愛知大学人文社会学研究所　「国際英語」教育研究会

REPORT OF RESEARCH ACTIVITIES 2021

Aichi University International English Education Research Group

The Institute for Research in Humanities and Social Sciences

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INTRODUCTION

The 2021 International English Education Research Group (IEERG) report compiles 2021 symposium speaker authored papers, and summaries of the 2021 forum's invited speaker and IEERG member presentations.

The symposium, *Perspectives and Narratives of Multinational, Multilingual, and Transnative Language Instructors* was held online the 10th of April, 2021. Invited speakers, Natasha Hashimoto, Lidija Elliott, and Wan Jung (Amy) Lin, shared their perspectives and experiences as instructors who use English as a means of employment, and the challenges of overcoming the perceptions that one's country of birth or initial language of communicating needs, somehow diminishes abilities to instruct via English.

The forum *International Intelligibility in the Context of Japan: Theoretical Insights and Instructional Implementations* was held online the 16th of October, 2021. Invited speakers, Nobuyuki Hino, Tomoyuki Kawashima, and George O'Neal explored notions of intelligibility and suggested approaches for the Japanese context. Reports by Peter Lyons and Daniel Devolin provided insights into ongoing research involving intelligibility, and practical implementation ideas to cultivate adaptable communicative behaviours that might result in intelligible communication.

The symposium and the forum provided opportunities to explore instructional and institutional issues evolving as a result of ELF influenced research and instruction. Sharing of experiences, and networking among teachers / researchers expands understanding and strives to mitigate the issues facing English instructors in Japan.

This report contains contributions from IEERG members Laura Kusaka, Leah Gilner, and Anthony Young. It was co-edited by Daniel Devolin, Peter Lyons, and Laura Kusaka.

IEERG

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愛知大学人文社会学研究所プロジェクト「国際英語」教育研究会シンポジウム
Perspectives and Narratives of Multinational, Multilingual, and Transnative Language Instructors
SYMPOSIUM
OF THE INSTITUTE FOR RESEARCH IN HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES, AICHI UNIVERSITY (IRHSA)
SATURDAY APRIL 10TH, 2021
13.00-15.30 *VENUE: ZOOM
FREE FOR ALL!
FORUM HOSTS:
INTERNATIONAL ENGLISH EDUCATION RESEARCH GROUP
To register please contact irhsa@ml.aichi-u.ac.jp by April 7th stating your name and affiliation. You will receive the Zoom link.
E-mail
Timetable
13:00-13:05 Opening Remarks
13:05 - 13:35 Natasha Hashimoto: Tokyo Woman's Christian University
"NNESTs Crossing Borders: What It Means to Teach One's L2 Overseas"
13:40 - 14:10 Lidija Elliott: Nagoya University of Foreign Studies
"Native English-Speaking Teachers (NESTS) versus Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers (NNESTS)"
14:10 - 14:20 Break
14:25 - 14:55 Wang Jun (Amy) Lin: Nagoya University of Foreign Studies
"Journey of Struggles: Repositioning Teacher Identity in Japan"
15:00 - 15:15 Natasha Hashimoto: Tokyo Woman's Christian University
"Personal Narrative"
15:15 Discussion and Closing Remarks
愛知大学
AICHI UNIVERSITY

Native English-Speaking Teachers (NESTS) versus Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers (NNESTS)

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Nagoya University of Foreign Studies

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is not to judge whether a native or non-native language teacher is more competent, but rather to create awareness for this important and controversial issue and to discuss the strengths and weaknesses of each type of educator. Engaging in open conversations about learning English from native and non-native speakers is an important step towards creating more job opportunities for teachers of both backgrounds. Both native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) and non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) have various advantages and disadvantages. Therefore, both are equally capable of being successful English teachers. An English teacher's capability should be based on their individual qualifications, including the ability to converse and communicate in English, an understanding of the culture in which they are teaching, and a strong ability to teach and connect with students.

Key words: EFL, native English-Speaking Teacher (NESTs), Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers (NNEST)

Introduction

English is the most widely used international language. According to Crystal in *English as a Global Language* (2003), "About a quarter of the world's population is already fluent or competent in English, and this figure is steadily growing—in the early 2000s that means around 1.5 billion. No other language can match it" (p. 6). Lyons (2021) states that approximately 340 million people speak English as their first language, while 1.1 billion people speak English as an additional language. As a result, English is one of the most commonly studied languages in the world, creating many opportunities for both native and non-native teachers to impart their knowledge to their students. However, there have been extensive disputes about whether native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) or non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) are more suitable educators (Beckett and Stiefvater, 2009; Selvi, 2010), and resolution of this controversial debate is still in progress. According to Kiczkowiak (2014), almost 70 percent of jobs advertised on *Tefl.com*, the main search platform for English jobs, are for teachers who are native speakers. Clark and Paran (2007) surveyed 90 higher education institutions in the United

Kingdom and found that 72.3 percent of employers made hiring decisions based on the candidate's native-speaking status, based on the belief that students prefer native-speaking teachers. Rampton (1990) asserts that "native speaker", and "non-native speaker" are linguistically and conceptually problematic terms, and one of my goals in presenting this research is to eliminate the misinterpretations of these terms. Both "native speaker" and "non-native speaker" have been used to refer to speakers of a language for many years, and they are still common in the worldwide discourse of ELT/EFL, so I will be using them throughout this article for lack of a generally accepted alternative.

The following section discusses the strengths and weaknesses of both groups of individuals as English teachers. Throughout the article, I will present evidence revealing that non-native speakers are just as qualified as native speakers to teach English.

Native English Speakers

The field of ELT still maintains that "expertise is defined and dominated by native speakers" (Canagarajah, 1999a, p. 85; see also Holliday, 2005). Defining a native English speaker is difficult because there are many factors to consider. The *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching of Applied Linguistics* (1992) defines a native speaker as "a person considered as a speaker of his or her Native Language," with native language meaning "the language which a person acquires in early childhood because it is spoken in the family and/or is the language of the country where he or she is living" (p.241). In today's global environment, however, it has become more difficult to determine who is truly a native English speaker. Most children who grew up in the United States, the United Kingdom, or Australia are native speakers, but as Medgyes (2001, p.341) questions, what about a child who moved to the United States when he/she was four? What about a child whose mother speaks Norwegian, father speaks Spanish, and who is learning English in school? In such circumstances, determining a native tongue becomes more challenging.

One of the most valuable benefits of learning from a native English teacher is that they use native pronunciations. Their speech is considered the gold standard for grammatical correctness and perfect pronunciation (cf, Wang, 2012). While American, British, and Australian teachers will all have different accents, their speech does not reflect any non-English accents, which makes it easier for learners to mimic their pronunciations and be understood in English-speaking countries. Native speakers will also teach the common language that is spoken within their country, such as idioms, expressions, or colloquialisms. For example, a native-speaking teacher might use phrases such as, "it's raining cats and dogs" or "don't judge a book by its cover." These phrases are unique to the English language, and their meaning does not translate. It may be difficult for people who learned English from a non-native speaker to understand these phrases later on.

Especially for students who plan to travel to an English-speaking area, learning these phrases is extremely beneficial.

Finally, a native-speaking teacher provides students with a glimpse of a different culture. According to Clouet (2006, p.73), native speakers “can give the students insights into the culture which a non-native would find difficult to provide.” Such insights may include information about holidays, hobbies, foods, events and traditions common to the English-speaking country the teacher is from. This presents new learning opportunities for the students that span beyond the language alone, giving them a broader understanding of different societies.

Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers (NNESTs)

The worldwide population of non-native English-speaking teachers is immense. Bolton (2004) calculated that in China alone, there are approximately 500,000 secondary school English teachers and according to research conducted by Freeman (2015), of the approximately 15 million English teachers around the world, 80 percent are NNESTs (around 12 million). Although NNESTs did not grow up in an English-speaking country, they still provide unique benefits to their students.

Non-native English-speaking teachers may have learned English as a second or third language, which gives them a better understanding of the student’s learning process, since they were once students themselves. This may make it easier for them to explain grammar rules and vocabulary in a manner that is simpler for students to understand. They can also better anticipate where issues may arise and how to prevent them, as they have personally struggled through the language-learning process. Clouet (2006, p.73) states, “Non-natives, indeed, tend to have far better language analysis than natives. They know what caused them problems learning the language and can apply that experience to their own lessons.” NNESTs had to learn the rules of the English language in order to speak it; conversely, most native-speaking teachers learned the language from their parents, and they may not be as versed in its technicalities.

Furthermore, depending on where the NNEST is from, their accent and pronunciation may be clearer for students to understand than a native speaker with a strong accent that is hard for students in non-English-speaking countries to distinguish. Learning from someone who speaks in their native tongue, and therefore has a similar accent to them, could make it easier for students from the very beginning. On the other hand, learning from a native speaker may be overwhelming at first because of the stark contrast in accents.

Another benefit of NNESTs is their teaching method. Non-native teachers are more likely to integrate language into situational or linguistic contexts, making it easier for the student to engage with the lesson and derive real meaning from the content. NNESTs strive to teach in a way that reflects the theory behind language learning, helping to convey meaning and understanding.

NNESTs also have knowledge of the local education system in place for learning English. Having had similar EFL English learning experiences as their students, NNESTs understand what topics and content must be covered for examinations, and in what timeframe they must be covered to meet the school system's deadlines. They also have a better understanding of the culture in which their students are growing up, which allows them to adapt their teaching to their students' needs and ultimately understand how to best connect with them. Non-native teachers, on the other hand, must not only learn how to connect with their students, but they must also learn the culture of the area in which they are teaching.

NNESTs are also able to teach students about the customs and traditions of English speaking countries, with the added benefit that students will not feel embarrassed or worried about being offensive when asking questions to the non-native teacher, allowing for greater clarity on these subjects. Additionally, students can ask clarifying questions about English traditions in their mother tongue if they do not yet have a good grip of the language. Rather than feeling embarrassed by their lack of knowledge about English customs, they can feel confident asking questions knowing that it is part of the learning process.

NNESTs can be strong role models for students. Having been a student of the language themselves, they have been able to identify the most effective teaching strategies to help students develop their skills more efficiently. Because of their shared experience with the students, teachers may be more empathetic to the learners' needs, and as a result, their methods may allow the student to develop at a faster rate compared to a teacher who has not had this shared experience. According to Mauludin (2015, p. 138), if we look at the process of teaching English in a foreign language setting, the best role model for students is the teacher who has achieved their knowledge of the language through several stages. Thus, that teacher can transfer his/her experience and strategies to the students (Alseweed, 2012). Students who are struggling to learn the language can look to their teacher for guidance and inspiration. The non-native speaking teacher will also know how quickly they should expect progress from each student, and they will be better equipped to make adjustments to their teaching if necessary.

NNESTs speak the language of their students. This is greatly beneficial in helping students learn appropriate translation techniques. There is an automatic barrier between teachers who do not speak the native tongue of the country in which they are working and their students, which may present teaching challenges. NNESTs, on the other hand, can find the best ways to teach students how to switch back and forth between the two languages.

One final advantage of NNESTs that is often forgotten is that they also bring their own cultural perspective into the classroom, which broadens students' knowledge of English and the home country of the non-native teacher. The teacher can draw comparisons and note the differences between each of the countries, making the learning process better for students and strengthening the student-teacher bond.

Conclusion

Non-native English-speaking teachers have long been viewed as having less experience with and knowledge about English than native speakers. What is not often represented, however, is that non-native speakers have more experience learning the language and have been in the same position as their students. One's qualifications for teaching English should not depend on whether or not they are a native speaker. Rather, there are multiple factors to consider. An English teacher's qualifications should be based on their ability to converse and communicate in English, an understanding of the culture in which they are teaching, and a strong ability to teach and connect with students. Being a native speaker does not guarantee an ability to teach the language effectively in a classroom setting, explain the rules of the English language or prepare students to converse fluently with other English speakers in a different country. Instead, the teacher's personal experience should outweigh any other factor. As Medgyes (1992, p.347) states, "both NESTs and non-NESTs can be equally effective, because in the final analysis their respective strengths and weaknesses balance each other out." Neither group of teachers is superior to the other and learning from a combination of both types of teachers would be most effective for helping students learn English. Both NESTs and NNESTs have varying levels of command/proficiency of the language and certain intrinsic advantages and disadvantages. Therefore, both groups have an equal chance of being successful English teachers.

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Journey of Struggles: Repositioning Teacher Identity in Japan

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Language educators and learners are very used to the dichotomy of native English-speaking teachers (NEST) and non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) in the field of English education (see Ma, 2012). However, is it healthy to have this dichotomy passed down to our students? In this paper, I will first examine the common assumptions of the conception of native speakers from postcolonial and multilingual perspectives. Later, based on my observations in the ELT field in Japan and my narratives, I will provide implications for migrant English teachers to thrive through their struggles teaching English in Japan.

Who are Native Speakers?

Hacon (2018) found the most common assumptions compiled by Rampton (1990, p.97) about what it means to be a native speaker:

1. A particular language is inherited, either through genetic endowment or through birth into the social group stereotypically associated with it.
2. Inheriting a language means being able to speak it well.
3. People either are or are not native/mother-tongue speakers.
4. Being a native speaker involves the comprehensive grasp of a language.
5. Just as people are usually citizens of one country, people are native speakers of one mother tongue. (Hacon, 2018, pp. 177-178)

It is still commonly assumed that a language is inherited through a social group. One is considered a native speaker only depending on if they are recognized and accepted in the social norms, including citizenship of a country. Therefore, instead of understanding language users by examining their communicative competence in the spectrum, the above assumptions demonstrate binary thinking that divides language users into two distinct groups: one can only be a native speaker or non-native speaker of a language, nothing in between.

Further, the assumptions do not describe internationals in the current globalized world. Let me give you some examples around me. A friend of mine is of Hong Kong descent, raised in Japan, educated, and pursuing a career in England. Another friend of mine was born in Italy to an Italian mother and English father, raised in Italy, and received tertiary

education in England. What are their native languages? I can be another good example. I grew up in Taiwan, a small country home to more than twenty languages, with Mandarin Chinese being the official language. My parents speak Taiwanese at home, yet to assure my sisters' and my success in school, my mother only spoke Mandarin to us when we were young. What is my native language? As we examine the assumptions, it is probably evident that *nativeness* is not as appropriate in the current society when we put ourselves in the globalized world.

Native Speakers and Non-native Speakers

The term, *native speakers,* implies that there is a group of speakers who are *not native*. Mahboob (2004) described that a non-native speaker can fall into the comparative fallacy that depicts them as failing to align with the native norms. With the use of the distinction, there is a tendency to have a correct standard of the language, and it further denotes "hidden ideology that privileges the native speakers" (Mahboob, 2004, p. 68).

When we look at SLA from a sociocultural perspective that sees language learning as participation and recognition, the idea of *nativeness* dismantles what SLA has been trying to accomplish. Sfard's two metaphors of learning (1998) provided a good picture: *acquisition metaphor (AM)* and *participation metaphor (PM)*. *AM* regards learning as *the acquisition of knowledge*, implying knowledge as *property and commodity. PM* relates learning to *participate*, and knowing means *communicating*, *participating*, and *belonging,* which "contributes to the existence and functioning of a community of practitioners" (1998, p. 6). Sfard suggested that it is dangerous to choose either metaphor in learning. Pavlenko and Lantolf (2000) borrowed the two metaphors from Sfard and applied them to SLA. *AM* allows us to see the traditional view of language learning as acquiring a set of rules. On the contrary, *PM* allows us to see language learning "as a process of becoming a member of a certain community" (p. 155).

Let's look at the two metaphors and try to understand the distinction between *nativeness* and *non-nativeness*. It is probably true that socially, being native means to uplift *AM* and knowledge of a language. If so, so-called non-native speakers will never be included in the community; they are not being recognized, not being heard, not contributing, and not being known, in Bourdieu's term, "not legitimate speakers" (as cited in Norton, 1997).

Myths about NES Teachers in English Education in Japan

After living in Japan for more than eight years, I have observed some myths, or even fallacies, about using NES teachers in Japan. Of course, my observations can be unique to the areas where I lived and not applicable to other prefectures.

Myth #1 We need to learn the target languages from native speakers.

According to Kubota (2018), one of the main reasons Japan had such a conception was probably the establishment of the JET Program. The Ministry of Education established the JET Program to provide students a native English model, asides from their Japanese teacher of English. Now, students in public schools, and even teachers themselves, think the Japanese teachers of English cannot provide student real-life English or *homban no eigo*.

At the same time, the media and eikaiwa have reinforced this image of the language learning experience in Japan. Even worse, they promote native English speakers as their marketing strategy, but they also seem to uphold white native English speakers on their posters.

Further, as I discussed at the beginning of the article, this may relate to nationalism in Japan. Here in Japan, native Japanese speakers are simply the Japanese people. Most Japanese do not even argue who native speakers are because Japan is commonly considered a monolingual and monoethnic country. Japanese citizenship gives its people legitimacy to speak (Kubota, 2018). Similarly, when it comes to learning English, most Japanese people expect native speakers; they expect people from the Inner Circle countries to teach them English. Kubota described this as an ideological problem in Japan, thinking native speakers are from Inner Circle countries and are even white. Perhaps, most Japanese people project their understanding of their own country and language to English learning. The experience shapes how they view the ownership of the English language even though the world is embracing postcolonialism and multilingualism.

Myth #2 Foreign teachers are all "native sensei."

In my early six years in Japan teaching as an ALT in a countryside prefecture, all Japanese teachers called me *native sensei*. Even when I approached them and informed them that I am not commonly considered a native speaker, they still called me native. Then I realized that the fact that the government chooses ALTs gives them legitimacy to be natives.

As we discussed above, there are a lot of ideological ideas constructed systemically in the education system in Japan that educators need to be aware of. It can be dangerous for educational institutes and media to continue portraying this in the culture as it harms our students when they construct their identity in their L2.

Myth #3 Wan Jung Lin cannot be an English speaker.

Since my official name is Wan Jung Lin, it surprised all teachers when they received the official documents from the board of education. I always had to add my English name, Amy, yet Amy is not my official name. Without the explanation, I felt I wouldn't be remembered either way. It is even more so in the hiring market. Traditionally, people judge others by appearances (foreign or Japanese) and names. It makes sense to hire people with English names to teach English; it also makes sense to hire someone with Japanese names because we are in Japan. Other than the two, an explanation is needed.

Personal Narrative

Allow me to introduce myself again. My name is Wan Jung. I was born and raised in Taiwan, immigrated to the States, then finally moved to Japan to teach English. I started learning English formally in junior high school, like most Japanese students. I majored in English, and my English was fluent when I moved to California. I outperformed at the placement test in the ESL Program at the community college, and they did not know how to place me. However, being able to speak English doesn't guarantee easy life in an English-speaking country. My first few years in California were horrible. I felt I was voiceless and powerless.

I could survive and work in California, yet I felt no one took me seriously. I couldn't experience my presence there. When I was getting my master's in California State University, Fullerton, I felt silenced. I did not think I had anything to offer in any discussions in class. Even when I talked, I thought I was inferior to others. Then I realized I probably positioned myself as a language learner even after moving to California. I did not try to enter the English community there as a member. That was why the sociocultural perspectives of SLA inspired me, and I started to look for a change. It took me a few years to question my identity, struggle, argue, understand, and even fight with T-Mobile and Bank of America to experience my existence as an immigrant, a person, an agent.

I finally found myself repositioning myself as a Taiwanese American and an English speaker rather than a learner. I worked so hard on my English pronunciation, knowledge about the neighborhood, and identity to give myself why I was there in the States. I need to claim my *ownership* of English to provide me with legitimacy to *use* it.

However, after I came to Japan, all the identities I thrived on constructing were questioned. In Japan, some of my Japanese friends never introduced me as native English speakers or even American. Their definition does not allow them to do so. Years ago, my American colleague told me, "Amy, you are not born in the States, so you are not a native speaker.

You are not a real American." I do not qualify by their definition of native speakers and the legitimacy of using English. Yet, for me, language is not about proficiency but about how I feel about my belonging in the English world. When people around me tell me that I am not a native speaker or American, it is hurtful and traumatic because the community does not recognize me.

Suggestions and Implications for Educators

As I insisted earlier, educators need to be aware of the institutional, ideological issues. Otherwise, it literally means language teachers teach a language to students yet concurrently tell them they are never going to be good enough. On the other hand, in language teaching, there have been long discussions about the strengths and weaknesses of NEST and NNESTs and their roles in English teaching (Medgyes, 1992; Ma, 2012; Mahboob, 2015; Hacon, 2018; also see Elliot, this volume). These kinds of discussions seem to justify NNESTs. However, it has also built up distinguishment, stereotypes, comparison, and discrimination (Fukunaga et al., 2018; Fithriani, 2018).

Medgyes proposed (1992), "the ideal NEST is the one who has achieved a high level of proficiency in the learner's mother tongue. The ideal non-NEST is the one who has achieved near-native proficiency in English" (p. 348). Unfortunately, the distinguishing between NEST and non-NEST still implies the comparison of the knowledge. I propose that we go beyond this distinguishment and identify all of us as fluent speakers of English. All of us are native in something and non-native in another. We all struggle in learning languages and let the struggles qualify language educators.

For migrant teachers like me, the following suggestions hope to bring some light. First, let's enjoy struggling. Because of our backgrounds, we were born to work with the pain of not being recognized. However, this also promised our empowerment moments in our journey. We can identify those moments and reproduce the scenarios in our lessons to help students feel empowered in their L2.

Further, educators should help students to be critical thinkers. Kubota (1999) suggested that educators must critically and carefully examine the power relationship dictated by political powers, ideology, gender, race, and economics. Our students also need to learn how to think critically to understand and distinguish what is taken for granted, thus leading them to transform to a new understanding.

In terms of the pain of struggles, we should learn how to *own* our stories. People tend to go too quickly when they are oppressed. Some may be in denial. No one likes to be identified as oppressed or secondary in society. We tend to jump to the other side of

positiveness without *owning* and *recognizing* what happens to us. It is a time for migrant teachers to sit in and articulate the pain. It could be an excruciating process, but it eventually would help us to share our narratives.

Finally, better awareness and understanding of the discrimination and injustice needed to be brought up in the Japanese education market. Many Japanese people may only think the way the media or family passed down to them without further examination. Let's have conversations and ask good questions to deconstruct what was dictated in the field. If we would like to change our work environment, we will have to start sharing our struggles and raise awareness.

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International Intelligibility in the Context of Japan: Theoretical Insights and Instructional Implementations

愛知大学人文社会学研究所プロジェクト

「国際英語」教育に関する研究会　フォーラム

Forum of The Institute for Research in Humanities and Social Sciences, Aichi University (IRHSA)

Date : October 16, 2021
13 :00~15:45
Venue : ZOOM
Registration required

To register please contact
irhsa@ml.aichi-u.ac.jp by October 14
stating your name and affiliation.
You will receive the Zoom link.

日本における国際的な“intelligibility”（わかりやすさ）とは：理論的考察と実践報告

※英語による発表

事前申込

日 時: 2021年10月16日（土）
13：00 ～ 15：45
会 場: ZOOM
申し込み先 irhsa@ml.aichi-u.ac-jp
締め切り: 10月14日（木）

Forum hosts

Laura L. Kusaka: Aichi University
Leah Gilner: Aichi University
Anthony Young: Aichi University
Daniel Devolin: Aichi University
Peter Lyons: Aichi University

Timetable

13:00～13:05	Opening Remarks
	-Invited Speakers-
13:05～13:35	**Nobuyuki Hino,** Osaka University “Going beyond paradigms and chronology in teaching English for global communication”
13:35～14:05	**Tomoyuki Kawashima,** Gunma University “Instructional strategies for improving intelligibility of varieties of English accents”
14:05～14:35	**George O'Neal,** Niigata University “Intelligible accommodation in ELF interactions”
14:35～14:45	Break
	-IRHSA Reports-
14:45～15:00	**Peter Lyons,** Aichi University “Analysis of discourse markers in a reading class – Why do we fill in the gaps?”
15:00～15:15	**Daniel Devolin,** Aichi University “Inculcating international intelligibility principles”
15:15～15:45	Q&A
	Closing Remarks

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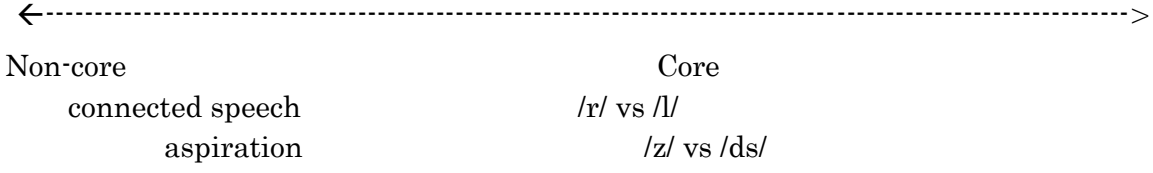
Going Beyond Paradigms and Chronology in Teaching English for Global Communication

Nobuyuki Hino

Osaka University

The first speaker, Nobuyuki Hino of Osaka University led the audience through a review of important research developments in World Englishes/English as an international language/English as a lingua franca (WE/EIL/ELF), showed us useful models from other academic realms, and shared concrete examples of classroom applications. Hino encouraged the audience of researchers / practitioners to embrace being 'eclectic' as we make sense of multiple theories spanning four decades when applying them to our own classroom situations. Hints for addressing the local pedagogical needs of students/teachers together with expanding opportunities for interaction with interlocutors of diverse linguistic backgrounds were presented in a fashion reflecting Hino's enthusiasm, commitment, and breadth of knowledge of the challenges facing English language education and the expanding possibilities.

As the newer theories receive more attention, Hino reminded us that older paradigms can remain relevant. In particular, he emphasized how the Lingua Franca Core (LFC) (Jenkins, 2000) of the early phase of ELF research has something to offer in the Japan context in the construction of production models of English for representing identity while ensuring intelligibility. Although criticized over the years for being inflexible and static, Hino pointed out that LFC can nonetheless serve as a starting point and be used as a reference to a general tendency for producing English. Based on his own experiences as a learner and teacher, Hino detailed the 'model-oriented' nature of Japanese culture in which repetition of model behaviors are valued. Examples given were the repeated reading out loud of English textbook passages and repeated swinging of baseball bats or tennis rackets in the sports realm (*suburi*), well established practices. However, he reiterated that not all LFC items are worthy of attention and suggested that core and non-core features be considered on a continuum as illustrated below:



Exposing connected speech to students can prepare them to hear it, but they do not necessarily need to imitate it in their own speech. In addition, Hino offered other examples

such as aspiration on word-initial voiceless stops and distinction in vowel length before voiced and voiceless consonants as not essential for intelligibility and therefore lower in priority. Insistence on replication of native speaker norms goes against the whole purpose of LFC and illustrated the need to leave room for L2 speakers' identities to "shine through while still ensuring mutual intelligibility" (Seidlhofer, 2006: 43). With the current focus in ELF research on the situated, dynamic and fluid nature of communication, identity negotiation as well as translanguaging in applied linguistics overall, Hino's message that the 'old' should not be discarded as outdated but applied to suit local needs was helpful, indeed.

With multiple paradigms being available, Hino took hints from the psychotherapy field concerning eclecticism as explained in his redefinitions below.

> Assimilative integration: Enriching a theory by incorporating other theories into it
> Theoretical integration: Creating a new theory by combining two or more theories
> Technical eclecticism: Employing ideas or techniques from multiple sources

As an example of assimilative integration, he cited his own work (2018) in which he reorganized the EIL paradigm (international use of English and locally appropriate pedagogy) by incorporating WE (international use of English and outer/expanding circle Englishes) and ELF (fluid and dynamic nature of interactions) paradigms. Furthermore, he introduced a classroom practice called Observed Small Group Discussion (OSGD) as an example of technical eclecticism in which a few students engage in a short discussion while the rest of the class observes, followed by whole class discussion of the SGD analyzing the contents and communication strategies used in EIL. As the students had four different L1s, they experienced collaborative meaning-making in EIL as participants and observers.

Hino's pragmatic, personalized and optimistic outlook on how intelligibility can be achieved through thoughtful use of eclecticism was inspiring. To address thorny issues of identity vs intelligibility by avoiding overzealous adherence to particular paradigms, he encouraged us to reread, reconsider and reconfigure our research/teaching that ultimately will benefit our students.

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Instructional Strategies for Improving Intelligibility of Varieties of English Accents

Tomoyuki Kawashima

Gunma University, Graduate School of Health Sciences

The second invited speaker, Tomoyuki Kawashima, addressed instructional strategies for improving intelligibility of varieties of English accents. Kawashima's recent research activities have focused on issues related to listening and oral comprehension skills. One outcome of these endeavors has been the online site: Listening Practice in Real English (https://real-english.health.gunma-u.ac.jp/index.html) which offers materials designed to promote exposure to and experience with a wide range of international English speakers from diverse L1 backgrounds. The freely available online materials are a fine example of research-based practice and the presentation provided insight into the motivations, theoretical underpinnings, and empirical studies behind them.

Kawashima explained that he became interested in intelligibility and materials development upon returning to Japan after teaching children in Malaysia and Indonesia. As a high school English teacher, he observed a gap between the language experienced by students in Japanese classrooms and the language embodied by users in the real world. In the presentation, Yoshida's (2002) Fishbowl and Open Seas Model was used to frame the problem in terms of personal agency and autonomy. As the name suggests, this model likens classroom learning to a fishbowl. The classroom, like a fishbowl, is an artificial and controlled environment made predictable through familiar routines and where students can rely on others to guide them. On the other hand, the real world, like the open seas, is by nature potentially boundless, unpredictable, sometimes surprising and a place where successful navigation requires an active and adaptive attitude. A desire to build bridges between these scenarios and to prepare students for real world interactions has served as motivation and inspiration for Kawashima's work.

A first step in this line of Kawashima's research was to examine the accents heard on the audio CDs that accompany textbooks. Three analyses conducted between 1999 and 2016 showed little change in the range of "native" accents used on the CDs and a minimal amount of exposure to "non-native" accents. In addition, responses to surveys revealed a lack of intention on the part of textbook publishers to adapt the materials as they are struggling to survive in the face of a shrinking market. These findings made it apparent that teachers could not rely on publishers to provide the resources necessary to bridge the perceived gaps and stimulated Kawashima to take up the challenge of developing materials that would expose students to a broader range of English accents.

The plan of action involved recruiting English L2 speakers to reproduce listening questions from past National Center Tests (NCT). Fifty questions from three different sections of the NCT which had received a correct answer rate (CAR) above 85% (calculated by Z-kai Inc) were selected as listening prompts. The reproductions were made using pairs of speakers from ten countries, namely, China, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Mongolia, Nepal, Philippines, Poland, Syria, and Thailand. The speakers were chosen based on perceived intelligibility and strength of distinctive accent. A preliminary test comprised of the 50 reproductions, was then administered to 138 senior high school and 123 university students in six different schools, three at each level. CAR was subsequently examined. The average CAR for all 50 items was 56.2%. Thirteen items received a CAR above 70% and six received a CAR below 30%. A difference across speaker pairs was observed, ranging from 47.8% for the Nepalese/Syrian pair to 61.8% for the Chinese/Mongolian pair.

In order to better understand factors which might influence intelligibility, a follow-up study which examined the items with the lower CAR on the first study was carried out. Eleven items were used to make two tests: a comprehension test and a dictation test. Thirty-eight college students majoring in health sciences took the comprehension test in Week 1 of the semester and the dictation test in Week 4. The results from the two tests were then compared. Although the average CAR for the 11 items was higher than in the first study, a similar trend was observed in both. In addition, it was found that the correct dictation rate for content words was higher than for all words (51.5% and 48.1%, respectively). It was also found that intelligibility can differ in two lines spoken by the same speaker, indicating that the pronunciation of specific words, not the accent itself, may affect intelligibility.

Kawashima closed his presentation with a rather comprehensive overview of research findings related to listening test design and hints for classroom pedagogy. Summing up, he suggested that scaffolding be used to facilitate comprehension. Specific examples include pre-listening activities that target pronunciation of key words and unfamiliar words, the use of scripts, the manipulation of pause as well as technology which allows listeners to control the speed and frequency of audio input.

Intelligible Accommodation in ELF Interactions

George O`Neal

Niigata University

The purpose of this presentation was to demonstrate how L2 interlocutor pronunciation changes during EFL interactions in order to facilitate understanding. The presenter offered interesting insight into how segmental repair analysis can be used to measure the intelligibility of L2 learner discourse. Segmental repair was defined as any incident where an L2 speaker seeks to repair intelligibility after it has faltered, with an emphasis placed on the person being spoken to, as the one who decides what should be considered intelligible. The presenter described how data collected from his students' conversation assignments was used to build a corpus for the purpose of identifying different ways that phonetics can be negotiated to restore intelligibility. These were labeled as phonetic segment adjustments and categorized into four types: Resegmentation; Modification; Deletion; Insertion (see O`Neal, 2019). Measuring the frequency in which these phonetic segment adjustments occurred, the presenter identified pronunciation modifications as the most frequently used. On the other hand, resegmentation (i.e., reordering the position of pauses between phonetic segments) was only rarely utilized by learners.

In the second half of the presentation, the presenter moved beyond looking at intelligibility in binary terms (on or off), to measuring the effectiveness of segmental repairs to increase intelligibility over time. To test out this hypothesis, he employed a unique experimental task design. Students took turns reading out similar sounding words to one another and identifying the corresponding cards, placing them in the correct box on the board. To increase the likelihood that intelligibility would become challenging, each student was paired up with a classmate who did not speak the same L1. Some pairs in this experiment were allowed to engage in segmental repairs while others were not. The same pairs carried out the experience three times, over a three week period, to ascertain whether intelligibility increased over time.

The first expectation was that the interaction condition would promote more intelligibility than the no interaction condition. The second expectation was that pairs in the interaction condition would increase their intelligibility over time, while the third expectation was that those in the no interaction condition would not.

The results of the experiment were somewhat surprising. Although the first expectation was supported by the results, the subsequent two were not. Overall, the pairs who were allowed to use segmental repairs in their interactions did outperform the other pairs

consistently each week. Conversely though, the interaction condition did not actually lead to increased scoring each time. While their scores improved from week 1 to week 2, the point average declined slightly in week 3. At the same time, despite being forced to carry out the exercise in very restrictive conditions, the no interaction pairs did in fact manage to score a positive result in week 1, and even improved on that result in week 2. These findings indicated that, 1) the inclusion of segmental repairs does raise intelligibility, however, 2) learning through phonological awareness can still be achieved to a limited extent without them. This research is beneficial to the broader teaching community in that it moves beyond simply identifying and classifying segmental repair moves to considering their potential to promote intelligibility through classroom activities.

Analysis of discourse markers – Why do we fill in the gaps?

Peter Lyons

Aichi University

The fourth report of the forum focused on the use of fillers in spoken question responses. A filler, filled pause, hesitation marker or planner is a sound or word that participants in a conversation use to signal that they are pausing to think but are not finished speaking. Rose (2008 p. 47) has spoken of them as “ubiquitous elements of spontaneous speech but have received relatively little attention in second language teaching”. I initially explained the inspiration for the study, before describing the classroom environment, the procedure in terms of instructional implementation, and finally shared students’ own reflections on the activity.

The Inspiration

I had previously read work focusing on the use of discourse markers in language learning yet sought to become more familiar with literature with more relevance to Japan, which led me to an article by Sadanobu and Takubo (1995) that described the prevalence of fillers in Japanese such as *ano, teyuka, etoo.* Watanabe et al (2008) have also written on the noticing of silence before complex answers in conversation.

In my classes when students were posed with questions that required some thought before answering based on the textbook content, I had noticed the same silence, and a lack of “thinking devices” or “fillers” to put the interviewer at ease. I had also experienced success in using a simple annotation system to scaffold the use of word stress for student-written speeches where a line was drawn under chunks of language that highlighted prosodic stress (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs). The students were therefore familiar with a simple form of lexical density analysis and annotation which to some extent simplified the activity.

The Classroom Environment

The class consists of 24 second-year students who are majoring in a variety of subjects in the Literature Department. The 90-minute reading class is held once a week over a course of 15 classes in both Spring and Autumn semester and contains a conversational element. For assessment purposes, students having read a text of around 200-300 words were interviewed by their peers with unseen comprehension questions. In the weeks before the assessment, students were given an opportunity to practice in class using the

procedure outlined below to highlight use and understanding of fillers such as “like”, “you know”, “let me see”.

Procedure

Firstly, students recorded a minute of their interview, transcribed their answers ignoring all punctuation, and added a dot for each perceived second of pause. Following this, a short lecture was given to the students describing fillers in both their L1 of Japanese, and equivalents in English. I emphasized that fillers were often used at the beginning of utterances and were generally spontaneous in the L1. Students watched several YouTube videos involving interviews with both L1 and L2 English-speakers to highlight the prevalence of use before annotating their own transcribed answers underlining fillers used in either the L1 or the L2. An example can be seen below.

. marco polo. . あの (*ano*). is great man. he went . . あれだ (*areda*). all over world. explorer explorer

Summary of Student’ Reflections and Conclusion

Students wrote written reflections on the activity answering the following questions. They were encouraged to elaborate on the reasons for their language behaviour.

- Do you use fillers when answering difficult questions in Japanese?
- Do you use fillers when answering difficult questions in English?
-

23 out of 24 of the students reflected that they commonly use fillers in Japanese, but only 3 out of the 24 were doing so in English.

Students recognized that fillers were necessary to put the interlocuter at ease and helped create “thinking time” during the interview. While three students were still unsure as to the reason they used fillers, six described its use as being “more natural”. In regard to its use in the L2, seven of the students claimed that they “don’t know” how to do this in English. Interestingly, one student discussed how they felt the behaviour was “impolite” in the semi-formal environment of spoken assessment.

I believe that by merely raising awareness of the use of fillers with students that they were able to reflect on an L1 lingusitic behaviour and transfer the skill into the L2 highlighting the important function of the utterance rather than its meaning.

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International Intelligibility in the Context of Japan: Theoretical Insights and Instructional Implementations

Daniel Devolin

Aichi University

In the short talk “Inculcating international intelligibility principles”, Devolin weaves the threads of the forum’s previous speakers, and the Research Group’s previous endeavours, into practical application for language instructors. The talk first posits intelligibility as a fluid communicative goal revolving around the interplay of the language one can produce, the language one can process, and one’s perspectives regarding language. Devolin considers intelligibility a never-ending journey of identifying language production and processing thresholds of tolerance. Intelligibility develops through periodic learner centered reflection on communicative strengths, weaknesses, and perspectives, in relation to the perceived language expectations and more importantly, the realities of a given set of communicative activity. The identification, cultivation, and application of the multi-disciplinary knowledge and skillsets involved in language communication, directly influence the user’s consistency and efficiency of establishing a realm of intelligibility with their interlocutors. Any one person’s ‘My *language*’ (e.g. ‘My English’, ‘My Japanese’) intelligibility, their production and processing capabilities, is in relation to the immediate interlocutor’s, rather than a collective, community, nation, or observer. The ‘international’ modifier of *intelligibility* is therefore misleading, if not meaningless. To be considered intelligible, one or more participant interlocutors must be able to identify the principles of intelligibility at play in a given communicative event, adapt, and overcome the communicative event’s limitation(s) that might otherwise impede access to a realm of intelligibility.

Devolin contends that, in the Japanese educational context, implementing intelligibility theory and principles requires significant ideological shift. Perspective and practice shifts, both institutionally and individually, from ‘nativist’ to ‘pragmatist’, localized to globalized, and uniformity to range, would better inform language users as to how intelligibility results from an interplay of the immediate conditions and behaviours, and not in accordance with a perceived norm. The talk presents a whirlwind overview of how broadened language and communication perspectives and skills may be developed – applying multi-year, multi-disciplinary subject lenses to language learning – and ultimately, enhance intelligibility thereby influencing motivations to pursue language development and achieve communicative goals.

The short talk's multi-disciplinary perspective to language learning starts with Global Issues. Often overlooked in language learning, and fundamentally intelligibility, are global policies and initiatives. Though not clearly established in the initial stages of the talk, the influence of global policy initiatives on language learning and intelligibility, is demonstrated by the talk's end. Having at least a rudimentary understanding of how global and domestic policies and aims influence national education curriculum and ultimately, the social, economic and environmental outcomes of a state is integral to a language's use, understanding, and learner motivations. Relevant examples of how language production, processing and attitudes would positively benefit from content learning of other subjects are also provided in the talk. Intelligibility development is briefly explored through content learning in each of the following subjects: Business, Economics, Biology, Physics, Psychology, Music, Physical Education, Art, Language Arts, Recess, History, Modern History, Computer Programming, and Engineering. The multi-disciplinary synopsis is brought full circle with Civics and Law. Here the talk takes a sobering take on language education. Highlighting some institutional blind spots and real world legal cases involving language and language discrimination, underscores how intelligibility, as an interplay of language production, processing, and perspectives, can have real world Human Rights and Sustainable Development Goals consequences and implications. Cultivating and inculcating pragmatic globalized ranges of communicative skills, fosters international attitudes towards language intelligibility and directly influences positive domestic and global policy outcomes.

In the forum's closing questions and answers, specific questions about this talk result in answers indicating articulated principles of intelligibility and subject specific activity practice are in development and forthcoming.