to have a strong idea of how they use English and Japanese. (Shinsuke)

By, in effect, linking decision-making in respect of the MOI to teachers’ pedagogical awareness, the views expressed by Shinsuke above suggest a nuanced, ‘strategic’ approach to the choice of MOI – perhaps the kind of strategic awareness that might be subsumed into the construct ‘Teacher Language Awareness’. This kind of strategic approach is similarly evident in the responses given by Ayako, Takashi and Yuya below:

I think we shouldn’t teach all English class in English, but use both languages according to occasion. Because it’s difficult for some students to understand what we say. Besides, students can understand the meanings of English by listening or reading with Japanese. (Ayako)

I think we have to use both Japanese and English in class to teach English because most of the students already have some stress to learn English. It’s an ideal to teach all English classes in English, but it’s very difficult for both students and teachers to make good classes. So I think it’s important for teachers to use both languages properly. (Takashi)

I think we should use Japanese in class to explain grammar rules and so on because it will help students understand the teacher’s explanation. Especially I think we need to speak Japanese when we explain grammar. (Yuya)

The strategic approach is taken one stage further by Koji, who extends the idea/ideal to separate classes, with decisions regarding the MOI dependent upon the primary focus of the class:
I think we should use Japanese in class because Japanese helps us to understand English grammar and usages and so on. However, I suppose we have both classes. One is for understanding English in detail and the other for speaking and listening English. (Koji)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Koji, 7.5.2010.

I think we should increase the amount of English in class gradually because in this way, students can get used to all English classes without stress. (Shoko)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Shoko, 7.5.2010.

From the sentiments expressed by Shoko above, we may derive a guideline L1/L2 MOI ratio cline (shown below), whereby the amount of L2 MOI as a percentage progressively increases (relative to L1 MOI) in line with learners’ increasing proficiency levels:

![L1 MOI vs L2 MOI Cline](chart.png)

Learners’ L2 Proficiency

The idea of varying the percentages of L1 and L2 MOI in line with learner proficiency is similarly evident in the response given by Yuriko:

I think we should use English as much as possible, but I don’t think we have to use only English in class because it is difficult for beginners of English to understand everything if we use only English. (Yuriko)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Yuriko, 7.5.2010.

What emerges very clearly from the above is that the participants were unanimous in their rejection of an exclusively monolingual approach to L2 instruction, which they viewed as both undesirable and impractical. Significantly, and consistent with the
views expressed in the extracts from week one quoted above, the participants favoured a bilingual approach on affective grounds in addition to the purely cognitive grounds of instructional efficacy. Interestingly, however, and notwithstanding the general level of support expressed for a bilingual approach to L2 pedagogy, two of the participants, Shoko and Yuya, on a personal level reported (during the week three, day four focus group session) very positive and stimulating English-only learning experiences within the Japanese EFL context.

During week two it became increasingly evident (for reasons of L2 proficiency) that the participants would likely struggle to express themselves as articulately and as fluently as they would like were the focus group interview to be conducted exclusively in L2. I therefore took the decision, after careful consideration, to conduct the focus group in L1 Japanese.

3.2.3 2010 Language Awareness Program - Week 3

Week three featured a focus group interview session, in which the participants were encouraged to explore and comment on a number of the most salient issues within the Japanese EFL context. Instructional activity proceeded along established lines, with the primary cross-linguistic focus supplemented by L2-internal awareness-raising initiatives (see appendix 3 for full program details).

With the focus group session scheduled for week three day four of the program, week three marked the conclusion of the participants’ engagement with the elicitation worksheets. Following an analysis of the remaining elicitation worksheets, I shall now present a brief summary of the participants’ views on some of the more significant issues at the L1 Japanese/L2 English interface, illustrating each summary with a representative example drawn from the dataset comprising the participants’ responses. Where opinion on an issue was more or less evenly divided, I shall quote two responses so as to give the reader a flavour of both ‘sides’.

As one might expect (and hope?), participants’ responses on occasion incorporated multiple aspects, reflecting a more balanced view of the issue of focus. Whilst mindful of its limitations and distorting influence, the majority of the participants nevertheless valued the Katakana syllabary as an integral part of Japanese culture and
as a bridge via which to access English, in particular English pronunciation – the response given by Yuriko being illustrative of this view:

*I think we don’t have to write foreign words in English because Katakana is part of Japanese culture, and Katakana sometimes helps me to pronounce English words.* (Yuriko)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Yuriko, 10.5.2010.

Opinion was divided on the question of whether the ubiquitous proficiency tests such as the TOEIC – the reader will recall the strongly deterministic influence exerted by such tests within the Japanese EFL context, highlighted in the earlier Literature Review - are beneficial in terms of L2 development. The inability of such tests to incorporate productive skills was identified as a major negative factor, and the degree to which such tests provide an accurate reflection of L2 proficiency was questioned. On the positive side, success on these tests was highlighted as a major motivating force for continued L2 study. The responses given by Yuya and Koji give an indication of the participants’ contrasting views on this issue:

*I think tests like the TOEIC are very important and useful because I can’t come up with the idea which denies TOEIC tests or something like that. TOEIC tests are familiar to a lot of people all over the world and I believe that they are the best way to show us our English level. I’m proud of my best score and it makes me enthusiastic for studying English hard. TOEIC is one of my targets to study.* (Yuya)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Yuya, 7.5.2010.

*I think tests like the TOEIC are terrible for us, because, especially the TOEIC, it’s only for Japanese people. It’s just a measure for Japanese people, so we should talk with people from other countries.* (Koji)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Koji, 7.5.2010.

On the question of whether learners in the Japanese EFL context are better taught by native English speaking teachers or whether L1 Japanese teachers are preferable, opinion was similarly divided. Native English speakers were highly valued for their ability to provide accurate pronunciation models and to offer learners access to ‘real’
idiomatic English. L1 Japanese teachers were preferred in contexts where exam preparation and a (meta-linguistic) focus on grammar are paramount.

All the participants agreed that it was important for L1 Japanese instructors to have a strong practical command of L2 English. The responses given by Takashi and Tomoya give an indication of the participants’ contrasting views on this issue:

_I think native English speakers are the best English teachers for us in Japan, because they can teach English which is used in real life. I think the most important part of English lessons in Japan is to listen to English spoken by native speakers._ (Takashi)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Takashi, 10.5.2010.

_I think we need both English and Japanese to study English, because to study English without Japanese is too difficult for us. I think it’s not effective. So, in my opinion, to learn English with Japanese is better for us. That is why we need native Japanese teachers._ (Tomoya)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Tomoya, 10.5.2010.

While acknowledging that a practical command of English was not necessary in daily life in Japan, the participants were virtually unanimous in believing that learning English as a second or foreign language was extremely important for Japanese nationals – the ability to communicate in the international arena and the potential for broadening one’s view of the world being the most frequently cited reasons. Ayako’s response reflects this positive orientation:

_I think it’s important for Japanese people to learn English, because English is a common language in the world, so if we can use English, we can communicate with other foreign people. I think it’s really good to know each other by using English, and know different viewpoints. We shouldn’t use English only for business._ (Ayako)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Ayako, 27.4.2010.

On the question of whether or not Japanese learners should focus on exonormative target models such as standard US or British English, the participants were virtually
unanimous in their acceptance of such exonormative target models and their corresponding rejection of the idea of ‘Japanese English’ as being too nebulous and idiosyncratic for use in the context of international communication. Shunta’s response is illustrative of this willing acceptance of exonormative native-speaker models, and expresses a concomitant rejection of ‘Japanese English’ in no uncertain terms:

*I think it’s better for us to speak English like Americans or British people. Any countries (i.e. native English-speaking countries) are fine, because English is not our (Japanese) language, so we should learn it from native people. I don’t like ‘Japanese English’. My English is still ‘Japanese English’, so I really want to improve my English skills.* (Shunta)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Shunta, 4.5.2010.

Participants’ opinions regarding the notoriously demanding English component of Japanese university entrance exams were divided (again, the reader will recall the deterministic influence exerted by the university entrance exams within the context of focus). While many of the participants believed that the mandatory system ensures a relatively large cohort of students gain at least a minimum level of L2 English proficiency, further reform is necessary in order to reflect the primary communicative function of English. The responses given by Takashi and Shunta highlight some of the pros and cons of the system:

*I think the system makes learning English so stressful, because the system is focusing on reading or writing English. It’s not real English. We need English as a communication tool, so it’s better to focus on conversation skills, and so on. But at the same time, it’s true that it’s difficult to give such kind of test.* (Takashi)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Takashi, 4.5.2010.

*I think it’s good to study English for the entrance exams, because the Japanese people who want to enter some (i.e. certain) universities will study English very hard. If we didn’t have English exams, a lot of Japanese people would not be able to speak English.* (Shunta)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Shunta, 4.5.2010.
The participants unanimously viewed the ubiquitous, idiosyncratic ‘English’ on display in the public arena and on commercial products in Japan as merely fashionable ‘decoration’, of dubious value in terms of any possible contribution to L2 proficiency – as evidenced by Koji’s response (although his rather categorical tone was not shared by the other participants):

*I think the ‘English’ printed on T-shirts is nonsense, because it’s not English, but only decoration. It doesn’t include meanings, so it looks like fashion.* (Koji)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Koji, 13.5.2010.

Despite a stated preference for L1-mediated L2 instruction, the participants were unanimous in viewing the ability to ‘think directly in English’ as the ideal, rather than relying on a process of mental translation from L1, which many of the participants highlighted as a source of error. Yuriko’s response was typical in this regard:

*I think we should try to think directly in English, though it’s difficult at first. Japanese people often make wrong sentences because of trying to translate directly.* (Yuriko)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Yuriko, 13.5.2010.

The principal program event of week three was the focus group interview. By way of a preliminary briefing, and in order to help lower the participants’ affective filters, I was at pains to stress that there were no preferred or dispreferred responses, and that the participants’ honest views would be welcomed as valuable contributions to the session. Evidence of my ongoing formative evaluation of program content and delivery appears in my research journal entry for Thursday, May 13th 2010 in respect of the group-work formulation of L2 versions of L1 Japanese meta-linguistic language point explanations from the WENS materials:
The above reflection signaled the curtailment of this particular technique, which had in any case largely been superseded by the participants’ individual language point presentations.

3.2.4 2010 Language Awareness Program - Week 4

Week four’s instructional activity included a first cross-linguistic focus on L2 pronunciation, utilizing a modified form of the Katakana script to link the familiar with the new (see appendix 4 for full program details).

In terms of the participants’ online oral L2 production, week four offered several examples illustrating the relevance of program content, as well as highlighting the non-linear nature of L2 learning and acquisition despite clear evidence of progress in this regard.

With regard to the former, I overheard an exchange immediately prior to the class of Thursday, May 20th 2010 in which one of the participants, Shunta, asked another, Yuya, ‘Why do you know that?’ (i.e. ‘How did you know that?’), to which Yuya replied, ‘Neil taught me’ (i.e. ‘Neil told me’). This exchange comprised common L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage ‘error’ forms which had yet to be addressed at this point in the program. With regard to the latter, another of the participants, Shinsuke, in the following day’s class asked one of his classmates, ‘Do you go to Rootes...
restaurant today?’ (i.e. ‘Are you going to Rootes restaurant today?’). This particular common interlanguage error form, by contrast, had been addressed – in week two (materials reference: 1112) – underlining the non-linear nature of L2 learning and acquisition and the intractability of many of the interlanguage forms addressed by the program, the example quoted here being one among numerous such instances. I was constantly mindful of the program ideal of an integrated approach to participants’ L2 development and their awareness of L2 pedagogy, and by week four I was on the lookout for signs of developing pedagogical/methodological awareness in the participants’ treatment of the discrete language points that they were researching and presenting. My research journal entry for Thursday, May 20th 2010 records the following observation in this connection:

I can already see evidence of increasing ‘sophistication’, and the thought that has gone into the presentation of these language points, and most of the participants are now consciously making an effort to incorporate some of the techniques which I have introduced them to, such as how to write on the whiteboard without obscuring the learners’ view, and checking to confirm that it’s OK to erase whiteboard content before moving on. In today’s class, Shoko sought permission by asking, ‘Have you all finished writing it down?’ before she erased the content of her language point presentation. Yuya made good use of elicitation and the participants are showing more awareness of the visual aspects of presentation. For example, Takashi introduced his language point with a picture that he had prepared the previous evening. Shinsuke, too, drew pictures on the whiteboard to illustrate the concepts he was trying to convey, and Shunta laid out a grid-style table via which to present the socio-pragmatic associations of various lexical choices. This growing awareness of the visual element may also reflect Cheryl’s emphasis on VAK styles of learning. If so, this is good news in respect of program integration and cohesion.
3.2.5 2010 Language Awareness Program - Week 5

Week five saw a continuation of our focus on cross-linguistic aspects of L2 pronunciation using the modified Katakana script, and the introduction of an ad hoc error-correction format via which to recycle selected program content. Week five saw the completion of volume one of the WENS teaching/learning materials and the conclusion of the participant-centred language point mini presentations (see appendix 5 for full program details).

Week five marked the end of phase one of the program, and as such offered me an opportunity to look back and reflect on the program to date, as well as giving me a chance to look ahead to and formulate more detailed plans in respect of phases two and three. With regard to the former, my research journal entry for Wednesday, May 26th 2010 recorded the following observation:

...I would say that the participants, both as individuals and as a group, have engaged with the cross-linguistic focus to an extent that has been, if anything, beyond my highest expectations. The initial anxieties I felt before the start of the program in respect of the participants’ acceptance of the cross-linguistic focus have been entirely dispelled – what a relief!

Week five also marked the conclusion of the individual language point mini presentations. I felt that these had worked extremely well, confirming the participants’ potential for enthusiastic autonomous engagement with the language issues at hand and serving as a springboard to the later planned micro-teaching sessions.

Due to commitments across the range of modules, however, the participants’ ongoing workload was increasing significantly by this stage of the program. Because of this, I felt I had to ease off on the assigning of homework in respect of the language awareness module. I was aware, too, that scheduling concerns meant that I would
have significantly fewer contact hours with the participants during phase two of the program – a fact which posed a challenge in respect of the maintenance of continuity and momentum, the pacing of content and the appropriate balance between in- and out-of-class activities.

Week five saw the introduction of a technique I was to use thereafter on a regular basis as a means of recycling many of the interlanguage features addressed to that point. This involved the formulation of a number of sentences, each being a composite of several erroneous interlanguage features, which the participants were to analyze and correct (reformulate). In addition to providing an enjoyable challenge, this technique had the advantage - given the time constraints - of being extremely time-efficient as a review activity relative to a review of each interlanguage element in isolation.

3.2.6 2010 Language Awareness Program - Week 6

Given the imminent reduction in classroom contact time available to us as we moved into phase two of the program, the focus in week six was very much on setting an appropriate pace in respect of our coverage of the WENS materials. Accordingly, nine of the twenty-five areas of special focus that I had earmarked for explicit coverage were addressed in class during week six. The fact that we were able to extend this week six focus over four classes was, however, a mitigating factor enabling sufficient depth of coverage, together with a number of L2-internal language awareness extensions and a pedagogical exploration of the participants’ orientation to learner errors and error-correction (see appendix 6 for full program details).

Week six provided an example of the second of the program element types identified earlier, namely a responsive, mid-program initiative. The language focus of materials reference 1610, addressed in class on Tuesday, June 1st 2010, was the routine interlanguage over/misuse of the auxiliary ‘could’ in respect of one-off actions in the past - which mirrors the L1 Japanese formulation. The fact that one of the participants produced the utterance, ‘Neil, I could install ‘Microsoft Office’®’ the very next day again highlighted the non-linearity of L2 learning/acquisition, and led me to the decision to devote a segment of our June 3rd 2010 class to a focus on the participants’ orientation to learners’ errors and their attitudes and potential policies in respect of L2 error-correction.
Ideally, this episode would have been a springboard to a fuller focus on error-correction and the elicitation of self-corrections, thereby integrating language awareness with L2 classroom methodology and pedagogical decision-making. Unfortunately, this potential initiative was to fall victim to the numerous competing calls on available program time.

In reviewing the literature on ‘language awareness’ prior to the program – particularly that concerned with L2 teacher development programs – I noted what I took to be a preference among many of the commentators for an inductive approach to the delivery of program content.

I therefore decided to attempt to incorporate an inductive learning approach in respect of my classroom methodology wherever this suggested itself as appropriate. I had originally intended to include a meta-cognitive focus on the inductive versus deductive learning debate as we moved towards the micro-teaching sessions in phases two and three. In the event, however, this idea too was crowded out as a result of the competing calls on program space. I was additionally aware that the WENS teaching/learning materials themselves represented an overwhelmingly deductive approach – this on account of their primary (design) status as self-study materials, together with the putatively low ambiguity tolerance of the Japanese.

My determination to find a place for an inductive means of accessing the language points of focus thus reflected a desire to offset and complement the approach characterizing the program materials.

By way of an illustration, my research journal entry for Thursday, June 3rd 2010 details the following account:
...I adopted an inductive approach to the lesson’s principal language focus, unit 2301, which dealt with the use of appropriate qualifiers for particular adjectives, such as why it is unnatural to say, ‘I’m a little good at tennis’ (a common L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage formulation). My approach involved having the class come up to the whiteboard, and dictating a series of sentences with identifiably positive or negative associations based on the adjectives involved. Negative adjectives took the qualifiers ‘a little’ and ‘a bit’, and positive adjectives took the qualifier ‘fairly’. The students, having written the nine dictated sentences on the board in turn, were given the task of identifying the patterns and inferring the ‘rules’ from these, which they (Tomoya) did successfully. Only then did I direct the participants to unit 2301 in the WENS textbook.


Julie, a specialist in the teaching of pronunciation at Warwick’s Centre for Applied Linguistics, was running several workshop-style pronunciation sessions for the Hiroshima Trainee Teachers group, and I was fortunate to observe one such session during week six of the program.

My research journal entry for Wednesday, June 2nd 2010 recounts the following realization in respect of the composite nature of the Warwick/Hiroshima program:
I had been exercising myself over effective ways of integrating the particular module for which I was responsible with the various other modules comprising the ITE program. I suppose I had, consciously or unconsciously, been assuming that this task was solely my own responsibility. Yet Julie had clearly made a point of tailoring her focus on L2 English pronunciation to a homogeneous class of L1 Japanese speakers. In other words, Julie was clearly well aware of the L1 background to her focus on L2 English pronunciation, and several times during the class made reference to ‘awareness-raising’, both in respect of the class as a group of L2 learners and also as a group of future L2 English teachers within the Japanese EFL context. The realization dawned on me during Julie’s class that ‘integration’ was a two-way street, and that Julie’s class and, by implication, every other module on the ITE program was actively engaged in promoting some form or aspect of what could be described as ‘language awareness’. In this respect, Julie might be said to be (albeit unknowingly) integrating her focus with mine! In tailoring the class to take account of the learners’ L1 background, I felt Julie was validating, at least implicitly, a ‘cross-linguistic’ approach, and by so doing was actively demonstrating her own teacher language awareness.


3.2.7 2010 Language Awareness Program - Week 7

The relative intensification of our engagement with the WENS materials reflected not only the program distribution of available contact time, but also the spatial distribution of program elements across the three phases (phase one was necessarily characterized by an introductory, orientation focus; phase three by a reflective, evaluative focus). Of the twelve test sheets used for the initial and follow-up tests, no fewer than seven had been drawn from volume two of the materials, and would, therefore, have to be addressed during phase two of the program.
Leaving aside the desirability of maximizing coverage of language points ahead of the micro-teaching sessions and of allowing sufficient time for revision ahead of the follow-up test, I was determined to forestall any ‘crowding out’ of cross-linguistic materials-based study in phase three, either by the evaluative demands of the language awareness module or by the inevitable intensification of demands on participants’ time and energy as the other program modules reached their conclusion (see appendix 7 for full program details).

It was earlier noted that classroom contact hours were unevenly distributed across the three phases of the program. As Figure 12 overleaf illustrates, there was a significant decrease in the number of contact hours available in respect of the language awareness module during phase two of the program. Moreover, as program timetables for the three phases were not finalized until the preceding week, I was unable to anticipate the subsequent offsetting increase in the number of contact hours available in respect of the language awareness module in phase three at this, the week seven stage.

It had emerged during Cheryl’s participant counseling sessions how highly the participants valued opportunities for micro-teaching practice. In light of this, I was intending to devote our June 18th class (week eight) to a team micro-teaching session organized in three groups of three as a lead-in to later individual micro-teaching assignments.

The corollary of a lower number of language awareness module contact hours during phase two was, of course, a higher number of contact hours in respect of non-language awareness modules/elements, entailing a corresponding increase in participants’ out-of-class commitments thereto. After liaising with Cheryl, it became apparent to me that the participants had their hands full in this regard, and I therefore decided – reluctantly - to abandon the planned 3x3 micro-teaching assignment.

With regard to the week’s instructional activity, I felt that materials reference 1504, dealing with appropriate intonation patterns and the positioning of nuclear stress, provided an ideal opportunity to incorporate the kinesthetic aspect of the visual/auditory/kinesthetic (VAK) learning styles that Cheryl had earlier highlighted in her module ‘An Introduction to Linguistics and the Teaching Profession’ (Cheryl
Figure 12. Classroom contact hours per week over the 15-week language awareness program (mean added).
had remarked to me that she thought the nine 2010 participants were a particularly ‘kinesthetic’ group.

In the event, the participants reveled in the activity, which appeared to produce the desired results in terms of an increased awareness of L2 nuclear stress patterns. At the same time, however, I couldn’t help wondering whether there might be some sort of trade-off between this particular language focus and that of materials reference 0715, which highlighted the need for L1 Japanese learners to attend to object pronouns in L2 production (addressed in week three). The two features were clearly significant in respect of our cross-linguistic focus, yet were potentially pulling (the participants) in opposite directions.

My research journal entry for Friday, June 11th 2010 records the following observation in respect of the meta-linguistic aspect of the program:

I had planned for the participants’ learning journals to be a vehicle for ongoing reflection on, and reaction to, the language awareness program content in addition to a vehicle for the systematic recording of language points. The occasions on which I have informally glanced at participants’ journals thus far would seem to indicate that they are being used almost exclusively for the latter purpose.


Upon later reflection, I came to see this observation as significant in respect of the identification of the participants’ priorities, on which point more will be said in due course.

3.2.8 2010 Language Awareness Program - Week 8

The (virtually) exclusive focus on the cross-linguistic teaching/learning materials continued into week eight (see appendix 8 for full program details).

I have alluded to several occasions on which participants’ L2 production regressed to pre-instruction interlanguage forms, highlighting the non-linearity of L2
learning/acquisition and the uneven internalization of suggested reformulations. Fortunately, these instances occurred against a backdrop of generally encouraging ‘uptake’ of the reformulated language among the program participants.

I shall illustrate this point with reference to the L2 development of one of the participants, Ayako (again, selected as representative on account of her pre-test score – 1133 - being the closest to the group mean pre-test score - 1099), in respect of week eight’s instructional activity. Week eight represented the program’s halfway stage, and I shall present examples from both the initial diagnostic and follow-up tests, as well as from Ayako’s freer L2 production, as evidence of this process of restructuring.

The first cross-linguistic language awareness focus of week eight was taken from materials reference 1805, dealing with the interlanguage tendency towards a blanket translation of the L1 Japanese verb ‘narimasu’ as ‘become’ in L2 English. This case represents a prominent example of the phenomenon whereby an essentially unitary L1 form is realized as a plurality in L2. The preceding chapter highlighted awareness-raising in respect of this widespread interlanguage phenomenon as a central feature of the WENS teaching/learning materials.

The pedagogical approach adopted in the materials essentially involves the use of L1-L2 translation to highlight the differentiated L2 forms and link these to identifiable conceptual distinctions and nuances so that learners, with the aid of appropriate scaffolding, are able to produce the preferred L2 forms by making the conceptual distinctions, even in the overt presence of the unitary L1 stimuli.

Materials reference 1805 was present as an item on both the initial diagnostic and follow-up tests. Ayako’s initial test answer - i.e. L1-L2 translation – (week one, day three) was:

- *I became to like Indian dishes.*

  Data Source: Initial (diagnostic) Test, Ayako, 28.4.2010.

This response exactly matched the anticipated (pre-identified) interlanguage formulation presented and addressed in unit eighteen of the WENS materials. Ayako’s follow-up test answer (week fourteen, day three) in respect of the identical L1 stimulus was:
• I’ve come to like Indian food.

Data Source: Follow-Up (achievement) Test, Ayako, 28.7.2010.

Ayako’s production of the preferred L2 form here provides evidence of her developing ability to key in on the conceptual aspect. Further evidence of this ability comes from Ayako’s written evaluative feedback assignment in respect of the language awareness program (week fourteen, day five), which contains the following (un-elicited) sentence:

• I’ve come to think more and more about teaching and learning in Japan.


N.B.: The L1 Japanese translation equivalent of the above would be formulated using the verb ‘narimasu’.

Having had to rethink the arrangements for the micro-teaching, I identified Monday, June 28th in week ten (two consecutive 1.5 hour slots) as a suitable date for the first of the individualized extended practice teaching sessions. The double session on the 28th was our only scheduled classroom contact time during week ten, and the necessity of devoting this session exclusively to micro-teaching practice meant that the ten remaining areas of language focus from volume two of the WENS materials that I had identified as learning priorities would have to be covered at a fairly brisk pace in the two remaining one-hour slots – June 18th in week eight and June 24th in week nine – available to us in phase two of the program.

Week eight marked the initial introduction of the ‘language awareness monitoring project’. This was essentially an attempt on my part to encourage the participants to actively monitor particular self-selected aspects of their L2 production so as to offer some additional insight into the processes of interlanguage restructuring, transition and development. I envisaged that this monitoring of L2 production might be undertaken for the remainder of the fifteen-week program in respect of participants’ interaction with:

• The Hiroshima University group.
• The participants’ host families.
• University of Warwick staff and students.
• The wider social network.

I further hoped that such a project in respect of perhaps two or three areas of language focus, by highlighting more or less identifiable phases such as ‘noticing’, ‘learning intent’, output’ and ‘transition’, might serve as a template for a more general monitoring and managing of the participants’ interlanguage transition and development post-program.

3.2.9 2010 Language Awareness Program - Week 9

The (virtually) exclusive focus on the cross-linguistic teaching/learning materials continued into week nine (see appendix 9 for full program details).

I shall outline the salient features of two examples of the in-class coverage of the language areas of focus from week nine in order to provide the reader with a slightly finer-grained familiarity with program content and instructional activity. Time constraints meant that there was only one hour in which to cover the six areas of cross-linguistic language focus outstanding from volume two of the WENS materials, giving us an average of only ten minutes per language focus.

Learners’ personalized, appropriate, error-free autonomous oral production of the L2 of focus had always constituted the primary goal of my classroom pedagogy within the Japanese EFL context, and my evaluation of the efficacy of lessons generally centred on the degree to which this goal had been achieved. This primary learning/performance goal applied equally in respect of the in-class component of the 2010 language awareness program.

Example 1: Japanese learners frequently produce L1-influenced utterances of the ‘I like all sports without baseball’ type – indeed, Ayako produced the utterance ‘A hole is nothing without air’ during a ‘MindTrap’® activity in week six. Our first language focus was materials reference 1510, which deals with the overuse/misuse of ‘without’ and raises awareness of preferred alternatives such as ‘apart from’, ‘except (for)’ and ‘besides’. After having the participants read over the explanations and examples, I produced the model sentence, ‘I like most Japanese food, apart from/except for natto (fermented soya beans)’, and had the participants produce their own such sentences in 3x3 groups, substituting self-selected nationalities and dishes.
Example 2: The final language focus of the class, and of week nine, was materials reference 2201, highlighting the interlanguage overuse of ‘happen’ and ‘occur’ in L2 existential constructions. L1 Japanese learners frequently produce formulations of the ‘An accident was occurred’, ‘Some problem might be happened’ type. Using 9/11 as a worked example, I had the participants detail some recent events and incidents. The participants’ target L2 production included the co-constructed sentence ‘There was a shooting in the Lake District the other week’, in reference to the fact that there had been a shooting incident in the Lake District several weeks previously.

In terms of ongoing reflection, it soon became apparent that the time constraints identified above, together with the requirement to prioritize the first micro-teaching session, scheduled for June 28th 2010 (week ten, day one), were factors militating against the maintenance of participants’ awareness of the ‘language awareness monitoring project’ at a sufficiently high level and the project’s achievement of a critical level of tangibility relative to other program components.

I met Cheryl towards the end of week nine to discuss ongoing issues and alternative scheduling scenarios. Cheryl revealed that the participants were showing distinct signs of ‘literature overload’, with the constant need to negotiate their way through literary text proving time-consuming, challenging and stressful. Cheryl therefore took the decision to significantly reduce the literature component in phase three in response to participants’ wishes, which were becoming increasingly vocal in this regard! I appreciated my inclusion in the consultation process, and I was fortunate in being able to secure valuable additional scheduling time for phase three in respect of the language awareness module as a result of the reduced focus on literature.

3.2.10 2010 Language Awareness Program - Week 10

It occurred to me that the four-point checklist for reflective lesson evaluation which the participants were to use in respect of their micro-teaching might additionally serve as a heuristic template for my own later evaluation of the language awareness program. Item four on the checklist:

- If I were to teach the lesson again, what would I do differently?

This item, being both retrospective and forward-looking, could usefully be applied in respect of (subsequent) program design. It was precisely this kind of
retrospective/forward-looking orientation (i.e. a feedback loop) that lay behind the search for the ‘rating deficits’ (on the 1 to 10 scale) in the week fifteen exit interviews. By introducing this element of commonality, I felt I might achieve a degree of congruence between my own program experience and those of the participants (see appendix 10 for full program details).

I was a non-participating observer during the micro-teaching practice, which was audio-recorded (as was every class on the language awareness module). With a total of three hours available to us, the participants were each allocated twenty minutes. The eight participants functioning as students allowed for various organizational options, such as four pairs or two teams of four. I took the opportunity afforded by the mid-session break to introduce the four-point checklist for reflective lesson evaluation which the participants were to use in respect of their micro-teaching projects. I have included one participant’s (Takashi) four-point checklist by way of an illustration, completed in respect of the June 28th 2010 micro-teaching practice session. Takashi’s responses are reproduced (un-amended) below:

1. Were the ‘learning goals’ of the lesson achieved?

   *I think so. In 20 minute lesson, I managed to teach them my learning point, but it’s true that I didn’t give them to practice the learning point. (In my case, students just noticed the difference between ‘teach’ and ‘tell’). When I took other HTTs lesson, I thought they prepared for something to practice their target language.*

2. Were the students happy, working and interested?

   *I think it’s not good lesson for students to be interested in. In my lesson, teacher ordered everything, every time. I thought it was one-way lesson (T>S). Especially, I reflect that my introduction was not interesting for students. I should have thought it deeply. But, I like the way I used in the lesson (1: exercise: choose ‘teach’/‘tell’ > 2: find out the rules {the difference between ‘teach’ and ‘tell’}). I think it was good that teacher didn’t answer the important question (which is the difference between ‘teach’ and ‘tell’) but students think and discuss it.*
3. Was I adequately prepared for the lesson?

Not so much, in fact. I spent much time to compose a lesson. It means 1: Introduction 2: Exercise 3: Conclusion, and to think what the best way to acquire is. I focused on ‘exercise’ (using a handout), and I made my lesson simply. It’s because I didn’t have much time to think it and I thought it’s better not to be too complicated.

4. If I were to teach the lesson again, what would I do differently?

First of all, I’ll change my introduction. Of course, I think it was not bad, but it was not good as well. I don’t come up with any ideas to make it. Introduction is one of the most important part in a lesson, because it can make students have interests or create the need. Also, I’ll change time allotment, I think I gave them too much time to discuss. I spoke too much. I have to improve explanation in English, (as easy as possible, as less words as possible).


While the details necessarily varied across individual responses, the participants’ reflective checklists suggested several points of commonality, with which I, as an observer, concurred. Many of the responses pointed to a degree of uncertainty in respect of question one, evidenced by phrases such as ‘I think so’ and ‘I hope so’. The responses also revealed a perceived need to improve the efficiency of explanations – a need magnified here by the requirement to operate in L2. A third theme was the desirability of ensuring increased time (as a percentage) for practice and production activities. I believe that the three themes identified above are linked; the lack of sufficient learner L2 target production leading to the lack of evidence of learning goals having been achieved – hence the uncertainty in this regard.

Fairly early into the observation, I discerned a pattern emerging in respect of the participants’ choices of language focus, with two related themes featuring prominently. The first of these – explicitly spelled out in generic terms by Takashi during his session – was the difficulty that arises for learners when essentially unitary L1 forms have a plurality of context-dependent L2 translation equivalents. The second was learners’ confusion over related, though crucially distinct, L2 lexis. The language point choices made by Takashi, Tomoya, Ayako, Shoko, Shinsuke and Yuriko for
their micro-teaching practice sessions all reflected these twin themes very clearly. These participants had presumably (freely) identified these particular language points as being of considerable significance, both to themselves as learners and in respect of their future practice within the Japanese EFL context - a conclusion I took as a validation of the prominent place given to such cross-linguistic phenomena in the program and its associated materials.

While observing the participants’ micro-teaching practice, I noted the routine use of ‘Do you understand?’ type questions to check comprehension of the various language points. This observation gave rise to another type 2 responsive mid-program initiative, namely my decision to take advantage of the increase in available contact hours in phase three for an introductory focus on the use of ‘concept questions’ as a more effective and pedagogically sounder means of confirming learner understanding.

3.2.11 2010 Language Awareness Program - Week 11

The numerous evaluative demands that would characterize weeks fourteen and fifteen of the program inevitably meant that our focus on the cross-linguistic teaching/learning materials would be skewed towards the earlier weeks of phase three - hence our coverage of ten areas of special focus during week eleven. An allocation of three classes, totalling five contact hours, permitted additional focuses on the constructs of ‘cross-linguistic language awareness’ and ‘cross-linguistic teacher language awareness’ at a meta-cognitive level and the methodological benefits of ‘concept questions’ (see appendix 11 for full program details).

I adopted an experiential learning approach in respect of the introduction to the use of ‘concept questions’ by having the participants select from multiple-choice responses to a series of model concept questions I had devised to demonstrate understanding of the sentence, ‘He hesitated briefly before jumping.’ In line with the program’s cross-linguistic dimension, we noted the utility of concept questions regardless of the (L1 or L2) medium of instruction. As with so much of the material introduced, uptake among the participants was evident. In a subsequent task involving the production of a targeted lesson plan, Ayako, focusing on the teaching of the ‘unreal’ conditional in L2 English, included the use of the following well-formulated concept questions in her pedagogical procedure (N.B.: ‘Doraemon’ is a Japanese animated character – a blue cat with magical powers):
We were indeed fortunate in having approximately twice the contact time available to us in phase three as compared with phase two. Nevertheless, the requirement to devote a significant amount of this to various reflective and evaluative tasks led to my decision to front-load our coverage of volume three of the WENS materials – ten areas of cross-linguistic language focus in week eleven, with a further eleven addressed in week twelve.

As the summary above indicates, week eleven of the program was marked by a significant amount of challenging instructional activity, in which a number of key areas of focus – both linguistic and meta-linguistic – were addressed. I have reproduced overleaf the WENS coverage of one (2907) of the ten materials references cited in the week eleven summary, in order to give the reader a representative flavour of the character and pedagogical focus of the instructional materials.

Materials reference 2907 addresses the L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage overuse/misuse of the intensifier ‘too’ at the expense of preferred L2 alternatives such as ‘very’, ‘really’ or ‘so’. Materials reference 2907 was not itself present as an item on the initial diagnostic and follow-up tests, but the language point of focus was, being represented by test item 1403. The L1 cue in respect of test item 1403 aims to elicit an L2 formulation along the lines of ‘I passed the test, but it was very difficult.’

Analysis of the initial diagnostic test revealed that seven of the nine participants produced the anticipated (pre-identified) error form. These results contrast markedly with those on the follow-up test, analysis of which in respect of item 1403 revealed that all nine of the participants were able to produce perfectly acceptable L2 translation equivalents. We may note, too, that additional interlanguage features addressed during the course of the program, such as the overuse of ‘could’ with one-off events in the past by Shoko, Shinsuke and Yuya and Koji’s misuse of the indefinite article on the initial diagnostic test, were successfully reformulated on the follow-up test.
こんにちは

日本人は「過ぎる」という言葉を日本語と同じように、英語でも使用します。
例）今日は暑すぎます！ → × It's too hot today！
これは人が多すぎます。→ × There are too many people here！
しかしこれは間違いであり、英語の「too -」には「抑制」の意味があるのであら。
正しい使い方は次の様になる。
例）I don't want to live in the Antarctic because it's too cold！
→ 南極に住みたくありません、なぜなら寒すぎるからです！

文法パズルを使って英文を4つ作ってみよう！
so / very / too / reallyの中で1つだけ意味の異なるものはどれでしょう？

・ the test.
・ I failed
・ difficult
・ but it was
・ so
・ because it was
・ I passed
・ the test
・ too
・ really
・ difficult

次の2つの英文にそれぞれ合うイラストはどちらでしょうか？

1. It's really hot.
2. It's too hot to play tennis.

A

B
では練習問題をやってみよう！
次の10のイラストをヒントに左右の英文を線でつないで正しい英文を作ってみよう！

I completed the marathon...  ...because I was too scared.

We didn’t go swimming in the sea in February...  ...but it was really crowded.

I went into the haunted house...  ...because it was too dangerous.

We didn’t go to the Kobe ‘Luminarie’...  ...but it was very tiring.

I dropped out of the marathon...  ...but it was so cold.

We didn’t climb the mountain at night...  ...but it was very dangerous.

We went to the Kobe ‘Luminarie’...  ...but I was really scared.

I didn’t go into the haunted house...  ...because it was too tiring.

We climbed the mountain at night...  ...because it was too cold.

We went swimming in the sea in February...  ...because it was too crowded.
• I passed the test, but it was very difficult.
• I passed the test, but it was really difficult.
• I passed the test, but it was so difficult.
• I failed the test because it was too difficult.
  (too has a different meaning from the others)

  • Picture A:  It’s really hot!
  • Picture B:  It’s too hot to play tennis!

• I completed the marathon, but it was very tiring.
  • We didn’t go swimming in the sea in February because it was too cold.
  • I went into the haunted house, but I was really scared.
  • We didn’t go to the Kobe Luminarie because it was too crowded.
  • I dropped out of the marathon because it was too tiring.
  • We didn’t climb the mountain at night because it was too dangerous.
  • We went to the Kobe Luminarie, but it was really crowded.
  • I didn’t go into the haunted house because I was too scared.
  • We climbed the mountain at night, but it was very dangerous.
  • We went swimming in the sea in February, but it was so cold.
The participants expressed extreme surprise in respect of many of the language points of focus addressed in week eleven, freely acknowledging that they were accustomed to using these pre-identified interlanguage forms as a matter of course, quite unaware of the semantic dissonance, the existence of preferred L2 alternatives or, indeed, the potential for pragma-linguistic failure inherent in certain of the interlanguage features.

Our meta-linguistic focus in week eleven encompassed an introductory exploration of the following four constructs:

- Language Awareness
- Teacher Language Awareness
- Cross-Linguistic Influence
- Cross-Linguistic Teacher Language Awareness

As an aid to understanding, I provided the participants with L1 Japanese translation equivalents in respect of these four constructs, courtesy of my Japanese colleague, Chiharu. We took the common L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage formulation ‘Yesterday I played tennis’, where the adverbial time reference is placed sentence-initially as in L1, as an example of cross-linguistic influence, and attempted to brainstorm possible consequences in terms of L2 production and learning of learners relying on direct L1-L2 translation, assigning either a ‘positive’ or ‘negative’ character to each of the identified consequences in turn.

In the event, this identification proved far from easy for the participants, and my initial reaction was that the task as constructed had perhaps been over-ambitious in respect of its cognitive demands – a conclusion supported by the hesitancy which marked the participants’ later responses to item number four in the ‘exit’ interview guide.

3.2.12 2010 Language Awareness Program - Week 12

The front-loading of our focus on the cross-linguistic teaching/learning materials continued, with eleven areas of special focus from volume three of the WENS materials addressed during week twelve (see appendix 12 for full program details).

I shall first set out some important background in respect of the program’s orientation to the study of L2 English pronunciation. The significant mediating role of the
Katakana syllabary was detailed in the earlier Literature Review, where it was noted that the Katakana syllabary functions as the de facto vehicle for the transcription of imported lexis and words of non-Japanese origin. Because the standard Katakana representation of non-Japanese lexis entails a degree of phonemic restructuring, this ‘Katakana-ization’ frequently produces rather awkward-sounding results, akin to a distortion of the original. However, this phenomenon largely stems from the ‘Japanization’ of non-Japanese lexis, rather than from deficiencies in the Kana system itself. This is because Kana are purely phonetic symbols – that is, they are written representations of pronunciation.

Various modifications to the basic sounds are made possible by the addition of diacritical marks and other symbols (Japanese: ‘dakuon’ and ‘handakuon’), as well as the use of combinations using lower case additions (Japanese: ‘you-on’). The ‘you-on’ principle has been extended, relatively recently, in an effort to express non-Japanese lexis with greater accuracy. It was my belief that this earlier extension represented a useful precedent, and I accordingly catalogued a series of modifications to the Katakana script, the systematic use of which in respect of the written representation of non-Japanese lexis would, I believed, result in a significantly closer phonetic approximation.

Based on my experience in the Japanese EFL context, I would informally estimate that only around five percent of learners have a good working command of the symbols of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) – the percentage among non-English learners could be expected to be even lower. We may additionally note that the IPA symbols for the notorious ‘problem pairs’ l/r, v/b and f/h are identical to the Roman letters – a fact which hardly assists us in our cause. When transcribing L2 English lexis the pronunciation of which I had modeled, I observed that the vast majority of my learners would instinctively use the Katakana syllabary, often pausing slightly so as to be sure of a reasonably accurate representative formulation.

I subsequently developed a series of pronunciation practice exercises based on the modifications to the Katakana syllabary I had catalogued, and incorporated these in the WENS teaching/learning materials for use on the language awareness program. Informal trialling of the exercises in Japan led me to anticipate favourable results. Moreover, I had compelling anecdotal evidence in respect of the efficacy of the
approach: A semi-professional L1 Japanese singer of Chansons of my acquaintance was awarded a special prize for her French-language renditions by the ‘Association Culturelle Franco-Japonaise’ at a prestigious national contest held in the Japanese city of Hamamatsu on September 23rd 2008. The achievement was all the more remarkable in view of the fact that the lady in question spoke not a word of French! Meticulous attention to aural input in the form of Edith Piaf CDs and the use of a suitably modified and extended Katakana transcription had allowed her to achieve an extremely close approximation of the sounds of an unfamiliar L2.

In addition to my confidence in the efficacy of the approach, two further factors served to justify the inclusion of an explicitly cross-linguistic pronunciation focus in the program, namely the participants’ unanimous identification on an informal week one needs analysis of ‘pronunciation’ as a key area for improvement, and the participants’ equal unanimity in favour of the retention of the Katakana script as a useful and highly-valued cultural artifact.

As a lead-in to the week twelve focus on pronunciation, I wrote the (familiar) standard Katakana version of the word ‘Louvre’ on the whiteboard and invited the participants to the whiteboard to write the Roman alphabet version. Of the nine attempts, three were fairly close, although none of the participants managed the correct spelling. We then posed for a group photo around the Katakana on the whiteboard and the accompanying nine L2 versions. This activity underlined the context-specific difficulties and created an immediate learning need, whereupon we turned our attention to materials reference 3604.

Our next focus was on one of the pronunciation practice activities from the WENS materials together with the accompanying test sheet – that addressing the notoriously problematic l/r distinction (materials reference: Katakana 5). Whilst it is often thought of as occupying a midway position equidistant from the English alveolar lateral ‘l’ and the palatal-alveolar approximant ‘r’, in terms of articulation the Japanese lateral is actually appreciably closer to the English alveolar lateral ‘l’. However, in both ‘romaji’ script and in written L2 representations of the L1 Kana syllabary, the Japanese lateral is habitually rendered as ‘r’. Crucially, the standard Katakana representations, given in the second column, would be used to represent both the L2 English minimal pair items appearing in the first and third columns. By modifying the
Katakana representations (column four), L1 Japanese learners may be assisted in their articulation of the English palatal-alveolar approximant ‘r’, and thus an appreciable distinction is effected in respect of the minimal pair items.

I again selected Ayako as representative for the reasons outlined earlier, and had her run through the articulation of the minimal pair items with the aid of the modified Katakana representations. We then turned our attention to the test sheet (materials reference: Katakana 6), which contained fifteen entirely new minimal pair items. Ayako was instructed to mentally (i.e. unannounced) select one of the items from each minimal pair to articulate. I focused my attention on a copy of the test sheet, and circled the item that I aurally (i.e. not visually) perceived Ayako to be articulating. Following each of my selections, Ayako indicated whether my selection was correct, i.e. whether I had circled the item that she had chosen to articulate. We were able to achieve a one-hundred percent match in respect of the fifteen minimal pairs, which was extremely gratifying. The activity was audio-recorded, although not strictly controlled in terms of experimental design. It would, however, very easily lend itself to replication under controlled experimental conditions if so desired.

With regard to our ongoing focus on the wider Japanese EFL context, I assigned the reading of an accessible photocopied journal article on appropriate L2 English models and L2 policy in the Japanese context, taken from IATEFL ‘Voices’, issue 199, Nov/Dec 2007, in preparation for an in-class discussion. In this connection, my research journal entry for Wednesday, July 14th 2010 records the following reflection:

\[
I \text{ have recently been toying with the idea of giving the participants the opportunity to ‘amend’ the L1 Japanese/L2 English interface issues worksheets which they completed ahead of the focus group session in week three, in light of their developing awareness.}
\]

In the event, I decided against this option. In addition to the constraints on available time, I thought it preferable that the participants regard the fifteen-week language awareness program as a point of departure for the ongoing consideration of contextual issues, rather than impute a spurious finality to the program’s conclusion. As one participant (Shinsuke) observed in respect of the issues raised by the week three focus group session:

*I’m wondering which (L2 English) model I have to aim for. I can’t solve this dilemma on this visit to the UK…This is the first time for me to think deeply about English education from the point of view of teachers. I’m going back to Japan with this dilemma.* (Shinsuke)

Data Source: Cognitive/Affective Responses to the Focus Group Interview, Shinsuke, 6.8.2010.

Little did I suspect that the sentiments expressed by Shinsuke above would, in time, prove highly significant in respect of the participants’ orientation to the program – on which point more will be said in the evaluative account of the program which follows this chapter.

Week twelve saw us identify July 28th 2010 (week fourteen, day three) as a suitable date for the second and final micro-teaching session, and I distributed a sample lesson plan, taken from Hedge (2000), for the participants to review in respect of both their assigned week twelve homework (see appendix 12) and their week fourteen micro-teaching preparation.

**3.2.13 2010 Language Awareness Program - Week 13**

An allocation of four classes totalling six and a half contact hours allowed us to combine our study of the cross-linguistic teaching/learning materials – now essentially complete ahead of the week fourteen follow-up test – with several other key areas of focus, including a look at various aspects of ‘classroom English’ and discussions centred on appropriate L2 English models and the idea of ‘English as a Lingua Franca’ (ELF) (see appendix 13 for full program details).

With phase three of the program well underway, I wanted to record a ‘snapshot’, as it were, of the experiential learning which had been a central aim of the program from
day one. I therefore selected week thirteen to have the participants engage with a printed worksheet on which they were to list ten of the interlanguage forms covered in the WENS materials which they themselves had routinely been producing prior to the program. In this way, I was hoping to obtain evidence of the participants’ developing (cross-linguistic) language awareness via what was essentially a self-analysis of their own interlanguage development.

In addition to recording a selection of previously used interlanguage forms and their preferred L2 reformulations, the participants were asked to record the perceived reasons underlying their initial use of the identified interlanguage forms. I shall provide details of one participant’s (Takashi) response in section 4.4 of the following chapter – the evaluative account of the participants’ L2 development.

Notable features of in-class activity in week thirteen included the discussion of ideas for a prospective ‘Hiroshima University Language Awareness Society’ as an ongoing means of extending and disseminating both a cross-linguistic and a wider sense of ‘language awareness’ post-program. My research journal entry for Friday, July 23rd 2010 records that:

The participants were given the task of coming up with ideas for such aspects as a name, a president, a venue, fundraising, educational activities, websites, events and so on, and were given forty-five minutes to put together a coherent plan, working in their 3x3 groups. The groups then presented their ideas to the rest of the class. It would be wonderful if we could make the idea of a Language Awareness society a reality at Hiroshima University as of 2010!


Following our focus on appropriate L2 models for the Japanese context in week twelve, I supplemented the initial article with a second, on English as a Lingua Franca, from the same journal source – this particular issue having ELF as its
principal theme of focus. These two articles together formed the basis for an in-class discussion.

My research journal recorded that the participants appeared generally sympathetic to the views expressed in the articles, these essentially calling for the promotion of a more pluralistic appreciation in respect of L2 target models. This therefore represented something of a shift in opinion, in view of the participants’ near unanimous initial identification of exclusively ‘Inner Circle’ native varieties as the appropriate (exonormative) targets.

Our week thirteen focus on WENS materials reference 2906 represented another example of an extension of the initial cross-linguistic focus to include (and develop) a greater L2-internal awareness. In the event, the focus raised as many questions – viewed from a World Englishes perspective – as it answered.

Again, a little cross-linguistic background: Japanese has a device – the addition of the suffix ‘suru’ – which instantly (and very conveniently for L2 Japanese learners) converts nouns to verbs, and countless Japanese verbs are constructed in this way. L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguages include numerous examples of L2 nouns (particularly if they happen to be loan-words) ‘erroneously’ used as verbs; prime examples being, ‘I will effort’ and ‘I can image’.

In addition to highlighting this phenomenon, unit 2906 draws learners’ attention to a selection of English nouns which are routinely used as verbs but which are conspicuously neglected in this respect in L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage(s) – ‘rain’, ‘snow’, ‘plan’ and ‘relax’ being prime examples.

With the aid of an article which I had taken off the internet, the participants thoroughly enjoyed experimenting with the possibilities offered by ‘verbing’ (proper) nouns, along the lines of ‘(to be) Bangalored’. Noting the general trend towards ‘verbing’ nouns within the wider context of ‘language change’ (think of ‘impact’, ‘evidence’ and ‘action’), we posed the question of whether ‘Japanese English’ was, in a sense, ahead of the curve in this respect - the phrase another collectable L2 by-product (the participants noted it down in their learning journals) of an initial cross-linguistic focus.
3.2.14 2010 Language Awareness Program - Week 14

The participants’ second and final micro-teaching demonstration, the follow-up (achievement) test, and a written program evaluation assignment comprised the principal elements of week fourteen of the program (see appendix 14 for full program details).

Week fourteen, then, saw the second micro-teaching practice session, in which connection my research journal entry for Monday, July 26th 2010 noted:

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This micro-teaching practice in a sense represents the culmination of Wright’s (2002) five-stage cycle for the design and sequencing of language awareness activities, designed to interconnect the ‘language user’, ‘language analyst’ and ‘language teacher’ roles in the context of an L2 teacher development program.

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Although the participants again made use of the four-point checklist for reflective lesson (self-) evaluation, as the summary above reveals, the language points selected and addressed in the participants’ second micro-teaching practice session were not the same as those selected and addressed in the first micro-teaching session (week ten) – a fact which precluded a focused like-with-like comparison between the two sessions. Although a sound case could no doubt be made for either approach, I took the view that, despite the opportunity cost, a formalizing of the evaluative aspect of the task was best avoided, given the considerable demands entailed by the participants’ overall workload. The micro-teaching occupied us for the entire pre-lunch session on July 28th 2010. The afternoon session was given over to the follow-up test – an ‘achievement’ test, designed to provide an indication of the extent to which the participants had succeeded in familiarizing themselves with program content. The test results were as follows, with initial test scores in the first set of parentheses and the initial/follow-up differences in the second:
Koji: 1576/1800 (1028/1800) (+548 or +30.4%)
Shunta: 1771/1800 (1038/1800) (+733 or +40.7%)
Ayako: 1717/1800 (1133/1800) (+584 or +32.4%)
Tomoya: 1769/1800 (1002/1800) (+767 or +42.6%)
Yuya: 1778/1800 (1159/1800) (+619 or +34.4%)
Takashi: 1626/1800 (1051/1800) (+575 or +31.9%)
Shinsuke: 1710/1800 (1055/1800) (+655 or +36.4%)
Yuriko: 1777/1800 (1205/1800) (+572 or +31.8%)
Shoko: 1631/1800 (1218/1800) (+413 or +22.9%)

The group average (mean) score on the follow-up test was 1706.1, as against a group mean score of 1098.8 on the initial test, giving a mean initial/follow-up difference of +607.3 or +33.7% for the group as a whole. Given that this was an ‘achievement’ test based squarely on program content, I was of course expecting a substantial increase in the test scores – and, indeed, I would have been disappointed had that not been the case. I was, however, surprised by the scale of the improvement in the scores, across the whole group (the range of scores narrowed slightly, from 216 on the initial test to 202 on the follow-up). Figure 13 overleaf graphically displays both the initial diagnostic and follow-up test scores, converted to percentage figures.

I set to work on the grading of the test papers almost immediately, as I wanted the participants to be aware of their follow-up test scores before they undertook the evaluative feedback assignment on July 30th 2010 (two days after the follow-up test). The elicitation of retrospective evaluative feedback from participants would, of course, be a standard feature of most such programs. The added research dimension in this case, however, informed my decision to allow for the incorporation of participants’ reactions to both their pre- and post-test performances in their evaluation of the program – an affordance which would have applied regardless of the post test scores. And indeed, one of the participants, Yuya, began his written assignment by explicitly referring to his performance on the follow-up test:

Now I’m writing this report with a sense of achievement. It may be because my last score was very good, but it is mostly because I managed to keep on studying your program, ‘Language Awareness’. From now I’ll answer my honest opinion against your questions... (Yuya)
Figure 13. Initial/Follow-Up Test Scores by Participant (Mean Scores Added):

Initial Test Score (%)  % Gain on Follow-Up

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<th>Initial Score</th>
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I checked through the participants’ evaluative responses in order to inform my lesson planning for the final week of the program, and additionally that I might notify my Japanese colleague Masaki, who was scheduled to conduct the nine one-to-one ‘exit’ interviews on August 2nd and 4th 2010, of any burning issues or particular topics that could potentially have a bearing on his line of questioning. The substantive content of these assignments, together with other evaluative contributions elicited in respect of the language awareness program, will be considered in detail in the evaluative account of the program which follows the current chapter.

3.2.15 2010 Language Awareness Program - Week 15

The program’s instructional and substantive content having been essentially covered by this stage, the nine one-to-one ‘exit’ interviews comprised the principal program element of week fifteen – a week which might fairly be characterized by the phrase ‘taking stock’ (see appendix 15 for full program details).

At the end of week fifteen, I estimated that the language awareness module had accounted for approximately twenty percent of the 2010 program’s total classroom contact time over the fifteen weeks. This represented, I believe, a significant slice of the instructional pie and was, in truth, more than I had dared hope for at the program’s outset or, indeed, at the program’s halfway stage. These sentiments reflect the negotiated, evolutionary nature of the composite program, and in this respect I owe Cheryl, the Warwick/Hiroshima Course Director, an added debt of gratitude.

The historic links that now exist between the cities of Coventry and Hiroshima meant that several of the participants were unable to attend the language awareness classes in week fifteen due to semi-official commitments. This, together with the fact that essential program material had, of necessity, been covered prior to the follow-up test the previous week gave something of a sub-optimal, end-of-term feel to week fifteen of the language awareness module in terms of its substantive content.

Given the light participant numbers, I decided to abandon the planned discussion, which was to be centred around some thought-provoking commentary on the Japanese EFL context, in favour of an informal question-and-answer session on issues arising
from the written feedback assignment, features of L2 English, and potential scenarios in respect of participants’ future professional practice.

We then reviewed the program, and turned our attention forwards to the extension of program content and the meaning and ongoing nature of a ‘language awareness approach’. The desirability of establishing some form of Language Awareness society at Hiroshima University was reiterated, and the setting up of a web-based interactive forum via which to link Warwick/Hiroshima teachers and learners was posited as a potentially rewarding project. The forward-looking orientation of these ideas suggests a longitudinal dimension in respect of the program content – a dimension with which it will be essential to engage if constructs such as ‘learning’ and ‘acquisition’ are to be operationalized and effectively monitored. In this connection, my research journal for week fifteen records the following entry, made in the final days of the program:
Having thus taken the reader inside the language awareness program module experience in order to detail its evolution, its content, and the manner in which a cross-linguistic awareness-raising focus was introduced into a particular ITE context as a key component of L2 teacher development, I shall now proceed to evaluate the
program module in accordance with the three-level framework set out in Figure 8 earlier.
Chapter Four:

Data Analysis, Part 2: 2010 Language Awareness Program

- An Evaluative Account

4.1 Introduction

In seeking to produce a comprehensive, multi-faceted evaluative account of the 2010 Language Awareness Program, I have selected the following seven aspects of the program as key areas for evaluative focus (Figure 14 overleaf):

- Participants’ L2 Language Development
- Participants’ Development as Pre-service TESOL Professionals
- Focus Group Interview
- Core Program Materials
- Integration 1: Language and L2 Methodology
- Integration 2: Program and Context
- Structure, Content, Balance

Following a brief examination of the quantitative aspect of the program evaluation, these seven aspects will be dealt with sequentially (as set out above) in three principal sections in order to address in turn the three component elements of the central research question, namely:

- Participants’ L2 language development
- Participants’ development as pre-service TESOL professionals
- Participants’ cognitive/affective responses to key elements and aspects of the program.

In order to achieve a critical level of transparency and fidelity in respect of the data, the analysis will feature selected extracts from the various evaluative responses where access to the unmediated contributions of the participants themselves is deemed to enrich the account. Indeed, the particular language used by the participants to express their evaluative reactions frequently added momentum to the analysis, provoked further reflection on my part or suggested particular themes and metaphors.
Figure 14. Program Aspects Selected for Evaluative Focus
As was detailed in the earlier Methodology chapter, the fact that the Hiroshima University participants were only eligible to attend one annual program at Warwick precluded the generation of valid measures of *comparative* program value. Rather, the evaluation was concerned to address the essential *worthwhileness* or otherwise of the module, given that the inclusion of a cross-linguistic language awareness component or module, or indeed any given component or module, within an L2 ITE/INSET program carries an opportunity cost in terms of an alternative component or module foregone.

Before proceeding, there is, I believe, a fundamental question which demands attention in respect of (generic) program evaluation: is it the singer, or the song? In this connection, the reader will have noted an absence from the program aspects for evaluation listed above. I have purposely not made evaluative reference to ‘quality of instruction’ or such like in the analysis which follows, and no evaluative feedback was sought from the program participants in this connection. The rationale in respect of this departure from what might be thought routine practice was my twofold intention to:

- Separate the primary focus on program content and design from issues of delivery.
- Underline the primacy of program content and design vis-à-vis the evaluative focus.

At this point I should like to explore briefly the metaphor of ‘the singer and the song’, wherein ‘the singer’ or ‘messenger’ is representative of the program instructor, and ‘the song’ or ‘message’ is representative of the program design and content. Yeats notwithstanding, such a de-personalizing of the evaluative analysis (i.e. the downplaying of instructor factors) permits and maintains an exclusive focus on the substantive qualities of ‘the song’, while implying that individual ‘singers’ (i.e. instructors), with their varying interpretive approaches and styles of delivery, will necessarily come and go over time. Approaches too, may be expected to vary with geographical location. This concern with substance as primary is, I believe, appropriate in view of the essentially instrumental character of the present case study inquiry.
Having said this, it is clearly unrealistic to remove entirely the teacher-mediated social-interactive dimension of the participants’ experience and evaluation of the program. While the participants’ program evaluations do not explicitly address my mediation of program content as an area of focus in its own right, a co-constructed critique of my role in respect of various aspects of program design and delivery does nevertheless emerge from my analysis of the participants’ response commentaries together with my own retrospective reflections on practice.

At various points throughout the analysis I shall make reference to the ‘rating deficit’ in order to pinpoint areas for (program) improvement from the perspective of the participants. The term ‘rating deficit’ refers to the difference between the program satisfaction rating given by each participant during the exit interviews and the maximum program satisfaction rating of 10.

4.2 A Quantitative ‘Bottom Line’: Participants’ Program Satisfaction Ratings

While the approach I have adopted here in respect of the evaluation of the 2010 Language Awareness Program is essentially qualitative, I nevertheless thought it desirable to elicit a quantitative measure of overall program satisfaction from each of the nine participants. These numerical ratings will, I believe, serve as useful reference points for the subsequent analysis by providing a common context within which to interpret the participants’ evaluative commentary. Accordingly, the participants were each invited to give a numerical overall program satisfaction rating out of ten - a rating of ten corresponding to complete satisfaction and a rating of one corresponding to complete dissatisfaction (no scale descriptors were provided; rather, ratings were left to the discretion of the individual participants) – this in response to item number three on the exit interview guide.

Figure 15 overleaf displays graphically the program satisfaction ratings given by the nine participants, which were, in descending order of magnitude:

- Ayako, 10/10
- Yuya, 9.5/10
- Yuriko, 9/10
- Shoko, 8/10
- Takashi, 8/10
Figure 15.
Participants’ Overall Program Satisfaction Ratings on a 1 – 10 Scale:

Broken line shows mean program satisfaction rating to the nearest 0.5
• Shunta, 7.5/10
• Tomoya, 7.5/10
• Koji, 7/10
• Shinsuke, 7/10

Data Source: Exit Interview, all participants, 2.8.2010 and 4.8.2010.

Aggregated, the above figures give an average (mean) program satisfaction rating of 8.167/10 for the group as a whole. The ordinal ranking of the participants’ program satisfaction ratings given above will then permit (visual) comparisons to be made with ordinal rankings of the participants in respect of a range of alternative variables - comparisons via which hypotheses may be explored and from which conclusions may be drawn regarding the degree of correspondence revealed or suggested as obtaining between the derived sets of ordinal rankings.

Figure 16 overleaf represents one such juxtaposition: here the ordinal ranking derived from the participants’ stated program satisfaction ratings is held up against the participants’ pre-/post- test improvement ranking – this, too, in descending order of magnitude. A visual comparison suggests a general lack of correspondence between the participants’ program satisfaction ratings and their relative pre-/post- test improvement, as evidenced by the degree to which the majority of the lines connecting the two sets of ordinal rankings depart from the horizontal. While there is a one-to-one correspondence in the case of Koji, we see that the participant who rated the program most highly – Ayako – only occupies a median position in the pre-/post-test improvement ranking. A similar disparity is evident in the relative rankings of Yuriko and Shunta, and even greater disparities are evident in the cases of Tomoya, Shinsuke and Shoko.

At the aggregate level of the group we may note that all nine participants recorded substantial quantitative pre-/post- test improvements (percentage gains ranged from 23% to 42%, with a mean percentage gain of 34%) and that all nine participants rated the program highly (the minimum satisfaction rating given was 7/10 and the maximum satisfaction rating given was 10/10, with a mean satisfaction rating of 8.167/10 for the group as a whole). However, at the intra-group level – the level of the individual participant – the lack of correspondence revealed in Figure 16 is
Figure 16. Participants’ Program Satisfaction Ratings (Left) and Pre-/Post-Test Improvement Ranking (Right)
interesting, and suggests, I believe, that the motivations underlying the relative program satisfaction ratings given by the participants lie well beyond the quantitative dimension. Might there be a variable (or variables) that we could identify as corresponding in some way to the relative program satisfaction ratings given by the nine participants? I shall be revisiting this idea – using the visual and conceptual heuristic offered by Figure 16 – in the light of a detailed evaluative analysis of the seven program aspects identified above.

As regards the central research question and its concern to elucidate the perceived value of this kind of program, the following extract taken from Takashi’s exit interview represents, I think, a welcome counterpart to the ‘dryness’ of the quantitative program satisfaction ratings. Takashi is seen as representative in that his stated program satisfaction rating of 8/10 was closest to the mean program satisfaction of the group as a whole:

Takashi: I’m very happy to have taken this program. My seniors at Hiroshima University never took this class, I think.

Interviewer: Yes, I think this was the first time here.

Takashi: I feel very special because there wasn’t a class like this before. I feel I’m advanced!

Data Source: Exit Interview, Takashi, 4.8.2010.

While acknowledging the potential here for a ‘novelty effect’ reading, in the absence of a dedicated ‘control’ Takashi’s remarks above do offer a valuable comparative orientation in respect of previous Hiroshima University trainee cohorts.

Having thus established an overall evaluative context by reviewing the participants’ program satisfaction ratings, it is to a detailed qualitative consideration of the seven principal program aspects that we now turn our attention. To reiterate, the various evaluative focuses will be covered sequentially under three main headings so as to reflect the ordering of the three component elements comprising the central research question.
4.3 Component # 1: Participants’ L2 Language Development

4.3 Evaluative Focus – Participants’ L2 Language Development

While the entire data corpus was of considerable relevance in addressing the question of the program’s efficacy in respect of the participants’ L2 development, the primary data set in this connection comprised participant responses in respect of question two on the exit interview guide: ‘Do you think your English has improved as a result of the language awareness program? If so, in what respect(s)?’, and question one on the written program evaluation cue sheet: ‘Has the language awareness program been relevant and helpful to you in terms of your needs as a Japanese learner of English?’ – this latter being reprised as question seven on the exit interview guide. While references to the core program materials will, of necessity, feature on occasion in this section of the account, the efficacy of the materials themselves with regard to program aims will be addressed in a later, separate section of the evaluation.

In addressing the question of the program’s efficacy in respect of participants’ L2 development, I shall essentially bypass the quantitative (achievement) gains recorded by the participants on the pre- and post-tests, which were detailed in the preceding chapter. The rationale for my avoiding this temptation – concerned principally with the difficulty of effectively isolating cause and effect for purposes of attribution - was set out in the earlier Methodology chapter, and so need not be rehearsed in detail here. Related concerns over the ability to reliably operationalize L2 proficiency gains (i.e. acquisition) in the short-term have, therefore, led me to base my assessment upon the subjective evaluative accounts of the program participants themselves.

One further point concerns the precise instructional remit of the program: The 2010 Language Awareness Program was centred primarily on awareness-raising in respect of the cross-linguistic dimension (i.e. prototypical features of L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage(s)), and therefore involved a significant amount of contrastive restructuring of pre-existing L2 representations where these were felt to deviate from target norms which the participants, as learners within the Japanese EFL context, would likely aspire to approximate (i.e. there was an undeniable remedial component to the program’s instructional focus). To draw an analogy: just as when attempting to solve a moveable-squares puzzle or when navigating one’s way through a maze, one must from time to time move sideways or even retrace one’s steps in order for the
desired forward progress to be achieved. I felt the fact that the program participants, in addition to being L2 learners, were also L2 ITE trainees, further strengthened the rationale for an approach emphasizing a cognitive awareness and restructuring of L2 interlanguage. When it comes to the participants’ L2 development, I therefore take the view that the program should be evaluated on its own terms in accordance with this circumscribed instructional remit.

‘Awareness’(-raising), being a necessary prerequisite for mental L2 restructuring and the subsequent transition through stages of interlanguage development, would appear to be a natural point of departure for an analysis centred on program L2 learning outcomes. Indeed, ‘awareness’, noticing’ and ‘realization’ together comprise one of the principal themes to emerge from the evaluative feedback in this connection. The entry in the previous chapter detailing the instructional focuses of week thirteen of the program alluded to the ten-item worksheet which the participants were asked to complete in respect of their interlanguage development.

Quoted below are the responses, amended only for grammaticality, given by Takashi, representing an example of one participant’s developing (cross-linguistic) language awareness in respect of his own developing interlanguage. The responses provided by the other eight participants were of a similar nature to those given by Takashi, which are therefore seen as representative of the group. We may note in passing that Takashi’s pre-/post-test improvement, at 31.9%, was marginally below the group mean figure of 33.7%, and that Takashi’s program satisfaction rating of 8/10 corresponded with the mean program satisfaction rating for the group as a whole.

The ten items identified were as follows:

- **IL form #1 identified:**
  - *Why do you know that?*

- **L2 reformulation:**
  - *How did you know that?*

Reason cited:
- I translated it directly. In Japanese, ‘doushite’ could be ‘naze’, and usually ‘naze’ is translated as ‘why’.

IL form #2 identified:

- As I told you before

L2 reformulation:

- As I mentioned earlier

Reason cited:

- I didn’t know it was impolite.

IL form #3 identified:

- I was stolen my bag.

L2 reformulation:

- I had my bag stolen.

Reason cited:

- Must be from direct translation. ‘Sareru’ is passive. When we Japanese hear ‘sareru’, we first think it must be a passive sentence.

IL form #4 identified:

- I gained my weight.

L2 reformulation:

- I’ve put on weight.

Reason cited:

- I thought it was right.

IL form #5 identified:

- I have ever been to Hawaii.
L2 reformulation:

- I’ve been to Hawaii.

Reason cited:

- I learned this in my junior high school.

IL form #6 identified:

- I’d love to go to your wedding.

L2 reformulation:

- I’d love to come to your wedding.

Reason cited:

- It’s difficult for Japanese people to use ‘go’ and ‘come’ properly. Both of them can be ‘iku’ in Japanese.

IL form #7 identified:

- I was moved.

L2 reformulation:

- It was moving. / I was touched. / I was impressed.

Reason cited:

- I thought it was used in every case – I mean we Japanese don’t use them depending on the themes.

IL form #8 identified:

- The party was interesting.

L2 reformulation:

- The party was fun.

Reason cited:
We had the idea that ‘omoshiroi’ = ‘interesting’.

IL form #9 identified:

- Example Question: Haven’t you been to the moon? Answer: Yes.

L2 reformulation:

- Example Question: Haven’t you been to the moon? Answer: No.

Reason cited:

- This is a serious problem for Japanese learners. I already knew this information, but when I am asked, affected by Japanese, I need a few seconds to answer.

IL form #10 identified:

- I could take lots of pictures.

L2 reformulation:

- I took lots of pictures.

Reason cited:

- Affected by Japanese, we tend to put ‘dekita’ in past sentences.

Data Source: Interlanguage Development Worksheet, Takashi, 22.7.2010.

Analysis revealed three principal factors underlying Takashi’s production of these ten interlanguage forms prior to the program:

1. What might be termed a ‘lack of awareness’ was cited in respect of IL forms #2, #4, #7
2. Direct translation from L1 was cited in respect of IL forms #1, #3, #6, #8, #9, #10
3. The inducing of error by elements of the instructional context – identified as a factor in the earlier Literature Review – was cited in respect of IL form #5

The substantial gains achieved by all nine participants on the post-test indicated an enhanced ability to produce – in the overt presence of L1 stimuli – L2 forms more
closely approximating those forms that a majority of native speakers would likely produce and/or recognize as standard, that is, as enjoying a relatively wide (trans-contextual) currency. To aid the reader in relating this awareness-raising/restructuring to the participants’ evaluative commentary in the analysis which follows, we may note that it is to these reformulations that the participants are referring when they speak of ‘natural English’ and the like, and it is to their context-specific sociolect that they are referring when they speak of ‘Japanese English’, ‘unnatural English’ and the like.

Many of these references were, in fact, expressed in rather categorical terms – as the following examples illustrate:

*I really want to avoid speaking Japanese English as much as possible, and I want to speak English naturally like native speakers.* (Ayako)


*I think it’s better for us to speak English like Americans or British people. Any native English-speaking countries are fine, because English is not our language, so we should learn it from native people. I don’t like ‘Japanese English’. My English is still ‘Japanese English’, so I really want to improve my English skills.* (Shunta)

Data Source: Participant Cognition Worksheet, Shunta, 4.5.2010.

Significantly, certain of the attitudes and avowedly teleological orientations expressed by the participants in this connection would subsequently come to be revised in the light of the program’s wider awareness-raising brief – on which point more will be said in due course.

In order to flesh out the quantitative data and give the reader a flavour of the quality of the participants’ attested L2 development, I shall cite two examples below (drawn from the one hundred and eighty initial/follow-up test items). Materials reference 2907 – highlighted in the preceding narrative account of the program module - addresses the L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage overuse/misuse of the intensifier ‘too’ at the expense of preferred L2 alternatives such as ‘very’, ‘really’ or ‘so’. Materials reference 2907 was not itself present as an item on the initial diagnostic and
follow-up tests, but the language point of focus was, being represented by test item 1403. The L1 cue in respect of test item 1403 aims to elicit an L2 formulation along the lines of ‘I passed the test, but it was very difficult.’ Analysis of the initial diagnostic test revealed that seven of the nine participants produced the anticipated (pre-identified) error form as follows:

- I passed the exam, but it was too difficult. (Yuriko)
- I could pass the exam, but it was too difficult. (Shoko)
- I passed the examination, but it was too difficult. (Takashi)
- Although I could pass the exam, it was too difficult. (Shinsuke)
- I could pass the exam, but it was too difficult. (Yuya)
- I passed the exam, but it was very difficult. (Shunta)
- I passed the exam, but it was too difficult. (Tomoya)
- I passed an exam, but it was difficult for me. (Koji)
- I passed the exam, but it was too difficult. (Ayako)

Data Source: Initial (diagnostic) Test, all participants, 28.4.2010.

These results contrast markedly with those on the follow-up test, analysis of which in respect of item 1403 revealed that all nine of the participants were able to produce perfectly acceptable L2 translation equivalents as follows:

- I passed the exam, but it was really difficult. (Yuriko)
- I passed the exam, but it was very difficult. (Shoko)
- I passed the exam, but the test was very difficult. (Takashi)
- I passed the exam but it was really difficult. (Shinsuke)
- I passed the test, but it was really difficult. (Yuya)
- I passed the exam, but it was really difficult. (Shunta)
- I passed the test, but it was really difficult. (Tomoya)
- I passed the exam, but it was really difficult. (Koji)
- I passed the exam, but it was very difficult. (Ayako)

Data Source: Follow-Up (achievement) Test, all participants, 28.7.2010.

We may note, too, that additional interlanguage features addressed during the course of the program, such as the overuse of ‘could’ with one-off events in the past (the
semelfactive) by Shoko, Shinsuke and Yuya and Koji’s misuse of the indefinite article on the initial diagnostic test, were successfully reformulated on the follow-up test. Item 1115 constitutes another example drawn from the initial/follow-up test data in which the participants were able to demonstrate their increased command of semantic, as opposed to purely stylistic aspects of L2 English. Analysis of the initial diagnostic test revealed the widespread presence of the anticipated (pre-identified) interlanguage form – the misuse of ‘popular’ at the expense of ‘common’ - as follows in respect of the frequency within the Japanese population of the surname ‘Sato’:

- *The name ‘Sato’ is popular in Japan.* (Ayako)
- *The name ‘Sato’ is famous in Japan.* (Koji)
- ‘Sato’ is a famous name in Japan. (Yuriko)
- ✓ ‘Sato’ is very common name in Japan. (Shoko)
- ‘Sato’ is popular name in Japan. (Tomoya)
- ‘Sato’ is popular name in Japan. (Yuya)
- ‘Sato’ is a popular name in Japan. (Takashi)
- ✓ There are many ‘Sato’ in Japan. (Shinsuke)
- ✓ ‘Sato’ is a popular name in Japan. (Shunta)

Data Source: Initial (diagnostic) Test, all participants, 28.4.2010.

These results contrast markedly with those on the follow-up test, analysis of which in respect of test item 1115 revealed that all nine of the participants were able to produce perfectly acceptable L2 translation equivalents in the overt presence of the identical L1 cue as follows:

- ✓ ‘Sato’ is a common name in Japan. (Ayako)
- ✓ ‘Sato’ is a common name in Japan. (Shunta)
- ✓ ‘Sato’ is a common name in Japan. (Yuya)
- ✓ ‘Sato’ is a common name in Japan. (Shinsuke)
- ✓ ‘Sato’ is a common name in Japan. (Yuriko)
- ✓ ‘Sato’ is a common name in Japan. (Shoko)
- ✓ ‘Sato’ is common in Japan. (Koji)
- ✓ ‘Sato’ is common in Japan. (Takashi)
In passing, we may note also the improvement in the participants’ article usage – appearing in association with all eight formulations containing the noun ‘name’ on the follow-up test.

In line with the pre-/post-test gains, all nine participants felt that the program had been effective in raising their awareness of the disparities between the context-specific sociolect and varieties of English for which many learners in the Japanese EFL context would express a preference and to which they would aspire (see participant commentary above). The following extracts selected from the participants’ evaluative feedback commentary are representative of the entire group in this connection:

...thanks to this class ... I could be aware of my poor English and change it into natural English. I think awareness of our mistakes is the most important and best way to learn English, and this class and the textbooks always let me notice my mistakes. I can see the progress of my English and most of the progress comes from this class and the textbooks, so it’s definitely helpful and useful for me as a learner of English... (Ayako)

Your lessons were really useful for me because I found that I used English which was influenced by Japanese, and lots of grammar or conversation style I learned in my junior high or high school was unnatural or wrong for native speakers. (Yuriko)

Through the program, we’ve learned lots of mistakes Japanese English learners tend to make. We, as learners of English, found that the English taught in Japan is not always the perfect, ideal English, and there’s a big difference (in terms of language) between Japanese and English, and the best way to learn English might be to deal with both languages. We’ve studied English for more than six years. However, we didn’t know lots of things (lots of differences). This program was really helpful to me ... as a Japanese learner of English. (Takashi)
The three extracts above introduce several key points and exhibit a number of notable features – for example, the participants’ identified gains in terms of awareness are clearly attributed to the program’s focus. It transpired, however, that Ayako’s unequivocal identification of L2 progress and her equally unequivocal attribution of this progress to the language awareness program were not shared by the entire group.

Drawing on personal observations from the language awareness classes, the previous chapter alluded on several occasions to the non-linearity of the L2 acquisition process. My research journal entry for May 7th 2010 (week two, day five) records an instance wherein, as the conversation turned to the subject of food, Ayako was heard to say ‘Just I wanted to eat KFC!’ – mirroring the L1 Japanese placing of the adverb sentence-initially – barely twenty minutes after Shoko had given a mini presentation on the contrasting L1 Japanese/L2 English placement of the adverb ‘just’! Instantly realizing her ‘sin’, Ayako laughed out loud as she self-corrected. I later made a point of checking the photocopy of Ayako’s learning journal entries for the day in question, which confirmed that she had duly and meticulously noted down the details of Shoko’s language point presentation:

- X Just I wanted to relax. » I just wanted to relax.

Koji made the point well during his exit interview, bringing out the distinction between ‘awareness’ and ‘acquisition’:

Koji: *For example, when I want to say ‘Doushite shitteru no?’ I always tended to say ‘Why do you know that?’ It was wrong and I’ve learned to say ‘How did you know that?’*

Interviewer: I see. So do you think you can now express what you want to say in more correct English?

Koji: Yes.

Interviewer: *Do you think your English has improved thanks to Neil’s language awareness program?*
Koji: English ability... I cannot say ‘yes’ at this stage. I have to study more and learn everything, and I hope I can use it ... Even though I study the expressions from the textbook, it does not mean I’ve learned them unless I use them.

Data Source: Exit Interview, Koji, 4.8.2010.

It was, incidentally, the unavoidable presence of these nuanced distinctions which led me to prefer the umbrella term ‘L2 development’ in respect of this facet of the evaluative focus – a preference reflected in the title of this section of the chapter.

When the participants were asked for a self-evaluation in respect of identifiable L2 improvement (i.e. gains in their L2 proficiency attributable to the language awareness program), there was a fair amount of intra-group variation, ranging from positive affirmatives to doubtful equivocation. While the former were of course very welcome, I must concede that the equivocation was unlikely to be due solely to the inherent modesty of the Japanese, but rather reflected genuine uncertainties.

In the following extract taken from Yuriko’s exit interview, we can similarly identify ‘awareness’ as merely the initial stage in the acquisition process:

Interviewer: Has the language awareness program helped your English to improve?

Yuriko: Well ... (long pause) I think so.

Interviewer: For example?

Yuriko: Neil taught me useful expressions used by native speakers. We could not learn these kinds of expressions in Japan. I used some of them.

Interviewer: With your host family?

Yuriko: Yes, with my host family and with the other Hiroshima students.

Interviewer: I see ... You still seem to be wondering if you’ve really improved your English or not...

Yuriko: Yeah. I’m not sure whether my English has improved...

Data Source: Exit Interview, Yuriko, 4.8.2010.
In addition to revealing similar uncertainties to those expressed by Koji with regard to L2 improvement, the extract above introduces the participants’ wider interactions involving language awareness program content – for example, with the participants’ host families - as an additional element in the acquisition process. The following extract, taken from Shunta’s exit interview, highlights the potential which existed for practical application of language awareness program content within the immediate social context:

Interviewer: *So, how was the language awareness program?*

Shunta: *It was very useful… for daily life as well, and actually, I used the phrases I learnt in the program to communicate with my host family.*

Interviewer: *Oh, did you? So it was useful in a practical way?*

Shunta: *Yes.*

Data Source: Exit Interview, Shunta, 2.8.2010.

I shall expand on the significance of these interactions in the later section dedicated to the integration of the language awareness program with the wider (learning) context. The last two extracts above are additionally significant in that they make reference (explicit in the case of Yuriko, implicit in the case of Shunta) to the instructional (i.e. Japanese EFL) context and the participants’ prior learning experiences. My familiarity with the Japanese EFL context had allowed the incorporation of numerous L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage features in the program materials which I believed were likely induced and perpetuated by elements of this instructional context. This kind of awareness-raising and the concomitant call for mental restructuring in respect of participants’ prior L2 learning may be expected to result – at least initially – in a degree of disorientation, as existing certainties are called into question. As the following extract from Yuya’s exit interview reveals, this was indeed the case:

*Personally, I wanted to be positive in everything while studying here. Some of my friends were shocked to know that many of the phrases that they had been using with confidence were actually incorrect or unnatural, but I was rather happy to find this out.* (Yuya)

Data Source: Exit Interview, Yuya, 2.8.2010.
At this point in the analysis I ask the reader to recall my earlier (initially speculative, but subsequently supported by separate data sources) intimation that the participants’ evaluative responses were in some way reflective of underlying personality factors, and to bear with me as I set out an analytical framework based on the participants’ apparent orientation to uncertainty. In developing this framework, I have drawn on Hofstede’s (2001) concept of ‘uncertainty avoidance’ (or, put another way, ‘tolerance of ambiguity’), the former term defined by Hofstede (2001: xix) as: ‘the extent to which a culture programs its members to feel either uncomfortable or comfortable in unstructured situations’. Hofstede measures this extent via the calculation of an Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI): a high UAI value corresponds to a low tolerance of ambiguity, and vice versa. Hofstede’s analysis (2001:151) accords Japan, as a country, a particularly high UAI value - although it should be noted that an individual’s tolerance of ambiguity may vary considerably around the national mean value (Hofstede, 2001:159).

Figure 17 overleaf sets out four posited states which I see as potentially applying generically in respect of participants in educational/developmental programs:

- Resolution (in the sense of reaching, not making, a resolution)
- Openness
- Doubt
- Cynicism

These are represented as four quadrants in a matrix, positioned according to various combinations of the degree of certainty experienced by participants (certain/uncertain) and their orientation (positive/negative) to program content. I should emphasize that these four states are not intended as formal psychological categories, and should not be regarded as such; rather they are intuitive, retrospective perceptions arising from my personal experience as a program provider, and are offered here – informally – in that spirit.

In practice, the four states represented by the four quadrants are not necessarily separate, but rather are linked and blended via subtle gradations of feeling. The states represented by the four quadrants are seen as applying at the aggregate (whole program) level, or in respect of particular aspects of the program or program content.
Matrix illustrating four posited (generic) program-final participant states, located along the two dimensions:

- Degree of Certainty Experienced (horizontal axis) and
- Orientation to Program Content (vertical axis)

The participant states represented by the four quadrants may apply at the aggregate level (whole program), or in respect of particular aspects of the program or program content.
Drawing on selected insights offered by Hofstede (2001) in this connection, I shall make ongoing reference to aspects of this ‘uncertainty orientation matrix’ as an analytical framework via which to elaborate my interpretation of the participants’ evaluative feedback commentary.

The uncertainty orientation matrix – as an analytical framework – developed therefore out of my thematic analyses of the participants’ evaluative responses to various aspects of the 2010 language awareness program. Shinsuke’s evaluative response data, for example, featured repeated references to ‘dilemma’, together with a notable (and unique within the data set) absence of positive cognitive and affective feedback. Shinsuke’s responses were characterized by a high level of uncertainty coupled with a non-positive orientation, suggesting a positioning somewhere in or near the quadrant labeled ‘Doubt’. By contrast, the evaluative responses given by Takashi, while also characterized by uncertainty, were coupled with a distinctly positive orientation, suggesting a positioning in or near the quadrant labeled ‘Openness’.

When we factor in considerations of ambiguity tolerance, we see that a participant’s orientation (positive/negative) towards (aspects of) program content will likely be at least partially determined by the degree to which that individual is either comfortable or uncomfortable in the presence of uncertainty. And this, I think, takes us to the very heart of the matter, for, beyond supplying the participants with (near) definitive native speaker (re)formulations as a response to an identified demand, the 2010 language awareness program raised at least as many questions as it answered. Indeed, one could argue that, beyond a certain (informational) point, the raising of questions, the interrogation of hitherto uncharted or unexplored issues and the fostering of an autonomous, inquisitive mentality in participants constitute central functions of programs concerned with awareness of language in its many aspects.

Returning to the program evaluation in respect of the participants’ (self-perceived) L2 development, we can clearly sense the uncertainties lurking just beneath the surface in this extract taken from Tomoya’s (program satisfaction rating: 7.5/10) exit interview:

Interviewer: I think you said it (i.e. the LA program content) is useful as knowledge, right? Does that mean it is the first step before actual communication and useful to consolidate your knowledge in your mind?
Tomoya: *I think so. And the further question is whether I can really speak...*

Interviewer: *And it was useful to consolidate your knowledge before actual speaking?*

Tomoya: *Yes. As knowledge, I think it was good.*

Data Source: Exit Interview, Tomoya, 2.8.2010.

Again, we may appreciate the contrast, in terms of the degree of certainty expressed, with the following extracts taken from Yuya’s (program satisfaction rating: 9.5/10) and, first, Ayako’s (program satisfaction rating: 10/10), evaluative feedback:

*I can see the progress of my English and most of the progress comes from this language awareness class and the textbooks, so it’s definitely helpful and useful for me as a learner of English...* (Ayako)


Interviewer: *So, what accounts for your (program satisfaction) rating of nine or ten?*

Yuya: *Well, I studied here for fifteen weeks and it was the best or second best class here because, as I mentioned, I could actually notice, in speaking and writing, my English improving. And also, I really enjoyed it. And probably, because I could be positive, I learnt a lot...*

Data Source: Exit Interview, Yuya, 2.8.2010.

Viewed within the framework of the uncertainty orientation matrix, the two extracts above would place both Ayako and Yuya in the ‘Resolution’ quadrant, characterized as they are by higher levels of certainty coupled with an unambiguously positive orientation to the language awareness program content. A distinct lack of certainty and a discernable non-positive orientation by contrast characterize Shinsuke’s (program satisfaction rating: 7/10) exit interview response in respect of his personal L2 development:

Interviewer: *Do you think your English has improved thanks to the language awareness classes?*
Shinsuke: I don’t know. All I can see is I noticed that my English is not correct.

Data Source: Exit Interview, Shinsuke, 4.8.2010.

The research sub-question is concerned with the possibility of effecting a transition from a state of teacher-dependent language awareness to a state of autonomous language awareness. Related to this is, I think, my desire that an initial focus on the cross-linguistic dimension might then serve as a ‘way in’, as it were, to a more general awareness of language and result in increased levels of L2-internal awareness among the participants. Study skills such as the effective use of dictionaries have an important role to play in this connection, and I accordingly made a point of highlighting the benefits of consulting a dictionary to confirm L2 spellings wherever L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage confusables, such as ‘l’ and ‘r’, were involved (a targeted dictation exercise, in addition to my examination of participants’ general written output, had confirmed this as a significant issue for these participants).

The program strategy of regularly highlighting the fact of essentially unitary L1 Japanese forms having a plurality of L2 English translation equivalents and the concomitant need to effectively differentiate these was designed (in part) to enable a move from an initial cross-linguistic focus to an L2-internal engagement. The following extract from Shoko’s exit interview is notable both for revealing Shoko’s developing appreciation of the need to supplement a cross-linguistic treatment by due engagement with the internal complexity of L2 and for providing clear evidence of Shoko’s developing autonomy as a language-aware learner:

    Shoko: I used to use English-Japanese dictionaries, but now I don’t want to rely on them.

Interviewer: Oh! So now...?

    Shoko: English-English. You know, there are many words we cannot translate into Japanese, right?

Interviewer: Yes.

    Shoko: But still we have been trying to describe things in Japanese, and not many Japanese people notice what they are doing. Many people think Japanese and English words always match perfectly!
In terms of its wider relevance, the participants’ feedback highlighted the program’s cross-linguistic awareness-raising potential as being particularly valuable for L1 Japanese learners – essentially by helping to bridge the gap between the sociolect and ‘standard’ varieties which enjoy a far wider currency. This aspect of the evaluation was welcome, if unsurprising, given that the program content was premised on the identification of attested context-specific, common denominator L2 output. Indeed, Ayako and Shoko both referred to this element of experiential commonality as evidence for the extended relevance of the 2010 program content within the context of focus:

All of us found it useful and helpful, so it must be helpful for others as well, especially in the Japanese EFL context. (Ayako)


This program would be relevant and helpful for all Japanese learners of English because we Japanese learners of English make mostly the same mistakes where our English is influenced by Japanese. (Shoko)


There was, however, some evidence of intra-group variation. Beyond the utilitarian awareness-raising function, Shinsuke felt that the relevance of program content would likely depend on the precise purpose of study. In a similar vein, Tomoya and Shunta identified existing syllabus constraints as potentially limiting the application of 2010 program content to a relatively narrow range of L2 learning contexts. During the exit interviews, the participants were encouraged to nominate the group – ‘L2 learners’, ‘in-service L2 teachers’ or ‘pre-service L2 teachers’ – that they believed would potentially benefit most from the 2010 program content. A majority of the participants held the view that, all things considered, ‘L2 learners’ would be the group to benefit most. However, as the following extract illustrates, an appreciation of the ‘teachers as learners’ duality was very much in evidence:

Interviewer: Is the language awareness program useful for in-service teachers, pre-service teachers and learners of English in Japan?
Ayako: Yes, especially for learners.

Interviewer: Is that because they can notice the Japanese English they use unconsciously?

Ayako: Yes.

Interviewer: So, out of the three, those who would gain most benefit would be learners?

Ayako: Uh, for future teachers and in-service teachers, as they are also English learners, so it is of course useful for them too.

Data Source: Exit Interview, Ayako, 2.8.2010.

Having identified the participants’ orientation to uncertainty as a potentially rich thematic vein, I was drawn to Shoko’s (exit interview) observations in respect of intra-L2 semantic differentiation:

*I had very ambiguous English awareness.* (i.e. pre-program) (Shoko)

...actually, these ambiguous things are my weak point when it comes to English, which I don’t like. (Shoko) N.B: Reference is to the ambiguities, not to English!

Data Source: Exit Interview, Shoko, 2.8.2010.

Shoko provided the following example, and simultaneously made the case for the wider relevance of language awareness:

Shoko: For example, take ‘sukoshi’. We learnt (in the language awareness program) it can be translated as ‘fairly’ with positive associations and ‘a little’ with negative associations.

Interviewer: Oh, exactly – I never thought of that!

Shoko: I had never seen English in that way and I thought that we could just use them interchangeably. If I had known this when I was in junior or senior high school, I think I would have tried to learn more about English. I think – probably – Japanese people cannot learn English well because we don’t do language
It would appear that Shoko is advocating what Bolitho et al (2003) refer to as a ‘language awareness approach’ to L2 learning. The key point here – one which Shoko intuitively appreciates in respect of the Japanese EFL context – is that it must necessarily be a bilingual, i.e. a cross-linguistic language awareness approach. The introduction of ‘approaches’ and the ‘teachers as learners duality’ into the discussion signals an appropriate point at which to move the focus on from participants’ L2 development to an evaluative analysis of the program’s contribution in respect of participants’ professional development as pre-service L2 instructors.

**4.4 Component # 2: Participants’ Development as Pre-service TESOL Professionals**

**4.4 Evaluative Focus – Participants’ Professional Development**

The following exit interview exchange serves to confirm the central place that experiential learning warrants within L2 ITE programs:

**Interviewer:** *As a future teacher, were the language awareness classes useful?*

**Koji:** *I really cannot distinguish between as a ‘learner’ and as a ‘future teacher’.*

Data Source: Exit Interview, Koji, 4.8.2010.

There was general – though not universal – acknowledgement among the participants regarding the relevance and utility of the 2010 program in terms of meeting their needs as pre-service L2 instructors in the Japanese EFL context. I was, I confess, somewhat surprised and, if I am honest, (as a practitioner) a little disappointed at falling short of absolute unanimity in this regard. As a researcher, I comforted myself with the thought that a plurality of evaluative responses was perhaps more likely to yield meaningful insights – or, to put it in slightly less academic terms: if everyone is thinking the same way, then no-one is thinking. As a practitioner, I took solace in the fact that the 2010 language awareness program represented a genuine innovation, and, were I to teach the program again, appreciation of its relevance in respect of L2
professional development would, I feel sure, be (even) greater as a result of adjustments made in light of the (2010) participants’ evaluative feedback commentary.

For the majority of the participants, the link between the 2010 language awareness program content and their needs as pre-service EFL instructors was very evident. The logic essentially runs as follows:

- The program has been highly relevant to our needs as L1 Japanese learners of English, as we have encountered a great many of the features of our own interlanguages.
- Since we are, as it were, ‘products’ of the Japanese EFL context, these same interlanguage features will be (indeed, we know them to be) prevalent among a majority of the EFL learners in that same context.
- As teachers armed with a degree of awareness in this regard, we will be relatively well-positioned to guide our future learners’ L2 development by anticipating and addressing these shared interlanguage features.

The following selection of comments offers a representative sample of the participants’ own expressions of this line of reasoning:

*As a teacher, we have to know what students need, which points are difficult for Japanese learners of English. Of course, I’ve been studying English for more than six years, so I know some difficult points for Japanese learners. However, it was a really good opportunity for us, as trainee teachers, to learn how Japanese people make mistakes, and what causes them to make these mistakes ... It’s very, very useful as a learner and also as a trainee teacher. I know these things now, so I can teach students these things in the future.* (Takashi)


*I don’t want my future students to make the same mistakes that I made.* (Koji)

Data Source: Exit Interview, Koji, 4.8.2010.

In addition to explicitly reiterating the link between current learning and future teaching, Takashi freely concedes that the participants’ pre-program L2 awareness
was likely below the presumed threshold level for professional L2 instructional practice:

*I knew some of the language points. But even a group whose members want to be English teachers doesn’t know well about English! The language awareness class helped us notice that we don’t know English well enough ... I can connect what I’ve learned here with my future teaching ... I can respond to my students’ needs.*

(Takashi)

Data Source: Exit Interview, Takashi, 4.8.2010.

This, then, was the majority view. There were, however, one or two dissenting voices to be heard. Just as the relevance of the language awareness program content to L2 learning was seen by Shinsuke and Shunata as likely being conditional upon factors such as purpose of study, its relevance in respect of L2 professional practice was regarded (as a corollary) as dependent upon instructional focus by these two participants. Tomoya, for his part, appeared unable and/or unwilling to make the necessary connections in terms of relevance to future practice (i.e. via mediation) alluded to in the extracts quoted above. As examples of this, consider the following extracts from the evaluative response data:

*Of course, the language awareness program was really helpful to me as a Japanese learner of English, but when it comes to my needs as a trainee teacher in the Japanese EFL context, I prefer learning teaching methods to learning language awareness. I learned a lot of things, and I also got an award (for the largest pre-/post-test gain), but I’m not sure whether it’s useful for my future as an English teacher in Japan or not.*

(Tomoya)


*I’m not sure whether it (i.e. the language awareness program) is useful and helpful or not in terms of my teaching skills. Of course, what I learned will be helpful for my future, but is it true? I’m not sure. What I can only say now is that I enjoyed this program...* (Tomoya)

These extracts clearly reveal evidence of uncertainty. Tomoya’s apparent reluctance, unwillingness, or possibly even inability to connect program content to future practice for himself may have been a consequence of another feature revealed by the extracts (a feature, incidentally, shared by Shinsuke and evident elsewhere in the feedback response data): his tendency to separate out and compartmentalize aspects – for example, ‘teaching methods’; ‘teaching skills’ - which most of the other participants identified and accepted as being integrated (though implicitly so) within the ongoing co-construction of the language awareness program. There was a sense, too, that Tomoya viewed L2 methodology as a unitary, reified entity capable of being transmitted and received (by trainee teachers), ready for instant application in the L2 classroom. It appears, then, that cognitive background and learner expectations may well have played a formative role in this regard.

In his exit interview, Tomoya observed that language awareness and L2 methodology are indeed complementary, but it appears he was unable to trace the methodological aspects within the 2010 language awareness program. The fact that Tomoya speaks in the exit interview of a ‘methodology class’ suggests, I think, the presence of certain compartmentalizing tendencies (perhaps a result of prior learning experiences) – tendencies which would presumably require a relatively explicit counter-coverage if attempts at integration (i.e. of L2 content and methodology) are not to pass unnoticed. In other words, program providers may be erring too far on the side of the implicit by transferring the responsibility to (ITE) trainees to ‘trace’ and ‘identify’ key aspects of L2 methodology within an experiential learning framework. N.B: my use of the adjective ‘compartmentalizing’ in respect of Tomoya’s considered response is not intended as being in any way a pejorative characterization. Indeed, reflection on the delivery of the language awareness program module indicates to me that if the consistent, principled integration of the language and methodology components within L2 ITE/INSET is, in fact, to be viewed as an ideal, then it is an ideal which appears easier to articulate than to achieve, and be seen to have achieved, in practice. In other words, subtlety in the integration of aspects of L2 ITE/INSET provision may cease to be a virtue in the event that program participants are, for whatever reason, unable to effectively discern the presence of certain key aspects within the program’s instructional/experiential mix, on which point more will be said in section 4.7 below.
Tomoya (in his exit interview) did express his desire, however - pre-existing syllabus constraints permitting - to incorporate the actual (cross-linguistic) language content of the program in his future practice. Tomoya appeared to concede that educational methodology and classroom management lay beyond the (overt) remit of the language awareness program – which he therefore sees as only offering a partial resolution of his uncertainties. In this respect, it appears as though Tomoya believes teaching skills can be learned as one might learn a subject, as opposed to being actively developed – for example, through reflection on practice.

For my part, I can only reiterate that the integration of L2 content and L2 methodology was most definitely a central – if unstated - aim of the program. In this connection, the following extract taken from Yuya’s evaluative response data offers a fascinating contrast with the views expressed by Tomoya above – particularly, I think, in respect of the degree of responsibility that Yuya was evidently willing to assume for his own professional development:

*When it comes to my needs as a trainee teacher, I can say that your language awareness program has been very relevant and helpful to me. You asked us to organize teaching projects and micro-teaching tasks many times. I did my best to prepare for my classes and I often thought of myself as a teacher. I often considered how I should organize the class, what I should teach the other eight students, and this made me positive and enthusiastic for being an English teacher in the future in Japan.* (Yuya)


Since it is the actual - as opposed to the intended - intake and uptake of program aims and content which should ultimately concern program providers, it would appear that the emergence of ‘orientation to uncertainty/ambiguity’ as a principal theme characterizing the evaluative response data in this particular case may well have implications in respect of the degree of explicitness with which the aims of this type of program are communicated to participants. I shall revisit this particular aspect of the program in more detail in the later section on program structure, content and balance.
It was earlier noted that the presence of (linguistic) ambiguities was a major concern for Shoko, and that she derived a great deal of satisfaction from their resolution. Shoko’s pursuit of clarity as an indispensable sine qua non for sound L2 pedagogy is evident in this extract taken from her exit interview. The interviewer had just asked her if she felt the language awareness program content had wider relevance for both pre- and in-service teachers in the Japanese EFL context:

Yes, definitely. For in-service teachers, they can find out about what they are teaching and teach more clearly. Teachers without any knowledge of language awareness are presumably teaching with some kind of guesswork, referring to dictionaries or something. Language awareness would make things clearer, and they could teach with more confidence. (Shoko)

Data Source: Exit Interview, Shoko, 2.8.2010.

This linking of increased (teacher) language awareness with increased L2 teacher confidence levels was also evident in Yuriko’s exit interview data. However, it became apparent following a review of the entire corpus of evaluative responses that this increased language awareness needs to bring about a concomitant resolution of uncertainties and ambiguities in key areas if these increased confidence levels are to result.

Shoko agreed that the language awareness program had been relevant and helpful to her in terms of meeting her needs as a trainee teacher in the Japanese EFL context and, as was the case in respect of her own L2 learning, this relevance was expressed in typically concrete terms. Shoko provided a veritable shopping list of specific language points, such as the semantic and usage distinctions among potential confusables (‘notice’, ‘recognize’, ‘realize’, ‘know’, ‘find out’, ‘tell’, etc.) and the differing constructions required by ‘during’ and ‘while’. As with the participants’ language point choices in respect of their first micro-teaching assignment, I was interested to note Shoko’s focus on a range of essentially unitary (or a relatively limited range of) L1 lexical items which are expressed via multiple (or a relatively wider range of) L2 translation equivalents.

I took this focus as further vindication of the decision to include multiple examples of this phenomenon as a key feature of the WENS materials. It was gratifying to trace
the link between Shoko’s own initial learning via the materials’ various (differentiating) language awareness tasks and her developing pedagogical awareness as she planned the mediation of her L2 insights. Of course, I had no thought (conscious awareness) of ‘the avoidance of uncertainty’ or ‘the resolution of ambiguities’ at the time of developing the program materials (these themes would only emerge post-program, following analysis of the evaluative response data). The response commentary of several of the participants revealed their intention to apply the insights gained on the language awareness program so as to forestall learner error and accelerate learners’ progress through the various stages of interlanguage development:

*So, if we could introduce these language awareness ideas into junior or senior high school, typical Japanese errors could be avoided in advance, or at least, they would be fewer.* (Shoko)

Data Source: Exit Interview, Shoko, 2.8.2010.

I shall now broaden the focus in respect of L2 professional development, to include response data evidence of the participants’ changing pedagogical conceptions of certain key aspects of the Japanese EFL context. It was earlier posited that the awareness-raising process, though capable of providing some answers, was equally likely to generate additional uncertainties which would, in turn, demand resolution. Koji highlighted one such dilemma:

*The language awareness classes focused on correcting the incorrect or unnatural expressions which Japanese learners produce. On the other hand, Neil can understand our ‘unnatural’ Japanese English. So I felt confused a little bit.* (Koji)

Data Source: Exit Interview, Koji, 4.8.2010.

Ayako, too, alluded to this sense of cognitive dissonance in her evaluative response commentary. Here, she first offers this testimony in support of the program’s broader relevance for her professional development:

**Interviewer:** *So, firstly, how was the language awareness program?*

**Ayako:** *For me, it has really been a big part of my life here, and I’ve learned a lot.*
Interviewer: Really? A big part – why is that?

Ayako: It changed my way of thinking completely.

Interviewer: Was this because of the language awareness classes?

Ayako: Mostly, yes.

Data Source: Exit Interview, Ayako, 2.8.2010.

She then implies that she has (at least partially) resolved the dilemma highlighted by Koji above via a gradual acceptance of a more relativistic conception of language-related issues:

*I used to have a fixed standard for correct and incorrect things, but I noticed that it’s not about ‘correct’ or ‘incorrect’. (Ayako)*

Data Source: Exit Interview, Ayako, 2.8.2010.

*At first, I was confused about which ideas were right and which were wrong, but I realized that we don’t always need to decide what is what. (Ayako)*


For Yuriko, the program resulted in quite a radical re-conceptualization in respect of exonormative L2 target models, and her ultimate acceptance of ‘Japanese English’ as a legitimate de facto reality:

*I became able to think about Japanese English from a different perspective. Before the course, I thought I should adopt either American or British English, but I found that there are many Englishes besides American English. We can communicate with the other Englishes. I think every English is equal to me now. (Yuriko)*

Data Source: Exit Interview, Yuriko, 4.8.2010.

*I didn’t want to believe in Japanese English and I didn’t want to use it before having your language awareness lessons, but I’ve realized that I use Japanese English. I’ve learned lots of things and I’ve come to accept Japanese English. (Yuriko)*
Shoko, too, refers to these various dilemmas and re-conceptualizations, but in her case the language awareness program ultimately led her to reaffirm her central L2 goals – albeit with a heightened appreciation of the substantive context-specific issues:

Shoko: *What I learned on the language awareness program was a completely new perspective towards English, and that made it clear what I want to learn from now on. And it also raised a lot of questions, such as whether Japanese English is fine or should be corrected, or what my goals are when it comes to learning English. This course gave me opportunities to think about these questions. Everything I learned was useful.*

Interviewer: *How has your image of Japanese English changed as a result of this program?*

Shoko: *Well, some of my friends started thinking that Japanese English can be acceptable, but I think my final goal is English as spoken by native speakers.*

Significantly, I think, given her reaffirmation of exonormative native speaker models as her L2 target, Shoko records the view that, in respect of L2 learning, language awareness needs to be bilingual. From her exit interview responses, it is evident that Shoko sees a conscious awareness of L1 Japanese and a similarly conscious awareness of L2 English as symbiotic, the one having the potential to inform the other. For Shoko, this realization has clear implications for L2 pedagogy:

*I realized that English teachers need to know about the Japanese language.*

(Shoko)

In a similar vein and from personal experience, Takashi emphasized the bilingual (cross-linguistic) reality of L2 learning, and saw L1 influence thereon as comprising both positive and negative aspects. Implicit in Takashi’s observations was the implication (as a corollary) that L2 pedagogy would be remiss were it not to take due account of this bilingual reality:
We are Japanese. We were born in Japan and we have always spoken Japanese. We cannot escape from this situation. I have to get along with both languages, this is my idea. (Takashi)


I’ve learned that Japanese (as a language) is sometimes a help for us to study English, in terms of vocabulary – some words are nearly the same as English. However, Japanese must also be an obstacle for Japanese learners to study English, in terms of pronunciation, grammar and cultural background. (Takashi)


I shall close this section of the analysis by reiterating that:

- A clear majority of the participants felt that the language awareness program was indeed relevant to them as pre-service L2 instructors in the Japanese EFL context.
- There was clear evidence of intra-group variation in respect of the extent of this perceived relevance.
- There was similarly clear evidence that program content would require (in the case of some participants, considerable) further cognitive processing before it would be available for pedagogical application.

The observations above are, I think, tellingly encapsulated in the following exit interview extract, in which Yuriko is asked to give her program satisfaction rating, together with the reason(s) for the concomitant rating deficit:

Interviewer: Could you evaluate the language awareness program?

Yuriko: Nine (out of ten).

Interviewer: Nine is a very high rating! Why not ten, though?

Yuriko: I’m not exactly sure how I can use what I’ve learnt here in Japan. I’m not sure yet.

Data Source: Exit Interview, Yuriko, 4.8.2010.
From this we may deduce that Yuriko feels that she has learnt a significant amount through the program (hence the high satisfaction rating), and that she intends or would like to apply this newly-acquired knowledge in her subsequent L2 learning and/or professional practice (evidenced by her L1 use of ‘how’ rather than ‘if/whether’). Various uncertainties exist, however, and various outstanding issues have yet to be resolved. I feel that the reasons underlying Yuriko’s rating deficit are essentially twofold:

The program participants were just entering their second year (of four) as undergraduates, and were thus still some way from entering the classroom as professional L2 instructors, in terms of both time and professional/educational training at Hiroshima University. The language awareness program content would, therefore, require ongoing assimilation into this developing body of pedagogical and contextual knowledge in addition to further cognitive processing in its own right. In other words, the ability of the participants to perceive the program’s relevance to future practice in specific, identifiable terms was unlikely to have been fully developed at the time of the program – hence Yuriko’s uncertainty within the context of what was, overall, a strongly positive orientation to the program.

In retrospect, I realize that I myself was likely constrained in this regard by my dual role of practitioner/researcher. The research question(s) were, inter alia, aimed at establishing a) the fact and b) the extent of the program’s perceived relevance to future professional practice – and clearly, as a researcher, this precluded any overt ‘leading’ of the participants in that direction on my part. In other words, any relevance would have to be perceived by the participants for themselves and not (openly) presumed and communicated in advance. Evaluative response data was accordingly elicited from participants via such cues as: ‘Has the language awareness program been relevant and helpful to you in terms of meeting your needs as a trainee teacher in the Japanese EFL context?’ Cues such as this effectively invited the participants to make the connections (or not) for themselves.

There was, too, a sense that the nature of the participants’ (eventual, following an appropriate period of reflection) pedagogic responses to program content should be self-determined, and I was, therefore, reluctant to take too prescriptive a line concerning the participants’ future professional practice. With hindsight, this non-
prescriptive approach perhaps represented an unconscious attempt on my part to add balance to the learning experience, given the overtly teleological orientation of the program materials. The foregoing inevitably raises the issue of the place and extent of a focus on methodology relative to the language focus on such programs. Reflections on this issue will be elaborated in section 4.5.3.

4.5 Component # 3: Participants’ Cognitive/Affective Responses to Key Elements and Aspects of the Program

4.5.1 Evaluative Focus - The Focus Group Interview

Conceived as a forum for the introduction, discussion and exploration of a range of key issues located at the L1 Japanese/L2 English interface, the May 13th (week three, day four) focus group interview formed an integral (cross-linguistic) component of the 2010 Language Awareness Program. Although of considerable intrinsic interest, it is worth reiterating here that the small sample size – the focus group was limited to the nine program participants – precluded any claims of the views expressed therein being representative of wider opinion within the Japanese EFL context. The principal aim of the focus group interview session was, rather, to stimulate the participants’ cognitive engagement with these context-specific cross-linguistic issues. The nature of the cognitive and affective reactions to the focus group forum (as an integral program element) expressed by the participants in this connection accordingly constituted the principal criterion on which my evaluative analysis of the focus group interview was based.

The data set in respect of the evaluative analysis of the focus group interview essentially comprised three elements: the participants’ direct cognitive and affective feedback reactions to the session, the participants’ written evaluative feedback on the language awareness program, and the one-to-one exit interviews. Following a thematic analysis of this data set, I have set out the principal themes which I see as characterizing the participants’ cognitive and affective responses to the focus group interview in Figure 18 overleaf. It transpired that many of the themes identified in respect of the focus group interview re-emerge to characterize a good deal of the participants’ response to the language awareness program itself, and these will be elaborated accordingly with regard to other aspects of the program in the sections to follow. This re-emergence is, I feel, unsurprising, given that the core issues addressed
Figure 18. Responses to the Focus Group Interview: Principal Themes

Focus Group Interview

- First Time *hajimete kangaeta*
- Questions
  - Sharing
    - Catalyst
      - Change
      - Search for Resolution
      - Clarification: *road map*

- Awareness-Raising
  - Beneficial Experience
  - Distances
    - Re-evaluation
    - Implications
      - Dilemmas
      - Return
      - The Future *my future*

- New Perspectives
  - Beneficial Experience
  - Distances
    - Return
    - Re-evaluation
    - Implications
      - Dilemmas
      - Return
      - The Future *my future*

- Focus Group Interview
  - Gratitude
  - Opportunity
  - Enjoyment

Japanese EFL Context

(outward journey)
in the focus group interview constitute the DNA, so to speak, of much of the program’s focus and content.

Thus, Ayako sees the focus group interview as a primer for a heightened appreciation of, and engagement with, subsequent program content:

...from the first (focus group) interview, I started thinking about lots of things and I learnt a lot in the language awareness classes. (Ayako)

Data Source: Exit Interview, Ayako, 2.8.2010.

The Japanese phrase ‘hajimete kangaeta’ which accompanies the theme ‘first time’, translates as ‘I haven’t thought about it before’, and signals the key role played by the focus group interview in the awareness-raising process. The following representative testimony freely acknowledges the participants’ lack of prior cognitive engagement with the substantive L1 Japanese/L2 English interface issues:

I hadn’t thought about these issues in Japan... (Yuriko)

Data Source: Cognitive/Affective Responses to the Focus Group Interview, Yuriko, 6.8.2010.

This was the first time for me to think about the dilemmas regarding English that Japan currently faces. (Shunta)

Data Source: Cognitive/Affective Responses to the Focus Group Interview, Shunta, 6.8.2010.

In terms of their affective response to the focus group interview, the participants were unanimous in expressing their enjoyment of and, indeed, their gratitude for the experience, with the single exception of Shinsuke, who represented something of an outlier in this regard - on which point more will be said in due course. The following comments are thus broadly typical of the participants’ affective responses:

Thank you for giving me the chance to take part in the fantastic Japanese interview. I’ve never experienced such an interview to date, so I had a very good time there. (Koji)
I enjoyed it very much ... it was a great and important opportunity for us to think about English in Japan ... I want to say ‘thank you’ for giving us a chance to think about these issues. (Takashi)

I want to express my gratitude to you for organizing this interview ... it was a precious chance to think about English education in Japan and about our future. (Yuya)

The value of the focus group interview as a forum for the sharing and exchange of ideas and viewpoints was also recognized, as the following comments demonstrate:

The interview was very important for us to be teachers, and everyone’s opinion helps me a lot, allowing me to realize various viewpoints. (Ayako)

...I was really surprised that the other participants had a lot of ideas ... I was really impressed by this... (Tomoya)

...I was glad to have such a nice chance to hear the others’ opinions... (Yuriko)

I was impressed because the other participants had a lot of ideas about teaching in Japan. (Koji)
In contrast with the acknowledged lack of prior engagement, the participants’ comments suggest that the focus group interview may have acted as a catalyst for a greater consideration of a range of key issues in respect of the Japanese EFL context:

*I’ve decided to give more thought to these issues from now on.* (Tomoya)

Data Source: Cognitive/Affective Responses to the Focus Group Interview, Tomoya, 6.8.2010.

*I’ve thought about the issues myself many times since the (focus group) interview.*
(Yuya)

Data Source: Cognitive/Affective Responses to the Focus Group Interview, Yuya, 6.8.2010.

*Thank you for giving me a good opportunity to start thinking about English education ... Now, I often think of these issues, and I’m going to keep on thinking about them in Japan as well ... I didn’t think so much about it in Japan, and thanks to the (focus group) interview, I began to think about it very much.*
(Ayako)

Data Source: Cognitive/Affective Responses to the Focus Group Interview, Ayako, 6.8.2010.

The attributive phrase ‘thanks to’ in Ayako’s comments above in fact recurs throughout the corpus of evaluative feedback in various connections, providing valuable direct evidence in respect of the participants’ cognitive attribution of identified outcomes and effects to specified causes.

Another of the principal themes identified is the capacity of the focus group forum, in conjunction with ancillary tasks such as the priming worksheets and features of the context, to bring about changes in participants’ attitudes and perceptions. Furthermore, these changes in attitudes and perceptions seem to have been broadly welcomed and viewed in overwhelmingly positive terms by the participants – as the following comments indicate:
Before coming here, I didn’t want to believe that there was such a thing as ‘Japanese English’ in the world, because I wanted to speak English fluently like a native speaker. But after this (focus group) interview and staying in Britain for a few weeks, I’ve come to accept ‘Japanese English’, because there are lots of varieties of English in the world and native speakers can understand our English.

In short, I’ve come to have a variety of views thanks to this interview. (Yuriko)

Data Source: Cognitive/Affective Responses to the Focus Group Interview, Yuriko, 6.8.2010.

I’ve changed a lot thanks to this (focus group interview). (Ayako)


For some of the participants, the focus group interview represented an opportunity to re-evaluate (perhaps long-held) attitudes to aspects of the Japanese EFL context, as was the case with Yuriko above. This re-evaluation appears to have led to a variety of provisional outcomes, ranging from re-conceptualizations – for example, of language distance and the potential for contact and exchange (Shunta), to re-affirmations – for example, of L2 English goals, involving stated preferences for branded native-speaker varieties - ‘real English’ (Shoko).

It was fascinating to trace the emergence of individual cognitive and affective responses to the awareness-raising brief of the focus group interview. For Shoko, clarification of her own L2 English goals (at both macro and micro levels) as a point of departure for considerations of pedagogy emerged as a strong theme – one which would later characterize her broader response to the language awareness program itself. Koji, for his part, expressed satisfaction at being able to clarify, through the medium of the focus group, his thinking on the subject of Japanese/Katakana English – an area of particular interest to him which coincided with and pre-dated the program’s focus on this topic.

The nature of the focus group interview, with awareness-raising as its primary function, together with the fact that this was apparently the first time that the participants had given such focused consideration to the issues at hand, inevitably resulted in the generation of more questions than definitive answers. The participants’ varying responses to the presence of uncertainty over the issues at hand emerged as a
major theme following my analysis of the focus group interview data set. Indeed, analysis of the wider data corpus in relation to this theme was later to afford considerable insight in respect of the participants’ responses and orientation to the program as a totality.

I shall now explore these varying responses with a view to establishing a degree of intra-group differentiation. There was considerable evidence of an open, positive orientation to the various unresolved issues confronting the participants in the wake of the focus group interview. Takashi’s comments below are illustrative of this orientation:

...it was a great ... opportunity for us to think about English in Japan. Even though I couldn’t come up with good solutions to these issues, I believe it will help us in the future. (Takashi)

Data Source: Cognitive/Affective Responses to the Focus Group Interview, Takashi, 6.8.2010.

This relaxed attitude in the face of uncertainty is in marked contrast to the orientation expressed by Shinsuke, whose comments in respect of the focus group interview suggest a degree of tension and discomfort resulting from an apparent inability to resolve uncertainties in the short-term:

I’m wondering which (L2 English) model I have to aim for. I can’t solve this dilemma on this visit to the UK ... This is the first time for me to think deeply about English education from the point of view of teachers. I’m going back to Japan with this dilemma. (Shinsuke)

Data Source: Cognitive/Affective Responses to the Focus Group Interview, Shinsuke, 6.8.2010.

Indeed, so stark was the contrast in tone and orientation between Shinsuke’s remarks above and those of the other participants that I decided to review Shinsuke’s entire program output and evaluative commentary using the Figure 17 framework based on (apparent) orientation to uncertainty. This framework was to play a significant role in my interpretation of the participants’ wider evaluative feedback commentary. In the
same extract, Shinsuke gives us an example of the kind of pedagogical dilemmas he has in mind:

*Conversation is important in improving students’ ability, yet it cannot be measured in exams.* (Shinsuke)

Data Source: Cognitive/Affective Responses to the Focus Group Interview, Shinsuke, 6.8.2010.

To me – and viewed in the context of the broad corpus of evaluative comment – it was as if Shinsuke had internalized many of the tensions and conflicts implied by these paradoxes and uncertainties to a degree not apparent in the commentary of the other participants. In other words, there was a growing sense that the participants’ evaluative responses were in some way reflective of underlying personality factors.

Allied with Takashi’s response, quoted above, Yuya’s positive, relaxed and proactive comments in respect of the identical questions raised by the focus group interview provide evidence of a degree of intra-group contrast in this connection:

*I think we should find our own answers to and opinions on the issues if we want to be English teachers in the future. I’ll keep on thinking about these issues, even after I go back to Japan, and I hope I can find my own way and share it with others.* (Yuya)

Data Source: Cognitive/Affective Responses to the Focus Group Interview, Yuya, 6.8.2010.

Yuya’s use of the phrase ‘finding one’s way’ suggested a navigational metaphor in respect of the cross-linguistic terrain of the Japanese EFL context, and I found I was later able to apply the metaphor with regard to awareness-raising at the broader (program) level.

Seen within the context of program objectives, the extracts quoted in the foregoing analysis provide, I believe, compelling evidence regarding the participants’ desire to engage with key context-specific issues on an ongoing basis in the belief that this engagement will benefit both L2 learning and L2 pedagogy.
As a non-participant observer, I noted at the time that – L1 interactional norms notwithstanding - the two Japanese focus group moderators appeared to be working inordinately hard to elicit free-flowing responses from all participants. In conversation following the session, several participants commented that they had found it difficult to formulate considered opinions due to their lack of prior engagement with the issues. The L1 inventory of issues which guided the focus group discussion had been translated from the original L2 English version - this corresponding with the issue cues and elicitation questions on the pre-focus group worksheets. The primary purpose of these worksheets was, of course, to engage the participants in advance consideration of the inventory of issues prior to the focus group discussion. I comforted myself with the thought that, but for these worksheets, the result might have been two hours of focused silence. In this connection, Yuya conceded that:

*It’s true that we had difficulty giving our opinions on the issues, even though we were using Japanese.* (Yuya)

Data Source: Cognitive/Affective Responses to the Focus Group Interview, Yuya, 6.8.2010.

The above observation perhaps vindicates my decision to switch the language medium from L2 English to L1 Japanese, and in this connection we may recall Koji’s reference to ‘the fantastic Japanese interview’ (my emphasis). This temporary move to an L1 medium - viewed within the context of a fifteen-week study abroad (homestay) program - conferred, I believe, an added degree of gravitas on the focus group interview which likely offset any opportunity cost there may have been in terms of L2 production foregone.

Several points now suggest themselves as a result of the foregoing analysis:

The first is that the focus group appears to have offered an extremely effective forum for an exploration of a range of key issues located at the L1/L2 interface. Additionally, the construct of (Teacher) Language Awareness involves much more than an awareness of language; it necessarily extends to incorporate the range of psychological, socio-cultural, pedagogical and other factors which are active in a given instructional context, together with an awareness of the various issues to which these factors have given rise.
From this, it follows that an exploration of these key issues has a legitimate place within a developmental program dealing with context-specific L2 teaching/learning. Judged on its merits as a component element within the 2010 (cross-linguistic) Language Awareness Program, I feel that the focus group interview proved its worth in respect of program aims and thus fully justified its inclusion – an evaluation which I feel is consistent with and supported by the participants’ overwhelmingly positive feedback responses.

4.5.2 Evaluative Focus – Core Program Materials

It became apparent after reviewing the evaluative response commentary – notably that from the exit interviews – that the participants’ (program satisfaction) rating deficits could, in large part, be traced directly or indirectly to the core program materials. This state of affairs arose not because of any substantive weaknesses in the materials per se (the WENS materials were widely appreciated and highly rated by all nine participants), but rather I think, reflected the considerable determining influence exerted by the materials upon the program’s content, structure and balance. In other words, so central were the WENS materials to the program that the successes and failures of the latter were inextricably bound up with the successes and failures of the former – ‘core’ program materials in every sense. Looking back, I now appreciate that this aspect of the program in fact required a considerably more active and nuanced management – a view that I shall elaborate in some detail in the later section dealing with the integration of program content with the wider social and learning context.

The essential component features of and pedagogic rationale for the WENS materials were set out in the earlier Methodology chapter, and so need not be rehearsed here. Similarly, the mechanics of the participants’ engagement with the materials were detailed in the narrative account of the program given in the preceding chapter. The materials were designed first and foremost with the needs of the participants as L2 learners in mind. In terms of L2 development, the materials were primarily concerned with raising learners’ awareness in respect of:

- Prototypical features of L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage.
- Contrasts and disparities with respect to elements of the sociolect and more standard native speaker L2 (re)formulations.
The likely contribution of the L1 background to a range of common denominator ‘errors’ and prototypical interlanguage features.

Based on a review of the participants’ evaluative commentary, the core program materials may, I believe, be accounted a success in respect of this central awareness-raising function. The following comments are broadly representative of opinion in this connection:

*I’ve learned lots of things from these materials. I found mistakes which I often make every time I opened the textbooks!* (Koji)


*I think this textbook is really useful for learning English and to notice Japanese English. Every time I did the check tests in the textbook I made mistakes, which made me think about the reasons why I made those mistakes, and I learned so many natural expressions.* (Ayako)


*These textbooks were very helpful for me. I found lots of mistakes which I’ve made and I’ve been able to correct my misunderstanding of English grammar, words or expressions.* (Shunta)


I confess I lost count of the number of times the word ‘notice’ appeared in the evaluative responses. As Ayako’s comments above indicate, the materials also seem to have acted as a catalyst for further (autonomous) reflection. The reader will recall my concern – set out in the earlier Methodology chapter – that the WENS materials, by virtue of their overtly exonormative, teleological orientation, were in a sense perpetuating the valorization of idealized native speaker target models which the review of the literature highlighted as characteristic of the Japanese EFL context; hence the need to include additional program elements aimed at interrogating this assumption. In the event, however, the evaluative response commentaries indicated that it was precisely this comparative, teleological aspect of the WENS materials which the participants valued most highly.
The three extracts quoted above either directly or indirectly refer to specific and specifiable features of the materials – features which embodied and functioned to operationalize particular aspects and aims of the program itself. Centering the analysis on specific features of the materials will, I believe, permit and legitimize discussion in terms of the wider relevance of the features identified. It seems to me that the response comments above provide strong evidence for awareness on the part of L2 instructors of existing L2 learner awareness levels as desirable for the informed planning of L2 instruction, including the development of instructional materials.

For Yuriko and Takashi (as for Shoko, noted earlier), as future mediators in the Japanese EFL context, this new-found awareness is a precondition for an anticipatory pedagogy, and permits a breaking of the instructional cycle which reproduces and perpetuates – unaware – that which it believes to be true:

*If I hadn’t met your textbooks, I couldn’t have learned real English and realized my mistakes in English or natural English … If I hadn’t used these textbooks, I wouldn’t have learned these things and told (been able to tell) them to my students in future.* (Yuriko)


*If I hadn’t taken this program and met this textbook, I would have taught some unnatural mistakes to my students!* (Takashi)


If, as an L2 instructor, one wishes to guarantee a heightened level of awareness in learners, the obvious answer would appear to lie in an explicit focus on the point(s) at issue. Here I ask the reader to recall my critique of Rutherford (1983) in the earlier Literature Review. There I put forward the view that the fact of focused explicit instruction accounted for L1 Japanese learners not inveterately attempting to construct English sentences with the verb placed sentence-finally (as it is in Japanese). I further posited that certain contrastive features were likely to slip under learners’ cognitive radar in the absence of an explicit focus. These response comments by Shoko offer, I believe, powerful testimony in respect of the value of explicit instruction informed by an awareness of learner awareness:
I learnt things here [on the language awareness program] which we wouldn’t have noticed without [them] being taught. (Shoko, emphasis added)

Data Source: Exit Interview, Shoko, 2.8.2010.

Yuriko echoed this theme and offered her view that left to their own devices, the majority of L1 Japanese learners were unlikely to arrive at an intuitive appreciation of the nature and extent of the cross-linguistic influence in their own interlanguages. Yuriko singled out the materials’ awareness-raising properties in this regard as being a particularly instructive feature:

Interviewer: Was the WENS textbook helpful?

Yuriko: Yes. I’ve come to understand why we Japanese make these mistakes. Even though I’m Japanese, I didn’t realize these things before. It makes sense to me now.

Interviewer: As a teacher, do you want to use this information?

Yuriko: Yes. It’s very useful. The feature I like the best is that the materials show us the reasons why these mistakes occur.

Data Source: Exit Interview, Yuriko, 4.8.2010.

The rating deficits of Shoko and Takashi both reflected a desire for an even greater breadth of coverage and an even greater level of explicitness, i.e. detailed explanations, in respect of the materials’ content and focus (as it was, the WENS materials in total ran to approximately three hundred and seventy-five A4 pages). In a similar vein, Tomoya’s rating deficit reflected, in part, his stated requirement for the elimination of ambiguity – a requirement which, I believe, represented evidence of a particularly high UAI value (low tolerance of ambiguity) on his part. Particularly notable in this connection was the not infrequent linking by both Takashi and Tomoya of their evaluative responses and preferred learning styles to personality factors and, significantly I think, to nationality:

I’m Japanese: noticing is very valuable! (Takashi)

Data Source: Exit Interview, Takashi, 4.8.2010.
Japanese people, including me, tend to want to make sure whether their answers are correct or not ... Japanese people tend to care about solid answers ... unclear answers are really uncomfortable for Japanese people. (Tomoya)


Given the focused remit of the program, I elected to utilize the WENS materials as the primary classroom text. The materials were, however, designed so as to be highly conducive to use on a self-study basis - a feature which was widely appreciated by the program participants, all of whom later took the materials with them on their return to Japan for ongoing study, review and, in due course (one hopes), pedagogical application.

However, the use of what were essentially self-study materials in such a prominent focal role in the classroom divided opinion somewhat within the group. Shinsuke (and to a lesser extent, Shunta) felt that, given the bilingual nature of the materials (allowing easy self-access), a more exclusive and wider-ranging L2 focus would have been more appropriate in respect of classroom contact time. The clear majority of the participants, however, were evidently satisfied with the L1/L2 balance and welcomed the opportunity to explore the various cross-linguistic issues in depth in class (and in the presence of the materials’ author).

The evaluative response data revealed a marked preference for a deductive approach to learning within the group – a learning style with which the materials’ format appeared to be in harmony. Interestingly, given the participants’ expressed demands for high levels of explicitness and clarity of explanation, Hofstede’s (2001:181) analysis posits a link between high UAI values and a preference for deductive (as opposed to inductive) approaches to learning.

Further areas of intra-group variation were apparent in the evaluative responses: While Koji was evidently intrigued by and supportive of my attempts to modify the Katakana representation of loanwords so as to more accurately approximate their dictionary articulation, Shinsuke expressed skepticism – this despite the apparent success of the experiment (recounted in the previous chapter) involving Ayako in week eleven of the program. I took this skepticism as reflecting Shinsuke’s preference
for respecting the integrity of both languages as distinct systems in the belief that any attempts at hybridization would lead to undesirable ambiguities.

Shinsuke’s was again the dissenting voice in respect of another of the materials’ key features – the regular (optional) check tests, of which he felt there were too many. The majority of the participants, however, regarded this feature far more positively. Indeed Takashi was of the opinion that such check tests were ‘highly suitable for Japanese people’. Several participants, notably Shoko and Takashi, expressed their desire to incorporate specific techniques featured in the materials – for example, the ‘grammar jigsaw puzzles’ (intended to promote learners’ awareness of syntax and word order) – directly into their embryonic teaching repertoires.

4.5.3 Evaluative Focus – Integration 1: Language Learning and L2 Methodology

I should, I think, begin with some clarification in respect of a central point: the heading I have chosen for this section of the evaluative analysis is not intended to imply an operational integration of two pre-existing syllabuses – one concerned with participants’ L2 development and the other with participants’ study and practical development of L2 teaching method(s) – for there was no pre-existing syllabus regarding the latter. Rather, I chose to adopt an essentially non-prescriptive approach to the methodological aspect of the participants’ developing L2 pedagogical awareness. There were several reasons for this decision:

- I felt a need to balance – perhaps even to counterbalance - the likely perception of the program materials as essentially prescriptive.
- I thought it preferable that the participants’ methodological awareness be free to evolve – in any direction – as a logical extension of their developing awareness of language and interpretation of context-specific language-related issues, and that this process should be endogenous, that is, autonomously, internally and individually determined. The encouragement of a degree of methodological autonomy was, therefore, among the aims of the program.
- My own appreciation of the detailed minutiae, including the various (and evolving) socio-political and pedagogically constraining factors obtaining in the participants’ future teaching contexts (contexts which were themselves
uncertain at this stage), was nowhere near being sufficiently well-developed to justify the construction of a methodological syllabus.

- Various theoretical and practical aspects of L2 pedagogy/methodology in any case fell within the remit of other modules comprising the 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Trainee Teachers’ Program – principally the ‘Introduction to Linguistics and the (English Language) Teaching Profession’ module - and I was thus anxious to avoid any duplication or perceived contradictions in this regard.

The L2 methodological aspect of the language awareness program was, therefore, to be co-constructed, developing out of participants’ engagement with and reflections on cross-linguistic language content and experiential observation, as well as their own pedagogical practice via various forms of micro-teaching. The phrase ‘experiential observation’ here signifies my intention to provide the participants with an experiential appreciation of classroom methodology, mirroring the ‘experiential learning’ which I was seeking to generate in respect of the program’s cross-linguistic language content. The following extract taken from Yuya’s exit interview, in which he was asked to describe a typical language awareness class, illustrates the concept of (ITE) experiential observation in respect of L2 methodology:

Yuya: Neil didn’t explain so much, rather he gave us time to think and do tasks...

Interviewer: So it was learner-centred, not teacher-centred?

Yuya: Yes.

Interviewer: Did you enjoy that style?

Yuya: Yes, I did.

Interviewer: Why was that? Why did you find it enjoyable to work in a learner-centred classroom?

Yuya: Well, it’s my personality – I like to talk! And because we are here to study English. Of course, listening to lectures and explanations is also another way of studying English, but we were provided with time to output what we learnt through input. So, it was very good.
If we scale down the focus to the level of technique however, the evaluative picture becomes considerably more complex. Perhaps because I had inadvertently allowed the standard participant interaction patterns (Figures 9 and 10) to assume the status of a default routine, Shoko’s evaluative responses revealed a desire for greater variety in respect of L2 practice and production procedures – this perceived shortcoming partially accounting for her program satisfaction rating deficit. Her exit interview responses clearly (and encouragingly) indicated that she had assumed responsibility – thinking ahead to her own future instructional practice – and was actively considering ways via which to avoid over-routinizing such procedures:

*I was thinking about it, but I haven’t got any good ideas...* (Shoko)

To me, this was clear evidence of Shoko’s meta-pedagogical awareness (Block, 2000) developing as a direct result of her experiential observation: a perceived shortcoming in (my) technique had set her thought processes in train. She had yet to achieve any substantive resolution, but then, there was no pressing deadline. Thus, evaluation was no straightforward matter. Certainly, I would like to think that something potentially valuable emerged, phoenix-like, from an ostensibly negative experiential observation.

The micro-teaching sessions in the later stages of the program, and the discrete language-point presentations which prefigured them in the program’s early weeks were very well received by the participants. The cross-linguistic language focuses of these assignments were drawn directly from the program content and so represented essentially new information for all concerned – adding a further experiential learning dimension to proceedings. If there was a downside to aiming to fuse the micro-teaching practice to this experiential learning dimension so completely, it was that this approach necessarily proceeded from a low level of familiarity with the language content, i.e. trainees attempting to teach language points which they themselves have yet to master – and, indeed, as an observer I detected clear evidence of this unfolding scenario, which for me underlined the primacy of the declarative dimension of the participants’ L2 knowledge as a point of departure for the subsequent development of procedural and methodological aspects.
Yuya’s evaluative commentary represents something of an ideal response, but the essentially positive orientation to the various micro-teaching assignments was evident in the reactions of the entire group:

As trainee teachers, you asked us to organize various kinds of teaching project and micro-teaching many times. I did my best to prepare for my classes and I often thought of me as a teacher. I often considered how I should organize the class and what I should teach in front of eight students, and it made me positive and enthusiastic for being an English teacher in the future in Japan. (Yuya)


Yuya’s response additionally indicates a welcome willingness to assume pedagogical responsibility and, in so doing, to fill the partial vacuum created by my intentionally non-prescriptive and essentially hands-off approach to the methodological aspect of the program.

As the foregoing analysis will have made clear, the intention to incorporate an experiential learning dimension as a central aspect of the program was premised on the ‘(trainee) teachers as learners’ duality. On reflection, I believe that it was my conception of this duality as largely self-evident that led me to opt for an essentially implicit approach in respect of the methodological aspects of the program. Indeed, the clear majority of the participants – evident from the evaluative commentary – were able to identify this element of experiential learning in respect of their developing awareness of L2 pedagogy (as a consequence of the duality) with little apparent difficulty.

Tomoya proved an exception in this regard, however, seemingly unable to make the necessary connections. Ironically, Tomoya in effect highlighted experiential learning (though not, of course, using the term) as a highly desirable aspect of ITE programs in his exit interview comments. I was, I confess, nonplussed: it was extremely frustrating to learn that Tomoya had apparently been unable to find any trace of such experiential learning in the 2010 language awareness program – a perception which, as the response data indicate, partially accounted for his program satisfaction rating deficit. The equivocations expressed by Tomoya in his evaluative feedback likely reflect the fact that connections between methodology components of L2 ITE/INSET programs
are perhaps more easily made relative to a language focus. However, as Andrews (2007) notes, appropriate methodology, viewed in terms of teaching procedures, presupposes and adequate understanding of the functions and natural use of L2 lexico-grammar.

What, then, was the lesson to be learned from this – the take-home message for this ITE program provider? Just as the net needs to be finely meshed if some of the catch is not to slip through, so, I feel, would programs of this type benefit from a relatively explicit statement of aims, content, and the rationale linking the two at the outset - this so as to ensure that, as far as possible, the group is proceeding on the basis of a common understanding.

To be sure, a multitude of instructional techniques – the product of many years’ experience in the EFL learning context of focus – were on display throughout the program for the participants to access. However, it is clear (now) that such techniques are unlikely to be acquired via an unstated process of osmosis alone! In retrospect, I feel I erred too far in the direction of the implicit.

Were I to teach the program again, there is, I believe, no shortage of ways in which a more explicit treatment of technique could be incorporated into such a program. The correction of error (with or without a cross-linguistic focus), for example, suggests itself as an ideal classroom scenario within which to combine (experiential) L2 learning with aspects of L2 methodology.

The focus on ‘classroom English’ as a practical adjunct in the later stages of the program was well received, and there was clear evidence of its incorporation into the participants’ subsequent micro-teaching practice. The introductory (and responsive) focus on ‘concept questions’ in week eleven offered additional methodological input at the level of technique, and there was welcome evidence of its uptake – Ayako’s principled incorporation of the concept-questioning technique in her model lesson planning assignment in week twelve, detailed in the previous chapter, being a prime example.

Takashi’s engagement with the four-point checklist for reflective lesson evaluation revealed its value in promoting methodological awareness through reflection. There was also evidence of developing meta-pedagogical awareness via the participants’
(emic) observation of the micro-teaching sessions. In his exit interview comments, Takashi referred to the value of reflective practice, and posited a causal connection linking personality with pedagogical approach:

*I realized personality affects teaching style.* (Takashi)

Data Source: Exit Interview, Takashi, 4.8.2010.

The participants’ developing capacity to generate such insights via the processing of observational data justified, I believe, my decision to prioritize the linguistic aspect of the program over considerations of methodology: methodological awareness presupposes an awareness not only of language but also of context and requires, I think, a significantly longer gestation period. In this, I fully concur with the position taken by Edge (1988) that the emphasis on such programs should shift from language improvement, through applied linguistics, to methodology as the pre-service trainees develop from language users to language analysts to language teachers.

### 4.5.4 Evaluative Focus – Integration 2: Program and Context

In retrospect, I feel I seriously underestimated the significance of the interaction that was inevitable between the program participants and the program’s wider social and learning context(s). This state of affairs may, I believe, be traced to the overarching presence of the research agenda in the design and delivery of the program. I was, as it were, downplaying the wider context (in terms of it forming the subject of reference) in an attempt to distinguish and differentiate ‘language awareness’ from ‘language learning’ – a distinction which I believed (and still believe) the absence of a cross-linguistic dimension makes it at times hard(er) to draw. There was, as we have seen, evidence that the program succeeded to some extent in establishing such a distinction – in this connection we may recall Shoko’s contention that language awareness represented for her ‘a new fifth genre’.

Language awareness – interpreted here as a state – was thus intended to be viewed as a complementary aspect, of benefit to the L2 learner in the process of learning. At this point, I should make clear the rationale for this ‘downplaying’ (in terms of its integration within the language awareness program) of the wider social context. The central research question concerns the degree to which an explicitly cross-linguistic approach to language awareness might enhance the perceived value of an L2 ITE
program. This, of course, implies an L1-specific focus and a monolingual L1 pre-service trainee group. Thus, my seeking to establish a degree of independence of program vis-à-vis the social context (i.e. study abroad) reflected a belief that such programs – due to the highly context-specific nature of the content – were considerably more likely to be offered closer to home, i.e. physically within the Japanese EFL context itself, and to be of significantly shorter duration.

All of which is not, however, intended to imply that the 2010 language awareness program should have been self-contained, eschewing any connection with the wider social and learning context – indeed, far from it. Rather, what has emerged from an analysis of the participants’ evaluative responses is that this (inevitable) interaction required explicit acknowledgement at the outset and a nuanced management throughout. It was instructive to note the contrasting ways in which - and, indeed, the extent to which - the participants’ interaction with the wider social context impacted upon their evaluative responses to the language awareness program. To illustrate this point, I shall draw on the contrasting experiences of selected participants, as revealed in the week fifteen exit interview responses.

At one end of the evaluative spectrum we see Yuya’s relaxed, unproblematic and overwhelmingly positive use of language awareness program content in his engagement with the wider social and learning context. Shinsuke, by contrast, reported far fewer, and far less successful, attempts to incorporate program content into his English-language interactions beyond the language awareness classes. It appears likely, too, that Shinsuke’s apparent lack of success in this regard served to discourage further attempts to include program content in his day-to-day communicative endeavours.

Shinsuke cites one particular episode involving an ELF interaction (in a bar) with an (NNS) exchange student from Hong Kong. First, a little background: Direct transfer from L1 Japanese results in the routine interlanguage production of ‘Are you weak/strong for alcohol?’ where native speakers would use a more idiomatic phrase such as ‘Can you hold your drink?’ Having covered these interlanguage formulations in class, Shinsuke attempted to use the colloquialism in its interrogative form with the exchange student from Hong Kong. Unfortunately, he seems to have been unable to produce the phrase correctly, and his interlocutor failed to grasp his intended
meaning. Following this breakdown in communication, Shinsuke reverted to the (more semantically transparent) interlanguage form, ‘Are you strong for alcohol?’ with decidedly more favourable results. Understandably, this episode raised the spectre of doubt and uncertainty, and may well have contributed to Shinsuke’s program satisfaction rating deficit.

Shunta, like Yuya, made extensive use of language awareness program content in his interaction with the wider social context – for the most part with evident success. Shunta reported one particular episode, however, which raised similar doubts and uncertainties to those experienced by Shinsuke. Our contrastive coverage of the use of various intensifiers with gradable and non-gradable adjectives (materials reference: 0501) had raised the participants’ awareness in respect of suspect (for reasons of tautology) formulations such as ‘Tokyo is very huge’. Imagine Shunta’s puzzlement, then, on hearing the collocation ‘very delicious’ over dinner with his (NS) host family. Although of a very similar nature, there was one key difference distinguishing Shunta’s experience from that of Shinsuke in respect of (among other things) the consequences for program evaluation: I was aware of Shunta’s experience while the program was still in progress. Shunta had referred to this episode in his written program evaluation (week fourteen, day five), which I reviewed prior to the week fifteen exit interviews. I was, by contrast, quite unaware of Shinsuke’s experience until I reviewed his exit interview transcript some time after the conclusion of the program.

Thus, I was able to explore the various issues raised by his experience with Shunta in the final week of the program, and reassure him in respect of (inter alia) individuals’ language variation, native speaker ‘error’ and ungrammaticality, and exceptions to generalities. Had I been aware of Shinsuke’s experience earlier, it would have provided ideal case study material for an in-class exploration of issues such as the negotiation of meaning, the relative inaccessibility of idiomatic NS varieties, and the benefits of convergence and accommodation in respect of ELF encounters. For the point is that even if Shinsuke had been able to produce the question ‘Can you hold your drink?’ correctly, it is semantically relatively inaccessible, and the exchange student from Hong Kong would likely have found the L1-influenced – but semantically transparent – interlanguage form far easier to access.
In this way, participants’ varying experiences of L2 engagement with the wider social context may serve either to affirm or (in a limited number of cases, one hopes) to undermine their confidence in a) the veracity of program content and b) their ability (and hence their willingness) to utilize program content to their own practical advantage. Were I to teach the program again, the pre-empting of this kind of uncertainty – an inevitable result of the participants’ de facto engagement with the social context – would thus be a central concern in respect of program design.

Shoko referred in her exit interview responses to the positive synergy generated by the combination of class and context – a theme echoed by Shunta and Yuya. Clearly, there would appear to be significant potential for the principled incorporation of and focus on aspects of participants’ engagement with the wider social context within such extended programs. In stating that the participants’ interaction with the wider context required a nuanced management, I do not, of course, mean to suggest for one moment that this interaction can or should be controlled – rather that aspects of this interaction as they may relate to program content might form the subject of advance briefings, thus allowing participants to anticipate aspects of their interactions which might otherwise result in the kind of cognitive dissonance experienced by Shinsuke and Shunta. Similarly, regular mini forums could retrospectively address, interrogate and clarify such aspects of these interactional experiences as participants might wish to report and share.

The language awareness monitoring project – a rather grand-sounding term which was, on reflection, not quite matched by the actuality – represented one of the few conscious attempts to (self-) monitor participants’ interactions with the wider context. Again, the project’s name perhaps belied the rather informal and essentially laissez-faire manner of its implementation. Detailed formal assessment in respect of its efficacy was, as a consequence, not likely to be a viable proposition, and so it proved.

The project was a good idea with potential, to be sure, but one that, given the welter of competing demands on the participants’ time and energies, was in the event relegated to little more than afterthought status. This having been said, what little feedback there was in this specific connection was positive. This is from Shunta, who had nominated the use of plurals and articles as his chosen language areas for ongoing productive and receptive monitoring:
I’ve come to take care (when using) plurals and articles in my spoken English. It was very interesting to find the plural and article mistakes that the Hiroshima trainees, including me, were making. (Shunta)


As far as this particular aspect of the evaluative analysis of the 2010 program is concerned then, my feeling is that the detailed focus on program content (represented by the materials) – while of considerable benefit per se – meant that in the event, the potential to more profitably integrate this program content with the wider social and learning context was not realized to its fullest extent.

4.5.5 Evaluative Focus – Program Structure, Content and Balance

A great many things are more easily said than done. ‘Language awareness’, however, like all constructs, must first be defined into existence before it can be discussed. Analysis of the participants’ evaluative response commentary in this connection revealed striking evidence of a disjunction between academic (applied linguistics) conceptualizations and their accompanying meta-linguistic descriptions on the one hand, and the actuality of program content on the other. Indeed, the analysis highlighted the inaccessibility of the former (relative to the latter) to such a degree that I have since felt the need to question the wisdom of attempting to develop a meta-linguistic dimension for inclusion within the 2010 program.

I thought it advisable to delay the introduction of this meta-cognitive/meta-linguistic focus in order to give the participants sufficient prior experience of engaging with the practical actuality of cross-linguistic language awareness content. I had formulated – with the aid of Chiharu – the two Japanese terms ‘kyoo-in no gengo ishiki’ and ‘kyoo-in no gengo-kan no gengo-ishiki’ to correspond with the constructs TLA and Cross-Linguistic TLA respectively, in the belief that the use of L1 would make it easier for the participants to access and appreciate these twin constructs at the meta-cognitive level.

Item number four on the exit interview guide accordingly invited the participants to state their understanding of the two terms in order to provide me with an approximate idea of the extent to which they had been able to engage with the program’s focus at a meta-cognitive/meta-linguistic level. The following extract taken from Shinsuke’s
exit interview, although perhaps the most categorical of the participants’ responses, was not as atypical as I would have wished:

   Interviewer: *When you hear the two terms, kyoo-in no gengo-ishiki and kyoo-in no gengo-kan no gengo-ishiki, how do you understand them?*

   Shinsuke: *I don’t understand them.*

   Data Source: Exit Interview, Shinsuke, 4.8.2010.

Tomoya’s response points to the inaccessibility and lack of appeal of academic and meta-linguistic terminology for these participants at this stage of their professional development:

   Tomoya: *If we say gengo-ishiki, it sounds very difficult…*

   Interviewer: *Yes, because it is an academic term.*

   Tomoya: *I don’t like such difficult terminology!*

   Data Source: Exit Interview, Tomoya, 2.8.2010.

And Shoko’s response revealed evidence of the disjunction posited above in respect of the academic and meta-linguistic terminology and the practical actuality of the syllabus content:

   *When I first saw the title ‘Linguistic Awareness’, I thought it sounded very difficult. But, in the class, Neil taught us, picking up on various aspects which we Japanese find difficult, so all the classes were so striking and they were errors which we actually made! It was easy to understand because it was clear what we were doing and why we were doing it.* (Shoko)

   Data Source: Exit Interview, Shoko, 2.8.2010.

Having said this, I believe that there was sufficient evidence within the participants’ evaluative response commentaries to indicate their possession of a workable, intuitive appreciation of the Cross-Linguistic Teacher Language Awareness construct as I defined it in the earlier Literature Review, even though this intuitive grasp may not have been readily amenable to or available for focused articulation. In terms of significance, one could take the view that the issue is essentially cosmetic rather than
substantive. For this researcher, however, the clear disjunction revealed by the evaluative responses recalls the tensions which are at times evident between the theoretical and practical aspects of applied linguistics, and suggests that there may well be insights to be gained in respect of the (relative) disutility of theoretical meta-language on this type of pre-service program.

A far more successful aspect of the program was, I feel, my (advance) decision to widen the conception of language awareness beyond a narrow linguistic focus to include a range of context-specific EFL-related issues. There was clear and welcome evidence of a widespread recognition among the participants of the relevance of these issues, both for themselves as L2 learners and in respect of their future practice as L2 instructors. I take the fact that there was a range of cognitive outcomes in respect of the participants’ engagement with these issues (i.e. intra-group variation) as vindicating my essentially neutral and non-prescriptive approach to awareness-raising in this wider connection.

To illustrate this point, we may note the plurality of cognitive outcomes arrived at by Yuriko, Ayako and Shoko in respect of ‘Japanese English’ as a de facto performance variety. Diverging viewpoints such as these were entirely in accordance with the program’s central awareness-raising brief - which was predicated on an appreciation of the sociolect vis-à-vis native speaker varieties. The program-final cognitive outcomes expressed by the participants may in any case be properly viewed as provisional, i.e. as the subject of ongoing development.

As we have seen, the focus group interview constituted the principal forum for the group’s exploration of the context-specific EFL-related issues selected for attention. It seemed to me that the timing of the focus group session within the program called for the balancing of two key requirements: The focus group would have to be scheduled sufficiently early such that it represented an identifiable point of departure for an ongoing, informed engagement with program content rather than a cognitive destination prematurely reached via this engagement (and perhaps subject to concerns over preferred responses in the light of program content).

Against this, the scheduling would have to allow the participants sufficient time in which to marshal their thoughts on the various issues at hand (as we have seen, the response commentaries revealed a near-total lack of prior cognitive engagement). In
the final analysis, I feel that these twin requirements – which were, after all, consciously self-imposed – were appropriate given the pre-service status of the participants, and that the (week three, day four) timing of the focus group session was just about right. Indeed, the second of these requirements emerged as highly desirable - if not essential - for the viability of the focus group, and the pre-interview elicitation worksheets proved invaluable as awareness-raising primers in this regard.

The above concern with timing in respect of the focus group has, in a sense, prefigured our next area of evaluative focus - this being a wider consideration of the value of, and the relationship between, the content and the duration of the 2010 program. The reader will recall my initial concerns regarding the availability of program time sufficient to ensure adequate in-class coverage of the WENS materials. In the event, the generous support of the Course Director meant that these initial concerns were unfounded – indeed, I now feel that if anything, fifteen weeks (even on a part-time modular basis) was perhaps excessive as far as coverage of the core program materials is concerned.

One year on, this sense prevails - notwithstanding the program satisfaction rating deficits of one or two of the participants, which in essence amounted to a call for more of the same. It was, however, possible to discern a sense of diminishing marginal utility within several of the evaluative response commentaries. That is to say, (beyond a certain point) each succeeding class yielded slightly less utility than the one that preceded it. His evaluative responses revealed that, for Koji, this point arrived at around week twelve of the program in respect of the core program materials, and accounted for the entirety of his program rating deficit. In a similar vein, Shoko, in her exit interview, reported that:

*Especially at the beginning, everything was so impressive that I was thinking about it even after the class.* (Shoko)

Data Source: Exit Interview, Shoko, 2.8.2010.

This observation suggested the ‘less is more’ paradox, which I feel may apply here to a degree in respect of the program’s cross-linguistic focus – perhaps all the more so given the materials’ clear facility for use on a self-study basis.
Calls in several of the participants’ evaluative response commentaries for more, and more detailed, explanation (Shoko, Shinsuke, Tomoya) recalled the need - identified in the research sub-question - to bring about a transition from a ‘teacher-dependent’ to a more autonomous language awareness. In one sense, of course, the conclusion of the fifteen-week program signaled this de facto transition point, but one has to draw the line somewhere and I was conscious of the need to engineer movement in this direction throughout the program. For her part, despite an apparent insatiability in respect of the resolution of ambiguity, I feel certain that Shoko fully recognized and was comfortable with the requirement for her to assume responsibility for her ongoing language awareness. Attempts on my part to ‘manage upwards’ Shinsuke’s tolerance of ambiguity (Legenhausen, 1999) by contrast appear to have been far less successful. Indeed, my abiding sense is that, in Shinsuke’s case, his zero-tolerance approach to ambiguity (the primary factor underlying his program rating deficit) may mean that firmly-entrenched preconceptions carry the day. References to notions of change, transition or indeed any modification of his views or conceptions in his evaluative responses were conspicuously few and far between in comparison with his peers.

Informed by contributions to the literature (for example, Bolitho et al, 2003), I had sought to blend and balance inductive approaches (where these suggested themselves as viable options) with the essentially deductive character of the program materials. The seeming preference among the participants for an explicit treatment of program aims and content, however, subsequently raised the question of the extent to which a culture’s UAI value (along with various other such considerations) should be factored into program design in respect of monolingual L1/culturally homogeneous participant groups. It may be that inductive/implicit learning approaches are destined to meet with greater success on programs catering for participants from low UAI value countries, such as Hong Kong – UAI value twenty-nine, as compared with Japan’s ninety-two (Hofstede, 2001:151).

On reflection, I feel that the 2010 program would have benefited from the provision of regular one-to-one instructor/participant feedback/counseling sessions. These would have:

- Allowed a degree of (bi-directional) formative evaluation.
Provided a forum for the amelioration of any cognitive dissonance experienced by participants with regard to aspects of program content.

Created a space for personalized support in respect of micro-teaching assignments and the intake/uptake of methodological input.

All of which is not, of course, to suggest that formative evaluative (program) feedback was neither received from participants nor acted upon – on the contrary – merely that there were no formalized procedures in place in this regard. On reflection, the presence of the research agenda likely resulted in the prioritizing of a summative brand of evaluation as a design feature in this particular case. This imbalance in respect of structured bi-directional formative evaluation is, needless to say, a design shortcoming which I would be certain to rectify were I to re-teach the program.

4.6 Key Stakeholder Perspectives on the 2010 Language Awareness Program Module

The function of this particular section will be to present a representative selection of third-party stakeholder perspectives on the 2010 language awareness program module so as to provide an additional dimension in the triangulation of evaluative feedback data. Such third-party triangulation, although limited in scope, is an essential methodological component of data analysis in a study such as this insofar as it may be expected to lend weight to or, alternatively, to call into question or qualify the evaluative findings of the study in important respects.

I shall present the various stakeholder perspectives in the chronological order in which they were offered, beginning with some initial interim feedback which I elicited from Cheryl, the 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Program Director at approximately the midpoint of the fifteen-week program. This coincided with the 13th annual Warwick Postgraduate Conference in Applied Linguistics on June 23rd 2010, at which I outlined the rationale underlying the 2010 language awareness program module and its role in the present inquiry and presented a few of the preliminary findings. Cheryl’s e-mail communication to me was as follows:

*Feedback from the Hiroshima Students has been strikingly positive and they frequently describe their Language Awareness classes as ‘useful’ and ‘very important’. Most remarkable for me are the changes in their English language*
output – it seems that the students have now naturally incorporated and internalized the correct English into their output. Overall, there has been a dramatic and noticeable improvement in the students’ English, and they have also developed more confidence as a result of a more conscious and empowered awareness of English.

Data Source: Personal E-mail Communication, Cheryl, 18.6.2010.

I was of course encouraged by the positive tone of the Program Director’s feedback at the halfway stage of the program. While recognizing that such a communication from a program director might be designed at least in part as a form of encouragement, its claims seem to me to be sufficiently specific as to constitute prima facie evidence of the Program Director’s satisfaction with the module’s interim learning outcomes. I noted the choice of adjectives – ‘useful’ and ‘important’ – and regard the participants’ focus on the module’s intrinsic, transferable value as preferable (on account of the implied connection with the participants’ real-world ESOL context and experiences therein) to alternative positive but more immediately self-contained affective response descriptions, such as ‘enjoyable’ or ‘interesting’, that the participants might have selected to describe the language awareness module. I was encouraged, too, that the Program Director had been able to discern some improvement in the participants’ English language output, although given the brief time-span involved – seven or eight weeks – I feel that Cheryl may have subconsciously based her assessment on a relatively narrow range of L2 output – utterances which were salient for her at the time.

I can illustrate this point with the following example:

Very early on, in perhaps the first or second week of the program, Cheryl remarked to me that the participants would regularly say, ‘I lost my weight’ or ‘I gained my weight’, and she wondered why this was. I explained that these phrases were a standard feature of prototypical L1 Japanese / L2 English interlanguage, and were likely the result of overgeneralization within L2, since L1 Japanese, like L2 English, does not employ a possessive pronoun in such constructions. I assured Cheryl that the situation would change over the next several weeks, as this particular language point had been included in the WENS program materials and was soon scheduled to be covered explicitly in class in the participants’ upcoming language point presentations.
In the event, Cheryl confirmed to me that the participants had duly dropped the possessive pronouns. The salience of concrete examples such as this perhaps accounts for Cheryl’s use of the adjective ‘noticeable’ in her description of the participants’ L2 development above.

Of some note too, I feel, is Cheryl’s use of ‘(developed in) confidence’ and ‘empowered’ in relation to the awareness-raising brief of the language awareness module. However, as I hope the preceding account makes clear, I do in retrospect have reservations regarding Cheryl’s claim that: ‘…the students have now naturally incorporated and internalized the correct English into their output’ given the non-linearity of the L2 acquisition process which was evident to me both in the delivery of the language awareness module and in its subsequent evaluation.

The Language Awareness program module was identified as a ‘highlight’ of the 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima program – one of three identified ‘highlights’ selected from the 2010 program’s fifteen or so major component modules – in the Program Director’s 2010 Program Overview Report, which is a retrospective descriptive and evaluative report compiled each year for the benefit of the program sponsors at Hiroshima University’s Department of English Language Education. The evaluative aspects of the Director’s Overview Report were informed in part by feedback data in the form of a questionnaire given to the Hiroshima University Trainees - i.e. the nine study participants - to complete anonymously at the conclusion of the program.

Significantly, the two other program components identified as highlights in the Overview Report – an ‘introduction to applied linguistics and the teaching profession’ module incorporating various micro-teaching projects, and a collaborative project in which the Hiroshima University Trainees acted as teaching assistants in Japanese language classes at a local secondary school – both involved the direct study and practical application of L2 methodology. Indeed, the Program Director had this to say on this point in the Overview Report:

> Highlights once again largely involved classes and experiences related to teaching, illustrating the Hiroshima Trainee Teachers’ dedication to their chosen field...

Data Source: Course Director’s Program Overview Report, Cheryl, November, 2010.
These sentiments clearly reflect the premium which the Hiroshima University Trainees evidently attached to the direct study of methodological aspects of L2 teaching and learning, as suggested by, for example, Tomoya’s feedback commentary cited in sections 4.7 and 4.9 above dealing with the language awareness module’s integration of language learning and L2 methodology and the module’s content, structure and balance, respectively.

Viewed strictly within the context of the Warwick/Hiroshima University program, therefore, a more direct and explicit focus on methodological aspects of L2 within the language awareness module would perhaps have further enhanced the participants’ module satisfaction ratings, although there is a case to be made (and I have sought to make this case) that the conspicuous presence of explicit attention to L2 methodological considerations elsewhere within the 2010 program required a primary focus on language development (via cross-linguistic awareness-raising) within the language awareness module as a necessary complement.

It should be noted, too, that the Director’s comment above regarding the essential nature of the identified program ‘highlights’ implicitly recognizes the potential and importance of the language awareness module’s cross-linguistic awareness-raising function in respect of L2 pedagogy. Taken together with the clearly perceived improvement in the participants’ oral L2 output highlighted in Cheryl’s earlier comments above, I believe that these data speak directly to two of the three strands of the central research question, namely an evaluative assessment of the module’s perceived contribution to participants’ L2 development and its perceived contribution to their development as pre-service TESOL professionals in the Japanese context.

Approximately sixteen months following the conclusion of the 2010 program, I invited Warwick’s Director of Short Courses, Jasmine, to add her perspective on the 2010 language awareness module. The three extracts quoted below were taken from a 2011 e-mail communication which I received from Jasmine, who, as Short Course Director, was party to much of the participants’ evaluative feedback on the language awareness module.

The first extract reveals a strongly positive interpretation of the trainees’ evaluative feedback on the Director’s part. There is also reference to the detail expressed in the
feedback regarding the practical benefits which the trainees felt they had derived from the awareness-raising focus of the module:

*You must have been thrilled to read the reflections on your sessions from the Hiroshima group last year. They obviously found them hugely helpful and it was interesting to see how articulate they were in describing how exploring language awareness had helped them – that speaks volumes in itself.*

Data Source: Personal E-mail Communication, Jasmine, 6.12.2011.

In the following extract, Jasmine articulates her belief in the practical benefits for both teachers and students of an awareness of students’ L1 on the part of L2 teachers, thereby concurring with the underlying rationale of the 2010 cross-linguistic awareness-raising module, which views L1/L2 cross-linguistic awareness as an integral component of the Teacher Language Awareness construct:

*As a (L2) teacher, I have always felt that an understanding of the students’ mother tongue is hugely beneficial in helping them to realise what leads them into potential linguistic pitfalls. The more I understand of Japanese, the more I understand why Japanese students use English in the way they do, and get stuck in certain predictable places.*

Data Source: Personal E-mail Communication, Jasmine, 6.12.2011.

Interestingly, in the above extract Jasmine articulates only what we might term the ‘negative’ or ‘inhibitory’ face of cross-linguistic influence, prefaced by an articulation of her perspective ‘as a teacher’. As such, Jasmine’s view may be said to parallel that implied by the sub-title of Swan and Smith’s (1987, 2001) ‘Learner English – A Teacher’s Guide to Interference and Other Problems’. The existence of a dynamic relationship between what I see as multiple aspects of cross-linguistic influence and the potential benefits of an awareness of this on the part of teachers in ESOL contexts will be explored in more detail in sections 5.4 and 5.5 of the Discussion chapter to follow.

In the third extract, quoted below, Jasmine is unequivocal in inferring from the perceived success of the 2010 language awareness module its wider relevance and the
potential benefits to trainees of cross-linguistic awareness-raising - not only with respect to L2 ITE provision, but extending to L2 INSET:

*I certainly see the potential for this kind of programme in any of our short courses for pre-service and in-service teachers. The feedback from your pilot group, and their test results, has certainly shown how rewarding, beneficial and enjoyable it can be.*

Data Source: Personal E-mail Communication, Jasmine, 6.12.2011.

To summarize this final section of the evaluative account:

The evaluative feedback received from Cheryl and Jasmine represents the views of the most senior stakeholders responsible for the provision and composition of the annual Warwick/Hiroshima University L2 ITE program. Cheryl and Jasmine’s experience of and responsibility for the design and delivery of this particular program extends over many years, thus permitting a comparative dimension to their judgments regarding both the intrinsic and the relative merits of program content generally.

Given this background, the inclusion of Cheryl and Jasmine’s perspectives is here seen as contributing to the evaluative validity of the research inquiry and its essential findings (see Maxwell, 1992 and its citation in Dörnyei, 2007 chapter 3 in this connection). Dörnyei (2007:59, emphasis added) notes that the construct of evaluative validity is concerned with ‘...how accurately the research account assigns value judgments to the phenomenon’ under study, and I therefore felt it incumbent upon me, in view of my dual status as practitioner-researcher, to include this important additional dimension in the triangulation of the evaluative data.

With regard to the thesis’ research agenda, the comments quoted above indicate a strongly positive evaluation on the part of two key third-party stakeholders of both the intrinsic worth of the 2010 language awareness module and of the potential benefits of the inclusion of cross-linguistic awareness-raising within the general context of L2 ITE/INSET provision.

**4.7 Conclusion**

This evaluative account of the 2010 Language Awareness Program has addressed the three component elements of the central research question in turn and was composed
following a qualitative analysis of the evaluative response data for seven key program aspects, undertaken in order to:

- Arrive at a richer appreciation of the factors motivating the final program satisfaction ratings of its nine participants.
- Identify the various merits and shortcomings of the program as delivered in respect of its hypothetical evolution and possible wider relevance.
- Facilitate the organization of a feedback-driven response to the research question.

The program satisfaction ratings given by the participants were all comfortably within the upper one third on a ten-point scale, with a mean program satisfaction rating of 8.167/10 for the group as a whole. However, the motivations underlying these ratings were seen as likely reflecting a far wider range of variables than the substantial quantitative gains achieved by the participants on the pre- and post-tests, with which there appeared little correlation when viewed in ordinal, rather than absolute terms. Evaluated in respect of its primary cross-linguistic awareness-raising brief, the program emerged with considerable merit, having generated an overwhelmingly positive response in this regard. The program may be accounted a success, too, in light of its acknowledged efficacy in raising awareness of, and stimulating an ongoing engagement with, a range of key issues at the L1 Japanese/L2 English interface.

The evaluative feedback from key third-party stakeholders was strongly positive, mirroring the high satisfaction ratings and broadly positive evaluations received from the program participants. Beyond the positive consensus on cross-linguistic awareness-raising, however, the analysis revealed evidence of intra-group variation in respect of the program’s perceived contribution to participants’ L2 and professional development. This intra-group variation was explored using a framework based on the participants’ apparent orientation to the numerous uncertainties which emerged as a by-product of the awareness-raising process and its concomitant requirement for a reassessment of existing cognitions and mental representations of L2. Program satisfaction ratings appear to have been influenced by the extent to which participants were able to arrive at a net resolution, i.e. an excess of valued answers over lingering questions.
While the core program materials were welcomed as a valuable learning resource and long-term asset, the deterministic influence exerted by these materials upon the structure and delivery of the program was, on reflection, something of a double-edged sword – an observation which, it must be said, is likely to apply generically in respect of program materials.

Due no doubt to a research concern with more probable scenarios involving the delivery of similar programs within the Japanese context itself, it emerged that I likely underestimated the potential significance of participants’ interaction with the wider social and learning context in respect of its impact on their responses to aspects of program content. In this connection, the analysis suggested a need for a more explicit (initial) acknowledgement of, and (ongoing) nuanced engagement with, this interaction. The numerous opportunities afforded by the micro-teaching assignments for the mediation of cross-linguistic program content were well received by the participants, although a greater level of methodological support and guidance (inter alia) could have been provided had the scheduling allowed for regular instructor/participant bi-directional feedback and counseling sessions.

The wider relevance of program content for L1 Japanese learners was apparent to all concerned, and its utility in respect of the participants’ future practice was acknowledged and welcomed by a clear majority of the participants. This sense of perceived utility was either reinforced or diminished to the extent that the participants were able to identify with the program’s experiential learning dimension and proceed to make the necessary connections. In this last respect, the program (as practice) would likely have benefited from a more explicit treatment of its underlying rationale.
Chapter five: Discussion

5.1 Introduction

The opening section of the chapter posits a link between a particular (constructed) variable which emerged ex post facto as a recurring theme from analysis of the evaluative responses to the 2010 program and the program satisfaction ratings which were elicited retrospectively from the nine program/study participants.

The construct of L2 Teacher Language Awareness (TLA) as represented in the relevant literature will then be revisited in the light of the 2010 program, and a series of minor modifications will be proposed in respect of its composition so as to reflect the broader conception of the (contextualized) construct required by the inclusion of a dedicated cross-linguistic component.

There then follows a re-conceptualization of the nature of cross-linguistic influence vis-à-vis standard SLA representations. The discussion will draw on a combination of: attested interlanguage production data from both the Japanese EFL context and the 2010 program, the recorded experience of a 2010 program/study participant, and the insights afforded by a particular academic paper (Carroll, 2005) in order to challenge the unconditional reliance on dichotomous ‘either/or’ conceptions of cross-linguistic influence and thereafter present a more holistic conception as a viable alternative.

The contents of the three sections thus outlined will then inform the development of a ‘TESOL Blueprint for the Mediation of Cross-Linguistic (L1/L2) Language Awareness’ intended to apply generically in respect of L2 ITE/INSET provision. The model traces the cyclical mediation of cross-linguistic language awareness to learners in ESOL contexts via the experiential learning of L2 ITE/INSET program trainees.

By invoking the notion of ‘analytic generalization’ (i.e. via theory) in preference to either sample-to-population extrapolation or case-to-case transfer (Firestone, 1993), the chapter’s concluding section reviews the salient findings of the inquiry in respect of the principal research questions and posits a key role for cross-linguistic awareness-raising within L2 ITE/INSET.
5.2 ITE/INSET Program Satisfaction Ratings – A Candidate Variable Identified

In the evaluative account of the 2010 program which preceded this chapter, I hypothesized the existence of a variable corresponding with the relative program satisfaction ratings given by the nine program participants. It was noted that the adoption of a more panoramic conception of Teacher Language Awareness to include a range of context-specific EFL-related issues inevitably resulted in the generation of as many questions as answers. It is precisely this inherent capacity for the interrogation of language-related preconceptions that has led commentators (Wright and Bolitho, 1993:299; Andrews, 2007:184-185) to acknowledge that the language awareness component of ITE/INSET programs is potentially destabilizing for trainees.

One year on from the 2010 program, following analysis of the evaluative response data and in light of the major themes identified therein, I should like to acknowledge the prescient advice of Wright and Bolitho (1993:299):

...participants in the process need to be aware of the extent to which they can tolerate open-endedness and ambiguity. Both these elements have to be incorporated into courses, and trainers have to recognize the effects of destabilization – and to address the process as a central part of the course they are involved in.

As the preceding chapter recounts, tolerance of ambiguity emerged as a central theme from the evaluative response data and led directly to the development of the analytical matrix framework - based on the 2010 participants’ (apparent) orientation to uncertainty - set out in Figure 17.

After reviewing the relative program satisfaction ratings in the light of the participants’ apparent orientation to uncertainty as revealed by their response commentary, I can report that:

- Program satisfaction ratings were found to be higher to the degree that participants experienced or were perceived to have experienced an excess of valued answers and resolutions over lingering questions, and – to the extent that ambiguities remained unresolved – were able to tolerate the presence of these as either temporary or unproblematic.
A ranking of the 2010 program participants in descending order of magnitude derived in respect of these criteria would, I believe, mirror very closely the ranking order derived from the participants’ program satisfaction ratings, given previously in 4.2 above.

We should perhaps note here that the precise constitution of ‘valued answers and resolutions’ will be subjective, and will likely vary with and be dependent upon the cognitions – both pre-existing and responsive, i.e. the result of engagement with program content – of individual participants.

The candidate variable identified above in respect of the 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University language awareness program may be reformulated - with an appropriate degree of cautionary hedging - so as to be generically serviceable in respect of comparable ITE/INSET language awareness programs thus:

- Program satisfaction ratings will likely be higher to the degree that trainees experience an excess of valued answers and resolutions over lingering questions, and – to the extent that ambiguities remain unresolved – are able to tolerate the presence of these as either temporary or unproblematic.

A variable such as this – which one might term a trainee’s ‘Resolution Index’ – may be expected to impact upon (either strengthening or weakening) trainees’ desire and ability to subsequently mediate program content to learners on their return to their instructional context(s). Clearly, however, measurement of such an index is not a straightforward issue and, as this aspect of the evaluation only emerged following my reflections on my experiences with the participants over the fifteen weeks of the program and my analysis of their evaluative response commentaries, we should perhaps qualify this as being a perceived variable – a ‘Perceived Resolution Index’ (PRI).

Thus, with regard to the 2010 language awareness program, we would assign Ayako (program satisfaction rating: 10/10), Yuya (program satisfaction rating: 9.5/10) and Yuriko (program satisfaction rating: 9/10) a high PRI rating based on their recorded experience of having achieved a relatively high number of positive resolutions and their recorded facility for tolerating residual ambiguities, while the PRI ratings of Shinsuke (program satisfaction rating: 7/10), Koji (program satisfaction rating: 7/10)
and Tomoya (program satisfaction rating: 7.5/10) would be appreciably lower based upon identical criteria. It is, of course, essential that any such PRI values be assigned independently of program satisfaction ratings, rather than as reflections of these.

The assigning of formally-derived PRI values might thus facilitate post-program tracking of trainee mediation (the term ‘implementation’ appears better suited to methodological concerns) of program content against trainees’ relative orientation to, and engagement with, this content.

Any given trainee’s ability to tolerate the presence of ambiguities as either temporary or unproblematic will be a function of his or her individual UAI value, which, as we noted earlier, may be high or low regardless of the trainee group’s national norm UAI value. The concern with participants’ tolerance of ambiguity engendered by the foregoing analysis of the evaluative response data in respect of the 2010 program emerges as significant for several, related reasons:

Firstly, there is a degree of productive and receptive ambiguity in the very nature of language itself – this deriving from its almost infinite complexity. Awareness of the true nature of language thus entails an appreciation of this (potential for) ambiguity. Additionally, there exists an inherent ambiguity, alluded to in the thesis prologue as well as in the foregoing analysis, within the concept – or rather, within the state – of ‘language awareness’ – an inherent ambiguity which Andrews (2007:184, emphasis added) sees as presenting ‘a particular dilemma for those involved with pre-service programs’. This ‘dilemma’ refers to the tensions created by the juxtaposition of, on the one hand, trainees’ need for a critical level of transmitted ‘factual’ knowledge and, on the other, the requirement for an ongoing, reflective interrogation of (the adequacy of) pre-fabricated ‘answers’ and received wisdom if these same trainees are to develop fully as professionals (Andrews, 2007:184).

Thus, Andrews (2007:185) sees the essential challenge facing L2 ITE program providers as one of achieving:

...an appropriate balance between establishing the necessary foundation of a basic knowledge about language, and arousing the kind of sensitivity to the diversity and complexity of language that is essential to any thinking L2 teacher.
Since uniformly low UAI values (corresponding to a high tolerance of ambiguity) cannot be assumed among trainees, program providers will, as Wright and Bolitho (1993:299) advocate, need to acknowledge the requirement to actively ‘manage’ the tolerance of ambiguity among their program trainees.

The potential contribution of, for example, program-initial pre-emptive briefings and the provision of a forum for the monitoring and exploration of participants’ experiences of language awareness-related ambiguity and uncertainty was posited in the preceding chapter, where it was noted that the absence from the 2010 program of such formalized mechanisms and facilities as would be capable of addressing these issues was likely responsible for a fair proportion of the participants’ program satisfaction rating deficits.

Pacek (1996), writing with regard to an L2 INSET program for Japanese high school EFL instructors, reports the potential of negative evaluative feedback to provide trainers with valuable ‘home-truth’-type insights which more positive responses would be unlikely or unable to generate. The present inquiry appears to support the conclusions drawn by Pacek (1996) in this regard, and it was precisely this potential which motivated our pursuit of the reasons underlying the participants’ 2010 program satisfaction rating deficits. I say ‘our’ in recognition of the debt of gratitude I owe to my colleague Masaki, who was ultimately responsible for obtaining these data during the one-to-one exit interviews.

5.3 Implications in respect of the L2 Teacher Language Awareness (TLA) Construct

Some commentators on the subject, for example Thornbury (1997) and Hales (1997), view TLA as essentially a knowledge-based product. Others, for example Andrews (2007), regard TLA as an ‘attribute’ which L2 teachers may ‘possess’ in varying degrees. Following Wright and Bolitho (1993) and Bolitho et al (2003), one might additionally conceive of TLA as being a ‘state’ or ‘approach’ in which knowledge about language is accessed and called upon in the service of L2 learning, planning and instruction. All three of these representations appear to have value, and any comprehensive definition of TLA should, I think, aim to highlight the dynamic complexity of TLA, which is a key feature noted by Andrews (2007) but one which is not perhaps adequately reflected in the definition offered by Thornbury (1997) cited
earlier. Additionally, prospective definitions of TLA will need to incorporate both the declarative and the procedural dimensions of linguistic knowledge, as when, for example, an L2 teacher assesses and responds to learners’ L2 performance or inquiries in a manner that is appropriate, efficient and effective.

For my part, I see L2 TLA as a potential, or capacity, theoretically infinite, which requires ongoing development, re-evaluation and refinement. The language awareness of the L2 teacher may accordingly be described as:

- The capacity of a given L2 instructor to develop, co-ordinate and reflectively engage with multiple language-related knowledge bases and competences, and to effectively mediate learning input in light of this reflective engagement in both the advance planning and moment-to-moment delivery of learning-centred L2 instruction irrespective of MOI and often in the presence of severe time constraints.

By isolating one specific aspect of the participants’ 2010 program experience for evaluative response, the foregoing analysis has demonstrated the value and potential benefits of a focus on the cross-linguistic dimension of second language learning – the corollary of which is the value of such a focus in respect of L2 pedagogy. It would thus appear axiomatic that an awareness of the cross-linguistic dimension (in respect of monolingual L1 learner groups) merits inclusion as a sub-component of the L2 instructor’s Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK).

Figure 19 overleaf represents a context-specific model of the L2 Teacher Language Awareness (TLA) construct, developed as a contextualized version of the ‘TLA, language proficiency and PCK’ model presented in Andrews (2007:31) – itself modified from earlier versions so as to explicitly incorporate knowledge of the learners ‘as an integral component of TLA’ (Andrews, 2007:30). Andrews (2007:31) further notes that the ‘TLA, language proficiency and PCK’ model represents:

...an attempt to focus attention on those aspects of the L2 teacher’s professional knowledge base which seem to intermesh particularly closely whenever pedagogical practice is specifically engaged with the content of learning, i.e. the language itself.
Figure 19. L2 Teacher Language Awareness – Contextualized for Instructors of Monolingual L1 Learner Groups:

L2 Teacher Language Awareness

L2 and L1 Knowledge

Cross-Linguistic Language Awareness

Reflective Knowledge of Macro and Micro Contexts

Reflective Knowledge of Second Language Pedagogy

Reflective Declarative Knowledge

Reflective Procedural Knowledge

Contrastive Awareness of L1/L2 and Awareness of L1–L2 Influence

Awareness of Learner Language (Interlanguages)
The model presented in Figure 19 seeks to develop these twin areas of focus – on the learner and on the language – to a logical conclusion in respect of monolingual L1 learner groups; namely the centrality of an informed awareness on the part of the L2 instructor of learner language (interlanguages) and all that such an informed awareness entails and presupposes. Cross-linguistic language awareness – one might term this ‘interlanguage awareness’ – is thus viewed as an essential sub-component of L2 TLA in respect of monolingual L1 learner groups.

Figure 19 additionally incorporates knowledge of the macro, i.e. socio-cultural, sociolinguistic, etc. and micro, i.e. learning contexts, as well as an appreciation of L2 pedagogy within the L2 TLA construct. Examples of this contextual knowledge from the Japanese EFL context would include the prevailing orientation of the majority of learners towards exonormative standard U.S. and British L2 English target models, the ‘Katakana effect’ on L2 pronunciation, and the deterministic influence exerted on L2 English instruction by high stakes proficiency tests such as TOEIC. In this respect, the Figure 19 model posits a significantly broader conception of L2 TLA than does Andrews (2007:31), wherein TLA is viewed as a subset of PCK. I have chosen to omit references to ‘PCK’ as such in the Figure 19 model, in the belief that the benefits (in terms of a utilitarian clarity) of teasing out and defining (and re-defining) the fine lines notionally demarcating (L2) TLA and (L2) PCK are unlikely to repay the effort expended in so doing. As Andrews (2007:29) notes, PCK is a generic concept, and attempts to define PCK specific to L2 instructors – in addition to a counter-productive complexity (Freeman, 2002) - will likely result in a fair amount of overlap and duplication vis-à-vis definitions of L2 TLA. While recognizing that the Figure 19 model represents something of a departure from Andrews’ (2007) account, which views TLA as a component or subset of PCK, I believe that the case can be made for an extended conception of L2 TLA which subsumes the notion of L2 PCK within its framework of reflective engagement. To reiterate, the case for so doing rests on the undoubted definitional overlap and resulting potential for duplication, together with the concerns expressed by Freeman (2002) regarding the viability of the L2 PCK construct.

Thus, the broadening of the TLA construct to include knowledge of L2 pedagogy as an integral component of L2 TLA (Figure 19), together with the model’s overt recognition of the centrality of the cross-linguistic dimension in the learning process
(see also Andrews, 2007:29; Wright, 2002:115), would appear to obviate many of the concerns expressed in Freeman (2002) and represents, it seems to me, a de facto superseding of the (L2 instructor-specific) PCK construct by its L2 TLA counterpart.

The label ‘awareness’ assumes an essential reflective dimension to the possession of L2 knowledge (see, for example, Andrews, 1999:163) - be this knowledge linguistic or pedagogic - and the L2 TLA model set out in Figure 19 prefaces each reference to its constituent knowledge bases accordingly. It is this reflective dimension which permits the principled integration and application of the various elements (knowledge bases) comprising the L2 TLA construct.

I have chosen to separate, within the cross-linguistic dimension of the Figure 19 L2 TLA model, the instructor’s awareness of learner language and interlanguages from the instructor’s awareness of the nature and likely extent of cross-linguistic influence – this so as to reflect and respect the presence of L2-internal factors within learners’ developing interlanguages. The precise nature of cross-linguistic influence on interlanguage development will be explored in some detail presently, drawing on the recorded experiences of one of the 2010 program participants, as well as attested interlanguage data from the Japanese EFL context.

The key feature which distinguishes the conception of L2 TLA as set out in Figure 19 is the elevated status accorded an L2 instructor’s knowledge of the learners’ L1 (again, in respect of monolingual L1 learner groups). An L2 instructor’s ‘interlanguage awareness’ – that is, awareness of learner language and cross-linguistic influence – will thus be a function of the instructor’s knowledge of both L2 and the learners’ L1. Several points are seen to follow from this revised conception:

- L2 TLA may not be maximized without reference to an instructor’s reflective knowledge of the learners’ L1.
- L2 TLA is dynamic (implied, I think, by ‘awareness’ - a point also emphasized in Andrews, 2007:31), requiring the ongoing interaction of contextual and pedagogic knowledge with the instructor’s knowledge of L2 and the learners’ L1 (and, indeed, with an awareness of learners’ developing L2).
L2 TLA is essentially neutral with regard to the native speaker/non-native speaker (NS/NNS) instructor debate: NSs and NNSs are both tasked with converging on a unitary, maximized ideal, albeit from different directions – the NS instructor from an L2 background, the NNS instructor from an L1 background.

The foregoing analysis highlighted the considerable value derived by the program participants from awareness-raising in respect of a range of key issues at the L1 Japanese/L2 English interface, reflecting - and I believe, validating - the decision to adopt a broader view of language awareness and its constituent elements. The conception of L2 TLA set out in Figure 19 thus incorporates the L2 instructor’s reflective appreciation of a range of context-specific ESOL-related issues as a key component, representing an additional knowledge base which then becomes available for mediation to learners (in conjunction with the model’s other component elements) in the promotion of learning. ESOL-related issues of relevance in the Japanese EFL context would include those comprising the inventory of issues which formed the basis for the focus group interview discussion in week three of the 2010 language awareness program. Reflective context-specific knowledge plays an essential modulating role in the planning and delivery of L2 instruction, as input from the L2 TLA construct’s various knowledge bases will necessarily require integration, direction and qualification in light of a variety of context-specific constraints and imperatives.

With regard to the research sub-question, analysis of the evaluative response data from the 2010 program revealed evidence that the inclusion of a range of key context-specific EFL-related issues within a broader conception of TLA has the potential – via the awareness-raising process - to further enable ITE trainees’ transition from an initial state of teacher-dependent language awareness to a more autonomous pedagogic awareness of language, in which connection we may recall Yuya’s remark, quoted in the previous chapter, regarding the value (for program trainees) of ‘finding our own answers’ over time.
5.4 A Multi-Stable Perspective on the Nature of Cross-linguistic Influence

5.4.1 ‘Either/or’ Thinking

The world, according to an anonymous wit, consists of two types of people: those who divide the world into two types of people, and those who don’t!

It was earlier noted that, in keeping with much of the TESOL professional discourse, SLA conceptions of the nature of cross-linguistic influence have tended towards reductive, binary either/or categorizations of the ‘positive/negative’, ‘resource/hindrance’ type.

In addition to its evaluative focus on the 2010 language awareness program, the present thesis has sought to consider:

- The possibility of there being alternative modes of representation which are consistent with the attested interlanguage data from the Japanese EFL context, and, if so, how such a mode of representation might relate to context-specific constructs of Language Awareness and Teacher Language Awareness.

In the physical world, a road which forks not only implies, but impels a choice, left or right, and, being physically mutually exclusive, the choice must be either left or right. It is easy to see how, via a process of abstraction from a universally experienced physical reality, dichotomous, mutually exclusive either/or conceptions have become our default mode of representational thought – an either/or mindset. As Kelso and Engstrom (2006: xi) observe:

...since the beginning of time, human beings have separated their life’s experiences into pairs and contrived explanations for them in terms of either/or relationships.

Examples of this are, of course, numerous and largely self-evident, and so need not be rehearsed here. And while it is surely axiomatic that human understanding has advanced significantly as a consequence of the impulsion of choice alluded to earlier, this ease of identification and understanding likely comes with a price attached. One can, I think, conceive of a paradox whereby we simplify in order to understand but in this process of simplification vital detail is lost, which ultimately results in a reduced understanding - an outcome of which we may be quite unaware. What is needed then
is the ability to disengage representational thought from a default mode, and to locate a more appropriate mode on a case-by-case basis.

It seems to me that a great deal of our TESOL professional discourse is unnecessarily dichotomous and oppositional in character (see Larsen-Freeman, 2002; Larsen-Freeman and Cameron, 2008 in this connection), and that these essentially oppositional, mutually exclusive either/or conceptualizations have given a specious clarity to many of the theoretical issues current in TESOL discourse and its associated literature. It may well be however, that rather than positing a generic re-conceptualization, such binary oppositional categorizations are better analyzed and understood on a case-by-case basis, thereby permitting a fresh examination of the precise nature of each representation on its own terms.

The oppositional conceptions of the nature of the influence of a learner’s first language on his or her acquisition of/performance in a second or subsequent language highlighted earlier in Ellis (1994:343) and restated below provide a clear case in point:

One clear advance in transfer research has been the reconceptualization of the influence of the L1: whereas in Behaviourist accounts it was seen as an impediment (a cause of errors), in Cognitive accounts it is viewed as a resource which the learner actively draws on in interlanguage development.

To my mind, such accounts are crudely reductive, and seriously misrepresent a complex reality. One is surely entitled to question whether this pendulum swing from thesis to antithesis really does represent such a ‘clear advance’. In this connection, Kelso and Engstrom (2006:79) offer the following cautionary analysis with regard to both the evolution of paradigms and their subsequent evaluation:

...either/or thinking is so insidious, it not only affects the development of the candidate paradigms themselves, but even influences how we go about assessing the merits of different candidate paradigm shifts once they have been proposed.

The extract from Ellis (1994:343) quoted above represents it seems to me, an instance of this questionable mode of reasoning par excellence.
5.4.2 An Alternative Perspective

Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008:5) highlight the recent emergence of chaos/complexity theory within the applied linguistics research agenda, maintaining that ‘…such a perspective can help to overcome the dualism that often besets our field.’ In line with the view expressed in Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008) that supra-disciplinary approaches may have the potential to provide applied linguistics with meaningful insights which take us beyond mere metaphor, I propose to draw upon the field of quantum physics as a source discipline in the reassessment of standard SLA conceptions of cross-linguistic influence, such as those set out in Ellis (1994:343) above. Making reference to Carroll (2005) and a variety of attested interlanguage data from the context of focus, I shall then proceed to examine the implications of a revised conception of L1 transfer effects in respect of the constructs of Language Awareness and its pedagogical counterpart, Teacher Language Awareness.

Constraints of space here preclude a detailed exposition of the source domain particulars; it will be sufficient to note that under certain experimental conditions of observation, light appears to exhibit the characteristic properties of a photon (i.e. a particle), while under alternative conditions of observation it appears to exhibit the properties of a wave. The paradox lies in the impossibility of our observing the two states – held by classical physics to be mutually exclusive – simultaneously. The framework of ‘Complementarity’, developed by the celebrated Danish quantum physicist Niels Bohr to account for the so-called ‘wave/particle duality’ of light, may, I believe, be invoked for our purposes in the acceptance of two seemingly contradictory accounts of the reality of a given phenomenon as providing the only complete description of that phenomenon.

Because a de facto choice is implied/impelled by binary (oppositional) categorizations (see Krishen et al, 2008 for an account of this phenomenon from the discipline of consumer psychology), the conceptions of the nature of cross-linguistic influence as set out in Ellis (1994:343) above are, as descriptions, partial and thus incomplete. A complementaristic approach by contrast implies that both modes of description, though seemingly incompatible, are rather to be reconciled via the adoption of a
holistic, inclusive perspective, and the reality of a phenomenon apprehended by examining the precise nature of the interaction of the oppositional tendencies therein.

In considering descriptions of cross-linguistic influence as either ‘positive’ or ‘negative’, we find echoes of Bohr’s struggle with the power of everyday language to separate and demarcate - a struggle the intractability of which led him to posit the necessity of a revised conceptual framework. This theme is examined in Hofstadter (1979:251), who takes the view that by its very nature language is inherently reductive and dualistic – the latter defined therein as ‘the conceptual division of the world into categories’. Hofstadter (1979:251) illustrates this point via the following Koan – a paradoxical anecdote or riddle, used extensively in Japanese Zen Buddhism to explore and expose the limitations of prima facie (perceptual) reasoning, and thereby to provoke a re-conceptualization or greater degree of insight:

*Shuzan held out his short staff and said: ‘If you call this a short staff, you oppose its reality. If you do not call it a short staff, you ignore the fact. Now, what do you wish to call this?’*

With regard to the nature of the influence of a learner’s L1 on his or her acquisition of/performance in L2, we can illustrate the point by substituting each of the binary oppositional categorizations detailed above into Hofstadter’s chosen Koan, giving us:

*If you call this a positive resource, you oppose its reality. If you do not call this a positive resource, you ignore the fact.*

And:

*If you call this a negative influence, you oppose its reality. If you do not call this a negative influence, you ignore the fact.*

Rather than a fixed, binary oppositional and mutually exclusive categorization – either positive or negative – I should like to posit the viability of a synchronous, complex and dynamic relationship between positive and negative L1 transfer effects. The dynamic co-existence of oppositional tendencies may be similarly expressed via the heuristic device of the Necker Cube (Figure 20 overleaf). The Necker Cube is essentially an optical illusion: a two-dimensional representation of a cube which has the potential to visually flip between states, presenting a different vertical face as
Figure 20. Necker Cube Image: An Example of Multi-Stable Perception
being closest to the viewer as it does so. The Necker Cube model, being a visual representation of a multi-stable perspective, serves as a useful heuristic device for a re-conceptualization of the nature of L1-L2 cross-linguistic influence. By visually flipping between the alternative two-dimensional states, one can foreground either the facilitative or the inhibitory aspect, backgrounding or ignoring entirely the other aspect as a corollary. Thus, one’s perception of L1-L2 cross-linguistic influence as either facilitative or inhibitory will be a function of one’s chosen interpretation.

Using the language of Ellis (1994:343) to critique Ellis (1994:343), it seems to me that it is precisely because learners ‘draw on’ L1 as a ‘resource in interlanguage development’ that L1 influence becomes a ‘source of errors’. I shall argue, therefore, that the labels ‘positive’ and ‘negative’ are not necessarily reflective of a mutual exclusiveness at the operational level, and that the operation of these positive and negative effects, being in many (although not necessarily all) instances co-existing oppositional tendencies, is characterized by a degree of synchronicity in respect of the same linguistic feature(s); that is, the positive effects (facilitators) and negative effects (inhibitors) may co-exist and operate simultaneously in respect of the same linguistic feature or features.

The Necker Cube model may be applied at the macro level to interlanguge as a general concept in order to highlight its binary aspects; additionally, the model may be applied at the micro level to particular elements or features of a given learner’s interlanguage. The model, by virtue of its multi-stable perspective, has the advantage of permitting one to visualize a process which I see as a key element in the proposed re-conceptualization of L1-L2 cross-linguistic influence. This is the capacity of an element or feature of a given learner’s interlanguage to switch character over time, from (net) facilitator (enabling factor) to (net) inhibitor (constraining factor) with respect to interlanguage development and considerations of meaning and form.

Elements or features of a learner’s interlanguage may be considered positive (facilitative) in the sense that their presence serves an immediate (short-term) strategic (for example, interactional) function, which may not easily be separated from the process of interlanguage development - indeed, such short-term strategic interactional considerations are very likely an integral part of a learner’s interlanguage
development. For our purposes, I shall identify three such strategic functions, these being I think relatively obvious, although presumably not exhaustive:

- Communication of the speaker’s meaning or message
- Promotion of the speaker’s productive oral fluency
- Buying of additional cognitive processing time for the speaker

Clearly, these three strategic functions will exhibit a considerable degree of operational overlap, and all three may conceivably motivate the presence of a given element or feature of a learner’s interlanguage. Short-term payoff – the accomplishing of interactional or communicative objectives – will likely encourage the persistence of interlanguage features, and so act as a potential (latent) constraint on aspects of future interlanguage development. Thus, ‘positive’ and ‘negative’ aspects of L1 transfer may be viewed as synchronous in their operation, although their facilitating and constraining effects may well manifest themselves diachronically, over time.

**5.4.3 Some Examples from the Interlanguage Data**

While aspects (or aspects of aspects) of a given learner’s L2 interlanguage will exhibit inertia (here preferred to ‘fossilization’), other aspects will be relatively free of inertia, and will develop more rapidly. Thus, aspects of a learner’s interlanguage syntax may be subject to a considerable degree of inertia and may persist over a protracted period of time even as related lexical knowledge continues to develop. The routine L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage placing of adverbial time references sentence-initially provides a case in point.

As we have noted, adverbial time references typically occupy a sentence-final position in English, whereas in Japanese, adverbial time references are typically sentence-initial. Thus, the English sentences, ‘I played tennis **yesterday**’ and ‘I’m going shopping **tomorrow**’ have the Japanese counterparts ‘**Kinoo** tenisu o shimasita’ and ‘**Ashita** kaimono ni ikimasu’, respectively. Following the L1 Japanese word-order pattern, learners routinely produce formulations such as ‘**Yesterday** I played tennis’ and ‘**Tomorrow** I will go shopping’ (materials references: 0403 and 0505). In terms of immediate interactional/communicative payoff, all three of the strategic functions highlighted above may be identified as being present in such formulations, which are conspicuous by their presence even at higher levels of L2 proficiency.
Returning to the metaphor of the Necker Cube, Carroll (2005) provides a valuable example of perspective as the central determinant in the assigning of either a ‘positive’ or a ‘negative’ character to elements or features of learner language. In other words, this is largely a matter of interpretation, i.e. which of the synchronous co-existing tendencies one chooses to foreground. Most, if not all EFL instructors would instinctively regard the L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage feature Carroll (2005) labels ‘vowel-marking’ as the problematic carry-over into L2 of the L1 Japanese (Katakana) open CV syllable structure. Carroll (2005) however, posits that learners, having a different (non-teleological) perspective, actively employ this interlanguage feature as an interactional facilitator. Thus, Carroll (2005:232) presents evidence that:

...strongly suggests that the vowel-marking common in talk by Japanese novice speakers of English cannot simply be attributed to L1 phonological interference, but rather that the novice speakers...utilize and orient to vowel-marking as a situated resource in the management of their conversational interaction. Most frequently vowel-marking is employed as a micro-practice within the extremely common conversational activity of forward-repair/word search where it can serve both to initiate repair as well as manage aspects of the search prior to resolution.

The ‘interactional resource’ interpretation of the learner language data in Carroll (2005) would, therefore, appear to be entirely consistent with the third of the strategic functions identified above.

L2 production data recorded in respect of the 2010 program included countless instantiations of features detailed in the Prototypical L1 Japanese/L2 English Interlanguage Profile - from which the WENS materials were derived - as evidenced by, for example, Takashi’s reflective list of items (detailed in the preceding chapter), and thus provided a more immediate empirical grounding for the proposed re-conceptualization of the nature of cross-linguistic influence. The following example, alluded to earlier in the entry for week six in the narrative account of the program (chapter three), illustrates what I see as the synchronous operation of oppositional tendencies in respect of L2 production and development:
Excited after her damaged laptop had been revived by the University’s IT repairs team Shoko answered my inquiry by saying, ‘I could install Microsoft Office®!’ The Prototypical L1 Japanese/L2 English Interlanguage Profile details the overuse of ‘could’ to express completed one-off actions in the past (featured in the WENS materials, reference: 1610), mirroring the standard L1 addition of the enabling verb ‘dekiru’ to the main verb or, alternatively, the use of the potential form of the main verb. We can appreciate that this mirroring of the familiar L1 structure serves the second of the strategic functions above, namely the promotion of oral L2 fluency; effective communication of the meaning/message – the first of the strategic functions identified above – is likewise accomplished, with a concomitant positive impact on confidence levels. These, then, are the facilitating effects of L1 transfer; the short-term pay-offs. My follow-up response to Shoko’s utterance, however, points to the flip side, the potential constraints which this type of L1 transfer may exert on L2 development:

Not wanting to dent Shoko’s evident joy, I answered, ‘Great! How about Skype®?’ My spontaneous decision to bypass considerations of form in the interests of the interactive aspect of the exchange (i.e. to maintain a ‘meaning’ focus) would potentially serve to reinforce and further internalize this particular interlanguage feature. The fact that Shoko produced her utterance the day after our classroom focus on materials reference 1610 – this very feature – not only highlighted the non-linearity of the L2 learning/acquisition process, but suggests the nature of the potentially constraining influence of L1 transfer on future L2 development as follows:

The evident short-term interactional pay-off provides an incentive for L1 Japanese learners to continue to employ and rely on ‘could’ (non-negative) in respect of their references to one-off actions in the past, for example:

- I could find the hotel OK.
- I could take quite a few pictures in York.
- Could you contact her?
- I could meet the President!

The ongoing facilitative effects of so doing will, however, likely operate at the expense of preferred alternative L2 forms, such as:
I managed to find the hotel OK.
I took quite a few pictures in York.
Were you able to contact her?
I got to meet the President!

We might anticipate, therefore, that acquisition of these alternative L2 forms may be delayed – perhaps significantly - as the force of inertia acts upon learners’ interlanguage development. Thus, the facilitating and constraining effects of L1 transfer are synchronous in their operation, although the constraining effects may only become manifest following a (perhaps substantial) time-lag.

Analysis of the routinely-encountered L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage reluctance to transfer negation in clauses following the verb ‘think’ reveals, I believe, the presence of all three of these strategic functions. Japanese learners at all but the very highest proficiency levels invariably produce rather unnatural-sounding formulations of the ‘I think I won’t go’, ‘I think she can’t speak Chinese’ type, in which (initial) ‘think’ is positive (non-negative) and it is the subsequent verb which is negated, as the default mode of expression. This over-reliance on a ‘positive/negative’ L2 construction reflects the structural pattern of L1: ‘Ikanai to omoimasu’ and ‘Kanojo wa chugoku-go o hanasenai to omoimasu’, respectively. Learners are generally unaware that English tends to favour formulations wherein the negation is transferred, i.e. ‘I don’t think I’ll go’ and ‘I don’t think she can speak Chinese’ (materials reference: 2704).

Having posited the presence of the three strategic functions as important interactional facilitators, I shall now make explicit the manner in which these strategic functions are realized with respect to the interlanguage reluctance to transfer negation in clauses following the verb ‘think’ alluded to above. In the case of the first strategic function, that of communication of the meaning/message, it will be apparent that transfer of the L1 syntactic structure easily permits retrieval of the message in all cases – the difference is purely stylistic. As for the second of the strategic functions, that of promoting oral fluency, one can appreciate that ‘I think…’ constitutes, as it were, a pre-fabricated opening, in that it permits either a non-negated or a negated complement (‘I think I will go’/‘I think I won’t go’), the character of which may be
finalized sequentially, thus simultaneously serving the third of the strategic functions, namely the buying of valuable additional online processing time for the speaker.

In the course of L2 interaction, the L2 learner will frequently either lack awareness of, or will not have internalized, the appropriate L2 lexis. Faced with this difficulty, a common default strategy will be to resort to known L2 translation equivalents of the relevant L1 lexis. These direct L1-L2 imports - termed ‘calques’ - approximate intended meaning in L2 and thus serve the first of the three strategic functions, albeit in many instances imperfectly.

Here I shall cite just four of the numerous examples of calques which appear in the attested interlanguage data, and invite the reader to supply the L2 English recasts: ‘Please teach me your name’ (‘Onamae o oshiete kuremasen ka?’), ‘This room is very wide’ (‘Kono heya wa totemo hiroi desu’), ‘I think I will fall the exam’ (‘Shiken ni ochiru to omoimasu’), and ‘Last night I saw a dream’ (‘Sakuya yume o mimashita’) (see, respectively, materials references: 0112 1401 0912 and 0915). That the reader will, no doubt, have been able to supply the appropriate L2 recasts with very little difficulty in respect of two non-cognate languages provides, I think, evidence of the efficacy of the interlanguage strategy of calquing from L1 in the absence of the requisite knowledge of L2 in order to achieve communicative aims.

As is the case in respect of the sentence-initial placement of adverbial time references, the facilitating and constraining tendencies of calquing from L1 co-exist and operate simultaneously: L1 is drawn upon as an ‘interactional resource’ through which to approximate and communicate meaning, and yet this process routinely leads to production ‘errors’, which may persist in L2 interlanguage and acquire a degree of inertia as a result of the positive cognitive feedback which may accompany the successful retrieval of the message. Even when no ‘errors’ result from the learner drawing on L1 as a strategic resource, there may be an accompanying price tag in terms of interlanguage inertia and constraints on the rate of L2 development.

Having made the case for an alternative conception of cross-linguistic influence based on attested interlanguage data from the Japanese EFL context, I shall now illustrate the operation of these synchronous aspects of cross-linguistic influence with reference to the 2010 program experience of one of the participants, Shinsuke – a real-life
episode previously reported in the evaluative account of the program which preceded this chapter.

As the reader may recall, the episode in question centred on an ELF interaction with an (NNS) exchange student from Hong Kong. Apparently unable to accurately produce a recently-covered L2 colloquialism and faced with incomprehension on the part of his interlocutor, Shinsuke reverted to the more semantically transparent L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguage form: ‘Are you strong for alcohol?’ – a direct translation (calque) of the standard L1 Japanese ‘Osake wa/ni tsuyoi desu ka?’ This strategic use of direct translation from L1 was evidently sufficient to repair the breakdown in communication and, as was noted in the preceding chapter, gave Shinsuke considerable pause for thought.

Recalling the episode in his exit interview, Shinsuke expressed the view that a number of the L2 English phrases and expressions presented in the WENS materials as reformulations of common context-specific interlanguage forms ‘seem too indirect’. One can certainly sympathize with Shinsuke in this regard, especially in view of the highly idiomatic character of the English language. For me, this episode encapsulates and graphically demonstrates the synchronous operation of the positive and negative aspects of cross-linguistic influence as follows:

Faced with a communicative breakdown in L2, the (reversion to) direct translation from L1 succeeds admirably (on account of a far greater semantic transparency) in respect of the first of the strategic functions identified above, namely the communication of the speaker's meaning/message. Thus, L1 has functioned as a facilitative resource, resulting in an obvious short-term communicative pay-off. In this respect, Shinsuke’s ELF encounter mirrors L2 interactions involving learners with a shared L1 (familiar to instructors of monolingual L1 learner groups during, for example, pair-work activities), in which communicative success – the short-term pay-off – is frequently achieved courtesy of a shared familiarity with specific features of interlanguage.

As we noted earlier however, this short-term communicative success may have its price tag hidden from view: it may ultimately contribute to the reinforcement and perpetuation of certain non-standard features of learners’ interlanguages. Thus, the positive (facilitating) and negative (constraining) aspects of this cross-linguistic
influence are in fact synchronous and far from mutually exclusive in their operation. Whereas the positive effects are immediately apparent however, a significant time-lag may be expected before the negative effects manifest themselves as constraints on the development of L2 proficiency.

Based on the response data from the exit interview, we may additionally speculate that Shinsuke has made the meta-cognitive connections for himself, and concluded that there is considerable mileage in a reliance on direct translation from L1 as a strategic interactional resource on account of the semantic transparency such a strategy affords, in his view, relative to L2. The wider long-term implications of this one particular ELF encounter are clear, and only serve to compound my regret at not having learned of the episode prior to the program’s conclusion. We may anticipate that, for Shinsuke, the ‘positive’ and ‘negative’ ripple effects of this one episode will likely extend (via extrapolation to the generic level) far beyond the single interlanguage formulation in question.

As was noted in respect of the example presented in Carroll (2005), one’s initial and dominant interpretation of a given feature of a learner’s interlanguage will likely be a function of one’s orientation to and perspective on its production. The differing perspectives highlighted by Carroll (2005), together with the analysis of the numerous examples drawn from attested interlanguage data above likely implies that, in practice, L2 learners will tend to be relatively less aware of negative aspects of interlanguage production and more aware of its positive aspects. L2 instructors by contrast, on account of their teleological orientation to a known L2 target or end stage, will tend to be more aware of the negative aspects and less aware of the positives. Thus, our discussion proceeds inexorably in the direction of the need for (cross-linguistic) awareness-raising in this connection and the significance of the foregoing in respect of constructs such as Language Awareness and Teacher Language Awareness.

5.5 A TESOL Blueprint for the Mediation of L1/L2 Language Awareness

As the Necker Cube model (Figure 20) demonstrates, in the presence of ‘meta-stability’ a focus on one aspect to the exclusion of the other will yield an apprehension of reality which is partial – in both senses of the word. In this connection, it seems to me that the cross-linguistic dimension of the language
awareness construct might usefully be conceptualized with respect to L2 instruction and learning by invoking the more inclusive, holistic framework of Complementarity. In other words, cross-linguistic language awareness would involve an appreciation of the potentially synchronous, binary character of cross-linguistic influence – that is, an appreciation of the dynamic interplay of facilitating and constraining influences on L2 over time.

The preceding section highlighted contrasting perceptions of the facilitating and constraining influences of L1 among L2 learners and L2 instructors – this the result of their differing perspectives on and primary orientations to the cross-linguistic influence of a learner’s L1 (Carroll, 2005). Explicit reference to the essentially binary nature of cross-linguistic influence as part of a language awareness focus within ITE/INSET programs may, therefore, permit a re-balancing, as it were, of trainee perceptions in this regard. L1/L2-specific awareness gains resulting from such program coverage are then potentially available for subsequent pedagogical application in trainees’ professional contexts.

Figure 21 overleaf outlines a TESOL blueprint for the mediation of L1/L2 language awareness, informed by the 2010 language awareness program experience and intended to apply generically to ITE/INSET in respect of monolingual L1 ESOL contexts, such as Japan. The model proceeds from program-based awareness-raising regarding the potentially synchronous, binary nature of cross-linguistic influence and – via the use of dedicated L1-specific instructional materials – to a consideration of the precise manner in which these influences are realized within the ESOL context of focus. The insights gained on such ITE/INSET programs – in addition to their transmission or mediation for the benefit of ESOL learners – may be expected to productively inform L2 instructors’ pedagogical practice at a more general level, reflecting the inclusion of a range of context-specific TESOL-related issues within the cross-linguistic program focus.

The following response commentary, taken from a participant’s (Takashi) written 2010 program evaluation, both encapsulates the rationale for the development of the Figure 21 blueprint and outlines very clearly the cycle of mediation which the model incorporates as a key feature:
Figure 21. TESOL Blueprint for the Mediation of L1/L2 Language Awareness

Curved arrows indicate experiential learning on L2 teacher development programs. Chevrons indicate subsequent mediation of language awareness in EFL contexts.
I’ve learned that Japanese (as a language) is sometimes (a) help for us to study English in terms of vocabulary – some words are nearly the same as English. However, also that Japanese could (must) be an obstacle for Japanese learners to study English, in terms of pronunciation, grammar and cultural background. It’s very, very useful as a learner and also as a trainee teacher. I know these things, so I can teach students these things in the future. (Takashi)


The response commentary offered by Takashi above refers to a specific L1 – Japanese – and, for any given L1, cross-linguistic awareness-raising would be expected to cover numerous specific examples within the various aspects of language typically addressed in formalized L2 learning.

5.5.1 Potential Benefits of Cross-Linguistic Language Awareness

At the other, generic end of the spectrum, certain potential benefits in terms of classroom-based L2 learning suggest themselves in respect of each of the four quadrants of the Figure 21 blueprint model:

I see the following as potential benefits of a heightened awareness among L2 teachers of the ‘positive’ aspects of cross-linguistic influence:

- Teachers may achieve a more balanced view of cross-linguistic influence and as a result may be more likely to avoid potentially stifling over-correction in the interests of promoting fluency in L2 learners.
- Teachers may be better able to differentiate between short-term and longer-term facilitating effects of cross-linguistic influence.
- Teachers may be better placed to encourage their learners to utilize genuinely facilitative strategies involving L1-L2 transfer.
- Teachers may be better placed to plan the introduction of, and (learner) transition to, preferred alternative L2 forms.

I see the following as potential benefits of a heightened awareness among L2 learners of the ‘positive’ aspects of cross-linguistic influence:

- Learners’ confidence levels may be raised in respect of L2 production.
Learners may be better placed to consciously apply facilitative L1-L2 transfer strategies as part of a wider strategic approach to L2 learning and use.

Explicit reference by learners to such strategic transfer in the course of L2 interaction may itself serve as a further L2 communicative aid.

I see the following as potential benefits of a heightened awareness among L2 teachers of the ‘negative’ aspects of cross-linguistic influence:

- Teachers’ effectiveness in respect of error-correction - range, strategies and techniques - may be expected to improve as a result.
- Teachers may be better able to identify limits to L1/L2 equivalence and convey these to learners.
- Lesson planning and materials development may be expected to benefit.
- Teachers may be expected to be better able to monitor their own L2 output and (so) become better L2 models for learners.

I see the following as potential benefits of a heightened awareness among L2 learners of the ‘negative’ aspects of cross-linguistic influence:

- Progress through the various stages of interlanguage development may be accelerated.
- Learners may be better able – and more readily disposed - to monitor their L2 output.
- The benefits derived by L2 learners through collaborative learning may be enhanced.
- Explicit reference by learners to these aspects of L1-L2 influence in the course of L2 interaction may serve as a further L2 communicative aid.
- Learners may derive benefit in terms of an enhanced willingness and ability to explore and select alternative L2 forms, as assumptions of one-to-one equivalence are interrogated and restructured.

5.5.2 A Language Focus

In line with Takashi’s response comments above, the blueprint outlined in Figure 21 incorporates the key element of experiential learning on L2 teacher development programs which the ‘teachers as learners’ construct makes possible. The remit of the
Figure 21 blueprint, it should be emphasized, extends only to language improvement (via cross-linguistic awareness-raising), and does not directly concern itself with issues of methodology. This circumscribed (program) remit reflects I think, a belief that the central aim of awareness-raising - as a prelude to autonomous, informed pedagogical decision-making - is not entirely compatible with a tacitly prescriptive approach to issues of methodology. Thus, the experiential language learning dimension on L2 teacher development programs may – perhaps ideally should – additionally serve to inform trainees’ developing (and internally-generated) L2 methodological awareness.

In this respect, the present inquiry parts company with much of the previous research on the impact of L2 teacher development programs which, as Lavender (2002:249) notes, ‘has tended to focus on the methodological impact on trainee teachers.’ A principal motivation for the relative downgrading of methodological aspects (relative, that is, to the centrality of the cross-linguistic focus on language) evident in the preceding accounts of the 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima language awareness program stems from Lavender’s (2002:237) contention that:

...as evidenced by Berry (1990) with regard to pre-service courses, language teachers (i.e. trainees) tend to regard language improvement as the single most important element of their professional development course...

Furthermore, reporting on one particular inquiry, Lavender (2002:249) reveals that post-program follow-up work with trainee teachers:

...strongly suggests that it is the language improvement work rather than the methodological input that has had the greatest post-course impact.

The L2 methodological menu is, in any case, so extensive as to preclude adequate or even representative coverage on all but the most extended L2 teacher development programs. This brings us back to the decision to prioritize the language focus over explicit treatment of methodology which was discussed in section 4.5.3 of chapter four. Given the limited duration of the 2010 program and the participants lower intermediate L2 level, a syllabus consistent with that outlined in Edge (1988) wherein the emphasis shifts from language improvement through applied linguistics to methodology as trainees develop from language users to language analysts to
language teachers was, I think, justified in this case. To reiterate the point made by Andrews (2007), appropriate methodology in terms of teaching procedures presupposes an adequate understanding of the functions and use of the language in question.

The experiential learning dimension of L2 teacher development programs – a key element in the TESOL blueprint model proposed in Figure 21 – additionally permits the bypassing, as it were, of what many ITE trainees may regard as an excessively meta-linguistic treatment of aspects of the syllabus. This is, I think, a very real concern: The foregoing analysis, it will be recalled, revealed clear evidence suggesting that perhaps on account of their early pre-service (undergraduate) status, the 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima program trainees were considerably more comfortable with input expressed in accessible, concrete rather than abstract, formal or academic terms. A sliding scale based on ITE/INSET trainees’ professional experience might perhaps provide a guide in respect of the appropriate amount of academic meta-language to include in a program’s instructional mix. Nevertheless, it would be as well to bear in mind the potential for an excessive use of meta-language to compound any uncertainties experienced by program trainees.

5.5.3 My Researcher Role and the Mediation of Language Awareness Program Content

The ‘Perceived Resolution Index’ (PRI) values posited earlier – in addition to their potential significance in respect of participants’ program satisfaction ratings – may be expected to impact upon (either strengthening or weakening) trainees’ desire and ability to mediate language awareness program content to learners on their return to their instructional contexts (Figure 21). The foregoing analysis indicated that such a potential effect – certainly in terms of the desire to mediate - was traceable within the evaluative response data elicited from the 2010 program participants. Trainees’ PRI values may, therefore, function as advance indicators of the likelihood of such mediation occurring, and the proactive and ongoing management of attendant uncertainties thus assumes a central importance for L2 TLA ITE/INSET providers (Wright and Bolitho, 1993).

As was intimated in the earlier evaluative account of the 2010 program, my dual role of practitioner/researcher was seen to have imposed certain constraints in terms of
practitioner (provider) orientation which are not seen as applying in respect of the Figure 21 blueprint model. To recapitulate to the central issue: In view of the fact that the 2010 program represented an innovative approach to (language) awareness-raising within the context of L2 ITE/INSET, the research agenda was (necessarily) concerned first and foremost with establishing a) the fact and b) the extent of the language awareness module’s perceived relevance and value to participants’ L2 development and future professional practice. It therefore precluded any overt leading of the participants in that direction – hence the exploratory tone of the evaluative elicitation cues to which the participants were asked to respond. Any relevance and value in the above connection would therefore have to be perceived by the participants for themselves, rather than openly assumed and communicated by me as practitioner/program provider in advance of participant responses.

In this respect, my role as practitioner (i.e. program provider) was likely constrained on this occasion by the research agenda. This aspect of the inquiry emerged ex post facto and was, I confess, not fully anticipated; rather, the concern pre-program was with its obverse – that is, that the delivery of the program should not in any way compromise the research agenda. Initially, it was envisaged that any potentially constraining effects would manifest themselves in respect of program content, and I was thus anxious – as practitioner - to maintain the integrity of program content in the face of (potentially tangential) research demands. In the event, it was in terms of my orientation and stance (neutral, in many respects), that the constraining influence of the research agenda primarily manifested itself. It was the perceived requirement to limit the overt communication of an assumed relevance and value which, in large measure I feel, contributed to and accounted for my essentially non-directive orientation and reluctance to adopt an approach to issues of L2 methodology that might be regarded as even tacitly prescriptive.

The research inquiry having, I believe, duly demonstrated this posited relevance and value to trainees, both in terms of L2 development and L2 professional practice, there would appear no valid reason why subsequent L2 ITE/INSET programs which feature a cross-linguistic awareness-raising component need operate under similar (self-imposed) constraints.
5.6 Analytic Generalization – A Posited Role for Cross-Linguistic Awareness-Raising in L2 ITE/INSET

Addressing the potentially contentious issue of the validity of claims to a wider relevance for the case study as a research method, Yin (2009:15) draws the following parallel with the experiment as research method:

...case studies, like experiments, are generalizable to theoretical propositions and not to populations or universes. In this sense, the case study, like the experiment, does not represent a ‘sample’, and in doing a case study, (the) goal will be to expand and generalize theories (analytic generalization) and not to enumerate frequencies (statistical generalization).

Given that ITE/INSET programs constitute the (proposed) real-world context for the practical application of theoretical insight, there is a sense in which – in addition to generalizing to theory – what we are engaged with here is a proposed generalizing via theory. In view of their perceived utility in respect of qualitative research (Firestone, 1993), the arguments for case-to-case transfer and analytic generalization are, it seems to me, far from incompatible given the shifting of responsibility for the (retrospective) assigning of a wider relevance to the reader (from the researcher) entailed by the former (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Thus, while I have here sought to highlight the inquiry’s potential relevance to theory (analytic generalization), I would certainly not wish to rule out the possibilities for some form of case-to-case transfer where readers are able to identify a sufficient degree of congruence between the case detailed here and their own professional contexts. To recapitulate to the initial research agenda: The inquiry’s principal research question centred on the degree to which an explicitly cross-linguistic approach to language awareness might enhance the perceived value of an L2 ITE program in terms of a) trainees’ L2 language development and b) trainees’ development as pre-service TESOL professionals.

The foregoing analysis has provided strong evidence to suggest that, with particular regard to item a) above, an explicitly cross-linguistic approach to the (L2 Teacher) Language Awareness construct made a noteworthy and overwhelmingly positive contribution to trainees’ perceptions of the value of the Spring/Summer 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Teacher Training Program. Furthermore, it was found that – by, for example, noting the high frequency with which the participants
employed the word ‘notice’ (either in L2 or via L1 Japanese equivalents) in their evaluative responses – this positive contribution was particularly evident in respect of the program’s primary awareness-raising function.

5.6.1 Localization

The single qualifying phrase ‘cross-linguistic’ constitutes the obvious centerpiece of the argument, and necessarily involves two languages – L1 and L2 – both of which are variables within a formula. In other words, we are here combining the generic (formula) and the specific (variables). TESOL, by definition, requires that L2 (English) be held constant, but it is the specificity of L1 which allows us to generalize the formula. Thus it is that we are essentially generalizing the concept, while at the same time particularizing the content.

In this sense, we are to extend Widdowson’s (2003) concept of the localization of L2 learning (i.e. consciously integrating the ‘E’ with – rather than isolating it from – the ‘SOL’ or ‘FL’) to the context of L2 teacher development, which latter, as the Figure 21 blueprint implies, has a key formative role to play in bringing about such a localization. In explicit acknowledgement of the essentially bilingual nature of L2 learning, the contextualizing of the various knowledge bases comprising the L2 TLA construct set out in Figure 19 will similarly function to:

- Promote the localization of L2 pedagogical objectives.
- Expedite the achievement of these localized pedagogical objectives.

The positing of a key role for cross-linguistic awareness-raising within context-specific L2 ITE/INSET thus represents, it seems to me, the logical conclusion of a progression which originates with the acknowledgement of L2 learning as a de facto cross-linguistic endeavour. From this initial acknowledgement, it follows as a corollary that L2 pedagogy would be remiss were it not to take due account of the cross-linguistic dimension. Once this central point is accepted, it then becomes axiomatic that L2 pedagogical constructs such as L2 TLA are essentially incomplete with regard to monolingual L1 learner groups if a reflective knowledge (previously equated with ‘awareness’) of the cross-linguistic dimension as it applies in respect of L2 learners and L2 learning does not feature as a component element. The requirement for a principled incorporation of an awareness-raising focus in respect of
the cross-linguistic dimension of L2 learning within (for example, the language awareness component of) L2 ITE/INSET constitutes, therefore, the final link in the chain of reasoning.

The foregoing analysis has demonstrated that awareness-raising in respect of a range of issues at the L1 Japanese/L2 English interface (i.e. context-specific EFL-related issues) is a key element in the promotion of a localized L2 pedagogy, and the evaluative responses elicited in this connection clearly indicated that the program’s awareness-raising agenda in respect of context-specific EFL-related issues was welcomed as such by all nine pre-service trainees.

With regard to matters of practical application, the decision to include a significant cross-linguistic component within ITE/INSET will clearly require an initial investment of time and resources on the part of program providers, as relevant interlanguage data is recorded, a prototypical L1/L2 interlanguage profile is derived, appropriate instructional materials are developed (i.e. stages 1-3 of the practitioner research process set out in Figure 3 earlier), and information regarding a range of context-specific TESOL-related issues is accumulated. ITE/INSET providers are not, however, required to reinvent the wheel in this connection: template ESOL learner-language profiles for a variety of L1s, such as those in Swan and Smith (1987, 2001), are extremely useful starting points and, once developed, such resources are continually available – both for repeat use and for wider dissemination within specific TESOL contexts. The rewards of so doing, it seems to me, would far outweigh the effort involved, which, in any case, would likely be collaborative. Widespread dissemination of previously un-considered or under-considered reflective knowledge within a particular ESOL context would have the potential to ratchet up L2 awareness and proficiency levels among TESOL professionals – awareness gains which, as the Figure 21 blueprint implies, would then be available for mediation to L2 learners in that context.

5.6.2 The Transition to Autonomy

By way of a counterpart to the central research question, the research sub-question was concerned with the ways in which a transition from a state of teacher-dependent (cross-linguistic) language awareness to a state of autonomous (cross-linguistic) language awareness might be effected such that this latter is capable of being
sustained and developed by trainees subsequent to the initial focus on an L2 ITE program. The following conceptualization – formulated by Widdowson (2003:115) in respect of L2 learning – serves I think as a useful point of departure in this connection:

*To think of objectives in terms of investment, rather than rehearsal, is to recognize that the end of a course of teaching does not by any means constitute the end of learning, but is only a stage in its development. The purpose of the course is to give momentum and direction, to establish vectors, so to speak, for subsequent learning, and thus to provide bearings whereby learners can make sense and learn from their own linguistic experience.*

O’Donoghue and Hales (2002:176) report their attempts to encourage trainees to take the initiative in language-related (i.e. L2-related) research within the framework of the language awareness component of a pre-service program. Available contact time was, by all accounts, limited, and introductory input consisted of an overview of ‘typical coursebook formats for dealing with language structures’, together with a focus on ‘authentic spoken and written language data and how this compares with the descriptions found in pedagogical grammars’ as a prelude to a series of high-involvement collaborative tasks aimed at developing the trainees’ independence as language researchers. Such an approach would appear to have much to commend it for inclusion within the ITE/INSET instructional mix, and favourable responses were reported (i.e. from the NS trainees) in spite of the evident time constraints.

The monolingual (i.e. L2-internal) focus confers, of course, a generic quality upon such approaches to language awareness, permitting their use in respect of both NS and NNS trainee groups. The degree to which an autonomous, monolingual L2 language awareness may be fostered and sustained in NNS trainees is not at all clear however, and it is here that I see a cross-linguistic approach as enjoying a built-in advantage in respect of (monolingual L1) NNS trainees. This advantage, as I see it, arises from NNS trainees’ existing familiarity – as language analysts (Edge, 1988) – with the cross-linguistic dimension (via their existing familiarity with L1). Once this cross-linguistic aspect of language awareness is made explicit within the context of ITE/INSET, it cannot but, I believe, assume the character of a benevolent Pandora’s Box of inter-lingual associations and contrasts which, once opened (activated), may
not easily be closed (de-activated). In this sense, cross-linguistic language awareness has a high degree of autonomy hard-wired into the fabric of its construction – this courtesy of NNS trainees’ experience of cross-linguistic analysis as L2 learners.

In addition to the intrinsic merits of so doing, the fostering of cross-linguistic language awareness in trainees may, I believe, function as a ‘way in’ to a (greater) L2-internal language awareness. As the foregoing accounts have detailed, the 2010 program sought to promote, and to link the initial cross-linguistic focus to, a greater sensitivity to intrinsic features of L2: The instructional technique – detailed in the foregoing accounts - whereby essentially unitary L1 forms (for example, lexical items) were differentiated or diffracted into their plurality of L2 translation equivalents represented an example of this sensitizing of trainees to previously un-considered or under-considered aspects of L2. There appears therefore, to be considerable scope and potential for such an approach to contribute to the overall language awareness instructional mix within ITE/INSET: available contact time and the creativity of program trainers representing the sole constraints on the principled extension of the initial cross-linguistic focus to include an exploration of intrinsic features of L2.
Chapter Six: Conclusion

6.1 Summary of Essential Findings

This was an evaluative case study detailing a one-off language awareness program involving a group of pre-service ITE trainees from Japan. The study set out to explore the participant group’s evaluative responses to an explicitly cross-linguistic approach to language awareness in order to test the hypothesis that such a focus would be seen as worthwhile and beneficial, both in terms of the participants’ L2 development and in terms of their development as pre-service L2 professionals. In this connection, the study’s findings appear to confirm the posited value of an explicitly cross-linguistic approach to language awareness within the context of L2 ITE/INSET provision. Just as the wider relevance of the findings to practice is posited via analytic generalization, so the study has traced the logical progression of this potential relevance; from L2 learning, through L2 pedagogy to the provision of L2 ITE/INSET.

The central substantive claim which the thesis makes, essentially that L2 ITE/INSET programs in the TESOL context of monolingual L1 learner groups would benefit from the inclusion of a dedicated, data-driven cross-linguistic focus is, I think, a fairly modest one. However, having said that, I believe that the evidence set out in the preceding chapters in support of the initial hypothesis is strong enough to justify this claim. The study’s findings would seem to imply the need for a recognition on the part of L2 ITE/INSET program providers that overly-generic, L2-only approaches which attempt to airbrush out due consideration of learners’ L1 are, at best, incomplete. The findings additionally demonstrate the benefits of a broader conception of the Teacher Language Awareness construct to include awareness of and engagement with a range of context-specific ESOL-related issues.

6.2 Principal Contributions

Potential contributions to the field are seen as applying in respect of both applied linguistics theory and practice. In this connection, we may note that the study’s contribution in terms of the development of theory, together with any potential contribution the inquiry may in time make to practice, follows either directly or
indirectly from its having underlined the reality and centrality of the cross-linguistic dimension within L2 learning. In addition to highlighting the potential for the mediation of cross-linguistic language awareness to L2 learners subsequent to experiential learning on L2 ITE/INSET programs, the inquiry will contribute to TESOL practice via its development of detailed blueprint model guidelines for the design of cross-linguistic awareness-raising modules. The study additionally offers the field of applied linguistics a reference source as an evaluative case study concerned specifically with language program/module evaluation in the context of L2 ITE/INSET. Furthermore, by locating and aligning evidence from L1 Japanese/L2 English interlanguages which calls into question the unconditional validity of the reductive, binary oppositional SLA conception of L1 influence on L2 production/acquisition as either facilitative or inhibitory, the inquiry contributes to the emerging and welcome trend within applied linguistics towards due appreciation of the dynamic complexity of language-related phenomena and the concomitant need to be aware of representations which are perhaps overly simplistic.

6.3 Limitations

While no claims of wider relevance for the results are made based on sample-to-population generalization, the study’s claims in terms of its contribution to theory would undoubtedly benefit from some form of replication – be this in respect of the Japanese EFL context or in respect of a specific alternative ESOL context. The fact that the ITE trainees’ status as mid-course undergraduates precluded the inclusion of a longitudinal dimension capable of monitoring their post-program experiences as practicing TESOL professionals within the context of focus must be acknowledged as a limitation.

The inquiry was limited too, in terms of the strength of the claims it might potentially wish to make with regard to the gains in L2 proficiency achieved by the nine ITE trainees – this on account of the presence of numerous variables confounding the attribution of L2 gains directly to 2010 language awareness module content. Such constraints were inevitable, given the real-world context of the inquiry and the considerable difficulties associated with establishing and operationalizing the fact of L2 acquisition.
I must acknowledge too, that, as ethically-conceived practitioner research, the initiation of the present inquiry was necessarily motivated by a belief that the provision of cross-linguistic awareness-raising input would be cognitively *beneficial rather than detrimental* to the study’s participants. The element of subjectivity inherent in practitioner research studies and its potential advantages and pitfalls was addressed in the earlier Methodology chapter. Nevertheless, I believe that my recognition from the outset of the inquiry of the reflexivity and methodological safeguards demanded by my dual status and orientation as practitioner/researcher has resulted in an appropriate ‘analytical distance’ in respect of my interpretation and reporting of the evaluative feedback data generated during and subsequent to the 2010 program module.

**6.4 Further Research**

Several of the follow-up questions which emerged in the course of the research experience, particularly those associated with the monitoring of longitudinal aspects lay beyond the scope and remit of the present study. As such, they point to areas which would likely repay further research. The essential process which underlies longitudinal evaluative study of the mediation of L1/L2 language awareness is set out conceptually in Figure 22 overleaf. Possible research areas which suggest themselves at this stage would include: the monitoring of participant trainees’ developing autonomy in respect of cross-linguistic and L2-internal language awareness; ongoing assessment of the 2010 module’s contribution to trainees’ professional practice; monitoring of trainees’ experiences in respect of the mediation of 2010 module content to Japanese L2 English learners; monitoring of trainees’ experiences of integrating 2010 module content with professional practice, given the likelihood of methodological and/or syllabus constraints; the potential for wider dissemination of 2010 module content within the context of focus; and a time-series style comparison of trainees’ immediate and retrospective evaluative responses to 2010 language awareness module content.

In this connection, I would like to share with the reader an item of supplementary data in the form of the brief excerpt below, taken from an email communication which I received – completely unprompted – from one of the program participants, Shoko, in October 2011, that is to say a little over one year after her return to Japan following
the conclusion of the 2010 program. The excerpt’s final sentence reiterates Shoko’s intention, previously expressed at various points in her evaluative feedback commentary, to incorporate her newly-acquired cross-linguistic language awareness into her developing L2 TLA repertoire and future professional practice:

...We were lucky that we had your class! I told about your textbooks to my high school teacher, and she liked them. She used your textbooks in her classes, and she told me to tell you best gratitude! I also want to use your textbooks in my future classes...

Data Source: Personal E-mail Communication, Shoko, 10.10.2011.

The sentiments expressed by Shoko in the above excerpt, not least because of her decision to use the first person plural pronoun, speak directly to the central research question and indicate a promising direction for future research: longitudinal evaluative study of the mediation of L1/L2 language awareness, i.e. analysis of the ways in which cross-linguistic language awareness insights gained on L2 ITE/INSET programs subsequently play out in real-life TESOL contexts, would therefore appear to constitute the next logical phase in a developing ‘research program’ which the present inquiry has initiated.

6.5 Epilogue

Looking back, it has taken an even decade of cumulative research to resolve the sense of dissonance and uncertainty which I experienced in respect of my own professional development in the Japanese EFL context and to which I alluded in the earlier Prologue. I very much hope that as a result of the development of a flexible template – the TESOL Blueprint for the Mediation of Cross-Linguistic Language Awareness – future responses which set out to address the specific, language-related concerns of L2 teacher development in respect of other TESOL contexts may be formulated far more rapidly and with far greater precision than they otherwise would be.
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Appendices
Appendix 1

Week: 1
LA classes: 3
Total classroom contact hours: 5
Materials references covered: 0403 0701 0501

Language points addressed (teacher-directed):
• The placement of adverbial time references.
• The use of the preposition ‘in’ to indicate time remaining to future events.
• The use of intensifiers with gradable and non-gradable adjectives.

Additional language points addressed (teacher-directed):
• Additional items of vocabulary were introduced.

Principal LA program events:
• The participants read and signed the ‘informed consent’ paperwork.
• The participants were each given a set of the WENS teaching/learning materials, comprising three volumes.
• The participants were each given a ‘learning journal’.
• The participants sat an initial (diagnostic) test.

Principal classroom activities:
• Engagement with the Japanese EFL context elicitation worksheets.
• Discussion/exchanging of views in three groups of three (3x3).
• Engagement with a series of ‘MindTrap®’ brainteasers to promote awareness of language.
• Group-work formulation of L2 versions of L1 Japanese metalinguistic language point explanations from the WENS materials.
• Group-work tasks.
• Round-the-class question-and-answer activities.
Appendix 2

Week: 2 LA classes; 3 Total classroom contact hours; 3 Materials references covered: 0614 1115 0302 1112

Language points addressed (teacher-directed):

- The interlanguage overuse of the preposition ‘from’ as a time reference.
- The distinction between ‘common’ and ‘popular’.
- Colloquial time reference phrases.
- Expressing futurity, especially planned action.

Language points addressed (participant-directed):

Each of the participants presented a discrete ‘common error’ language point – drawn from the WENS materials – which they had researched and prepared as a homework task.

Additional language points addressed (teacher-directed):

- Additional vocabulary was introduced.
- Certain contrasting features of US/British English were highlighted.
- The ‘What does XXX stand for?’ construction was introduced to facilitate engagement with acronyms, etc.
- The omission of function words (for example, in acronyms) was touched on.
- The L2 tendency towards exaggeration was highlighted, along with a range of related lexis.

Homework assigned:

- Discrete ‘common error’ language points drawn from the interlanguage data for the participants to research – via the WENS materials – and present to the class.
- Worksheets eliciting the participants’ views on various L1 Japanese/L2 English interface issues.
- Individualized study of a particular unit from the WENS materials, comprising fifteen ‘common errors’, an in-depth focus on three language areas and the unit’s accompanying check test.

Principal classroom activities:

- Engagement with the Japanese EFL context elicitation worksheets.
- Group-work formulation of L2 versions of L1 Japanese metalinguistic language point explanations from the WENS materials.
- Round-the-class question-and-answer activities.
- Discussion/Q and A/exchanging of views in 3x3 groups.
- Introduction of a selection of additional L2 learning resources.
- Language analysis tasks.
- Error correction exercises.
- Noting of presented language points in learning journals.
- A look at whiteboard technique.
- Speculation on the causes of the ‘common errors’ addressed.
Appendix 3

Week: 3
LA classes: 3 Total classroom contact hours: 4 Materials references covered: 0414 0715 0812

Language points addressed (teacher-directed):

• The interlanguage overuse of possessive constructions.
• The omission of object pronouns.
• The underuse of full comparative forms.

Language points addressed (participant-directed):

Each of the participants presented a discrete ‘common error’ language point – drawn from the WENS materials – which they had researched and prepared as a homework task.

Additional language points addressed (teacher-directed):

• Additional contrasting features of US/British English were highlighted.
• The elimination of redundant lexis, especially nouns, was explored.
• A range of additional vocabulary relating to approximation, the expression of degree, and inquiry in respect of reasons and causes was introduced.

Homework assigned:

• Discrete ‘common error’ language points drawn from the interlanguage data for the participants to research – via the WENS materials – and present to the class.
• Worksheets eliciting the participants’ views on various L1 Japanese/L2 English interface issues.
• Individualized study of a particular unit from the WENS materials, comprising fifteen ‘common errors’, an in-depth focus on three language areas and the unit’s accompanying check test.

Principal LA program events:

• The participants took part in a focus group interview session.

Principal classroom activities:

• Engagement with the Japanese EFL context elicitation worksheets.
• Group-work formulation of L2 versions of L1 Japanese metalinguistic language point explanations from the WENS materials.
• Speculation on the causes of the ‘common errors’ addressed (3x3).
• Mini quiz on ELT-related acronyms.
• Group-work tasks and discussions (3x3).
• Focus group preview.
Week: 4
LA classes: 3
Total classroom contact hours: 3.5
Materials references covered: 0406 0712 1010 1205 1006 0212

Language points addressed (teacher-directed):
• Katakana-induced epenthesis and word-final vowel-marking.
• Contrasting loan word syllable stress and pronunciation.
• Parting phrases.
• The clause-combining potential of conjunctions.
• The ‘should’/‘have to’ distinction.
• ‘-ed’/‘-ing’ adjective endings.

Language points addressed (participant-directed):
Each of the participants presented a discrete ‘common error’ language point - drawn from the WENS materials - which they had researched and prepared as a homework task.

Additional language points addressed (teacher-directed):
• Grammatical and semantic aspects of the negation of modals were explored.
• A number of irregular adjectival endings were highlighted.

Homework assigned:
• Discrete ‘common error’ language points drawn from the interlanguage data for the participants to research - via the WENS materials - and present to the class.

Principal classroom activities:
• Contrastive L2 pronunciation focus, using a modified Katakana script.
• Engagement with a series of ‘MindTrap’® brainteasers to promote awareness of language.
• 3x3 group-work tasks.
Appendix 5

Week: 5
LA classes: 2
Total classroom contact hours: 3
Materials references covered: 1002 0106 0914 0806 0303

Language points addressed (teacher-directed):
- The ‘go+gerund+in+location’ structure.
- Plural markers.
- The lexico-semantic distinction between ‘Nice to meet you’ and ‘Nice to see you again’.
- Semantic and usage differences between ‘listen’ and ‘hear’.
- A look at the semantic and usage divergence between English and ‘Japanese English’.

Language points addressed (participant-directed):
Each of the participants presented a discrete ‘common error’ language point – drawn from the WENS materials – which they had researched and prepared as a homework task.

Additional language points addressed (teacher-directed):
- A range of additional vocabulary was introduced.
- The tendency of the media to abbreviate language was highlighted and explored.

Homework assigned:
- Individualized study of a particular unit from the WENS materials, comprising fifteen ‘common errors’, an in-depth focus on three language areas and the unit’s accompanying check test.

Principal classroom activities:
- Introduction of ‘composite-error sentences’ as a correction/review activity.
- 3x3 group-work tasks.
- Contrastive L2 pronunciation focus, using a modified Katakana script.
- Engagement with a series of ‘MindTrap®’ brainteasers to promote awareness of language.
Appendix 6

Week: 6
LA classes: 4
Total classroom contact hours: 5.5
Materials references covered: 1610 2009 1914 2301 1302 2108 1408 2004 1506

Language points addressed (teacher-directed):

• The overuse of ‘could’ for one-off actions in the past.
• The overuse of ‘member’.
• The use of the ‘empty’/‘dummy’ subject.
• Appropriate qualifiers for particular adjectives.
• Distinguishing between ‘Are you OK?’ and ‘Is that OK?’.
• More natural alternatives to ‘house’/‘home’.
• The interlanguage misuse of the adverb ‘almost’.
• Giving and receiving compliments.
• A look at instances of direct L1 transfer (‘calques”).

Additional language points addressed (teacher-directed):

• Additional contrasting features of US/British English were highlighted.
• A number of varieties of English, for example, Australian English, were highlighted.
• The media phenomenon of ‘headline English’ was explored.
• A number of vocabulary items and expressions were introduced.

Principal classroom activities:

• 3x3 group-work tasks.
• A focus on the participants’ orientation to learners’ errors and attitudes/policies in respect of error-correction.
• Engagement with a series of ‘MindTrap®’ brainteasers to promote awareness of language.
• Round-the-class Q and A sessions to practice positive, negative and interrogative forms of target language.
Appendix 7

Week: 7
LA classes: 2
Total classroom contact hours: 3

Materials references covered: 1504 1704 1710 1815 2415 2302

Language points addressed (teacher-directed):

- Prosody - nuclear stress.
- The semantic and usage distinction between ‘make’ and ‘let’.
- The differing usage patterns of ‘many, ‘much’ and ‘a lot of’/’lots of’ in conversational spoken English.
- The ‘telescoping’ of English loan words.
- The use of the impersonal ‘you’ and ‘they’.
- Alternatives to the blanket translation of ‘yasumi’ as ‘holiday’.

Additional language points addressed (teacher-directed):

- A number of items of vocabulary were introduced.

Principal classroom activities:

- Additional ‘composite-error sentences’ as a correction/review activity.
- Kinesthetic activity to promote greater awareness of nuclear stress.
- 3x3 group-work tasks, discussions.
- Team-style ‘quiz’ activity for the contrastive focus on loan words.
- Various opinion/information exchange activities: ‘World Cup’ theme.
Appendix 8

Week: 8
LA classes: 1
Total classroom contact hours: 1.5
Materials references covered: 1805 2409 1602 2106

Language points addressed (teacher-directed):

- The blanket translation of ‘narimasu’ as ‘become’.
- Semantic and usage differences between ‘during’ and ‘while’.
- The interlanguage repetition of verbs and adjectives as question answers.

Additional language points addressed (teacher-directed):

- A number of additional vocabulary items and expressions were introduced.

Homework assigned:

- Preparation for the first individual micro-teaching session (June 28th).
- Initial consideration of an area of L2 language focus for the ‘language awareness monitoring’ project.

Principal classroom activities:

- Introduction of the micro-teaching project.
- Introduction of the language awareness monitoring project.
- Quiz-style run through of Japanese national holidays: L2 versions.
- 3x3 group-work tasks.
Week: 9
LA classes: 1
Total classroom contact hours: 1.5
Materials references covered: 1510 1705 2206 1613 1902 2201
Language points addressed (teacher-directed):
- Alternatives in respect of the over-/misuse of 'without'.
- Semantic and usage differences between 'by' and 'until'.
- The interlanguage confusion between 'find' and 'find out'.
- The distinction between 'if' and 'when' clauses.
- Resolving the confusion between 'this' and 'next' in the context of future time reference.
- Preferred L2 alternatives to the interlanguage overuse of 'happen' and 'occur' in existential constructions.

Homework assigned:
- Preparation for the first individual micro-teaching session (June 28th).

Principal classroom activities:
- 3x3 group-work tasks.
Appendix 10

Week: 10
LA classes: 2
Total classroom contact hours: 3

Language points addressed (participant-directed):

- Takashi focused on the semantic and usage distinctions between ‘teach’ and ‘tell’, which are both realized by ‘oshieru’ in L1 Japanese.
- Tomoya’s language focus was on the multiple L2 translation equivalents of the Japanese verb ‘narimasu’, most commonly translated as ‘become’ in L1 Japanese / L2 English interlanguage.
- Ayako’s teaching focus was the distinction between ‘countable’ and ‘uncountable’ nouns and their differing grammatical associations and collocations.
- Shunta’s language focus was on the correct use of articles and plurals.
- Shoko chose the distinctive usage of English ‘come’ and ‘go’ - often expressed using the unitary verb ‘iku’ (‘go’) in L1 Japanese - as her language point of focus.
- Shinsuke’s focus was on the distinctive grammatical functions of ‘so’ and ‘such’, highlighting the L2 distinctions which, in L1 Japanese, are served by unitary lexical forms such as ‘sonna-ni’.
- Yuya’s chosen focus was on ‘loan words’, and Katakana shortenings in particular.
- Yuriko’s focus was on the semantic and usage differences between ‘fit’ and ‘suit’, an area of perennial confusion for learners.
- Koji researched a number of typical interlanguage formulations, and highlighted their more standard L2 versions.

Homework assigned:

- The (first) four-point checklist for reflective lesson evaluation.

Principal LA program events:

- The participants gave their first micro-teaching demonstration.

Principal classroom activities:

- I introduced the four-point checklist for reflective lesson evaluation.
Week: 11
LA classes: 3
Total classroom contact hours: 5
Materials references covered: 2509 2704 2904 3402 3007 2807 2813 3410 2709 3002

Language points addressed (teacher-directed):

- The L2 preference for the negation of the main verb.
- The L2 preference for the negation of the main verb 'think'.
- Distinguishing 'expect', 'look forward to' and 'hope to/for'.
- 'It depends on...' as a preferred alternative to the interlanguage 'Case by case'.
- The interlanguage overuse of 'about' to refer to topics.
- The interlanguage misuse of 'too' at the expense of 'very', 'really' and 'so'.
- 'As I told you before,...' – negative pragma-linguistic consequences.
- Potential pragma-linguistic failure resulting from asking 'What do you mean, (unknown lexical item)?:
- The correct intonation pattern for asking 'either/or' closed-choice questions.
- Moving beyond the blanket translation of 'wakaru' as 'know'/understand'.

Additional language points addressed (teacher-directed):

- A number of additional vocabulary items, expressions, set phrases and standard grammatical and collocation patterns were introduced and highlighted.

Homework assigned:

- Completion of the (first) four-point checklist for reflective lesson evaluation.
- Ongoing engagement with the ‘language awareness monitoring’ project.

Principal classroom activities:

- The participants were introduced to the benefits of using ‘concept questions’ via experiential learning activities.
- A variety of 3x3 group-work tasks.
- Metacognitive focus on (cross-linguistic) language awareness and the construct of ‘teacher language awareness’.
- Identification of ‘positive’ and ‘negative’ L1 influence in selected examples of interlanguage from the Japanese EFL context.
Appendix 12

Week: 12
LA classes: 3  Total classroom contact hours: 4.5

Materials references covered: 3604  2812  3503  3213  2615  3015  3607  2513  2814  3202  3612

Language points addressed (teacher-directed):

• Typical Katakana-induced L2 spelling mistakes.
• The preferred L2 word order of adjectives.
• Nouns used in the plural form.
• Stress placement on compound nouns.
• Preferred L2 alternatives to the L1-influenced ‘You had better…’.
• Correct ‘yes’/‘no’ L2 responses to negative questions.
• Alternatives to overused possessive forms.
• The ‘have something done’ construction.
• Suitable L2 alternatives for the Japanese ‘affective passive’ construction.
• The interlanguage omission of ‘if’/‘though’ after ‘even’.
• Appropriate translation of ‘omoshiroi’.

Additional language points addressed (teacher-directed):

• The appropriate use of articles and plurals was highlighted.
• The idea of illocutionary meaning was introduced and explored.
• A number of additional items of vocabulary were introduced.

Homework assigned:

• The reading of an accessible photocopied journal article on appropriate L2 English models and L2 policy in the Japanese context, in preparation for an in-class discussion.
• Production of a full lesson plan, based on a learner group and target language areas of the participants’ choosing.
• Ongoing engagement with the ‘language awareness monitoring’ project.

Principal classroom activities:

• A look at the metalinguistic terminology from sample L2 lesson plans.
• 3x3 group-work discussion/Q and A/information-sharing tasks.
• Additional ‘composite-error sentences’ as a correction/review activity.
• Kinesthetic learning activities centred on language areas of focus.
• Brainstorming sessions.
• A dictation activity in connection with the minimal pair focus.
Appendix 13

Week: 13
LA classes: 4
Total classroom contact hours: 6.5
Materials references covered: 2906 2705 3406 2515 2610 3309 2607

Language points addressed (teacher-directed):

- The interlanguage misuse and underuse of certain words as verbs.
- The structure, ‘one of subject’s plural noun’.
- Pronunciation differences in respect of loan words.
- The semantic and usage distinction between ‘been’ and ‘gone’.
- The semantic and usage distinction between ‘take’ and ‘last’.
- Redundancy in L2, e.g. ‘island’.
- Differences between Katakana and English geographical place names.

Language points addressed (teacher-directed):

- Several alternative formulations in respect of question tags were introduced.

Homework assigned:

- Ongoing preparation for the second micro-teaching session.
- Familiarization with a range of L2 ‘classroom English’ expressions for use during the second micro-teaching session.
- Engagement with a printed worksheet on which participants were to list some of the interlanguage forms covered in the WENS materials which they themselves had routinely been producing prior to the program.
- Ongoing engagement with the ‘language awareness monitoring’ project.

Principal classroom activities:

- An extensive focus on ‘classroom English’ for teachers and learners.
- Various 3x3 group-work tasks related to aspects of classroom English.
- Discussion of the idea of ‘English as a Lingua Franca’.
- Discussion of appropriate L2 models in the Japanese EFL context.
- Brainstorming and presentation of ideas for a prospective ‘Hiroshima University Language Awareness Society’.
Appendix 14

Week: 14  LA classes: 4  Total classroom contact hours: 8.5  Materials reference covered: 3102

Language point addressed (teacher-directed):
- Preferred L2 alternatives to typical interlanguage time reference patterns.

Language points addressed (participant-directed):
- Takashi focused on the interlanguage tendency towards direct L2 translation of the L1 Japanese 'affective passive'.
- Ayako focused on prepositions of location.
- Tomoya focused on the meaning and use of the adverbial time reference 'just now'.
- Shunta focused on the semantic and usage differences between '(by/for) oneself'.
- Shinsuke focused on the 's/'sh' pronunciation distinction.
- Shoko focused on the semantic and usage differences between the adjectives 'particular' and 'specific', and among the adverbs 'probably', 'maybe', 'perhaps' and 'possibly'.
- Yuriko focused on the prepositions 'on', 'in', and 'at' for location.
- Yuya focused on various gambits for use in situations where one is unable to respond with required information.
- Koji focused on various phrases for asking the time.

Additional language points addressed (teacher-directed):
- A number of additional expressions and items of vocabulary were introduced.
- The use of selected items of vocabulary as different parts of speech was highlighted and explored.

Homework assigned:
- Final preparation for the second individual micro-teaching session (July 28th).
- Revision for the end-of-course follow-up test.
- Familiarization with a range of L2 'classroom English' expressions for use during the second micro-teaching session.
- Completion of the (second) four-point checklist for reflective lesson evaluation.
- Reading of a selection of thought-provoking quotes from commentators on various aspects of the Japanese EFL context in preparation for an in-class discussion.
- Ongoing engagement with the 'language awareness monitoring' project.

Principal LA program events:
- The participants gave their second micro-teaching demonstration.
- The participants sat a follow-up (achievement) test.
- The participants undertook a written program evaluation assignment.

Principal classroom activities:
- One-to-one counseling/advice sessions in advance of the second micro-teaching session.
Appendix 15

Week: 15
LA classes: 4
Total classroom contact hours: 7

Homework assigned:

- Completion of a written feedback response worksheet in respect of the WENS teaching and learning materials.
- Provision of written cognitive and affective feedback on the May 13th focus group interview session.

Principal LA program events:

- One-to-one ‘exit’ interviews were held with each of the participants.

Principal classroom activities:

- Informal Q and A sessions on issues arising from the written feedback assignment, features of L2 English, and potential scenarios in respect of participants’ future professional practice.
- A review of the language awareness program, and the meaning of a ‘language awareness approach’ to future L2 learning/teaching.
PARTICIPANT INFORMATION STATEMENT AND CONSENT FORM

Title of Project:
Spring/Summer 2010 Warwick/Hiroshima University Initial Teacher Education Language Awareness Program

Investigator:
Neil Morgan

Participant selection and purpose of study:
You are invited to participate in a study of the potential of a focus on the cross-linguistic dimension of language awareness as a component of an initial teacher education program for Japanese pre-service instructors of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). The purpose of this study is to evaluate the scale and nature of this potential. You have been selected as a possible participant in this study because you meet the main criteria of participant selection including nationality (Japanese), first language (Japanese) and status (pre-service).

Description of study:
If you decide to participate, the investigator will ask you to provide feedback on various aspects of the course, share your views on a range of key issues affecting the Japanese EFL context, participate in group and one-to-one interviews of approximately one hour’s duration, co-operate in applying elements of the course content in your development as an EFL instructor, keep a learning journal in which to record your thoughts, feelings, reactions, etc., and maintain contact upon your return to Japan (for as long as you wish) in respect of the application of course content and your ongoing professional development as an EFL instructor. It is envisaged that this study will be beneficial for the participants in terms of upgrading your English language proficiency, and enhancing your professional development as an English instructor in the Japanese EFL context, and it is hoped that the research will contribute to the continuing development of Hiroshima University as a centre of excellence in the pre-service education of EFL instructors, the strengthening of relations between Warwick University's Centre for Applied Linguistics and Hiroshima University, and the furtherance of the academic understanding and practical application of the cross-linguistic aspect of language awareness in respect of initial teacher education.

Confidentiality and disclosure of information:
Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain absolutely confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or except as required by law. If you give the investigator your permission by signing this document, he plans to discuss and publish the results as part of his thesis for the award of PhD. in Applied

You will be given a copy of this form to keep
Linguistics and English Language Teaching. In any publication, information will be provided in such a way that you cannot be identified.

**Feedback to participants:**

At the completion of the study, all participants would be very welcome to consult the thesis when it is published.

**Your consent:**

Your decision on whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relations with The University of Warwick. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and to discontinue participation at any time without prejudice.

If you have any additional questions concerning the project, the investigator, etc., please feel free to ask Neil Morgan.

**Your signature indicates that, having read the information provided above, you have decided to participate.**

.................................................................
Signature of Research Participant

.................................................................
Name of Research Participant (please PRINT)

.................................................................
Date

.................................................................
Signature of Investigator

Contact details:

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You will be given a copy of this form to keep
Appendix 17
Sample: Initial Coding Notes for Thematic Analysis of Exit Interview Data

I:  =  Interviewer, Masaki
P:  =  Participant, Shoko - Program Satisfaction Rating: 8/10

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I: Okay, so for the recording, can we have your name?
P:  Shoko.
I: Okay, Shoko-san. So, the first question is how were the LA classes?
P: I realized what I need to learn back in Japan {01}. I: I see. What do you think you need to do?
P: Up until now, I was not sure what to do exactly, and I was doing grammar. But now I think it is important to learn English knowing what kind of errors Japanese people tend to make, such as the difference between ‘during’ and ‘while’. This is what I learnt from these classes (02).
I: When did you notice this, was it during class or when you were outside the class and, like, talking to your host family?
P: During class, we could...because I hadn’t seen English from such a perspective, so I found a new way of looking at it (03) and out of class I encountered some expressions which I had learnt on that day, and found out how to use them in particular contexts. So, both.
I: So you observed English from a different angle and noticed how to use English?
P: Yes, I noticed things I didn’t know how to say when I wanted to. This was my first time to be surrounded by so much English. English used to be something I learnt in books. So, I could find things that I wouldn’t have noticed if I only learnt English in that way.
I: So, it was like a combined effect - you could raise your awareness of things you didn’t know by living in an English-speaking environment, and also by taking the LA classes.
P: Yes (04).
I: So, do you think your English has improved as a result of the LA classes?
P: Yes...some improvement (05). I’m not sure about my skills, such as speaking, but I could make my mind ready for English (06).
I: I see. Specifically?
P: Specifically?
I: Do you have any episodes which illustrate this?
Appendix 17

Sample: Initial Coding Notes for Thematic Analysis of Exit Interview Data

I: = Interviewer, Masaki
P: = Participant, Shoko - Program Satisfaction Rating: 8/10

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P: You know, there is a difference between ‘go’ and ‘come’. I was only able to use ‘come’ in the contexts I learnt from textbooks, such as ‘I’m coming’. I: Oh, you could only understand it from a third person perspective?

P: Yeah. I don’t know whether I can understand it completely, but I could see how native English speakers think. I used to understand English as a Japanese person, but I came here and...

I: Oh, you came here to speak English and you could understand English as your own language?

P: Yes, exactly.

I: I see. And you could understand, from your point of view, whether (s)he is coming or going. And in that way, it was useful?

P: Yes.

I: Okay. So, if you are asked to grade this course, how would you rate it on a scale of 1 to 10?

P: Uh, around 8? Um, there were sections about the incorrect English phrases which Japanese people tend to use, and there were explanations about some parts, but there were other parts we wanted to know about. That was a negative point.

I: I see. So your suggestion is that it would be better if the explanations cover more of the example sentences?

P: Yes.

I: So that accounts for the two-point rating deficit?

P: Yes.

I: So, what accounts for the 8 rating?

P: It’s related to what I mentioned before. What I learnt in the LA classes was a completely new perspective towards English, and that made it clear what I want to learn from now on. And also, it raised a lot of questions, such as whether Japanese English is fine or should be corrected, or what my goals are in terms of English language learning. This course gave me opportunities to think about those questions. Everything I learnt was useful.
Appendix 17
Sample: Initial Coding Notes for Thematic Analysis of Exit Interview Data
I:  =  Interviewer, Masaki
P:  =  Participant, Shoko - Program Satisfaction Rating: 8/10
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I: How did your feelings towards Japanese English change through this course?
P: Um...well, some of my friends [i.e. some of the other participants] started thinking that Japanese English can be acceptable, but I think that my final goal is English as spoken by native speakers {12}.
I: Uh-huh.
P: Most of the ‘wasei eigo’ examples introduced in the classes were, well, some of them were completely wrong, but most of them were just like ‘it sounds unnatural or strange’, so that means they can still convey what you want to say. It’s a question of, like, whether you just want to communicate what you want to say or whether you really want to produce English as native speakers do. But if you are satisfied with the former, then English would be a very easy language. If you are OK with Japanese English, learning vocabulary would fulfil your needs, but I don’t think that English is like that.
I: There are two technical terms: Teacher Language Awareness (‘Kyoin no gengo ishiki’) and Cross-Linguistic Teacher Language Awareness (‘Kyoin no gengo kan no gengo ishiki’). How do you interpret them?
P: ‘Kyoin no gengo ishiki’?
I: And ‘Kyoin no gengo kan no gengo ishiki’.
P: Teacher Language Awareness is just the language awareness that teachers have, and Cross-Linguistic Teacher Language Awareness...is it about the first language and the second language? {13}
I: Well, I think so. I think here they are specifically Japanese as a first language and English as a second language...probably.
P: Uh, I see...interpretation...this is different from the meaning of these words, but I noticed that English teachers need know about the Japanese language {14}.
I: Is it Teacher Language Awareness? As a Japanese person teaching English, we need to know and understand Japanese consciously, which we don’t do usually?
P: Yes.
Appendix 17

Sample: Initial Coding Notes for Thematic Analysis of Exit Interview Data

I: = Interviewer, Masaki
P: = Participant, Shoko - Program Satisfaction Rating: 8/10

I: Was there anything that motivated you to think like that in this program?

P: Personally, I had no experience of viewing the Japanese language consciously, even in our Japanese classes. And I thought that maybe this lack of awareness towards Japanese had prevented me from seeing English with a certain level of consciousness. For example, if I were asked by people from other countries whether we should say 'Nippon' or 'Nihon', I realized that I wouldn’t be able to tell them. I think both are acceptable. If we can see Japanese with such a high level of recognition, we can also see English in the same way, I think (15).

I: Will you apply the knowledge or approach of LA to your English classes in Japan?

P: Yes (16).

I: Why?

P: Um...well, taking 'sukoshi' as an example, we learnt that it can be translated as 'fairly' with a positive nuance and 'a little' with a negative nuance.

I: Oh, exactly, I never thought of that.

P: I hadn’t seen English in that way and I just thought that we can use them interchangeably (17). If I had known that when I was in junior or senior high school, I think I would have tried to learn more about English. So, LA is...I thought that Japanese people probably cannot learn English well because we don’t do LA in Japan. You know, Japanese people will interpret English from a Japanese way of thinking, without this type of approach (18). Well, not perfectly, but through LA, I was grasping the English language that native speakers think of as English. So if we could introduce these ideas into junior or senior high school, typical Japanese errors could be avoided in advance, or at least, they would be fewer (19).

I: So, that means that you noticed that the English that Japanese people are learning is influenced by the Japanese way of thinking?

P: Yes.

I: I see.
Appendix 17

Sample: Initial Coding Notes for Thematic Analysis of Exit Interview Data

I:  =  Interviewer, Masaki
P:  =  Participant, Shoko - Program Satisfaction Rating: 8/10

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P:  I used to use English-Japanese dictionaries, but now I don’t want to use them.
I:  Oh, so now?
P:  English-English. You know, there are many words which we cannot give translations for in Japanese, right?
I:  Yes.
P:  But still we try to describe these in Japanese, and not many Japanese people notice what they are doing. Many people think Japanese and English words always match perfectly [20].
I:  I see.
P:  Even with a Japanese English grammar book - I couldn’t understand it at all and I found that it is all about the English of Japanese people.
I:  So you think that it needs to take account of the views of the native speakers who read and speak that language?
P:  Yes [21].
I:  I see. So, to the next question. Can you tell me your impression of a typical LA class?
P:  In Japan?
I:  Well, no, the LA classes you took here with Neil. Can you describe them?
P:  Describe?
I:  Your image.
P:  Uh. Uh...when I first saw the title ‘Linguistic Awareness’, I thought it sounded very difficult. But, in the class, he taught us by picking out some of the areas which Japanese people find difficult, so all the classes were so striking and they were errors that we actually made! It was easy to understand because it was clear what we do and why we do that [22].
I:  Uh-huh. So you could notice your errors and also it was very persuasive for you. Did you enjoy the style of this class?
P:  Yes, basically I enjoyed it. But we had practice time after the explanation every time. So if we had had more variety in the procedure, I think it would have been even more enjoyable.
I:  So, you had explanation and discussion. Which did you want Neil to change?
Appendix 17
Sample: Initial Coding Notes for Thematic Analysis of Exit Interview Data

I:  =  Interviewer, Masaki
P:  =  Participant, Shoko - Program Satisfaction Rating: 8/10

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P:  The explanations are fine, but I mean for the following activity.
I:  I see. How do you suggest?
P:  I was thinking about that but I haven’t got any good ideas. Well, we practiced and also discussed why Japanese people tend to make those particular errors, and I can’t think of any good way, but if we could do some different activities to bring what we learnt into practice, then we could avoid making it stereotyped.
I:  So discussion was a kind of routine?
P:  Yes, I felt so (23).
I:  I see. So...this is a question for you as an English learner. Were the LA classes useful for you?
P:  Yes, I think so. I found it more important than the grammar I learnt in Japan. For example, I learnt things like participial construction or conditionals in Japan, and what we did here were...they were more daily things, but things that we wouldn’t notice without being taught (24). It was useful to notice that it is important to understand these aspects of language, rather than grammatical concepts such as participial construction.
I:  For what was it useful?
P:  What? I can’t say which one of the four skills, rather it is for me a new, fifth genre (25). I had been thinking that I have to learn something, but I didn’t know what it was. And LA is what I had been looking for! I:  I see.
P:  It was very nice that I could find this (26)!
I:  Is it...where did you notice it, in the classroom or out of class?
P:  Um...out of class. Well, especially at the beginning, everything was so impressive that I was thinking about things even after the LA classes (27), and in that process, I noticed what it was that I needed to study.
I:  So...out of class...in what kind of situations?
P:  Well, I’m homestaying, so I always talk to my host family. After the classes, I pay much more attention to what I learnt while listening to them and also while speaking to them. In that process...in the actual usage (28).
I:  I see. When you were talking to your host family...are they from England?
Appendix 17
Sample: Initial Coding Notes for Thematic Analysis of Exit Interview Data

I: = Interviewer, Masaki
P: = Participant, Shoko – Program Satisfaction Rating: 8/10

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P: Yes.
I: I see. And you noticed many things. OK, so the next one is also the same question, but this one is for you as a future English teacher. Were the LA classes useful?
P: Yes (29).
I: Why?
P: Um...before, I had a very ambiguous awareness of English (30). Like, for example, if we translate English verbs into Japanese, it would be ‘...suru’ and we need something for the blank at the start, right? And we know about ‘suru’, but we need something to fill the blank. And thinking that I will be teaching in the future, I have some concerns about whether I can really teach my students about these small but important points. But these LA classes provided me with knowledge about these slight differences, so I can teach them to my students in the future (31).
I: When you become an English teacher, when do you think you can teach these things?
P: For reading and grammar? I would instruct students to pay attention to the differences between particular words or grammatical features.
I: So you would introduce these ideas into the curriculum we are using now in Japan, without any big changes, right?
P: Yes...yeah...well, now English is not a language, but a subject just to pass the entrance exam. But I want to teach it as a language which is actually spoken by British and American people, and LA would help in this, I think.
I: So, rather than instruction for examinations, you want to have more opportunity to talk to native speakers and in the curriculum in Japan, you want to teach the kind of things that you did in the LA classes?
P: Yes. I want my students to think that they are learning practical English and as a result of this they can pass the exams.
I: I see.
P: Or otherwise, the exams are not an accurate assessment.
I: It would be an exam for the sake of an exam. So, next is a question about the textbook. What did you think about ‘wasei eigo ni sayonara’?
Appendix 17

Sample: Initial Coding Notes for Thematic Analysis of Exit Interview Data

I: = Interviewer, Masaki
P: = Participant, Shoko - Program Satisfaction Rating: 8/10

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P: It was structured so that we can also do it as self-study and so I would like to introduce it to my friends as well (32). Also, we could think first and then receive feedback, and I liked that style.
I: I see. So you can do by yourself, and in the class, and if you prepared before the class, it was more effective?
P: Yes.
I: How effective was it, specifically?
P: I went through the tasks and we could check the answers in the keys on the next page. But I didn’t read the key feedback on purpose.
I: Oh, the keys.
P: Yes. And I read them in the class. This helped me to understand it. And the following activities were a very good opportunity to review what we did. It was good.
I: I see. This was your opinion as a learner, but how about as a future teacher?
P: Well, um...if I use this textbook in my classes, I would use it for homework and I would only do the parts which really require the teacher’s intervention in class.
I: So you also want to use it in your classes?
P: Yes.
I: The last question. Do you think that this kind of LA would be useful for learners, pre-service teachers and in-service teachers in Japan?
P: Yes, definitely (33). Um...for in-service teachers, they can find out about what they are teaching more clearly. Teachers without any knowledge of LA are presumably teaching with some kind of guesswork, referring to dictionaries or something. LA would make things clearer and they can teach with more confidence (34). I mean, simple principles.
I: Can I ask you what and how they would teach? When would it be useful?
P: For example, we learnt here that words such as ‘huge’ or ‘delicious’ already include the meaning of ‘very’, but there might be some teachers who are wondering what the difference is exactly, even though they know there are differences between ‘huge’ and ‘large’ or ‘delicious’ and ‘tasty’.

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Appendix 17

Sample: Initial Coding Notes for Thematic Analysis of Exit Interview Data

I: = Interviewer, Masaki
P: = Participant, Shoko - Program Satisfaction Rating: 8/10

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If they know it, they can explain clearly that the difference is whether or not it includes the idea of 'very' and also that this is the reason we don’t need to put ‘very’ before ‘huge’ or ‘delicious’.

I: How about for learners?
P: If they know things more clearly, they can distinguish them...and actually these ambiguous things are my weak point regarding English, which I don’t like {35}. So, my attitude towards English would be better.

I: So it is very useful?
P: Yes.

I: So, that’s all from me. But if you want to add anything or have any questions...

P: I have always wondered how we can teach prepositions, and one of the ways is to use pictures, I think. But we cannot explain all of them, there are some exceptions. And my question is, is it part of LA to distinguish whether something is an exception or an extension of a core principle? {36}

I: I see. I cannot tell you here, but...I see you want to know more about these things, about LA.

P: Yes. Taking this course, I have been checking the things I cannot explain clearly {37}. And it’s becoming clear, but for prepositions, I cannot make it, nor can my friends [i.e. the other program participants]. Even our teachers, they didn’t want to teach those areas. I used to ask my teachers at senior high, and always the conclusion was to be exposed to as many examples as possible, such as in books. That means we have to learn the differences as intuition or feeling.

I: Yes.

P: But I have been wondering whether we cannot explain things more clearly.

I: Uh-huh.

P: That’s one of my questions {38}.

I: I see. Is there anything else?

P: No, not particularly.

I: Thank you very much.

P: Thank you.
Appendix 17
Sample: Initial Coding Notes for Thematic Analysis of Exit Interview Data
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01. Clarification; suggests 'signposting' or the LA program as a 'road map'.

02. Positive change of (learning) direction as a result of greater awareness.

03. New perspectives.

04. Synergy between classes and context, implications in terms of the integration of LA classes with the wider social and learning context.

05. Tentative identification of L2 proficiency gains attributable to LA program.

06. Idea of utility in terms of LA ‘preparing the ground’ for future learning.

07. Evidence of LA leading to a change of orientation, a transition towards a more ‘emic’ appreciation of L2 use.

08. Shoko’s program rating deficit reflected her sense of its incompleteness; she wanted more of the same in terms of explicit coverage and explanation.

09. Again, the positive idea of the gaining of a ‘new perspective’, attributed to participation in the LA program.
10. Again, the idea of ‘clarification’, a ‘road map guide’ and the positive identification of future learning direction.

11. Evidence of a positive orientation to the many questions generated as a result of the LA program’s wider awareness-raising brief.

12. Evidence of Shoko’s developing views and the achievement of positive personal resolutions amid a plurality of participant responses to the issues raised on the LA program.

13. Evidence of some uncertainty regarding these technical terms, but also evidence of a working grasp of the essential idea.

14. Clear evidence of Shoko’s (developing) position on the desirability of a Teacher Language Awareness which is bilingual, i.e. which takes due account of learners’ L1.

15. Shoko’s interpretation here recalls Hawkins’ original conception of LA.

16. Clear indication of Shoko’s intention to apply an LA approach post-program in her future professional practice.

17. Another citing of a concrete example, indicating Shoko’s developing awareness of the limitations of one-to-one L1/L2 equivalence assumptions and the value of cross-linguistic LA as a lead-in to greater L2-internal awareness.
Appendix 17
Sample: Initial Coding Notes for Thematic Analysis of Exit Interview Data

18. Powerful testimony regarding the potential contribution of consciousness-raising LA approaches in respect of L2 learning outcomes in the Japanese EFL context.

19. Evidence of Shoko’s developing pedagogical awareness in terms of the benefits of applying a context-specific LA to forestall L2 errors and facilitate L2 learning.

20. Again, evidence of an initial cross-linguistic focus leading to increased L2-internal awareness.

21. Again, clear evidence of Shoko’s orientation towards exonormative models, also implying that, in her view, Japanese EFL has merely paid lip service to the idea of external reference and lacks substance as a result.

22. Evidence of the (counter-productive) relative inaccessibility of applied linguistics (meta-linguistic) terminology for pre-service L2 ITE trainees, in contrast to a practical classroom approach capable of connecting with program participants.

23. Evidence of Shoko’s developing meta-pedagogical awareness resulting from experiential observation.

24. Points to the value of explicit awareness-raising for language features which would otherwise slip under the learners’ radar.
25. Shoko’s use of the phrase ‘a new, fifth genre’ suggests her recognition of the complementary nature of LA and the potentially unifying role of LA approaches.

26. LA contributing positively to Shoko’s L2 development and her sense of her achieving key resolutions, and recalling Wright and Bolitho’s (1993) conception of LA as a ‘missing link’ in L2 teacher education.

27. Does this statement in some sense imply a law of diminishing marginal returns for LA programs of this kind? At any rate, the highly positive initial impact is noted.

28. Again, class content and social context are seen by Shoko as complementary in a very tangible, practical way, suggesting real implications for the principled integration of LA program content and context.

29. Again, unequivocal affirmation of the perceived utility of the LA program in respect of future professional practice.

30. Shoko highlights the value of the LA program in clarifying her perceptions of features of L2, i.e. in reducing the level and extent of her uncertainty in this regard.

31. Shoko identifies the knowledge gains and the resolution of pre-existing ambiguities as a result of the LA program with an increased sense of confidence in her professional competence when she contemplates her future professional practice.
32. Implies the potential for wider relevance as a direct result of the accessibility of the materials’ (bilingual) self-study format.

33. Unequivocal identification of wider relevance in terms of the utility of the LA program content for L2 learners, pre-service and in-service L2 teachers.

34. Again, highlighting the perceived link between the increased knowledge and greater clarity that LA brings about and increased confidence levels among L2 instructors.

35. Again, Shoko highlights the resolution of ambiguities as a key factor in her ongoing L2 development.

36. Indicates Shoko’s desire to incorporate LA approaches into her developing pedagogical awareness, although uncertainties over questions of definition and scope remain unresolved in these formative stages.

37. Evidence of Shoko’s willingness to take responsibility in her ongoing L2 and professional development (autonomy).

38. Evidence of Shoko’s developing pedagogical awareness resulting from reflection on LA program content in combination with meta-pedagogical reflection on her prior L2 learning experiences.