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USE OF THE TARGET LANGUAGE IN BEGINNING JAPANESE

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To my daughter, Yulisa, who joined my doctoral journey fashionably late.

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate how two Japanese teachers used the target language (Japanese) and students' first language (English) in a college-level, beginning Japanese course. Although the ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) recommends "extensive use of the target language," most research studies focus on European languages. Data collection was conducted in a large Midwestern University, including classroom observations, semi-structured interviews, and questionnaires. Qualitative analysis revealed Japanese teachers used both Japanese and English but as students learned more Japanese, they increasingly communicated in Japanese. The mix of Japanese and English were related to environmental factors, teaching styles, and personalities. Pedagogical decisions were not solely based on optimizing students' learning; the survival of the Japanese program was also paramount in pedagogical decision-making. Students positively perceived their experience of learning Japanese and considered both teachers' use of languages as optimal, despite their radically different approaches. The classroom was a complex system consisting of manifold variables, including negotiated co-adaptations, which promoted language learning.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Introduction

My teaching philosophy and pedagogical approach are heavily influenced by my mentor, who taught me everything about teaching while I pursued my master's degree in teaching Japanese as a foreign language. Beforehand, I did not realize what exactly classroom teachers do in a day, although teaching Japanese overseas had been my dream since junior high school. While I worked on the coursework for my degree, an opportunity came that I could start my teaching career by joining a teaching team for beginning Japanese courses led by a lecturer with other teaching assistants. The course was organized with two sessions, taught by the lecturer who introduced new topics or grammar points and the teaching assistants who drilled students to master what they had learnt, under supervision of the lecturer. The lecturer's session was labeled as "lecture" in the system, yet her class was full of exercises and interactions with students in Japanese and not really a traditional lecture at all. My background of no teaching experience naturally made my relationship with the lecturer become more like an apprenticeship. I observed every lecture class of hers and took detailed notes about what she did and said, even her jokes. Teachers must know content (content knowledge), deliver the content to students effectively (pedagogical content knowledge), and manage a classroom efficiently (pedagogical knowledge) in order to successfully promote student learning. I did not have any of that kind of knowledge. Speaking Japanese intuitively did not mean I could speak Japanese so that students could understand. I learnt "Japanese as a foreign language" together with beginner American students while observing the lectures from the corner of the classroom. The grammars were differently categorized than the ones I knew from grade schools, and English terms for the part of speech

and forms were something I had to master. I also observed the drilling sessions of other fellow TAs in order to understand how they performed teaching based on a lesson plan. They were experienced language teachers, who knew what they were supposed to do. By taking detailed notes on what to say and how to carry on the lesson plan, I basically memorized their lessons so that I could imitate them in my session. That was my survival strategy for the first semester as a classroom teacher, masking my lack of pedagogical knowledge. Of course, from time to time, that was not enough, especially when the plan did not proceed because of students' actual reactions and inquiries. This was the moment I learned an important lesson good teaching requires flexibility and prompt decision making, not just following the directions. Teaching skills are obtainable only through real experiences with students.

Motto for Language Teacher

The apprenticeship gave me the opportunity to mostly learn by observation and imitation. There was not much serious talk from the lecturer about what language teachers ought to know, yet she always reminded us by saying, "A language teacher is an entertainer, conductor and supporter" and "Don't ever bore students in the classroom." In order to make engaging and stimulating lessons for learners, we included all sorts of activities, from simple mechanical drills for mastering conjugation and vocabulary, to writing, role-play, conversation and creative activities. Instead of the activities in the textbook, we created activities or modified activities from other sources to adjust to students' backgrounds and interests. Drawing skills were esteemed for making eye-catching picture cards for vocabulary drilling as well as handwriting skills. The sequential order and pacing of all sorts of activities were also the key elements, and the goals of each lesson were predicted upon application of the structures in a real life situation.

In addition to the activities that aimed to have students use the target language, the classrooms were to be highly interactive. From the beginning of the class, we interacted with students through continual oral exercises while providing them with corrective feedback as necessary. I was not specifically told to speak only Japanese in the classroom, yet I spoke only Japanese both in and outside of the classroom because that was what other fellow TAs did. Teachers spoke Japanese according to the students' proficiency, using the structures and vocabulary they were supposed to know. The interaction was not limited to teacher-student, and we as language teachers promoted student-student interaction. It was also emphasized that students practice asking questions as well as answering them. All the interactions made the class seem like a community, where we got to know students, and the students knew each other more intimately than in other classes where silence was the norm.

We were also told to keep in mind that most of the students were still young and may look immature. Although they may act like high school students, we were to keep good rapport and have positive attitudes. I knew that relationships were very important for learning second language because of my own experience as an English learner. I could relate to the students easily because I was still learning English. Since I was the first year teacher and not confident about what I should do, I believed positive relationship was the only thing I could provide my students, by being a big supporter for their second language journey, which I was still on as well. At the end of semester, what I appreciated the most was the interdependency of teachers and students. I had tried to support my students as much as possible for their language learning, yet I was also supported by students helping me to teach. This experience in the first semester has become deeply rooted in my beliefs about teaching.

Teaching in the Real World

I did not understand how fortunate I was to be surrounded by so many qualified language teachers from whom I could learn in my early teaching career. After graduating from the program, I have taught Japanese on my own feet in various programs in higher education. Through interaction, with a variety of language teachers, not limited to Japanese, but also other languages, I learned that the diversity among teachers is based on factors such as age, educational backgrounds, occupational status, program characteristics, engagement in professional development and general experience with teaching and learning. In other words, what I understand the language teacher ought to do was not always true for other language teachers. Because my teacher training involved a very practical portion of classroom teaching and knowledge useful for language teaching such as second language acquisition theory, curriculum development, linguistics, my transition to teaching in reality was not severe compared to the ones documented in studies of Spada and Massey (1992), J. C. Richards and Pennington (1998) and Farrell (2003). Yet, it was not simple to adjust to each program's culture especially the one very different from what I was from. "Contextual factors in schools and classrooms, including novice teachers' professional relationships with colleagues, together with immediate concerns with managing learners exert a powerful influence on novice teachers' cognitions and practices which may outweigh principles learned during teacher education" (Borg, 2015, p. 94). Internal negotiation between the contextual factors and my principles about language teaching happened all the time, although my principle of being supportive for the students' learning journey was always my top priority and never waned. Since the apprenticeship time, my teaching styles have altered depending on the contextual factors of programs. Dynamics of programs are reflected by their own characteristics such as classroom

size, characteristics of students, and numbers of instructors. While acknowledging the importance of "flexibility" in my teaching in order to balance my professional idealism and reality, what has not changed at all during my years of teaching is my motto, "A language teacher is an entertainer, conductor and most importantly supporter."

"How much Japanese do you use?"

One time I was asked how much Japanese I speak in the classroom, which was a confusing question because I had never thought about the quantity I use. To put it another way, the question also meant how much English I use in the classroom. Because my approach always has been minimal use of English, which I learned from the apprenticeship, I was not sure how to respond to the question. I strongly believe that native teachers should take advantage of their nativeness, speaking the target language for the students. The belief originated from my adolescent experience of having native English teachers for my English as a foreign language education in Japan. Their participation in English classes was not consistent, and they did not radically improve our English skills either. I did not completely understand what they spoke, but I was very thrilled even with one word I could pick up from their speech. It was nothing but inspiring when I could successfully communicate with them using limited knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. I would like to give similar exciting experiences to students, which made me stick to speaking Japanese. I did not have any doubts about my language policy because it was the norm during the apprenticeship.

Contrarily, some teachers are concerned with giving negative experiences to students, so they avoid speaking Japanese. Krashen (1982b) discusses that, when the affective filter is high, it prevents learners from receiving comprehensible input, thus lowering the filter is preferable for

successful language learning. In spite of some criticism, Krashen's hypothesis about language acquisition has been impactful to foreign language teachers over generations.

Do I raise the affective filter of students with my language policy? Minimizing English does not mean ignoring communication with students. I simply use words and structures, which are already introduced in class. For example, after the first day of the beginning Japanese course where we practice "*ohayoogozaimasu* (Good morning)," I do not intend to say "good morning" to the students anymore no matter where we are. In order to speak Japanese in conversational interaction with learners, first, language teachers must be equipped with not only the proficiency of the target language but also knowledge about learners. Teachers also need to be able to quickly access students' proficiency through conversation. Even if they know that the student finished the first two chapters of the textbook, they likely did not master everything. Lastly, they need to code-switch with Japanese and English back and forth depending on how the communication proceeds. Obviously, I do not speak in the same way as I speak with native speakers.

Of course, it is impossible to exclude English completely from instruction, especially because Japanese is linguistically different and English speakers find it more complex than languages such as Spanish or French, which share alphabets and Latin root words. The textbook is usually written in English as well as any instruction on teaching materials. Although more research suggests that the amount of teacher talk should be limited to have students' utterances maximized (Nunan, 1991), no matter whether it is in English or Japanese, in order to use Japanese as much as possible in classrooms, other modes such as pictures and/English have been shown to be effective. Even with all the consideration of gradual induction to Japanese, could my language policy be overwhelming and a stressful experience for students?

In fact, I have seen several students who claimed they could not learn Japanese no matter how hard they studied. Some withdraw from the course immediately, some cannot withdraw because their academic advisor placed them to complete three sequential foreign language courses for their degree requirements because they had never taken any foreign language courses in high school. Many maybe from rural areas of the state, where no foreign language courses are offered in any schools. In spite of my attempt to support students in either in English or Japanese inside and outside of classroom, some claimed that they could not successfully learn Japanese. While I highly value their bravery, I wonder if my classroom language policy gives them a negative experience.

It does not make any sense that language teachers are afraid of speaking the target language in the classroom, especially when they are native speakers. In foreign language pedagogy, native speakers are often considered to be optimal because of their natural intuition about their first language (Braine, 1999). Chomsky (1965) states that a native speaker of a language is an "ideal speaker and listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community who knows its language perfectly" (p. 3). Although the ability to intuitively check students' production in the target language does not guarantee how successfully they can use the target language with students, it is an ability that they should take advantage of in order to promote students' learning. There is no reason why they should be hesitant about speaking the target language in front of their students.

Unfortunately, the misconception that native speakers make the best language teachers is difficult to shed (Braine, 1999), and I hear this native speaker fallacy quite often from colleagues and students. There are justified reasons for a preference for native teachers such as native like inflections. They are related to the native speakers' ability of speaking, which means students

expect native teachers to provide them with "the real deal." Native teachers not using Japanese to their students put the cart before the horse.

How do Language Teachers Use the Target Language?

The particular uses and abuses of language for instruction are very specific to the field of foreign language teaching. Regardless of teachers' proficiency in the target language, how much target language is used in the classroom depends on teachers and/or instructional approach. The American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) states that "language educators and their students use the target language as exclusively as possible (90% plus) at all levels of instruction during instructional time and, when feasible, beyond the classroom" (2015, p. 1). The use of the target language in instruction is considered as the foundation of the foreign language classroom, yet there have been discussions concerning how to best manage the target language in light of students' first language (L1) appropriately. Teachers must determine between "100% exclusive use to selective integration of L1" to a philosophy that maximizes the benefits of codeswitching (Moeller & Roberts, 2013, p. 21).

In this study, I explore how language teachers use the target language with students who just started learning the language in a college-level, beginning Japanese classroom. I wonder about teachers' rationales for the use of the target language, and students' perceptions of teachers' pedagogical approaches.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Use of the target language (TL) as well as students' first language (L1) in a second language classroom have been discussed at length in the field of second language (L2) teaching and learning. Although ACTFL recommends "extensive use of the target language," teachers are aware of the necessity for L1 use in order to improve certain aspects of instruction (Macaro, 2001). The previous studies about teachers' use of the target language in the classroom offer conflicting views.

Language Use by Foreign Language Teachers

How Much Should Teachers Use TL?

Language teachers' exclusive use of only the target language was supported by Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis (1982b), which argues that learners need to be fully exposed to understandable words, so that they can acquire the language. The input must not only be something the learners can understand with ease, but also a little more advanced on what the learners are supposed to know. In a foreign language classroom, since a teacher is the sole linguistic model for students, she/he is responsible for providing TL input (Krashen, 1982b).

Several researchers have studied the effect of the quantity of TL input on learners' language development. For example, Turnbull (2001) conducted four process-product studies about the impact of teachers' use of the TL on student proficiency. Observation of French teachers revealed TL use ranging from 9% to 89% depending on the instructor. Overall, students of teachers frequently speaking French showed better performance on achievement tests than students with teachers who did not speak French much. The positive connection between TL and

achievement was evident. Similar results were found in studies by Larsen-Freeman (1985), Lightbown (1991), and Wolf (1977).

In addition to the focus on the amount of TL input, some researchers warn that L2 exposure does not guarantee mastery because learners have to produce comprehensive output. Swain (1985) developed a comprehensible output hypothesis, based on the work of Krashen (1982a). In order to master a language, learners must receive comprehensible input, understand it, and produce the TL. Swain wrote that "learners need to be pushed to make use of their resources; they need to have their linguistic abilities stretched to their fullest; they need to reflect on their output and consider ways of modifying it to enhance comprehensibility, appropriateness, and accuracy" (1993, pp. 160-161). By providing opportunities to produce the TL, either in speaking or in writing, learners have more chances to receive reciprocal input in the TL.

In a recent study, Saito and Hanzawa (2018) found a positive correlation between the quantity of input and L2 speech learning. Adopting a definition of input as "L2 vocal utterances the learner has heard and comprehended, including his own, regardless of whether these utterances have been produced correctly by L2 native speakers, or incorrectly by other non-native speakers of the L2" (Flege, 2009, p. 175), they studied 40 Japanese students enrolled in English as a foreign language courses in a Japanese university. Hours of the instruction as well as time students spent using English outside classroom were calculated to compare students' achievement on a timed picture description task, which took place at three different testing points over an academic year. The result showed that, in relation to increased L2 input, the students improved their prosodic, temporal, lexical and grammatical aspects for the first semester, while prosodic accuracy (word stress and intonation) continued to grow in the second semester.

The input-proficiency relation was remarkable during the beginning stage of fluency and lexicogrammar development, even though it took place in the first semester when the students were still new to the university-level foreign language classroom. Pronunciation did not improve as much as other linguistic aspects as found in other studies such as Flege (2009), Skehan (2014) and Abrahamsson and Hyltenstam (2009).

What Kind of TL is Appropriate to Use?

Some studies discuss the importance of the quality of the TL spoken in the classroom rather than the amount. For example, Guthrie (1984) documented the classroom discourse of six French teachers. She counted the number of words in French (TL) and English (L1) by using video and audio recording of the classroom, then calculated the teachers' and students' speech in the TL. The TL was adequately used by all teachers, yet the discourses of some was observed mostly in form-focused instruction, such as repetition and reading the textbook. For half of the teachers, the TL use for content-based instruction, such as expressing their own opinions, was quite low. The amount of teachers' TL speech did not correlate to the amount of students' speech in class. Guthrie (1984) concluded that the quality of TL input should be carefully considered.

Hall and Walsh (2002) found that the Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) pattern of interaction could limit potential for language learning. IRE is described as follows;

> In the IRE pattern of interaction, the teacher plays the role of expert, whose primary instructional task is to elicit information from the students in order to ascertain whether they know the material. He or she also serves as gatekeeper to learning opportunities. It is the teacher who decides who will participate, when students can take a tum, how much they can contribute, and whether their contributions are worthy and appropriate. (p. 188)

IRE patterns are frequently used in foreign language classrooms for grammar and vocabulary practice (Johnson 1995). Recitation is a necessary strategy for teachers, especially with large classes, so that students' output with limited instructional time is maximized. However, teachers can also consider providing students with opportunities to try out their understanding of language by expressing their own ideas (Hall & Walsh, 2002).

The context of TL use was examined in research by Levine (2003), using questionnaires for both students and instructors. He found that, while many instructors use the TL for topic/theme based activities, they feel less likely to use it for grammar explanation and information about tests, quizzes, and assignments. Levine's findings align with results from a study by Polio and Duff (1994) that reported teacher use of L1 for grammar instruction, classroom management, expression of empathy/solidarity, and translation of unknown vocabulary. Factors triggering L1 use included a perceived lack of students' comprehension, students' use of English that caused the teacher to switch away from the TL, and the desire of native TL speaking teacher to practice their English (Polio & Duff, 1994). However, neither Polio and Duff (1994) or Levine (2003) found, when in the context of instruction, the TL should be always used to improve students' learning.

What are the Obstacles to Using TL?

Although most teachers acknowledge the importance of TL input, challenges to TL use have been reported in several studies. For example, Kim and Elder (2008) observed classroom instruction by a Korean language teacher and a French language teacher in secondary school in New Zealand. While the French teacher maximized TL use, the Korean teacher tended to use English quite frequently. Interviews after the class observations revealed that the use of English

was a reflection of each teacher's experience as a language learner as well as the status of each language in New Zealand. The Korean teacher expressed that real language acquisition happens in natural settings such as study or living abroad, and it was impossible for students to fully master the language only through classroom instruction. Although he understood the importance of TL input, he emphasized that students should not be discouraged by the difficulty of the language. As a result, he switched to using English without hesitation. Language distance or status of the TL in the host country could be another factor that contributes to the use of L1. The environment could positively or negatively influence TL use (Kim & Elder, 2008).

Bateman's (2008) case study, using questionnaires and the written reflections of 10 student teachers, presented student teachers' attitudes and their shifts towards the use of the TL in the classroom over the semester of beginning Spanish course. The initial, intended goal of classroom TL use ranged from 50% to 95%, and all teachers expressed the desire to use the TL as much as possible in instruction. However, as the semester progressed, several teachers started changing opinions about TL use. In written reflections, they reported the difficulty of extensive use of the TL due to issues of (1) classroom management, (2) lack of time, (3) teacher fatigue, (4) rapport with students, and (5) unfamiliar vocabulary (Bateman, 2008). Non-native teachers also indicated their limited language proficiency as a reason for the difficulty of instruction in the TL (Bateman, 2008). Bateman (2008) pointed out that some of these concerns were based on their lack of experience as language teachers, and could be avoided with appropriate professional training.

Any Difference among Teachers?

De la Campa and Nassaji (2009) examined two native German instructors in a Canadian university, to understand the reasons for using English (students' L1) in the classroom. One

experienced and one novice instructor were studied with video and audio recordings of their classes, interviews and stimulated recall sessions immediately following each recorded class. While both instructors considered L1 use as a necessary and effective tool for L2 learning, a word count revealed that they used 88.7% L2 (German) and 11.3% L1 (English) words in the recorded classes with no significant difference between the two. Both instructors used the TL most frequently for translations, but the intentions behind the use were different. The experienced instructor used L1 to provide a comfortable learning environment for their students through personal comments and humor. In the stimulated recall session, the experienced instructor believed use of L1 for humor was a strategy to build rapport and to encourage students in the process of language learning. On the other hand, the novice instructor used L1 mostly as a teaching strategy for better management of the classroom. Both instructors mentioned the difficulty of having students with diverse motivations learning the TL in the same classroom. Use of L1 helped them create enjoyable environments where students engaged with the TL. The researchers summarized that "these purposes were both pedagogical and social, and were intended not only to facilitate L2 learning by helping learners to better understand the L2 instruction, but also to create a supportive and enjoyable environment for learning to take place" (p. 755). Although there was a difference in intentions behind the language use between the novice instructor and the experienced one, their ultimate goals for instruction were similar.

The correlation between teaching experience and the use of the TL was found in a study by Kraemer (2006). She researched the amount and purposes of L1 use in the classroom of five teaching assistants (TA) of German. The results showed that the TAs used L1 in the classroom despite a department policy of maximizing the use of the TL. The context of English (L1) use included classroom management, grammar, translation, and talking to individual students.

However, the amount of English (L1) used was much less than the researcher expected, and the TAs used English much less than they had predicted. The experienced TAs used the least English compared to new TAs. Kraemer found no difference between native speaking and non-native speaking TAs. Kraemer's study was inconsistent with Kim and Elder's (2008) study of seven participants in New Zealand, who were native teachers of Japanese, Korean, German, and French. They found that the L1 (English) use ranged from 12% to 77%. These findings indicate that a native speaking teacher of a language may not necessarily use the TL more than a non-native teacher.

Should Teachers Avoid English in the Classroom?

Cook (2001) questioned the assumption that language teachers should discourage L1 use in the classroom. When foreign language teachers speak L1 in the classroom, they tend to feel guilty about it because of the negative view of L1 use in instruction. Cook discussed the negative attitude towards use of the L1 in language instruction in relation to the English-only movement that insisted the L1 should be avoided in learning the TL. He echoes Phillipson (1996) and Van der Walt (1997) who claimed there was danger in downgrading the L1 language. Cook (2001) explained that the ultimate goal in language education was to have learners deal with two languages, so the classrooms do not have to provide monolingual settings and avoid use of the L1. He suggests using L1 systematically and deliberately in classroom:

- to provide a short-cut for giving instructions and explanations where the cost of the L2 is too great
- to build up interlinked L1 and L2 knowledge in the students' minds
- to carry out learning tasks through collaborative dialogue with fellow students

- to develop L2 activities such as code-switching for later real-life use (Cook, 2001, p. 418)

Edstrom (2006), a Spanish instructor, documented her reasons for L1 use in the classroom. As a researcher as well as a participant of the study, Edstrom employed 15 student participants from her Spanish class to evaluate the way she used the target language in the classroom using reflective journals, interviews, and questionnaires. The perception of students of Edstrom's L1 was similar to the researcher's self-report, but her journals included reservations about her use of too much English in class. She discussed three main reasons for her use of L1; moral obligation, multiple instructional objectives, and laziness. Similarly to Polio and Duff's (1994) findings on solidarity and rapport as functions of L1 use, Edstrom spoke English to prevent miscommunication regarding her failure to correctly pronounce a student's name. Although recognizing the value of a potential *real life* social situations in the TL, she wrote "there are moments when my sense of moral obligation to a student, in this case concern about communicating respect and creating a positive environment, overrides my belief in maximizing L2 use"(Edstrom, 2006, p. 286). She wrote that her teaching objectives were not limited to language acquisition, but also include culture, for which, especially with novice learners, she has to use L1. As with Turnbull (2001), Edstrom found it is time saving to use L1 for distressed students, especially when teachers are also physically tired. Edstrom found no identifiable appropriate quantity of L1 use since interactions were based on purpose.

Is Code-Switching between L1 and L2 Effective?

Code-switching refers to a switch between two or more languages when a speaker and an interlocutor share more than one language (Macaro, 2006). It is used because "the speaker finds it easier or more appropriate in the linguistic and/or cultural context, to communicate by switching than by keeping the utterances totally in the same language" (Macaro, 2006, p. 63). Macaro (2001) examined language use in high school French classrooms with a focus on the quantity of teachers and learners' utterances. The result indicates that there is no correlation between teachers' code-switching and students' L1 and TL speech. Code switching is proposed to be at the center of the TL-L1 controversy of language use in the classroom. In this study, one of the participants used code-switching in order to facilitate classroom discourse by avoiding gaps between interactions.

Another inquiry in Macaro's (2001) study was how professional training affects student teachers' decision making on language use. He provided student teachers with information about language use in the classroom. Later, they were invited to consider three theoretical positions;

1. The Virtual Position. The classroom is like the target country. Therefore we should aim at total exclusion of the Ll. There is no pedagogical value in L1 use. The L1 can be excluded from the FL classroom as long as the teacher is skilled enough.

2. The 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 Ll.

3. The Optimal Position. There is some pedagogical value in L1 use. Some aspects of learning may actually be enhanced by use of the Ll. There should

> therefore be a constant exploration of pedagogical principles regarding whether and in what ways L1 use is justified. (p. 535)

The interviews revealed that the factor triggering the type of language use was not professional knowledge but external factors such as national standards. One participant commented that he may use more English if there is no standard telling him to maximize the use of the TL.

Thompson and Harrison's (2014) research on code-switching revealed the situations in which code switching takes place for both teachers and students. Collecting data from 16 instructors of Spanish, they analyzed the code switches of both instructors and students. The classroom default language was Spanish, which was adopted as a department policy. From transcriptions of the classroom discourse, the researchers evaluated only Spanish to English code-switches. The findings include that teachers' code-switches happened for classroom administration, translation, grammar explanation and establishing relationships. Students' code-switches were most likely initiated by the instructor. Thompson and Harrison (2014) argue that instructors have a strong influence on language choice in the classroom.

Licensing Teachers to Use L1 or not?

Cook (2001) argued that foreign language teachers feel guilty about their use of English in the classroom when maximum use of the TL is encouraged, and they should be allowed to use L1 in the classroom. There are several counter-arguments about allowing teachers to use the L1, although all of them acknowledge that L1 use has benefits for not only students' learning the language, but also for pedagogical reasons.

For example, Turnbull (2001) expressed concern that giving license to teachers to speak the L1 would lead to its overuse in the classroom. Her claim is based on the fact that, even with

a classroom language policy of exclusive use of the TL, a wide range of L1 use among teachers is still observed. Instead of granting permission, it is better to provide teachers with professional training of how to maximize the TL in the classroom. Her finding indicated that language teachers do not always recognize their actual use of L1 in the classroom. Techniques of TL uses or metalinguistic skills should be taught to teachers to effectively avoid L1 in classroom.

Factors such as department policy, language, lesson content, and objectives affect the teachers' use of the TL in addition to their personal beliefs (Duff & Polio, 1990). What is important is that language teachers should be able to critically consider their use of language in the classroom instead of just following a preset guideline. For that, they need to receive proper training, not only in foreign language pedagogy, but also language education in general. Moreover, they have to reflect on what is their ultimate goal for teaching foreign language. For example, Wong Fillmore (1985) states the importance of TL use as follows;

> Language learning occurs when students try to figure out what their teachers and classmates are saying, when teachers through their efforts to communicate with learners provide them with enough extra linguistic cues to allow them to figure out what is being said, and when the situation is one that allows learners to make astute guesses at the meaning of the language being used in the lesson. (p. 35)

Clear communication may enhance acquisition of the TL. Even if students cannot acquire linguistic proficiency, a genuinely communicative experience potentially provides students with something that they cannot experience without taking the class.

Does TL Use Motivate Students?

Macdonald (1993) discusses the impact of TL use on students' motivation especially when they realize how the TL is useful. According to Macaro (1997), students are more likely to

be willing to learn French because they want to use the language as a communication tool. By using the TL exclusively in the classroom, students can view how the language is used, which promotes learning.

Crichton (2009) observed middle school French teachers in Scotland for their use of the TL. What she witnessed was the motivating atmosphere teachers created in the classroom to foster the TL (Dörnyei, 2001). She identified teachers' warm characteristics, natural digressions, focus on meaning, encouraging output and encouraging interaction as strategies to promote co-operation in the classroom. "The teachers' use of TL created an ethos where their pupils demonstrated not only comprehension but also an acceptance that they were expected to make their own contributions in the TL" (Crichton, 2009, p. 24). Such a sympathetic and caring atmosphere where both teachers and students feel valued can enhance the contribution to the interaction in the TL. Dörnyei (2001) argued that such an atmosphere can produce a "powerful effective impact in the second language classroom."

Hall and Walsh (2002) also discussed the language teachers' role for setting the motivating learning environment as follows;

> a motivating learning environment was characterized by teacher contributions that encouraged students to participate by asking them to elaborate on their responses, comment on the responses of others, and propose topics for discussion. Moreover, the classroom was characterized by teacher actions that treated student responses as valuable and legitimate regardless of whether they were 'right,' and attempted to understand the learners' expressed thoughts from the learners' particular perspectives rather than impose their own views on what the students were attempting to say. (p. 194)

Language teachers need to consider their role as setting the motivation for the learners through instruction. Among other tools, use of the TL is the most challenging yet provides the most rewards for students (Hall & Walsh, 2002).

Does TL Use Cause Foreign Language Anxiety?

Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) discussed the nature of foreign language anxiety from several perspectives. In the article, they portrayed a clinical experience at the Learning Service Center at the University of Texas as follows;

> Principally, counselors find that anxiety centers on the two basic task requirements of foreign language learning: listening and speaking. Difficulty in speaking in class is probably the most frequently cited concern of the anxious foreign language students seeking help at the LSC. Students often report that they feel fairly comfortable responding to a drill or delivering prepared speeches in their foreign language class but tend to "freeze" in a role-play situation. A female student speaks of the evenings in her dorm room spent rehearsing what she should have said in class the day before. Anxious language learners also complain of difficulties discriminating the sounds and structures of a target language message. One male student claims to hear only a loud buzz whenever his teacher speaks the foreign language. Anxious students may also have difficulty grasping the content of a target language message. Many LSC clients claim that they have little or no idea of what the teacher is saying in extended target language utterances (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 126).

They first discussed foreign language anxiety as performance-related anxieties such as communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation. After all, students are constantly evaluated about their performance (in the target language) in academic and social context by the

only fluent speaker, their teacher. They defined communication apprehension as a "type of shyness characterized by fear of or anxiety about communication with people (p.127)" in regards with speaking, listening, or learning a spoken message (Horwitz et al., 1986), which stems in the personal knowledge of the difficulty understanding each other. Consequently, they argue that foreign language anxiety is considered as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process (p. 128)". Even though learners are reasonably intelligent and socially-adept individuals, their self-concept would be challenged with limited language proficiency, and it could lead to silence, self-consciousness, or panic.

"The importance of the disparity between the "true" self as known to the language learner and the more limited self as can be presented at any given moment in the foreign language would seem to distinguish foreign language anxiety from other academic anxieties such as those associated with mathematics or science" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 128). Based on the conceptualization about the foreign language anxiety, they identified what causes anxiety in the classroom. They created the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) based on students' discussion regarding their experience with the difficulty of language learning. Using the scale on 75 university students of introductory Spanish, they found that high anxiety students are afraid of making mistakes, and not understanding all language input. In addition, students fear speaking in front of others, and performing less skillfully than other classmates. While those findings are related to performance related anxiety, one finding specific to foreign language was that they get overwhelmed by dealing with all of the tasks of language learning. Their identification of language anxiety was beneficial for teachers to acknowledge to

understand behavior. However, questions on FLCAS focus on students' feelings when they are required to speak; there are no clear findings on teachers' TL use and anxiety.

Moreover, Levine's (2003) study mainly disclosed the relationship between TL use and anxiety as well as the amount of TL use with different interlocutors. He found that the amount of TL use was not positively correlated to the students' anxiety level in the classroom, and "TL use tends to be higher, and anxiety lower, for (a) students in the second year of instruction, (b) students with a bilingual background, and (c) students who expect a higher grade" (p. 352). In other words, greater TL use does not automatically increase anxiety for many learners, who might feel comfortable with the TL use. In addition, the result showed that more teachers feel more anxious about the comprehension of learners in the TL than the learners themselves.

Students' Perspectives Towards Language Use

Target Language Only Policy

One of the reasons for teachers to use the TL extensively is rooted in their desire for students to speak the target language, particularly because they are aware of the importance of producing the target language in order to promote language acquisition. As discussed in Thompson and Harrison (2014), students' code-switching to English was mostly initiated by their teachers' code-switching, and it limits, not only the opportunity to produce the language, but also intake of the language.

A few researchers have studied the effect of "target language only policy" in the classroom. As mentioned in Macaro (2001) and Edstrom (2006), there are language programs adopting "TL only" as a "program policy" and it is influential on teachers. By making it as a policy, it not only regulates teachers' use of language, but also students' use, no matter how

proficient students are. As a side effect, Yasuda (2017) reported a Spanish instructor's dilemma between the language policy and students' actual reaction and comprehension in the classroom.

Amir and Musk (2013) investigated how "language policing" takes place in English as a foreign language classroom in an international school in Sweden. The classroom discourse with a native English teacher and pupils (15-16 years old) was recorded and transcribed. They identified the pattern of language policing as 1) noticed violating the language policy, 2) an act of language policing followed by reaction to the policing. They reported that the act of policing includes reminders of the rule, warnings or punitive acts by point removal, and students reacted to it by responding in English or subtle resistance through giggling, whispering in Swedish or even silence (Amir & Musk, 2013).

Similar resistance to target language only policy was documented in a study by Worth (2006). She documented the nature of learner's resistance in Italian as a foreign language setting by a semester long classroom observation of a first semester course of Italian, as well as interviews and language attitude surveys from the students. One of the findings was "the use of codeswitching from Italian to English to resist their instructors' interpretation of the target-language only policy because conforming to those classroom expectations threatened their identities as competent, articulate students (Worth, 2006). She discussed the importance of critical pedagogy to empowering students rather than power dominant the classroom structures, in this case, by using target-language only policy as well as listening to students' voice on the curriculum (Worth, 2006).

In Garrett and Young's (2009) study on learners' experience and emotions, one of the authors enrolled in an 8-week beginning Portuguese course and shared her thoughts and experience with the other author through the program. They documented positive and negative

emotions, and categorized experiences into 1) language awareness, 2) teacher voice, 3) social relations, and 4) cultural learning. The participant author had taught French for years, but this experience made her ponder the wisdom of adopting a target language only policy in beginner courses, because she realized that processing the different language sounds takes time for learners, which could lead to anxiety.

Negative Attitude about L1 Use in the Classroom

Learners' resistance to L1 is also reported in several studies. Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney (2008), for example, examined students' perspectives on L1 use in the classroom by using questionnaires which asked about the advantages and disadvantages of the use of L1. Beginner French students in the university showed preference for the instructors' use of L1 for classroom management although they also preferred most of the instruction to be in the TL. They acknowledge the benefit of exposure in the TL especially and stated that without hearing the TL they cannot improve their pronunciation. While L1 use by the instructor helps to remove negative emotions such as fear and confusion, they are concerned that it may lead them to "laziness" or "less confidence".

Students' reluctance to use L1 was also observed in a study by Storch and Wigglesworth (2003). They investigated if students in English as a second language context use their L1 as learning tool in collaborative activities. Even though students were paired based on their L1 to be encouraged to use it, frequency for the most extensive use was only 50%. Some pairs did speak their L1 only for several words or phrases. Their usage of L1 was for 1) task clarification 2) management for their paired work, 3) to clarify meaning and vocabulary and 4) to discuss the grammatical structures, which are very similar to the findings on teacher's use of L1 by Polio and Duff (1994), Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002), Duff and Polio (1990) and Thompson and

Harrison (2014). During the interviews, students shared their views that the use of L1 "would slow down the activity" and their beliefs that it should be limited in the classroom as much as possible although they agreed that use of L1 can be a useful tool for learning. Extensive use of the TL is strongly believed to be essential, not only by teachers, but also learners.

L1's Role in Language Learning

In spite of the students' beliefs about extensive use of TL as essential for language acquisition, studies on the role of L1 in foreign language classroom have been reported as useful for scaffolding assistance. For example, Antón and DiCamilla (1999) investigated five student pairs in Spanish as a foreign language classroom. They audio-recorded their collaborative sessions on writing tasks, and they analyzed how L1 was used among learners. Their use of L1 helped the learners to enlist and maintain each other's interest in the task throughout its performance, develop strategies for making the task manageable, maintain their focus on the goal of the task, foreground important elements of the task, discuss what needs to be done to solve specific problems, and explicate and build on each other's partial solutions to specific problems throughout the task" (Antón & DiCamilla, 1999, p. 237). Not only was L1 used for mediating the cognitive process, but it was also used for social functions such as building interpersonal relationships with their classmates. This study revealed the power of L1 use during collaborative work among students for L2 learning, following to Swain and Lapkin (2000). Ellis (2012) summarized the learner's use of L1 as follows;

> L1 is used by classroom learners profitably in both social talk and private speech. It serves three main functions first it serves an interpersonal function, enabling learners to socialize with each other, second, it plays an important role metatalk, helping learners to establish reciprocity regarding their goas and procedures for carrying out an activity.

Third, it enables learners to solve problems associated with their limited L2 resources. (p. 171)

How Should Teachers Use the Language?

Few teachers prefer to exclude students' L1 completely in the language classroom. While they understand their position as the provider of input in the TL, they use L1 "for procedural instructions for complex activities, relationship building, control and management, teaching grammar explicitly, and providing brief L1 equivalents or vice versa" (Macaro, 2001). In other words, they use L1 so that students can engage in learning the language production in TL. Teachers assign collaborative activities to students not only because collaborative activities are effective for scaffolding, but also because they want students to use the language. Students' positive engagement depend heavily upon interpersonal relationships with the teacher as well as their classmates because "situations that students interpret as threatening to their membership in a classroom community can adversely affect their desire to create and preserve social affiliations" (Garrett & Young, 2009, p. 210). With limited time and teacher availability, having students work on collaborative tasks is essential for students to engage with the language rather than sit in their seats, staring and listening to the teachers.

Several studies revealed that the belief that "extensive TL use is effective" was prevalent among both teachers and students in positive and negative ways. Teachers are officially or unofficially encouraged to use TL because it is inevitable for teachers to fall into speaking L1 under burdened circumstances. In Edstrom (2006), the teacher confessed that their use of L1 took place because of exhaustion. In order to have instruction mostly in the TL, language teachers must carefully prepare their teaching plans in advance, whether they are non-native or native speakers of the TL. Planning lessons by choosing appropriate activities as well as

rehearsing how to explain things in the TL in a way learners understand, language teachers' preparation could be endless especially for less experienced teachers (Borg, 2006, p. 23). Although it is desirable that language teachers maintain "extensive TL use" as their slogan for their teaching, it is also important that they critically understand "extensive use" and flexibly follow it. Likewise, there are students who misunderstand the effectiveness of TL use by language teachers. Language acquisition occurs simply by listening to the TL, which relates to the fallacy that native speakers can make the best language teachers. Clear communication between students and teachers about language acquisition and TL use is essential for establishing the learning environment.

Individual differences, such as proficiency level, motivation, and anxiety, are major factors for teachers to consider how much they should use/avoid the TL. For highly motivated learners or more advanced learners of the TL, a TL only policy in the classroom could be taken as a positive challenge while, for highly anxious students, students without any prior foreign language learning experience, and unmotivated students such as the one taking the language course for fulfilling foreign language requirement for their degree, it is nothing but a burden. Learners' resistance is the last thing that language teachers would want to have happen in their classroom. Classrooms are not monolithic in nature and change constantly as learners help to construct and reconstruct them (Ellis, 2012). Once the process of the classroom construction collapses, it is difficult to rebuild it.

> Decisions about appropriate L1 use are, in large part, inextricably tied to classroom circumstances and cannot be predetermined nor easily generalized from one context to another. Some researchers have indicated the need for concrete guidelines about L1/L2 use that would presumably sanction specific quantities of or functions for L1 use, but

such “rules” inevitably simplify the complexity of the language teaching and learning experiences. (Edstrom, 2009, p. 14)

What is Really Happening in the Classroom?

Much of the research literature since 2000, indicates that foreign language teaching has a tacit manual for use of L1 while providing learners with enough L2 experience. However, most of studies regarding language use in the classroom took place in European-centric language classrooms, such as ESL, French, German and Spanish. Fewer studies involve less commonly taught languages, such as Japanese, Chinese and Arabic. The difference in context between learning a language as foreign language and second language also should be under consideration. The ETS Oral Proficiency Testing Manual (1982) presents that Japanese is in group 4 with other languages such as Arabic, Chinese, and Korean, which are all considered to be “difficult” languages to learn for English speakers, based on the duration taken to be proficient. In order to be a superior speaker of Japanese, for example, English speaking adult learners have to spend 80-92 weeks (2400-2760 hours) compared with group 1 languages such as French, Spanish, and Italian which require 24 weeks (720 hours). Additionally, these languages tend to employ their own writing systems, which is an additional challenge for language learners. This measure was created based on the data from a special training program where the language is intensively learned, and it may not be applicable for other types of learners (Hadley, 2001). Yet, the time scale is widely used to estimate the difficulty of a language. Japanese is linguistically very different from English, and it is not realistic for language teachers to rely on mediums of instruction only in Japanese, especially under the condition that it is a college foreign language course within a definite time frame. It is impossible for English speaking students without any

previous knowledge about Japanese to understand instruction only in Japanese. Under such conditions, how do Japanese language teachers manage the classroom?

Studies by Polio and Duff (1994), Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002), Duff and Polio (1990) and Thompson and Harrison (2014) presented the functions of L1 or TL use, and Macaro (2001, 2005, 2006, 2009) suggested code-switching as a strategy for instruction. However, there is little attention to characteristics of teachers' utterances, in other words, teacher talk. For example, code-switching includes intersentiential switching, intra-sentential switching, tag-switching, and intra-word switching (Wei, 2000). What kind of features does teacher talk include? How do language teachers speak in the classroom? Why do they speak in that way?

Cognitive theories have been "the" theory for second language acquisition (SLA) for the past few decades (Atkinson, 2011). They tend to focus on cause and effect relationships, such as teachers' extensive TL use, which could cause better proficiency, using quantitative and experimental methods. While alternative approaches appeared, Ellis (2012) pointed out that studies with sociocultural theories, for example, focus on the process of learning language, but are not very descriptive about the outcome. Ortega (2011) discusses alternative approaches as socially oriented explanations for L2 learning, with a focus on situatedness and action and process, which greatly contribute to overcoming dichotomous thinking such as teaching vs learning. More studies are needed to investigate teachers' use of language more holistically as a part of classroom environment, where learning is emerged.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore a beginning Japanese classroom to understand how Japanese language teachers communicate as a part of the target language experience.

My research questions are as follows;

1. How do beginning Japanese language teachers use English and Japanese in instruction?
2. What influences language teachers' pedagogical decisions on language use?
3. What are students' perspectives on their Target Language (TL) experience?

My research questions reflected not only concerns for foreign language teaching and learning, but also personal constructs of meaning from experience within the classroom. This classroom study was conducted within and outside of the physical classroom where teachers interact with students, including offices and elsewhere on campus (Ellis, 2012). Because this study aimed to understand the lived experience of human beings and the world in which they live (Jones, Torres, & Arminio, 2013), qualitative methodology was the most appropriate. Among all the qualitative methodologies, case study was selected because the focus was on "insight, discovery, and interpretation" (Merriam, 2009, p. 42) of the classroom. In the following section, I describe the study's conceptual orientation, methodology, data collection methods and processes of data analysis.

Qualitative Case Study

Case study aims for an "in depth description and analysis of a bounded system" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015) with a focus on deeper understanding rather than generalization (Stake, 1995).

My study took a particularistic case study approach, which concentrates on a particular phenomenon arising from everyday practice (Merriam, 2009). In another typology, it could be an intrinsic case study, one based on my interest in the particular case, rather than general understanding of a phenomenon using a particular case (Stake, 1995). The bounded system is the determiner for case study, which includes individuals, programs, institutions, processes and relationships (Jones et al., 2013), and the case is a "phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 25). My case study was bounded by attributes such as a beginning Japanese language classroom, native speakers of Japanese who teach Japanese in a higher education, and the fall semester of 2018. It was focused on a holistic phenomenon in the classroom —teaching and learning Japanese—and I was investigating a "case" to uncover the interactions of various factors (Merriam, 2009).

Conceptualization of the Study

Jones et al. (2013) suggest researchers be conscious of their philosophical stances to situate a study within an articulated worldview, which guides to the methodology and provides "a context for the process and grounding its logic and criteria" (Crotty, 1998, p. 3). Epistemology is a study of the nature of knowledge and how knowledge is acquired. Ontology involves the nature of being, reality and truth. Axiology invokes the ethics behind an inquiry, requiring the researcher to reflect on the values implicit in judgments and evaluations. A researcher's epistemology, ontology, and axiology are intrinsically linked to a particular worldview (Pasque, Carducci, Kuntz, & Gildersleeve, 2012; Schwandt, 2007).

My philosophical stance is congruent with constructivism. Constructivism attempts to understand the meanings people make through social interaction, rather than facts, and allows

multiple realities in this world (Jones et al., 2013). Schwandt (1994) described constructivists as follows;

> Constructivists are deeply committed to the contrary view that what we take to be objective knowledge and truth is the result of perspective. Knowledge and truth are created, not discovered by mind. They emphasize the pluralistic and plastic character of reality-pluralistic in the sense that reality is expressible in a variety of symbol and language systems; plastic in the sense that reality is stretched and shaped to fit purposeful acts of intentional human agents. (p. 236)

A constructivist approach considers research as a construction, and researchers are expected to bring their own perspectives into account as an integral part of the research reality (Charmaz, 2014). Participants' perspectives should be individually acknowledged as well as researchers' positions and understandings (Jones et al., 2013).

Data Collection

Setting & Participants

Middle State University. Data collection was conducted in a large public research university located in a midsize Midwestern city in the United States. In addition to its roots as a teachers college, Middle State University (pseudonym) has a formidable reputation in architecture, journalism, telecommunications, and design. Enrollment is approximately 22,000 undergraduate and graduate students.

The department of modern languages and classics, where my participants work, offers major and minor programs in Spanish, French, German, Japanese, Classical languages, world languages, and minor programs in Arabic, Chinese, and classical culture. According to the

Middle State University fact book from 2017-2018, the total enrollment of the department is 225 undergraduate students with 42 recent graduates.

The Japanese program is the second largest program in the department after the Spanish program. There are three tenured professors specialized in foreign language education, Japanese literature, and second language acquisition, who all teach Japanese language courses from beginning to advanced. There is also one assistant lecturer who teaches only language courses and a graduate teaching assistant who hold "lab sessions" once a week under supervision of tenured professors. In addition to Beginning Japanese 1, the program offered courses such as Beginning Japanese 2, Intermediate Japanese 1, Advanced Japanese 1, Readings in Japanese, and Composition in the fall semester of 2018.

Teacher-Participants. Purposeful sampling was first employed to make the study an "information-rich case" (Patton, 2015). One definite condition for participants was that they had to be knowledgeable about foreign language pedagogy, and able to "illuminate the phenomenon under investigation" (Jones et al., 2013, p. 109). Participants had to be familiar with language immersion where the target language is used exclusively and they had to be currently teaching courses in beginning Japanese.

After several inquiries to former colleagues, two native Japanese teachers at Middle State University were recommended to me. They were both born and raised in Japan, and obtained higher degrees in applied linguistics with concentrations in Japanese from the same institution in the U.S. When enrolled in their graduate programs, both taught Japanese as teaching assistants. Both also taught at a prestigious language intensive immersion program during the summers. Dr. Machida (pseudonym) and Ms. Ueki (pseudonym), individually taught the same beginning Japanese courses in the fall semester of 2018, and kindly agreed to participate in the study.

Dr. Machida. She came to the U.S. to study Japanese pedagogy. As a volunteer, she was teaching Japanese to Brazilians populations, who lived in Japan to work in factories1, without proficiency in Japanese. While teaching as volunteer, she took an extension course in Japanese pedagogy. When she consulted with the professor about her interest in pursuing a graduate degree in the U.S, she was introduced to the graduate program which she pursued the terminal degree from. As her personal note, she has a two year old daughter and an American husband who are living in a different state. She is enthusiastic about raising the daughter able to speak Japanese. Her husband is supportive about it though he does not have any proficiency in Japanese.

She is an associate professor in Japanese at Middle State University. She obtained a Ph.D. degree in applied linguistics, and she has been in the academic position for 7 years. Her teaching assignment for the semester was two sections of beginning Japanese courses and one section of Japanese composition. In addition to her teaching load, she presented at an international conference, advised students about the study abroad program, completed classroom observation reports on other Japanese faculty, and assisted the college when educators from Japan came for visits.

[1] Japanese Brazilians are Brazilians who have Japanese ancestry. Since 1907, Japanese government had officially emigrated Japanese to Brazil to solve great poverty in the rural area. After 1980s, Japanese Brazilians come to Japan to make money by working in factories because they can obtain working visa in Japan more easily than any other nationals.

Ms. Ueki. She came to the US to study English. While enrolling in an ESL program, she was asked if she was interested in teaching Japanese in the foreign language department because of sudden vacancy of the position. Teaching experience motivated her to subsequently pursue the graduate degree in Japanese pedagogy. As a personal note, she has a Japanese husband living in a different state. She travels back and forth between two states during breaks.
She is an assistant lecturer in Japanese in her second year at Middle State University. After she pursued her master's degree in Japanese (second language acquisition and pedagogy), she taught Japanese at a public 4-year university in a different state. This semester, she taught two sections of intermediate Japanese courses, in addition to beginning Japanese. Although she met the criteria for teaching Japanese for this study, she has less experience than Dr. Machida.

Student-Participants. To understand students' perspectives on teachers' language use, students were involved in the study. There were a total of 73 students enrolled in the beginning Japanese courses, 23 in Ueki's one section, and 50 in Machida's two sections. Most of the students were Caucasian Americans; three students were from other countries. All of the students were invited to participate in the online questionnaire, and 7 students were chosen to be interviewed based on the teachers' recommendations. In addition to the students recommended by instructors, I recruited 4 more students. These four additional students asked questions in class, showed leadership and enjoyed learning Japanese. One student voluntarily participated in the interview after learning that I was conducting interviews with several students. In the end, there were 12 student participants interviewed in the study.

Table 1.

Demography of Student Participants for Interview

Name	Academic Standing	Hometown	Major	Teacher
Ashley	Freshman	Out-of-state	Biology	Ueki
Anna	Freshman	Out-of-state	Communication	Machida
Jack	Sophomore	In-state	Computer Science	Machida
Vance	Freshman	In-state	Journalism	Machida
Karen	Sophomore	Out-of-state	Fine Art	Machida[a]
Aric	Freshman	In-state	Telecommunication	Machida[a]
Eva	Junior	In-state	Journalism	Machida[b]
Wayne	Freshman	In-state	Zoology	Ueki
Jordan	Freshman	In-state	Journalism	Ueki
Mike	Freshman	In-state	Digital Arts	Ueki
Ethan	Sophomore	Out-of-state	Telecommunication	Ueki[a]
Brian	Freshman	In-state	Journalism, Writing	Ueki[a]

[a] The researchers' selection based on her observation in class.

[b] Voluntarily participation.

Timeline of the Study

For in-depth understanding of the participants and the phenomenon under the study, the data collection was conducted with four phases throughout the fall semester of 2018. All the phases are described in the table.

Table 2.

Study Timeline

Phase 1 (Preparation)	Phase 2 (9/25-9/26)	Phase 3 (10/23-10/25)	Phase 4 (11/27-11/29)	Phase 5 (12/1-12/16)
Purposeful sampling E-mail consent from teacher-participants Instruction to teacher-participants for selection of student-participants	Fieldwork Introduction to students Oral consent from the student-participants for video-recording Recruiting student-participants for interviews Casual interviews with teacher-participants	Fieldwork Getting to know student-participants Semi-structured interview with the student- and teacher-participants	Fieldwork Semi-structured interviews with the student- and teacher-participants Member checking	Online questionnaire

Phase 1. After the purposeful sampling, I communicated with Dr. Machida and Ms. Ueki via e-mail about the purpose of my study and the method of data collection. It was especially important to obtain their consent because I wanted to observe and video-record their classes. I also asked them to recommend three students at three different levels—high, middle and low proficiency—for consideration as potential student-participants. I instructed that selection of students should be based upon their personal evaluations of high, medium, and low. I also mentioned that I could take more than three students if it was difficult for them to limit to three.

Phase 2. The main goal of phase 2 was to get to know the participants and to obtain signatures from the participants on consent forms. Upon arrival to the campus of Middle State

University, Dr. Machida had a brief campus tour for me to learn the buildings where the beginning Japanese courses were held, and where Dr. Machida and Ms. Ueki's offices were located. After the tour, Dr. Machida introduced me to Ms. Ueki in her office. After the self-introduction and small conversation, I explained to Ms. Ueki what was written in the consent form, and she, without hesitation, signed the form. I also asked her to introduce me to her recommended students at her convenience one day after class. With the same procedure, Dr. Machida signed the consent form as well.

On my first visit to the classroom of section 1, several students were quietly waiting for the class to start while watching something or texting on their smart phones. Before the instruction, I introduced myself, explained my study, and clearly stated that the focus of the video-recording was on the instructor. After receiving student consent, I started recording the class. After class ended, Ms. Ueki introduced four students, with whom I exchanged phone numbers and e-mail addresses to set up an initial interview session. The same procedure was conducted with Dr. Machida and her section 2 and section 3 students. Compared to section 1, students in sections 2 and 3 were more social with each other while waiting for the instruction to begin. Dr. Machida introduced me to 3 students.

On the second day, I scheduled to have interview sessions with 4 student-participants. I intended these to be casual conversations, including the reasons they came to Middle State University and their interest in languages. After obtaining signatures on consent forms, I focused on getting to know student-participants. I also had casual conversations with Dr. Machida and Ms. Ueki about their backgrounds, education, and hobbies.

Phase 3. The main goal of phase 3 was to have more in-depth interviews with student-participants and to start assembling the data on classroom interactions.

On the first day, before and after each class, I set up interviews with student-participants who already signed consent forms. I solicited 4 more students (and gave them the paperwork) for interviews. I set up initial meetings for obtaining signatures on the consent form as well as formal interviews with them on different days.

The second and third days were spent on fieldwork and interviews with student-participants. When I was interviewing one of the participants, another student peeked into the room we were in, curious about what we were doing. When I explained about the interviews, she said that she would like to participate since she had a lot of things to share about her experience of learning Japanese. Because she met the requirements, I added her as another student participant, and had two interviews with her. At the end of the third day, I interviewed the teacher-participants about their educational experiences.

Phase 4. The main goal of phase 4 was to clarify the content of the previous interviews with the participants in addition to gathering more work in the field. As with data collection in phase 2 and 3, I approached student-participants before and after class to schedule interviews. Two students declined due to overly-busy schedules. After the interviews, I requested that student-participants take the online questionnaire by using the QR code or internet link that I sent to their smart phones. As a final interview, I asked teacher-participants for their personal assessment of each student-participant.

Phase 5. At the end of the semester, I distributed the online questionnaire, which was same as the one I directly requested the teacher-participants, to all students in the beginning Japanese course by asking the teacher participants to forward an e-mail with an invitation to the online questionnaire. I closed the online questionnaire on December 16th 2018.

Methods

My data collection involved field study, semi-structured interviews, and an online questionnaire in order to understand how Japanese teachers use English and Japanese with their students in and outside of the classroom as well as to understand how students perceive them.

Field Work. Field work indicates observation and informal interviews (Merriam, 2009). I adapted participant observation, in which the researcher may partially participate in the activity (Merriam, 2009). It allowed me to interact with the teacher participants and the student participants before and after the class, and inside and outside of the classroom. My fieldwork was not limited to being in classrooms, but all around the campus. I wandered from building to building on campus to understand what kind of lifestyle students led in Middle State University. As time went by, several Japanese students exchanged small talk with me when they noticed me walking around the campus. I also had chances to meet and greet other Japanese professors as well as other language professors.

Classroom observations were conducted in both Ms. Ueki and Dr. Machida's sections. With participants' consent, classroom activities were video-recorded for the purpose of an accurate record of teachers' use of target language and interactions between participants and students. Students were informed as part of the oral consent that the focus of the recording was the teachers' way of teaching, and not the students' performance. In all sections, the video camera was fixed at the back side corner of the classroom, and I had a seat next to the camera. By arriving at the classrooms about 15 minutes in advance, I also observed the students' interactions while setting up the video camera. After class, I interacted with teacher participants to casually discuss the class when the schedule allowed, in addition to conducting formal interviews.

Interviews. I held meeting sessions three times with each participant during the semester, and all the conversations were audio-recorded with the digital recorder in order to accurately describe and understand participants. Each interview took from 15 minutes to 45 minutes, and note-taking was also conducted during the interview. The language of the interview was English with the student participants although Japanese words occasionally appeared. With teacher participants, interviews were conducted only in Japanese. I attempted to not lead the interview with my thoughts and wordings, but I did not hesitate to make comments about participants' responses. All the interview guides used for the interviews are in Appendix A and B.

Student-Participants. The first meeting aimed for relationship building with participants. With student participants, the conversation started with their basic introduction, and I prepared questions as possible probes: 1) Why did they choose Middle State University, 2) Why did they choose to study Japanese 3) What were their thoughts on learning Japanese so far, and 4) What were their experience learning other foreign languages. Because I wanted to make students feel comfortable and I did not have any idea for the best location for the meeting, I let students select the place. We used unoccupied classrooms, a lounge in the student center, and a quiet corner of a hallway.

The second meeting aimed to address questions related to my research questions. Following Merriam (2009)'s description of "good" interview questions, I prepared the interview guide for the semi-structured interview with hypothetical questions and interpretive questions. I mentioned my comments and questions raised when I was reviewing the conversations from the first meeting. The topics included 1) their experiences of other foreign languages, 2) their experiences of learning Japanese in comparison, and 3) their definitions of a good teacher. For

this session, I used a study room in the library for interviewing most participants, yet also used some unoccupied classrooms for convenience.

The third meeting aimed to member check data from the previous interviews. In addition to sharing my interpretation of what they talked about in the previous session and receiving their comments, I asked about items which appeared in other participants' interviews. I also asked their overall evaluation of their experience being enrolled in the beginning Japanese course. The selection of the location was the same as previous meeting sessions.

Teacher-Participants. Although I constantly conversed with the teacher participants during the fieldwork and after work dinners, I set up three individual meetings with them. The first meeting was to understand the participants, especially Ms. Ueki since this was the first time to see her. In the lounge of the student center, I had conversation with Ms. Ueki over coffee about her background. Although I had known some of her background, I also talked with Dr. Machida in her office about her work conditions and school-related issues.

The second meeting was for in-depth semi-structured interviews about their experience of teacher education and their thoughts on use of Japanese in their instruction. For their convenience, the meetings were held in their offices.

The third meeting was mainly to ask about their evaluation of each student participant they recommended for my study, and overall evaluation of the sections. For their convenience, the meetings were held in their offices.

Online Questionnaire. At the end of the semester, an online questionnaire was distributed to all the enrollees in the beginning Japanese course, to understand their overall experience of finishing the first semester of Japanese language in addition to their perspectives on the teachers' target language use. In order to ensure the numbers of the participants in the

questionnaire, I requested that Dr. Machida and Ms. Ueki inform students about the questionnaire in class as well as encourage them to take it after they finished final exams. 33 students participated in the questionnaire at the closing. The questionnaire is in Appendix C.

Memo-writing/Field Notes

Memo-writing was performed, not only when I coded transcriptions, but also when I planned the study. Memo-writing is suggested as a method of capturing data, with which the researcher can visit and re-visit between the initial idea and newer, emerging ones (Yin, 2015). Saldaña (2015) wrote that "Whenever anything related to and significant about the coding or analysis or the data comes to mind, stop whatever you are doing and write a memo about it immediately" (p. 33).

I kept a handwritten researcher's journal, which I used to reflect on my thoughts over time. During observations, I took notes continually. My field notes contained dates, times, locations, what I heard, and other "thick description" following Merriam's suggestions (2009) that field notes serve as descriptive and reflective comments. I wrote down field notes in my researcher's journals as well.

Researcher Positionality

Researcher positionality is defined as the relationship between the researcher and the participants as well as the researcher's relationship with the topic of the study (Jones et al., 2013). It was important to understand positionality before conducting data collection because it can influence not only the researcher's decision making and interpretation, but the content that participants shared and how they would share it. Merriam and Tisdell (2015) state that

researchers must think about the biases they might bring into a study by asking, "How does your 'positionality' or 'social location' affect what you see?" (p. 208).

With Student-Participants. As a Japanese language instructor, my identity could possibly inhibit some students from sharing their real opinions about Japanese courses. Jones et al. (2013) warns that the power dynamics between teacher-student could be an issue, especially for interviews. My fluency in the language and my Japanese appearance also are shared by the two instructors. I introduced myself to students as a graduate student, studying about foreign language teaching and intending to learn teaching strategies from their instructors. Because of my own teaching philosophy, I tend to use Japanese when Japanese language students are around. It is natural for me to say *"sumimasen"* rather than "excuse me," for example. In addition, I could not speak English as if I was a young student any more. I was in a dilemma about my positionality for a while, but eventually, I decided to be in a position as an experienced second language learner. While I did not reveal my teacher identity, I shared a lot of my stories as a second language learner. I also conversed on issues related to my child's schooling and national politics. I listened to student stories unrelated to foreign language learning as well.

With Teacher-Participants. I have known Dr. Machida since we were both graduate students. I met her more than a decade ago at a 9-week immersion summer program, where we taught a beginning Japanese course as a team. We have maintained a professional friendship over the years, and we share a mutual trust. I observed her teaching when she was a graduate student, but this was the first time I observed her teaching as a professor during a regular, university-based semester course. I positioned myself as a junior professional friend.

Although Ms. Ueki was a less experienced Japanese language teacher, I also positioned myself as a junior professional friend. However, with Ms. Ueki, there were occasions that she

asked my advice on classroom matters. I tried to respond to her queries as would a junior professional friend.

Methods of Analysis

The interviews and classroom discourse were transcribed for analysis. All of the data (Audio data of the interview, video data of the classroom instruction, the transcriptions, field notes, questionnaire responses, and memos) are stored in my personal computer with private passwords.

Qualitative analysis was conducted for the data from interview and classroom discourse. According to Charmaz (2014), coding helps label the segments of the data, and simultaneously categorize, summarize, and account for each piece. Practically, it is useful to make notations next to the data (transcribed interviews and field notes) that seem relevant to the research questions (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). First, as open coding, I worked on the transcripts and field notes by reading it deeply as if I consulted with the transcript. Then, I conducted analytical coding by returning to the beginning for grouping the open codes with more scrutiny and interpretation (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Transcripts were constantly compared based on the participants, time, interview questions, following Jones et al. (2013) that constant comparison helps to identify the similarities and differences between the categories, and the properties within. While performing this coding process, memo taking was conducted with consideration for the possibility to illuminate new, emergent categories (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). At the end of the coding process, patterns and regularities appeared, which became "categories," which is defined as "a conceptual element that 'covers' or span many individual examples of categories" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015, p. 206). The goal of the data analysis was to answer the research questions, thus I was cognizant that the categories must be responsive to the research questions

because categories must be exhaustive, mutually exclusive, sensitive, and conceptually congruent (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015).

Classroom discourses were transcribed to analyze how the teacher-participants speak during instruction. Qualitative analysis was conducted for categories to identify the purpose or context of their utterances. With categorization, the utterances were also linguistically analyzed as it was spoken only in Japanese, English or code-switched. For the code-switched utterances, I examined the switched happened only within words, phrases, sentences and discourses. The patterns of the speech were compared across time frames and context. Non-verbal behaviors were also documented and analyzed.

Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is defined as "the qualitative paradigmatic means which assures a study is of high quality" (Jones et al., 2013). I followed Merriam and Tisdell (2015)'s strategies for promoting validity and reliability. The strategies include triangulation, member check, adequate engagement in data collection, researcher's reflexivity, audit trail, thick description, and maximum variation.

Triangulation

Triangulation is a strategy to support internal validity (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015) by adapting multiple perspectives in the study (Schwandt, 2007). Following K. Richards (2011)'s discussion on triangulation, this study employed three distinct procedures for data collection (interviews, classroom observations, online questionnaires) and multiple sources of data (fieldwork taken place at three different times).

Member Check

Member checking was also conducted, for which I provided the participants with my interpretation of the previous interviews, and asked follow up questions to clarify the content. Due to my non-native competency in English, this process was essential to fully capture the English speaking participants' perspectives. The follow up questions also emerged from the data analysis of each interview especially from the comparison of those interviews. By following Patton (2015)'s suggestion to consider the reaction of the participants during the member check, I gained another insight to the study.

Adequate Engagement in Data Collection

In order to look for variation to understand the phenomenon deeply, adequate time has to be spent (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). In order to observe the phenomenon under natural setting, I visited the site for fieldwork every month from September to November for 3-4 days per visit. During the data collection, I attempted to pay attention to the occurrences which were unusual and different from the normal routine, based on Patton (2015)'s recommendation. It challenged me to consider alternative explanation, yet helped me to engage in the process of collecting data with adequate time.

Reflexivity

Reflexivity is defined as "the process of reflecting critically on the self as a researcher, the human as instrument" (Lincoln & Guba, 2000, p 183). The researchers must acknowledge that they could perceive the data with a biased view, and it is necessary to write about my potential bias to show the reader how the researcher's viewpoint influenced the conduct and conclusion of the study (Maxwell, 2012).

While I was fully aware of the fact that there are controversies about use of the target language, my own teaching philosophy aligned with the view that the students' first language must be used as minimum as possible during the instruction. More influentially, I could be easily judgmental about the quality of participants' instruction based on my belief on language teaching. During the classroom observation, I kept in mind that I was observing the classroom as a whole, and was not in the position of evaluating the teacher-participants teaching strategies.

Audit Trail

The purpose of the audit trail for the researcher is to keep a record of the procedures and to promote reflexibility about the procedures, and it could be a part of the memo process (Schwandt, 2007). It also serves the third party to evaluate the dependability of the procedures, which relates to the trustworthiness of the research (Schwandt, 2007). I logged all the procedures including interactions with each participant via e-mail exchange and in person. The audit trail is in Appendix D.

Rich, Thick Description

It is important to provide enough descriptions to contextualize this study (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Thus, a thick description was also be prepared to show a "detailed expressive and explicit explanation of the phenomenon under study" (Jones et al., 2013, p. 36). By taking memos on my personal researcher journals, the process of data collection as well as analysis was recorded constantly.

Chapter 4: Findings

Introduction

In this section, first I describe the elements which consisted of the classroom experience, teacher-participants' background, overview of the course, each teacher-participants teaching style, and their rationales for their use of language. Representative and reflective examples are included. Before continuing with students' perspectives on their Japanese classroom experience, I present students' past experience with foreign languages because they are influential factor.

Beginning Japanese Course

There were three sections, which provided students with 50 minutes instructional time per class from Monday to Thursday for 16 weeks. The course was targeted for students who do not have any knowledge of Japanese or who cannot pass the placement exam for the next level course. The purpose of the course was to develop elementary level proficiency in four skills: speaking, listening, reading and writing through in-class oral exercises and practice. Students were expected to master three different sets of characters (Hiragana, Katakana, and Kanji), to understand basic spoken and written forms of modern Japanese, and to be able to function in simple interactive situations.

The classrooms were assigned to each section differently. All the classrooms were equipped with a blackboard and computer with projector screen in front. Ms. Ueki's section was in the spacious classroom with capacity 40 students, where the projector screen was clearly accessible for all the students. Although the chairs were old steel-made with flipped up tablet arms, students easily moved around for activities. On the other hand, Dr. Machida's sections were completely different in terms of the size, facilities, function and atmosphere, which seemed to affect students' engagement. Section 2 was held in a traditional science classroom with fixed

rectangle tables, surrounded by science materials such as chemistry charts. Section 3 was in a traditional classroom with modern wheeled mobile chair desks, surrounded by two black boards and a projector screen. The room was crowded, yet mobility helped the flow.

Table 3.

Brief information about Beginning Japanese 1 course

Section	Instructor	Enrollment	Classroom
1	Ms. Ueki	23	Medium size Traditional with chairs with flipped up tablet arms
2	Dr. Machida	24	Medium size traditional Science classroom with fixed rectangle tables and chairs
3	Dr. Machida	24	Small Traditional classroom with modern wheeled chairs with desk

Figure 1. Section 1 classroom.

Figure 2. Section 2 classroom.

Figure 3. Section 3 classroom.

The textbook *GENKI I: An Integrated Course in Elementary Japanese* (2011) was the main syllabus of the course, a book with a comprehensive approach to Japanese, including topics and grammatical structure. While the book contains 12 chapters, the beginning Japanese course only covered the first 4 chapters. The students were supposed to learn two sets of syllables, 46 Hiragana characters and 46 Katakana characters, 29 Kanji (Chinese characters), approximately 30 greetings and expressions, and approximately 191 words in addition to 25 grammatical points. The instructors adapted teaching materials not only from *GENKI I*, but also other textbooks and materials, some of which they may have developed on their own.

Both Dr. Machida and Ms. Ueki adapted a communicative approach in their instruction, which aimed to develop communicative competence among students. Although they shared the syllabus, exams, chapter tests, quizzes, and schedules, they individually designed daily instruction on their own. Following to the content of the textbook in order, they included a brief explanation of grammatical structure, teacher-student interactional drills, conversational tasks to work in pairs, and dialogue in their instructions. Their teaching materials were not only from the textbook, but also from other major Japanese textbooks and/or materials they developed.

Dr. Machida's Teaching Style

Full of Interaction. Dr. Machida verbally and non-verbally interacted with each student in every class to make connections. She came to the classroom at least 5 minutes prior to the start of instruction, and set up the computers for a PowerPoint presentation. During the preparation, she kept saying "*konnichiwa* (Hello)" to each student who came into her sight. Several students approached her to communicate about their questions and issues, and those interactions were mostly in English. As students were scheduled to have quizzes every week in addition to tests, almost every class, she had something to return to students as well as graded

homework assignments such as workbook and essays. She delivered the materials directly to each student while commenting on the materials or having small talk. She used English to comment on the returned materials while she started the small talk bilingually.

"*kinoo mimashitayo*, I saw you yesterday!"

"You should write this way, okay?"

Her attempt of direct delivery was not limited to returned materials, but other teaching materials such as handouts and activity sheets during class, no matter how inconvenient the classroom arrangement was.

Dr. Machida never missed checking the attendance by calling students' names. She called students' names by their first name with a suffix *"san"*, which is respectable way of addressing people in Japanese, similar to Ms. and Mr. in English. Traditionally, Japanese people use their last names, yet she chose to use the first name and the title because it is presented that way in the textbook. The students responded by saying "yes" in Japanese, which is different from the English way of responding to the attendance by saying "here". Although she did not have any conversation afterwards, she was making eye contact with each student.

Dr. Machida: "*Sesu-san* (Mr. Seth)"

Student: "*hai* (Yes)"

From the second visit in October, Dr. Machida started to have mini vocabulary lessons after announcements. They were not words or phrases from textbooks, and some words were very colloquial which students may hear in Japanese movies, video games, and exchange students from Japan. I noticed those phrases are something she often uttered. She presented the English translations on PowerPoint slides, but most of the words required more context to understand, and she provided students with examples of appropriate situations in English.

Despite the fact that there were about 24 students in each section, Dr. Machida attempted to have individual interaction with each student. When students were working on tasks such as pair work, she walked around the classroom to check if anyone was lost for what they were expected to do. To students' questions, she answered simply by saying "*hai* (yes)" or "*iie* (no)," or with a full explanation in English. She threw out comments in Japanese, which students had not officially learned from the class, and added English translations if she sensed that the students did not understand. For example, she spoke to a student who was taking pictures of her PowerPoint slides. Then, she casually asked "Are you taking pictures?" with a little surprised tone. Because of her gesture of taking pictures, although the students did not know the words, he just responded fine.

Dr. Machida "*shashin totten no* (Are you taking pictures)?"

Student "Yeah, I don't wanna forget."

Meanwhile, she did not hesitate to use Japanese even if those utterances were beyond the students' Japanese knowledges. She was keen to ensure the communication was established with students. If not, she immediately followed with English translations or by providing different context clues like gestures.

Full of Context in the Instruction. Dr. Machida introduced new structures by showing the model sentence orally and visually on a PowerPoint slide. For example, when she introduced the structure to invite someone for an activity, she presented a popular Japanese movie poster to say "Why don't we watch a movie this weekend?" in Japanese, just after students practiced a conversation about their weekend routines. Then, she repeated the same sentence while pointing to the written sentence on the slides, then confirmed the meaning of the structure, English translation, and mechanics of how to construct the structure. She did not explain much in

English, unless she was specifically asked by the students because it was explained in the textbook.

She thoroughly drilled students to construct structures with visual (pictures or English words) and/or aural cues. She tended to follow the pattern that she orally presented the model sentences and students repeated them by chorus. At the beginning of the semester, she gave cues by saying "*doozo* (please)" with a hand movement when she expected students to repeat sentences by chorus. By the end of the semester, students systematically repeated utterances without any cues.

After the mechanical drilling, she presented a question using the structure, and asked the class and individual students for responses. If their responses were not appropriate, she continued to discuss what they were supposed to say. It was especially the case when they were to respond to the invitation. One student simply answered yes, and she noted that they could say "*iidesu ne* (it sounds good)" or "*iidesu yo* (it is good for me)" which were already prepared in the slide. Then, she continued asking students how to decline the invitation in Japanese, which was also prepared in the slide. She showed the sentence "*sumimasen, chotto*… (I'm sorry, but…) as well as how to pronounce it. When model conversational patterns were presented, she paired up students to practice. In addition to the topics provided by the chapters of the textbook, she made the conversational patterns to the students as familiar and real as possible. Students were also taught to respond in a Japanese way such as "*honto ni* (really)?"

Rationalities of Language Use

Interviewing Dr. Machida about her thoughts on use of the target language as well as her actual teaching performance revealed two major themes; enrollment and affection towards the students.

English for Inclusive Classroom. "Enrollment" was the very first word appearing from her mouth in the interview. She was very concerned with maintaining good enrollment in the beginning Japanese course for several reasons. First, considering the attrition rate from the first semester course to second, it was essential to have good enrollment in the beginning course for the health of the program. Secondly, she shared the story about the recent closure of the Chinese program in the department. Because of the low enrollments in the Chinese language courses as well as low numbers of Chinese major students, the program was closed even while the tenure-track professor was still teaching. She showed her perspectives as an administrator and a colleague:

> As for numbers of major and minor students, Japanese is ranked third largest following to Spanish and French. We have three tenured professors and one instructor. It is a lot. If we lose enrollment, she (the instructor) would be the first to be gone. I do not want to see that, so we cannot lose enrollment.

She also mentioned that there is no mandate of foreign language requirement at the university, so some students do not want to take language courses because they can be time consuming with daily obligations such as quizzes and assignments. In the morning at the student center, I ironically overheard two female students talking about the foreign language courses. The student stated that she would pursue B.S. instead of B.A. in order to avoid taking foreign language courses because foreign language courses would give her a lot of work. Dr. Machida told the story when she tried to change the curriculum.

> One time I made the curriculum to cover five chapters in one semester rather than four. Then, the following semester, the enrollments in the continuation course

> radically dropped. I just cannot do this. If it is too much work, students won't continue taking Japanese.

She continued that students' attitudes towards Japanese have been changing because they are a generation who have been raised in the environment where Japanese culture, such as games and anime are always present. Japanese language is not so unique or exotic any more, compared with one or more decades ago. Students take Japanese courses very casually, without solid interests or motivation.

> So, 1000 level, beginning courses are made to recruit students without much thoughts on learning Japanese.

In order to make the course more accessible for students, Dr. Machida created the curriculum so students can receive satisfactory grades not based solely on their actual proficiency, but also on their performance such as attendance and punctual submission of homework.

Languages for Building Relationship. "I cannot keep from caring about the students." Dr. Machida shared her feeling towards her students although she was not sure if it was due to her maternal instinct or not. When I asked if her empathy blossomed after she became a mother, she lightly denied it and told me that she had the same quality of affection for students before the birth of her daughter. She described the characteristics of the students at the university;

> Many of the students enrolling in Japanese are students in art or artistic discipline. No engineering students here. They are very naïve and delicate. We can't push them too much.

She explained that some art related courses required students to have a time consuming amount of homework, and several students have left Japanese in order to focus on those courses. Although she cannot remove homework from her curriculum as it is important for language

learning, she was also concerned with students' realistic capability to study in a day and week. She perceived students as whole people, not only as students of Japanese.

> You can't suddenly e-mail the students that they must turn in whatever next day. They have plans. It is not only the Japanese course they are taking. Teachers should be considerate about it.

Hearing all the comments about her concerns for students, not only about their language acquisition and grades in the class but also about their general well beings, I sensed that her interactions were based on a caring attitude. Simply, she genuinely cared about the students, and built a relationship using languages, Japanese and English, depending on the students' proficiency.

Ms. Ueki's Teaching Style

Variety of Activities. Ms. Ueki's classes were filled with a variety of activities, and she continuously pondered how best to have students engaged in class. The lessons were organized with warm-ups, reviews of the previous material (grammatical patterns), introduction of the new material and practice as pair work. For transition, she always stated that "today we will study grammar point no.1." in Japanese. The numbering was based on the textbook.

As a warm-up, she presented a set of Kanji words or Katakana words for recognition practice, which students worked on in pairs as well as a whole class. After this, students read aloud each word in chorus, including her. In one lesson, she prepared cards, each of which had a kanji character written, for the students to play a game. Students were supposed to pick the cards as quick as possible, which were pronounced by Ms. Ueki.

When introducing new material, she explained it in English very briefly, and moved to simple practice as a class. She did not ask students to repeat after her as much as Dr. Machida.

Rather, she uttered sentences together with the class. Yet, she often did not finish utterances as complete sentences. After a transition statement, she showed a PowerPoint slide, which already showed the target structure of the practice. Even though it was a review of the previous material, she briefly explained what it meant as a reminder to students. Then, she moved onto practice. All the activities/tasks aimed to have students interact by simple Q and A task to conversations as pairs or small groups. Occasionally, she scrambled the class to match students with different classmates.

Students stayed busy in class. One activity required them to practice Q & A with a neighbor classmate, then another required them to stand up to ask several classmates questions. Students practiced how to describe others and themselves, and Ms. Ueki did an amazing job to make the conversation tasks as close and real as possible to students' real life settings. For example, when they learned the past tense, the topic pertained to when they were in high school. Students were to ask if they studied every night when they were in high school, and responded based on their life history.

Teacher-Centered Communication. Despite the interactions prepared for students, Ms. Ueki's interactions were limited especially early in the semester. She was always available for students or she presented her availability to students for help, yet she rarely approached students. In another words, her communication was teacher-centered.

For example, several students approached her to discuss their questions and issues when Ms. Ueki entered the classroom by saying "*konnichiwa* (Good afternoon)." Similarly with Dr. Machida, she always came to the classroom at least 5 minutes early, and set up her computer for PowerPoint. During the preparation, students were instructed to come to the teacher station to receive their papers. In September, she specifically told the students to come to pick them up,

but later, without being notified, students approached to the table as coming to receive papers became routine. While students were engaged in activities, she was located around the teacher station most of the instructional time, and did not circulate as much. Her interactions with each student was minimal and usually restricted to academic matters.

Interactions with students increased as time passed by and students learned more Japanese. I did not see her having small talk with students in English about nonacademic matters once, but she interacted a little more with student in Japanese outside of the classroom. It was possible that students had learned enough Japanese to converse about their weekends, for example, by the end of the semester. She positioned herself physically closer to the students at the end of the term, not only during students' pair work, but also during lectures. She started delivering the materials directly to students though students still kept to the routines.

Rationalities of Language Use

The interview with Ms. Ueki took place three times although she and I briefly talked before and after the classes. Because I did not know her before this study, I needed to know more about her background such as teaching experience and the story of how she became a Japanese language teacher. I wanted to know her thoughts on teaching, especially concerning the use of the target language. As I expected, she did not speak as much as I desired.

In a Process. Ms. Ueki continuously criticized the graduate program from which she received a Master's degree in Japanese with second language teaching and acquisition. While she taught Japanese as a teaching assistant, she was not provided with any practical training. Because she learned that I pursued a degree from a school whose reputation was well-known for rigid TA training, she repeatedly expressed her amazement over my experience as a graduate of the program. In spite of her lamentation about the training she received, overall she was capable

to managing the classroom. I was curious and brave enough to ask her how she reached to her current teaching style if she did not receive any adequate training. As I wrote in chapter 1, I learned to teach by mimicking others, and I could not imagine standing in front of the class without knowing anything about teaching. Silence was her first response, then quietly she mentioned that she observed other peoples' classes.

As for the use of the target language in the classroom, I specifically asked why language teachers are pressured to use the target language. She obscurely mentioned Krashen's input hypothesis that input is necessary for language development. I continued with a question "Then what influences your Japanese use in the classroom?" Again, her response was ambiguous. She agreed with all the suggestions I made, but did not share her personal stories or opinions.

Japanese as Content of the Course. Previously, Ms. Ueki mentioned that she chose higher education to teach Japanese because she wanted to teach Japanese. It was when I showed her a study about inevitable English use for disciplining students in high school settings. Observing her rejection to the role of disciplining students, I sensed that she spoke Japanese because it was the content of the course.

Characteristics of the Classroom Language

Dr. Machida and Ms. Ueki spoke Japanese as their default language, and used English only when they needed to deliver a clear message to students. Here are linguistic characteristics of the instructor's language use out of the target language interactional drills.

Japanese for Unnecessary Information

They did not hesitate to speak Japanese for something the students did not have to understand. For example, they both used fillers in Japanese frequently such as "*jaa* (and then)" and "*etto* (let me see)."

It was especially the case for Dr. Machida, who frequently made monologues in Japanese while teaching. Her self-directed questions and comments were a very colloquial style, which she did expect students to understand. However, it created curiosity among students, and they occasionally asked her what her utterances meant, especially small phrases, and she explained them in English.

"*Dare ni shiyoo kana* (Whom should I pick)?" while choosing students to present.

"*aa, wasurechatta* (Oh, I forgot it)" when she noticed something missing from the slide.

"*naruhodo* (I see)"

Japanese for Already Learnt Words and Structures

Dr. Machida and Ms. Ueki never uttered simple greetings and expressions in English after the very first day of the class. Once Japanese expressions were introduced, they consistently used the words, sentence structure, and expressions.

For example, when students spoke with them, they simply responded with "*hai* (yes)" or "*wakarimashita* (I understand)" for their acknowledgement, or switched to English if they needed to discuss something in depth with students. Since students were not prohibited to speak English, the communication did not get interrupted by the instructors' simple Japanese responses.

Early induction of classroom expressions radically changed the amount of English in instruction. Classroom expressions such as "please see" and "please repeat" were introduced and practiced in week 6, which was my first visit to the site. The following month all classroom expressions used by instructors were in Japanese, and students were following their commands smoothly. The more Japanese students learned in class, the less English teachers spoke. Transcriptions indicated that they spoke full sentences in English in September, while they spoke

English as a segment or phrases only to help students understand Japanese utterances in November.

As another case, Dr. Machida showed the changes in her utterances for announcing the schedule. At the beginning of every class, she orally checked the schedules which were also written consistently in English on the PowerPoint slide. She stated the due dates for assignments including homework, essays, quizzes and tests, followed by detailed instructions in English, if any. When students had a quiz on the next day, she announced it and explained the details in English, such as what students were supposed to know and the format of the quiz. Interestingly, there observed a systematic transformation of the announcement style over time. In September when students had completed only one chapter of the textbook, she stated that they would have a quiz next day twice, first in English and then in Japanese. In October, when students had completed the second chapter of the textbook, she stated the date of the quiz twice like the previous time, yet the order was reversed, first in Japanese and then in English. In November when students had learned the grammatical structure of "*ga arimasu* (to have)," she did not state it bilingually, and proceeded to the details in English.

September: "We have a quiz tomorrow, *ashita kuizu ga arimasu*. It is about …"

October: "*ashita kuizu ga arimasu*, we have a quiz tomorrow. It is about …"

November: "*ashtia kuizu ga arimasu*. It is about …"

Aizuchi (Back-Channeling)

Aizuchi is considered as an important communication strategy commonly used in Japanese, for which the listener gives the speaker signals to simply show that she/he is listening. Similar to "uh-huh" in English, Japanese frequently say "*hai* (yes)" without indicating their agreement, and they nod occasionally to show their attentiveness. Another form of aizuchi is

responding with "*soo desu ka*" literally meaning "is it so?" In both Dr. Machida and Ms. Ueki's sections, students were encouraged to practice the pattern of question, answer, and aizuchi response during the language lessons such as follows;

Student A: *Senko wa nan desu ka* (What is your major?)

Student B: *Nihongo desu*. (It is Japanese.)

Student A: *Soo desu ka*. (Oh, I see.)

When the instructors asked questions as a part of drilling, they naturally responded with *aizuchi* and occasional comments.

Ms. Ueki: *mainichi nanji ni nemasu ka* (What time do you go to bed every day?)

Student: *Juuji han ni nemasu*. (I go to bed at 10:30.)

Ms. Ueki: *Soo desu ka. Juuji han desu ka. Hayai desu ne* (Oh, I see, 10:30? It is early.)

Since "*Hayai desu ne* (It is early)" was not introduced to the students, they may have not understood the meaning, but since it was not the focus of the practice, they did not explain or code-switch.

Dr. Machida made aizuchi responses, as well as the tag questions as if she was a direct interlocutor involved in the conversation, especially when students were presenting to the class.

Student A: *Samu-san no Tanjoobi wa itsu desu ka* (When is your birthday?)

Student B: *Shichigatsu juuichinichi desu*. (It is July 11th.)

Student A: *Soo desu ka*. (Oh, I see.)

Dr. Machida: *Soo desu ka. Shichigatsu desu ka* (Oh, I see. Is it July?)

Adoption of English Words & Phrases in Japanese Sentence

Historically, the Japanese language has been flexible in adopting new words from other languages by modifying the sounds with Japanese phonological properties, for which it simplified

the vowels only to /a/ /i/ /u/ /e/ /o/, English specific consonants to most similar Japanese consonants, and an inserted vowel after a single consonant. For example, a name "Seth" was pronounced as /sesu/ because Japanese does not have the dental fricative /th/ consonant, and instead applies /s/. Nonaka (2013) discusses that when English words become loan words in Japanese, their part of speech tends to stay the same as the original, especially nouns and adjectives. Instructors used English loanwords in their instruction, and they might not be necessarily understandable for Japanese people who are not proficient in English. For example, Dr. Machida and Ms. Ueki made an announcement that students would have oral exams the next week as "*ooraru iguzamu ga arimasu* (we have an oral exam)." "*Ooraru iguzamu*" is not a real Japanese loanword accepted by native Japanese speakers, but they adapted it so that it was easier for students to understand rather than teaching them the Japanese equivalent. Other examples were as follows;

/*middo taamu*/ for Midterm

/*kanbasehshon*/ for conversation

/*kuizu*/ for quiz

Similarly, they adopted English adjectives to make a Japanese sentence by attaching a Japanese copula verb "desu" such as;

"Slightly different *desu*" (It is slightly different.)

They also adopted English verbs to create loanwords by attaching Japanese verb "*suru* (to do)". For example, instead of "please describe," they made a request by saying "describe *shitekudasai*." Examples are as follows;

"inbaito shimasu (You will invite.)*"*

"*kurieito shitekudasai* (Please create.)"

"*rebyuu shimashoo* (Let's review.)"

"*pikku wan kaado de, pasu araundo shitekudasai* (Pick one card and turn it around)" Again they were all understandable for people with English knowledge, and not real loanwords commonly used in Japan.

Unique Japanese/English Sentence

Ms. Ueki frequently uttered sentences in English, but with the attached Japanese copula verb "*desu*."

"That means Mary is also American *desu"*

"'Jikan' indicates hours, duration *desu"*

"'Issen' is wrong *desu ne."*

Regularly, she spoke English with Japanese pronunciation. For example, immediately before vocabulary and kanji quizzes, she reviewed all the possible words written in English by pointing them out in order to check if students could associate the Japanese equivalency. Instead of pronouncing the English words in an English way, she tended to enunciate them in a Japanese way. Such Japanized English was observed in the instruction throughout the semester, and not limited to simple words, but also at the sentence level and discourse level.

The boundary between her Japanized English and her natural accented English was not clearly separated or regulated. However, the thick accented English was often found at the end of a sentence, especially when she was presenting new information.

"A lot of English words*u bikeimu* (became) katakana words *desu"*

"Do you know 'karuta'? *'Karuta'* is *kaado teikingu geimu* (card taking game) *desu*.

"How do we use it in sentence? *Anone* (you know what?), just insert into the senten*su*."

English for Important Information

Over the semester, both Dr. Machida and Ms. Ueki used English in the classroom for messages which needed to be delivered to the students quickly and accurately. Paragraph level English discourse was only found when they explained the details about format of a quiz, tests, oral interviews, and skit, all of which were assessment components. With the explanation in English available on slides, they explained the organization of the tests and quizzes such as the kinds of questions that would be on the tests and what students needed to know.

English for Clarification

Dr. Machida and Ms. Ueki both used English to add meaning to what they had uttered. They appeared as word level, phrase level, and sentence level, most likely English followed the Japanese, yet occasionally the order was flipped.

> "*imi wakarimasuka?* What does it mean?"
>
> *"oboeteimasuka?* Do you remember?"
>
> *"kore wa chiisai tsu,* little tsu *desune?* (This is a little sized 'tsu', right?)*"*
>
> "Politics, *seiji desu*"

Dr. Machida also used English to clarify visual cues for students. She often prepared visual cues, but when they were not comprehensible for students to perform what she expected, she explained it in English. For example, she showed a picture of a boy pointing to a vegetable in his hand, but there was also another vegetable on a table away from him. The students knew that they were supposed to make a sentence using the similarity particle '*mo*' yet could not understand what the sentence should be. Once she sensed confusion among students, she immediately said, "This is a vegetable, and that is also a vegetable." Hearing the verbal English cues, students proceeded to make sentences as she directed.

This usage was observed in one of the sections which met in a science classroom with fixed rectangle tables with chairs surrounded by chemistry charts and science equipment. Because of its narrowness, immobility of students' seating, as well as their preference of scattered seating, it was not easy for students to see the slides from backside of the classroom. As a result, she added English translation even for written English word cues.

Pointing to the English word "mother"

"*Kore wa nan desu ka* (What is this?), mother"

English for Speeding Up

There were triggers for Dr. Machida to switch to either English mode or to add English translations after Japanese utterances. One was when she realized the ending time was approaching, yet she was behind schedule for what she had planned for the day. In that case, she focused on lecturing the content in English and ceased the time for pair-work.

Another trigger was when students were less responsive to her teaching, which was more frequently observed in section 2. Not only were students quiet and reticent, their responsiveness was difficult to ascertain due to the odd classroom. She explained the instruction of tasks in English, rather than Japanese.

Students' Perspectives

Background with Foreign Languages

All the student-participants had taken foreign language courses prior to these Japanese courses. The summary of their foreign language experiences are shown in table 4 below. Out of twelve participants, seven had taken Spanish in either elementary school, middle school or high school. In high schools, three had taken French, two had taken Latin, one had taken German, and one had taken Chinese. The motivation to study foreign language in K-12 settings was low,

especially for Spanish and French, mostly because it was a requirement or the result of a process of elimination. For example, one participant said she took German because she did not want to take French. Another said it was because their parents had taken the language before. Two participants stated that they would have taken Japanese, but it was not offered, thus they went with either Chinese or Latin.

Only one participant described the reason behind taking the language as a language of her family. She identified herself as Iraqi and American, whose mother had fled Iraq. Because her family members are still in Iraq and the mother speaks Aramaic with them, she thought it would help if she learned Arabic. Two students mentioned that they were interested in German because of their heritage, yet German was not offered in their schools.

Table 4.

Students' Foreign Language Experience

Name	Hometown	Foreign language	Level	Reason
Ashley	Out-of-state	French (3)	High school	Friends
Anna	Out-of-state	Spanish	Elementary	Core curriculum
			Middle school	
		Latin (2)	High school	Something different
Jack	In-state	Chinese (3)	High school	Non-alphabetic language
Vance	In-state	Spanish (2)	High school	Only choice
Karen	Out-of-state	Spanish	Elementary	Requirement
		German	Middle school	Not Spanish
			High school	
Aric	In-state	Latin	High school	History
Eva	In-state	French	High school	Fashion
		Arabic (1)	College	Heritage
Wayne	In-state	French	High school	Mother took it
Jordan	In-state	Spanish	High school	
Mike	In-state	Spanish (3)	High school	Father suggested
Ethan	In-state	French	High school	Been to France. Liked it
Brian	In-state	Spanish (3)	High school	Mother took it

Note. The number in the parenthesis indicates the length of the year for learning the language, that the participants specifically described.

Past Experience with the Foreign Language

Most of the participants shared their ambivalence over experiences with language in K-12 settings. Two mentioned that they were not really good at learning the language, and felt sorry for the teachers who had been patient with them. However, they did not associate their limited linguistic capability as a negative experience. Instead, three participants thought their negative experiences in foreign language were due to poor teachers. Vance shared her story as follows.

> She did a lot of bookwork where she would give us lots of things to do in the book but we wouldn't really do anything in the class. We would just sit there and do bookwork. I'm not sure if she just didn't want to deal with the students or what. She would only grade tests and not homework, even though we did homework. She wouldn't grade quizzes. And then we would have oral tests, speaking tests. And she was typically, "Well, I want you to interact with each other outside of class. For now you're not going to speak Spanish in here. You're going to do the work in the book." So it wasn't a fun class. And I had to take two years at least of one language and we only had Spanish. So, I kind of had to take Spanish and it kind of got ruined for me because the teacher didn't quite teach it in a positive way. (Vance)

Anna talked emotionally about her experience with a teacher who insisted to speak Spanish.

> We were underfunded (school) and we didn't have the good teachers. Most of the kids at school started (Spanish) in preschool. And I transferred in sixth grade. My first Spanish class, she goes "So did you take any Spanish at all?" And I go "No, (be)cause like they didn't teach it in public school." And she goes, "Well, good

luck." All the kids in the rest of class knew some Spanish and I didn't know any Spanish. She just like gave me the worksheets and would go "good luck." I was failing Spanish. I was like "Can you explain this?" and she was like (rolling her eyes) and then she'd just explain in it Spanish. I'd be like you see that's counterproductive. She's native Spanish but it wasn't like nobody was at the level that she could speak straight Spanish and we could understand her. (Anna)

Keren's story indicated how teachers could easily destroy students' interests by their way of instruction and communication.

> It was in elementary school when I learned Spanish. And my family and I always went out to this Spanish restaurant and we would often talk to this waitress in Spanish. So I loved learning Spanish in that sense. I was able to use it. I was able to communicate with other people. And they liked hearing me speak Spanish. But, my teacher was scary. She was strict with everything and if you messed something up, she was not going to be happy. She made it so we were afraid to go to her and ask for help. From second grade when we started learning Spanish to fifth grade. And it was terrifying. You would just get emotionally scarred by her. (Keren)

A positive experience with foreign language was described by a participant, and it was also associated with a quality of the teacher.

> He is a character. (...) he was just really funny. He would tell us all the dirty Latin things. He told us how to get the English word for that. Which comes from the Latin word, which is a sheath for a sword. So he would tell us everything. He loved Latin, and he loved ancient Roman history. That kind of passion spilled

> onto us. He was really excited to teach us and that kind of made me really excited to learn. Not only that, but as a high schooler, he would tell you all the Latin cuss words you wanted to know. Which you know being 15 was fun to learn. (Aric)

First Day of Japanese Class

Participants shared a mixture of emotions on the very first day of Japanese class including excitement to learn something new.

Confidence. Two participants were confident in the classroom while waiting for the class to begin because they have had less commonly taught languages prior to Japanese. One participant who had taken Chinese for three years in high school had already mastered recognizing the hiragana and katakana. Knowing that he could use the knowledge of Chinese characters in Japanese, he was not worried at all. The other participant had attempted to study Japanese on her own several times, yet she failed to learn it independently. However, because of the previous independent learning as well as her friend's high recommendation of the instructor, she was confident. She also added that taking Arabic in the previous year prepared her to learn new characters, which was another reason why she was confident.

Nervous. Ten participants declared that they were nervous on the first day of class. One of them said it was due to her negative experience as a student in German class.

> I was nervous because the last time I had learned a different language, I learned German, Deutsche, and I struggled so much. So I was a little bit nervous going into another language and starting from scratch. I wanted to do well in this class. I was nervous about not being able to do as well as I wanted. I was worried about having to leave the class because I just can't do it, like I could not do it in German. (Keren)

Two participants stated, though they were excited, they were clueless what to expect, which made them anxious.

> I didn't really have an expectation. I was very curious. I didn't know if (Dr. Machida's first name) was a male or female name so I didn't even know that (she is a female). So really I just kind of walked into class not knowing what to expect. (Aric)

> I don't know what I was expecting I would say. I had heard from multiple people that they'd ask me "Why did you want to choose Japanese since it's so difficult?" And that was one thing that was going around in my head. "Did I get myself in trouble?" (Brian)

Overwhelmed. Two participants described how overwhelmed they became after knowing the amount of knowledge they would be expected to learn in class. Vance confessed that she was regretting enrolling in the class and she might drop it.

> I was excited and then I went in and then I got overwhelmed because we started going over Hiragana and I'm like "this is nothing like Spanish. This is going to be a lot harder". I was overwhelmed the first few days. (Vance)

Anna expressed astonishment after hearing that they would have to learn three different kinds of characters.

> I was scared. Definitely scared. It's a new language. I was like, "oh my gosh I have to learn a whole new alphabet." Then I found out from another person that I have to learn three alphabets. "What in the world?" Learning Hiragana was one of the worst experiences. (Anna)

Japanese Classroom

The interview with the participants about Japanese reflected five themes, including Japanese spoken, involvement, connection with classmates, new characters to learn, learning strategies, and self-discovery. Their satisfaction with the Japanese course was quite high over the semester regardless of proficiency they had acquired, and articulated the difference with other language courses as well as other discipline courses.

More Japanese Spoken by the Instructors. All the participants agreed that they heard more target language in Japanese class than any other previous foreign language classes. Ashley pointed out Ms. Ueki's controlled speech in Japanese.

> Ueki sensei uses a lot more Japanese. She speaks in her native language a lot more than the French teachers did. I feel like she still speaks, she still uses words that we've learned. So she remembers what she taught us. And she uses that vocabulary and even if she adds something new. You can figure it out from context. (Ashley)

Jack noticed Dr. Machida's little inflections which he could not comprehend, but he was positive about the experience. Ethan and Anna stated that hearing Japanese, though it was not understandable, still helped them to get used to the sound of the language. Anna described her mind when she heard Japanese utterances she could not understand.

> It doesn't scare me. It just kind of goes over my head, and I just kind of like stare like glassed eyes, "Right". I get used to it. It's not familiar to me. It's like, I don't know the words yet but its familiar sounding to me because I know those sounds, but I just don't know what they mean. (Anna)

Keren's comment about hearing Dr. Machida's incomprehensible utterances in Japanese indicated that they had built a good relationship between them.

> Sometimes it's a little hard to understand what to do, but honestly it's becoming more like instinctual at this point. It feels natural at this point, and if we don't understand, I feel perfectly fine asking her. "What are we supposed to do?" or "What was that?" Like I feel perfectly fine asking her. (Keren)

The online questionnaire results showed that the participants (30 students including the ones I interviewed--12 from Ueki's, 18 from Machida's) had positive attitudes towards teachers speaking the target language. Students were asked to select adjectives/words describing feelings if they could not comprehend the instructors' utterance in Japanese. The choices were *inspired, curious, excited, interested, afraid, nervous, motivated, frustrated, hostile, scared, guilty,* and *distressed*. They could opt to insert their own words if the choices given were not adequate. Among adjectives/words, the top choice was *curious*. The results are in figure 4.

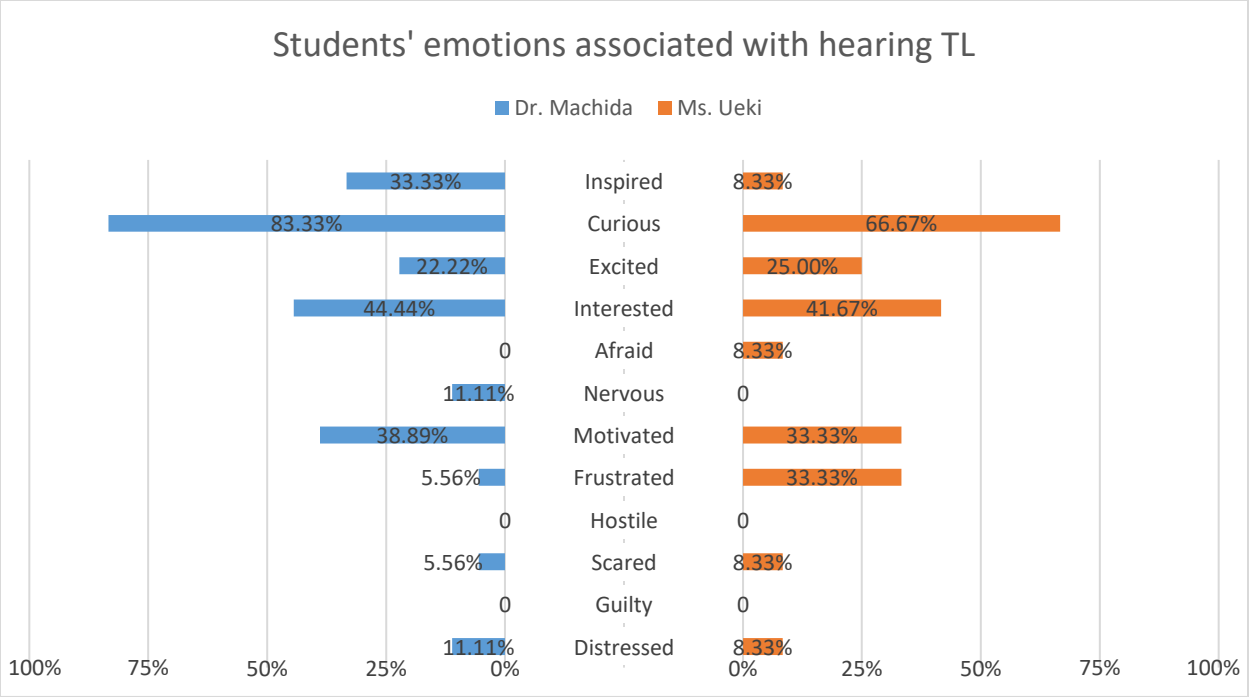

Figure 4. Emotions when hearing incomprehensible Japanese.

The students also answered that having instructors speak the target language positively motivates them. The result is in figure 5.

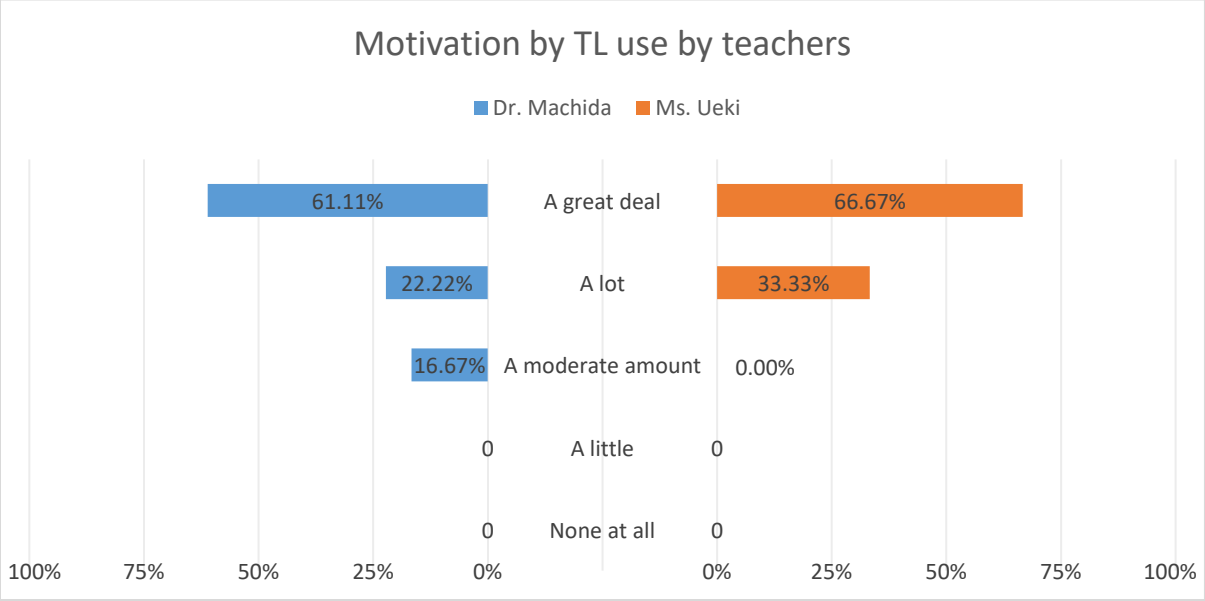

Figure 5. Motivation by teacher's TL use in the classroom.

Perceptions about how much teachers speak Japanese varied greatly. For example, I did not observe teacher-participants speaking English for greetings when I was on site, yet several student-participants responded that teachers spoke English when they were greeted. Similarly, with test formats, in my perception, teachers explained them in English, yet a few students recalled that the explanations had been in Japanese.

More Involvement. All participants described the Japanese classes with words such as "involvement," "interaction," and "participation." Mike, who defined a good teacher as "someone capable of involving everyone in the class," stated as follows;

> Ueki sensei does have a good way of teaching things that keeps me invested in it. It's mostly how she gets everyone involved. She sort of makes sure that everyone is participating whether it's as a whole group, specific people, or the person you're paired up with. (Mike)

Constant pair-work gave students the opportunity to speak Japanese more, which, according to Jack, was essential to his understanding. Without repetitively using Japanese, it is difficult to retain the proficiency. Ashley expressed her willingness to do extra practice with someone else in addition to her original partner since she wanted more practice.

More Connection with Classmates. Because of the interaction encouraged through instruction, students developed a connection with each other. Ashley agreed that she got to know more about her classmates as well as the instructor in the class than any other courses.

Quality of the Classmates. Eva described the relationship among the classmates as follows;

> In the language class, everybody's there to try to speak and learn this language. And so everybody is bonded over that. And so you have this kind of

> mutual respect with everybody in every language classroom. I've noticed everybody ends up knowing everybody. (Eva)

Brian also discussed that, all the students in the Japanese class had made choices by themselves to be enrolled in the class and they all have a legitimate drive to learn about Japanese. He appreciated that his classmates cared more about learning the language, which made his experience much better. Many of the participants mentioned their experience of being annoyed by their unmotivated classmates in their foreign language classes in secondary schools. No matter how their motivation was based, students in the Japanese class were unified by the goal of learning Japanese, and such bonded relationships may not exist in other classes which feature fewer interactions.

Relationship Beyond the Classroom. The relationship built over the classroom interactions extend outside of the classroom. Aric said that he made a friend because Dr. Machida randomly paired them up for an activity.

> The only reason I ever talked to them was because Machida sensei made us become conversation partners. So I really like the fact that I've kind of made a friend that way. Made friends by her forcing us to talk to each other. (Aric)

Vance also mentioned that they have had a study group in the library, which helped her a great deal. Although they were not all classmates, it was nice to get together to help each other with studying Japanese while it was also fun.

More Characters to Learn. Learning non-alphabetic characters was something all participants were daunted by. Yet, at the end of the course, students had mastered Hiragana and Katakana which are two sets of 45 characters, and about 29 Kanji, Chinese characters. Hiragana and Katakana are a syllabary system, in which one symbol corresponds to one syllable. For

example, あ as /a/, こ as /ko/. The difference between the syllabary systems are based on usage. Hiragana is used for grammatical functions such as case marking particles, and inflectional endings. Katakana, on the other hand, is used to transcribe foreign loanwords and onomatopoeic expressions. Japanese extensively use Kanji, which are logographic symbols with either a word or morpheme (a meaningful unit) assigned (Koyama, 2008). The complexity on learning Kanji is due to the fact that one Kanji has multiple readings. When Japan adopted Chinese characters, they adopted Chinese readings with the symbols. As a result, one Kanji indicates several possibilities for the reading, and readers have to choose the correct reading depending on how it appears in context. For example, 山 meaning mountain, is read itself as /yama/, yet for 富士山 meaning "Mt. Fuji", the whole compound is read as /fujisan/, the Kanji 山, in this case, is read as /san/. That meant students learned 29 characters, but also learned which words use the kanji character, and their corresponding pronunciations.

Anna mentioned that she preferred to start a new language with learning writing systems. She explained that learning letters at the beginning of the semester played the role of idling before the real run. She explained how lost she had been in Spanish class from the beginning, where they went straight into greetings, then sentences.

More Learning Strategies. Two students mentioned that they learned new learning strategies especially for memorization from the class.

Mnemonics with a Pictorial Strategy. Brian explained that mnemonics helped him to memorize Japanese characters. In order to introduce each character, instructors commonly use a picture and sound mnemonics (Matsunaga, 2003). For example, when teachers introduce /he/, teachers show the picture of a person with headache (Figure 5) and said "I have a headache." First, teachers drilled the students with only pictures for recognition, then eventually changed the

pictures to real character flashcards. Brian expressed that, by connecting a character to something else, it made the learning the non-alphabetic characters much easier than in other languages.

Figure 6. Picture associated the hiragana へ /he/

Multi-Sensory Learning. Aric mentioned that, Dr. Machida's use of multisensory learning helped him a great deal, and he would like to continue using the strategy to help him remember. When she taught location nouns such as up, down, left, right, front, and back, she presented them by showing her fist as an object while touching the sides with her other hand. Students were encouraged to utter the words by touching the sides of their fists. Not only Aric, but also other students mentioned this strategy as a new technique they had never done.

More Self-Efficacy. Participants shared thoughts on "takeaways" from the experience of learning Japanese. They all professed of being highly satisfied with their experience of being enrolled in the Japanese course.

Confidence by Achievement. Eva found herself more confident in her own ability because learning Japanese was one of the most ambitious things she had ever attempted. Through learning Japanese, she realized that she was always worried about making mistakes although her tests and homework came back with only a few minor errors. She expressed her transformation as

> Like any mistake I make, I'm like okay, I'm learning from it and I don't beat myself up as much as I used to. And so that was a huge boost to my confidence. (Eva)

Brian explained how much effort he expended learning Japanese. He was one of the top students in the class, and his comments showed that he was not a genius effortlessly mastering language, but his performance was a result of his effort.

> (I learned) there are some things in life that are going to be difficult but by constant vigilance and understanding and repetition that you'll get everything once you do it. That experience of doing it over again and doing it firsthand helps almost all the time. (Brian)

Confidence in interacting with people. When I interviewed Ashley in September, she mentioned that she was scared of speaking in front of people. Although she was good at writing and reading French in high school, she said that she could not speak French at all. However, after taking beginning Japanese, she acknowledged that she felt more confident being in front of people and talking with people in general. She recognized that it was embarrassing for everybody, not just herself, to speak in front of people in class.

Similarly, Vance shared her discovery that she became more interactive with people through taking Japanese. Prior to the Japanese class, she did not interact with classmates as much, yet she realized that the more she interacted and participated in class, the more easily she was able to learn. She had anxiety with interacting, but she paid attention to the benefit of interacting.

Power of Literacy. Many participants were impressed with themselves for being able to recognize Japanese characters. Ethan commented that he did not expect to be able to recognize

the characters as readily as he did. Even though he might not know what a word meant, it was still thrilling to be able to make sounds from it. Anna also told her story;

> I'm finding I'm able to read things easily. I went to a store the other day and there were some things in Hiragana and I read them. I have no clue what it meant but I read it. I thought that was really cool. (Anna)

Quality of Teachers. All the participants were satisfied with instructors' ways of delivering the class, and described their characteristics in positive ways. The results are in figure 6 below.

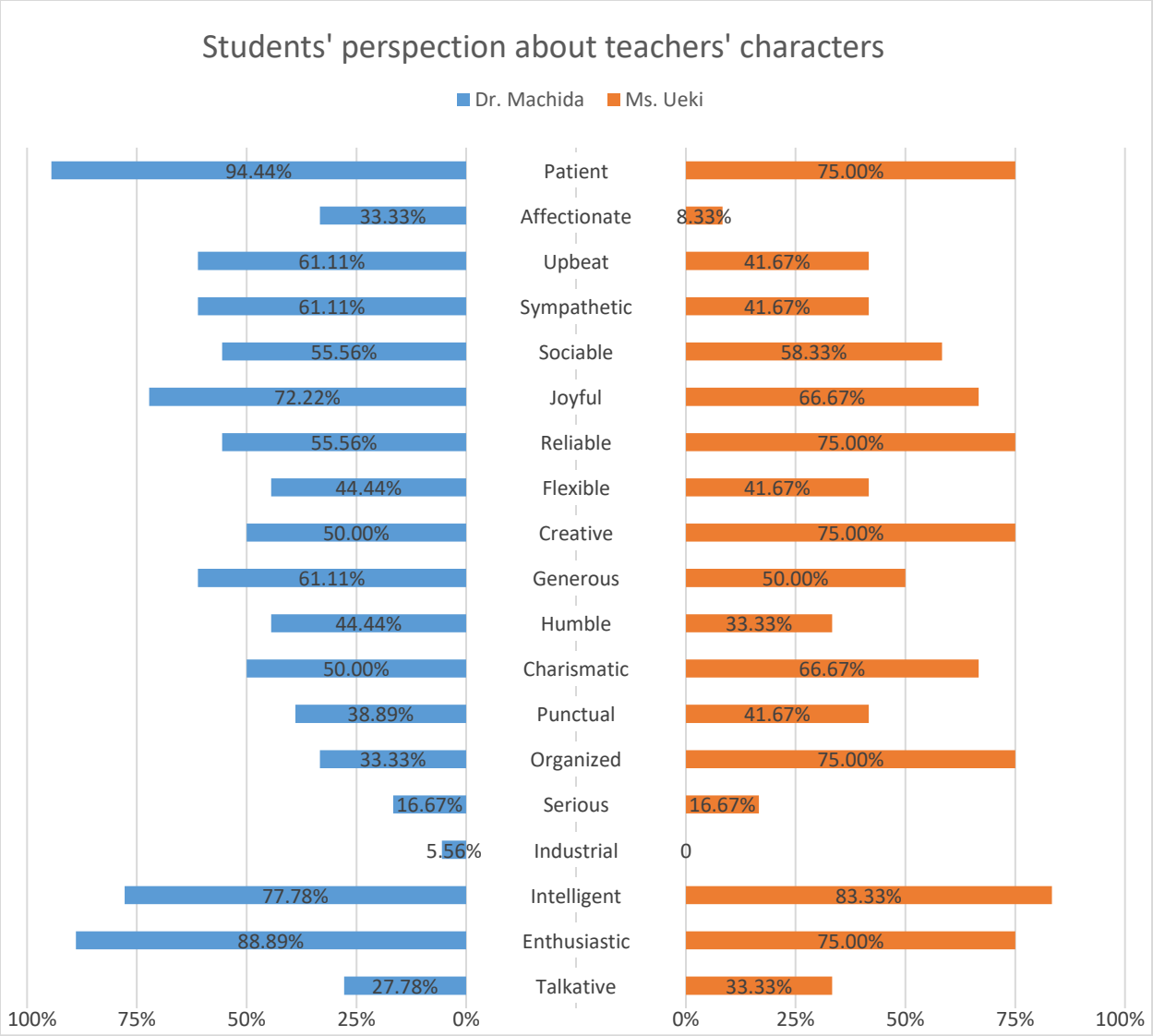

Figure 7. Students' perception about teachers' characters.

Ms. Ueki. The participants listed her characteristics as "intelligent" as the top choice of the adjective words, followed by "organized", "enthusiastic", "reliable", "creative", and "patient" as the second choice. Ashley portrayed Ms. Ueki as follows;

> She is really great. I like her. She is funny. Great expression. I think she is good at explaining things. She's very concise when she speaks which helps a lot. Even

> if you don't understand all of it, you can make out certain words and sort of know what's going on. So it's not that intimidating. (Ashley)

After he shared the story of his favorite history teacher in high school who changed his unfavorable view towards history, Ethan described Ms. Ueki.

> She keeps it interesting. She keeps it funny and keeps my interest. She speaks a lot of Japanese which I thought would be tough at first but just actually hearing somebody speaking it helps. It helps that she knows it fluently. (Ethan)

Many participants described Ms. Ueki as a great language teacher in the classroom with great teaching style. Brian was the only student who shared his story about her affability character after his interaction during the office hours.

> In the first week (of the semester) or so I was here, I made an effort to go and introduce myself to every teacher I had, and with Ueki sensei, I went during her office hours. And we not only talked about the course, but talked about things that I was doing at school, where I was from, and what I planned to do. And it was nice because, with a language teacher specifically, and with my other teachers, I've never had similar experience yet. (Brian)

Brian frequently made visits to Ms. Ueki's office hours to ask questions. He acknowledged that she understood it was a completely new set of knowledge he was trying to learn and it was hard from time to time. He was appreciative of her encouragements and willingness to help.

> And just last night I went to get some help with homework I was working on. She stayed there with me and worked. She explained everything, and she was always there to give me encouragement like, "yeah, you did it right and here's what you can work on." The commitment she has to her students and the commitment that

she has to making sure everyone learns the language effectively is really amazing. (Brian)

Dr. Machida. The participants listed Dr. Machida's characteristics as "patient" top choice of words, followed by "enthusiastic", "intelligent", and "joyful" in order. Vance described how Dr. Machida maintained students' focus on the class.

> She's able to find a way to always keep our attention even she's just going through slides and whatnot. She finds a way for us to incorporate it, keep our attention, and interact. We're not just sitting there and getting lectured. (Vance)

Anna described Dr. Machida's teaching style as caring. She felt that Dr. Machida cared about what students were doing at that moment, and explained repeatedly if necessary. All participants mentioned that she would come to help them when they were paired up for an activity, and they felt it was easy to ask questions, even if it stopped the flow of class. Aric stated that some teachers were very strict on following the lesson plans and finishing what they planned. However, Dr. Machida was very flexible and centered on individual student's curiosity. Aric was appreciative that Dr. Machida assisted him on catching up on things he missed.

Keren expressed a strong affection towards Dr. Machida during every interview. She considered Dr. Machida as the best teacher she ever had. She agreed to participate in the interview in order to tell how much Dr. Machida meant to her. She told her story of a difficult semester due to a health condition, and missing the second week for surgery. She understood missing an entire week was lethal for starting a new language.

> Machida sensei listens to me. It's been a very rough year for me so far. She's been the one teacher to just sit down and listen to me. I actually went to her crying

about issues with other classes. She listens and she's there for me and that means a lot. (Keren)

Affection to Dr. Machida was found among all of the participants from her classes. They were all enthusiastic to talk about her character, her teaching style and personal experiences. Aric sensed Dr. Machida's passion for teaching, and made a powerful comment as "I think she has fun teaching as much as we have fun learning." Aric wanted to show his effort of learning Japanese to Dr. Machida, in order to show that he cared about her and about what she cared about. He felt that was appreciated because no one has fun teaching when nobody cares. He called it "soul crushing".

Such caring action from students was also detectable during classroom observations. One time, when Dr. Machida was lecturing, she bumped her hand on the teacher desk. She continued lecturing, yet one student asked her if she was okay in Japanese. It brought attention from all the students in the classroom saying "*daijoobu desuka* (are you okay)?" It was a heartwarming interchange between the teacher and the students using the target language.

Outcome of the Course

According to the online survey, 87.1% of the students indicated they were extremely satisfied and 12.9% of the students indicated moderately satisfied their experience being enrolled Japanese courses, as seen in figure 7 below. This outcome did not relate to their language performance and proficiency acquired through the course, but indicated that students perceived learning Japanese as valuable experience regardless of differences in their teachers' teaching styles.

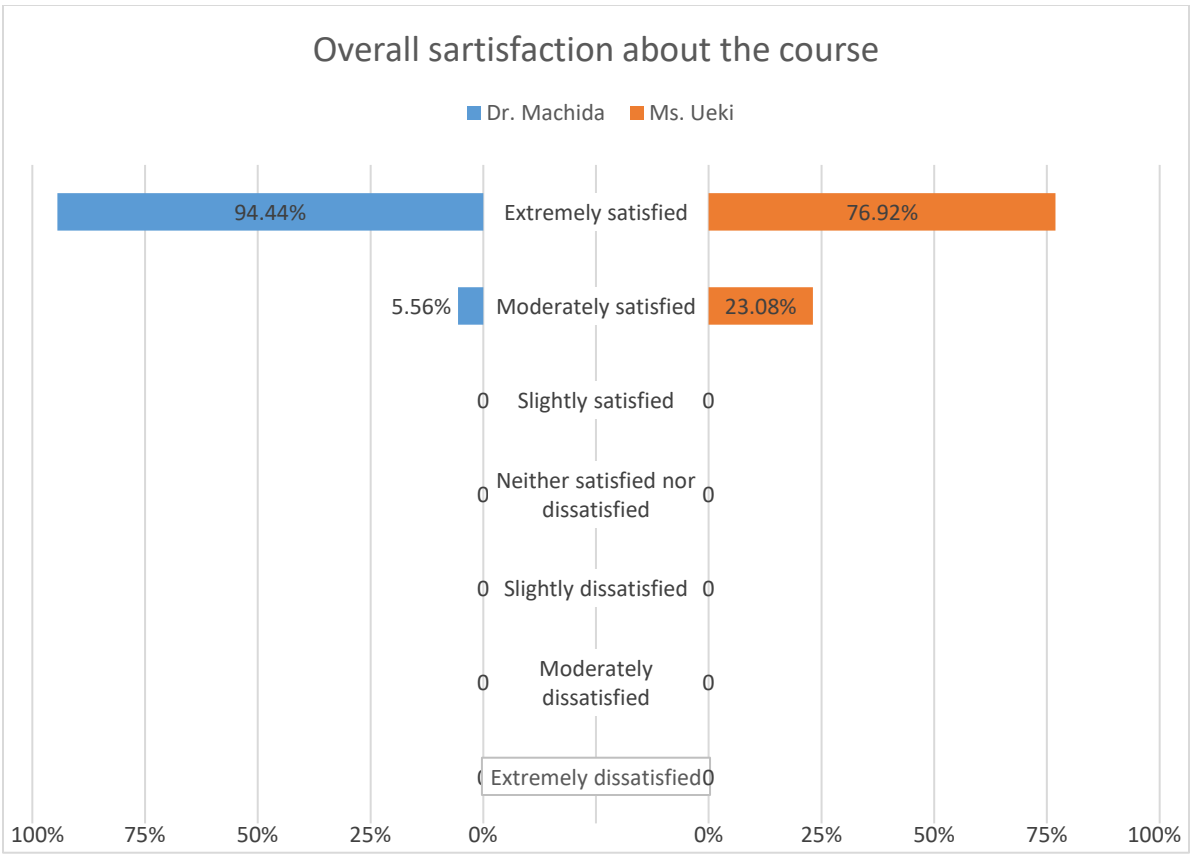

Figure 8. Overall satisfaction of the course

Conclusion

Findings indicate diverse elements at play in the classroom. Teachers provided highly interactive classrooms where students learned and practiced Japanese by using a variety of instructional strategies. Teachers used English for students to follow instructions while they spoke Japanese without hesitation. Influencing factors behind their choices of pedagogical approaches were not purely purposeful for students' acquisition of Japanese, but the fundamental needs to maintain the programs' popularity through sufficient enrollment. Students indicated high satisfaction with learning Japanese, and their perspectives on the teachers and their use of two languages was highly valued as assets.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Overview

This study of language use in the classroom revealed how language teachers managed the classroom using two languages, their rationales behind pedagogical decisions, and how students perceived of their classroom experience. Discussion of the findings suggested that the classroom was a complex system consisting of teachers, students, language, and negotiated co-adaptations. Use of the TL was a part of the adaptation by teachers, yet adaptation did not create a cause and effect relationship between teaching and learning. Learning emerged but was not necessarily controlled by the teachers.

Discussion of Findings

English and Japanese in Instruction for Beginning Japanese Learners

Characteristics of Language Use. Dr. Machida and Ms. Ueki used English when they delivered important information, such as communicating the schedule of tests, clarifying the meanings of difficult and unlearned vocabulary words, and speeding up a lesson. Those contexts correspond to the findings in De la Campa and Nassaji (2009) Polio and Duff (1994), though these researchers used different terms. Frequent TL use was found in less critical situations as well as during model speech for instruction. The teachers made monologues and transitional statements in Japanese, which students perceived as stimulating and effective experiences.

Teacher-participants' Japanese was not an authentic Japanese spoken by native speakers from Japan. They adopted English words into Japanese sentences, by adjusting the sounds to Japanese phonological units. Dr. Machida adopted mostly English nouns, while Ms. Ueki adopted nouns, adjectives, and verbs, and translated phrases and sentences into Japanese structures. They spoke Japanese without hesitation, and decreased English as the students learnt

more Japanese. *Aizuchi* (back-channeling) was often made in Japanese after it was introduced as a communicative strategy.

It was also found that how teachers used language depended on teaching style. Dr. Machida's teaching included lively interaction and continual communication. Interactions with her students were in English, Japanese or both. On the other hand, although Ms. Ueki's teaching included activities which were engaging, she was more of an observer than an interlocutor. She spoke English-Japanese for instructional purposes, but personal interactions in Japanese increased as students learned more Japanese.

Effect of Teaching Styles and Language Use. Differences in teaching style and the effects of the use of Japanese affected timing and relational distance with students. Dr. Machida's interactive teaching style rapidly initiated and promoted relationship building with each student. Strong relationships were already evident when I first met student-participants in September. Levinger (1983) describes a model of development of an interpersonal relationship, which is divided into 5 stages from start to end: acquaintance, buildup, continuation, deterioration, and ending. By the fourth week of class, Dr. Machida had already passed the first stage and was in the buildup stage. Students started to trust her and care about each other. On the other hand, Ms. Ueki's approach was relatively passive, thus relationships were still in the acquaintance stage in September.

The status of interpersonal relationships became evident when they selected student-participants. Dr. Machida knew each student's characters and proficiency in Japanese, and recommended students from her class accordingly. Her students were respectful, responsible, and articulate. On the other hand, Ms. Ueki's assessments of student characters and proficiency in Japanese was less accurate. She recommended good students, yet several were more reticent

about being interviewed. During the final interview, Ms. Ueki confessed that she did not have an accurate sense of individual students' characteristics and competence with Japanese in the early part of the semester. Of course, part of the difficulty was because she did not interact often with students in English or Japanese, so she did not know students' qualities.

A difference in relational distance to the students was also observed between the teacher-participants. According to Erskine (2012), relational distances include categories such as physical distance, channel of interaction, frequency of interaction, demographic distance, social distance, relationship quality, and decision making latitude, all of which are interdependent. Both teacher-participants were about the same age, race, gender, and social standing, but their teaching styles indicated the differences in interaction and even physical distance. Dr. Machida's relational distance to the students was much closer than Ms. Ueki's. Their relational distance can be illustrated with the diagram in figure 8 and 9 below.

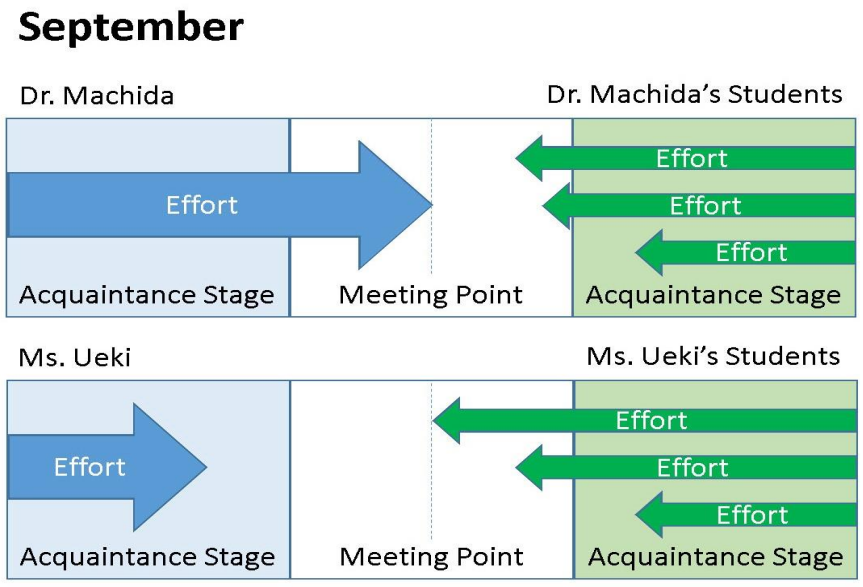

Figure 9. Relational Distance in September.

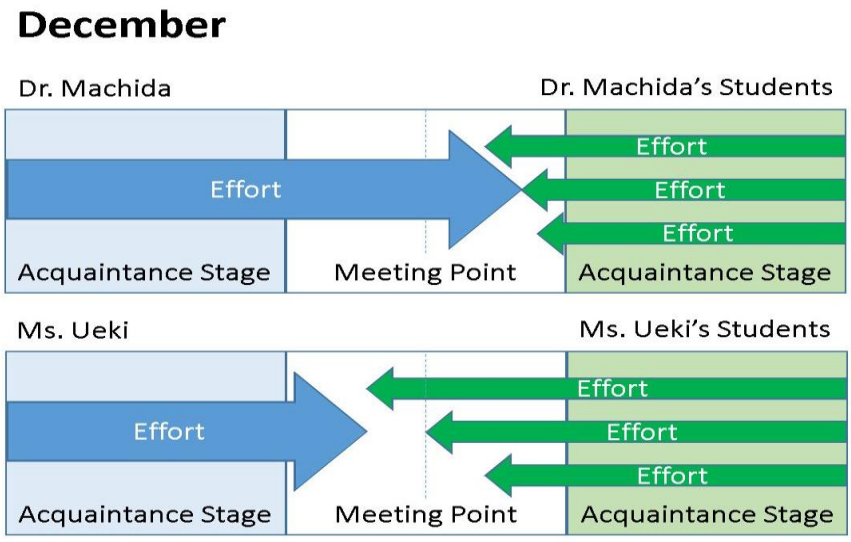

Figure 10. Relational Distance in December.

Assuming that there is a dyadic distance between teacher and student, as they move towards the middle point, their relationship becomes closer. In order to get to the meeting point, they must pass the "acquaintance" stage. When I visited the site the first time in September, Dr. Machida was already at the meeting point with some students. A few students may not have reached the meeting point, but she was waiting for their arrival.

On the other hand, Ms. Ueki was still in the acquaintance stage, moving toward the meeting point. Her pace was slower due to a lack of interaction. Some students, who were motivated to make connections with the teacher had been ready at the meeting point or even crossed the middle point to find her. For example, one of the student-participants, Brian, mentioned he visited Ms. Ueki's office hours several times because he knew relationship-building with the teacher was essential for successfully completing the course. Ms. Ueki's lack of interaction was due, in part, to her teacher-centered communication style. She tended to use Japanese as the content of the course and English as the medium of instruction. As students

learned more Japanese, she started interacting with them more often in Japanese. As a result, the distance between student and teacher eventually decreased.

Engaging interactive activities enhanced students' motivation to move towards the meeting point. However, it is uncertain if:

1) Ms. Ueki ever reached the middle and

2) any students reached the meeting point with her.

Brian was the only student who shared a story of how he constructed a relationship with Ms. Ueki during office hours, while 100% of student-participants shared stories about their relationship with Dr. Machida.

A close relational distance between teachers and students is characteristic of positive classroom relationships. Positive classroom relationships feature low conflict, a high degree of support, and little dependency (Rimm-Kaufman & Sandilos, 2011). However, a distant relationship does not automatically imply a negative relationship. For example, Stillwaggon (2006) claims that a separation between teacher and student is actually necessary to make education work. The desire for connectedness is natural, but not necessary. He wrote about teachers' positionality as follows:

> The teacher awakens the interests and desire of self-becoming in the student by presenting the world as a compelling set of questions within which the teacher is already engaged, but ensures that the student remains a student by ensuring that the primary relation is with the infinite pursuit of the questions rather than the finite pursuit of the teacher (Stillwaggon, 2006, p. 121).

This quotation describes Ms. Ueki's positionality with her students. By using Japanese as the content of the course, she showed the world where she is already engaged, and where the students were supposed to aim.

The teacher-student relationship is unique because, unlike other interpersonal relationships, it fundamentally involves an imbalance of power while pursuing a mutual goal; teaching and learning the subject matter (Crownover & Jones, 2018). This asymmetry could be a potential barrier which prevents teachers from building positive relationships, yet both Dr. Machida' and Ms. Ueki' had positive relationships with their students.

Influencing Factors Behind Teachers' Pedagogical Decision

The most unexpected and striking finding was that pedagogic decisions were not necessarily based on students' language learning, curriculum goals, or a teacher's personal teaching philosophy, but on external variables. In this case, the external variable was the survival of the program. If the Japanese program could not muster sufficient enrollments, it might be closed. According to Modern Language Association's report in January 2019, 651 language programs have been closed on American college campuses in the past three years. Foreign language education, along with humanities and liberal arts, have been negatively impacted by a prolonged financial crisis. Spence-Brown (2001) reported how administrators in higher education have discussed the possibility of outsourcing language education to businesses and private language schools, where instructors may not possess language proficiency (let alone expertise). Enrollments in Japanese programs nationwide have been relatively stable when compared to other languages (Modern Language Association, 2018), yet most language programs face the continual threat of closings every semester. Under such conditions, teachers may find it challenging to focus on maximizing students' language learning. Based on my

observations and interviews with students, I speculated that the students might be more amenable to interacting in Japanese than previously because of easy accessibility to Japanese movies and the proliferation of Japanese sites on the Internet. Indeed, students indicated "curiosity" as a top emotion associated with hearing Japanese. However, instructors still felt that they had to recruit students and had to make learning Japanese as palatable as possible to students.

While Dr. Machida expressed her concerns for sustainability of the program as an influence on her pedagogical decisions, Ms. Ueki did not mention such a consideration. This discrepancy was probably based on their depth of teaching experience, as well as their positions in the university system. As a tenured professor, Dr. Machida was involved with administration of the program and department. She witnessed the severe challenges that foreign language programs face and the threat of possible closure due to low enrollments. On the other hand, Ms. Ueki's experience as a full-time faculty in the institution had been relatively brief. Being relatively new to the profession may also account for the limited amount of stories shared by Ms. Ueki. She was still a novice language teacher who was uncertain yet motivated to find the best instruction she could bring to students for optimal learning of Japanese. Dr. Machida's approach to pedagogy was broader and holistic on students' well-beings, while Ms. Ueki's approach was narrower and specific to language proficiency.

Students' Perspectives on their TL Experience

Teachers' Use of Language. Students indicated that both teachers' language use was appropriate for their learning. However, their perceptions about the amount of TL spoken by instructors was inconsistent. Their perceptions were also different from what I perceived in the classroom. Possible reasons for the inconsistency might include:

1) Japanese sounds are unfamiliar to the students, thus any amount Japanese may seem like a lot of Japanese.

2) Japanese accented English may also be considered as "Japanese" for some students.

3) Students did not understand "greetings" for examples as I meant.

Students understood that instruction must include some English, otherwise they might not be able to follow along. Yet, students also understood the importance of the teacher speaking the TL for their own good. A trusting relationship with teachers abated fears of embarrassment or incomprehensibility.

Adaptive to Anything. Interviews and observations suggested a continually adaptive attitude towards experiences encountered in the classroom. For example, I repeatedly observed students learning new characters with "air-writing"[2] while teachers encouraged it as an effective learning strategy. Students do not naturally gravitate to such an action in class, but they were receptive to teachers' suggestions.

Another example was when I asked students about elements they wished did not exist in class, such as quizzes. Vance confessed he did not enjoy speaking tests, which required him to have conversation with his fellow classmate in front of the teacher. Similarly, Jack admitted the

[2] "Air writing" (Thomas, 2013) is a term for a behavior when people move their index finger as if they are writing in the air. Language teachers encourage students to write in the air while they introduce new sets of Kanji. The movement could be big as if a learner uses all of their body or small as if they write with only the tip of the finger. The purpose of this instruction is to demonstrate how to construct the graphics following the suggested stroke orders. Japanese culture values the beauty of handwriting and bad handwriting is considered as uneducated. As a result, Japanese teachers (both Japanese language art teachers and Japanese as a foreign language teachers) emphasize to students writing neat characters.

classroom was so cramped with students that he could not hear his partner during pair work activities. However, they all accepted such negative events for the sake of learning Japanese. In other words, the possibility of future returns made them more positive towards perceived negative events.

Di Paolo's (2005) characterization of "adaptivity" is that it is a "special manner of being tolerant to challenges by actively monitoring perturbations and compensating for their tendencies" (p. 438). In his terms, students were capable of controlling themselves and their relationship to the environment, even when conditions were close to the boundary of feasibility.

What makes Students so Adaptive? Adaptivity or adaptation has been studied in various fields, and several studies have found influencing factors. For example, Zhuravlev (1998) wrote that "personal characteristics such as motivation, value orientations, locus of control (integrity), adaptive personal qualities (attitude towards risk, competition, assessment of personal capabilities in overcoming difficulties) are the most important characteristics for social adaptation" (as cited in Shamionov, Grigoryeva, & Grigoryev, 2014).

Motivation for language acquisition includes integrative motivation and instrumental motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). The former indicates the motive of integration into the TL community while the latter indicates motivation based on a desire to achieve something using new language skills. Svanes (1987) found international students on study abroad in Norway reported that more western students (such as Americans and Europeans) had integrative motivations than Asian students. Yu and Downing (2012) found integrative motivation to be a strong indicator of the propensity for socio-cultural adaptation.

During interviews, student-participants expressed excitement about learning Japanese, and showed an interest in Japanese language and culture. Because Japanese was not available as

a foreign language in K-12, students agreed that they had a long-term interest and desire to study Japanese. Some foreign language programs make claims, such as "Mastering another language expands your career opportunities!" But, no students indicated instrumental motivation. As degree seeking undergraduates, students were eager to make good grades from the course, but they also claimed to be genuinely inclined to learn the language. Brian specifically mentioned that he was interested in a connection with the country of Japan and its people. For Brian and students like Brian who might be interested in intricacies of Japanese life, it is logical to prefer native-speaking teachers to non-native-speaking teachers.

Dynamic Nature of Classroom

Findings suggests that teachers' TL use and students' perspectives do not have a direct cause and effect relationship. TL use also involves elements such as teaching styles, pedagogical decisions, teaching experience, students' foreign language experience, and motivation. Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008) explained that all variables having to do with teachers, students, and languages are connected "across level of human and social organization, from individual minds up to the socio-political context of language learning, and across the time scales, from the minutes by minutes of classroom activity to teaching and learning lifetimes" (p. 198).

Complexity Theory/Dynamic Systems Theory. Diane Larsen-Freeman first proposed applying complexity science to second language acquisition in 1997. Originating in fields such as biology, physics and mathematics, both complexity theory and dynamic systems theory have a relatively recent history in applied linguistics. (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008) explained that the difference between the two theories was simply their origins. "Overlapping a great deal with complexity theory is 'dynamic systems theory, whose lineage is more mathematical than biological" (p. 3). "Dynamic systems theory" and

"complexity theory" do not constitute one theory, but a plurality of theories focused on the development of complex systems (De Bot, Lowie, Thorne, & Verspoor, 2013; Larsen-Freeman, 2011). Researchers, such as Kramsch (2012) and De Bot et al. (2013) consider language, language learners, and language communities as complex, dynamic systems.

Complexity theory enables study of non-linear, self-organizing, open, emergent, unpredictable, and adaptive systems (Larsen-Freeman, 1997). Complex systems consist of interconnected entities, which could also be complex systems. Systems change with time, as a result of interactions with others, and external pressures. Change in complex systems is not straightforward. A change in one part of the system influences the whole system (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). De Bot et al. (2013) also explained dynamic systems as follows;

> Systems change through interaction with their environment and internal reorganization. Developmental patterns are dependent on initial conditions and the availability of resources, both material and mental. Due to interaction of variables over time, development can be unpredictable. In human systems intentions will guide the developmental path and narrow down the range of options. Language and language development are typically dynamic in this sense (p. 200).

Classroom Language Learning. Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008) described the dynamics of classroom language learning, which are depicted in the table 5.

Table 5.

Example of Complex System in Applied Linguistics

Field	Classroom language learning
Agents	Students, teachers, languages
Heterogeneity	Abilities, personalities, learning demands
Organization	Class, group, curricula, grammars
Adaptation	Imitation, memorizing, classroom behaviors
Dynamics	Classroom discourse, tasks, participation patterns
Emergent behavior	Language learning, class/group behavior, lingua franca

Note. Cited from Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008, p. 37).

This table shows how language learning emerged through adaptation. Adaptation is a process in which a system adjusts itself in response to changes in environment. Co-adaptation means the interaction of two or more complex systems, one changing in response to the other (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). Dynamic systems are not limited to agents such as teachers and students, but include teaching materials, textbooks, and assignments (Kramsch, 2012).

In my study, students were complex systems, themselves. Each student had different personalities, idiosyncratic aptitudes, and particularized motivations. Adaptation was encouraged through imitation, recitation, memorization, and class routines. Students tend to learn language by participating in group behavior, which can lead to self-discovery and more learning.

Classroom Language Teaching. Of course, teachers are also complex systems. Tudor (2003) pointed out the complexity of teachers' work which may be affected by political and educational authorities, school administration, students, sponsors, parents, and other constituents.

The complex system of "classroom language teaching," which consists of five elements identified as adaptation for language learning emerged; language use, repetition, classroom behavior, context and interaction. First and foremost, language use is situational and varies by content and students' knowledge. Dr. Machida required students to model her utterances, and they rarely got lost during pair work. Activities were carefully choreographed with previous learning, and activities provided necessary repetition. Activities were presented with aural and visual cues for better understanding. Verbal interactions were supplemented by non-verbal communications, particularly in Dr. Machida's classes. Ms. Ueki became more interactive as the semester progressed, which increased student engagement. In essence, co-adaptation is teaching and learning.

Co-adaptation brings emergent behaviors including language learning, group behavior, and the development of lingua franca varieties. Lingua franca is defined as "a language that is adopted as a common language between speakers whose native languages are different" (Oxford Dictionary, 2019). The co-adaptation in the classroom leads to the emergence of lingua franca varieties (Seidlhofer, 2004) because language is a dynamic, living system that changes every day (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). Learning language only through a textbook is problematic because the textbook is a frozen version of language until it is used in the classroom (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008).

The classroom language was the lingua franca, based on teachers' output of Japanese. Teacher-participants spoke Japanese as a native language, yet their Japanese uttered in class was

different from authentic Japanese. They adopted English words so that they fit Japanese structured sentences, and shifted to more Japanese as students learned the language. As a result of co-adaptation, Ms. Ueki occasionally spoke English words and phrases with a heavy Japanese accent. The lingua franca contained both Japanese and English, including code-switched utterances. There was a difference in the tendency for code-switching sentences. Dr. Machida frequently used borrowed English words, yet they were limited to nouns. On the other hand, Ms. Ueki's code-switching was not consistent. I speculate that English proficiency and frequent practice of code-switching triggered their speech styles. Dr. Machida has an English speaking husband and a toddler daughter she is raising in Japanese, which constantly requires her to switch back and forth between two languages. On the other hand, Ms. Ueki's life style with Japanese speaking husband does not require her to code-switch as much as Dr. Machida does.

Emergent behavior is not limited to language learning and lingua franca, but also affects group behavior. By the end of the semester, students were able to read and respond to subtle hand signs from teachers. When teachers finished an explanation of a new structure, they knew they would work on the activity as part of a pair, so they immediately turned to their closest neighbor. Students naturally participated in *aizuchi* (back-channeling) during conversations. Such stabilized patterns of action constitute emergent behavior derived from a process of co-adaptation (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008).

Language Teachers' Role. Findings about the dynamic nature of the classroom have cast a new light on the role of teachers in fostering learning. Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008) point out that teachers are in control of interactions by creating activities for students, but they are not in control of students' learning because "learners make their own path" (p. 199). Language teaching is not merely a transmission of grammatical and lexical knowledge; language

learning is emergent and dependent on the learners' adaptation in a changing environment. What teachers can do is to provide students with rich and meaningful language resources, which students can use to develop their knowledge base.

> The teacher would be a facilitator of a given activity, but it is the students who would directly engage with the second language as a dynamic system, shaping their second language resources through working with them, soft assembling in response to what they receive the affordance to be for different tasks and purposes (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008, p. 204).

Language teachers should have their own teaching styles and teaching philosophies, but they should share the fundamental mission of serving students' learning (Dewey, 1902). In order to have learning emerge, teachers should prepare language resources purposefully with a variety of tasks, activities, projects, materials, technologies, and methodologies. Because interaction is a key for co-adaptation, teachers should be aware of the human relations among students as well as their own relationship with students. Adapting rich technologies in the language classroom may attract students, but teachers should know how and when to adopt tools for the betterment of students' learning. In this way, language teachers play the role of mediator between student and the environment.

Optimal Use of TL. If a language teachers' role is to provide rich language resources, how much TL is optimal? Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008) along with sociocultural theories claim that how language resources develop depends on how the language is used in the community. Communicating exclusively in the TL is not a realistic goal for non-European language teachers, who must complete a specific curriculum within a set time frame. On the other hand, an unwillingness to use the TL is problematic. Miscommunication in the TL can be

avoided by providing shared information. It is more meaningful to promote and sustain students' curiosity towards the language, which both Dr. Machida and Ms. Ueki demonstrated repeatedly in the study. They managed the dynamic of the language classroom by speaking Japanese as much as possible while reducing the amount of communication in English as students' learned more Japanese. There are no quantitative answers for precisely how much TL is ideal, but perhaps thinking of the TL as the default language is a sound way to approach instruction.

Implications

There are several implications from the findings of the study. First, teachers could decrease use of L1 (English) if conditions in the classroom were appropriate. There were three different types of classrooms involved in my observations, and physical proximity between teacher-students and student-student clearly affected teachers' instructional styles and language choices. Because of the weird classroom configuration, Dr. Machida could not see students' reactions and level of engagement as much as in the other classroom. In order to see the individual students, she walked around, which sometimes led to running out of time. This condition forced her to use more English for clarification and to move around the room so she could actually see the students with whom she was interacting. As a result, sometimes she felt like she had to rush through lessons. Such prevalent English use did not occur in the small classroom. One student commented that the classroom was too crowded and noisy for pair-work, yet it tremendously helped Dr. Machida in terms of teaching and target language use.

Another issue was classroom size and the number of students allowed in each section. There were 23-24 students enrolled in each section. 24 might be an acceptable number for a traditional lecture type class, where students are expected to mostly listen and to have occasional discussions. However, 24 is not an ideal number for learning a language because interactions

with teachers and classmates are key for learning. Considerations of the physical environment can make a big difference in teachers' instruction and the quality of students' learning.

Quality teacher education is necessary to promote quality language teachers, but sometimes programs focus on knowledge about second language acquisition to the exclusion of all else. Because of the current climate of politics and money influencing education systems, language teachers need to be equipped to understand their instruction more broadly. It is inevitable that new teachers will encounter reality shock (Farrell, 2003), yet it is possible to reduce the negative reverberations of shock by informing them of the issues that language programs are facing.

Students showed various kinds of motivations to learn Japanese, but they were all united with the goal and desire of learning Japanese. Student-participants built relationships with each other through interactive activities in the classrooms, and evolved as a learning community outside of the classroom. Through overcoming difficult tasks, such as mastery of three character sets over the semester, students formed self-efficacy, which eventually developed into collective efficacy. In addition to common goals, the beginning Japanese course allowed students to start from scratch. In some ways, learning Japanese for students was akin to starting kindergarten not knowing the alphabet. Students claimed that they came to the classroom without expectations and knowledge of Japanese. Such a unique situation helped diverse students to be more adaptive to each other. Beyond their backgrounds such as race, nationality, culture, and gender, students worked together toward common goals. Studying Japanese brings not only proficiency in a new language, but also provides students with valuable resources, new perspectives, and practical tools for living and communicating in a diverse world.

Limitation

I followed the methods suggested by Merriam (2009) in order to gain credibility, yet this study has limitations. According to K. Richards (2011), it is essential for case studies that the phenomenon must be studied under a natural setting. Although I visited the site three times in a semester for three days at a time to gain an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon, I cannot attest to how natural it was during my visits. With me sitting in the classroom, especially with a digital video-recorder, it was obviously not completely natural. It is possible that my appearance influenced the complex dynamic system in some way. While students were informed that they were not the focus of the recording, teacher-participants were covertly informed that they were the focus of the recording. Despite the fact that the teacher-participants acknowledged all the procedures I would conduct, having someone who specifically observed their way of teaching could have influenced them, especially Ms. Ueki, who did not know me.

Similarly, formal interviews with participants may have been influenced by the digital audio recorder. I noticed the change in their attitudes before I turned on the recorder and after. I also recognized that some students talked more casually when the recorder was off. Because of the recent development of digital social networking and incidents of data leakage, people are more sensitive and aware of the risks associated with digital data.

Finally, the surveys were distributed to all the students enrolled in the course, and 18 students participated in the survey, in addition to the 12 students who were selected for the interviews. Those 12 students' voices are reflected in this study through both interviews and surveys, yet 18 students' voices and stories were not, at least to the same extent. The interviews revealed varieties of insights and experiences, yet this study was unable to represent all of students' voices.

Suggestions for Future Study

The findings raise several suggestions for future study. Over the course of my observations at the university, the pressure on language teachers and curriculum was palpable. How does the threat of program closure affect the curriculum and instruction of language programs in higher education? The teacher-participants were native Japanese in this study, but is there any difference in students' adaptations or attitudes to adaptation with non-native teachers? One student said that he would not want a non-native teacher. Assumption of different cultural backgrounds and different ethnicities may affect adaptation in different ways. Finally, this study focused more on language teaching, and did not collect data regarding students' actual language development. Future studies could include language learning components to examine students' TL experience.

Conclusion

A butterfly effect is an example of a phenomenon of unpredictable behavior, associated with chaos theory, that "the fluttering wings of the butterfly represent a small change in the initial condition of the system, which affects a chain of events leading to a large-scale phenomenon like a tornado" (Larsen-Freeman, 1997, p. 144). The notion of an unpredictable effect may provide hope to teachers of Japanese as a foreign language in the U.S. No matter how committed teachers are to students, a teacher cannot control whether or not students will continue and interest in the Japanese language and culture in the future. It is well known that majoring a language does not directly lead to seamless future employment. Even completing language requirements in three sequential semesters, students cannot be proficient in Japanese as easily as in European languages. Does it mean something for students to learn Japanese even if they can barely speak the language? More specifically, how will mastering Japanese verb

conjugations be effective for non-major students in the future? The butterfly effect suggests that the answers are probably yes, but it is impossible to predict when and how the effect will be manifested. What a language teacher can do is to sincerely acknowledge his/her role in the educational system, commit to students' learning, and trust in students to find meaning in the quest to master a beautiful and challenging language.

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Appendix A: Interview Guide for Students

September

1) Can you tell me about your background?
2) What made you decide to come to this school?
3) What foreign language have you studied?
4) What made you decide to be enrolled in the Japanese course?
5) How has it been learning Japanese so far?

October

1) Can you tell me about your experience of learning another foreign language?
2) What is the difference between the Japanese class and the class you just described?
3) Can you describe your feeling of the very first day of the Japanese class?
4) Can you tell me about your favorite teacher in your life?
5) Can you tell me about negative experiences of any teachers in your life?
6) Can you tell me about negative experiences of learning another language?
7) Suppose your instructor spoke to you in Japanese, which you do not understand, what would you feel? What would be your action?

November

1) What was your expectation at the beginning of the semester for learning Japanese?
2) Can you tell me about your experience of learning another foreign language?
3) What is the difference between the Japanese class and the class you just described?

Appendix B: Interview Guide for Japanese Teachers

September

1) Can you tell me about your background?
2) What made you come to the US?
3) Why did you choose the graduate program?

October

1) Can you tell me how you learned how to teach?
2) Can you tell me how you reach your current teaching style?
3) How did you learn about language use during teacher education courses?
4) Why do you think it is essential to use the target language in the classroom?
5) What prevents you use the target language?

November

1) How do you evaluate the section for this semester?
2) Can you tell me why you recommend these students for my interview?

Appendix C: Online Questionnaire

Q1 Please select your teachers' name.

- □ Machida
- □ Ueki

Q2.1 Overall, how satisfied are you with your experience being enrolled in the Japanese course?

- □ Extremely satisfied
- □ Moderately satisfied
- □ Slightly satisfied
- □ Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
- □ Slightly dissatisfied
- □ Moderately dissatisfied
- □ Extremely dissatisfied

Q2.2 What made your experience good?

- □ Content
- □ Teacher
- □ Classmate(s)
- □ Classroom
- □ Textbook
- □ Schedule
- □ Other _____

Q3.1 How do you evaluate your Japanese proficiency?

	Excellent	Good	Average	Poor	Not talented
Listening	□	□	□	□	□
Speaking	□	□	□	□	□
Reading	□	□	□	□	□
Writing	□	□	□	□	□

Q3.2 What are the difficult/annoying elements for learning Japanese language?

_____

_____

_____

Q3.3 How do you evaluate your participation in the classroom? Participation here means if you attentively listened to the teacher and his/her instruction, and contributed something to the classroom learning community.

- □ Extremely well
- □ Very well
- □ Moderately well
- □ Slightly well
- □ Not well at all

Q3.5 How do you evaluate collaborative work with your classmate(s)?

	Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I love working with classmates	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
It is effective to learn Japanese	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
It helps me to get to know the classmates	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
I speak with classmates after the task is done	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

Q3.6 How do you feel communicating with your fellow students in Japanese?

- □ Extremely comfortable
- □ Somewhat comfortable
- □ Neither comfortable nor uncomfortable
- □ Somewhat uncomfortable
- □ Extremely uncomfortable

Q3.7
How do you feel communicating with your instructor in Japanese? (You may select more than one.)

- Distressed
- Guilty
- Scared
- Hostile
- Frustrated
- Ashamed
- Nervious
- Afraid
- Interested
- Excited
- Proud
- Inspired
- Embarrased
- Other (Please specify) _____

Q3.8
How do you feel when you hear your instructor speaking Japanese, yet you do not understand it. (You may select more than one.)

- Distressed
- Guilty
- Scared
- Hostile
- Frustrated
- Motivated
- Nervious
- Afraid
- Interested
- Excited
- Curious
- Inspired
- Other (Please specify) _____

Q3.9 Mark the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

	Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
I believe that I must use Japanese a great deal in the classroom in order to master the language.	□	□	□	□	□
I believe that there are no situations in which English should be used in the classroom (i.e., total immersion in FL classes brings the best outcome).	□	□	□	□	□
I believe that, regardless of how much Japanese students choose to use, the instructor should use Japanese at all times in the classroom.	□	□	□	□	□
I believe that the students should use only Japanese the entire	□	□	□	□	□

time they are in the classroom with both the instructor and fellow students, even when not working on a specific activity.					
I view it as a rewarding or worthwhile challenge when I have to use Japanese to communicate (rather than fall back on English)	□	□	□	□	□

Q4.1 How do you describe your instructor? (You may select more than one.)

- □ Talkative
- □ Enthusiastic
- □ Intelligent
- □ Industrial
- □ Serious
- □ Organized
- □ Punctual
- □ Charismatic
- □ Humble
- □ Generous
- □ Creative
- □ Flexible
- □ Reliable
- □ Joyful
- □ Sociable
- □ Sympathetic
- □ Upbeat
- □ Affectionate

- Patient
- Introverted
- Other _____

Q4.3 In the classroom, which language does your instructor use in regards with activity instruction? (Total must be 100.)

English : _____
Japanese : _____
Total : _____

Q4.4 In the classroom, which language does your instructor use in regards with scheduling? (Total must be 100.)

English : _____
Japanese : _____
Total : _____

Q4.5 In the classroom, which language does your instructor use in regards with information about exams? (Total must be 100.)

English : _____
Japanese : _____
Total : _____

Q4.6 In the classroom, which language does your instructor use for greetings? (Total must be 100.)

English : _____
Japanese : _____
Total : _____

Q4.7 In the classroom, which language does your instructor use for small talk? (Total must be 100.)

English : _____
Japanese : _____
Total : _____

Q4.8 How do you describe your instructor's use of the target language in the classroom?

- Maximum use of Japanese
- Extensive use of Japanese
- Optimal use of Japanese

- Optimal use of English
- Minimum use of English

Q4.9 How much individual interaction (Either English or Japanese) have you had with your instructor in the classroom?

- Daily
- 2-3 times a week
- Once s a week
- 2-3 times a month
- Once a month
- Never

Q4.10 How much individual interaction (Either English or Japanese) have you had with your instructor outside of the classroom?

- Daily
- 2-3 times a week
- Once a week
- 2-3 times a month
- Once a month
- Never

Q4.11 How do you describe your instructor's use of language for individual interaction?

- Maximum use of Japanese
- Extensive use of Japanese
- Optimal use of Japanese
- Optimal use of English
- Minimum use of English

Q4.12 When your instructor speak in Japanese to you, does it motivate you to speak in Japanese?

- A great deal
- A lot
- A moderate amount
- A little
- None at all

Q5.2 Please share your most notable memory from this course if you have any. I'm very interested in your stories.

Appendix D: Audit Trail

Date	Activity	Description
9/6/2018 (Thu)	Prospectus Meeting	Approved on my research methodology Committee suggested three times a semester for fieldwork
9/7/2018 (Fri)	Recruiting teacher participant M	E-mail to M with the invitation to the study. Phone call with M to discuss in details. M agreed to be a participant. M is going to recruit her colleague U. Asked to send the class schedule.
9/11/2018 (Tue)	Communication with M	Received the class schedule via E-mail from M. Discuss the potential dates for visits based on the schedule
9/12/2018 (Wed)	Communication with M	M informed that U's willingness to participate in the study and being contacted by me.
	Recruiting teacher participant U	E-mail to U with the invitation to the study and detailed description of my fieldwork
	Communication with U	U agreed to be a participant. U asked several questions regarding to the fieldwork
	Plan for travel	Purchase the airplane ticket from Southwest
9/13/2018 (Thu)	Communication with U	Answer to U's questions regarding to the fieldwork Inform that my visit will be 9/25 and 9/26.
9/14/2018 (Thu)	Communication with U	U asked more questions and showed concerns if she cannot provide with any information-rich data.
	Communication with U	Replied that she does not worry about it
9/17/2018 (Mon)	Proposal for the fieldwork 1	Email to M & U about information regarding to my visits and plan on 9/25 and 9/26. Ask M & U to recruit three students from their class to be participants in my study.
9/22/2018 (Fri)	Communication with M	M asked about the selection of the students and numbers.
	Communication with M	Replied that if she has more than 3, I would take all.
9/23/2018 (Mon)	Travel	Fly from OKC to an airport near the site Airport to the site
9/24/2018 (Tue)	Campus tour	M tour the campus including her office building and classrooms
	Introduction to the participants	First meeting U in person

	Communication with M and U	U dropped by M's office to ask questions regarding to a student who asked her to write a recommendation letter.
	Communication with M	Discuss the schedule for next visit in her office. Received M's signature on the consent form
	Consent form	Receive U's signature on the consent form
	Classroom Observation U	Receive oral consent from the students for video-recording the classroom
	Recruiting student participants	U introduces me with three students. Recruiting them to my study Get their names and phone numbers to reach
	Meeting	Meet another Japanese teacher. Interact with him briefly about the purpose of my visits.
	Classroom Observation M	Receive oral consent from the students for video-recording the classroom
	Recruiting student participants	M introduces me with three students. Recruiting them to my study Get their names and phone numbers to reach
	Teacher Interview U	Interview with U about her background
9/25/2018 (Wed)	Preparation	Prepare consent forms, interview questions as well as considering about student participants' demography
	Classroom Observation U	Video-record the classroom
	Recruiting students	Two more students signed up for interviews Get their names and phone numbers
	Student Interview Ashley	Received signature on the consent form Picture taken for record Interview about her background with audio-recording
	Classroom Observation M	Video-record the classroom
	Student Interview Anna	Received signature on the consent form Picture taken for record Interview about her background with audio-recording
	Recruiting student participants	Recruiting B's friends to my study Get their names and phone numbers to reach
	Student Interview Jack	Received signature on the consent form Picture taken for record Interview about her background with audio-recording
	Student Interview Vance	Received signature on the consent form Picture taken for record Interview about her background with audio-recording
	Student Interview Jordan	Failed due to miscommunication about time.

9/26/2018 (Thu)	Travel	The site to the airport Fly back to OKC
	Communication with U	U sent me two students' names for possible participants
10/1/2018 (Mon)	Communication	Send thank you e-mail to the teacher participants
10/8/2018 (Mon)	Communication with M	Inform the next visit as 10/22 to 10/26
10/19/2018 (Fri)	Proposal for the fieldwork 2	Email to M & U about information regarding to my visits and plan on 10/22 and 10/26.
10/22/2018 (Mon)	Travel	Fly from OKC to the airport Airport to the site
10/23/2018 (Tue)	Preparation	Prepare consent forms, interview questions as well as considering about student participants' demography
	Classroom Observation U	Video-record the classroom
	Recruiting students	Talk to two more students to recruit for interviews Get their names and phone numbers. Make an arrangement to meet in the afternoon
	Student Interview Jordan	Received signature on the consent form Interview about his background with audio-recording
	Classroom Observation M	Video-record the classroom
	Student Interview Aric	Received signature on the consent form Picture taken for record Interview about his background with audio-recording
	Student Interview Keren	Received signature on the consent form Picture taken for record Interview about her background with audio-recording
	Classroom Observation M	Video-record the classroom
	Student Interview Wayne	Received signature on the consent form Picture taken for record Interview about his background with audio-recording
	Student Interview Mike	Received signature on the consent form Picture taken for record Interview about his background with audio-recording
10/24/2018 (Wed)	Preparation	Prepare interview questions based on the previous interviews
	Teacher Interview M	Interview in her office with audio-recording
	Classroom Observation U	Video-record the classroom
	Student Interview	Interview at the library with audio-recording

	Ashley	
	Classroom Observation M	Video-record the classroom
	Student Interview Aric	Interview in the classroom with audio-recording
	Student Interview Anna	Interview in the classroom with audio-recording
	Student Interview Eva	Received signature on the consent form Picture taken for record Interview in the classroom about her background with audio-recording
	Student Interview Wayne	Interview at the library with audio-recording
10/25/2018 (Thu)	Preparation	Prepare interview questions based on the previous interviews
	Student Interview Mike	Interview at the library with audio-recording
	Classroom Observation U	Video-record the classroom
	Student Interview Jordan	Received signature on the consent form Picture taken for record Interview about his background with audio-recording
	Classroom Observation M	Video-record the classroom
	Student Interview Keren	Interview in the classroom with audio-recording
	Classroom Observation M	Video-record the classroom
	Student Interview Vance	Interview at the library with audio-recording
	Student Interview Jack	Interview at the library with audio-recording
	Student Interview Jordan	Interview at the library with audio-recording
	Teacher Interview U	Interview in her office with audio-recording
10/26/2018 (Fri)	Travel	The site to Indianapolis Fly back to OKC
10/29/2018 (Mon)	Communication	Send thank you e-mail to the teacher participants and notify them for schedule for next trip
11/20/2018 (Tue)	Proposal for the fieldwork 3	Email to M & U about information regarding to my visits and plan on 11/26 and 11/30.
11/26/2018	Travel	Fly from OKC to the airport

(Mon)		Airport to The site, Indiana
11/27/2018 (Tue)	Preparation	Prepare interview questions based on the previous interviews
	Classroom Observation U	Video-record the classroom
	Recruiting students	Talk to two more male students to recruit for interviews Get their names and phone numbers. Make an arrangement to meet one in the afternoon
	Student Interview Ethan	Received signature on the consent form Interview at the library with audio-recording
	Classroom Observation M	Video-record the classroom
	Communication with student participants	Schedule to interview
	Classroom Observation M	Video-record the classroom
	Student Interview Eva	Interview at the library about her reflection on beginning Japanese course with audio-recording
11/28/2018 (Wed)	Preparation	Prepare interview questions based on the precious interviews
	Classroom Observation U	Video-record the classroom
	Student Interview Brian	Interview at the library with audio-recording
	Student Interview Ashley	Interview at the library with audio-recording
	Student Interview Keren	Interview at the classroom with audio-recording
	Student Interview Anna	Interview at the classroom with audio-recording
	Student Interview Vance	Interview at the library with audio-recording
	Student Interview Wayne	Interview at the library with audio-recording
11/29/2018 (Thu)	Preparation	Prepare interview questions based on the previous interviews
	Classroom Observation U	Video-record the classroom
	Classroom Observation M	Video-record the classroom
	Student Interview Aric	Interview in the classroom with audio-recording

	Classroom Observation M	Video-record the classroom
	Student Interview Jack	Interview at the library with audio-recording
	Teacher Interview U	Interview in her office with audio-recording
11/30/2018 (Fri)	Teacher Interview M	Interview in her office with audio-recording
	Travel	The site to the airport Fly back to OKC
12/7/2018 (F)	Communication	Send thank you e-mail to the teacher participants and ask them to distribute the survey to all students enrolled in the courses.
12/16/2018 (S)	Online Questionnaire	Close the questionnaire. Find 30 students participated.
12/17/2018 (M)	Communication	Report the teacher participants that 30 students have participated in the survey.
12/18/2018 (T)	Communication	Text thank you to the student participants. 5 of them responded.