

Doctoral Dissertation

**Justifying and Incorporating the Judicious Use
of L1 in Japanese School Education for Foreign
Languages**

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ABSTRACT

In recent years, first language (hereafter, L1) use has been recognized in the fields of applied linguistics and foreign language education, being linked with the L1 use in authentic communication in the present multilingual society, with the affirmative view of the bilingual's identity, and with equality education as well as with the research findings that the L1 use facilitates L2 learning. Also, studies about teachers' and students' actual L1 uses have been conducted both in the ESL (English as a Second Language) and EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learning contexts across the world to identify its functions. However, there is a strongly rooted belief that a second/foreign language (hereafter, L2) is best learned through monolingual teaching where L2 is used exclusively in class. In particular, the new Courses of Study (hereafter, COSs) for Japanese school education for foreign languages (MEXT, 2017a, 2017b, 2018) seem to encourage monolingual teaching through English-only principle and the introduction of a new test and external examinations for university admissions, neither of which includes L1-related items (MEXT, 2017c).

Responding to the said conditions, this dissertation aims at justifying teachers' and students' uses of the Japanese language (L1) in English (L2) classrooms in the context of Japan, based on the current trends of theories, concepts, and empirical studies that support the L1 use. Moreover, the dissertation tries to incorporate the L1 use into the goals and objectives of the new COS for senior high schools, classroom activities, and assessment after organizing L1-related terminology. The paper consists of the following five chapters in order to accomplish these two aims.

Chapter 1 introduces three articles that have motivated the author to further work on the issues behind the L1 use and clarifies her stance about it in L2 education based on her own experiences as an L2 learner/user, followed by the aims of this paper and brief introduction of each chapter. Chapter 2 justifies the L1 use by overviewing the past literature that investigated and

discussed it from various angles. It explores how L1 has been treated from a historical, theoretical, and empirical lens, telling readers about why monolingual teaching has spread all over the world, how students' L1 has been acknowledged through the growing interest in bilingual teaching, the emergence of dynamic bilingualism (García & Wei, 2014), the spread of plurilingualism (Council of Europe, 2001, 2018), the different perspectives on goals of language teaching and learning, and teacher's and students' actual uses of and beliefs about the L1 use. The chapter then talks about the L1/L2 controversies and high-stakes examinations in Japan and ends with a chapter summary that includes a rationale for the studies in the following chapter. Chapter 3 narrows the scope of research down to the Japanese context and introduces four studies, so as to disclose teachers' beliefs about translation items in the English component of national university entrance examinations (Masuda & Matsuzawa, 2017), students' beliefs about translation use in class and in future (Masuda, 2017), teachers' beliefs about codeswitching in language classrooms (Masuda & Matsuzawa, 2018), and the treatment of the L1 use in the commentaries of the COSs for elementary, junior high, and senior high schools (Masuda, 2018). These four studies are discussed in Chapter 4, by being compared with the overviewed literature in terms of monolingual and bilingual teaching, internal and external goals, the L1 use inside and outside and classroom, and teachers' and students' beliefs. After the discussion, taxonomy about the L1 use (pedagogical translation, codeswitching, and self-translation) is presented to avoid negative views about the L1 use and translation. Chapter 5 focuses on one of the terms in the taxonomy, pedagogical translation, showing some examples of incorporating its use into the goals and objectives of the new senior high school COS, classroom activities, and assessment as Pedagogical Implication, from the perspective of mediation (Council of Europe, 2001, 2018) as specific language and translating skills. The pedagogical implication is followed by a summary of this dissertation and future research based on its research limitations.

Keywords: L1 use, Translation, Course of Study, Foreign language education

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PAPERS THAT FORM THE BASIS OF THIS DISSERTATION

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- Masuda, M. (2018). Exploring the treatment of L1 use in Japanese national curriculum guidelines of English subjects: Through a comparison of curriculums in other countries. *The Journal of the Study of Modern Society and Culture*, 66, 155-170.
- Masuda, M., & Matsuzawa, S. (2017). Japanese high school English teachers' beliefs about the translation items in the national university entrance examinations: Results of interviews. *KATE Journal*, 31, 43-55.
- Masuda, M., & Matsuzawa, S. (2018). Japanese English teachers' beliefs about codeswitching in their classrooms: Results of interviews. *KATE Journal*, 32, 29-42.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE DISSERTATION

My first language (hereafter, L1), Japanese, has, to some extent, helped me develop my foreign language (hereafter, L2; English in my case) ability since I started learning it at the age of 11. I used a bilingual dictionary to search for the meanings of words and phrases I did not know and asked my teachers and peers in L1 about L2 grammar. Even in my first two years in Hawaii while I was studying abroad, I often opened my electrical bilingual dictionary to check the meanings of the words, phrases, and grammar that my college teachers and friends were saying. Also, I frequently translated from L2 to L1 to get the meanings of the sentences I encountered while reading the books about the courses I was taking in college. After graduating from the university, while I was working at an American company in Japan, I used L1 for summarizing what was written in L2, for translating L2 documents to show L1 speaking workers, and for mediating between a Japanese worker and an L2 speaking worker. Even now, during my current Ph.D. program, I have been using L1 to report orally or in writing the main points or summaries of articles written in L2 and to express my opinions in L2 while writing my research papers. Not to mention, this thesis is being written by using L1, as I put my electrical bilingual dictionary next to me. In retrospect, using L1 has been not only a natural activity as a tool to understand and produce L2 but also an authentic activity to get communication across for myself and for others.

Despite these natural and authentic uses of L1, before entering the master's program, I had a negative belief about using L1 or translation in the L2 classroom, believing that using L2 exclusively was the most efficient way of developing L2 abilities. However, the following three articles that I read during the program made me question my belief, having me reminisce about my past uses of L1, and gradually changed it toward one that L1 is useful both in the classroom and

outside the classroom. That was the start of this research, and I have been reading about and discussing the L1 use from various angles ever since.

The first article is Macaro (2001), which shows that L1 is used in various situations and for various purposes by teachers in their classrooms and that teachers' beliefs about L1 use is related with the extent to which they use L1 in the classroom. The second and third articles both discuss issues about the school foreign language education in Japan. Sato (2014) supports the principle that English classes should, in principle, be carried out in English (the L2-only principle) described in the Course of Study (hereafter, COS) for senior high schools (MEXT, 2009) based on the Second Language Acquisition (hereafter, SLA) theories. On the other hand, Erikawa and Kubota (2014) are against the L2-only principle. They reveal the disagreement on Sato's opinion, considering the world's current view of foreign language education and being concerned about the possibility that students who do not like English would increase. The last two articles told me that, in Japan, opinions about the L1 use in the L2 classroom have been polarized and that there has been a deep division between those who are against and those who are for the L1 use in class. The three articles, which are explained in detail in Chapter 2, interested me in this field of study and later became the most influential ones for my research.

1.2 AIMS OF THE DISSERTATION

This dissertation has two main aims. The first one is to justify teachers' and students' uses of their L1s including their translation practices in the L2 classroom, through discussing theoretical conceptualizations and empirical studies about the L1 use. The other is, based on the justification, to make an alignment of curriculum, teaching, and assessment for the new COS for senior high schools (MEXT, 2018). Desired curriculum goals and objectives are added to the COS as a suggestion. Classroom activities and assessment related to the goals and objectives are also discussed.

This paper starts with the general literature review. In Chapter 2, from theoretical and historical perspectives, different views about the L1 use in language teaching and learning are explained in terms of monolingual teaching, bilingual teaching, dynamic bilingualism (García & Wei, 2014), and plurilingualism (Council of Europe, 2001, 2018). Empirical studies about the L1 use inside and outside the classroom are presented in order to support the current conceptualizations and perspectives, followed by the research on teachers' and students' beliefs about the L1 use. In addition, to identify the present situation about Japan's foreign language education and issues behind it, the following are overviewed: The current teaching and learning in Japan and high-stakes examinations, including the new *Daigaku Nyugaku Kyotsu* Test (hereafter, *Kyotsu* Test) (MEXT, 2017c; National Center for University Entrance Examinations, 2018) and the certified external examinations for university admissions. In Chapter 3, the author's four studies about the L1 use in the Japanese context, two of which were collectively written, are introduced so as to identify issues and to show the need to justify the L1 use in the curriculum goals and objectives of the COSs for primary education (MEXT, 2017b) and secondary education (MEXT, 2017a, 2018). General Discussion is provided in Chapter 4 to link the results of the studies with the literature review. Also, terminology with regard to the L1/translation use is overviewed with its terminological issues, and its taxonomy is presented based on the literature review in Chapter 2 and on the studies in Chapter 3 to organize the judicious use of L1. This dissertation ends with Chapter 5 where desired curriculum goals, objectives, classroom activities, and assessment are discussed and suggested as Pedagogical Implication. It is followed by a summary of this paper and future research.

Before moving on to the next chapter, please keep in mind that I am not trying to revitalize the Grammar Translation Method through this paper; rather I am trying to put the L1 use in a justifiable place in the foreign language education of Japanese schools.

CHAPTER 2

GENERAL LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 THEORETICAL LENS: HOW L1 HAS BEEN TREATED

2.1.1 ROOTS OF MONOLINGUAL TEACHING

The advent of the exclusive L2 use in the language classroom, as known as monolingual teaching, dates back to the end of the nineteenth century. In the academic sphere, the Reform Movement emerged, and its reformers emphasized the importance of spoken language, connected texts, and learning through the medium of a target language (Cook, 2010). The Grammar Translation Method, which dominated foreign language teaching in secondary schools at that time, was hence vigorously criticized (Hall & Cook, 2012) because its method focused on written language, including the deductive teaching of L2 grammar rules, translations of isolated texts, and memorization of L2 vocabulary (Brown, 2007). Although the reformers opposed the Grammar Translation Method, they did not necessarily oppose the judicious use of students' L1 or translation, especially in vocabulary teaching (Cook, 2010; Hall & Cook, 2012). The Reform Movement did shift attention from deductive teaching focusing on the written language to an active use of the target language, but it was less influential on people's beliefs than the Berlitz Method, later known as the Direct Method, raised from the commercial sphere. Inspired by a Frenchman who taught French in French to English-speaking students in the United States of America and by the students having enjoyed his lessons and made progress, Berlitz developed the Berlitz Method that excluded any use of students' native languages (Hall & Cook, 2012) and that is "the first true hard-line rejection of translation" (Cook, 2010, p. 6). He then founded Berlitz Schools with this monolingual principle in 1882, which became a model for other private language schools. The ideas and practices of the Reform Movement and Berlitz Method, which appeared simultaneously from two different spheres, generated a new language teaching method widely known as the Direct Method

(Cook, 2010). Since that time, translation has been criticized and rejected together with the Grammar Translation Method that was considered as a villain or just ignored. Turnbull and Dailey-O’Cain (2009) put it:

For many second and foreign-language educators, any notion of first language use in language teaching and learning connotes the dreaded grammar-translation methods that communicative language proponents loathe. (p. 2)

The L1 use is viewed as an enemy that deprives opportunities for negotiating meaning when students interact with others in L2 (Turnbull & Dailey-O’Cain, 2009).

In more detail, the Direct Method is comprised of four pillars as summarized below, which represent “assumptions – about language use, language learning, and effective language pedagogy” (Cook, 2010, pp. 7-8).

Pillar one: monolingualism – This assumption expresses language is used monolingually so teachers need to create a monolingual situation in the classroom.

Pillar two: naturalism – This assumption implies that language is learned in a natural environment similar to first language acquisition where students can pick up a language through immersion.

Pillar three: native-speakerism – This assumption about language learning tells that native speakers of L2 are the best models and best teachers for students so they need to follow the ways native speakers acquire the language.

Pillar four: absolutism – This assumption shows absolute confidence that a language is most effectively taught through the Direct Method and that students prefer it to bilingual approaches. (pp. 8-9)

These four underlying assumptions (Cook, 2010) together with the international dominance of English native speakers and the cheaper mass production of English textbooks have spread the monolingual teaching around the world and influenced people's, particularly teachers', beliefs about language teaching and learning (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009). Turnbull and Daily-O'Cain (2009) express that the success of immersion programs in Canada contributed to the spread of this type of teaching as well.

In addition, the monolingual teaching was reflected in the audiolingual and audio-visual teaching approaches in the 1960s and 1970s (Cummins, 2007). The emergence of SLA studies in the 1970s and Communicative Language Teaching in the 1980s has shifted to a focus on meaning (Hall & Cook, 2012). Language teachers have been feeling guilty when resorting to their students' L1 ever since (Auerbach, 1993; Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009), so they use it only as a last resort (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009).

There is also a political view regarding the use of students' L1. Language policies which aimed at the assimilation of minority students into the American society and which recommended the monolingual teaching helped accelerate patriotism and the Americanization movement in the early twentieth century, because governmental policies have ideological power (Auerbach, 1993).

Japan experienced its economic growth in the 1970s. The number of Japanese people who traveled or lived abroad and of English-speaking teachers increased, and "English came to be regarded as a means of communicating with other people in the world" (Sasaki, 2008, p. 69). The economic growth and the internationalization of English changed the teaching and assessment practices in the English as a Foreign Language (hereafter, EFL) learning context towards a focus on meaning since that time (Sasaki, 2008).

In sum, the spread of the monolingual teaching is based on neither empirical research nor the actual classroom practices (Auerbach, 1993). Rather, it is the teaching style that has generated from critiques toward the Grammar Translation Method and from the said assumptions with

confidently-held beliefs that have been raised from academic, commercial, economic, and political spheres.

2.1.2 GROWING INTEREST IN BILINGUAL TEACHING

Even during the spread of the monolingual teaching where students' L1 has a negative connotation, the L1 use has never disappeared from language classrooms (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Cook, 2010). In particular, L1 and/or translation has been used especially when the teacher and the students share a common language (Cook, 2010). Since the 2000s, the judicious L1 use with its clear functions, known as bilingual teaching, has been recognized in academics (Hall & Cook, 2012). Teachers' and students' L1 use and their beliefs about it have been investigated in various contexts (See the later sections in this chapter). Moreover, translation is seen as a bridge, not as a villain, between the familiar (L1) and unfamiliar (L2), and the known (L1) and unknown (L2) (Cook, 2010). Gutiérrez (2018) notes that the role of translation in the foreign language or second language classroom has been reconsidered extensively over the last few decades. Ellis and Shintani (2014) admit that "In recent years, advocacy of L1 use has grown in strength and it is now clear that the pendulum has swung firmly in its favour at least in applied linguistic circles" (p. 233). Also, the present-day migration and globalization "have led to a re-evaluation of the importance of bilingualism and multilingualism for individual and societal language use" (Hall & Cook, 2012, p. 278). May (2013) calls this societal change the Multilingual Turn. Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009) call the judicious use of L1 in the classroom a true paradigm shift. The following concepts, which support the bilingual teaching, are discussed widely across the field of the foreign language education.

Widdowson (2003) focuses attention on students' learning process when they learn L2 as a foreign language in school. He mentions that "Our students come to class with one language (at least) and our [teachers'] task is to get them to acquire another one" (p. 149). He calls the students'

learning process “bilingualization” (p. 150). It reflects compound bilingualism, where the knowledge of two languages is fused into a single system (Widdowson, 2003); therefore, L1 is useful as a cognitive resource for students. He criticizes teachers who ignore students’ bilingualization in class and continue using L2 exclusively, which indicates that they strive to promote coordinate bilingualism, where the two languages are kept separate as two different systems (Widdowson, 2003).

Cook’s (2016) multicompetence and L2 users also support the bilingual teaching. Multicompetence is defined as “the overall system of a mind or a community that uses more than one language” (Cook, 2016, p. 14). Murahata and Murahata (2016a) point out that it means the unified language system, “L1+L2,” where languages interact with each other, rather than multiple language systems in the same mind. In a precise sense, the “L2” in the concept of the multicompetence indicates the learner’s L2 interlanguage that is different in quality and quantity from what the native speakers of L2 possess (p. 6). Thus, Cook (2016) distinguishes the L2 user, who “uses the second language for real-life purposes” (p. 14), from the L2 learner, who “is acquiring a second language rather than using it actively in everyday life” (p. 14). According to him, the goal of foreign language teaching and learning should be becoming L2 users, since, by activating the unified language system, they make full use of codeswitching and translation as their skills that monolingual speakers of L2 do not have when communicating in the multilingual society. Thus, he claims the necessity of the bilingual teaching in the classroom. Cook’s (2016) multicompetence and Widdowson’s (2003) bilingualization seem to be similar in that both discuss language learning from the perspective of the learner who has a single unifying language system. Cook (2016) also talks about compound and coordinate bilingualism, and notes that the only valid form of L2 learning that excludes students’ L1 is coordinate bilingualism.

The effectiveness of the bilingual teaching is based not so much on people’s strongly-held beliefs reflected in the monolingual teaching as on teachers’ and students’ actual language uses

inside and outside the classroom.

2.1.3 GOALS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

In taking into consideration the goals of foreign language learning, the monolingual and bilingual teaching aim at different goals.

In the monolingual teaching, the goal is “to prepare students to communicate in monolingual environments and to emulate as far as possible the use of the new language [L2] by its native speakers” (Hall & Cook, 2012, p. 276). As native speakers use neither codeswitching nor translation, it is believed that L2 is effectively learned without recourse to the L1. Since the goal is to acquire another linguistic system (L2) as native speakers of L2 separate from the already existing system (L1), neither multicompetence (Cook, 2016) nor bilingualization (Widdowson, 2003) is a concern. In other words, coordinate bilingualism is the goal of the monolingual teaching (Cook, 2016; Widdowson, 2003).

In contrast, in the bilingual teaching where the judicious L1 use is encouraged, the goal is not to become like the native speaker of L2, but to be the L2 user (Cook, 2016). According to Cook (2016), for students to become like native speakers of L2 is impossible because the native-speaker-goal “limits the components they try to those that monolingual native speakers possess” (Cook, 2016, p. 179). The L2-user-goal captures skills that the native speakers do not have, such as codeswitching and translation. Thus, L1 is acknowledged in multilingual environments and used consciously for effective foreign language learning in the classroom. As opposed to coordinate bilingualism, compound bilingualism is the goal of the bilingual teaching and is a reason for using students’ L1s in class (Cook, 2016; Widdowson, 2003).

When the goals of the foreign language teaching and learning are discussed, Cook (2007) contends the importance of setting both external and internal goals defined as follows, in order to develop the L2 user:

External goals related to the students' use of language outside the classroom: travelling about using the second language in shops and trains, reading books in another language or attending lectures in a different country, surviving as refugees in a strange new world. (n.p.)

Internal goals relate to the students' mental development as individuals; they think differently, approach language in a different way, be better citizens, because of the effects that the second language has on their minds. ... studying L2 literature heightened people's cultural awareness. (n.p.)

Murahata and Murahata (2016b) warn that "in recent English education world-wide ... too much emphasis has been put on the 'external' goal for L2 learning" (p. 59). Sugawara (2011) is concerned with the fact that many Japanese people consider communication as oral communication.

The goals of L2 teaching and learning determined at the governmental and institutional levels as well as teachers' attitudes towards and beliefs about language teaching, which are explained later, have strong impacts on how students learn an L2.

2.1.4 THE EMERGENCE OF DYNAMIC BILINGUALISM

With a broader view, dynamic bilingualism emerged that is the foundation of languaging. García and Wei (2014) define dynamic bilingualism as a different concept from traditional bilingualism:

... a dynamic conceptualization of bilingualism goes beyond the notion of two autonomous languages, of a first language (L1) and a second language (L2), and of additive or subtractive bilingualism. Instead, dynamic bilingualism suggests that the language practices

of bilinguals are complex and interrelated. (pp. 13-14)

The Dynamic Bilingual Model ... posits that there is but one linguistic system ... with features that are integrated throughout. (p.15)

García and Wei (2014) also distinguish dynamic bilingualism from Cummins' (1979) Linguistic Interdependence, which assumes that two linguistic systems, which are interdependent, have the Common Underlying Proficiency (hereafter, CUP) underneath the systems. The CUP includes cognitively demanding tasks, such as problem solving and critical thinking that are said to be common across languages, which is hidden when Linguistic Interdependence is taken as an analogy of dual iceberg – the first iceberg represents one language and the second shows the other language (Cummins, 1979). Thinking about the dynamic bilingualism from a classroom-based view in the English as a Second Language (hereafter, ESL) learning context, García and Wei (2014) accept the language practices, including L1s, in class used by minority students who have various linguistic backgrounds and learn ESL in the United States of America. In terms of maintaining their identities and achieving the equality education for the students, the researchers claim the importance of putting an emphasis on the ongoing process of the students' engagement in language practices, by them using their unique, complex semiotic repertoires, for meaning-making to learn during interactions with their teacher and peers. The researchers call this meaning-making process in the classroom translanguaging, which comes from the term “languaging” that captures the fluid and dynamic language practices of bilinguals in multilingual societies. Translanguaging “encompasses all manner of language meshing and melding (alternation, translation, calques, coinages, etc.)” (Moore, 2018, p. 132). In his book review, Moghaddam (2017) cites four purposes for developing translanguaging from Garcia, Johnson, and Seltzer's *The translanguaging classroom: Leveraging student bilingualism for learning* (2017):

1. Supporting students as they engage with and comprehend complex content and text.
2. Providing opportunities for students to develop linguistic practices for academic contexts.
3. Making space for students' bilingualism and ways of knowing it.
4. Supporting students' bilingual identities and socioemotional development. (p. 7)

The concept of translanguaging has been permeated in the EFL context as well, and language teachers are willingly to admit students' L1 in class to support L2 development and promote their bilinguality (Moore, 2018). Canagarajah (2011) defines translanguaging as “the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages as an integrated system” (p. 401). He considers it as the general communicative competence of multilinguals. The ideas of dynamic bilingualism and translanguaging have been spreading, and many researchers discuss the L1 use, keeping the multilingual society in mind as well as the monolingual society. A more descriptive and comprehensive view of language practices by bilinguals has been disseminated and discussed at social, cultural, and individual levels.

2.1.5 THE SPREAD OF PLURILINGUALISM

Plurilingualism is a goal of language teaching and learning for equality and inclusive education as well as an educational philosophy of the *Common European framework of reference for languages* (hereafter, CEFR), and is defined as “the dynamic and developing linguistic repertoire of an individual user/learner” (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 28). It is different from multilingualism in that the latter refers to a variety of languages existing in a society, whereas the former means multiple languages existing in an individual mind. In other words, from the view of plurilingualism, all languages in the mind, including L1, are valued as linguistic resources because

they are interrelated, interconnected, and inseparable, and make communication possible in various personal, professional, public, and educational contexts.

Mediation is a vital component of one's plurilingual competence.

The CEFR defines it as:

In mediation, the user/learner acts as a social agent who creates bridges and helps to construct or convey meaning, sometimes within the same language, sometimes, from one language to another (cross-linguistic mediation). The focus is on the role of language in processes like creating the space and conditions for communicating and/or learning, collaborating to construct new meaning, encouraging others to construct or understand new meaning, and passing on new information in an appropriate form. (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 103)

The important thing to keep in mind, when mediation is discussed, is that it is other-oriented. An individual is more concerned with the needs or ideas of the other or others for whom he/she is mediating, not his or her own needs or ideas.

The 2018 volume provides descriptors for mediation, clarifying its detailed language activities, such as mediating a text, mediating concepts, and mediating communication, each of which is further divided into concrete activities as shown in Figure 1 (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 104).

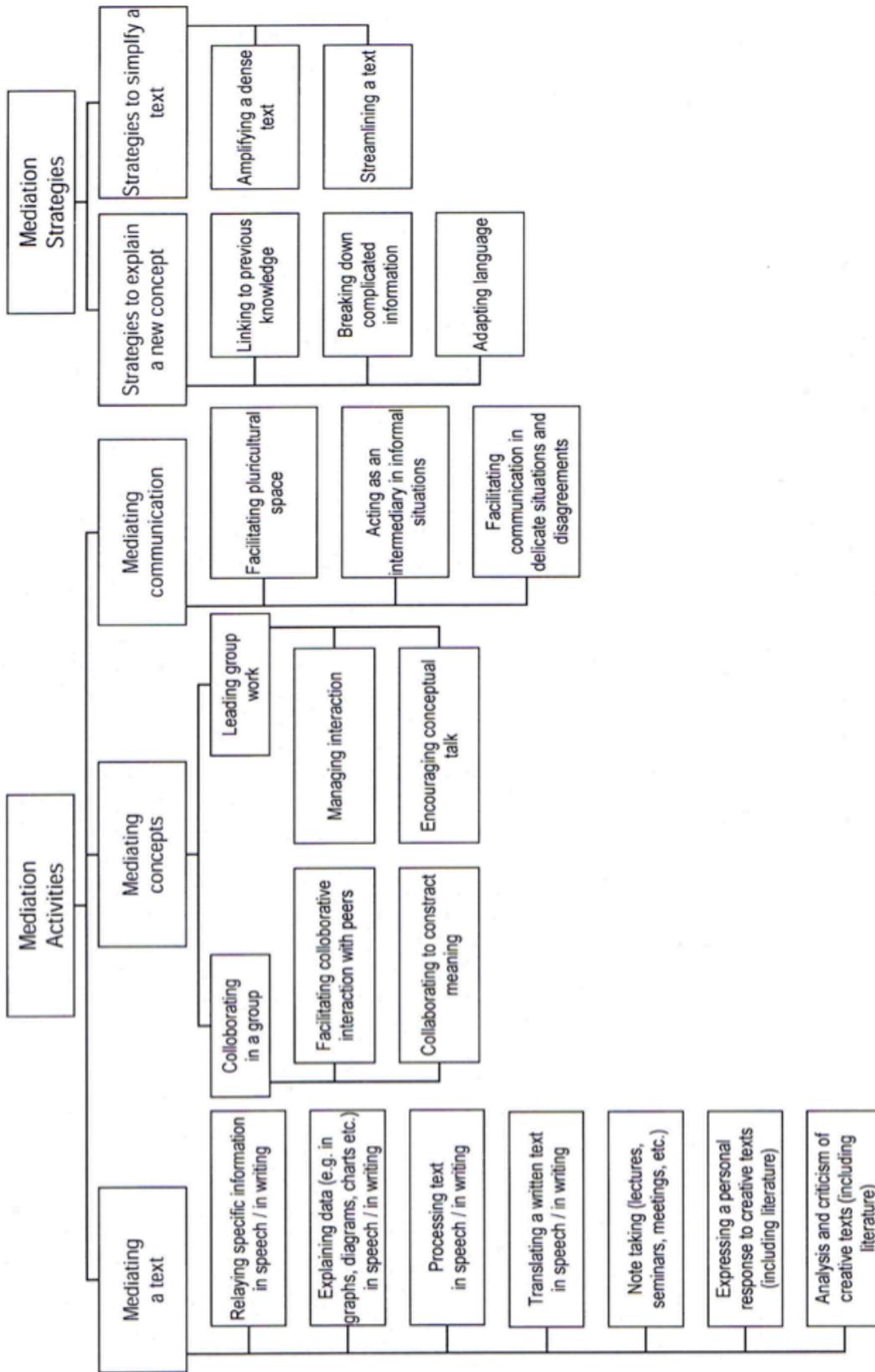


Figure 1. Mediation activities and strategies (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 104)

Plurilingualism and dynamic bilingualism are not interchangeable in meaning. The former refers to a plurality of languages at the individual level, but the latter involves the concept of languaging to show the fluidity of language use by bilinguals, not just the fact of the number of languages they can use. In dynamic bilingualism, bilinguals also make use of not just their languages but also other semiotics, such as voices, emoticons, and images. Whereas mediation focuses more on languages or linguistic repertoire of an individual and how he or she performs with them for others in interaction, languaging put more emphasis on the people involved in interaction and how they evolve it by using all of their available resources. One common idea between dynamic bilingualism (García & Wei, 2014) and plurilingualism (Council of Europe, 2001, 2018) is that these concepts show the current trend of holistic language teaching and learning, where languages are perceived as one integrated linguistic system and people use their certain linguistic repertoire depending on the situation.

2.2 EMPIRICAL LENS: L1 USE IN THE CLASSROOM

When discussed in foreign language teaching and learning, L1 use can be explained roughly in two main situations – inside the classroom where teachers and students use L1, the shared language, and outside the classroom where people as social agents use L1 in authentic communication. The former situation is a focus of this subsection and the latter is discussed in the next.

2.2.1 TEACHERS' L1 USE

A number of researchers conducted research on teachers' L1 use, claiming its positive impact on language learning (Hall & Cook, 2012).

Littlewood and Yu (2011) have shown that teachers use L1 for three main purposes, by having asked 50 second-year tertiary students from Hong Kong (hereafter, HK) and Mainland

China (hereafter, ML) to recall the purposes of their English teachers having used the L1 (Cantonese or Putonghua) in junior-secondary school English lessons. The brackets are added by the author.

1. Establishing constructive social relationships; [interpersonal use of L1]
2. Communicating complex meanings to ensure understanding and/or same time ('explaining difficult grammar' for the ML group, 'giving the meaning of unknown words' for the HK group); [linguistic use of L1]
3. Maintaining control over the classroom environment. [managerial use of L1] (p. 68)

Ellis and Shintani (2014) provide similar but more elaborated teachers' use of L1: (1) Interpersonal use as "building personal relationship with students" (p. 234), (2) the linguistic use as "convey L2 meaning," "to explain tasks and tests," "to explain grammar," "avoidance of unnecessary input modification," "preparing for activities conducted in the L2" (p. 234), and (3) the managerial use as "maintain discipline" (p. 234). They also list (4) the learner-oriented use as "reduce anxiety in the learner" and "demonstrating respect for the learner by acknowledging their L1 identity" (p. 235), and (5) communicative use of L1 as "to practice codeswitching" and "developing translation skills" (p. 234). Liu et al. (2004), who investigated South Korean high school English teachers' codeswitching practices in their classrooms, identify five major functions of teachers' L1 use: (1) Explaining difficult vocabulary and grammar, (2) giving background information, (3) saving time, (4) highlighting important information, and (5) managing students behavior. The first four functions lie in the linguistic use of L1 and the fifth function represents the managerial use of L1. Macaro (2001), through classroom observations, explores L1 use by six English student-teachers, who taught French as a foreign language to students aged 11 to 14, and identifies three common situations where they resorted to L1: (1) Procedural instruction, (2)

keeping control, and (3) reprimanding, three of which tell the linguistic and managerial use of L1. Moreover, Cook (2016) summarizes L1 use that teachers find useful through various research articles: (1) Explaining grammar to the students, (2) explaining tasks and exercises to the students, and (3) students using the first language within classroom activities (Cook, 2016, pp. 195-196). Hall and Cook (2013) conduct a survey, where 2,785 teachers working in 111 countries responded a questionnaire about their perceptions of L1 use, and reveal that a majority of the participants use L1 (1) to explain when L2 meanings are unclear, (2) to explain vocabulary, (3) to explain grammar, (4) to develop rapport and a good classroom atmosphere, and (5) to maintain discipline. These studies are not to prove that L1 use facilitates L2 learning but to show that teachers actually use L1 wisely for different purposes in different situations.

2.2.2 STUDENTS' L1 USE

Likewise, students' L1 use has been researched from different perspectives. Antón and DeCamilla (1999), from a sociocultural lens, investigate how L1 was used by adult learners of Spanish who are native speakers of English in their interactions through a collaborative writing task. Dividing functions of L1 into interpsychological (social) and intrapsychological (cognitive) functions, they find out, as the former function, that the learners provided scaffolded help in L1 with each other throughout their task performances when they tried to solve cognitively-challenging problems, such as producing complex linguistic forms and evaluating and understanding the meaning of a text in L2. Besides this scaffolding function, the learners resorted to L1 to establish and maintain intersubjectivity, meaning they tried to arrive at a shared understanding of the scope of the task, limiting the topic, its goals, and sub-goals in L1. As the second function of L1, the intrapsychological function, the learners are found out to use L1 to externalize their private speech when encountering cognitively difficult problems. The researchers contend that L1 is a critical psychological tool to create social and cognitive space for learners

during tasks, and thus L1 can be a powerful tool in group activities in language classrooms. Based on their study, Swain and Lapkin (2000) explore English-speaking learners' L1 use in two different types of activities, jigsaw and dictogloss, in French immersion classes. In both of the activities, L1 was most used during task management (understanding the information of the tasks to move them along) and during vocabulary search to focus attention. Moreover, although the amount of the L1 use depends on the level of complexity of the tasks and learners' L2 levels, lower-achieving students are found out to be more likely to use L1 than high-achieving students. Viewing L1 as one important cognitive tool, Swain and Lapkin claim that "judicious use of the L1 can indeed support L2 learning and use" (p. 268). Bao and Du (2015) also investigate, from a sociocultural perspective, the L1 use of students who were learning Chinese as a foreign language in a task-based classroom in Denmark. They show learners' high amount of L1 use, during three different task types: Sentence construction, information gap, and role-play, for the purpose of mediating the completion of the tasks. The learners most frequently used their L1 in their role-play task. L1 was used for task management and vocabulary attention as identified in Swain and Lapkin (2000). Bao and Du (2015) also indicate the same factors behind the learners' L1 use (task types and learners' proficiency levels), and consider L1 as a facilitating tool to get tasks going, not as one that should be vanished.

Whereas the sociocultural perspective considers L1 as a mediating tool for social interactions that happen mostly during group activities in language classrooms as in the above studies, the actual L1 use by students can be seen from a cognitive perspective as well. Kern (1994) investigates the use of mental translation in second language reading by 51 university students of French whose first language is English. Based on the analyses of the students' comments through interviews, it is found that translation facilitated semantic processing and helped consolidate meaning during reading. The participants used translation intermittently to tackle specific obstacles in L2 texts for comprehension. Translation was used strategically to clarify syntactic roles and to

verify the accuracy of ones' comprehension of an L2 text. Kern contends that translation plays an important role in the L2 reading comprehension process.

Looking at the L1 use and translation from a learning strategy perspective, students are found out to use translation as their learning strategies positively. Mutlu, Bayram, and Demirbüken (2015) explore the translation use by 118 Turkish adult learners who study English as a foreign language. It is found that they used translation as a learning strategy in various situations when they read L2 texts and write L2. In a speaking task, they organized their ideas in L1 and translated them into L2. They also used bilingual dictionaries to get the meanings of idioms and phrases. The majority of the students asked others to translate when they encountered problems in comprehension. The researchers also discovered that elementary-level learners used translation more often than pre-intermediate and intermediate students in order to enhance speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills and to learn English forms and structures. Based on the said research results, the researchers suggest the use of translation in language classrooms especially for elementary-level students rather than ignoring their L1. A similar study found in Karimian and Talebinejad (2013) explores to what extent Iranian students of English use translation and what kinds of learning strategies involving translation are employed by them. The researchers reveal that the most students used mental translation in reading L2 texts, in outlining their ideas, in understanding the meanings of utterances in a piece of listening, and in learning L2 idioms and expressions. A lot of the Iranian students discuss the similarities and differences between Persian and English through their L1. Most of the results identified in this study are in line with the ones in Kern (1994) and Mutlu, Bayram, and Demirbüken (2015). The researchers also find out that the use of translation provides students with a sense of security. Thus, it works as an affective strategy.

Students in various contexts use L1 in different situations and for different purposes as teachers do. In other words, they use it strategically as a cognitive or meta-cognitive resource or a means to develop overall L2 skills, as Butzkamm (2003) considers L1 as “the most important ally a

foreign language can have” (p. 30).

2.2.3 TRANSLATION ACTIVITIES

Overviewing the last two subsections, a question may arise regarding whether translation does bring a positive influence on students’ L2 development.

In the Malaysian context, Ramachandran and Rahim (2004) investigate the effectiveness of the translation method in teaching English (L2) vocabulary to elementary level learners aged 16 whose first language is Malay. 60 learners participated – 30 in the experimental group where the translation method was employed and 30 in the control group where non-translation method was conducted by the same teacher. 20 lexical items were taught over a period of four weeks, and a post test and delayed post test were administered. The study reveals that almost all the learners in the first group could recall the meaning of the lexical items in both tests. The researchers conclude that the translation method was effective for elementary-level learners and seems to have a positive impact on learners’ recall and retention in vocabulary learning.

Ebbert-Hübner and Maas (2018) reveal that translation leads to grammatical accuracy at the college level. They investigate whether 94 student-participants, who all enrolled on English Studies undergraduate degrees, improve their grammatical accuracy of English (L2) after having taken a 14-week translation class. Their first language is German. In the class, the students were expected to learn L2 grammar through contrastive analysis and translation (hereafter, CAT). They took a pre-test on the grammatical aspects of articles, tenses, prepositions, and false friends before the start of the class as well as the post-test. Exercises adapted from an EFL textbook (“advanced” or C1 level in the CEFR) were used for both of the tests. The results show that the student’ scores on tense/aspect and preposition tasks, as well as on the test as a whole, significantly improved after the CAT classes. They also improved their ability to distinguish between collocates and false friends, although their achievement on articles was low. They conclude that CAT alone is not enough to

tackle fossilized errors in the use of articles, but that translation may be useful especially for advanced students, who have sufficient competence in L2 grammar and the metalanguage to discuss the two languages comparatively, in order to target interference mistakes.

Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009) overview the effectiveness of L1 and translation use in the L2 classroom, discussing various topics ranging from how a child uses his or her L1 when acquiring it from his or her caregivers and when learning an L2 to the feelings of dislike, annoyance, and stress that students actually feel about the exclusive L2 use. They raise four reasons to incorporate translation in the L2 classroom as follows:

1. Translation is the quintessential cultural activity. ... The art of translation, the journey back and forth between languages and cultures, will remain a first-class scientific, dialectic and aesthetic form of education.
2. Pupils must learn to understand before they start to criticise. Translation is the most rigorous test of understanding.
3. Translating, comparing, reflecting on the various possibilities of translation and the limits of translatability provide deep insights into the nature of languages. ... Translations can make us experience the alienation of our own ways of speaking and thinking. ...
4. ... translation is beneficial to the real needs of learners because it is direly needed in modern societies where bizarre mistranslations abound. (pp. 196-197)

They also claim that translation brings a number of beneficial aspects to the general process of language learning, such as allowing time for reflection on the elements of an L2 text and focusing strongly on preciseness and accuracy in communicative tasks. Based on their claim on the effectiveness of L1 and translation, they suggest the sandwich technique (L2→L1→L2) for

teachers to use for the purpose of vocabulary and grammar teaching in the communicative language teaching approach, which makes L2 input comprehensible as it leads to intake and which makes it easier to create a foreign language atmosphere. Besides the technique, semi-communicative drills are also introduced, which are comprised with seven steps: (1) Presentation and clarification of a featured grammatical pattern using the sandwich technique, (2) Easy substitutions, where L1 sentences that a teacher gives are substituted with L2 equivalents which include the featured pattern, (3) Pair work of the substitution practices done in (2), (4) “Loaded” sentences of contextual diversity, where new sentences are introduced with the L1 equivalents within the pattern, (5) “Over to you,” where students are expected to create their own sentences using the pattern, (6) Pupil presentation and communicative interludes, where a pupil says a created sentence to the class and the teacher start a conversation using the sentence, and (7) Creating writing, where pupils are expected to compose short texts using the pattern (pp. 125-130). They also suggest various translation-related classroom activities, like “oral translations into the MT [mother tongue] to practice reading comprehension,” “comparing the FL [foreign language] original and its translation,” “comparing several translations,” “Pupils translate by themselves, preferable individually or with a partner, armed with bilingual dictionaries,” “Re-translation or double translation,” and “Hunting for mistranslations” (pp. 199-202).

Referring to their activities (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009), Cook (2010) introduces some translation activities for students’ L2 development such as corrected close translation, word-for-word translation, teaching vocabulary, and discussion of translation problems. Kerr (2014) also suggests, by clarifying the needs of using own language in the L2 classroom, a variety of translation activities as well as those of own language. Some examples of the translation activities are reverse translation activities, assisted translation where students are expected to translate an English poem or a song lyric into their L1 using a bilingual glossary, and identifying false friends with a partner between L1 and L2 using a bilingual dictionary.

Gutiérrez (2018) calls these types of translation “pedagogical translation.” She defines it as:

Pedagogical translation designates those translating activities and/or tasks that are included in foreign language (FL) teaching and learning. These tasks enhance the development of specific language and translating skills and are based on various aspects of translation and other pragmatic issues central to the FL classroom: language awareness, accuracy, pragmatic and intercultural competence, creativity, problem solving, and autonomy and collaboration, to name just a few. These translation based activities help the language learner to have a better command of the language and translation as a key skill for language users. (p. 16)

Gutiérrez (2018) differentiates this pedagogical translation from codeswitching, which indicates classroom interaction involving language switch between the students’ and the teachers’ languages (L1, L2, etc.) and from interior translation, which means students’ cognitive strategy to use their L1 or additional languages as a tool unconsciously when they learn an L2.

2.3 EMPIRICAL LENSE: L1 USE OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM

Two studies prove the actual L1 use as authentic communication. Kubota (2013) investigates the language use of Japanese expatriates working in China and local Chinese office workers. She conducted interviews with 13 Japanese managers in Japan and with ten Japanese expatriates and 6 local Chinese workers in China. It is found that Japanese and Mandarin were major languages of workplace communication, rather than English, which was used for work involving overseas clients for written communication. Language mix, Japanese and Mandarin, was also identified depending on the linguistic repertoire of the interlocutors. She also comments that the nature of the work and individual subjectivity as well as the linguistic repertoires determines which language to use.

Another research carried out by Lambert (2010) finds out real-life tasks in business as needs

analysis, so that his Japanese university students in an English program can engage in authentic tasks through task-based teaching approach in college. He started with (1) the recent job placement records in the Office of Student Affairs of the university, which resulted in having found two main work domains: Business and Education. He then conducted (2) two interviews with an informant from each domain, (3) an open-ended questionnaire sent to graduates over the five-year period preceding the study, (4) a follow-up email questionnaire sent to the respondents who were willing to continue participating in the research, and (5) a closed-item direct-mail questionnaire sent to all graduates of the program over the 25-year period preceding the study. He identifies five main tasks that were relatively high priorities for both domains: Locating information from English sources, translating documents from English to Japanese, summarizing English information in Japanese, editing official English documents, and interpreting between speakers of English and Japanese. What these two studies tell is that L1 and L2 help each other to achieve real-life communication tasks. Thus, mediation is an ordinary act in society and is practiced depending on the interlocutor, context, and one's overall linguistic ability.

The emergence of the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) and its revised version (Council of Europe, 2018) highlight, from an educational perspective, the importance of L1 use in all the main domains of language use (personal, professional, public, and academic domains), placing mediation as an important concept. To be more specific, according to the CEFR, since the traditional model of the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) “has increasingly proved inadequate to capture the complex reality of communication” (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 30), it is replaced with four modes of communication which are comprised of reception, production, interaction, and mediation. The modes are considered as communicative language activities and communicative language strategies that make up one's overall language proficiency, together with his or her general competencies (knowledge, skill, attitude, and learning ability) and communication language competencies (linguistic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic). Cross-linguistic mediation appears in

such language activities as (1) Relaying specific information in speech/in writing, (2) Explaining data in speech/in writing, (3) Processing text in speech/in writing, and (4) Translating a written text in speech/in writing as part of mediating a text, and (5) Acting as an intermediary in informal situations as part of mediating communication (See Figure 1 for reference). The difference between (1) and (3) is that, in the former, one uses L1 in relaying specific information extracted from an L2 text, not the main ideas or lines of argument presented in the text. There are times when he or she needs to add some explanation related to the text. In the latter, one is expected to show in L1 a summary of a written or spoken text in L2. These language activities are concretely explained as descriptors in each domain of language use. The below (Figure 2) is one example of such descriptors in all the four domains that the CEFR has presented as translating a written text in writing in mediating a text (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 203). The other language activities that include cross-linguistic mediation are attached in Appendix 1. The descriptors presented in the CEFR are highly valid and reliable because they have been developed through a number of workshops, online surveys, consultative meetings, and pilot stages.

| MEDIATING A TEXT | | TEXT (& DISCOURSE ENVIRONMENT) | | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|--|---|--|--|
| TRANSLATING WRITTEN TEXT IN WRITING | | PERSONAL | PUBLIC | OCCUPATIONAL | EDUCATIONAL |
| LEVEL | DESCRIPTORS | letters, newspaper articles, commentaries and editorials, specialised articles, or other publications addressed to a general educated readership | a political tract, a public policy document, a legal opinion | professional publications, technical reports, contracts, press releases | an academic paper |
| C2 | Can translate into (Language B) technical material outside his/her field of specialisation written in (Language A), provided subject matter accuracy is checked by a specialist in the field concerned. | letters, articles in a magazine or newspaper, short stories | speeches, sermons, policy documents | scientific, technical, financial or project reports, regulations, articles and other professional publications | academic papers and books, literary criticism |
| C1 | Can translate into (Language B) abstract texts on social, academic and professional subjects in his/her field written in (Language A), successfully conveying evaluative aspects and arguments, including many of the implications associated with them, though some expression may be over-influenced by the original. | letters, articles in a magazine or newspaper, some colloquial writings | | | |
| B2+ | Can produce clearly organised translations from (Language A) into (Language B) that reflect normal language usage but may be over-influenced by the order, paragraphing, punctuation and particular formulations of the original. | letters with news, articles of general interest | | | academic papers and books, novels, short stories, plays |
| B2 | Can produce translations into (Language B), which closely follow the sentence and paragraph structure of the original text in (Language A), conveying the main points of the source text accurately, though the translation may read awkwardly. | | public documents describing general regulations, guidebook entries, statements of opinion | straightforward letters, instructions, reports on subjects in his/her field | straightforward narratives, general academic regulations |
| B1+ | Can produce approximate translations from (Language A) into (Language B) of straightforward, factual texts that are written in uncomplicated, standard language, closely following the structure of the original, although linguistic errors may occur the translation remains comprehensible. | | | straightforward letters, instructions, reports on subjects in his/her field | |
| B1 | Can produce approximate translations from (Language A) into (Language B) of information contained in short, factual texts written in uncomplicated, standard language; despite errors, the translation remains comprehensible. | | | | general academic regulations |
| A2 | Can use simple language to provide an approximate translation from (Language A) into (Language B) of very short texts on familiar and everyday themes that contain the highest frequency vocabulary; despite errors, the translation remains comprehensible. | letters with news | public notices, guidebook entries | simple work instructions such as how to change the ink on a printer | simple, short narratives, general academic regulations such as for an exam |
| A1 | Can, with the help of a dictionary, translate simple words and phrases from (Language A) into (Language B), but may not always select the appropriate meaning. | | public notices, transportation information | simple instructions and reports on subjects in his/her field | simple narratives, academic regulations |
| Pre-A1 | No descriptors available | | | | |

Figure 2. Example of descriptors for cross-linguistic mediation. (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 203)

2.4 BELIEFS

Beliefs of language teachers and learners have increasingly become a topic of research over the past three decades. Overlooking related studies, Barcelos and Kalaja (2011) discuss the nature of beliefs by providing eight characteristics of beliefs about language teaching and learning. These are “fluctuating,” “complex and dialectical,” “related to the micro- and macro political contexts and discourses,” “intrinsically related to other affective constructs such as emotions and self-concepts,” “other-oriented,” “influenced by reflection and affordances,” “related to knowledge in intricate ways,” and “related to action in complex ways” (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011, pp. 285-286). Research on teachers’ and learners’ beliefs about L1 use in the classroom is shown in the next two subsections.

2.4.1 TEACHERS’ BELIEFS

Beliefs are an influential factor when L2 is taught. Beliefs that L2 teachers hold are related to what they do in the classroom (Borg, 2015; Richards, 2017). Teachers’ beliefs are defined as “propositions individuals consider to be true and which are often tacit, have a strong evaluative and affective component, provide a basis for action, and are resistant to change” (Borg, 2011, p. 370).

Borg (2011) investigates beliefs of 6 English language teachers in the UK, who were taking an intensive eight-week in-service teacher education program, through semi-structured interviews. He concludes that in-service training programs can enable language teachers to reflect their beliefs extensively, strengthen them, and put them into practice.

Omote (2012) reveals teachers’ beliefs and conflicts about all-in-English (hereafter, AE) lessons in response to the statement that English classes, in principle, should be conducted in English (MEXT, 2009). Through semi-structured interviews with nine teachers who teach EFL and share Japanese (L1) with their students, he extracts four categories of teachers’ beliefs about AE lessons: Context-related belief, learning-related belief, teaching-related belief, and L1-acceptance

belief. All the participants find it difficult to implement AE lessons without dealing with conflicts based on the first three beliefs, and he contends that L1 should be accepted. His research is conducted in the Japanese context but does not examine influences behind their beliefs.

Macaro (2001) explores the amount and functions of L1 use by six student teachers, who teach French as a foreign language and share English (L1) with their students, by videotaping their lessons. He shows beliefs of the two student teachers about codeswitching through interviews based on the theoretical positions he defined (Table 1). He also examines factors that have influenced their beliefs and concludes that the National Curriculum (for England and Wales) could override personal beliefs, and there should be many other complex factors on teachers' codeswitching.

Table 1

Macaro's (2001) theoretical positions

| Position | Explanation |
|------------------|---|
| Virtual Position | “The classroom is like the target country. Therefore we should aim at total exclusion of the L1. There is no pedagogical value in L1 use. The L1 can be excluded from the FL [foreign language] classroom as long as the teacher is skilled enough” (2001, p. 535). |
| Maximal Position | “There is no pedagogical value in L1 use. However, perfect teaching and learning conditions do not exist and therefore teachers have to resort to the L1” (2001, p. 535). |
| Optimal Position | “There is some pedagogical value in L1 use. Some aspects of learning may actually be enhanced by use of the L1. There should therefore be a constant exploration of pedagogical principles regarding whether and in what ways L1 use is justified” (2001, p. 535). |

2.4.2 STUDENTS' BELIEFS

Not only teachers' but also students' beliefs about L1 use in the classroom have been researched in different countries.

Liao's (2006) study is one example that explores students' beliefs. In his study, 351 students in their fourth and fifth year of a five-year junior college in Taiwan answered a questionnaire about how they felt about translation and whether they used it as a learning strategy. Ten participants out of 351 had an interview with the researcher after having answered the questionnaire. The result was that a large number of students held positive beliefs about translation. Particularly, they believed that translation helped learn L2 vocabulary, idioms, phrases, reading, and writing. However, some of the more proficient students considered it having a negative influence on their learning. Thus, they used less translation. Those who thought translation positively tended to use translation as a learning strategy.

Fernández Guerra (2014) investigates 155 university students' attitudes toward translation tasks through quantitative analysis in Spain. The research reveals students' positive attitudes toward translation. Many viewed it as a motivating and useful activity to learn the cultural and linguistic aspects of L2 and to enhance their meta-linguistic ability. Unlike Liao's study, the more advanced students chose the translation task as one of the most preferable ones.

Veiga (2013) explores students' perception about using L1 and translation exercises in foreign language classrooms, targeting 12- to 19-year old Portuguese students – high school students in the Portuguese school system – who were taking either English or French as a foreign language at that time. The study shows that the majority of the students preferred translation activities. Also, most of the students felt the necessity of translation exercises in their learning processes. Many also felt a sense of security when their L1 was used. Responding to the students' positive perception on translation revealed in her study, Veiga contends, "As a mediation activity, translation should be reassessed in foreign language teaching practices" (Finding section, para. 5).

Brooks-Lewis (2009) targets Spanish (L1)-speaking adults learners of English (L2) in Mexico and explores learners' perceptions of incorporating L1 in a foreign language course through learners-participants' learning diaries, their essays in L2 about their experience of the course, and a questionnaire on the last day of the course. The research finds out that a majority of the participants held positive views of having incorporated L1 and language comparisons between L1 and L2. The participants perceived that L1 was useful for understanding what is happening and being said in class, for classroom participation, and for relieving stress. The researcher concludes that the incorporation of the learners' L1 "not only allows but *invites* the learner to become actively and consciously involved in the language learning experience" (Brooks-Lewis, 2009, p. 234), thus moving a step forward to learner-centeredness in the classroom.

Teachers' and students' beliefs about L1 use in the classroom affect their actual use of L1 as a means of teaching and learning L2.

2.5 LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING IN JAPAN

2.5.1 L1/L2 CONTROVERSY IN JAPAN

Like the L1/L2 controversy around the world, especially where L2 is taught and learned as a foreign language, Japan has been facing a similar issue on the role of L1 (Japanese) inside the classroom. One of the strongest influences is teachers' beliefs (Borg, 2015; Richards, 2017), but the issue has been increasingly discussed since the promulgation of the COS for senior high schools (MEXT, 2009) where the principle that English classes should mainly be carried out in English (L2) first appeared. Many researchers and teachers have reacted to the principle and expressed their opinions about L1 and/or translation used in the classroom or in assessment, which became one of the delicate issues due to the polarization of the opinions – for or against the principle.

Starting with the senior high school COS for Foreign Languages (MEXT, 2009), Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (hereafter, MEXT) includes the same principle

in the junior high school COS for the Foreign Languages (MEXT, 2017a). They continue to include the principle in the new COS for senior high schools announced in July 2018, which will be effective in April 2020 (MEXT, 2018). MEXT states the reasons for having added the principle in the COSs as providing students with sufficient L2 input and with authentic communication scenes. Yet, this principle does not appear in elementary school COSs for the Foreign Languages (for fifth and sixth grades) and for the Foreign Language Activity (for third and fourth grades) (MEXT, 2017b).

Sato (2014) supports the principle and reasons behind it from the Second Language Acquisition theories, in that maximizing L2 enables to provide more sufficient L2 input and to boost students' motivation towards L2 learning. He claims that the principle helps L2 Japanese teachers increase the amount of L2 in the classroom, being concerned about the excessive use of L1 and/or translation that many of them still make. Yoshida (2017) also supports the principle, showing the data about Japanese teachers of English by prefecture, which tells that teachers' use of L2 has a more positive correlation with students' L2 abilities rather than the impact that teachers' L2 proficiency has on students' L2 abilities.

On the other hand, Erikawa and Kubota (2014) express concerns about the principle, in that it is likely to limit the scope of teachers' discretion, prevent flexible classroom management depending on the situation, and put unjustifiable labels on teachers as bad teachers who do not teach in English. They also note that the principle may accelerate the number of students who do not like English. It is, according to them, considered out of date because of (1) no empirical research that shows the effectiveness of the L2-only instruction, (2) the recent trend of the holistic language teaching and learning, and (3) biased ideology behind the principle.

Similarly, Science Council of Japan (2016) suggests the English language education that is not underlying the principle. Their claim is that the principle is unachievable, because the L1 influence on students' L2 is unavoidable and providing sufficient L2 input and opportunities to be

exposed to L2 are impossible in the Japanese context. The principle may also result in the increase in the number of students who do not like learning L2, as Erikawa and Kubota (2014) insist. Science Council of Japan (2016) advocates L2 education as part of the education of language through which students can foster zest for living by making an appropriate balance of L2 and L1 when teaching L2. Using L1 wisely, students can be aware of the language system, pay attention to the process of producing and understanding language, and deal with language actively.

The supportive opinions about the L1 use in the Japanese context do not remain only in the field of foreign language education.

From a historical and economic lens, Se (2015) asserts, thanking scholars in the Meiji Period for having made Japanese equivalents for abstract concepts written in English, that the ability to understand, think, and express in our native language has helped out economy boost and develop our manufacturing technology. More importantly, it improved individual knowledge levels, which has helped maintain the equality in our society. He also states that translation is a necessary act as every Japanese person can cultivate profound thinking and have access to overseas information.

Inoue (2016), who engages in cancer research as a post-doctoral fellow in the cancer research center located in the state of Texas, U.S.A., claims the necessity of first developing the abilities to think about things logically and express them in the Japanese language, instead of promoting the early English education in elementary schools. He distinguishes being able to speak English from accommodating globalization based upon his own experience in the center, stating that it is an individual's identity and visions that people in the center care about, not how well English is spoken. His experience has helped him keenly feel the importance of fostering the ability to survive in a competitive situation with logical and creative ideas and visions, which needs to be fostered in the native language from early ages.

The principal of Kyoto University, Mr. Yamagiwa, claims the importance of thinking in L1 for developing students' deep thinking abilities and helping them educate themselves in college

(Nippon Keizai Shimbun, 2015). His claim is based on the fact that various overseas research results have been translated in Japanese and that an academic path to enhance research and education in the Japanese language has been established thanks to the translation.

2.5.2 HIGH-STAKES EXAMINATIONS

In Japan, university entrance examinations (hereafter, the exams) have an influential wash-back effect on language teaching in high school as Mizohata (2015a, 2015b) and Tanaka (2015) express an urgent need for the university entrance examination reform in order to align high school L2-only teaching with the L2-only principle described in the COS (MEXT, 2009). Shizuka (2006) strongly criticizes the translation items appearing on the exams as they impede the habit of understanding L2 texts without recourse to L1. He adds that the translation items do have a demanding effect on high school teachers of English and recommends the use of external examinations, such as TOEFL and SAT.

MEXT will introduce the *Kyotsu* Test from the academic year of 2020, which replaces the current Center Test and aims to measure students' integrated skills of the four skills (i.e. reading, listening, speaking, and writing) in the foreign language component of the *Kyotsu* Test (MEXT, 2017c). External examinations certified by National Center for University Entrance Examinations can also be used. Scores will be converted to the levels of the CEFR and be submitted to the universities that requested them. These certified examinations are (1) Cambridge English Language Assessment, (2) The EIKEN Test in Practical English Proficiency, (3) GTEC, (4) IELTS, (5) TEAP, (6) TOEFL, and (7) TOEIC (Nippon Keizai Shimbun, 2018). Neither the *Kyotsu* Test nor those external examinations provide translation-related items or, in the CEFR's term, mediation-related items. MEXT and some teachers in high school and university seem to put achieving native-like L2 skills as a goal for the foreign language education in Japan, which reflects the monolingual view of language teaching and learning (Cook, 2016; Cummins, 2007; Phillipson, 1992).

In contrast, some teachers and researchers have a different view of bilingualism or plurilingualism, seeing students as L2 users not as L2 learners. Muranoi (2006) claims that it is indispensable to learn English as an auxiliary language, clarifying that the goal of the foreign language learning is to learn English with Japanese accents to communicate in L2 with people who also speak L2 as a foreign language and to protect identities as Japanese people. Matsuzawa (2006) gives examples of L1 use that students will encounter in the future: Taking notes in Japanese of what is heard in English and conveying in Japanese a message received in English. These are normal language activities outside the classroom and should be considered as one of the goals in the COSs. Torikai (2017) criticizes the new COSs for junior high schools (MEXT, 2017a) and elementary schools (MEXT, 2017b), because the CEFR's educational philosophy of plurilingualism, where individuals' L1s are valued, is ignored, although the COSs have been referring to the 2001 version of CEFR's five areas of language activities (listening, reading, writing, spoken interaction, and spoken production). The L1 use has been supported, criticized, or just ignored when Japanese curriculums, teaching, and assessment are discussed from different perspectives.

2.6 SUMMARY OF THIS CHAPTER

Chapter 2 has overviewed how the L1 use has been treated in the L2 classroom through the lens of the monolingual teaching and bilingual teaching. It has also confirmed that the holistic language teaching and learning, such as dynamic bilingualism and plurilingualism, is the current trend of foreign language education and that students' L1s are discussed affirmatively. Some empirical studies have proved that the L1 use and translation activities do have a positive influence on the developments of students' L2 when used judiciously. However, the Japanese foreign language education seems to be moving toward the opposite – toward the promotion of the monolingual teaching and assessment. There are only a few studies in the Japanese context that

have disclosed the reality of the L1/translation use in the classroom or that have investigated the Japanese COSs in terms of the L1/translation use, which has provided a rationale for the four studies in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3

STUDIES

3.1 STUDY 1

3.1.1 AIM OF THE STUDY

The word “globalization” is often seen and heard in the field of foreign language education. Many countries have put enormous time and effort in developing curriculums and language policies in order to foster English abilities for their people (Otani et al., 2004). As one of those countries, Japan has also been developing its language policies, particularly emphasizing enhancing teenagers’ and their teachers’ English abilities. The current COS for senior high schools, where the L2-only principle first appeared, was promulgated by MEXT in 2009 and became effective in 2013 (MEXT, 2009). The last chapter has overviewed the current situations of the Japan’s foreign language education in school and of high-stakes examinations, both of which tell that L2 teaching and assessment seem to show the movement toward excluding the use of translation in the L2 classroom.

However, as for the 2015 entrance examinations, translation items – Translation from English to Japanese (hereafter, E-->J translation) (*Eibunwayaku*) items, Translation from Japanese to English (hereafter, J-->E translation) (*Wabuneiyaku*) items, and Explanation in Japanese (hereafter, E-->J explanation) (*Jisshitsuteki Eibunwayaku*) items – continue to appear in the examinations of almost all of the national universities, even though the percentages of the items vary among the universities (Obunsha, 2015a). A recent study shows that the percentage of all the translation items appeared in the 2015 national universities’ English examinations was 36.43% (Fukazawa, 2016, p. 241). Although some research has been done on teachers’ beliefs about using Japanese in the L2 classroom (Omote, 2012; Sasajima & Borg, 2009; Tanabe, 2011), there is no research that investigated teachers’ beliefs about the translation items given on the entrance

examinations. The primary aim of Study 1 (Masuda & Matsuzawa, 2017) is to investigate what Japanese high school English teachers, who have to follow the current COS, think about the translation items in the English component of the national university entrance examinations.

3.1.2 METHOD

3.1.2.1 Participants

The participants of this study are shown in Table 2. It should be noted that all of them have taught in *Shingakko*, which is defined in the present research as schools where many of the students would take a national university entrance examination at the end of their high school years. Only those schools were chosen since their English curriculums are organized with the contents of the university entrance examinations and their mock tests taken into consideration. Also, public high school teachers were selected since private and vocational high schools have their own educational policies, which might largely influence the teachers' opinions on the E-->J translation, J-->E translation, and E-->J explanation items. The participants were first contacted via e-mail. As soon as they agreed to be interviewed, another email was sent to them so that an appointment could be arranged with each of them. At the beginning of the interview, they were asked the questions about their total years of teaching and years of teaching 3rd grade students in *Shingakko*. As for the latter, neither supplementary nor individual classes after school are included; the table shows their years of teaching 3rd grade students in *Shingakko* as main teachers.

3.1.2.2 Procedure

The interviews were conducted in November 2015. Before the participants were asked interview questions, materials prepared beforehand by the researchers were shown to them for the purpose of facilitating an open discussion of the questions. The first material was a table indicating that, from the following academic year, the national universities would be divided into

Table 2

List of participants (N=9)

| Teacher | Gender | Years of Teaching 3rd- | | |
|---------|--------|-------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| | | Total Years of Teaching | Grade Students in <i>Shingakko</i> | Total Minutes of Interviews |
| A | Female | 22 | 5 | 21 |
| B | Male | 14 | 3 | 21 |
| C | Female | 14 | 7 | 24 |
| D | Female | 25 | 6 | 31 |
| E | Male | 25 | 10 | 39 |
| F | Male | 22 | 4 | 24 |
| G | Female | 13 | 5 | 11 |
| H | Male | 25 | 12 | 36 |
| I | Female | 19 | 3 | 20 |

three types: Community Contribution Type, National and World Level Research Type, and Prominent World Level Research Type (Obunsha, 2015b) because it was presumed that the participants' opinions would be different depending on the type. The second material was the actual university entrance examinations of Niigata University and Kyoto University, both of which were administered in February 2015 (As for part of the examination of Niigata University, see Appendix 2). Those universities were selected because one of the researchers belongs to Niigata University and it falls into Community Contribution Type. Out of the universities in Prominent World Level Research Type, Kyoto University, whose entrance examinations are well known for their translation items, was selected to compare two different university types. The participants checked the translation items in both of the examinations. The third material presented to the participants

was tables that indicate the quantity of the translation items of the 2004 and 2011 Finnish Matriculation Examinations (Ito et al., 2007; Oka & Morimoto, 2013) to show the fact that translation items have appeared in the university entrance examinations in a European country. The last materials for the interviews were the sample questions in the reading sections of the two external examinations: TEAP developed by Eiken Foundation of Japan and Sophia University, and GTEC CBT developed by Benesse, both of which have been increasingly utilized as a part of screening candidates. These test materials were presented to confirm the possibility that, instead of the traditional national university entrance examinations, there might be a shift to the external examinations, where no translation items are given.

After those materials were shown to the participants, they were asked the following three questions: 1) What do you think about the E-->J translation items in the national university entrance examinations?; 2) What do you think about the J-->E translation items in the national university entrance examinations?; and 3) What do you think about the E-->J explanation items in the national university entrance examinations? The translation items were divided into the three types because it was assumed that the participants might have different opinions about the different translation items.

The interviews were audio-recorded for data analysis with the permission of each of the participants in advance. The recorded data obtained from the nine teachers were analyzed in the following way.

3.1.2.3 Data Analysis

The current research adopted a qualitative approach to finding out high school teachers' beliefs on the E-->J translation, J-->E translation and E-->J explanation items in the context of Japanese high school education. A semi-structured interview method was chosen so as to understand the participants' opinions more profoundly through impromptu questions in response to

them, although interview questions and the flow of an interview are determined mostly beforehand in this type of interviews (Takeuchi & Mizumoto, 2014). Moreover, a personal interview method was taken because it was thought that the personal, face-to-face interview would help elicit the participants' real beliefs about the current research topic that is controversial.

The data were analyzed using Grounded Theory Approach (hereafter, GTA). Though there are various ways of data analyses by GTA, the present research followed the steps that Omote (2012) used. The steps are to (1) make transcriptions from data, (2) segment them, (3) label categories as they represent particular groups of segmented data, (4) compare the categories, make groups, and label them so that they show the high level of abstraction, (5) select a core category and consider relationships among the categories generated from (4), and (6) interpret a particular phenomenon. For the present research, the labels from the step (3) are shown in [], and the labels from the step (4) in << >> to show that the << >> categories were obtained from the [] categories, not directly from the raw data, and that they were abstracted from the [] categories. One point that was carried out differently from Omote (2012) was that all the teachers' utterances related with both positive and negative opinions on the translation items were taken into account, as the research goal was to clarify the confusion felt by the high school teachers through identifying their beliefs. Therefore, it should be noted that some categories were made based on the opinions that one teacher had uttered. One of the researchers conducted the steps (1) and (2) then explained the rest of the steps to the other. They analyzed the data independently. Any disagreement that occurred was discussed before extracting common categories.

3.1.3 RESULTS

3.1.3.1 Participants' Opinions

Figure 3 presents four common categories extracted from the participants' positive and negative opinions: <<Language Learning in High School>>, <<Future English Ability>>,

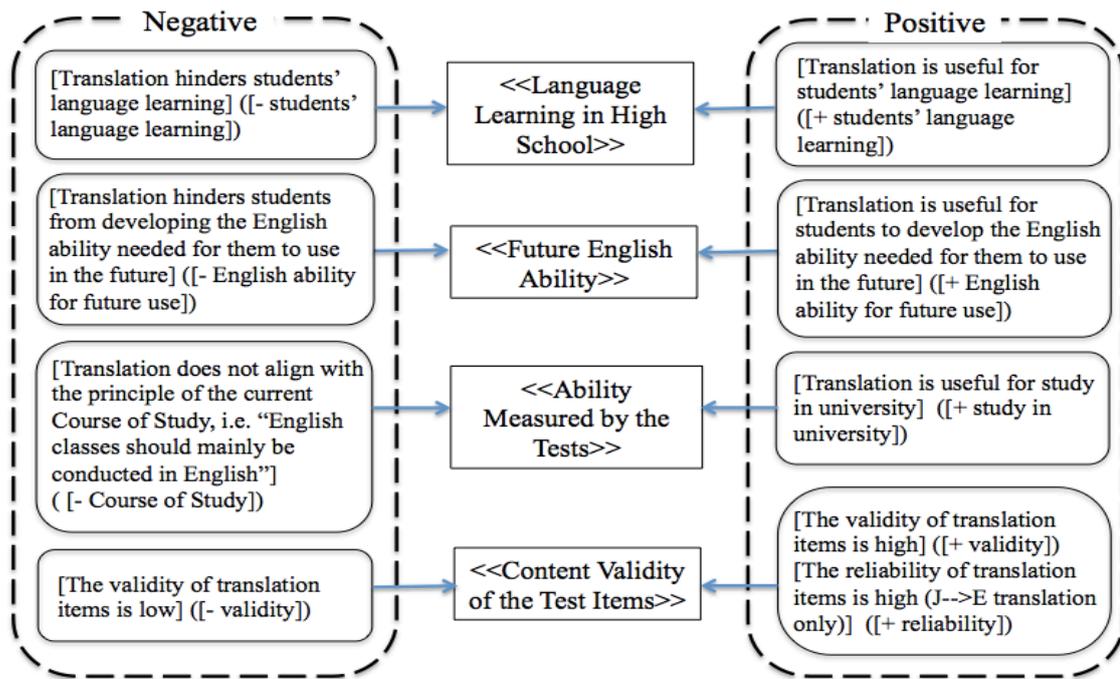


Figure 3. Participants' opinions.

<<Ability Measured by the Tests>>, and <<Content Validity of the Test Items>>.

By "common" categories, it means that those categories were obtained not only from their positive and negative opinions but also from the opinions on all the three different types of the translation items (E->J translation, J->E translation, and E->J explanation). In order for the common categories to be extracted, the participants' opinions were grouped together for labeling after being divided into positive and negative opinions. The labels that represent negative opinions are [Translation hinders students' language learning], [Translation hinders students from developing the English ability needed for them to use in the future], [Translation does not align with the principle of the current Course of Study, i.e. "English classes should mainly be conducted in English"], and [The validity of translation items is low]. On the other hand, the labels signifying positive opinions are [Translation is useful for students' language learning], [Translation is useful for students to develop the English ability needed for them to use in the future], [Translation is useful for study in university], [The validity of translation items is high], and [The reliability of

translation items is high]. Since some teachers expressed both positive and negative opinions on the translation items, and some seemed to adopt a neutral stance, expressing both of their positive and negative opinions, the dotted lines are used to draw around the positive and negative frames instead of solid lines.

The results did not support the assumption that the participants' opinions would be influenced by the classification into the three types of national universities. The reason found out during the interviews was that the teachers carry out their English classes to satisfy all of their students who have different English levels and various learning purposes and needs. Hence, the teachers answered the interview questions in terms of the four categories described in Figure 3 without distinguishing the different types of universities their students wish to apply to.

3.1.3.2 Teachers' Beliefs

Figure 4 shows a classification of the participants into three different groups: Positive Group, Negative Group, and Middle Group. The third group was further divided into 2 subgroups. The first subgroup includes those who expressed neutral opinions on the translation items. The second is comprised of those who stated positive opinions on one or two type(s) of the translation items but negative opinions on the other(s). For the grouping, the researchers individually grouped the participants, and the same result was obtained. The figure reveals confusion and disagreement over the translation items among the high school English teachers. (Please note that the interviews were conducted in Japanese and translated into English in the following subsections.)

3.1.3.2.1 Positive Group

Those who expressed positive opinions were Teacher B and Teacher G as shown in the following. Their opinions are summarized in square brackets ([]).

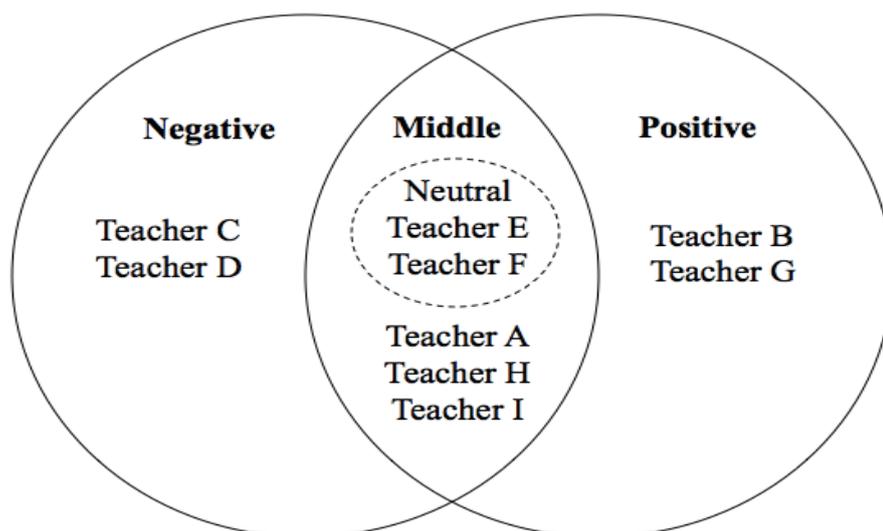


Figure 4. Classification of the participants.

Teacher B

TB1: I talk to my students as standing in a position that they will get in trouble after entering universities. That is why translation is also very important, and it is tested in the exams.

I place myself in this kind of position. [E-->J translation; + study in university]

TB2: I think J-->E translation is a good exercise as training for obtaining the language knowledge. [J-->E translation; + students' language learning]

Teacher G

TG1: I think J-->E translation is a necessary skill in order for students to send out messages in English. It is needed when Japanese people use English for practical purposes, where we select certain kinds of sentence structures and words. [J-->E translation; + English ability for future use]

TG2: I think this type of question items gets to the point and asks the important part in a text, so this is necessary. [E-->J explanation; + validity]

3.1.3.2.2 Negative Group

Those who expressed negative opinions were Teacher C and Teacher D.

Teacher C

TC1: Because, in high school, the policy has been announced that English instructions should be carried out mainly in English, I feel a little difficulty in teaching because there are E-->J translation items in exams. [E-->J translation; - Course of Study]

TC2: Because exams ask complicated questions that one cannot answer in the native language, now I'm teaching both English and Japanese. [E-->J explanation; - validity]

Teacher D

TD1: Students think in Japanese. They keep getting stuck because of this. As a matter of fact, language reflects culture. [J-->E translation; - students' language learning]

TD2: Since our students need to live in a globalized world, I think it is very important to improve classes as quickly as possible and have the students be able to use English. For that, I consider it a good move to alter the entrance examinations completely. [E-->J translation; - future English ability]

3.1.3.2.3 Neutral Group in Middle Group

Those who belong to the neutral group were Teacher E and Teacher F.

Teacher E

TE1: Because I am not a linguist, I am not sure if we can acquire the English language without recourse to Japanese.

TE2: I do not know to what extent students can learn without translation because I have

taught neither TOEIC nor GTEC.

Teacher F

TF1: (Considering the fact that university students do use translation for class assignments,) I think, therefore, both (skimming a text and summarizing an English text in Japanese) are needed. [The phrases in the parentheses were supplemented by the researchers.]

TF2: We have no choice but change the content of our classes due to the landing site (tests), so I cannot say if translation items are good or bad.

3.1.3.2.4 Positive/Negative Group in Middle Group

Those who were positive about one or two type(s) of the translation items but negative about the other(s) belong to the positive/negative group in the middle group. Teacher A expressed her negative opinions on the E-->J translation and J-->E translation items but positive on the E-->J explanation items. Teacher H and Teacher I were negative about the E-->J translation items but positive about the J-->E translation and E-->J explanation items as in the following.

Teacher A

TA1: I am more of the negative side on this one because students tend to make a literal translation when a Japanese sentence was first presented. Some translate it into only one English sentence. [J-->E translation; - students' language learning]

TA2: I think it is a good question to know whether a student really understood an English text because he or she explains what a certain English sentence means by using their native language as a tool. [E-->J explanation; + validity]

Teacher H

TH1: Considering the J-->E translation items, it is easier for test raters to score the tests.

[J-->E translation; + reliability]

TH2: Since we are in the era of processing plenty of English sentences both in university and when being employed, it may not be realistic to translate into Japanese as we take time at a slow speed. [E-->J translation; - English ability for future use]

Teacher I

TI1: There seems to be a gap between what I do in class and training a technique for the E-->J translation items in the exams. [E-->J translation; - Course of Study]

TI2: Students are expected to express what pronouns mean, etc. with their own words by understanding relationships between sentences and contents. Students explain with their own words, not a literal translation, or summarize texts – these skills are needed desperately at the moment, I suppose. [E-->J explanation; + English ability for future use]

3.1.4 DISCUSSION

Figure 5 describes a conceptual model constructed based on the four common categories presented in the last section.

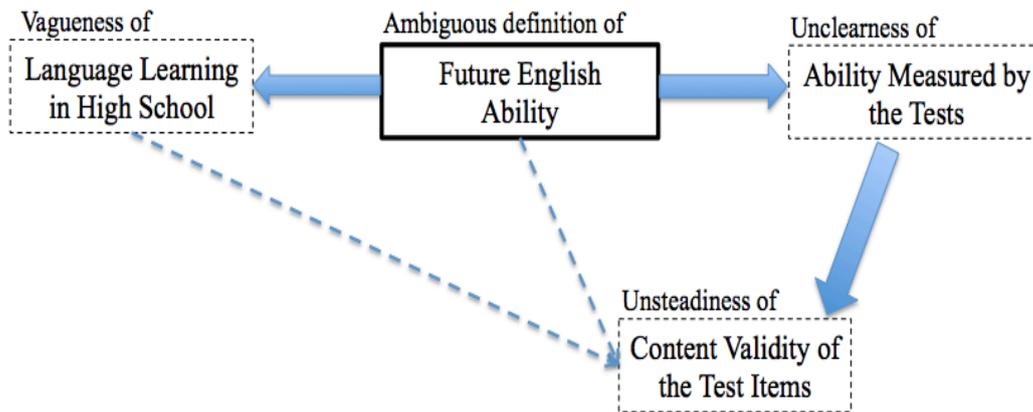


Figure 5. Conceptual model of the four common categories.

The model can be discussed with a central focus being on <<Future English Ability>>. It can be explained that an ambiguous definition of the ability would make <<Language Learning in High School>> vague. That is, due to no shared understanding regarding <<Future English Ability>> between MEXT and universities, it can be said that high school teachers struggle with what and how high school students need to learn in high school. The ambiguous definition of <<Future English Ability>> also makes <<Ability Measured by the Tests>> unclear. What abilities should be measured by tests depends on what students have learned in high school and how they learned it in order for the tests to have higher content validity (Jang, 2014). Disagreements on <<Language Learning in High School>> and <<Future English Ability>>, which are related with foreign language learning and teaching, would produce another disagreement on <<Ability Measured by the Tests>> in foreign language assessment. Those disagreements would destabilize <<Content Validity of the Test Items>>. This is how the model can illustrate the confusion that the high school English teachers feel between language teaching and assessment. The teachers may be confused about whether they incorporate translation practices to prepare their students for the exams or they ignore it to follow the COS. The model can also show the need to make an alignment of curriculum, teaching, and assessment to avoid the unnecessary confusion in school.

Study 1 investigates the teachers' perspectives on the translation items. As Widdowson

(2003) emphasizes students' bilingualization process in the L2 classroom, in Study 2, translation is explored from students' perspectives – beliefs about and roles of translation.

3.2 STUDY 2

3.2.1 AIM OF THE STUDY

Study 1 reveals that Japanese high school English teachers who have to follow the COS (MEXT, 2009) held positive, negative, and ambivalent beliefs about the translation items appearing on the national university English entrance examinations (Masuda & Matsuzawa, 2017). Especially two of the teachers (Teacher C and Teacher D) questioned the use of translation practices in their classes just for the exams and claimed that it is against the L2-only policy (MEXT, 2009).

As the multicompetence (Cook, 2016) and bilingualization (Widdowson, 2003) focus more on students' learning processes, this study explores students' beliefs about translation use in class to see if they also feel stress or confusion toward using it. Since belief studies about the use of translation have been done outside of the Japanese context (i.e. Liao (2006), Fernandez Guerra (2014), and Veiga (2013)), Study 2 (Masuda, 2017) targets high school students in a Japanese public school who learn under the COS (MEXT, 2009) that Japanese high school teachers of English are following.

3.2.2 METHOD

3.2.2.1 Participants

The participants of the present study are first graders at a public high school in Prefecture A in Japan. The number of the students who graduated from this school in the last academic year and entered a national, prefectural or other public university was approximately 100 out of 280 (35.7%). Thus, the school curriculum is organized for the entrance examinations and their mock tests. The first grade students are required to take two different English classes, called “English

Communication I” (four lessons a week), and “English Expressions I” (two lessons a week). They started learning English as a part of foreign language activity at the 5th grade of elementary school; they have been exposed to the language for seven years, except for those who started learning it at an earlier age. Most of the students are at the beginning level of L2, and only a few students are at a slightly higher L2 level.

At this school, the present author taught “English Expressions I” in two classes – 39 students in one class and 40 in the other. In November 2016, she distributed a questionnaire to each of the 79 students at the end of a class and asked them to complete it at home and to bring it to the following class. She asked two open-ended questions in order to extract various beliefs from them: (1) You translate into Japanese and into English in your English classes. Do you think translation in class is useful for your English learning? Why do you think so?; and (2) Please imagine “a Japanese adult who has English abilities.” Think of the skills (speaking, etc.) he or she possesses. Do you think translation into Japanese and into English would be included in the skills? Why do you think so? The questions were asked and answered in Japanese.

3.2.2.2 Data Analysis

70 responses (89%) were collected and used for data analysis. The responses to the two questions were analyzed separately, and students’ beliefs obtained from each of the questions were categorized based on GTA respectively. Though there are various ways of data analyses by GTA, the present research referred to the steps explained in a book about the qualitative research methods (Takeuchi & Mizumoto, 2014). The steps are to (1) group similar beliefs together, (2) label the groups as each represents a particular one, and (3) make groups again, when needed, to abstract those in (2). Unlike the formal steps of GTA, a core category was not extracted because the purpose of the current study was not to explain a particular phenomenon, but identify the roles of translation. However, those three steps were conducted repeatedly so that the students’ beliefs would be more

accurately reflected on the roles. Furthermore, the grouping and labeling were checked by the author's supervisor several times. Any disagreement that occurred was discussed before extracting the following five roles of translation in L2 learning and two groups of students reflecting on the roles of translation in future L2 abilities.

3.2.3 RESULTS

3.2.3.1 Beliefs About the Usefulness of Translation

As for the first question on the questionnaire, 68 students think that both translation into L1 and into L2 are useful in their L2 learning. The rest of the students think that both are useful in some degree. In other words, all the students responded to the questionnaire have positive beliefs toward translation used in their L2 classrooms. This result is consistent with those of Liao's (2006), Fernández Guerra's (2014), and Veiga's (2013) studies in that more positive beliefs are identified than negative ones. None of the students in this study has made negative comments on translation.

Figure 6 below indicates five roles of translation identified in the students' beliefs about the usefulness of translation in their foreign language classrooms. The roles are "Translation Into L1 for Understanding L2 Meanings," "Translation Into L1 and Into L2 for Understanding L2 Structures," "Translation Into L1 and Into L2 for Self-study," "Translation Into L1 and Into L2 for Affective Support," and "Translation Into L1 and Into L2 for Examination Preparation." There were some comments that could not be classified, so not all of the students' comments are reflected in the roles.

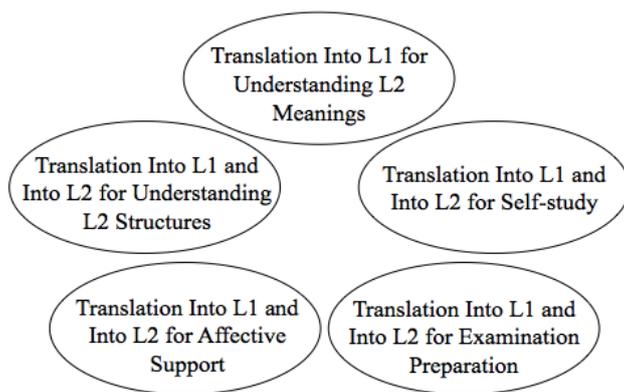


Figure 6. Five roles of translation in L2 learning.

3.2.3.1.1 Translation Into L1 for Understanding L2 Meanings

30 students believe that translation into L1 is useful for understanding the meanings of L2 vocabulary, sentences, and texts as a whole. Some of the responses that express this role are shown below. The students' responses were translated into English by the present author.

Students 7 and 26: I can understand the meanings of English words.

Student 20: Some sentences can be translated into L1 and L2 directly, but there are others that cannot be translated directly. When the teachers do translation for us, I think myself, "I get it!"

Student 43: It is difficult to understand the overall meanings and nuances of English texts without translation.

3.2.3.1.2 Translation Into L1 and Into L2 for Understanding L2 Structures

9 students hold a belief that translation into L1 and into L2 are useful for understanding L2 grammar and sentence patterns.

Students 63 and 65: I can understand how to use English grammar.

Student 42: As for translation into Japanese, I can understand English sentence patterns well, thinking, “This is how this kind of a sentence can be translated.”

Student 53: I can learn the word order of the English language through questions where I need to put certain English words in the correct order.

3.2.3.1.3 Translation Into L1 and Into L2 for Self-study

5 students conceive of translation into L1 and into L2 positively in terms of their self-study.

Student 70: Translating into Japanese and into English in class helps me translate more smoothly, save time, for example, for looking up words, and learn English more effectively during my self-study.

Student 13: During my study, I can answer questions without taking time if the questions are about clauses, etc. that I learned through translation in class.

3.2.3.1.4 Translation Into L1 and Into L2 for Affective Support

6 students have expressed their beliefs in terms of the affective aspect of their L2 learning.

Their motivation toward learning the L2 goes up by translating into L1 and into L2.

Student 1: I think translation into English in class helps me build up proactive attitudes toward learning English.

Student 9: I feel a sense of achievement by knowing the meanings of all the sentences given and find them interesting.

Student 48: I won't understand the flow of a story if I read it in English, but it's easy to understand when the story is translated into Japanese. When the translated story is interesting for me, my motivation toward reading in English goes up.

3.2.3.1.5 Translation Into L1 and Into L2 for Examination Preparation

13 students believe that translation into L1 and into L2 are useful for preparations for upcoming examinations. Examinations include term tests and mock tests that the students are required to take in high school and university entrance examinations that they will take at the end of the third grade.

Student 30: Translation into Japanese and into English that I do in class will help me answer questions appearing in university entrance examinations.

Student 44: I think translation done in both of my English classes will be helpful for reading sections in mock tests and rapid reading.

Student 66: There are many questions that I need to answer in English on term tests and mock tests so I first need to understand their contents by translating them into Japanese.

3.2.3.2 Beliefs About Mediation in Future L2 Abilities

As for the second question on the questionnaire, the students responded to it while imagining a Japanese adult who has L2 abilities. Two kinds of beliefs are identified based on their responses as shown in Figure 7: “Bilingual Group” and “Monolingual Group.” Each group is explained as follows.

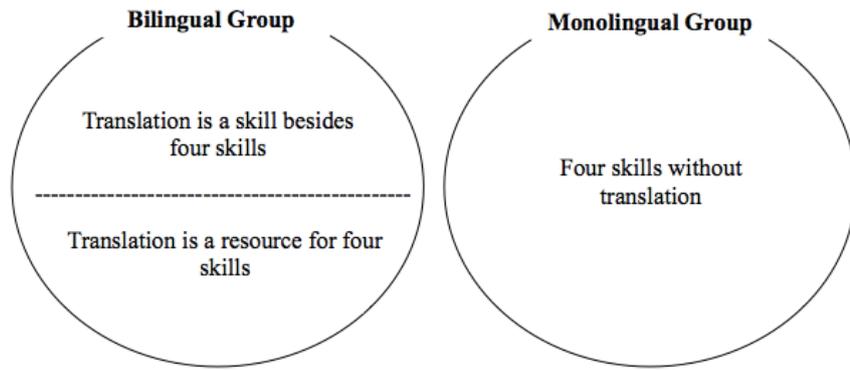


Figure 7. Two types of beliefs about translation in future L2 abilities.

3.2.3.2.1 Bilingual Group

65 out of 70 students believe that both translation into L1 and translation into L2 are included in the L2 abilities that a Japanese adult should possess. As shown in Figure 7, this Bilingual Group is further divided into two subgroups: One with those who consider translation as a skill, and the other with those who consider it as a resource to support the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing).

In the first subgroup, translation can be seen as mediation (Council of Europe, 2001, 2018) that a Japanese adult with L2 abilities needs to have in modern society. Shown below are some of the responses that express this belief.

Student 43: When thinking about a scene where there is a Japanese child, for example, and that child cannot understand any other language other than Japanese, translation is necessary to get messages across. This does not limit to children because not all Japanese people can understand English.

Student 2: If a Japanese person can translate into Japanese and English, s/he can help other Japanese people who do not understand English and foreigners who do not understand Japanese.

Student 21: If a Japanese adult can translate into Japanese and English, s/he can get conversations going as an interpreter for those who do not know English.

The other students in the first subgroup believe that translation is a skill that a Japanese adult would use whenever necessary.

Student 4: A Japanese person having English abilities means possessing speaking skills. I think a person possessing speaking skills can naturally do translation into Japanese and English.

Student 50: The more exposed a Japanese adult is to English, the more naturally s/he can do translation into Japanese and English.

Student 14: I think a Japanese adult translating into Japanese and into English can be seen as one who has English abilities.

Student 49: If translation into Japanese and into English are not included as English abilities, it cannot say that one is a bilingual speaker.

Those in the second subgroup believe that a Japanese adult with L2 abilities would use translation as a resource to support his or her four skills for successful communication in L2. Many of the students in this subgroup imagine a Japanese adult speaking with an interlocutor in L2. The following parentheses ([]) show the skill(s) supported by translation into L1 and into L2.

Student 15: I think a Japanese adult who cannot translate into English and into Japanese does not understand (English) sentence structures or cannot converse with people in an understandable way. [Speaking]

Student 22: When one translates what the other has said in English into Japanese,

understands it really well, and then translates what s/he wants to say in Japanese into English, it would be easier to communicate with other people, I think.

[Listening and Speaking]

Student 53: I would feel hopeless when I actually go to an English-speaking country but cannot read words on maps even though I could speak the language. [Reading]

Student 19: Because the person is Japanese, if s/he cannot translate into Japanese and into English, s/he cannot express his/her opinion. [Speaking and Writing]

3.2.3.2.2 Monolingual Group

4 students have been categorized in the second group, Monolingual Group. They include neither translation into L1 nor into L2 in the L2 abilities that a Japanese adult has and seem to imagine him/her making full use of the four skills to communicate with others like a native or near-native speaker of L2. They did not mention any activities related to mediation, either. Each of their responses is shown as in the following.

Student 28: I am kind of thinking that translation into English is more needed. Because I think it is best to speak English naturally, translation into Japanese is not necessary as much as translation into English.

Student 66: In conversation, it is important to rapidly understand what the others said and respond to it in order to communicate with other people. So, when a Japanese adult talks to a foreigner, s/he should understand and respond without translating into Japanese.

Student 12: Even if she or he cannot translate into Japanese and English, a Japanese adult who keeps conversation going in English does have English abilities.

Student 60: Just because a Japanese adult can do an English conversation doesn't mean she

or he can do translation into Japanese and English. The longer an English text becomes, the more difficult it is to translate into Japanese and into English.

3.2.4 DISCUSSION

3.2.4.1 Translation in L2 Learning

The first three roles of translation in Figure 6, “Translation Into L1 for Understanding L2 Meanings,” “Translation Into L1 and Into L2 for Understanding L2 Structures,” and “Translation Into L1 and Into L2 for Self-study,” help the students’ language learning cognitively. The roles, thus, support Widdowson’s bilingualization (2003) in that the students contact their L1 with L2 in their learning process using translation. He perfectly phrases this situation as, in a foreign language classroom, “learners are busy on their own agenda of bringing the two languages together (p. 154).” Butzkamm (2003) also claims that to turn off learners’ L1 in their minds is impossible because connecting L1 and L2 is natural for the learners of L2 as a foreign language. He adds, “For beginners, becoming aware of meanings automatically involves connecting them with the MT [mother tongue] (p. 31).” Most of the students in this study, therefore, connect L1 and L2 in their minds to understand L2 meanings and structures in class and during their self-study. The findings show the students’ cognitive use of L1, which may imply their use of self-translation while they are learning L2 at home.

While Veiga (2013) revealed that the use of L1 in the foreign language classroom leads to the students’ sense of security, this current research revealed that the use of translation does affect students’ emotional aspects of language learning. Fuzzy or ambiguous translation does not at all help the students understand L2 meanings and structures, answer examination items, or support their self-study. Hence, their motivation toward language learning would be lowered. Higher motivation is one of the keys to the students’ successful language learning (e.g. Lightbown & Spada, 2006). In other words, translation can be a key to learning a foreign language successfully.

As opposed to the above roles of translation, the students' beliefs about the role, "Translation Into L1 and Into L2 for Examination Preparation," has been formed by outside influences. The students' experiences in high school appear to largely influence their positive beliefs about the translation for examination preparation. In the school term tests that they have taken at the school of this study, they were required to translate into L1 and into L2 for the "English Communication I" tests and translate into L2 for the "English Expressions I" tests. In mock tests for university entrance examinations, which they have taken three times since they entered the high school, there were translation-into-L2 items. Even though no translation into L1 items have appeared in the mock tests, there are times when they have to translate into L1 in their minds in order to concretely explain an underlined word or phrase in an L2 text with a limited number of L1 words. Since they know what kinds of questions appear in those tests, they seemed to believe that translation into L1 and into L2 in class are useful. Some students (e.g., Student 30) believed that translation into L1 and into L2 in class are useful for university entrance examinations they will take in the near future, where 36.43% of translation items were on the examinations administered in 2015 (Fukazawa, 2016).

3.2.4.2 Translation in Future L2 Abilities

For future L2 abilities, the two groups in Figure 7 can be discussed based on the language activities described in the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001). As it tells that the language activities of production, reception, and interaction, or mediation help achieve one's communicative competence, the students in this study seem to think about future L2 abilities in terms of those activities. Some of the students in the Bilingual Group viewed translation into L1 and into L2 as mediation activities: Translation itself is a goal to be accomplished. The others saw both types of translation as a means to make production, reception, and interaction activities successful: Translation is a means for facilitating those language activities. The students in this group seem to

consider translation as what Japanese people uniquely have. This idea connects well with the concept of the L2 user, who can translate and code-switch whenever needed using their multicompetence (Cook, 2016).

The difference between the two groups is that whether or not translation is a means to keep communication going. The students in the Monolingual Group did not believe that translation is needed when they converse with interlocutors in L2. They seem to have imagined a Japanese adult with L2 abilities like a native or near-native speaker of L2. However, all of them believed that translation is useful in L2 learning. What this means is that they may differentiate between language learning and language use.

Another interesting point to be noted is that most of the students in both groups imagined a Japanese adult with a proficient speaking ability. Only a few students referred to L2 reading and writing skills. This tendency is consistent with the result of a survey administered for 6,294 Japanese junior high and high school students (Benesse Educational Research and Development Institute, 2014). According to the survey, approximately 90% of the respondents felt that it is cool to be able to speak English. Over the half of the respondents chose the item, “conversing in English a lot,” as what they think is the most important in studying English among many other choices, such as remembering English vocabulary, and getting a high score on a test.

3.3 STUDY 3

3.3.1 AIM OF THE STUDY

Study 1 (Masuda & Matsuzawa, 2017) and Study 2 (Masuda, 2017) both investigate beliefs about translation. Study 3 (Masuda & Matsuzawa, 2018) aims at a different type of translation – codeswitching. It explores the functions of and beliefs about codeswitching and factors that have influenced their beliefs, since there are few studies regarding this topic in the Japanese context.

This research has the following three questions:

Research Questions (RQs)

RQ1: What theoretical positions do Japanese junior and senior high school teachers of English adopt?

RQ2: What factors have influenced their beliefs?

RQ3: What measures should be taken based on the results of RQ1 and RQ2?

To clarify the types of teachers' beliefs about codeswitching, this study utilizes Macaro's (2001) classification (See Table 1 in Chapter 2). Since he claims that the Virtual Position is unattainable, it is assumed that the participants of this study have also adopted either the Maximal Position or the Optimal Position. Teachers in the Maximal Position use L1 for more social purposes, such as building relationships with students and remaining disciplined, whereas those in the Optimal Position resort to L1 strategically for pedagogical purposes (Macaro, 1997). Both types of teachers may feel guilty when resorting to L1, but those in the Optimal Position "can analyse those feelings of guilt against some sort of framework" (p. 91).

3.3.2 METHOD

3.3.2.1 Participants

Table 3 shows the participants of this study. All of them are Japanese teachers who teach English (L2) as a foreign language in Prefecture A and share Japanese (L1) with their students. They learned L2 under the school education system of Japan and completed a pre-service teacher-training program at a Japanese university. Only Teacher A teaches at a junior high school attached to a national university. The other participants teach at four different public schools.

Table 3

List of participants (N=5)

| Teacher | Gender | Total Years of Teaching | Institution | Total Minutes of Interviews |
|---------|--------|-------------------------|-------------|-----------------------------|
| A (TA) | Male | 10 | Junior | 24 |
| B (TB) | Female | 24 | Junior | 21 |
| C (TC) | Female | 26 | Junior | 19 |
| D (TD) | Male | 1 | Senior | 21 |
| E (TE) | Female | 23 | Senior | 23 |

3.3.2.2 Procedure and Data Analysis

As Sasajima and Borg (2009) claim that interviews are an important tool for eliciting teachers' beliefs, the semi-structured interview method was selected to achieve the purposes of this research. First, several videotaped English classes were picked from one of the researchers' collection of videos that he filmed in the previous year. After all the videos were watched, five participants were chosen based on our interest in finding out their beliefs behind their uses of codeswitching in their classrooms. They were then contacted by e-mail, which requested them to participate in interviews. The interviews were arranged accordingly once interview permission was obtained from the participants. In the email about the interview arrangement, they were explained about the purposes of this study and the meaning of codeswitching. They were also told that the interviews would be approximately half an hour long and be audio-recorded for data analysis.

The interviews were conducted in Japanese in June 2017. In the beginning, the participants were asked the question about their total years of teaching. During the following questions, their videotaped lessons were shown to them as a stimulus for the interviews. The first series of questions were as to why they used codeswitching in certain scenes. The prepared questions were different from participant to participant because they used codeswitching in different scenes for

different purposes. It was assumed that these scenes would reflect their particular beliefs about their uses of codeswitching (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011). The second and third questions were asked of all the participants. The second question asked them what they thought about the uses of Japanese and English in their classrooms, and the third question asked them what they thought had influenced their beliefs.

Since this research aims to unfold beliefs which teachers hold behind their codeswitching, only the last two questions were analyzed separately to respond to RQ1 and RQ2 respectively. First, all the recorded data were transcribed for each participant. Second, their utterances related to the characteristics of each theoretical position (Macaro, 1997, 2001) were utilized to decide the participants' positions. When some participants seemed to have adopted elements of both the Maximal Position and the Optimal Position, they were placed in the latter position due to their conscious use of codeswitching and the analysis of their guilty feelings (Macaro, 1997). The answers to the first questions were used to support the reasons for their positions.

3.3.3 RESULTS

In this section, the results obtained regarding RQ1 and RQ2 are explained with the participants' comments extracted from the interviews. As for RQ1, only TA seems to have adopted the Maximal Position. The other four teachers appear to have taken the Optimal Position even though the degree of "some pedagogical value in L1 use" (Macaro, 2001, p. 535) that each participant recognizes varies among them. Their comments are ordered according to the degree in the following subsections: TE is the closest to the Maximal Position whereas TB is the farthest from it. The participants' answers to RQ2 also vary. Please note that all their responses are translated into English and that the brackets in their comments are inserted by the researchers. In addition, the parentheses show key words from their comments.

3.3.3.1 Teacher A: The Maximal Position

TA encourages himself to conduct his lessons all in English in principle, including explanations of tasks. To answer the second interview question, he expresses the importance of his input for his students, their output, and him as a role model.

TA1: My ideal is to draw [opinions] from my students through my classroom English and to establish the process of thinking in English and producing output [in English] by combining expressions that they have in their heads – expressions that they previously learned. (Input and output)

TA2: My intentions are twofold – to show myself to students as a role model of an English learner, and to elicit their opinions, to elicit English [from them] while they think in English. I want my lessons to be like that, so I try to make them closer to the ideal. (Role model and output)

In the video of his lesson, he switched from L2 to L1 when he called his students, instead of using English names. He mentions its reason that he did not have a rapport with his first-grade students at the time of the video filming. Once he builds a rapport with his students, he calls them by the English name they have chosen.

TA3: Without establishing a rapport, where my students and I are easy to exchange opinions, I do not think they are eager to follow my instructions even if I decide to teach them in English. I give lessons with this in my mind. (Rapport building)

As one of his teaching strategies when his students do not seem to understand his explanation of a task, he tries to maximize his L2 use by showing an expected action while repeating the same

explanation or by paraphrasing it. Even after that, if his students still show their puzzled faces, he uses L1 as the last resort. It seems that he puts more emphasis on maintaining L2 use than the pedagogical value codeswitching might have.

He mentions two factors that have influenced his current position. Back in the pre-service training he took in college, the videos he saw about teachers giving lessons in English made him take the current position. Besides, he expresses that a senior teacher has had a significant influence on the way of his teaching.

TA4: Besides the environment I was in during my college years, I think that encountering a model teacher has had a great impact on my beliefs. Without such encounter where one could describe his or her ideal lesson, it may be difficult for the teacher to decide to conduct lessons all in English. (Senior teacher)

3.3.3.2 Teacher E: The Optimal Position

TE can be put in the Optimal Position. However, since some of the key words she mentions are similar to those of TA, her position is the closest to the Maximal Position among the other teachers in the Optimal Position. She tries to use L2 in most of her class time, including task explanations for the following reasons.

TE1: I want to increase the opportunity for my students to speak in English and want them to get motivated. (Output and motivation)

TE2: I want my students to listen to my lessons conducted in English as much as possible and to understand the lessons in English. I wish my students to expand their images in English, not in Japanese, of what they have understood in English. (Input and thinking in L2)

TE3: In some cases, my students do not seem to understand my directions or show me their puzzled faces. These are times when I use Japanese, but, in principle, I teach in English. (Students' puzzled faces)

She gives students enough time to discuss new words and grammar points in groups using L1 because, she expresses, allowing the students to use L1 helps them understand words and grammar more easily. Here, codeswitching is considered as a pedagogical tool by TE, and the students use L1 as a cognitive tool to understand the contents they are learning.

Her current teaching style has resulted from the in-service training she took and from the increased students' motivation when she changed the amount of her L2 use after the training.

TE4: The in-service training for teachers whose total years of teaching have reached 12 gave me a chance to reconsider my English lessons. I did not know what I should do after the training so I thought about various ways of teaching. Teaching in English was one of the thoughts, I think. (In-service training)

TE5: At the beginning [when I started to teach in English], there seemed to be a common pattern that teachers spoke in English and the students spoke in Japanese. But, through this way of teaching [in English], I came to understand that they could speak a lot in English, keep their faces up, and become motivated ... so, the more I gave them lessons in English, the more I thought that my talking to them in English had a significant impact on them. (Students' attitudes and motivation)

3.3.3.3 Teacher C: The Optimal Position

There are two reasons TC appears to have adopted the Optimal Position, though she mentions that she wants her students to get used to lessons in L2. The first reason is that, to deal

with various students' personalities, she tries to promote paired discussions in L1.

TC1: As opposed to the outgoing, there are students who are reserved, have difficulty in communicating with the other students, and get disappointed deeply. Because I cannot handle all types of students, I give them chances to talk with their partners. I use Japanese myself in order to send them a message that "You can use Japanese" for them to continue their learning in the environment where talking together is okay.
(Scaffolded help among students)

She especially pays close attention to the students with lower L2 levels and resorts to L1 for its sociocultural function of scaffolding, making the pair discussions smoother.

The other reason found in her interview is that, when resorting to L1, she seems to "analyse" (Macaro, 1997, p. 91) her feeling of guilt.

TC2: I know that I should create an English world, but the reality is that there are those who cannot adjust themselves to this kind of atmosphere. ... I know that I should not continue to use Japanese in an unconsidered way, but I end up using it when starting to worry whether or not those students have understood my words. I think I need to make all kinds of efforts. (Feeling of guilt)

She is in the second closest to the Maximal Position in that she wants to use as much L2 as possible to keep her students' positive motivation toward learning L2 and for their future L2 learning, even though she seems to be in a dilemma as the ideal environment is difficult to achieve.

Her feeling of the necessity of maintaining L2 as much as possible is largely influenced by her students enjoying her lessons. The other reason is her students' smooth transition from

elementary school and to high school. She gives an example of one of her students who entered a high school.

TC3: One student, who graduated this past spring and entered a high school, came to visit this school, saying “I’m having a hard time with English lessons in high school because they are done all in English.” ... Then I thought it is important to create an environment where my students can feel that English lessons are taught in English, because English is taught so in high school, and to enhance the link with the high school curriculum. (Link between junior and senior high schools)

3.3.3.4 Teacher D: The Optimal Position

TD discloses his belief change – from the Maximal Position to the Optimal Position. He seems to have taken the former position while taking a pre-service training program in college.

TD1: Actually, I paid less attention to codeswitching when I was in college. Back then, I thought that I just had to teach in English. (Belief in college)

TD2: [Back in my college,] I was just wondering how I would conduct my lessons in English in a comprehensible way, and I was thinking that I just had to give simple directions in English and use visual aids, based on the policy that English lessons should be carried out in English in principle. (Belief in college)

After graduating and starting to teach in high school, he realized that L1 is a valuable tool for saving time and understanding tasks and contents, so he now uses it strategically. This experience seems to have made his position change to the Optimal Position.

TD3: After that [After graduating], when I tried to give lessons to my students in English, I felt some barriers. I also felt difficulty in conducting lessons in English for students who did not study English that much. Then, I realized that, if students cannot understand when their teacher uses only English, it is just the teacher's egoism or self-satisfaction, and I decided to use Japanese for those students. (Belief change)

TD4: I teach [English] grammar in Japanese in a succinct way because I want to save more time for reading aloud and pair activities. I use Japanese for two reasons. One, to save time, and two, to have my students understand materials clearly. (Strategic L1 use)

He does not feel guilty when switching to L1, but rather uses it confidently, knowing that codeswitching has both positive and negative impacts on students' language learning.

TD5: What is difficult is that the more I use Japanese, the less my students seem to listen to my directions in English. I use Japanese when necessary, but I do not want to spoil my students, so I need to make a good balance [between the two languages]. (Negative aspect of using L1)

As shown in TD3, his belief change has been influenced by his teaching experiences and, he mentions, by the in-service training for newly employed teachers, where its teacher educator told them that it would be better to teach grammar in L1 in a succinct way.

3.3.3.5 Teacher B: The Optimal Position

TB seems to make her Optimal Position clear, setting the approximate amount of L2 use at 70% based on what she was taught in an in-service training session for mid-career teachers. She calls it "almost English." L1 is a necessary tool for all her students, especially those at the low L2

level, to understand what goes on in her lessons.

TB1: I think that teaching only in English would be suitable for those who are enrolled in courses dedicated to that [teaching only in English] or for private schools, but there are students in public schools who have hard times. Considering those students, the classroom atmosphere would be better if I try to aim at a 70% L2 use. (Appropriate amount of L2 use)

TB2: It is often said [as the reality of foreign language activities in elementary school] that students remember phrases such as “What do you want to be?” but do not understand what they mean and cannot apply them to other situations. So, I think it is desirable that they understand clearly using Japanese and then produce output. (L1 as a tool)

She basically uses codeswitching for students’ clear comprehension, but there are two scenes that are well worth noting. First, she calls her students by their Japanese family name instead of using English names. The reason she clearly expresses is that she does not understand why English names are used because the students she teaches are Japanese. In other words, she seems to protect their identity as a Japanese person in her L2 classrooms. The second scene is that she tries to promote group and pair discussions in L1 for sociocultural purposes like Teacher C.

TB3: I use this [Japanese] phrase [“*Kimi wa dodatta? Hai!*” (What do you think about this? Ready go!)] [before the start of a group or pair discussion] for my students to get involved with each other and activate their discussions. (Scaffolded help among students)

It appears that she considers her classroom as a community and her students as its members

who use L1 for healthy communication among them, which is reflected in her beliefs and in her actual uses of codeswitching. The quote below tells the factor that has influenced her beliefs.

TB4: I always think that I do not want to discard those at the low English level. ... I want to create enjoyable times as all my students are trying to increase their levels [of English]. That is why my lessons contain lots of pair and group activities. I want the students to learn and teach with each other and to get involved with each other. I get less attracted to lessons where only upper-level students can develop their competencies. (Classroom as a community)

She tries to increase the amount of L2 as students move to the next grade, but she switches to L1 so that every individual can clearly understand learning materials. It seems that she considers L1 as a valuable tool from not only cognitive but also sociocultural perspectives.

3.3.4. DISCUSSION

Regarding RQ1, this study has revealed that each of the participants had different beliefs about their uses of codeswitching in their classrooms and that the degree of “some pedagogical value in L1 use” (Macaro, 2001, p. 535) varied among individuals. This result is similar to that of Omote (2012), who has discovered that his participants were concerned about AE lessons from various angles. In addition, Macaro (2001) found out two different positions (i.e. the Maximal Position and the Optimal Position) out of a small number of interviewees, which indicates that different beliefs about codeswitching exist even in a small group of teachers.

What positions language teachers tend to adopt depends on what they believe with regard to how L2 is learned (Macaro, 2009). This needs to be understood in order for RQ3 to work out. Teachers in the Maximal Position believe that L2 is acquired through sufficient input, students’

output, and teacher-student and student-student interactions in L2 (Macaro, 2009; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002). Besides, there is research evidence that teachers' uses of L2 result in increased students' motivation (Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009). Thus, the teachers tend to use L2 exclusively or to maximize its amount as a priority. TA's comments about input and output and his use of L1 as the last resort because of his students' puzzled faces show his Maximal Position. Furthermore, his rapport building is one of its characteristics (Macaro, 1997, p. 91). TE's input, output, and motivation and TC's students' motivation in class and for future L2 learning are also the elements of the position.

On the other hand, teachers in the Optimal Position believe that codeswitching has some pedagogical value in L2 classrooms and helps L2 learning. It is used consciously and strategically as a cognitive resource (Cummins, 2007; Widdowson, 2003), so not only the use of L2 but also the conscious use of L1 is a priority. TE and TD use codeswitching to alleviate students' cognitive loads when having her students check grammar and new words in groups (TE) and having his students clearly understand learning materials (TD). TB's beliefs about codeswitching seem to be based on sociocultural theory, where codeswitching is used in dialogues among students as a cognitive tool to get their tasks done (Bao & Du, 2015; Swain & Lapkin, 2000). The theory can explain TB's consideration of her classroom as a community and positive use of L1 to activate discussions among community members. TC also gets her students to use L1 to encourage scaffolded help among them for those who feel stressed in the L2-only atmosphere.

As for RQ2, the participants presented different factors that had influenced their beliefs about codeswitching: Pre-service training and a senior teacher (TA), in-service training and students' positive attitudes and motivation (TE), students enjoying her lessons in L2 (TC), in-service training and his teaching experiences (TD), and in-service training and her feeling of not wanting to ignore lower-level students (TB). Among these various factors, "training" was the most influential one – four of the participants (TA, TE, TD, and TB) referred to the word in their interviews. It shows that

training can give Japanese L2 teachers the opportunity to reflect on their beliefs and possibly to change them, because teacher beliefs are said to be changing (Negueruela-Azarola, 2011) and influenced by reflection (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011; Borg, 2011). Unlike Macaro (2001), the Courses of Study do not necessarily influence teacher beliefs directly.

Considering the results of RQ1 and RQ2, one thing to be noted when the two theoretical positions are discussed is that, depending on teaching contexts or school types, there may be times when either position is preferred as TB pointed out in her interview:

TB1: I think that teaching only in English would be suitable for those who are enrolled in courses dedicated to that [teaching only in English] or for private schools, but there are students in public schools who have hard times. (See 3.5, TB1)

TA, who appeared to have adopted the Maximal Position, teaches in a special environment where most of the students who graduate from their school enter the top-level high schools in the prefecture. It could tell that they have enough level of L2 to understand L2 instructions and that the Maximal Position is “suitable” or preferable. TC feels guilty when resorting to L1 because there are various types of students’ personalities as well as mixed L2 levels and because the Optimal Position may be “suitable” in her typical public school. Thus, the teaching context or school type may be one influential factor that causes L2 teachers to reflect on their teaching styles regarding codeswitching. Not only reflection but also affordances (i.e. teaching contexts, school types, etc.) are considered to influence teachers’ beliefs (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011).

The above discussion tells that, for RQ3, seeking an effective balance of L1 and L2 at the institutional level and setting a unique departmental guideline about codeswitching in L2 classrooms would be a necessary step to a better learning environment for students, because there is a likelihood that L2 teachers in the same school have different beliefs about codeswitching (Macaro,

2001). In each junior or senior high school, English teachers should work as a team to help their students achieve their goals and meet their needs. To let this happen, they should share common perceptions about the roles of codeswitching in L2 classrooms, including when, how, and to what extent L1 should be used. Otherwise, what students learn in L2 lessons would vary considerably, and they are the ones who would be at a loss. The authors have heard that one Japanese senior high school set a guideline for their English classes with regard to the amount of L1 use and shared it not only with the teachers but also with the students. According to one student who graduated from this high school, this enabled him to use effective learning strategies for the purpose of each class. Moreover, schools in secondary education in England offer a faculty handbook about the uses of L2 and L1 for teaching Modern Foreign Languages (for example, see King Edward VI School, 2017). A guideline about codeswitching would help teachers construct common views about it and alleviate the L1/L2 disagreement they may feel in their schools.

3.4 STUDY 4

3.4.1 AIM OF THE STUDY

Study 1 (Masuda & Matsuzawa, 2017), Study 2 (Masuda, 2017), and Study 3 (Masuda & Matsuzawa, 2018) pay attention to beliefs about the L1 use, where translation and codeswitching are emphasized. Study 4 (Masuda, 2018) emphasizes how the L1 use is treated in the national curriculums of three different countries as well as in the commentaries for the Japanese COSs.

Considering the recognition of the L1 use around the world and its different views in the Japanese context, which have been overviewed in Chapter 2, the current study examines five research questions (RQs) summarized below. Because there is no research having investigated the Japanese guidelines or commentaries for elementary, junior high, and senior high schools with regard to the L1 use in detail despite the controversies (Erikawa & Kubota, 2014; Sato, 2014; Science Council of Japan, 2016; Yoshida, 2017), RQ1 to RQ3 investigate the treatment of the L1

use in the three areas of instructional language principle (RQ1), language awareness (RQ2), and use of translation (RQ3) where the commentaries refer to the L1 use. Furthermore, RQ4 explores the overall aims of language learning stated in the commentaries to see whether the idea of mediation is encompassed, because Erikawa and Kubota (2014) and Torikai (2017) both criticize the guidelines or commentaries, claiming they should include the holistic view of language learning. In order to identify areas of improvement in the guidelines as in RQ5, they are compared with the curriculums of other countries (Israel, Hong Kong, and England) in terms of how L1 is treated in the three areas and whether the current trend of language learning is reflected in the overall aims of those curriculums. Since both Hong Kong and England have established and enforced their own national-level curriculums, they are treated as “countries” in this study.

Research Questions (RQs) for the current study:

1. How does each national curriculum set its instructional language principle?
2. Does each national curriculum recommend using L1 to promote students’ language awareness?
3. How is the use of translation treated in each curriculum?
4. Is the current trend of language learning reflected in the overall aims of each curriculum?
5. What are areas of improvement in the Japanese guidelines?

3.4.2 OVERVIEW OF THE NATIONAL CURRICULUMS

In order to respond to RQ1 through RQ4, the national curriculums of Japan, Israel, Hong Kong, and England have been overviewed. Some other governmental materials are also investigated for more detailed explanations regarding how L1 is treated. The reason for the choice of Israel is that Cook (2016) introduces the 2002 version of the Israeli national curriculum in a positive tone because it aims for developing L2 users who can use more than two languages at the

functional level for real-life purposes, not for developing native speakers of L2. Despite the Hong Kong's colonized history by the British, Chinese is widely spoken in daily life there, and English is learned in school as a priority to foster biliterate (Chinese and English) and trilingual (Chinese, English, and Putonghua) human resources for Hong Kong's economic growth (Education Bureau, 2011). Moreover, Hong Kong has a reputation of putting an emphasis on English education in school (Jang, 2014). It is believed that exploring details of its curriculum therefore provides an opportunity to see the front-line English language education as a school subject. The curriculum for languages in England was chosen because providing accurate translation both from L2 and to L2 is included as one of the teaching contents. It is hoped to see how English is treated in the foreign languages (French, German, Spanish, etc.) education in a country where English, acknowledged as an international language or as a lingua franca, is the first language for the majority of the people there.

3.4.2.1 Japan

The current commentaries issued by MEXT for elementary schools in the primary education, and junior high schools and senior high schools in the secondary education of Foreign Languages and Foreign Language Activity sections are overviewed in terms of the treatment of the Japanese language (L1). The commentaries, the details of each guideline, have been chosen to see the more concrete explanation about the L1 use. There are two types of commentaries for elementary schools: Foreign Language as a school subject for the 5th and 6th grades, which is the same in the secondary education, and Foreign Language Activity – one of the special activities not counted as a school subject – for the 3rd and 4th grades. Throughout all the commentaries, it is recommended that English (L2), not other languages, be taught as a foreign language with the consideration of the fact that the language is widely spoken in the international society and for a coherent language education in the compulsory education.

The principle of the instructional language was added for the first time in the commentary for senior high schools (MEXT, 2009) and has resulted in the introduction of the same principle into the commentary for junior high schools, which is going to be enforced in April 2021 (MEXT, 2017a). Teachers are encouraged to teach L2 lessons in L2 in principle for the purposes of providing students with sufficient L2 input opportunities and authentic communication scenes. In this principle, students' shared language, Japanese (L1), should be used as an auxiliary language to facilitate students' understanding of the L2 grammar (MEXT, 2009) or when necessary (MEXT, 2017a). For senior high schools, teachers are expected to use L2 when explaining teaching contents, when giving directions and examples of activities, and when encouraging and evaluating students' performances through strategies such as paraphrasing and using simple L2 words (MEXT, 2009). For junior high schools, teachers need to be role models as L2 learners and are encouraged to use comprehensible L2 for explanations, questions, and presentations of tasks (MEXT, 2017a). On the other hand, no such principle has been added in both of the commentaries for elementary schools, nor is there the statement of using Japanese as an auxiliary language. It is worth noting that some examples of questions to students by teachers are described in Japanese in the commentary of Foreign Languages for elementary schools (MEXT, 2017b), which means the L1 use is not treated negatively. However, in the Foreign Language Activity, understanding through experiences is more emphasized because it is said that young children of the 3rd and 4th grades should learn L2 naturally by listening to what others say (MEXT, 2017b). This explanation implies that teachers should use as much L2 as possible for providing students with ample opportunities to listen to L2. All of the commentaries seem to convey the direct or indirect message that the L2 use should be maximized in classrooms and that L1 can be used supplementarily, without clarifying the purposes or roles of L1.

All the commentaries talk about promoting students' language awareness by comparing the two languages. When the commentary for senior high schools was issued about a decade ago

(MEXT, 2009), language awareness was not so emphasized as the recently issued commentaries (MEXT, 2017a, 2017b). In contrast to only one sentence about the difference in phonology between L1 and L2 in the commentary for senior high schools (MEXT, 2009), the junior high school commentary and the elementary school commentaries put an emphasis on the differences in both phonology and syntax, more on the latter for the junior high school commentary and more on the former for the elementary school commentaries (MEXT, 2017a, 2017b). This shows that students' cognitive use of L1 facilitates L2 learning.

Only the senior and junior high school commentaries refer to translation from L2 by teachers and translation activities done by students (MEXT, 2009, 2017a). No reference about translation is made in the elementary school commentaries (MEXT, 2017b). In the secondary education, since Japanese can be used supplementarily, teachers are expected not to focus too much on translation in order for them to provide students with sufficient L2 input and authentic communication scenes in L2 based on the principle about the instructional language.

Lastly, though there is no section specifically written for overall aims looking ahead to future communication needs, the expected human resources developed through learning L2 are described in different parts of the commentaries. The senior high school commentary expects to develop the human resources with wider views, international awareness, and the spirit of international collaboration. Through L2 learning, students are expected to deepen the understanding of not only the foreign language and cultures being studied but also Japanese language and culture (MEXT, 2009, p. 7). The same statement is given in the junior high school commentary and elementary school commentary for the 5th and 6th grades. In addition, they say that it is important to develop the human resources who think from various angles and to obtain the spirit of accepting and considering others and of peace and international contributions (MEXT, 2017a, 2017b). Interestingly, even though almost the same statement is given in the elementary school commentary for the 3rd and 4th grades about the expected human resources (MEXT, 2017c, p. 49), young

students of these grades are also expected to deeply understand the Japanese language and culture through the Foreign Language Activity so that they can deliver the characteristics and beauty of the language and culture. The auxiliary L1 use by teachers in classrooms is mentioned in order for students to effectively learn L2, but leveraging the two languages (L1 and L2) in future authentic communication is not included in the statements about the expected human resources throughout all the commentaries.

3.4.2.2 Israel

In Israel, *Revised English Curriculum* was issued in November 2013 by Israeli Ministry Education for all grades – primary schools (1st-6th Grade), middle schools (7th-9th Grade), and high schools (10th-12th Grade) in the compulsory education (Ministry of Education, 2013). Since all the grades fit together as one curriculum, their language learning and achievement objectives are coherent and consecutive across all the levels – Pre-foundation Level (1st-3rd Grade), Foundation Level (4th-6th Grade), Intermediate Level (7th-9th Grade), and Proficiency Level (10th-12th Grade). It is worth noting that, in contrast to the Japanese curriculum commentaries where English is learned as a foreign language, in the Israeli curriculum, English (L2) is learned as an international language, meaning that “one that has no particular national owner” (Ministry of Education, 2013, p. 5). For the majority of Israeli students, Hebrew or Arabic is their L1: The word “mother tongue” or “home language” is used in the curriculum.

As the instructional language principle, teachers are expected to maximize their L2 use to give learners input opportunities for L2 vocabulary and other L2 features as well as the L2-rich environment. L1 seems to be treated to facilitate students’ language learning from the cognitive perspective as the curriculum stipulates that teachers can “use L1 occasionally and judiciously, where it can enhance learning of English” (Ministry of Education, 2013, p. 8). Moreover, young learners at the Pre-foundation Level are required to “have developed literacy skills in the L1” (p.

11), so it is assumed that their cognitive development of L1 is a prerequisite for successful L2 learning.

Promoting students' language awareness is explained in the Domain of Appreciation of Language, Literature and Culture – one of the four domains that show areas of ability and knowledge learners are expected to develop throughout all the levels. In this domain, learners' language awareness is emphasized by comparing and contrasting L1 and L2 not just phonologically and syntactically but also morphologically, semantically, and pragmatically. The Israeli English curriculum also recommends the students' L1 use as it states that students “can resort to the L1 occasionally when it helps them understand” (Ministry of Education, 2013, p. 8), indicating that students' language awareness can be promoted not only by comparing L1 and L2 but also by using L1 as a resource while they carry out tasks in groups or alone. Yet, there is no translation activities included in the principles of teaching and learning or in the domains.

Moreover, the curriculum not only guides teachers in effective language teaching but also shows how to equip students with world knowledge, appropriate values, and multiple intelligences, which are required when students command English as an international language in professional, business, or academic careers as well as in their private lives. The words, such as “native speakers of English” or “near-native speakers of English,” do not appear in the curriculum. Rather, as an overall aim, students are encouraged to “interact effectively in English in different social contexts with people from varied linguistic and cultural backgrounds” (Ministry of Education, 2013, p. 16). This statement expresses the meaning of the international language well – English for everyone across borders.

3.4.2.3 Hong Kong

Like the Israeli English curriculum, Hong Kong's *English Language Education: Key Learning Area Curriculum Guide* includes contents from the primary education (1st-6th Grade) to

the secondary education which is separated into the junior secondary (1st-3rd Grade) and the senior secondary (4th-6th Grade) (CDC, 2017). This means that all the sectors share overall aims of the English language education and principles related to language learning and teaching. It should be noted that this study refers to a draft form of the curriculum guide that was available at the time of writing. English Language Education is designated as part of Key Learning Area besides Chinese Language Education, Mathematics Education, and Arts Education. All the students from Primary 1 through Secondary 6 are required to take it and are supposed to not only learn subject-specific contents but also develop generic skills, comprised of Basic Skills, Thinking Skills, and Personal & Social Skills, and seven priority values and attitudes through the Key Learning Area (See CDC, 2017, p. 2 for details). English Language Education is divided into English Language as a mandatory subject across all the grades and English Literature as an elective for the senior secondary students to take for their further application of the language into the literature and for their language awareness. It is interesting that, in the Israeli curriculum, literature learning is one of the domains, and students of all the levels are expected to promote their language awareness by comparing English and their home languages, but, in the Hong Kong's curriculum guide, literature learning is treated as an elective course and students are encouraged to promote their language awareness by learning the English literature, not by comparing English and Chinese or Putonghua. Nor is there reference to any other languages for language teachers to use for instructional purposes, since teachers in the secondary education are expected to carry out the English-medium instruction (EMI) in English Language Education, and those in the primary education are recommended to implement the EMI as well. In addition, neither the use of translation by teachers nor translation activities by students appear in the guide. This seems to indicate that L1 is not a tool for language learning and that the total exclusion of L1 is recommended at the policy-making level. This aligns with the overall aims that focus on students' academic, personal, intellectual developments through the English medium and that try to equip them with linguistic skills for the knowledge-based

society in the English medium. For this reason, the EMI in non-language subjects and extra-curricular activities are promoted, and language teachers are encouraged to communicate with students in English outside the classroom to provide them with the language-rich environment in the entire school.

It is important to note that all the subjects in the Key Learning Area are aligned with Seven Learning Goals. One of the Goals of the primary education is to “actively communicate with others in English and Chinese (including Putonghua)” (CDC, 2017, p. A4), and one of the Goals of the secondary education is to “become proficient in biliterate and trilingual communication for better study and life” (CDC, 2017, p. A3). In fact, as explained above, Chinese Language Education is part of the Key Learning Area. English Language Education and Chinese Language Education are given the same percentage, i.e. 17-21% in the primary and junior secondary education and 12.5-15% in the senior secondary education, of the total lesson time in school. The curriculum guide seems to send a message that English and Chinese should be learned separately in each class without translation or codeswitching between L1 and L2.

3.4.2.4 England

The compulsory education in England starts from the age of 5 through 16. The primary education is divided into two stages, Key Stage (KS) 1 (age of 5-7) and KS2 (age of 7-11), and the secondary education into two stages, KS3 (age of 11-14) and KS4 (age of 14-16). KS5 (age of 16-18) is called 6th Form, part of the secondary education that offers preparatory courses for universities. Language learning begins from KS2 through KS3 as compulsory subjects of Foreign Language (FL) and Modern Foreign Language (MFL) respectively. Students in KS2 and KS3 can learn foreign languages such as French, German, and Spanish, and those in KS2 can also learn ancient languages, such as Latin and Greek. MFL is an elective subject in KS4 for those who select it as one of the subjects to gain General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE), which is a

high school diploma. Students in KS5 can continuously take the language education, called Modern Language (ML), and choose ML for a subject to obtain General Certificate of Education Advanced Level (GCE Advanced Level), which becomes a school leaving qualification to students completing secondary or pre-university education by passing A-level examinations. In the England national curriculum (Department for Education, 2014), the purpose of study and aims of FL and MFL cover KS2 through KS4, but the detailed teaching contents are included only for KS2 and KS3. For the teaching contents of MFL in KS4 and ML in KS5, the GCSE syllabus (Department for Education, 2015a) and the GCE Advanced Level syllabus (Department for Education, 2015b) are examined for this study to clarify the treatment of L1 (English) in the secondary education.

The instructional language in all the subjects is English as described in the Language and Literacy section of the curriculum (Department for Education, 2014, p. 11), although there is no clear principle on the instructional language stated in the Languages section. In KS2, students are encouraged to understand the basic grammar of the language being studied to see the differences and similarities between L1 and L2. The KS2 students seem to be expected to promote their language awareness by using their L1. However, there are no such statements in the KS3 section and in both of the examination syllabuses.

As for translation, those in KS4 and KS5 need to be able to do the translation from L2 and into L2 in their courses as written in the examination syllabuses (Department for Education, 2015a, 2015b). Also, in order for the students in KS3 to increase accuracy in L2 speech and writing, the curriculum requires them to “provide an accurate English translation of short, suitable material” (Department for Education, 2014, p. 255) and to “translate short written text accurately into the foreign language” (p. 256). In addition, because students in KS2 studying ancient languages are encouraged to have a discussion in L1 about the L2 texts that they have read, students of this stage are also required to be able to translate for not only their increased accuracy but also clear understanding of the texts written in the ancient languages. This is because the focus of studying

the ancient languages is on reading comprehension, not on practical communication dealing with familiar and routine matters as the focus of studying modern foreign languages (e.g. French, German, and Spanish).

The overall aim of FL and MFL described in the national curriculum is threefold: To develop intercultural competence by understanding different cultures and new ways of thinking, to foster practical communication skills in speech and writing, and to prepare students to study and work in other countries. On the other hand, in the GCSE syllabus which contains the contents that students should have learned in KS3 and KS4, the practical communication are limited to that with native speakers, and the third aim in the curriculum is not included (Department for Education, 2015a). In the GCE Advanced Level syllabus, the study of ML is placed as an interdisciplinary subject that not only develops intercultural competence but also provides students with cognitive and academic advantages. Students are also expected to foster generic skills such as critical thinking and autonomy (Department for Education, 2015b). The curriculum and examination syllabuses appear to tell that translation or the L1 use is only a tool for increased accuracy and for clear understanding of L2, not an activity that students will engage in during L2 communication inside and outside the classroom.

3.4.3 COMPARISON OF THE NATIONAL CURRICULUMS

With all the national curriculums and examination syllabuses considered, it is clear that each country takes a different position in terms of the treatment of L1. As for RQ1 about the instructional language principle, three patterns were found out. The first pattern is the maximal use of L2 and the limited use of L1. Japan and Israel are in this pattern because both of the commentaries and curriculum claim teachers' auxiliary (MEXT, 2009, 2017a) and occasional and judicious (Ministry of Education, 2013) use of L1 to alleviate students' cognitive loads. As the second pattern, no specification about the instructional language is made in the Languages section

of the England national curriculum, even though it says English is the medium of instruction across all the subjects at the beginning of the curriculum. The instructional language is written more roughly, compared to the commentaries and curriculums in the rest of the countries. The stipulation of the instructional language principle may depend on each school since schools are supposed to develop a curriculum based on the national one (Department for Education, 2014). The use of L1 seen in these two patterns seems to be limited to students' clear understanding of L2; no further purposes of the teachers' L1 use are described. Hong Kong's EMI with the total exclusion of other languages is the third pattern.

For RQ2, except for the Hong Kong's curriculum guide, the rest requires teachers to teach the differences between L1 and L2 to promote students' language awareness. Here, L1 is treated as both linguistic and cognitive resources to enhance L2 learning so that students can connect old information (L1) with new information (L2) when learning L2 (Butzkamm, 2003). It appears that Hong Kong's ideal learning model that English should be learned through the English medium leads to no statement about promoting students' language awareness by comparing L1 and L2, but to the statement that learning the English literature enhances their language awareness. As the Israeli English curriculum states the students' use of L1 (Ministry of Education, 2013, p. 8), promoting their language awareness is also expected through their cognitive and sociocultural use of L1 during tasks.

For RQ3, Hong Kong and Israel do not refer to the use of translation, but Japan and England do. England puts more emphasis on students' increased accuracy of L2 through translation and includes it in the teaching contents of KS3 and both of the examination syllabuses. Unlike the CEFR, (Council of Europe, 2018), no connection between such translation activities and translation for real-life purposes is mentioned. On the other hand, in the Japanese commentaries, teachers are expected to translate from L2 only when necessary and to have students translate into L2 as writing activities where they can use words and expressions they have already learned. In contrast to the

England curriculum and examination syllabuses, any cognitive or social purposes of translation from L2 and into L2 are not stipulated. Hong Kong aims for developing those who are biliterate or trilingual, and Israel requires students to be L2 users, but translation is not a required activity in language classrooms. None of the curriculums and syllabuses refer to the direct relationship between translation activities in language classrooms and translation required in authentic communication outside the classroom.

The overall aims of the language education in RQ4 are also unique to each curriculum. Israel clearly shows how English should be treated in the national curriculum: English is an international language. Thus, English should be learned to equip students to use it in different situations for different purposes in society. Israel aims for developing L2 users, not native-like speakers or native speakers of English. However, being able to translate or interpret for future communication needs, which is a characteristic of L2 users (Cook, 2016), is not included in the curriculum. This suggests that just because Israel tries to develop L2 users as Cook (2016) mentions, it does not mean that the country aims for L2 users who have multicompetence and who codeswitch in natural settings. Hong Kong also sees English as an international language, but English, for them, is more for business and provides economic advantages. As one of its overall aims, fostering those who are biliterate and trilingual is important, but the aim does not seem to include the plurilingual view of language learning and use because students are encouraged to develop their English through the EMI without using the other languages they know. It can be said that Hong Kong aims for L2 users who use English and Chinese or Putonghua separately, not for L2 users whom Cook (2016) claims. In England, in its overall aims, French, German, and Spanish are thought to be their foreign languages that have academic, economic, and humanistic advantages. The language education is compulsory only in KS2 and KS3 and becomes elective for further study, which indicates that a foreign language is one of the skills that provide an interdisciplinary advantage to a person. L1 is only a tool for clear understanding of L2 and for increasing L2 accuracy in classrooms; no further

explanation about the L1 use with the focus on the current view of language learning and use appear in the overall aims. Also, in Japan, as its commentaries state, English is a foreign language. Although the commentaries state that English is an international language and that learning the language is needed in the globalizing society, they do not stipulate that English should be learned as an international language. They mention that the L2 learning leads students to deepening their knowledge of Japanese language and culture, but, unlike Erikawa and Kubota (2014) and Torikai (2017), they do not claim the importance of fostering those who leverage both of the languages as L2 users and of developing the plurilingual competence. None of the overviewed national curriculums mention mediation as a normal activity that L2 users engage in in real life. Due to the lack of this view, holistic language teaching and learning is not discussed in all the overviewed curriculums and examination syllabuses.

Cook (2007, 2013) divides the goals of language learning into external goals and internal goals. All the investigated curriculums and examination syllabuses aim for achieving internal goals through, for example, developing cross-cultural understanding (MEXT, 2009, 2017a, 2017b), higher order thinking skills (Ministry of Education, 2013), appropriate values and attitudes (CDC, 2017), and intercultural competence (Department for Education, 2014). Furthermore, the curriculums and syllabuses put effort into enhancing students' L2 levels to achieve their external goals. However, this study found that developing one's plurilingual competence is not included as an external goal across all the curriculums and syllabuses. In other words, as indicated in RQ1 through RQ4, L1 is considered as, or limited to, a pedagogical tool for clear understanding of L2, promoting students' language awareness, and their increased accuracy of L2, so none of the curriculums or syllabuses view L1 as a communication tool needed for developing one's plurilingual competence.

3.4.4 AREAS OF IMPROVEMENT AND SUGGESTIONS

For RQ5, two areas of improvement were identified in the Japanese guidelines through comparing the other national curriculums and examination syllabuses. First, there is no section specifically written for defining the expected human resources as an overall aim. Because taking notes in English of what is heard in Japanese and conveying in Japanese a message received in English, which are the examples of mediation activities, are one of the normal language uses that Japanese people face outside the classroom (Matsuzawa, 2006) and because mediation is said to play an important role in “the normal linguistic functioning of our societies” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 14), developing students’ mediation skills with the focus on the expected language uses by Japanese people should be included as an external goal and stipulated at the beginning of each of the guidelines. Further, mediation is a prominent part of one’s plurilingual competence (Council of Europe, 2018). As Erikawa and Kubota (2014) and Torikai (2017) stress the importance of plurilingualism, the more holistic view of language teaching and learning should be developed, so that students can be equipped with the skills necessary in the international society. The first suggestion should help define the framework of communication skills in the guidelines more concretely. Besides, the section will solidify the purposes of using L1 and translation activities in classrooms and will help teachers face in the same direction regarding the treatment of the L1 use.

The second area of improvement lies in the difficulty of understanding shared aims across the guidelines because a different guideline is prepared for each educational level. A suggestion that can be made is to create one single guideline about the primary and secondary foreign language education for the coherent and consecutive language learning as well as for shared aims, like the investigated national curriculums in the other countries. Primary and secondary school teachers would also be easier to read through the specific teaching goals of all the levels. Combining the current guidelines into one would strengthen the connection among elementary, junior high, and senior high schools as discussed in some of the commentaries (MEXT, 2017a, 2017b).

CHAPTER 4

GENERAL DISCUSSION

4.1 MONOLINGUAL TEACHING AND BILINGUAL TEACHING

The four studies in the previous chapter imply one's preference of monolingual teaching or bilingual teaching based upon his or her personal beliefs about the L1 use.

In the first study, the teachers (TC and TD), who opposed all types of the translation items given on the national university entrance examinations of English subjects, seem to support the monolingual teaching, assuming that L2 can be best learned through L2-only instruction, same as the assumptions of the Direct Method (Cook, 2010). Thus, translation in the classroom is something that is needed only for the exams, and the teachers tend to feel a dilemma between the COSs and the exams. In contrast, those who supported the translation items (TB and TG) appear to believe that bilingual teaching is effective for language learning and useful for future language use. For them, translation is a necessary language activity for their students.

Study 2 shows that all the high school students believed bilingual teaching to be effective for L2 learning in order to make the five L1 roles to work. However, the favorable attitude toward bilingual teaching in class is not necessarily linked with the future language use. Although the majority of them claimed the future authentic use of L1 in the society and the need to practice translation in class, those placed in the monolingual group thought that L1 was only for L2 learning, separating translation practice in class from future L2-only authentic communication.

The Maximal Position and the Optimal Position that the teachers in Study 3 seemed to have adopted imply their preferences of bilingual teaching or monolingual teaching, even though these preferences may depend on the school context to some extent like TA and TC. Strategic use of L1 (TD and TE) and its sociocultural use (TB and TC) prove the existence of bilingual teaching in the classroom and acknowledge students' bilingualization (Widdowson, 2003). Teacher A's Maximal

Position appears to come from the preference of monolingual teaching once the conditions, where he can teach in L2 exclusively, are set.

Study 4 clarified MEXT's preference to monolingual teaching based on how L1 is treated in the COSs. Neither students' bilingualization process nor the effectiveness of L1 in language learning is discussed in the COSs. The L1 use is limited to the last resort (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009), and maximizing L2 in class is encouraged from the beginning in the 3rd and 4th grades of primary school without any empirical evidence.

However, monolingual teaching itself is not detrimental to L2 learning unlike how it has sounded. MEXT stipulates two purposes of maximizing the amount of L2 in the COSs as overviewed in Chapter 2: Providing (1) L2 input and (2) authentic communication scenes (MEXT, 2009, 2017a, 2018). For the first purpose, numerous studies have proved that abundant L2 input helps students' L2 acquisition (Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002). The second purpose cannot be ignored as well from the perspective of future L2 use since one of the goals of L2 education is to be able to understand and to express in L2, and there are, in fact, situations where students need to communicate only in L2 even in the multilingual society. Sato (2014) shows that maximizing L2 leads to the increase of students' willingness to communicate, and Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain (2009) introduce the research result that L2-only instruction results in the boost of students' motivation toward L2 learning.

The important thing to keep in mind is to blend monolingual teaching and bilingual teaching in class without placing a disproportionate emphasis on one or the other. When a teacher executes monolingual teaching in an EFL classroom, he or she needs to express its aim to the students after carefully contemplating their age, L2 levels, motivation, and the classroom atmosphere in order to avoid creating ideology of linguistic imperialism, assimilation, and colonization (Auerbach, 1993; Kubota, 2018; Phillipson, 1992). Monolingual teaching could end up with the strong version of the Direct Method (Cook, 2010; Hall & Cook, 2012) without the scrutiny and sufficient teaching skills

(Kubota, 2018).

Even though effective L2 strategies such as repeating, speaking slowly, using visual aids, and paraphrasing make L2 input comprehensible, it should be kept in mind that L1 also contributes to comprehensible input and to help create L2 atmosphere (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009). Continuing speaking L2 is a burden for some students, and some researchers are concerned about the situation where the number of those who do not like English would increase (Science Council of Japan, 2016; Erikawa & Kubota, 2014). When used wisely and appropriately, L1 is a tool to keep students' motivation.

The absolute right balance between monolingual teaching and bilingual teaching never exists; the balance depends on students and contexts. Teachers' flexible and favorable attitudes towards both L1 and L2 use are thus needed to instill positive images of both of the teaching styles and to achieve internal goals as well as external goals, which are discussed in the following section.

4.2 INTERNAL GOALS AND EXTERNAL GOALS

The four studies can also be discussed in terms of Cook's internal and external goals (Cook, 2007). Social interactions in the external goal seem to encompass two situations: Interactions without the L1 use and interactions with the L1 use. The former implies communication only in L2, and the latter involves the CEFR's mediation activities (Council of Europe, 2001, 2018) in addition to L2-only communication. Some of the students in Study 2 imagined both of the situations in social interactions when expressing their opinions through the questionnaire but some of the teachers and students in Study 1 and Study 2 only imagined the first situation.

In Study 1, TC and TD, who considered translation items on the exams as something that contradicts students' future L2 use and the L2-only principle in the COS for senior high schools (MEXT, 2009), seemed to imagine social interactions in the monolingual environment, so they felt difficulty in teaching L2 in their classrooms. TH was also opposed with E-->J translation, thinking

about communication in the monolingual environment as follows:

TH2: Since we are in the era of processing plenty of English sentences both in university and when being employed, it may not be realistic to translate into Japanese as we take time at a slow speed. [E-->J translation; - English ability for future use]

Those three teachers seem to consider the translation items as a means to passing the exams rather than an end of L2 learning.

Interestingly, the two situations in the external goal were identified among the high school students in Study 2. Some of them considered cross-linguistic mediation (Council of Europe, 2001, 2018) as an end of language learning.

Student 2: If a Japanese person can translate into Japanese and English, she or he can help other Japanese people who do not understand English and foreigners who do not understand Japanese.

They do not confine social interactions to two people communicating with each other, but imagine themselves acting as a mediator in communication where more than two people are involved. In other words, they considered themselves as L2 users (Cook, 2016), beyond L2 learners. Those placed in the monolingual group (four students) imagined social interactions where one makes excellent use of integrated four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) without recourse to L1, so for them interactions mean monolingual communication. It seems that they limited themselves to L2 learners.

However, none of the teachers in Study 3 connected the L1 use in the classroom with students' future social interactions. They all saw the L1 use as a means to language learning even

though functions of L1 were different from teacher to teacher.

Study 4 can be discussed in terms of how the L1 use is treated from the viewpoint of the external goal. Although the COSs appear to set an external goal as they aim at developing students' communication skills based on the CEFR's production (speaking and writing), reception (listening and reading), and interaction (Council of Europe, 2001, 2018), they do not clarify types of social interactions, which resulted in various opinions in teachers and students and developed into controversies (Science Council of Japan, 2016; Erikawa & Kubota, 2014; Sato, 2014; Yoshida, 2017). All the COSs ignore the skills needed in the multilingual environment, such as mediation activities that the CEFR considers as one of the four modes of communication (Council of Europe, 2018) besides production, reception, and interaction. The treatment of mediation in the COSs is similar to that of the Direct Method is that it ignored translation without plausible evidence. The external goal in the COSs hence seems to be based on the assumption that social interactions occur only in the monolingual environment, implying that the curriculums take the Maximal Position (Macaro, 1997, 2001, 2009).

The COSs however clearly show internal goals as developing cross-cultural understanding and knowing various ways of looking at and thinking about things through learning L2. Yet, how to achieve these goals is not described. None of the teachers and students in the studies mentioned any internal-related goals in terms of the L1 use, though Ford (2009) contends that L1 acts as a tool for students to promote critical thinking. Using L1 for profound thinking could also be a useful resource to accomplish internal goals as they enrich people's inner lives.

If an external goal is limited to communicating in a monolingual environment as L2 learners, the monolingual teaching would be suitable, but this could narrow the range of what students can do. Bilingual teaching makes it possible to achieve both external goals, including the two situations, and internal goals. Teaching L2 bilingually could broaden the range of what students can do including mediation activities – as L2 users. Much literature has investigated the L1 use as a means

of L2 learning, but in order to accomplish both external and internal goals and to have students become true L2 users, the L1 use as an end of L2 learning should also be set as a curriculum goal as well as a means of L2 learning.

4.3 HOLISTIC LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

As in the subsection 4.2, some of the students in Study 2 viewed language learning holistically, implying the cross-linguistic mediation as a mediator in communication, which is part of the plurilingual competence (Council of Europe, 2018).

Study 1, due to the scope of the study that was limited to the translation items on the exams, none of the teachers expressed their opinions in terms of the current trend of holistic teaching and learning. Yet, a negative opinion about the holistic teaching and learning is reflected in a TD's comment:

TD2: Since our students need to live in a globalized world, I think it is very important to improve classes as quickly as possible and have the students be able to use English. For that, I consider it a good move to alter the entrance examinations completely. [E-->J translation; - future English ability]

The above comment denies plurilingualism and dynamic bilingualism altogether. It seems to be based on the coordinate bilingualism as opposed to the compound bilingualism.

Again, because of the scope of the third research, none of the teachers revealed their beliefs about codeswitching in the classroom from the perspective of holistic language teaching and learning. The teachers use L1 as a tool to enhance their students' L2 learning, but seem not to consider their use of L1 as a real-life language use. TB and TC allow the L1 use during pair/group discussions in order to relieve their stress, not to practice translanguaging.

In Study 4, plurilingualism and dynamic bilingualism are not incorporated in the investigated national curriculums and examination syllabuses. Japan leaves the purpose of using L1 and translation in the classroom unclear. Even though developing L2 users is one of the goals of the Israeli national curriculum, it does not include any statements about translation use in class. The L1 use is limited to a cognitive tool so students' bilingualization process (Widdowson, 2003) is considered, but the idea of translanguaging (García & Wei, 2014) is not implied. Although Hong Kong admits the plurality of languages, using L1 in the L2 classroom or translanguaging seems not to be permitted because the curriculum promotes EMI not only in English classes but also in the other subjects. Hence, Hong Kong appears to encourage coordinate bilingualism, not compound bilingualism that enables students to have plurilingual competence and to engage in translanguaging. England sets a clear purpose of using L1, i.e. to increase accuracy in L2, but does not talk about the L1 use any further, albeit their goal of fostering students' intercultural competence through learning an L2.

Holistic language teaching and learning has not yet been widely disseminated in the Japanese context both at the curriculum level and at the classroom level, but may exist at the individual level (Study 2), as well as in the other EFL contexts.

4.4 L1 USE IN THE CLASSROOM

The results of Study 2 and Study 3 disclosed some roles of L1 in the classroom from teachers' and students' perspectives, which are similar to the past literature. The L1 use to understand meanings in L2 texts and L2 grammar was identified from both of the studies, indicating that the students connect the unknown with the known (Cook, 2010) in the bilingualization process (Widdowson, 2003) and that the teachers help them make the connection to facilitate L2 learning. In other words, L1 is used as a cognitive tool (Antón & DeCamilla, 1999; Bao & Du, 2015; Cook 2016; Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Hall & Cook, 2013; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Swain & Lapkin, 2000).

Besides the cognitive use of L1, its sociocultural use is surfaced from the teachers' beliefs about codeswitching in the classroom. As the actual L1 use among students during group and pair works is proved in some empirical studies (Antón & DeCamilla, 1999; Bao & Du, 2015; Swain and Lapkin, 2000), the teachers (TB and TC) in Study 3 tried to help their students to facilitate group discussions by letting their students use L1. However, this sociocultural aspect of L1 use could not be detected from the students' comments in the second study. This may indicate that activities such as discussions and debates are not so commonly implemented in high school (Benesse Educational Research Development Institute, 2014), so the students never thought of L1 use as a facilitating device for group discussions.

The students who used L1 for their self-study chose translation for themselves as their learning strategy to support their L2 learning, holding positive beliefs about the L1 use as some empirical studies show (Liao, 2006; Fernández Guerra, 2014), but none of the teachers in Study 3 mentioned the L1 use as one of their students' learning strategies. It appears that this mismatch indicates Widdowson's concern that the students are busy with connecting the old (L1) with the new (L2) in their bilingualization process while some teachers try to maximize L2 input for their students (Widdowson, 2003).

Besides the students' willingness to use L1 for their self-study purposes, external factors such as university entrance examinations and term tests, where translation-related items are given, make them use L1. This finding is also seen in TC and TD in Study 1 who reluctantly used L1 for examination purposes. The external factors could cause a dilemma over whether to use L1 and/or translation in L2 teaching as some of the teachers in the first study expressed. However, none of the teachers in Study 3 mentioned such reasons for their L1 use. The COS commentaries overviewed in Study 4 do not include statements about assessment. If teaching links with assessment as the national curriculum and examination syllabuses in England (Department for Education, 2014, 2015a, 2015b), the tension that teachers may feel about the L1 use could be alleviated.

As Veiga (2013) indicates L1 as a sense of security, some of the students in Study 2 also felt relieved when L1 was used in the classroom. TC in Study 3 stated this affective use of L1 as well to deal with various students' personalities.

In sum, by referring to the functions of L1 that Ellis and Shintani (2014, pp. 234-235) note in their book, the four studies disclosed its functions of "Convey L2 meaning" (Study 2 and 3), "To explain grammar" (Study 2 and 3), "Building personal relationship with students" (Study 3), "Developing translation skills" (Study 1 and 2), and "Reduce anxiety in the learner" (Study 2 and 3) (Also see p. 16 in Chapter 2).

4.5 L1 USE BEYOND THE CLASSROOM

The L1 use for outside the classroom is discussed in some of the teachers' and students' comments in Study 1 and Study 2 respectively. TB and TG in Study 1 linked the translation-related items on the exams with what students will do in college and after they graduate from college, though they did not specify what language or translating skills their students would need in the future. Some of the students in Study 2 imagined the L1 use in the actual communication being themselves as a mediator between those who do not speak each other's languages. Translation is thus for them an authentic language use in the future. However, none of the teachers in Study 3 connected codeswitching in the classroom with any language activities practiced outside the classroom. The L1 use was limited to L2 learning. Similarly in Study 4, the Japanese COSs are restricted to the L1 use for L2 learning. In other words, there is no perspective of the L1 use beyond the classroom. Whether or not one has a view of L1 use beyond the classroom influences how teachers teach L2, how students learn L2, and how they see translation items on the exams. With this view, one never hesitates to use L1 in class for the sake of his or her future. Without this view, one considers L1 in L2 learning as a villain (Cook, 2010). Considering the reevaluation of the importance of bilingualism and multilingualism for individual and societal language use (Hall &

Cook, 2012), having students become aware of and cultivating this view in the classroom results in developing L2 users – the common goal that teachers and students strive to achieve.

When considering L1 use beyond the classroom, machine translation (hereafter, MT) carried by Artificial Intelligence (hereafter, A.I.) should be discussed, as MEXT clearly states its exponential development in the general provisions of all the COSs. Google Translate, the MT services that Google gives for free, has suddenly achieved dramatic improvements in accuracy (Lewis-Kraus, 2016), and it is assumed that people start to make use of such free translation services when communicating with others in speech and in writing even if they do not know each other's languages. The more MT improves in its quality, the less translation for practical purposes becomes necessary. What is more, the mediation activities described in the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001, 2018) will be replaced by MT. Gally (2018) puts it, "It is already difficult to motivate children in Japan to study English; MT is likely to make it more challenging" (Gally, 2018, pp. 50-51). He points out that the reasons for Japanese children studying English have two justifications. One is for *kyoyo* – English for personal enrichment – similar to Cook's internal goals (Cook, 2007), and the other is for *jitsuyo* – English for practical purposes – similar to Cook's external goals (Cook, 2007) as the COSs and the English component of university entrance examinations both include these two justifications (Gally, 2018). Gally (2018) claims the importance of discussing the influences of improved MT on Japan's English education.

As mentioned above, for the practical communication purpose, the fact is that MT software is already enabling people who do not share a common language to communicate with each other without them putting tremendous time and effort in studying each other's languages (Gally, 2018). In other words, their first languages make communication possible. Under this situation where this external purpose of studying English is thought to be diminishing, when the role of L1 in L2 classrooms is considered, the ability to edit A.I.-made translations would need to be developed so that they are socioculturally appropriate and accurate. This is because getting MT to think on its

own or to hold conversations as humans do is a long way off (Lynn, 2016). Lynn (2016) expresses that language teachers can use MT, like Google Translate, to have their students' analyze why MT sentences are accurate or inaccurate. This post-editing skill will be needed to coexist with A.I., so translating between L1 and L2 accurately and appropriately will become necessary practices in the classroom.

One of the *kyoyo* purposes, developing deeper insights into own culture and language as well as other cultures, is considered to be less affected by improved MT (Gally, 2018). Lynn (2016) also clarifies an L2 teacher's role of acting as a bridge to learning about new cultures, which A.I. cannot provide. For the coexistence with A.I. beyond the classroom, it is important for students to develop intercultural communicative competence in the classroom by using L1 effectively for promoting profound discussions about languages and cultures. Another *kyoyo* purpose is to discipline students' minds through focusing on L2 grammar and translating between L1 and L2 (Gally, 2018). This cognitive development leads to promoting students' language awareness as well as fostering such generic skills as thinking skills and expressive skills. Bialystok (2015) summarizes empirical articles about benefits of being bilinguals and concludes that knowing more than one language helps develop executive function skills needed in daily life.

The concept of translanguaging (García & Wei, 2014) in language classrooms can also help enrich students' minds, in that accepting codeswitching or codemixing as a natural activity in the classroom results in accepting others, protecting one's identity, and enhancing flexibility. MT cannot teach these aspects; it is L2 teachers who teach them to their students through L2 education.

In the near future, L1 will have a different purpose due to the appearance of improved MT. L1 is going to be not only a pedagogical tool to be used in language classrooms to achieve two different purposes (*kyoyo* and *jitsuyo*) but also an indispensable tool to coexist with MT, or any future language services implemented by A.I.

4.6 BELIEFS

Study 1 through Study 3 investigated beliefs about the L1 use from various angles: University entrance exams (Study 1), students' translation practices in the classroom (Study 2), and teachers' codeswitching use in class (Study 3). It is natural that both positive and negative beliefs about the L1 use were identified in these studies because beliefs are different from person to person and one's belief is influenced by various internal and external factors (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011). Yet, this polarization of opinions leads to different teaching behaviors (Borg, 2015; Richards, 2017) – whether or not or to what extent teachers use L1 in class – as well as to different views about students' future language use. It also yields different learning behaviors – whether or not or to what extent students use L1 in class. Since the L1 use is proved to facilitate L2 learning (Antón & DeCamilla, 1999; Bao & Du, 2015; Butzukamm & Caldwell, 2009; Ebbert-Hübner & Maas, 2018; Hall & Cook, 2012; Kern, 1994; Macaro, 2009; Ramachandran & Rahim, 2004; Swain & Lapkin, 2000), help develop the internal growth (García & Wei, 2014; Moghaddam, 2017), and to be used in actual communication scenes (Cook, 2016; Council of Europe, 2001, 2018; Lambert, 2010; Kubota, 2013; Matsuzawa, 2006), extremely negative beliefs about the L1 use may not adapt successfully to the human resources required in the present society.

Due to the ambiguous goal setting at the curriculum level discussed in Study 1 and Study 4, it could be argued that negative beliefs are generated among teachers. If a goal is clearly stipulated as becoming bilinguals or L2 users in order to adapt well to the expected human resources, translation items given on the exams and contents of the teacher training courses that are an influential factor on teachers' beliefs (Borg, 2011; Masuda & Matsuzawa, 2018a), would be changed toward L1 acceptance because of the goal. These changes would then affect teachers' beliefs about the L1 use in the classroom, which help students hold positive beliefs about the L1 use. The acceptance and necessity of the L1 use could be shared among teachers and students in class, and hopefully the atmosphere of translanguaging is welcomed in the classroom (Moore, 2018), which leads to

protecting one's identity as a Japanese person (Muranoi, 2006) and to accomplishing communicative tasks without forgetting its identity (García & Wei, 2014). Goal setting can indirectly influence teachers' and students' beliefs about the L1 use.

4.7 CLARIFICATION OF TERMINOLOGY

4.7.1 L1-RELATED TERMS

When the L1 use is considered, various technical terms are used among researchers. The most widely used term is "L1 use" (Antón & DeCamilla, 1999; Brooks-Lewis, 2009; Cook, 2016; Cummins, 2007; Ellis & Shintani, 2014; Murahata & Murahata, 2016a, 2016b; Omote, 2012; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009; Widdowson, 2003). "Use of the mother tongue" is another way of describing students' first languages (Butzkamm, 2003; Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009). Some researchers prefer the word "own language" to "first language" or "mother tongue" to better depict the use of students' language(s) in the classroom (Cook, 2010; Hall & Cook, 2012, 2013; Kerr, 2014).

As Hall and Cook (2012) point out that those who support the first language (also mother tongue and own language) use in language classrooms do not necessarily support the use of translation. As a matter of fact, except for one article (Hall & Cook, 2012), none of the above studies included the use of translation for their discussion sections. It seems that the use of translation is another type of research. The researchers who study about the effectiveness of translation in class consider translation as a teaching method (Ramachandran & Rahim, 2004), a tool (Fernández Guerra, 2014; Veiga, 2013), or a learning strategy (Karimian & Talebinejad, 2013; Liao, 2006; Mutlu, Bayram, & Demirbüken, 2015). Kern (1994) uses the term "mental translation" for students to use as a cognitive strategy while they read L2 texts.

Instead of the terms "translation" and "L1 use," the CEFR does use the term "mediation" where translating a written text in speech or in writing is described as one of the mediation

activities occurring both in language classrooms and in societies (Council of Europe, 2001, 2018). The L1 use is replaced with cross-linguistic mediation, and the CEFR provides specific language activities related to it.

Moreover, one technical word can indicate slightly different meanings. Take codeswitching for example. Cook (2016) considers it as “an ordinary fact of life in many multilingual societies” (Cook, 2016, p. 184), and as one of the characteristics that L2 users possess but native speakers of L2 do not. He discusses codeswitching from a societal perspective. Thinking about its societal use first, he contends the importance of accepting codeswitching in the classroom as a normal activity. Macaro (2009) defines the optimal use of codeswitching by the teacher in broadly communicative classrooms that “can enhance second language acquisition and/or proficiency better than second language exclusively” (Macaro, 2009, p. 38). Due to a negative connotation that some teachers’ L1 uses can entail, Macaro (2009) uses the word “codeswitching” that entails a more positive image instead of “L1 use” or “recourse to L1” throughout his article. Thus, he views codeswitching from a pedagogical perspective so does Cook (2010), who refers to codeswitching as the movement back and forth between languages in classrooms. From a theoretical perspective, García and Wei (2014) explain that, in the classroom use, codeswitching represents a shift between two separate language systems (i.e. L1 and L2) in an individual’s mind based on the traditional concept of bilingualism, comparing it with the concept of translanguaging which roughly refers to the fluid and dynamic language practices of bilingual students. Two important points to explain about translanguaging are that (1) languages are not considered as separate entities but as one linguistic system in the bilingual’s mind to show their natural language use in the bilingual/multilingual classroom, and (2) bilinguals make use of their semiotic repertoires (languages, voices, images, emoticons, etc.) appropriate to the situation to indicate their dynamic language use. Unlike Macaro (2009), they see codeswitching as having negative connotations, i.e. a sign of students’ linguistic and cognitive deficiency in school, but translanguaging as having more positive images. García and Wei (2014)

distinguish “*linguaging*” for language use in the multilingual society and “*translinguaging*” for language practices in the classroom, as opposed to Cook (2016) who uses the term “*codeswitching*” to mean both its classroom and societal uses.

4.7.2 TAXONOMY OF THE L1 USE

After discussing translation-related terms appearing in recent articles, Gutiérrez (2018) concludes with taxonomy of translation with three main categories in it in the EFL context. The categories are composed of (1) pedagogical translation that indicates translation activities and/or tasks for students to develop specific language and translating skills in the L2 classroom, (2) codeswitching that refers to different forms (L1, L2, etc.) of alternation in the interaction between the teacher and the students or among the students in class, and (3) interior translation that students use their L1s or other languages as their cognitive strategy for the development of L2. Gutiérrez (2018) puts *translinguaging* in all three categories, considering students’ natural and dynamic use of their repertoires for translation in language learning in class. She hopes that her taxonomy helps spread the open discussion about the necessity of terminological consistency of translation-related terms, because the lack of it is causing the traditional widespread sense of mistrust or discomfort regarding the translation use in the classroom.

Referring to Gutiérrez’ (2018) taxonomy, this subsection has organized L1- and translation-related terms based on the past literature overviewed in Chapter2 and on the four studies in Chapter 3. Interior translation (Gutiérrez, 2018) has been replaced with self-translation so as to encompass students’ conscious use of translation as a learning strategy of their choice for their own L2 development. The revised taxonomy is comprised of pedagogical translation, codeswitching, and self-translation as described in the following page.

- (1) Pedagogical translation – translation activities and/or tasks, practiced in the L2 classroom, that the teacher provides to the students for the purpose of developing specific language and translating skills, or tested for the purpose of measuring students' L2 achievement.

Some examples of pedagogical translation are: translating L2 sentences into L1 and L1 sentences into L2; discussing translation problems; semi-communicative drills; etc.

Studies related to this type of translation are: Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009), Cook (2010), Council of Europe (2001, 2018), Ebbert-Hübner and Maas (2018), Kerr (2014), Kubota (2013), Lambert (2010), and Ramachandran and Rahim (2004).

- (2) Codeswitching – different forms (L1, L2, etc.) of alternation in the classroom interaction between the teacher and the students or among the students for the purpose of lubricating the flow of the classroom.

Some examples of classroom codeswitching are: teachers' sandwich technique; students using L1 in group/pair activities; the teacher switching from L2 to L1 to better explain task procedures, etc.

Studies related to codeswitching are: Macaro (2001, 2009), Liu et al. (2004), Littlewood and Yu (2011), Ellis and Shinatani (2014), Hall and Cook (2013), Antón and DeCamilla (1999), Bao and Du (2015), and Swain and Lapkin (2000).

- (3) Self-translation – students' conscious and/or unconscious use of L1 as their cognitive (learning) strategies for their development of L2.

Some examples of self-translation are: reading explanations in L1 about L2 grammar; thinking about the organization in L1 for L2 writing, etc.

Some studies related to this cognitive use of L1 are: Kern (1994), Veiga (2013), Fernández Guerra (2014), Mutlu, Bayram, and Demirbüken (2015), and Karimian and Talebinejad (2013).

When these three terminologies are discussed with consideration of the four studies in Chapter 3, Study 1 asked high school English teachers about the pedagogical translation given in the English component of the national university entrance examination. Study 2 investigates high school students' beliefs about the pedagogical translation that their teachers used in their classrooms and identifies five roles of the pedagogical translation from the students' perspective. Study 3 explores English teachers' use of codeswitching in their classrooms and reveals some of its functions, teachers' beliefs, and factors that have influenced their beliefs about codeswitching. Study 4 investigates whether all three terminologies are implied or indicated in the national curriculums of three different countries as well as in the Japanese COSs. None of the studies in Chapter 3 investigate what types of cognitive strategy that students prefer to use or actually use as self-translation.

Although this paper has widely discussed mediation, it is not included in the taxonomy above because although the cross-linguistic mediation activities can be considered as skills that Japanese students are expected to acquire in school education, they can be included in the development of specific language and translation skills discussed in the pedagogical translation. Gutiérrez (2018) also excludes mediation, as it goes beyond the linguistic aspect of language uses as described in the 2001 version, where mediation is simply explained as enabling communication between persons who do not share the same language through translation or interpretation, a paraphrase, summary, or record (Council of Europe, 2001). For instance, the 2018 version encompasses “mediating concepts,” “expressing a personal response to creative texts,” and “analysis and criticism of artistic texts” (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 104) in addition to the originally defined linguistic aspect.

4.8 SUMMARY OF THIS CHAPTER

When all is said and done, the first three studies disclose teachers' and students' beliefs about the L1 use in teaching, learning, and assessment. The lack of clarification of language learning

goals and purposes for using L1 and translation at the curriculum level, which is discussed in Study 4, may be one of the influential reasons for the different beliefs and polarization of opinions about the L1 use even in the small groups of participants in the studies.

The first section of the next chapter makes an alignment of curriculum, teaching, and assessment, suggesting a desired curriculum with the focus on the pedagogical translation in order to alleviate the different beliefs and polarization of opinions. The curriculum clearly sets a goal of becoming L2 users and recommends bilingual teaching to achieve both internal and external goals, to equip students with future language uses, and to facilitate L2 learning, referring to Kubota (2013), Lambert (2010), and the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2018), all of which disclose specific skills that Japanese students are to foster for future language uses in authentic communication. It is thus hoped that the desired curriculum claims the need for translation items on term tests in high school and on university entrance examinations as well as the need to use L1 in the classroom.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1 PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION

In response to the discussion above about the L1 use in L2 education, this section suggests a new type of curriculum in high school. Because all the four studies targeted the high school level either wholly (Studies 1 and 2) or partially (Studies 3 and 4), the curriculum provides how L1 should be treated in high school goals, objectives, classroom activities, and assessment. Taking into consideration the taxonomy presented in Chapter 4, this section tries to incorporate pedagogical translation into the new COS for senior high schools (MEXT, 2018) as a necessary practice besides listening, reading, spoken production, spoken interaction, and writing.

This does not mean that pedagogical translation does not need to be carried out in junior high schools and in elementary schools. MEXT aims at achieving the A1 level at the end of junior high schools and the pre-A1 level at the end of elementary schools (MEXT, 2015). The CEFR does involve the descriptors about some cross-linguistic activities to be achieved at such lower levels. It sets the A1 level for “Relaying specific information in speech,” “Relaying specific information in writing” (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 108), “Processing text in speech,” “Processing text in writing” (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 112), “Translating a written text in speech,” and “Translating a written text in writing” (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 114). Moreover, it sets the pre-A1 level for “Relaying specific information in speech” and “Relaying specific information in writing” (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 108). Therefore, similar but much simpler pedagogical translation, including the above cross-linguistic mediation skills, should be incorporated as specific language/translating skills in the curriculum goals and objectives of the new COS (MEXT, 2018), carried out in class, and assessed in term tests in elementary schools and junior high schools as well as senior high schools.

5.1.1 GOALS

Before moving on to desirable curriculum goals, the goals described in the new high school COS for Foreign Languages (MEXT, 2018) should be reviewed. The COS stipulates that the goals are:

To foster the competencies to accurately understand and appropriately convey information, ideas, etc., through not only language activities such as listening, reading, speaking, and writing but also their integrated language activities in a foreign language, by activating ways of looking at and thinking about communication in a foreign language as follows (MEXT, 2018, p. 13).

- (1) To deepen the understanding of the sounds, words, expressions, grammar, language functions of a foreign language, and to acquire the skills that students can use the knowledge appropriately depending on the purpose, scene, situation, etc., in actual communication through listening, reading, speaking, and writing (MEXT, 2018, p. 15).
- (2) To cultivate the skills in accurately understanding the summaries, main points, details, speakers' and writers' intentions, etc., of information, ideas, etc., in a foreign language and in appropriately expressing and interacting by using them, depending on the communication purpose, scene, situation, etc., about everyday and social topics (MEXT, 2018, p. 15).
- (3) To develop proactive and autonomous attitudes toward communicating in a foreign language by deepening the understanding of the culture behind the language and considering listeners, readers, speakers, and writers (MEXT, 2018, p. 17)

Again, types of communication are not clarified in its exegesis, which gives rise to unnecessary controversies about L1 use among researchers, educators, and teachers (See Section 2.5.1 of Chapter 2).

The desirable goals should include two situations (i.e. the monolingual situation where only L2 is used and the multilingual situation where cross-linguistic mediation activities are necessary). Moreover, the goals in the new COS need to describe future desirable images of students through L2 education (i.e. L2 users who do not codeswitch in monolingual communication and/or L2 users who use any available linguistic resources including their L1s in multilingual communication). These two points are hoped to alleviate the controversies and cultivate positive attitudes towards the L1 use in students as well as teachers in language classrooms. Thus, desirable goals can be set up as follows, where mediating means cross-linguistic mediation skills that can be developed through pedagogical translation. The italic phrases below are added by the author so that the added/revised parts are noticeable.

To foster the competencies *of an L2 user, who* accurately understands and appropriately conveys information, ideas, etc., through not only language activities such as listening, reading, speaking, writing, *and mediating* but also their integrated language activities in a foreign language *and/or, when necessary, in Japanese*, by activating ways of looking at and thinking about communication in *the languages concerned* as follows.

- (1) To deepen the understanding of the sounds, words, expressions, grammar, language functions of a foreign language, and to acquire the skills that students can use the knowledge appropriately depending on the purpose, scene, situation, etc., in actual communication through listening, reading, speaking, writing, *and mediating*.

- (2) To cultivate the skills in accurately understanding the summaries, main points, details, speakers' and writers' intentions, etc., of information, ideas, etc., in a foreign language *and/or Japanese* and in appropriately expressing, interacting, *and mediating* by using them, depending on the communication purpose, scene, situation, etc., about everyday and social topics.
- (3) To develop proactive and autonomous attitudes toward communicating in a foreign language *and/or Japanese* by deepening the understanding of the cultures behind the languages and considering listeners, readers, speakers, writers, and mediators.

5.1.2 OBJECTIVES

The new COS for senior high schools (MEXT, 2018) has set objectives for each English course, along with the overall curriculum goals. This subsection focuses on one of the courses, English Communication I, which all the first-grade high school students are required to take, and aims at adding necessary objectives to the new objectives of the course so that the students can cultivate the skills needed for their future. The objectives of the course (MEXT, 2018, pp. 22-28) are set for each of the five areas of (1) listening, (2) reading, (3) speaking [interaction], (4) speaking [production], and (5) writing as in the following.

- (1) Listening (MEXT, 2018, p. 23)
 - A. To enable students to listen to necessary information and to identify speakers' intentions about everyday topics, provided they use various aids in the speed to be spoken, phrases and sentences to be used, the amount of information, etc.
 - B. To enable students to listen to necessary information and to capture the summary

and main points depending on the purpose about social topics, provided they use various aids in the speed to be spoken, phrases and sentences to be used, the amount of information, etc.

(2) Reading (MEXT, 2018, p. 24)

A. To enable students to read necessary information and to identify writers' intentions about everyday topics, provided they use various aids in the phrases and sentences to be used, the amount of information, etc.

B. To enable students to read necessary information and to capture the summary and main points depending on the purpose about social topics, provided they use various aids in the phrases and sentences to be used, the amount of information, etc.

(3) Speaking [Interaction] (MEXT, 2018, pp. 25-26)

A. To enable students to keep exchanging information, ideas, feelings, etc., by using simple phrases and sentences about everyday topics, provided they use various aids in the phrases and sentences they use, the development of interaction, etc.

B. To enable students to exchange information, ideas, feelings, etc., logically about social topics by using simple phrases and sentences based on what they have heard or read, provided they use various aids in the phrases and sentences they use, the development of interaction, etc.

(4) Speaking [Production] (MEXT, 2018, pp. 26-27)

A. To enable students to present information, ideas, feelings, etc., logically about everyday topics by using simple phrases and sentences, provided they use various aids in the phrases and sentences they use, advance preparations, etc.

B. To enable students to present information, ideas, feelings, etc., logically about social topics by using simple phrases and sentences based on what they have heard or read, provided they use various aids in the phrases and sentences they use, advance preparations, etc.

(5) Writing (MEXT, 2018, p. 27-28)

A. To enable students to tell, as they write texts, information, ideas, feelings, etc., logically about everyday topics by using simple phrases and sentences, provided they use various aids in the phrases and sentences they use, advance preparations, etc.

B. To enable students to tell, as they write texts, information, ideas, feelings, etc., logically about social topics based on what they heard and read by using simple phrases and sentences, provided they use various aids in the phrases and sentences they use, advance preparations, etc.

Even though the aim of the course does include summarizing the gist and organizing the main points of what students have heard or read (MEXT, 2018, pp. 23-24), it does not specify in what language students are supposed to produce such output. If a teacher adheres to the English-only policy implied in the COS, she or he conducts such activities all in English and has the students speak or write in English for their output. The objectives (1) through (5) therefore should be revised as follows. The italics were added by the author and indicate what language students are supposed to use for their output.

(1) Listening (MEXT, 2018, p. 23)

A. To enable students to listen to necessary information and to identify speakers' intentions *in English* about everyday topics, provided that they use various aids in the

speed to be spoken, phrases and sentences to be used, the amount of information, etc.

B. To enable students to listen to necessary information and to capture the summary and main points *in English* depending on the purpose about social topics, provided that they use various aids in the speed to be spoken, phrases and sentences to be used, the amount of information, etc.

(2) Reading (MEXT, 2018, p. 24)

A. To enable students to read necessary information and to identify writers' intentions *in English* about everyday topics, provided that they use various aids in the phrases and sentences to be used, the amount of information, etc.

B. To enable students to read necessary information and to capture the summary and main points *in English* depending on the purpose about social topics, provided that they use various aids in the phrases and sentences to be used, the amount of information, etc.

(3) Speaking [Interaction] (MEXT, 2018, pp. 25-26)

A. To enable students to keep exchanging information, ideas, feelings, etc., *in English* by using simple phrases and sentences about everyday topics, provided that they use various aids in the phrases and sentences they use, the development of interaction, etc.

B. To enable students to exchange information, ideas, feelings, etc., logically *in English* about social topics by using simple phrases and sentences based on what they have heard or read, provided that they use various aids in the phrases and sentences they use, the development of interaction, etc.

(4) Speaking [Production] (MEXT, 2018, pp. 26-27)

A. To enable students to present information, ideas, feelings, etc., logically *in English*

about everyday topics by using simple phrases and sentences, provided that they use various aids in the phrases and sentences they use, advance preparations, etc.

B. To enable students to present information, ideas, feelings, etc., logically *in English* about social topics by using simple phrases and sentences based on what they have heard or read, provided that they use various aids in the phrases and sentences they use, advance preparations, etc.

(5) Writing (MEXT, 2018, p. 27-28)

A. To enable students to tell, as they write texts, information, ideas, feelings, etc., logically *in English* about everyday topics by using simple phrases and sentences, provided that they use various aids in the phrases and sentences they use, advance preparations, etc.

B. To enable students to tell, as they write texts, information, ideas, feelings, etc., logically *in English* about social topics based on what they heard and read by using simple phrases and sentences, provided they use various aids in the phrases and sentences they use, advance preparations, etc.

These objectives above aim at enabling students to provide their output in L2 orally or in writing when they listen to or read in L2. Because of the absence of cross-linguistic mediation skills, it is advised that objectives that focus on fostering such skills be added as (6) in order to make an alignment with the above-suggested curriculum goals. Based on the fact that certain translation items (i.e. E-->J translation, J-->E translation, explanation in Japanese, and summary in Japanese) are given in the English component of university entrance examinations and that such activities are conducted in real life (Council of Europe, 2001, 2018; Lambert, 2010, Kubota, 2013), four main objectives are suggested below, referring to the A2 level descriptors of “Mediating a text”

and “Mediating communication” in the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 104). The A2 level descriptors have been referred to because the new COS (MEXT, 2018) aims at achieving the A2 to B1 levels at the end of the third grade (Fujie, 2018), and students are required, in English Communication I, to accomplish the A2 level (MEXT, 2015) as solidifying what they have learned in junior high school (Fujie, 2018, p. 16). MEXT sets up the goals of achieving the B1 level through the elective English courses and the A2 level through English Communication I. Hence, setting the A2 level as a goal of English Communication I for the cross-linguistic mediation skills is considered reasonable, and the objectives below are created, being referred to the A2 level descriptors in the CEFR. By referring, it means the phrases used in the descriptors, such as “simple,” “short,” “clearly,” and “everyday,” are also used for the objectives.

Further, the CEFR uses the terms “Language A” and “Language B” so that educators and researchers around the world can refer to the descriptors replacing them with the languages concerned in their countries. The objectives below use Japanese for Language A and English for Language B. Even though the A2 level descriptors for mediation do not include social topics, the word “social” is added in the suggested objectives to align with the other objectives described in the new COS (MEXT, 2018). “Relaying specific information in speech / in writing” (Council of Europe, 2018, p. 104) is replaced with “Explaining specific information in speech / in writing” in the first objective below in order to reflect the specific translation item (i.e. E-->J Explanation item) appearing on the exams.

The first three objectives below (A, B, and C) represent mediating a text (i.e. spoken and/or written), and the last one (D) indicates mediating communication as an intermediary.

(6) Mediating a text in speech / in writing, Mediating communication

A. Explaining specific information in speech / in writing

To enable students to explain in Japanese specific information of short, clear, simple

messages, instructions, announcements, etc., provided that speech is clearly and slowly articulated or texts are simply written on everyday or social topics of immediate interest or need. (adapted from Council of Europe, 2018, p. 191, p. 194)

B. Processing text in speech / in writing

To enable students to summarize in Japanese information or convey / list in Japanese the main point(s) contained in clearly structured, short, simple spoken and written texts in English on everyday or social topics with the highest frequency vocabulary. (adapted from Council of Europe, 2018, p. 199, p. 201)

C. Translating a written text in speech / in writing

To enable students to provide approximate translations from English into Japanese of short texts on everyday or social topics that contain the highest frequency vocabulary. (adapted from Council of Europe, 2018, p. 202, p. 203)

D. Acting as an intermediary in informal situations

To enable students to communicate, as an intermediary, in Japanese (or in English) the main point of what is said in English (or in Japanese) in predictable, everyday situations, conveying back and forth information about personal wants and needs, provided that the speakers help with the formulation. (adapted from Council of Europe, 2018, p. 219)

5.1.3 CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

This subsection introduces sample activities based on the suggested objectives. Lesson 1 of the textbook, *CROWN English Communication I* (Shimozaki et al., 2017), is used for some of the

activities below so that it would be easier for high school teachers to understand how to adopt similar practices to their own lessons.

The first suggested classroom activity (Figure 8) is familiar among many teachers and students, and it is reported that some of the teachers do use this translation activity despite the English-only movement (Cook, 2010; Ebbert-Hübner & Maas, 2018; Hall & Cook, 2012). As a matter of fact, any translation exercises are not given in the teachers' handbook for the CROWN textbook, even though the handbook includes the translation for each section of a lesson for teachers to understand the contents. Hence, the third objective (i.e. (6) C) does justify translation exercises that some teachers have been using, and no teachers need to feel guilty toward using translation in class. The activity below has two purposes: (1) To achieve the third objective and (2) to have students to acquire the reviewed grammatical aspects for L2 accuracy (Ebbert-Hübner & Maas, 2018). In Lesson 1, students are supposed to learn five sentence patterns, auxiliaries, and gerunds. They also learn a prepositional phrase, "because of," and a subordinating conjunction, "even if" (See Appendix 3 for details).

- Translate the bolded sentences (①and②) below from English into Japanese. After you have translated them, compare your Japanese sentences with those of your partner.

Pictograms are often used in public places. Why do people use pictograms instead of words such as "emergency exit," "restroom," or "escalator"? Aren't words better than pictograms?

Pictograms are used for at least two reasons. ①**First, you can usually guess their meanings just by looking at them.** However, you cannot understand words if you don't know the language. For this reason, pictograms are used at international airports.

②**Second, you can quickly recognize pictograms even if they are far away because of their simple design and bright colors.** For this reason, they are used on roads.

Take a look at these road signs: These are not used in Japan, but you can easily guess their meanings: "Drawbridge ahead," "Watch out for kangaroos," and "Roundabout ahead."

Your translations

① _____

② _____

Figure 8. Classroom activity 1.

The second activity below (Figure 9) may also be used among some teachers, but is not seen in the textbook. Its purposes are to accomplish the first cross-linguistic mediation objective (i.e. (6) A) and to organize the content to help enhance students' private speech (Antón & DeCamilla, 1999). Moreover, having students talk to their partner about the main points of the section by looking at the handout would be an exercise for explaining in Japanese the main points of the content written in English in speech.

● Organize the main points of the first section in Japanese.

① 言語=コミュニケーションの重要な()

↓例えば

学校で:(1)()の話に耳を傾ける
 (2)()
 (3)クラスメイトとの()を楽しむ

家で:()をする

↓

これらの活動すべてにおいて、()が使われる

② しかし、コミュニケーションには()の重要な
 ()がある

↓何か?

()を注意してみると、多くの()に気づく
 ()でもこれらを知っているかもしれない

③ ピクトグラムの3つの例
 (1)左のピクトグラム=()
 (2)中央のピクトグラム=()
 (3)右のピクトグラム=()

Figure 9. Classroom activity 2.

Having students fill in blanks to complete a summary in L2 is seen in the *CROWN* textbook, but a summary in L1 as an exercise is not included in it. Here is the third suggested activity (Figure 10) to make up for its absence and to achieve the second objective. Students work in groups, so that it helps them to accelerate the understanding of the content and to enhance discussion (Antón & DeCamilla, 1999; Bao & Du, 2015; Swain & Lapkin, 2000).

● Fill in the blanks to complete the summary of the third section of Lesson 1.

時にピクトグラムは(①)こともある。あるピクトグラムはあなたにとってあることに見えるだろうが、(②)の誰かにとってはまったく異なるなにかに見えるかもしれない。新しい(③)を学ばなければならないこととちょうど同じように、時に私たちは、新しい(④)の意味を学ぶ必要がある。

いつか(⑤)が(⑥)の役にとって代わるだろうか。いまでさえ、(⑦)は、一文全部、さらには物語を語るために使われているのだ。

Your answers

① _____

⑤ _____

② _____

⑥ _____

③ _____

⑦ _____

④ _____

Figure 10. Classroom activity 3.

In the fourth activity (Figures 11), students try to act as an intermediary in a scene where a visitor, who has come to stay at a host family's house, is trying to understand some of the pictograms used in Japanese maps while the host father or mother explains them in Japanese. The visitor is in the first grade at senior high school and only speaks English. The host father or mother only speaks Japanese and do not speak English. The intermediary, who is the same age as the visitor and speaks both of the languages, tells the meanings of the pictograms explained in Japanese

to the visitor in English. This activity is carried out in a group of three students; one is the visitor, the second is the host father or mother, and the third is the intermediary. Before the start of the activity, one of the groups comes up to the front and shows how the activity goes to the class. The teacher can tell some tips while the group is acting. Useful phrases for each role are projected onto a screen, such as “What is this,” “What does this mean/show/indicate,” and “What is the difference between the two pictograms” for the visitor and “It means/shows/indicate ...” for the intermediary. Each group is provided with a map with some pictograms on it (Figure 11). The teacher could go over the meanings of the pictograms before the start of the activity or after the end of the role-plays, depending on the students’ age and L2 levels. For the purpose of talking between the groups or of activating discussion inside the group, the teacher could check the meanings later. The activity has four stages: (1) The visitor asks what a pictogram means in English by pointing it out on the map, (2) The intermediary tells the father or mother in Japanese what the visitor said in English, (3) The host father or mother explains the meaning in Japanese, and (4) The intermediary tells the Japanese meaning to the visitor in English. When the time is allowed, three or four groups present their role-plays in front of the class.

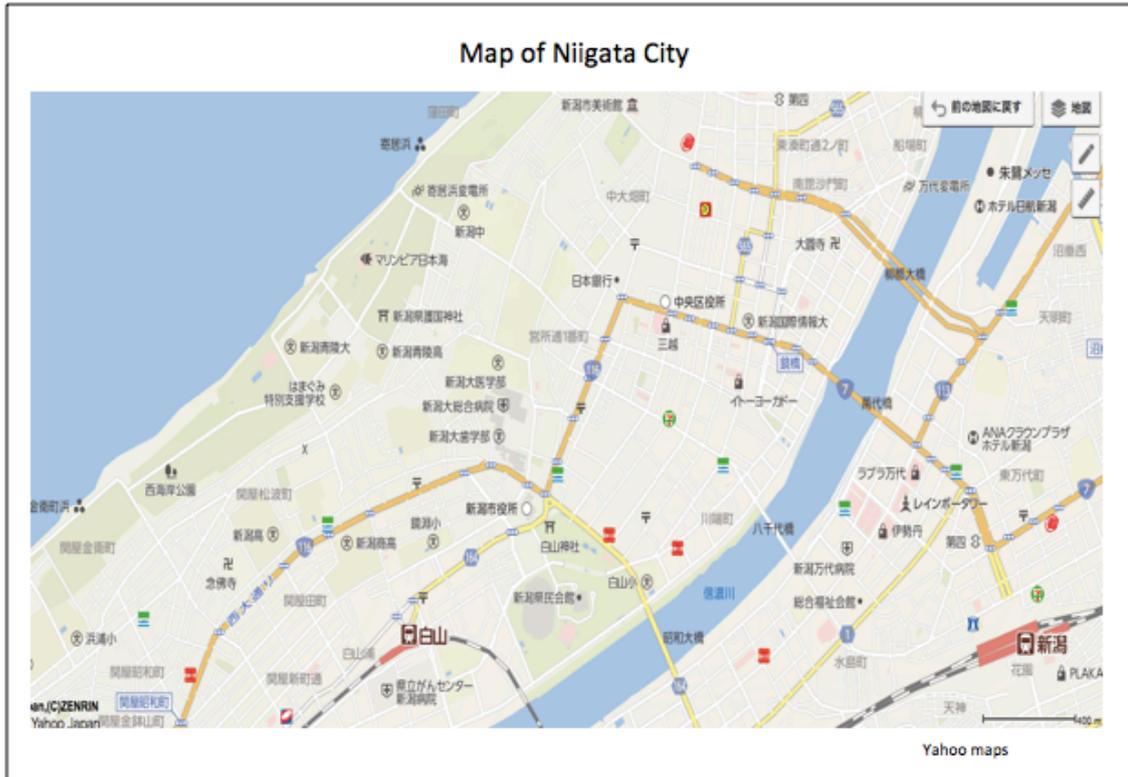


Figure 11. Classroom activity 4.

5.1.4 ASSESSMENT

One of the participants in Study 1 introduced in Chapter 3 mentioned the tension between those who promoted English-only lessons and those who relied on translation exercises. The former group wants no L1-related items on term tests, but the latter claims the opposite.

The author had a similar experience when she was teaching English in two different high schools. In one school, the English teachers told her to use Japanese and translation to have the students understand L2 grammar clearly. This school gave term tests with translation items in them without any disagreement among the teachers. On the other hand, in the other school, the discussion was always there, regarding whether or to what extent translation items were included in term tests. When one of the teachers, who was responsible for creating a test, included one translation item for each section of the test, another teacher told him to cut some of the items because she did not teach translation in her class. Schools have a different stance with regard to

using L1 on term tests, and teachers in one school have a different stance about the L1 use.

The suggested goal, objectives, and classroom activities above justify giving certain L1-related items on term tests for clear purposes. At the same time, they help decrease the number of teachers who rely too much on translating almost every sentence in a textbook into Japanese. In term tests, therefore, items, for which students need to think and write in L1 by explaining specific information of, summarizing, and translating texts appropriate to the students' level, should be provided. For instance, items similar to the classroom activities suggested above can be used for term tests. For Objective D, it should be desirable that a teacher assesses whether one can convey the main points of what is said in a performance assessment inside the classroom. The alignment of curriculum, teaching, and assessment lessens the tension among high school English teachers and leads to another justification of providing L1-related items on the university entrance examinations. Not only the teachers but also high school students engage in such pedagogical translation activities in a serious manner because similar items are given on the entrance examinations and because the activities are useful in their future. As a result, it seems that positive washback effect on high schools is expected.

5.2 SUMMARY OF THE DISSERTATION

This paper has discussed why the L1 use should be put in a justifiable place in the L2 classroom from the perspectives of both theories and practices and from the individual level to the curriculum level.

Chapter 1 explained the start of this research from the author's own experiences as an L2 learner/user. One small question about the L1 use has ended up in a big research theme that needed an enormous amount of research, ranging from the theoretical to empirical literature, part of which was overviewed in Chapter 2. Having read through the research articles, the author found that there were only a few studies that investigated the L1 use in the Japanese context albeit the MEXT's

language policies that seem to promote the monolingual teaching and assessment, which was the start of the first study introduced in Chapter 3. Comparing the results of the four studies with the past literature, Chapter 4 clarified the taxonomy about the L1 use that is comprised of three categories (i.e. pedagogical translation, codeswitching, and self-translation) so that it includes both teachers' and students' actual use of L1 in class. It is hoped that the taxonomy facilitates the open discussion about the roles of L1 and narrows one's research scope about it. As the second and third chapters indicate, the L1 use could mean all activities that involve any use of L1 practiced by teachers, students, and/or bilinguals inside and outside the classroom, which may refer to the negative connotation that the excessive use of L1 entails. Without the taxonomy, the topic of the L1 use is too broad to discuss its positive aspects well enough. Hence, based on the taxonomy, Chapter 5 examined how pedagogical translation could be incorporated in the curriculum goals, objectives, classroom activities, and assessment as Pedagogical Implication.

The L1 use does have negative aspects as discussed in the subsection about the monolingual teaching as well as positive ones. The monolingual teaching also gives both positive and negative influences to the L2 education, though it has been criticized recently from the lens of the bilingual teaching and/or holistic language teaching and learning. It is thus important for educators and teachers to incorporate the judicious L1 use by carefully discussing both positive and negative aspects of the teaching styles that they try to implement in their particular local context, based on students' age, L2 level, L1 level, cultural backgrounds, etc. This paper has only opened the door for localizing the judicious L1 use based on the presented taxonomy.

5.3 FUTURE RESEARCH

Future research can be discussed based on the research limitations shown below.

As indicated in the last subsection, this paper focused on incorporating pedagogical translation into curriculum, teaching, and assessment. Future research needs to focus on the other

aspects of the L1 use in the taxonomy, codeswitching and self-translation, to put them in a valid place in the L2 classroom and for teachers and students to confidently use them without any feelings of regret. In addition, what constitutes the pedagogical translation should be investigated with a focus on which types of pedagogical translation lead to facilitating L2 learning and are needed for future language uses of students who learn L2 under the Japanese school system.

Since the number of participants in the first three studies is relatively small, it is difficult to say that the findings are generalizable and can be used in any local contexts of Japan. Particularly, beliefs are different from teacher to teacher and from student to student, so it can be said that collecting data from as many local schools as possible is needed to make L1 functions clearer and categorize beliefs more accurately.

Last but not least, the presented taxonomy can be revisable to reflect more accurate language practices of L2 learners/users in the EFL context. Specifically, the concept of translanguaging in the context is still new, so there has not yet been abundant research on (1) the difference between codeswitching and translanguaging where there are often only two languages (L1 and L2) existing in class and where the teacher and the students share a common language (L1) in most cases, (2) on the actual language practices of students who learn a foreign language as a school subject, not minority students who learn a second language in the classroom where their classmates have different linguistic and cultural backgrounds from them (García & Wei, 2014), and (3) on how those students evolve their conversations to learn an L2. Due to the above reasons, translanguaging could not be incorporated in the taxonomy. Thus, future research needs further discussion on the above topics ((1) through (3)).

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APPENDIX A1

CROSS-LINGUISTIC MEDIATION ACTIVITIES RELAYING SPECIFIC INFORMATION IN SPEECH

| MEDIATING A TEXT | | TEXT (& DISCOURSE ENVIRONMENT) | | | |
|---|--|--|---|---|---|
| RELAYING SPECIFIC INFORMATION IN SPEECH | | PERSONAL | | PUBLIC | |
| LEVEL | DESCRIPTORS | PERSONAL | PUBLIC | OCCUPATIONAL | EDUCATIONAL |
| C2 | <i>No descriptor available: see C1</i> | | | | |
| C1 | Can explain (in Language B) the relevance of specific information given in a particular section of a long, complex text (written in Language A). | in an article, website, book or talk face-to-face / online concerning current affairs or an area of personal interest or concern | from presentations at public meetings, from public documents explaining policy changes, political speeches | a business report, article, regulation or workplace policy | an article, book, reference book or lecture/presentation |
| | Can relay (in Language B) which presentations given in (Language A) at a conference, which articles in a book (written in Language A) are particularly relevant for a specific purpose. | webtalk / self help group explanations (e.g. how to repair your printer); articles related to a particular theme or current issue of interest | presentations at public meetings, from public documents explaining policy changes a press conference, on various web talk sites, in relation to a particular issue | a trade fair, a professional conference, reports and newspaper articles – in relation to a particular project | an academic conference, various webtalk sites, from academic books and journals – in relation to a particular project |
| B2 | Can relay (in Language B) the main point(s) contained in formal correspondence and/or reports on general subjects and on subjects related to his/her fields of interest (written in Language A). | a notice, announcement, letter or email outlining policies, regulations or procedures related to housing, insurance, rent/mortgages, employment or health care | a notice or announcement made by a public authority or facility like a library, swimming pool, etc. outlining regulations or procedures | a letter, email or notice outlining why a meeting had to be cancelled, whether someone is for or against an idea and why, workplace policies or regulations | a letter, email or notice outlining university policies, procedures or regulations |
| | Can relay (in Language B) the content of public announcements and messages spoken in clear, standard (Language A) at normal speed. | on the radio or TV | in a station, airport, sports stadium, at political rallies/events, alerts, warnings or instructions which may be given at an accident site or construction zone | at a trade fair or conference, at a factory, warehouse, refinery, on a ship, during safety drills | during a university event/lecture, which may take place in a large auditorium |
| B1 | Can relay (in Language B) the contents of detailed instructions or directions, provided these are clearly articulated (in Language A). | on the radio or TV, from a passer-by such as travelroute information, instructions from a friend over the phone on how to get to a party | instructions at airports, stations and on planes, buses and trains or on how to use simple equipment such as a hotel safe; directions on how to get from X to Y, a travel itinerary | instructions given in a meeting on how to perform a work task, or operate simple equipment; instructions, particularly on safety procedures, given at a trade fair or conference, at a factory, warehouse, ship | academic regulations, policies/procedures, course/assignment requirements given by a professor/teacher, instructions given on how to use simple research tools to complete a school task or on how to conduct a simple experiment |

(Council of Europe, 2018, p. 190)

| MEDIATING A TEXT | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|--|---|---|--|--|--------------|-------------|
| RELAYING SPECIFIC INFORMATION IN SPEECH | | | | | | | | |
| LEVEL | DESCRIPTORS | TEXT (& DISCOURSE ENVIRONMENT) | | | PERSONAL | PUBLIC | OCCUPATIONAL | EDUCATIONAL |
| B1 | Can relay (in Language B) specific information given in straightforward informational texts (such as leaflets, brochure entries, notices and letters or emails) (written in Language A). | leaflets, brochures, guidebooks, websites, the details of a housing agreement | leaflets, information panels in museums, galleries, notices identifying immediate public hazards, club/association rules, travel itinerary, the time and place of club/association meeting, information about a sale or promotion | weather reports, train platform changes, how to purchase tickets for an event | possible products that meet a requirement, the terms of a commercial offer, equipment operational instructions, safety procedures | school policies & regulations, a course outline, steps involved in completing an assignment/school task, a list of assignments as well as their criteria, notices, exam regulations, the conditions for participation in an exchange program | | |
| A2+ | Can relay (in Language B) the point made in a clear, spoken announcement (made in Language A) concerning familiar everyday subjects, though he/she may have to simplify the message and search for words. | on the TV or radio, announcements about weddings, births and changes to circumstances | news about how the family is from a personal letter or email | announcements about changes to job responsibilities, information about new workplace procedures | possible products that meet a requirement, safety procedures, location, date & time of a meeting stated in an email/letter | news about school activities from a flyer or leaflet | | |
| A2 | Can relay (in Language B) the point made in short, clear, simple messages, instructions and announcements, provided these are expressed slowly and clearly in simple language (in Language A). | announcements of personal interest such as weddings, births, changes to employment for living circumstances, simple messages left for family or housemates about meeting times or requests to complete a task such as take out the rubbish | at airports, stations and on planes, trains and buses about the route, time of arrival or departure, changes in platform or gate, weather forecasts | simple messages left by customers or colleagues for others, announcements about changes to job procedures | information about a school trip or exchange programme, messages about school opening/closing times in response to inclement weather, information about class tasks or homework | instructions concerning a homework assignment, or a simple experiment | | |
| A2 | Can relay (in Language B) in a simple way a series of short, simple instructions provided the original speech (in Language A) is clearly and slowly articulated. | a recipe, how to use a basic household appliance, how to assemble a piece of furniture | how to get from X to Y, directions provided by a traffic or parking official | how to operate office equipment such as changing the toner on a photocopier or downloading software | | | | |

(Council of Europe, 2018, p. 191)

| MEDIATING A TEXT | | | | | |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| RELAYING SPECIFIC INFORMATION IN SPEECH | | | TEXT (& DISCOURSE ENVIRONMENT) | | |
| LEVEL | DESCRIPTORS | PERSONAL | PUBLIC | OCCUPATIONAL | EDUCATIONAL |
| A1 | Can relay (in Language B) simple, predictable information about times and places given in short, simple statements (spoken in Language A). | TV schedule announcements about upcoming programmes of interest | the location and starting time of an event/performance, travel itineraries | the location and starting/finishing time of a meeting; information about work hours, breaks, the location of toilets, drink machines | the location and timings of a school excursion or after-school activity, location of canteen, toilets and water fountains |
| | Can relay (in Language B) simple instructions about places and times (given in Language A), provided these are repeated very slowly and clearly. | restaurant reservations, dinner invitations including date and time | notices on bulletin boards/walls about when a store opens/closes, the location of the toilets | a meeting location and time from an email | school timetable, the meeting location for a school trip |
| Pre-A1 | Can relay (in Language B) very basic information (e.g. numbers and prices) from short, simple, illustrated texts (written in Language A). | the name, address and phone number of a restaurant, restaurant menus including prices and main ingredients | the name and address of a shop, the prices of goods, timetables, travel itineraries, performance information schedule, seating availability, price, etc. | Not applicable | the location of a school, the cost of a uniform or school supplies, the destination and cost of a school trip, school timetables |

(Council of Europe, 2018, p. 192)

APPENDIX A2

CROSS-LINGUISTIC MEDIATION ACTIVITIES

RELAYING SPECIFIC INFORMATION IN WRITING

| MEDIATING A TEXT | | TEXT (& DISCOURSE ENVIRONMENT) | | | |
|--|--|--|---|--|---|
| RELAYING SPECIFIC INFORMATION IN WRITING | | PERSONAL | PUBLIC | OCCUPATIONAL | EDUCATIONAL |
| LEVEL | DESCRIPTORS | | | | |
| C2 | No descriptor available: see B2+ | | | | |
| C1 | No descriptor available: see B2+ | | | | |
| B2+ | Can relay in writing (in Language B) which presentations at a conference (given in Language A) were relevant, pointing out which would be worth detailed consideration. | Not applicable | from a press conference, on various web talk sites, in relation to a particular issue | from a trade fair, a professional conference, in relation to a particular project | from an academic conference, on various web talk sites, in relation to a particular project |
| | Can relay in writing (in Language B) the relevant point(s) contained in propositionally complex but well-structured texts (written in Language A) within his/her fields of professional, academic and personal interest. | | public regulations such as housing or tax laws, a notice or announcement made by a public authority | from a business report, regulation or workplace policy | information from an article, website, notes taken from a lecture, or a presentation delivered by a university professor |
| B2 | Can relay in writing (in Language B) the relevant point(s) contained in an article (written in Language A) from an academic or professional journal. | | in relation to a particular issue that is the subject of a community meeting | from a report, business article | information from an article, book or journal for a classmate or a professor |
| | Can relay in a written report (in Language B) relevant decisions that were taken in a meeting (in Language A). | | from a club | from a business meeting | of a meeting of student representatives |
| | Can relay in writing the significant point(s) contained in formal correspondence (written in Language A). | a rental agreement, insurance policy for a friend or family member | terms and conditions for a trip or service | in a circular sent to employees, in a letter from a partner giving notice or stating new conditions; in a complaint | in a circular sent by a school principal to parents, in a reply from an organization to a request for information sent during a project |
| B1 | Can relay in writing (in Language B) specific information points contained in texts (spoken in Language A) on familiar subjects (e.g. telephone calls, announcements, and instructions). | a short message, an email to a friend mentioning the reason he/she will be late | a notice or announcement made by a public authority | customer orders, queries or complaints, changes to work schedule or procedures, how to operate office equipment | changes to school opening/closing times as a result of inclement weather, changes to class location or meeting place for a class trip |
| | Can relay in writing (in Language B) specific, relevant information contained in straightforward informational texts (written in Language A) on familiar subjects. | instructions on how to use household appliances taken from a manual, messages for family or housemates sent in an email, information emailed about when and where to meet a friend/family member | from emails, letters about events or schedules | quantities and delivery times from an emailed order, tasks and deadlines for the person concerned from the minutes to a meeting, relevant steps in simple user instructions for a piece of equipment | email instructions about a school trip, a task assignment or details of course requirements taken from a course syllabus |

(Council of Europe, 2018, p. 193)

| MEDIATING A TEXT | | TEXT (& DISCOURSE ENVIRONMENT) | | | |
|--|--|---|--|--|--|
| RELAYING SPECIFIC INFORMATION IN WRITING | | PERSONAL | PUBLIC | OCCUPATIONAL | EDUCATIONAL |
| LEVEL | DESCRIPTORS | PERSONAL | PUBLIC | OCCUPATIONAL | EDUCATIONAL |
| B1 | Can relay in writing (in Language B) specific information given in a straightforward recorded message (left in Language A), provided that the topics concerned are familiar and the delivery is slow and clear. | a message on the time and place of a meeting, a request to complete a household task such as start preparing a meal or take out the garbage | queue at the embassy, to relay spoken announcement by text to a fellow refugee; answering machine: request for call back from an administration or public office, bank | simple customer orders, queries or complaints, telephone message for a colleague, changes to work procedures | about school timetable or schedule changes |
| A2+ | Can relay in writing (in Language B) specific information contained in short simple informational texts (written in Language A), provided the texts concern concrete, familiar subjects and are written in simple everyday language. | from newspapers, instructions on appliances or medicine | brochures, websites, adverts, posters, schedules | about a work task, instructions on how to operate simple equipment, about safety procedures, job requirements posted in an advertisement | about a school task, test or homework assignment found on a course syllabus, how to do a simple experiment in a science class from a handout, about a museum visit or other school trip described on a leaflet |
| A2 | Can list (in Language B) the main points of short, clear, simple messages and announcements (given in Language A) provided that speech is clearly and slowly articulated. | simple telephone messages for family or housemates, announcements of personal interest for family or friends | directions relating to how to get from X to Y, which train platform or flight gate and at what time, about a train delay | telephone message for a colleague, changes to work procedures | school timetables, schedules or opening/closings, task roles as part of a group assignment, homework assigned |
| A2 | Can list (in Language B) specific information contained in simple texts (written in Language A) on everyday subjects of immediate interest or need. | household manuals, instructions on how to prepare a meal | advertisements, prospectuses, brochures, leaflets, travel itineraries, timetables, directions | manuals instructions on how to operate simple equipment, about safety procedures, job requirements posted in an advertisement | textbooks, class readings, about a school task, test or homework assignment, how to do a simple experiment in a science class, about a museum visit or other school trip |
| A1 | Can list (in Language B) names, numbers, prices and very simple information of immediate interest (given in Language A), provided that the speaker articulates very slowly and clearly, with repetition. | from a TV channel repeatedly demonstrating products | announcements about when a store opens/closes | a short, simple telephone message for a colleague | a simple, short telephone message about a change to a timetable, schedule or meeting point |
| Pre A1 | Can list (in Language B) names, numbers, prices and very simple information from texts (written Language A) that are of immediate interest, that are written in very simple language and contain illustrations. | the name, address and phone number of a restaurant, restaurant menus including prices and main ingredients | the name and address of a shop, the prices of goods, timetables, travel itineraries, performance information schedule, seating availability, price, etc. | Not applicable | the location of a school, the cost of a uniform or school supplies, the destination and cost of a school trip, school timetables |

(Council of Europe, 2018, p. 194)

APPENDIX A3

CROSS-LINGUISTIC MEDIATION ACTIVITIES

EXPLAINING DATA IN SPEECH

| MEDIATING A TEXT | | TEXT (& DISCOURSE ENVIRONMENT) | | | |
|--|--|--|--|---|---|
| LEVEL | DESCRIPTORS | PERSONAL | PUBLIC | OCCUPATIONAL | EDUCATIONAL |
| EXPLAINING DATA IN SPEECH (GRAPHS, DIAGRAMS ETC.) | | | | | |
| C2 | Can interpret and describe clearly and reliably (in Language B) various forms of empirical data and visually organised information (with text in Language A) from conceptually complex research concerning academic or professional topics. | diagrams/visual data on topics of personal interest such as medical research or environmental data for family or friends; economic data presented graphically to accompany a newspaper article | diagrams/visual data from corporate or public sector reports that is relevant for a community policy or planning meeting; data included in presentations at public meetings | detailed analysis of financial, market survey or government diagrams/visual data presented in a meeting | diagrams/visual data from published academic research or collected as part of a research project presented in a lecture or academic conference / roundtable event |
| C1 | Can interpret and describe clearly and reliably (in Language B) the salient points and details contained in complex diagrams and other visually organised information (with text in Language A) on complex, academic or professional topics. | a diagram in an article of personal interest; a process diagram for a household device or piece of leisure software, explained to a friend or family member | diagrams/visuals from corporate or public sector reports that is relevant for a community policy or planning meeting | graphs, charts and tables referenced in employee training or company reports | visual data included in published academic research or collected as part of a research project presented in a lecture or academic conference / roundtable event |
| B2 | Can interpret and describe reliably (in Language B) detailed information contained in complex diagrams, charts and other visually organised information (with text in Language A) on topics in his/her fields of interest. | trends represented in household bills or personal finances, explained to a friend or family member | weather report (statistics & trends) when determining the best dates for a community event; basic financial trends presented during a community/club meeting; diagrammatic displays in a science museum | trends represented in a graph or bar chart during a business meeting or responsibilities represented in an organogram of a company used for employee training | graphs, bar charts or diagrams in a formal class presentation, at secondary school / college / university |
| B1+ | Can interpret and describe (in Language B) detailed information in diagrams in his/her fields of interest (with text in Language A), even though lexical gaps may cause hesitation or imprecise formulation. | a weather map consulted when planning outdoor activities, the main features of a household device shown in a diagram, identified to a friend or family member | historic weather data when determining the best dates for a community event; basic financial trends presented during a community or club meeting; a bus or metro route map, or a floor plan of a building or shopping centre | general trends found in graphs, bar charts or diagrams, used in pair or group work at secondary school / college / university | features of graphs, bar charts or diagrams such as population/ weather changes over time, used in pair or group work at secondary school / college / university |
| B1 | Can interpret and describe (in Language B) overall trends shown in simple diagrams (e.g. graphs, bar charts) (with text in Language A), even though lexical limitations cause difficulty with formulation at times. | Can interpret and describe (in Language B) simple visuals on familiar topics (e.g. a weather map, a basic flow chart) (with text in Language A), even though pauses, false starts and reformulation may be very evident in speech. | | | |
| A2+ | | | | | |
| A2 | No descriptor available | | | | |
| A1 | No descriptor available | | | | |
| Pre-A1 | No descriptor available | | | | |

(Council of Europe, 2018, p. 195)

APPENDIX A4

CROSS-LINGUISTIC MEDIATION ACTIVITIES

EXPLAINING DATA IN WRITING

| MEDIATING A TEXT | | TEXT (& DISCOURSE ENVIRONMENT) | | | |
|--|--|--|---|---|---|
| LEVEL | DESCRIPTORS | PERSONAL | PUBLIC | OCCUPATIONAL | EDUCATIONAL |
| EXPLAINING DATA IN WRITING (GRAPHS, DIAGRAMS ETC.) | | | | | |
| C2 | Can interpret and present in writing (in Language B) various forms of empirical data (with text in Language A) from conceptually complex research concerning academic or professional topics. | Not applicable | Not applicable | data from an end of year company financial report or market research report or from research and development activities for senior management or a corporate report | as part of a PhD thesis or masters dissertation which includes empirical data |
| C1 | Can interpret and present clearly and reliably in writing (in Language B) the salient, relevant points contained in complex diagrams and other visually organised data (with text in Language A) on complex academic or professional topics. | diagrams/visual data on topics of personal interest such as medical research or environmental data for family or friends; economic data presented graphically to accompany a newspaper article | diagrams/visuals from corporate or public sector reports that is relevant for a community policy or planning meeting; data included in presentations at public meetings | detailed analysis of financial, market survey or government diagrams/visual data presented in a meeting | visual data included in published academic research or collected as part of a research project presented in a lecture or academic conference / roundtable event |
| B2 | Can interpret and present reliably in writing (in Language B) detailed information from diagrams and visually organised data in his fields of interest (with text in Language A). | instructions and diagram left for a house sitter to operate a complex appliance | health and safety procedure for instance at a hospital, in a factory, library, etc. | an internal (company) report/memo on the significant points contained in a visual attachment such as a graph, bar chart or numeric table | written assignment accompanying technical visual information provided for a school or university project |
| B1+ | Can interpret and present in writing (in Language B) the overall trends shown in simple diagrams (e.g. graphs, bar charts) (with text in Language A), explaining the important points in more detail, given the help of a dictionary or other reference materials. | trends represented in household bills or personal finances, for family members | simple weather data or basic financial data posted as part of an online discussion for a community or club event | an email describing the main features of a visual attachment such as a graph or bar chart | a simple class assignment summarising survey, demographic or data |
| B1 | Can describe in simple sentences (in Language B) the main facts shown in visuals on familiar topics (e.g. a weather map, a basic flow chart) (with text in Language A). | an email giving simple local directions represented on an accompanying map | simple demographic or information or trends posted on an online community /club discussion forum | instructions for a simple office procedure represented in a flow chart | a simple written narrative accompanying a picture or pictures as a classroom assignment |
| A2 | No descriptor available | | | | |
| A1 | No descriptor available | | | | |
| Pre-A1 | No descriptor available | | | | |

(Council of Europe, 2018, p. 196)

APPENDIX A5

CROSS-LINGUISTIC MEDIATION ACTIVITIES

PROCESSING TEXT IN SPEECH

| MEDIATING A TEXT | | TEXT (& DISCOURSE) | | | | EDUCATIONAL |
|------------------|--|--|---|---|--|-------------|
| LEVEL | DESCRIPTORS | PERSONAL | PUBLIC | OCCUPATIONAL | EDUCATIONAL | |
| C2 | <p>Can explain (in Language B) inferences when links or implications are not made explicit (in Language A), and point out sociocultural implications of the speaker/writer's form of expression (e.g. understatement, irony, sarcasm).</p> <p>Can summarise in Language B) long, demanding texts (in Language A).</p> <p>Can summarise (in Language B) discussion (in Language A) on matters within his/her academic or professional competence, elaborating and weighing up different points of view and identifying the most significant points.</p> <p>Can summarise clearly in well-structured speech (in Language B) the main points made in complex spoken and written texts (in Language A).in fields of specialisation other than his/her own, although he/she may occasionally check particular technical concepts.</p> | <p>discussions, current affairs programmes, books, newspaper articles, commentaries and editorials, specialised articles, or other publications addressed to a general educated readership</p> <p>current affairs programmes, articles in a magazine or newspaper</p> <p>discussions, current affairs programmes,</p> <p>newspaper editorials and commentaries, TV news and current affairs programmes</p> | <p>contributions at a town hall meeting, a public debate/lecture, a forum discussion, a political meeting, a political tract, a public policy document, a legal opinion, a political speech</p> <p>a forum discussion involving several participants, political speeches, sermons, opinions and documents</p> <p>a forum discussion involving several participants</p> <p>laws, public legal documents, regulations, presentations, speeches, sermons</p> | <p>presentation at a conference, seminar or meeting, a professional publication, a technical report, a press statement or conference</p> <p>a presentation at a conference, seminar or meeting, a report, contract, regulations</p> <p>a meeting or seminar</p> <p>a technical report addressed to a specialized audience, a business letter, a contract, a regulation, conference presentations</p> <p>presentation at a conference, seminar or meeting, a professional publication, a technical report, a press statement or conference</p> | <p>a lecture at an academic conference, web talks, instructional material, textbooks, papers in academic journals, reference books</p> <p>a web talk, a lecture at an academic conference or seminar, academic articles and books</p> <p>a forum discussion, round table or colloquium involving several participants</p> <p>instructional material, a textbook, a reader, a dictionary, a paper in an academic journal, lectures, conference presentations and discussions, web talks</p> <p>a lecture at an academic conference, web talks, instructional material, textbooks, papers in academic journals, reference books</p> <p>instructional material, a textbook, a reader, a paper in an academic journal, lectures, conference presentations and discussions, web talks</p> | |
| C1 | <p>Can explain (in Language B) subtle distinctions in the presentation of facts and arguments (in Language A).</p> <p>Can exploit information and arguments from a complex spoken or written text (in Language A) to talk about a topic (in Language B), glossing with evaluative comments, adding his/her opinion, etc.</p> <p>Can explain (in Language B) the attitude or opinion expressed in a spoken or written text (in Language A) on a specialised topic, supporting inferences he/she makes with reference to specific passages in the original.</p> | <p>discussions, current affairs programmes, books, newspaper articles, commentaries and editorials, specialised articles, or other publications addressed to a general educated readership</p> <p>books, newspaper articles, commentaries and editorials, specialised articles; TV news and current affairs programmes, talk shows</p> <p>books, newspaper articles, commentaries and editorials, specialised articles; TV news and current affairs programmes, talk shows</p> | <p>contributions at a town hall meeting, a public debate/lecture, a forum discussion, a political meeting, a political tract, a public policy document, a legal opinion, a political speech</p> <p>a political tract, a public policy document; a forum discussion, presentation, a political speech, sermon</p> | <p>presentation at a conference, seminar or meeting, a professional publication, a technical report, a press statement or conference</p> <p>technical reports, professional articles, specifications, contracts</p> | <p>a lecture at an academic conference, web talks, instructional material, textbooks, papers in academic journals, reference books</p> <p>instructional material, a textbook, a reader, a paper in an academic journal, lectures, conference presentations and discussions, web talks</p> | |

(Council of Europe, 2018, p. 197)

| MEDIATING A TEXT | | | | | |
|---------------------------|---|---|---|--|--|
| PROCESSING TEXT IN SPEECH | | | | | |
| LEVEL | DESCRIPTORS | TEXT (& DISCOURSE) | | | |
| | | PERSONAL | PUBLIC | OCCUPATIONAL | EDUCATIONAL |
| B2+ | <p>Can summarise (in Language B) the important points made in longer, complex, live spoken texts (in Language A) on subjects of current interest, including his/her fields of special interest.</p> <p>Can summarise (in Language B) the main points of complex discussions (in Language A), weighing up the different points of view presented.</p> <p>Can synthesise and report (in Language B) information and arguments from a number of spoken and/or written sources (in Language A).</p> <p>Can summarise (in Language B) a wide range of factual and imaginative texts (in Language A), commenting on and discussing contrasting points of view and the main themes.</p> <p>Can summarise (in Language B) the important points made in longer, spoken and written complex texts (in Language A) on subjects of current interest, including his/her fields of special interest.</p> | <p>a discussion on family occasions, TV news and current affairs programmes, talk shows</p> <p>on current affairs: web talk or interview, TV news and analysis, documentaries, articles</p> <p>books, newspaper articles, commentaries and editorials, specialised articles, or other publications addressed to a general educated readership</p> <p>from websites, current affairs programmes, documentaries; newspaper articles and editorials</p> <p>in an informal discussion with friends, chat through the social media</p> <p>in an informal discussion with friends</p> <p>long telephone calls, TV current affairs programmes, documentaries, web talks</p> <p>discussions with friends, documentaries, short narratives, articles in newspaper or magazines</p> | <p>presentations, (political) speeches, sermons</p> <p>a formal discussion among several participants</p> <p>at a town hall or political meeting; news items, interviews or documentaries on the issue at hand</p> <p>a political tract, a public policy document, a novel, short story</p> <p>a political tract, a public policy document</p> <p>in interviews, announcements, policy statements</p> <p>an informal discussion in a public place such as an airport or a restaurant</p> <p>Not applicable</p> <p>speeches, talks at public meetings</p> <p>a talk at a public meeting, an interview, public notices</p> <p>public notices and announcements, notes from meetings, relevant reports in newspapers and magazines</p> | <p>conference presentations</p> <p>in meetings, briefing or orientation sessions</p> <p>in a report, at a meeting: media coverage of a company announcement/policy/incident session</p> <p>technical reports, professional articles, specifications, contracts</p> <p>technical reports, professional articles, specifications, contracts</p> <p>presentations at conferences, reports, specialised articles</p> <p>in team or strategy meetings</p> <p>Not applicable</p> <p>a presentation or lecture, relevant documentaries or current affairs programmes</p> <p>presentations or discussions at conferences, seminars or meetings, - newspaper articles</p> <p>reports, meetings, letters and emails, notes from meetings, press coverage</p> | <p>lectures, conference presentations and discussions, web talks</p> <p>a panel at an academic conference involving several speakers</p> <p>when undertaking a project: web talks, lectures, vox pop interviews, surveys, blogs, documentaries</p> <p>papers in academic journals, reference books, novels, short stories</p> <p>papers in academic journals, reference books</p> <p>talks by visiting speakers, web sites and web talks, documentaries, articles</p> <p>as part of a group project</p> <p>in a lesson, as part of a project</p> <p>university lectures, relevant documentaries or current affairs programmes, web talks</p> <p>web talks, documentaries and articles of academic relevance, short narratives</p> <p>web talks, instructions for carrying out tasks, articles on related topic</p> |
| B2 | <p>Can recognise the intended audience of a spoken or written text (in Language A) on a topic of interest and explain (in Language B) the purpose, attitudes and opinion of the author.</p> <p>Can summarise (in Language B) extracts from news items, interviews or documentaries containing opinions, argument and discussion sources (in Language A).</p> <p>Can summarise and comment (in Language B) on the plot and sequence of events in a film or play (in Language A).</p> <p>Can summarise (in Language B) the main points made in long spoken texts (in Language A) on topics in his/her fields of interest, provided that standard language is used and that he/she can check the meaning of certain expressions.</p> <p>Can summarise (in Language B) a short narrative or article, a talk, discussion, interview or documentary (in Language A) (in Language A) and answer further questions about details.</p> <p>Can collate short pieces of information from several sources (in Language A) and summarise them (in Language B) for somebody else.</p> | <p>in an informal discussion with friends, chat through the social media</p> <p>in an informal discussion with friends</p> <p>long telephone calls, TV current affairs programmes, documentaries, web talks</p> <p>discussions with friends, documentaries, short narratives, articles in newspaper or magazines</p> <p>informal discussions, prospectuses, advertisements, programmes in theatres, song lyrics</p> | <p>in interviews, announcements, policy statements</p> <p>an informal discussion in a public place such as an airport or a restaurant</p> <p>Not applicable</p> <p>speeches, talks at public meetings</p> <p>a talk at a public meeting, an interview, public notices</p> <p>public notices and announcements, notes from meetings, relevant reports in newspapers and magazines</p> | <p>presentations at conferences, reports, specialised articles</p> <p>in team or strategy meetings</p> <p>Not applicable</p> <p>a presentation or lecture, relevant documentaries or current affairs programmes</p> <p>presentations or discussions at conferences, seminars or meetings, - newspaper articles</p> <p>reports, meetings, letters and emails, notes from meetings, press coverage</p> | <p>talks by visiting speakers, web sites and web talks, documentaries, articles</p> <p>as part of a group project</p> <p>in a lesson, as part of a project</p> <p>university lectures, relevant documentaries or current affairs programmes, web talks</p> <p>web talks, documentaries and articles of academic relevance, short narratives</p> <p>web talks, instructions for carrying out tasks, articles on related topic</p> |
| B1+ | <p>Can summarise (in Language B) a short narrative or article, a talk, discussion, interview or documentary (in Language A) (in Language A) and answer further questions about details.</p> <p>Can collate short pieces of information from several sources (in Language A) and summarise them (in Language B) for somebody else.</p> | <p>discussions with friends, documentaries, short narratives, articles in newspaper or magazines</p> <p>informal discussions, prospectuses, advertisements, programmes in theatres, song lyrics</p> | <p>in interviews, announcements, policy statements</p> <p>an informal discussion in a public place such as an airport or a restaurant</p> <p>Not applicable</p> <p>speeches, talks at public meetings</p> <p>a talk at a public meeting, an interview, public notices</p> <p>public notices and announcements, notes from meetings, relevant reports in newspapers and magazines</p> | <p>presentations at conferences, reports, specialised articles</p> <p>in team or strategy meetings</p> <p>Not applicable</p> <p>a presentation or lecture, relevant documentaries or current affairs programmes</p> <p>presentations or discussions at conferences, seminars or meetings, - newspaper articles</p> <p>reports, meetings, letters and emails, notes from meetings, press coverage</p> | <p>talks by visiting speakers, web sites and web talks, documentaries, articles</p> <p>as part of a group project</p> <p>in a lesson, as part of a project</p> <p>university lectures, relevant documentaries or current affairs programmes, web talks</p> <p>web talks, documentaries and articles of academic relevance, short narratives</p> <p>web talks, instructions for carrying out tasks, articles on related topic</p> |

(Council of Europe, 2018, p. 198)

| MEDIATING A TEXT | | | | | |
|---------------------------|--|---|---|---|--|
| PROCESSING TEXT IN SPEECH | | | | | |
| LEVEL | DESCRIPTORS | PERSONAL | PUBLIC | OCCUPATIONAL | EDUCATIONAL |
| | Can summarise (in Language B) the main points made in clear, well-structured spoken and written texts (in Language A) on subjects that are familiar or of personal interest, although his/her lexical limitations cause difficulty with formulation at times. | personal letters, short articles, brochures, advertisements | short articles, short official letters, public statements and notices, regulations, leaflets, event programmes | presentations and demonstrations, reports, business letters | talks by visiting speakers, web talks, descriptions, narratives, text book entries, websites, news summaries, short articles |
| | Can summarise simply (in Language B) the main information content of straightforward texts (in Language A) on familiar subjects (e.g. a short written interview or magazine article, a travel brochure). | a short written interview or magazine article, a travel brochure, letters, emails, newspaper news summaries | | reports, business letters and emails | descriptions, narratives, text book entries, websites, news summaries, short articles |
| B1 | Can summarise (in Language B) the main points made during a conversation (in Language A) on a subject of personal or current interest, provided that the speakers articulated clearly in standard language. | a conversation exchanging news and talking about plans, news exchanged at a wedding | points made in informal conversation with a public official | a consultation with an expert, an auditor, a consultant | what an authority consulted said in relation to a request, what a person interviewed for a project said |
| | Can summarise (in Language B) the main points made in long texts (delivered orally in Language A) on topics in his/her fields of interest, provided that standard language is used and that he/she can listen several times. | long telephone calls, TV current affairs programmes, documentaries, web talks | speeches, talks at public meetings | a presentation or lecture, a round table discussion, relevant documentaries or current affairs programmes | university lectures, relevant documentaries or current affairs programmes, web talks |
| | Can summarise (in Language B) the main points or events in TV programmes and video clips (in Language A), provided he/she can view them several times. | a scene in a film, novella or sitcom | a current affairs programme on the subject of a public meeting | a news extract, interview or public statement relevant to the institution | a scene in a documentary, an interview |
| | Can report (in Language B) the main points made in simple TV or radio news items (in Language A) reporting events, sports, accidents, etc., provided that the topics concerned are familiar and the delivery is slow and clear. | in an informal discussion with friends, chat through the social media | an informal discussion in a public place such as an airport or a restaurant | Non applicable | as part of a project involving collecting information from media sources |
| A2+ | Can report in simple sentences (in Language B) the information contained in clearly structured, short, simple texts (written in Language A) that have illustrations or tables. | 'who, when, where' information in a news item | options for a concert or sport event, information in notices and posters, timetables, graffiti, programmes, tickets | the details of a work schedule | an illustrated story, a simple informational text about a country, with tables of information |
| A2 | Can summarise (in Language B) the main point(s) in simple, short informational texts (in Language A) on familiar topics. | 'who, when, where' information in a news item, website/brochure descriptions, simple guide entries | information panels in museums, institutional leaflets – hospital, police | reports of annual financial performance | details of tasks and assignments, descriptions of courses or examinations |
| A1 | Can convey (in Language B) the main point(s) contained in clearly structured, short, simple spoken and written texts (in Language A), supplementing his/her limited repertoire with other means (e.g. gestures, drawings, words from other languages) in order to do so. | weather reports, very simple assembly instructions | information about times and prices of transport, availability of services | Not applicable | weather reports, short illustrated descriptions of places, very simple picture stories |
| Pre-A1 | No descriptor available | | | | |
| | No descriptor available | | | | |

(Council of Europe, 2018, p. 199)

APPENDIX A6

CROSS-LINGUISTIC MEDIATION ACTIVITIES

PROCESSING TEXT IN WRITING

| MEDIATING A TEXT | | TEXT (& DISCOURSE ENVIRONMENT) | | | |
|------------------|--|---|--|---|---|
| LEVEL | DESCRIPTORS | PERSONAL | PUBLIC | OCCUPATIONAL | EDUCATIONAL |
| C2 | Can explain in writing (in Language B) the way facts and arguments are presented in a text (in Language A), particularly when someone else's position is being reported, drawing attention to the writer's use of understatement, veiled criticism, irony, and sarcasm. Can summarise information from different sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation of the overall result. | discussions, current affairs programmes, books, newspaper articles, commentaries and editorials, specialised articles, or other publications addressed to a general educated readership | contributions at a town hall meeting, a public debate, a forum discussion, a political meeting, a political tract, a public policy document, a legal opinion | presentation at a conference, seminar or meeting, a professional publication, a technical report, a conference | a lecture at an academic conference, web talks, instructional material, textbooks, papers in academic journals, reference books |
| C1 | Can summarise in writing long, complex texts, interpreting the content appropriately, provided that he/she can occasionally check the precise meaning of unusual, technical terms. Can summarise in writing a long and complex text (e.g. academic or political analysis article, novel extract, editorial, literary review, report, or extract from a scientific book) for a specific audience, respecting the style and register of the original. | discussions, current affairs programmes, books, newspaper articles, commentaries and editorials, specialised articles, or other publications addressed to a general educated readership | contributions at a town hall meeting, a public debate, a forum discussion, a political meeting, a political tract, a public policy document | presentation at a conference, seminar or meeting, a professional publication, a technical report, a conference | a lecture at an academic conference, web talks, instructional material, textbooks, papers in academic journals |
| B2+ | Can summarise in writing (in Language B) the main content of well-structured but propositionally complex spoken and written texts (in Language A) on subjects within his/her fields of professional, academic and personal interest. Can compare, contrast and synthesise in writing (in Language B) the information and viewpoints contained in academic and professional publications (in Language A) in his/her fields of special interest. | a discussion on family occasions, TV news and current affairs programmes, talk shows Not applicable | presentations, speeches, sermons public policy documents | conference presentations professional journals and newspapers, policy documents, technical reports | lectures, conference presentations and discussions, web talks academic articles, reviews, books |
| B2 | Can explain in writing (in Language B) the viewpoint articulated in a complex text (in Language A), supporting inferences he/she makes with reference to specific information in the original. Can summarise in writing (in Language B) the main content of complex spoken and written texts (in Language A) on subjects related to his/her fields of interest and specialisation. | documentaries, current affairs programmes, articles in a magazine or newspaper, novels, short stories, plays | a forum discussion involving several participants, blogs, speeches, sermons, legal pleas, opinions and documents, policy documents | a presentation at a conference, seminar, meeting, briefing session or press conference, a report, contract, regulations, articles | a web talk, a lecture, an academic seminar, academic papers and books, novels, short stories, plays |
| B1+ | Can summarise in writing (in Language B) the information and arguments contained in texts (in Language A) on subjects of general or personal interest. | documentaries, current affairs programmes, articles in a magazine or newspaper, novels, short stories, plays | a forum discussion involving several participants, blogs, speeches, sermons, legal pleas, opinions and documents, policy documents | a presentation at a conference, seminar, meeting, briefing session or press conference, a report, contract, regulations, articles | a web talk, a lecture, an academic seminar, academic papers and books, novels, short stories, plays |

(Council of Europe, 2018, p. 200)

| | | | | |
|--|---|---|--|---|
| <p>Can summarise in writing (in Language B) the main points made in straightforward informational spoken texts (in Language A) on subjects that are of personal or current interest, provided spoken texts are delivered in clearly articulated standard speech.</p> | <p>a telephone call, a web talk, news bulletins, documentaries, personal letters, informational brochures, short articles</p> | <p>a presentation at a public meeting, public statements or notices</p> | <p>a video-recorded presentation at a meeting, a briefing session for a task, reports and business letters</p> | <p>an orientation session, instructions for an assignment a talk by a visiting speaker, narratives and short articles</p> |
| <p>B1</p> <p>Can summarise in writing (in Language B) the main points made in straightforward informational written texts (in Language A) on subjects that are of personal or current interest.</p> <p>Can paraphrase short written passages in a simple fashion, using the original text wording and ordering.</p> | <p>personal letters, short articles, brochures, advertisements, website texts</p> | <p>short official letters, public statements and notices, regulations, leaflets providing information about changes to services, event programmes</p> | <p>reports, business letters</p> | <p>narratives, text book entries, websites, news summaries, short articles</p> |
| <p>A2+</p> <p>Can list as a series of bullet points (in Language B) the relevant information contained in short simple texts (in Language A), provided that the texts concern concrete, familiar subjects and are written in simple everyday language.</p> <p>Can pick out and reproduce key words and phrases or short sentences from a short text within the learner's limited competence and experience</p> | <p>"who, when, where" information in a news item, website/brochure descriptions, simple guide entries</p> | <p>information panels in museums, institutional leaflets – hospital, police</p> | <p>notices, regulations, instructions for a task</p> | <p>details of tasks and assignments, descriptions of courses or examinations, textbook extracts</p> |
| <p>A2</p> <p>Can use simple language to render in (Language B) very short texts written in (Language A) on familiar and everyday themes that contain the highest frequency vocabulary; despite errors, the text remains comprehensible.</p> <p>Can copy out short texts in printed or clearly hand-written format.</p> | <p>letters with news</p> | <p>public notices, guidebook entries</p> | <p>simple work instructions such as how to change the ink on a printer</p> | <p>simple, short narratives, general academic regulations such as for an exam</p> |
| <p>A1</p> <p>Can, with the help of a dictionary, render in (Language B) simple phrases written in (Language A), but may not always select the appropriate meaning.</p> <p>Can copy out single words and short texts presented in standard printed format.</p> | <p>letters with news</p> | <p>public notices, transportation information</p> | <p>simple instructions and reports on subjects in his/her field</p> | <p>simple narratives, academic regulations</p> |
| <p>Pre-A1</p> <p>No descriptor available</p> | | | | |

(Council of Europe, 2018, p. 201)

APPENDIX A7

CROSS-LINGUISTIC MEDIATION ACTIVITIES

TRANSLATING A WRITTEN TEXT IN SPEECH

| MEDIATING A TEXT | | TEXT (& DISCOURSE ENVIRONMENT) | | | |
|--------------------------------------|--|--|---|---|--|
| TRANSLATING A WRITTEN TEXT IN SPEECH | | PERSONAL | PUBLIC | OCCUPATIONAL | EDUCATIONAL |
| LEVEL | DESCRIPTORS | PERSONAL | PUBLIC | OCCUPATIONAL | EDUCATIONAL |
| C2 | Can provide fluent spoken translation into (Language B) of abstract texts written in (Language A) on a wide range of subjects of personal, academic and professional interest, successfully conveying evaluative aspects and arguments, including the nuances and implications associated with them. | specialized magazine articles and reports on matters of personal interest | public policy document, declarations, rules or regulations | professional publications, technical reports, contracts, press releases | academic projects and related documents |
| C1 | Can provide fluent spoken translation into (Language B) of complex written texts written in (Language A) on a wide range of general and specialised topics, capturing most nuances. | | | | |
| B2 | Can provide spoken translation into (Language B) of complex texts written in (Language A) containing information and arguments on subjects within his/her fields of professional, academic and personal interest. | newspaper or magazine articles on current issues of personal interest | texts accompanying artworks at a museum or exhibition, municipal regulations such as recycling, parking, etc. | a technical reports related to his/her profession | academic regulations of information e.g. on paper writing conventions |
| B1+ | Can provide spoken translation into (Language B) of texts written in (Language A) containing information and arguments on subjects within his/her fields of professional, academic and personal interest, provided that they are written in uncomplicated, standard language. | | | | |
| B1 | Can provide an approximate spoken translation into (Language B) of clear, well-structured informational texts written in (Language A) on subjects that are familiar or of personal interest, although his/her lexical limitations cause difficulty with formulation at times. | emails or letters with news from friends/relatives | simple reports such as a witness statement to an accident | a CV and presentation letter from a job or internship applicant | brochure(s) describing extracurricular activities available including conditions |
| A2+ | Can provide an approximate spoken translation into (Language B) of short, simple everyday texts (e.g. brochure entries, notices, instructions, letters or emails) written in (Language A). | | notices about changes to public services such as parking regulations or rubbish collection | an extended CV and presentation letter from a job or internship applicant | |
| A2 | Can provide a simple, rough, spoken translation into (Language B) of short, simple texts (e.g. notices on familiar subjects) written in (Language A), capturing the most essential point. | labels on food products or electronic devices, instructions on how to use a medicine | instructions on how to purchase a travel card | basic health and safety regulations at the work place | notices on books or course/class exchanges |
| A1 | Can provide a simple, rough spoken translation into (Language B) of routine information on familiar everyday subjects that is written in simple sentences in (Language A) (e.g. personal news, short narratives, directions, notices or instructions). | personal news in emails and letters | directions, notices, information on posters | notices, instructions, basic health and safety regulations | exam instructions |
| A1 | Can provide a simple, rough spoken translation into (Language B) of simple, everyday words and phrases written in (Language A) that are encountered on signs and notices, posters, programmes, leaflets etc. | Not applicable | signs and notices, posters, programmes, leaflets, etc. | signs and notices, posters, leaflets, etc. | signs and notices, posters, timetables |
| Pre-A1 | No descriptors available | | | | |

(Council of Europe, 2018, p. 202)

APPENDIX A8

CROSS-LINGUISTIC MEDIATION ACTIVITIES

TRANSLATING A WRITTEN TEXT IN WRITING

| MEDIATING A TEXT | | TEXT (& DISCOURSE ENVIRONMENT) | | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|--|---|--|--|
| TRANSLATING WRITTEN TEXT IN WRITING | | PERSONAL | PUBLIC | OCCUPATIONAL | EDUCATIONAL |
| LEVEL | DESCRIPTORS | PERSONAL | PUBLIC | OCCUPATIONAL | EDUCATIONAL |
| C2 | Can translate into (Language B) technical material outside his/her field of specialisation written in (Language A), provided subject matter accuracy is checked by a specialist in the field concerned. | letters, newspaper articles, commentaries and editorials, specialised articles, or other publications addressed to a general educated readership | a political tract, a public policy document, a legal opinion | professional publications, technical reports, contracts, press releases | an academic paper |
| C1 | Can translate into (Language B) abstract texts on social, academic and professional subjects in his/her field written in (Language A), successfully conveying evaluative aspects and arguments, including many of the implications associated with them, though some expression may be over-influenced by the original. | letters, articles in a magazine or newspaper, short stories | speeches, sermons, policy documents | scientific, technical, financial or project reports, regulations, articles and other professional publications | academic papers and books, literary criticism |
| B2+ | Can produce clearly organised translations from (Language A) into (Language B) that reflect normal language usage but may be over-influenced by the order, paragraphing, punctuation and particular formulations of the original. | letters, articles in a magazine or newspaper, some colloquial writings | | | academic papers and books, novels, short stories, plays |
| B2 | Can produce translations into (Language B), which closely follow the sentence and paragraph structure of the original text in (Language A), conveying the main points of the source text accurately, though the translation may read awkwardly. | letters with news, articles of general interest | public documents describing general regulations, guidebook entries, statements of opinion | straightforward letters, instructions, reports on subjects in his/her field | straightforward narratives, general academic regulations |
| B1+ | Can produce approximate translations from (Language A) into (Language B) of straightforward, factual texts that are written in uncomplicated, standard language, closely following the structure of the original; although linguistic errors may occur the translation remains comprehensible. | | | straightforward letters, instructions, reports on subjects in his/her field | |
| B1 | Can produce approximate translations from (Language A) into (Language B) of information contained in short, factual texts written in uncomplicated, standard language, despite errors, the translation remains comprehensible. | letters with news | public notices, guidebook entries | | general academic regulations |
| A2 | Can use simple language to provide an approximate translation from (Language A) into (Language B) of very short texts on familiar and everyday themes that contain the highest frequency vocabulary; despite errors, the translation remains comprehensible. | | | simple work instructions such as how to change the ink on a printer | simple, short narratives, general academic regulations such as for an exam |
| A1 | Can, with the help of a dictionary, translate simple words and phrases from (Language A) into (Language B), but may not always select the appropriate meaning. | | public notices, transportation information | simple instructions and reports on subjects in his/her field | simple narratives, academic regulations |
| Pre-A1 | No descriptors available | | | | |

(Council of Europe, 2018, p. 203)

APPENDIX A9

CROSS-LINGUISTIC MEDIATION ACTIVITIES

ACTING AS INTERMEDIARY IN INFORMAL SITUATIONS

| MEDIATING COMMUNICATION | | SITUATION (& ROLES) | | | |
|--|--|---|--|---|---|
| LEVEL | DESCRIPTORS | PERSONAL | PUBLIC | OCCUPATIONAL | EDUCATIONAL |
| ACTING AS INTERMEDIARY IN INFORMAL SITUATIONS (WITH FRIENDS AND COLLEAGUES) | | | | | |
| C2 | Can communicate in clear, fluent, well-structured (Language B) the sense of what is said in (Language A) on a wide range of general and specialised topics, maintaining appropriate style and register, conveying finer shades of meaning and elaborating on sociocultural implications. | in a discussion with friends/relatives, guests/hosts about e.g. politics, literature at a gathering with guests, | during a public lecture, at a political rally or meeting, at a (religious) ceremony | at a management meeting, a social or cultural event during a work-related visit in another country | at a school event such as an awards evening with parents, at welcome address or presentation to visiting guests from other schools, in webinars, debates and discussions |
| C1 | Can communicate fluently in (Language B) the sense of what is said in (Language A) on a wide range of subjects of personal, academic and professional interest, conveying significant information clearly and concisely as well as explaining cultural references. | interpretation, at a formal gathering with guests, of complex ceremonies, statements, conversations, or discussions | | during discussions on organisational matters such as international conferences or events, contract negotiations | during an interview as part of a research project, at a conference or seminar |
| B2+ | Can mediate (between Language A and Language B), conveying detailed information, drawing the attention of both sides to background information and sociocultural cues, and posing clarification and follow-up questions or statements as necessary. | with visiting guests / relatives from another country | at a public meeting, at an intercultural event | with visiting partners or clients, in a discussion in an international team about organisation, project and resource planning | in a parent-teacher meeting to discuss a child's school performance, of an academic on their specialised field |
| B2 | Can communicate in (Language B) the sense of what is said in a welcome address, anecdote or presentation in his/her field given in (Language A), interpreting cultural cues appropriately and giving additional explanations when necessary, provided that the speaker stops frequently in order to allow time for him/her to do so. | in discussions with relatives / friends on matters such as studying or working abroad | during a guided visit | during a visit to company / factory / university premises | in a parent-teacher meeting to discuss a child's school performance; during a school exchange with visiting principals, teachers/students at a school event or parents' day |
| B1+ | Can communicate in (Language B) the sense of what is said in (Language A) on subjects within his/her fields of interest, conveying and when necessary explaining the significance of important statements and viewpoints, provided the speaker stops frequently to allow him/her to do so, and gives clarifications if needed. | in a conversation with friends/relatives, guests/hosts about important current affairs | during a guided visit at e.g. an exhibition | at dinner with visiting colleagues | |
| B1 | Can communicate in (Language B) the main sense of what is said in (Language A) on subjects within his/her fields of interest, conveying straightforward factual information and explicit cultural references, provided that he/she can prepare beforehand and that the speakers articulate clearly in everyday language. | in everyday conversations with friends and relatives about e.g. family, work, daily events | in casual conversations with other travellers during a trip or holiday about e.g. travel, hobbies, interests | in everyday conversations with colleagues/ workmates about e.g. interests, work, daily events | during a school exchange – incoming and outgoing, in a parent-teacher meeting to discuss a child's school performance |

(Council of Europe, 2018, p. 218)

| MEDIATING COMMUNICATION | | | | | | |
|---|--|---|---|--|---|--|
| ACTING AS INTERMEDIARY IN INFORMAL SITUATIONS (WITH FRIENDS AND COLLEAGUES) | | | | | | |
| LEVEL | DESCRIPTORS | SITUATION (& ROLES) | | | | |
| | | PERSONAL | PUBLIC | OCCUPATIONAL | EDUCATIONAL | |
| A2+ | Can communicate in (Language B) the overall sense of what is said in (Language A) in everyday situations, following basic cultural conventions and conveying the essential information, provided that the speakers articulate clearly in standard language and that he/she can ask for repetition and clarification. | in a conversation between friends/ relatives and visitors to make arrangements for an outing interpreting on the telephone for relatives and friends when applying for a service such as internet or utilities | at a restaurant with guests, conversing about background, hobbies, education at a public office offering services such as a licensing office | at the workplace to organize a leaving party during a visit from a client | with a new student from his/her country of origin | |
| A2 | Can communicate in (Language B) the main point of what is said in (Language A) in predictable, everyday situations, conveying back and forth information about personal wants and needs, provided that the speakers help with formulation. | during introduction of a visitor/guest to family/friends' circles | at a public office offering services such as a licensing office | during a visit from a client | | |
| A1 | No descriptor available | | | | | |
| Pre-A1 | No descriptor available | | | | | |

(Council of Europe, 2018, p. 219)

APPENDIX B

PART OF 2015 ENTRANCE EXAMINATION OF NIIGATA UNIVERSITY

I. 次の英文を読んで、下の問いに日本語で答えなさい。 [Note. Examples of E-->J explanation items (Q1, Q3) and E-->J translation items (Q2, Q4)]

Over the last 20,000 years, the human brain has shrunk by about the size of a tennis ball. Paleontologists found (a) this out when they measured the fossilized skulls of our prehistoric ancestors and realized they were larger than the modern brain. This is a remarkable discovery by any standards, since for most of our evolution the human brain has been getting larger. A shrinking brain seems at odds with the assumption that advancing science, education and technologies would lead to larger brains. Our cultural stereotypes of large egg-headed scientists or super-intelligent aliens with bulbous craniums fit with the idea that smart beings have big brains.

Small brains are generally not associated with intelligence in the animal kingdom; this is why being called 'bird-brained' is regarded as an insult (though in fact not all birds have small brains). Animals with large brains are more flexible and better solving problems. (b) As a species, humans have exceptionally large brains – about seven times larger than should be expected, given the average body size. The finding that the human brain has been getting smaller over our recent evolution runs counter to the generally held view that bigger brains equal more intelligence, and that we are smarter than our prehistoric ancestors. After all, the complexity of modern life suggests that we are becoming more clever to deal with it.

Nobody knows exactly why the human brain has been shrinking, but it does raise some proactive questions about the relationship between the brain, behaviour and intelligence. First, we make lots of (c) unfounded assumptions about the progress of human intelligence. We assume our Stone Age ancestors must have been backward because the technologies they produced seem so primitive by modern standards. But what if raw human intelligence has not changed so much over the past 20,000 years? What if they were just as smart as modern man, only without the benefit of thousands of generations of accumulated knowledge? We should not assume that we are fundamentally more intelligent than an individual born 20,000 years ago. We may have more knowledge and understanding of the world around us, but much of it was garnered from the experiences of others that went before us rather than the fruits of our own effort.

Second, the link between brain size and intelligence is naively simplistic for many reasons. It is not the size that matters but how you use it. There are some individuals who are born with little brain tissue or others with only half a brain as a result of disease and surgery, but

they can still think and perform within the normal range of intelligence because what brain tissue they do have left, they use so efficiently. Moreover, it's the internal wiring, not the size, that is critical. Brain volume based on fossil records does not tell you how the internal microstructures are organized or operating. (d) Relying on size is as ridiculous as comparing the original computers of the 1950s that occupied whole rooms with today's miniature smartphones that fit into your pocket but have vastly more computing power.

(Bruce Hood, *The Domesticated Brain*, 2014)

[注] paleontologist 古生物学者 bulbous cranium 球根のような形の頭蓋 garner 獲得する

問1. 下線部(a)の具体的な内容を述べなさい。

問2. 下線部(b)を和訳しなさい。

問3. 下線部(c)について、筆者はどのような具体例を挙げているか。句読点を含め、80字以内で述べなさい。

問4. 下線部(d)を和訳しなさい。

III. 次の問題 A, B に答えなさい。問題 A. 下線部(a), (b)を英訳しなさい。[Note. Examples of J-->E translation items]

Hackers around the world are getting better at stealing passwords. (a) ハッカーとはコンピュータを使って許可なく情報を手に入
れようとする人のことです。 Now, some computer scientists are trying to stop hackers by not using passwords.

One research project that will make passwords a thing of the past is called Active Authentication. (b) このプロジェクトに携わって
いる科学者たちは、スマートフォンのような電子機器をハッカーから守るのに、人の個人的な特徴を使おうとしています。 For
example, the movement of a person's hands when they use a smartphone can be read by sensors. The phone can remember those signs and
observe them. The phone locks when someone other than the owner tries to use it.

(Adapted from 'Scientists Trying to Do Away With Passwords,' VOA Learning English, August 14, 2014)

APPENDIX C

LESSON 1 OF CROWN ENGLISH COMMUNICATION I



*One picture is worth a thousand words.
— Chinese proverb*

Lesson 1

When Words Won't Work

Take a Moment to Think

1. Look at the photo on this page. What do you see?
2. "Picto" means picture, and "gram" means writing. What does "pictogram" mean?
3. Where do you see pictograms?

When Words Won't Work

Words are words and pictures are pictures. Most of our information comes from words. But we are getting more and more information from little pictures. We call them "pictograms."

1

Language is an important means of communication. You exchange greetings. At school you listen to your teachers, have discussions, and enjoy talking with your classmates. At home you do your homework. For all of these activities you use language.

Yet, there is another important means of communication. Look around carefully, and you will notice lots of pictograms. Take a look at the following. Even little kids may know them.





The one on the left shows an emergency exit. The one in the middle shows a restroom. The one on the right shows an escalator.

2. more and more More and more people are visiting Tokyo.
12. look around Look around to be sure it's safe.
3-2 We enjoyed playing baseball. **3-3** I will be 16 next month.
3-1 When do you use language at school?
3-2 What other means of communication do we often use?

pictogram [pɪk'tɒgrəm] means [mi:nz] greeting [gri:tɪŋ] discussion [dɪskʌ'sjən] following [fɒ'lɔ:wiŋ] emergency [ɪ'mɜ:dʒən'si] exit [egzɪt] middle [mɪdl] restroom [rest'rʊm]

(Shimozaki et al., 2017, pp. 4-5)

3

People from different cultures can usually understand pictograms easily. But sometimes they find pictograms confusing. Look at this pictogram:



It tells different people different things. Maybe this man is clearing a landslide. Maybe he is opening an umbrella on a windy day. Actually, this man is working on a road. This is a pictogram for "Roadwork ahead."

You can usually get the message from a pictogram as soon as you see it. But sometimes you have to learn the meaning of a pictogram, just like you learn the words of a foreign language.

Pictograms may never take the place of words, but they are already an important means of

as soon as ~ ~ just after ~

confusing [kən'fju:zɪŋ] landslide [lændslaɪd] actually [æktʃuəli] roadwork [rəʊd'wɜ:k]

13. take the place of ~ The Maglev will take the place of the Shinkansen.

5 Pictograms are sometimes confusing. Why?

6 What do we have to do if we don't understand a pictogram?

communication. Some people are making full sentences and even telling stories with pictograms. A famous Chinese artist wrote the following "sentence." Can you read it?



From Xu Bing's Book from the Ground. See page 10 for answer.

Will pictograms eventually take the place of words? Will they be the language of the future? What do you think?



eventually [ɪven'tʃuəli]

7 What are some people making with pictograms?

Comprehension

Check

Answer the following questions by choosing (a), (b) or (c).

- Pictograms are used because
 - people like beautiful pictures.
 - we can understand them easily.
 - they always mean the same thing to everyone.
- Pictograms are sometimes confusing because
 - we cannot see them from far away.
 - every country has its own pictograms.
 - they can mean different things to different people.
- Which of the following is true?
 - Children cannot understand pictograms.
 - Some people are making sentences and telling stories with pictograms.
 - We cannot understand a country's pictograms until we learn its language.

Summary

Complete the summary by filling in the blanks.

Language is an important means of (1). We use language every day—at school, at home, with our friends. But we also need (2). They give us information quickly. We use them in (3) places like airports and roads. We can understand them easily even if we don't speak the (4) of the country. Pictograms can sometimes be (5), but they are certainly another important means of communication. Will they eventually take the place of words?

Food for Thought

ピクトグラムは the language of the future になると思いますが、テキストの内容をふまえて、Xu Bing (シュウ・ビン) が書いた sentence を例にとって、あなたの考えを説明しましょう。

* Page 9 answer: He saw the symbol on the warning sign, meaning "Slippery floor."

Your Reaction

Agree or Disagree

Pictograms are the language of the future. Soon we will have the same pictograms all over the world.

- agree disagree cannot decide

Why?



Let's listen to the dialog

Listen to the dialog and talk about it in small groups.

Words & Phrases

- no more ~ 「もう~はいらない」 grammar 「文法」
 ・ What do you think of [about] ~? 「~についてどう思いますか。」
 ・ I'm against ~ 「~に反対です」

Let's write about it

Summarize your opinion in one paragraph.

(9) Pictograms are the language of the future. They are simple and easy. People from all over the world can understand them. We already see them in airports, on roads, and in many other public places. Soon we will have pictograms everywhere.

Anything more to say?

- What are the good and bad points of having the same pictograms all over the world?
- Will pictograms ever take the place of language?
- What do you think about using pictograms (emoji) on your cell phone?

PictOLYMPIgrams

ピクトグラムの始まりは、古い時代には、石や壁のぼろぼろです。そのピクトグラムがオリンピックで使われるようになったのは、日本のデザイナーたちの功績が、あってこそ、と言った方がいいでしょうか。

Pictograms are part of our daily life. We see them everywhere, and we get all sorts of useful information from them. But who created them? How long have they been with us?

The first pictograms were made on stones and cave walls about 18,000 years ago. They were used to record events and other information. Pictograms later developed into writing systems such as hieroglyphs in ancient Egypt and Chinese characters.

In modern times, pictograms are gaining importance as our world becomes more and more global. They are especially useful in places where people from different parts of the world get together. Take the Olympic Games, for example. Pictograms are helpful because people can understand them easily.

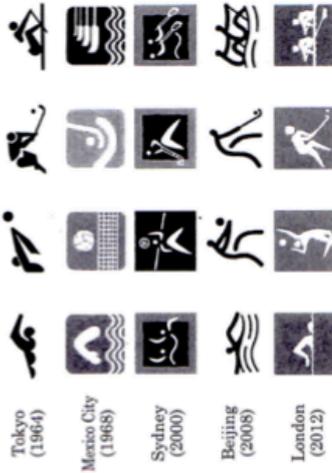
Olympic pictograms are quite new. The first real Olympic pictograms were made for the games in Tokyo in 1964 by Katsumi Masaru and a team of designers. They borrowed ideas not only from Europe but also from traditional Japanese design—*kamon*, or family emblems.

During the Tokyo Olympic Games, their pictograms were widely used for indicating sports events as well as facilities like restaurants and restrooms. Some of the pictograms are now

in use all over the world. Katsumi and his team gave up their rights to these designs so that they would become international common property.

Ever since the Tokyo Olympic Games, the host countries have created different sets of pictograms. In the Olympic Games in Mexico in 1968, they used colors from traditional Mexican art. In Australia, the pictograms used boomerangs.

In China, the pictograms looked like Chinese calligraphy. For the London Olympics of 2012, the pictograms looked more like real pictures. Olympic pictograms may change, but the Tokyo Olympic pictograms set the standard for the Olympic pictograms.



ポイント PictOLYMPIgrams pictogram と Olympic を組み合わせた造語 / 2. all sorts of ~ あらゆる種類の～ / 5. cave wall 洞窟の壁 / 7. writing system 書体 / 8. hieroglyph ヒエログリフ / 8. Chinese characters 漢字 / 10. as ~ ~につれて / 12. get together 集まる / 13. take ~, for example ~を例にとり、 / 18. Katsumi Masaru 勝見真 (1909 - 1983) : 美術評論家 / 19. not only ~ but also ... ~だけでなく...も / 22. ~ as well asだけでなく...も / 23. be in use 使われている / 25. so that ~ ~するよう / 27. ever since ~ ~以来ずっと / 27. the host country 開催国 / 34. set the standard 基準を定める