A mixed methods study analysing the views of Japanese students regarding L1 use in the English classroom

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Abstract

Influenced by the experiences of the lead research whilst both teaching and learning foreign languages, this paper undertakes a mixed method study to understand the views and perspectives of Japanese students concerning the use of their own language (L1) whilst studying English. The use of the L1 in the English classroom has long been a controversial subject, with varying views on its effectiveness in foreign language learning. Early studies (Howatt, 1984, Krashen, 1987) suggest that conducting lessons fully in the target language was the ideal situation for studying a new language. However, more recent studies (Swain and Lapkin, 2000, Storch and Wigglesworth, 2003, Stapa and Majid, 2006) suggest that use of the student's L1 can actually assist in the acquisition of a new language. This paper looks to add insight into the contrasting views regarding this issue. The study within this paper surveyed 83 Japanese students of varying ages, genders, and English proficiency levels to understand their views on L1 use. The participants were surveyed via an online questionnaire comprising of Likert scale, yes/no, and open-ended questions. The responses from the questionnaire were then analysed which gave an insight into the views of Japanese students regarding L1 use.

The study found that Japanese students understood the negatives of Japanese use in the English classroom more so than the positives. They agreed more with statements that framed Japanese use as negative than they did with statements that framed Japanese use as positive. However, whilst the views generally saw Japanese use as a negative, there were still a significant number of views that appreciated using Japanese to help with their language acquisition. This was particularly the case with beginner and low-level learners, and when explaining difficult concepts and grammar. Based on the results of the study and observations made from the literature review, it was concluded that using the target language in the language classroom should be prioritised, however using a students' L1 is an approach that a teacher should not ignore. There are times when L1 use is acceptable, and both the literature

review and study give indications of when a teacher can expect to use it. However, due to every classroom offering different scenarios and contexts, there are no definitive guidelines to decide the optimum occasion to employ this approach and is an approach that is learned from the experiences of skilled teachers. This paper ends with some criticisms of the study but notes that they do not impact on the reliability of the study.

Keywords: attitudes, communication strategies, Japan, Japanese, L1, L2, mixed methods

Introduction

Teachers teaching students who speak a different language to them can find themselves in a difficult situation. However, despite such difficulties, this is a position that many EFL/ESL (English as a Foreign/Second Language) teachers around the world can be in. To overcome these challenges, it may be that students and teachers need to employ 'communication strategies' to assist them when communicating with each other. Gass and Selinker (2008) define a communication strategy as 'a deliberate attempt to express meaning when faced with difficulty in the second language' (2008:25). Thornbury (2006) offered a similar definition of 'ways that learners get round the fact that they may not know how to say something' (2006:35). These definitions show that utilising communication strategies can be an appropriate way of overcoming potential difficult situations in the classroom, and therefore can be beneficial in enhancing communication and with it, learning a new language.

Littlewood (1984) offered examples of communication strategies that can be employed by a teacher. His examples include avoiding communicating, adjusting the message, using paraphrasing, using approximation, creating new words, using non-linguistic resources, and seeking help. One final communication strategy he noted was switching to the native language of one's students. However, doing this seemingly simple act may not be as straightforward as it might originally seem. Using a student's native language (L1) in the second language (L2) classroom has long been a contentious area in the field of English language teaching. Many pedagogical theories and studies have been conducted and have resulted in opposing views that can express both the positives and negatives of using a student's L1. One school of thought considers that exposing students to as much of the target language as possible and therefore minimising the L1, is the best course of action to help a student to acquire the target language. Conversely to this, another view can understand the benefits of using a learner's native language as a useful tool to facilitate the learning of a new language. As a result of this

contradiction, this remains an area of contrasting opinions and therefore benefits from further research.

This paper will detail a study undertaken with the aim of understanding the views of a cross section of people who have studied English regarding their attitudes towards L1 use in the English classroom. Due to the teaching experiences and future aspirations of the lead researcher the study within this paper has a focus on the context of Japanese learners of English. Teaching English to Japanese students can offer different challenges when compared to teaching English to those from other countries. It has been shown that teaching Japanese students can be impacted by traditional teaching methods meaning that there can be a perceived overreliance on the L1 (McMillan and Rivers, 2011). Therefore, it is important to understand if it is acceptable, and if so, when and to what degree, to use Japanese when teaching these students. This paper will attempt to address a gap in the literature that currently exists and look to understand the views and perceptions of Japanese students on this area of English learning. It will see to do this by asking the following research questions:

Q1: What are Japanese students' views on the use of L1 in the English classroom?

Q2: When is the use of their L1 appropriate?

Q3: When is the use of their L1 not appropriate?

This paper will start by conducting a literature review of previous literature in the field of L1 use. The literature review will start by looking at how to define the term ‘L1’ before looking at similar and synonymous terms for, and the act of using the L1. It will then look at theorists’ perceptions of L1 use in the English classroom noting how the use of L1 has been a long contentious area with various early theories taking a negative view of it before a notable change of attitude in recent times which has resulted in a more positive outlook towards L1 use. The literature review will then consider the personal views of some teachers in this area. It will also consider the views of students, firstly from a general perspective of students in various countries before concentrating on the context of Japanese students. It will then look

at the implications of L1 use on Japanese students. The literature review will finish with some observations on how English is used in modern Japanese society and what the current English education policy in the country is.

Following on from the literature review, the paper will then detail the study undertaken to obtain the views of Japanese students with regard to L1 use. It will start by outlining the research questions that the current study looks to address and the background of how these questions were decided upon. After this, it will offer insight into the methodology. A questionnaire was chosen as the basis of the study and this section of the paper will discuss the design of the questionnaire and any ethical considerations that arose from its design and application. The paper will then consider the results obtained from the questionnaire and discuss what this means in relation to the research questions. It will also consider the implications that these results have on the teaching of English in Japan. It will end with some criticisms of the current study and address how these could be amended for any future variations of the current study.

Literature Review

Defining 'L1'

As noted in the introduction, this paper will talk at length about a student's 'L1'. The term 'L1' itself is a relatively recent coinage and was first used in the middle of the twentieth century. Stern (1983) observed that its first use was by Catford in 1959. It is an abbreviated term to denote an individual's primary language, so it therefore follows that the L2 is an abbreviation of the second language, the L3, the third language, and so on. It has importance and prominence for an individual. This is because in most cases the L1 will be the language that an individual acquires first during childhood and is the language that one uses during their everyday life, as it becomes their instrument for thought and communication (Atkinson, 1987). However, whilst the term L1 is in common use and it is a term that will be used throughout this paper, it is important to note that this term is not universally used within the field of language teaching and linguistics with many theorists putting forward alternative terms to denote what is talked about here as the L1. Alternative terms for the L1, as well as the act of using it in language teaching and learning are discussed below.

Alternative terms for the L1

Rather than using the term L1, Deller and Rivolucri (2002) termed an individual's first language as the 'mother tongue' as it acts as 'the mother of the second, third and fourth languages.' (2002:10). They noted that for these additional languages to develop, they need the mother tongue to help to 'give birth' to them. Another synonymous term of L1 that has widespread use is that of 'native speaker'. Davies (1991) attributed the term to Bloomfield (1935) and noted that 'native speaker' was a common-sense idea and referred to people 'who have a special control of a language, insider knowledge about 'their' language' (1991:1). Davies goes on to further quote the work of Bloomfield who comments that a native language, as with the L1, is the first language that an individual learns to speak.

Furthermore, Hall and Cook (2012) referred to a student's 'own language' (L1) as opposed to the 'new language' (L2, L3, etc.). They did this as they felt that the terms previously mentioned in this literature review were unsatisfactory. They considered that using the term L1 to refer to the dominant language could be improper due to the fact that students within a classroom may not have a shared first language, and as a result the L1 for one student, may not be the L1 for another. They felt that 'mother tongue' was an inaccurate term as it was not always the case that one's 'mother tongue' was indeed their mother's 'mother tongue'. Finally, they cited the work of Coulmas (1981) and Rampton (1990) and concluded that the term 'native language' was 'muddled' and 'imprecise'. This was a view shared by Cheng et al. (2021) who suggested that the term was problematic and pointed to a lack of consistency in defining the term amongst linguists (Stern, 1983, Abrahamsson and Hyltenstam, 2009, Debenport, 2011, Banmamoun et al, 2013, Rothman and Treffers-Daller, 2014). Hall and Cook felt that the term 'own language' avoided these issues and, using Cook's own work, defined it as 'the language which the students already know and through which (if allowed), they can approach the new language' (Cook 2010: xxii).

The act of using the L1

In addition to these alternative terms for the L1, there are also various terms to denote the act of using a student's L1. One such example was Macaro (2001 & 2005), who talked of 'codeswitching'. He noted that the switching of languages, or 'codes', occurs as the 'speaker finds it easier or more appropriate, in the linguistic and/or cultural context, to communicate by switching than by keeping the utterance totally in the same language' (2005:63). Similar in its use amongst bilinguals is the process of 'translanguaging' (Garcia and Wei, 2014). Baker (2011) defined this as 'the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, understandings and knowledge through the use of two languages' (2011:288). These two linguistic processes are very closely related however Garcia and Wei make the distinction of code-switching being a similar trait to switching the language function of a smartphone between languages, whereas translanguaging would be similar to turning the function off and using an individual's full

linguistic repertoire and using both languages together. It should be noted however, that both codeswitching and translanguaging are generally traits that are associated with bilingual students (Thornbury, 2017, Lightbown and Spada, 2013), therefore it can be difficult to establish which language is the L1 and which is the L2, or indeed if deviating between languages was, for example, a stylistic choice, rather than to avoid communication difficulties (Kim, 2006).

It has therefore been demonstrated that there are many varying terms to denote a student's L1 as well as the act of using it. It should also be noted that there are valid concerns from Hall and Cook, with regard to the use of some of these terms. Despite these concerns, it appears that from reviewing relevant literature, the most common parlance to refer to an individual's 'main' language is to refer to it as their L1. Additionally, it could also be noted that Hall and Cook's concerns about its use relate to classes where the students do not share the same first language. However, with the context of the current study being students in Japan, due to the largely homogeneous population of Japan (Statista, 2023), this is rarely a concern with very few students having an L1 other than Japanese. Therefore, whilst appreciating the various terms this literature review has discussed, this paper will deem it acceptable and continue to refer to a student's main language as their L1.

L1 use in the English classroom

As noted in the introduction of this paper, there have been many contrasting ideas put forward discussing both the benefits and drawbacks of L1 use in the L2 classroom. As a result of this contention, this literature review will investigate theories and studies that have been proposed in relation to students using their L1 whilst studying a foreign language. Ellis and Shintani (2014) spoke at length regarding this 'contentious' issue. They noticed a change in views over time and spoke of the pendulum swing in recent years from neglecting L1 use towards approaches that advocate and accept it. They looked at the work of Cook (2001 & 2005) and Macaro (2005) and noted a number of pros and cons of using L1 in the classroom. Their work looked at various situations when a teacher might consider L1 use and used them to highlight

the contentiousness of this issue, offering a positive and a negative for each situation (Appendix i). The situations they considered were:

- To convey L2 meaning.
- Maintain discipline.
- To explain tasks and tests.
- To explain grammar.
- To practise codeswitching.
- Building personal relationships with students.
- Avoidance of unnecessary input modification.
- Developing translation skills.
- Preparing for activities conducted in the L2.
- Reduce anxiety in the learner.
- Demonstrating respect for the learner by acknowledging their L1 identity.

Macaro (2009) himself noted that there are varying views with regard to L1 use. He conducted interviews and surveys with teachers to try to understand their attitudes and beliefs regarding the issue. He noted that there appeared to be three varying approaches in this area. The first of these was the 'virtual position'. This was a view held by teachers that a language could only be learned with exclusive use of that language, with this exclusivity forming a 'virtual reality'. This kind of learning mirrors both how an individual learns their L1 and also how a migrant in a target language country might acquire a new language. Macaro labelled the next approach as the 'maximal position'. He found that some teachers believe that a virtual position is the best way to learn a second language and that use of the target language should be maximised. However, proponents of the maximal position felt that it was an unattainable goal to exclusively use the target language. Therefore, they attempted to use the target language as much as they could but appreciated that there may be times when the L1 will need to be used, when using the target language would yield no response. The final approach that Macaro observed was the 'optimal position'. This was a view that saw teachers appreciating the value of

adopting the L1 to assist the learning process. They realised that there may be occasions whereby using the L1 will aid a learner's acquisition of the target language more so than solely teaching in the language they are studying. Macaro additionally noted that a teacher's use of the L1 did not necessarily result in increased student use of the L1 so this was seen as a useful approach for teachers to take.

Views opposing L1 use

As noted by Ellis and Shintani (2014), before the recent 'pendulum swing' occurred, many early theorists talked of the negative impacts of using a student's L1 in the classroom. As a way to highlight such negative points of view, Prodromou referred to its use as 'the skeleton in the cupboard' in the English language classroom (2002:5), indicating the negative perception attached to it. Ellis (2012) further noted that this approach to reduce L1 use is often not a choice of the teacher and could be prescribed by official policy. He gave the example of elementary school teachers in Korea being instructed to solely use English during English lessons. Such negative views were observed by Hall and Cook (2012) who noted that throughout the nineteenth century and into the twentieth, it was generally accepted that L1 use should be discouraged or even banned. They commented that during this period, the widespread belief of teachers and theorists was that everything that happened in the language classroom should happen in the language that is being taught, falling in line with Macaro's observed 'virtual position'. To confirm these views Harmer (2007a) mentioned potential issues of using the L1 that could hinder language learning and gave examples such as a teacher not being competent in that language, restricting students' exposure to the target language as well as contradicting the encouragement of communicative tasks in the classroom.

Krashen (1987) was a prominent theorist who ascribed to these views and was an outspoken early advocate of a fully L2 environment. He claimed that people learn second languages much in the same way that a child will acquire their first language. This being a process of natural acquisition without receiving explicit teaching of the language. He noted that because of this, a language learner had an innate ability to learn languages and all they needed in order

to learn a new language was to receive ‘comprehensible input’ in low anxiety conditions in their target language. This input needed to be slightly above that of their current level of the target language, or as he put it ‘i+1’.

His view was in agreement with that of Howatt (1984) who had previously talked about a ’monolingual principle’. This is a principle that the student is exclusively immersed in their target language to enhance their language acquisition and it being one that ‘emphasizes instructional use of the target language to the exclusion of the students’ home language with the goal of enabling the learner to think in the TL [target language] with minimal interference from the L1’ (Cummins, 2009:317).

The theories of researchers such as Krashen and Howatt have links with the ‘direct method’ approach to English language teaching. This is an approach that aims to copy the way that young learners learn their L1. Yu (2004) commented that ‘[t]he direct method imitated the way that children learn their first language, emphasizing the avoidance of translation and the direct use of the foreign language as the medium of instruction in all situations’ (2004:176). Larsen-Freeman and Anderson noted that there was one simple rule to the direct method; ‘No translation is allowed’ (2011:25). These comments and theories make clear that these theorists believe that a fully L2 environment is the best way to acquire the target language. However, Krashen and Howatt presented their views at a time when the use of the direct method approach was reducing in language teaching, signalling that a change in these views was near (Hughes and Reed, 2017).

The Berlitz Method

To demonstrate the direct method, this literature review will detail one of the most prevalent approaches to English teaching that has its roots in this approach and as a result, embraces a fully L2 environment. This method is the Berlitz Method. This was an approach developed by a German immigrant in America by the name of Maximilian Berlitz. Berlitz found success teaching his native language of German and opened a chain of language schools, employing

a fully immersed approach and giving his teachers the direction that there should be no translating under any circumstances, going as far as to warn his teachers against even the slightest of compromise on this point (Howatt and Widdowson, 2004). Richards (2014) noted that this type of teaching was in many language schools at the time, not just Berlitz, and it was a popular method that was successful in attracting high-paying, highly motivated students. As a demonstration of their popularity, Berlitz schools continue to teach using the Berlitz method today, with their own website talking of the benefits of neglecting the L1 and studying in an entirely immersive environment.

> 'The Berlitz Method lets you approach a new language in a natural fashion. In other words, in your Berlitz course you only speak and hear your target language – which means you learn it as though you were in the country where the language is spoken. This immersive experience allows you to overcome any inhibitions about speaking by applying your new skills in everyday situations.' (Berlitz, no date:online)

Worldwide there are currently over 500 Berlitz schools in over 70 countries (Berlitz, no date), demonstrating that this approach to language learning remains popular to this day, with large numbers of students currently undertaking these methods.

Views promoting L1 use

Whilst there have been many theories that portray the values of using a student's L1 in a negative light, more recent studies have shown that using a student's L1 can have positive benefits in their language studies. To highlight this, Ur (2012) noted that there is 'no particular reason to ban the use of L1 in the classroom. On the contrary, the L1 is likely to play a valuable role in the acquisition of English' (2012:6). In support of this Ellis and Shintani noted surveys by Podromou (2002), Ferrer (2005), and Schweers (1999) and commented that they 'all testify to considerable enthusiasm for exploiting the L1 in the classroom' (2014:228). This shows that in recent written literature there is definitive support for using the L1 in the classroom.

Swain and Lapkin (2000) evidenced the positivity of L1 use by analysing recordings of English-speaking students studying French in Toronto and looked at how their use of the L1, on this occasion English, facilitated their studies of the target language whilst completing two different

tasks: a dictogloss and a jigsaw activity. The study found that students used their L1 for three main functions in language learning. Swain and Lapkin noted that use of the L1 firstly, moved the task along, secondly, it focused attention and finally, it enhanced interpersonal interaction. They had initially had views that agreed with the principle of the base institution, this was that they avoided group work due to students having a shared L1, which they considered would be counterproductive. However, following the study they concluded that '[w]ithout their L1 use, the task presented to them may not have been accomplished as effectively, or perhaps it might not have been accomplished at all' (2000:268).

Another study that advocated the use of L1 was conducted by Storch and Wigglesworth (2003). Their study looked at twenty-four university ESL students, who were assigned together to form twelve pairs. Their study focused on six pairs from this cohort. These pairs shared a common L1. Three pairs were native Indonesian speakers, and three pairs were native Mandarin Chinese speakers. They recorded their interactions in the completion of a reconstruction task and a short composition task. and found results similar to that of Swain and Lapkin. They reported that L1 use served four main functions. These being task management, task clarification, vocabulary and meaning, and grammar. They noted that 'the use of L1 may provide learners with additional cognitive support that allows them to analyse language and work at a higher level than would be possible were they restricted to sole use of their L2' (2003:760).

A further study in this area was conducted by Stapa and Majid (2006). They conducted a study looking at sixty Malaysian students with low-level English proficiency. The students were randomly divided into two groups of thirty students and were individual tasked with producing a piece of writing. In the first stage, the students were given a reading passage in English that was related to the topic of the essay at hand. This was followed by a class discussion regarding this piece. However, the experimental group was permitted to conduct this discussion in their L1, whereas the control group was only permitted to conduct this discussion in English. They found that the students in the experimental group produced better quality essays when

compared with the students in the control group, with respective mean marks of 57.4667 compared to 44.8667. They put this difference in the mean marks down to permitting the use of L1 during the class discussion.

In Addition to these theories outlining the positivity of L1 use, other theorists have looked to give examples of when to use the L1. Cook (2001) noted that L1 use helped with the following teacher functions:

- Conveying and checking the meaning of words or sentences.
- Explaining grammar.
- Organising tasks.
- Maintaining discipline.
- Providing feedback.
- Testing.

Cook also reported that student use of L1 within classroom activities was beneficial, noting that code-switching provided the students with relevant scaffolding to be able to help each other.

Cajkler and Addleman (2000) proposed a similar list of situations for when L1 use might be beneficial. Their list included:

- Dealing with errors.
- Communicating things the pupils need to understand – ensuring that in mixed ability groups, underachievers and pupils with learning difficulties need to be brought up to speed and the use of the L1 could facilitate this.
- Organising the classroom.
- Building relationships.
- Presenting background information.
- Controlling, disciplining, and ensuring the safety of the class.
- Dealing with unexpected interruptions.

- Assessing.

Finally, Smith and Conti (2016) proposed that it was acceptable to use the L1 to:

- Explain complex activities.
- Give complex cultural information.
- Deal with behaviour management issues.
- Set out the goals of the lesson.
- ‘Ease’ a class into a lesson.
- Put work into context.
- Explain grammar and give notes.
- Do certain types of assessment for learning work.
- Give complex feedback.
- Talk with classes about language learning.
- Set home assignments.

These theories and suggestions demonstrate that whilst there is not necessarily a direct advantage of using an individual’s L1, it improves an individual’s cognitive skills and engagement, it also helps with task completion in the L2 classroom, as well as it being useful in assessment and therefore makes its use effective in studying a foreign language. It must be noted, however, that whilst teachers in recent times are more accepting of L1 use, this should not be at the expense of using the second language where it would be acceptable to do so. Scott and De la Fuente noted that ‘[f]or more than 30 years, FL [Foreign Language] teachers have been in general agreement that the target language should be used as much as possible in the FL classroom’ (2008; 100). This is in line with a Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach of communication-based activities in the target language which has been a preferred teaching methodology in recent times (Hughes and Reed, 2017).

Additionally, Harmer (2007a) listed a few points to consider when dealing with L1 use. He noted the following:

- Acknowledge the L1.
- Use appropriate L1 and L2 activities.
- Differentiate between the ability levels.
- Agree on clear guidelines.
- Use encouragement and persuasion.

These suggestions from Harmer can act as a framework for a teacher to consider, to know when to use L1 before even entering the classroom, and through additional discussions with the students, guidelines can be drawn up so both the student and teacher are aware of when L1 use is acceptable.

Teachers' views on L1 use

Whilst it has been evidenced that some L1 can be beneficial the amount of L1 used in the classroom will depend on the approach of the teacher. Many institutions employ a zero L1 policy, however it is up to teachers to enforce this within the classroom, and their own views may be at odds with what is expected of them. Therefore, it is important to consider what teachers think about this approach. As has been previously noted in this literature review, there has been a gradual swing towards accepting the use of L1 in the classroom. In addition to the theoretical studies that have been undertaken, this change in approach has also been recognised and utilised by some EFL teachers. Harmer (2015) noted the views of an English teacher in Malaysia. The teacher commented 'I try not to [use Malay] but sometimes you have to. If we don't use Malay, they won't understand, especially some of the textbooks. The words are difficult'. (2015:49). Furthermore, Makulloluwa (2013) canvassed the opinion of 21 English teachers in Sri Lanka and found that 'a majority of the teachers demonstrated a positive attitude towards the use of L1 in the classroom' (2013:592).

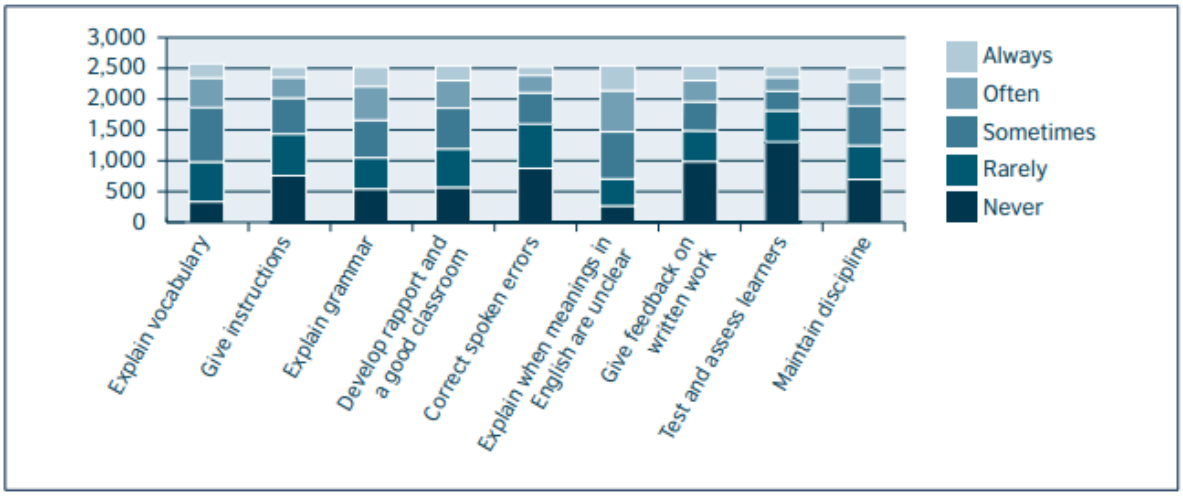
Similarly, Timor (2012) also looked to understand the opinions of English teachers with regard to L1 use. He distributed a questionnaire to 112 EFL teachers in Israel. His results found that there was generally a positive attitude toward using the L1 from a pedagogical standpoint and was found to be useful when dealing with grammatical issues, reading comprehension, and, to a lesser degree, classroom management. However, it must be noted that these teachers were second-language speakers of English and therefore they may have found it easier and more convenient to 'slip' into the shared L1 of their students.

In contradiction to these views, Macaro (1997) conducted a survey and noted that only 16.3% percent of teachers he surveyed disagreed with the statement '[g]ood language teachers use the TL almost exclusively' (1997:80). But despite the comments from Macaro's study, the observations of teachers in this literature review are in general, evidence of them showing awareness to the needs of their students and using the L1 when required to aid language acquisition.

However, these studies were of a very small scale when compared to a study undertaken by Hall and Cook (2013). To highlight the perceived changes in the approach and attitude of foreign language teachers, they conducted a large-scale study to canvass the opinions of EFL teachers worldwide. Their study surveyed 2,785 teachers in 111 countries. The majority of their respondents were teachers of English in countries such as China (227 respondents), Portugal (190), and Spain (189), however there was also a fair degree of representation from teachers in Japan (50). Their survey discovered that there was a large use of L1 in L2 classrooms around the world. The vast majority of teachers reported using the student's L1 to some degree. In many cases, this L1 use went against what was expected from their institutions, with 63% of respondents reporting that their institutions expected an English only environment whilst in the classroom. However, they report that what actually occurs within the classroom differs from what mainstream ELT practices prescribe. The following table demonstrates when teachers might use the students' L1. The table shows that 72% of teachers responded with always, often, or sometimes when faced with the situation of having

to explain when meanings in English are unclear. In addition to this, 61.5% of respondents stated that they use English always, often, or sometimes when explaining vocabulary.

Figure 1 - Reported frequency and functions of teachers' own-language use in class (Hall and Cook, 2013:15)



*Throughout this report, where totals do not add up to 2,785, this is due to missing data and respondents' omission of individual questions.

They concluded that the survey shows that 'own-language use is an established part of ELT classroom practice, and that teachers, while recognising the importance of English within the classroom, do see a range of useful functions for the own language in their teaching' (2013:17). These studies demonstrate that in current times, L1 use is an acceptable and well-used teaching approach within the classroom. Hall and Cook's study does accept that teachers appreciate using as much of the target language as possible will help to facilitate language learning, but they also appreciate that the use of the L1 can be a useful tool to help them to do this.

Students' views on L1 use.

As has been noted so far, much in the field of L1 use has been written from the perspective of researchers and teachers. However, teachers and students can have vastly different views on the use of L1. Whilst teachers may appreciate pedagogical theory that suggests increased L1 use will benefit language learning, this may not be an idea shared by their students. Indeed

Shabir (2017) considered the language learning principles of Ellis (2005) and noted that 'students expect more use of L1 because they feel more comfortable; however, teachers believe that more use of L1 maximizes the learners' exposure to the target language and it could help them to learn the target language faster' (2017:50). This shows that there can be a disconnect between the views of teachers and students who may appreciate L1 use for different reasons.

Therefore, to supplement these ideas, some studies have been conducted to understand the views and perspectives of students toward L1 use. It must be noted, however, that whilst studies to document this have been conducted, this remains an area that would benefit from further research, as studies have tended to be context-specific and not widespread in their application. Despite this, in terms of students' perspectives and attitudes, generally the studies that have been undertaken show that they consider the use of L1 in the classroom as a positive approach.

One such student-focused study was conducted by Brooks-Lewis (2009), whose work considered the views of Mexican learners of English. Her data consisted of written testimonies, relating to experiences following an English class that incorporated the use of their L1 of Spanish. Brooks-Lewis recorded various positives which noted that using the L1 helped their understanding and to make the class more interesting. She also noted how it even went as far as to reduce 'classroom shock', a phenomenon caused by entering an unfamiliar classroom and being expected to converse in a language that they don't know. She also commented how the student's knowledge of Spanish, and universal features of language, such as reading, writing, and grammatical concepts were embraced by the students and seen as a positive feature in learning a new language. Furthermore, noting the differences between the two languages was also seen to aid their learning of their target language. However, whilst the views were predominately in favour of incorporating their L1, it was also noted that this wasn't the universal view. Some students commented that increased use of English by the teacher is 'the only way that we are going to learn the language' (2009:224).

Another study was conducted with junior high school students in Indonesia (Anindya et al., 2022). The researchers identified three students who had been observed during English classes and noted as active students who regularly responded to their teacher's questions, asked questions of their own, and were forward in giving opinions. All of these actions were generally conducted in their L1. After selecting these students, Anindya et al. conducted a structured interview with the topic of the interview being the use of L1. From the interviews, they found that there were three main reasons as to why the students used their L1. Firstly, they noted that they used it as it was easier for communication, secondly, they appreciated their peers having varying skill and confidence levels in terms of their English use, and finally, there were no set rules from their teacher governing L1 use. They concluded that L1 was a positive for the students, noting that it 'showed a good impact on the students. It helps them to communicate with the teacher because using their L1 is a simple and common way to express things like asking for permission (to turn off the camera or to go to the restroom), asking questions and clarifications about exams or tasks, and responding when the teacher is checking attendance' (2022:316).

A further study was conducted by Shariati (2019) and considered the perspectives of fifty Iranian students studying at a language institute. The students were given a questionnaire to complete, which related to their attitudes towards their own and their teacher's use of L1 in the classroom. The study found mixed results. It concluded that L1 use was considered as a positive approach in low-level groups, however in intermediate and higher-ability groups the students considered that L1 use was negative to their studies. However, they did note that institutes who set policies against L1 use had done so using 'shaky scientific evidence' and that using a student's native language can help with parts of the class. So, whilst Brooks-Lewis and Shariati both recorded views advocating minimal L1 use, the studies in general show that students appreciate the values of being permitted to use L1 in the class.

Japanese students' views on L1 use

As noted, there is a lack of literature with regard to student's perspectives on the use of L1 in the classroom and this gap in the literature is magnified when considering the specific context of Japanese students. However, some smaller publications have offered views of Japanese students with Carson and Kashihara (2012) conducting one such study in this area. They surveyed 305 first and second-year university students enrolled in International Studies and Information Technology English language courses. They found that '[m]ost students preferred that instructors know the L1' (2012:44) and found that these results were more prevalent with the lower-level ability groups, as judged by their TOEIC scores.

Bartlett (2017) also considered the view of Japanese students. He interviewed 64 second-year students who were studying English in the school of Science and Technology at Kwansei Gakuin University and asked if they considered that the use of Japanese in the English classroom was a hindrance or a benefit to their English studies. From the conducted interviews, Bartlett noted that his results 'showed a clear majority of students felt that the use of L1 in their L2 classrooms was a benefit to their learning journey' (2017:76). He found that students preferred to hear explanations of difficult language contents in their native language and that students commented that they felt comfort in being able to approach their teacher in Japanese. He also found that students were concerned about making mistakes if they were forced to use English and if a teacher forced them to use English, the students felt that it was because the question was not important to the teacher. However, it was also noted, as with the study of Brooks-Lewis and Shariati that one student recognised the value of a monolingual 'immersion' approach, having experienced similar on a study abroad programme. Additionally, as noted by Carson and Kashihara, Bartlett also found that students with a higher ability in English felt an approach to prohibit the use of Japanese was not an issue for them and didn't affect their language learning.

Sullivan (2016) also presented a small-scale study, discussing the views of Japanese students. His study focused on 109 female students from a women's university, located in

Tokyo who were enrolled into English classes. The students were placed into focus groups comprising of three or four students and were asked to answer the following questions:

- What do you like about your university English courses?
- What do you dislike about your university English courses?
- What do you want in your university English courses?
- What do you not want in your university English courses?

Recordings of the discussions took place and the output was noted by the researchers. The study covered a broad range of the student's likes and dislikes in the classroom, so whilst the study did not report on how much, or when English was used in the class, it did note that the students wanted 'the teachers to speak a little more Japanese', and 'explanations in Japanese as well, not only in English' (2016:42). This presents clear evidence that the students showed a preference for Japanese to be used within the classroom.

A further study into the views of Japanese students was conducted by Clancy (2018). He and his team surveyed 175 first- and second-year undergrad students, studying in three different universities in the Kanto region of Japan. Their study sought to find answers to the following research questions:

- Do students prefer foreign EFL teachers to be fluent in the L1?
- When do students think it is appropriate to use the L1 during an EFL class?
- What purpose do students think the L1 serves, if any, in the EFL classroom?
- Do students think foreign EFL teachers should pretend to lack L1 proficiency?

The study found that 'students studying English as a second language (L2) in Japanese universities overwhelmingly preferred the use of L1 to aid in the facilitation of learning in EFL classes' (2018:1). The study also found that 'giving new vocabulary', closely followed by 'facilitating rapport/humour', were identified as the main reasons for the teacher to use the L1.

It is clear therefore, that from these studies, Japanese students, on the whole, prefer that use of Japanese is permitted within their classroom. Whilst there were some remarks to the contrary, these were in the minority and L1 use was seen as a preferential approach to take for the students.

Language learner anxiety of Japanese students

McMillan and Rivers (2011) noted that excessive use of L1 in English classes in Japan has long been viewed as a problem for English learning in the country, with many schools and institutions having an overreliance on traditional grammar-translation methods in place of more communicative approaches. Steele and Zhang (2016) noted that the method of 'yakudoku' is still one that is prevalent in Japan. This is a term that is a portmanteau of 'yaku', meaning translation, and 'doku', meaning reading (Kern, 2000). Hino (1988) defined the process of yakudoku as one where 'English is first translated into Japanese word-by-word, and then the resulting translation is reordered to match Japanese word order' (1988:45). McMillan and Rivers noted a number of reasons as to why this methodology was still employed. This list includes 'Japanese English teachers' own lack of communicative ability, lack of teacher training, and the emphasis placed on university entrance examinations' (2011:252). However, as already noted in this literature review, L1 use may be beneficial for students. As McMillan and Rivers commented, there tends to be an overreliance on the L1 in Japan, but the benefits of its use are hard to ignore. Therefore, understanding how often and to what degree to use Japanese with Japanese students of English can be an important issue to address.

This literature review has already discussed suggestions of appropriate L1 use as prescribed in studies by Cook, Cajkler and Addleman, Smith and Conti, and Harmer. In addition to these noted suggestions, Nation (2003) found that permitting the use of a student's L1 can even help to increase their confidence in the language classroom. He suggested that 'using the L2 can be a source of embarrassment, particularly for shy learners and those who feel they are not very proficient in the L2' (2003:2). This issue of language anxiety can be a particular issue

for Japanese learners as researchers such as Sim and Roger (2016) and Williams and Andrade (2008) have documented. Sim and Roger offered insight into this and interviewed 101 Japanese EFL students and noticed that language learner anxiety can be a hinderance to the language learning process. They commented that 'Japanese learners appear to be one group that experiences levels of anxiety that often disrupt their development in the English language' (2016:29). A view that was further confirmed by Williams and Andrade who interviewed 243 students enrolled in English conversational classes at a Japanese university and suggested that 'foreign language learning anxiety is equally prevalent among Japanese and other Asian learners' (2008:181), they further noted that the source of anxiety was most often associated with 'the output [speaking and writing] or processing [mental planning] stages of the learning process' (2008:188), demonstrating that issues may occur when students are expected to speak in their target language in class.

It has been documented that language learners in Japan can experience language learning anxiety, and this may be exacerbated by speaking English in the classroom. Studies documented in this literature review of Japanese students generally show a preference by students for the use of their L1 within the classroom. Whilst there is evidence that some students appreciate the value of increased exposure to the target language to enhance their English acquisition, this previous literature has shown that generally Japanese students appreciate the use of Japanese. Therefore, as a result of these studies, as well as the documented studies of non-Japanese students it is expected that the participants in the current study will show a preference for L1 use to be permitted in the classroom.

Current English education policy in Japan.

As previously noted in this literature review, Japan is a largely homogenous, island nation, with only 2.2% of the population being made up of foreign nationals (Statista; 2023). As a result of this, English is not in widespread use in the country. Head (2015) notes that 'English is seen as a practical means to enhance international economic competitiveness, as well as expanding students' mental structures' (2015:355), before noting that the dominance of the

native Japanese language in the country is not threatened by the use of English. This demonstrates that English is mainly seen as a communicative tool to help develop business and improve the economic standing of Japan as well as a pursuit for developing students' capabilities.

However, there are issues in Japanese society that may result in far more widespread use of English in the country. Japan is currently suffering from an aging population. Recent projections from the National Institute of Population and Social Security Research predict that the population of Japan could fall from the peak of 128 million people in 2008, to around 87 million people in 2070 (Japan Times; 2023). Morita (2017) notes that one possible measure to arrest this decline that has been researched by the Japanese government is through immigration and the attempt to actively attract migrants to work in the country. Morita went on to cite the work of D'Costa (2013) and Oishi (2012, 2013) who commented on one area that caused a problem in being able to do this. They noted that the highly skilled migrants that were attractive to the Japanese government, such as IT professionals and engineers, may have issues with the language barrier. With such highly skilled workers coming from countries other than Japan and therefore lacking knowledge of the Japanese language, it demonstrates the value of improving communication channels and taking advantage of English's position as a lingua franca.

In a move to increase English proficiency in Japan, English is now a compulsory subject in Japanese schools. It has been a compulsory subject for all junior high students since 2002, and all senior high students since 2003 (Kubota 2020). However, despite such policies English proficiency levels in Japan rank towards the bottom of both Asian and developed countries (Foreign Policy, 2020). To try to amend these low rankings, these new English teaching policies were introduced. These efforts have gone beyond the introduction of English lessons at junior high schools and have now been extended to the elementary school system in Japan where the most recent update to the 'course of study', (the Japanese curriculum standard that sets the goals and objectives for class syllabuses) in 2020 saw foreign language education

become a formal, compulsory lesson with assessment for students from the fifth grade of elementary (primary) school and compulsory, yet unassessed subject, for all students from the third grade (Terasawa, 2022). In more recent times the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), has also directed a change in methodology to improve the English abilities of Japanese school students. Nishino (2011) noted that MEXT 'attempted to promote higher achievement in English communicative skills among secondary school students by urging teachers to use CLT [Communicative Language Teaching]' (2011:131). This is a methodology that employs communicative activities in the target language between students rather than a reliance on the translation of words and studying grammar rules. Nishino further noted that this was in sharp contrast to the yakudoku method which was still seen as the dominant methodology of the time and as a result, was a big step away from the traditional teaching methods previously employed in the country.

The promotion of English in schools in Japan has not been without its challenges and there have been instances where it has been met with widespread opposition. Kobayashi noted the opposition 'encompasses a wide range of positions from the right to the left ends of the Japanese political spectrum. The former regards English as a threat to the uniqueness of Japanese language and culture, while the latter accuses the policy of being excessively accommodating to the commercial interests of big businesses' (2023:234).

However, since the 2020 updates to the curriculum, the National Institute for Educational Policy Research (NIER) in Japan has noted that MEXT have taken notice of the rapid globalisation of the modern world and also paid attention to a potential need for individuals to communicate in foreign languages, highlighted by their desire to attract many highly skilled migrant workers to the country. As a result, the most recent updates are made to address this ongoing concern and provide an additional focus toward foreign language education, with this focus being toward the study of English. (NIER, 2021)

Methodology

This section will discuss the methods used to address the objective of the study. This being to obtain the views and attitudes of Japanese students regarding L1 use in the English classroom. It will start by setting out the research questions that the study will aim to answer. It will then discuss the participants, the questionnaire and its design for collection of the data, and how this data was used to answer the research questions at hand. It will also discuss ethical implications before offering some commentary on the results and discussing what the results mean and what implications this might have on the teaching of English in Japan. The methodology section will end with some critiques and criticism of the study and note areas for development should this study be undertaken again.

Research questions

This study looks to add to the limited amount of research that has already been conducted in the area of L1 usage in the English classroom, specifically from the context of Japanese learners. The research questions for this particular study were formed based on observations from the lead researcher following their experiences of teaching English as well as studying foreign languages. The lead researcher felt that commonly introduced practices that many institutions enforce in prohibiting the use of the L1 were contrary to good practices when teaching and studying a foreign language. Furthermore, due to the lead researcher's previous teaching experience and future aspirations of teaching in Japan, Japanese students of English were chosen to be the context of the study and as a result, their views were sought. In an effort to address the objectives at hand and to better understand the best practices in the field of L1 use in Japan, the following research questions were set:

Q1: What are Japanese students' views on the use of L1 in the English classroom?

Q2: When is the use of their L1 appropriate?

Q3: When is the use of their L1 not appropriate?

Research design

As indicated by the research questions, the purpose of the research was to obtain the views and attitudes of Japanese individuals who had studied English. To do this an attitudinal, mixed method study was designed utilising a questionnaire as the basis of data collection. A mixed method approach was implemented to provide a larger sample of data than just implementing a quantitative or qualitative method. Almalki noted that 'it makes intuitive sense to gather information from different sources, utilising different methods, which work together as an efficient design' (2016:292). This confirms that applying different approaches to obtaining data is an acceptable and more importantly a preferential method to undertake and can potentially result in higher quality or more extensive data when compared to only employing a single methodological approach.

Ethics

Due to the nature of the study, no personal information was required, so therefore, none was taken or requested, resulting in all participants being assured of their confidentiality. Participants were shown a participant information sheet (Appendix ii) and were made aware of this confidentiality and advised that their anonymised results would only be viewed by those involved in the study, that being the lead researcher and the supervisor. To assist with the anonymity of the study, the settings of the online system used to obtain the data, Google Forms, were set so that no email address would be automatically taken or requested from the respondent. The participant information sheet further advised the participants that the purpose of the study was to 'understand the views of Japanese students with regards to using Japanese whilst studying English'. It also informed them that they could remove themselves from the survey at any time, and they were provided with a contact email address for the lead researcher if they wished to do this. However, it must also be noted that once their responses were provided, due to the anonymised nature of the survey, removal would be difficult or even impossible to achieve. The same email address was provided as a point of contact should the participants wish to receive any additional information concerning the study. With the

assistance of translation from a native Japanese speaker, this information was provided in both Japanese and English to ensure that all respondents, regardless of their second language capabilities had the same information provided to them, and to ensure there were no issues or confusion with regard to potential ethical issues. Additionally, prior to the study commencing, an ethics checklist was completed and approved by the research supervisor to ensure all safeguards regarding ethical issues were considered and to confirm no issues were identified during the design of the study or during the ethics application (Appendix iii).

Participants

A recent study suggests around 13% of the population of Japan (amounting to approximately 16,000,000 people) are studying English in some form (Statista, 2022). This represents a large amount of people which the current study could potentially survey. However, due to the volume of people, attempting to do so would be an impossibility. As a result, a sample, as practical as possible to represent this group was sought. Dörnyei defines a sample as a 'group of participants whom the research actually examines in an empirical investigation' (2007:96). This is a practical solution for obtaining the best results possible for a representation of the entire target group. Consideration was given to who would be the ideal candidates to assist with the research and provide the best representative results. As a result, eligibility for the questionnaire was set to any Japanese person aged 18 or over who had studied, or is currently studying, English in one of the following settings:

- At a university.
- On a study abroad programme.
- At a language school within Japan (known as an eikaiwa in Japan).

It was decided to not include students who had only studied English in a compulsory educational setting, such as junior high school or high school, as the study would therefore include participants who had not 'chosen' to study a foreign language. It was considered that their views and perceptions of studying a language may differ from people who have

proactively made a choice to study a language and may have skewed the results. Furthermore, the study targets individuals aged 18 years and over due to the ethical implications of surveying minors.

Potential participants of the study were identified from acquaintances of the lead researcher, who had previously, lived, worked and studied in Japan, and as a result, took advantage of convenience sampling. The questionnaire was then distributed via social media platforms and email. The questionnaire was not restricted in any way, so therefore it was also available to other people who met the eligibility criteria to complete. This was an intentional act as respondents were asked to pass on the questionnaire to other respondents to take advantage of 'snowball' sampling. This form of sampling involves creating a ''chain reaction,' whereby the researcher identifies a few people who meet the criteria of a particular study and then asks these participants to identify appropriate further members of the population' (Dörnyei and Csizér, 2012:81).

Questionnaire

A questionnaire was chosen as the basis of the study. This method was chosen as a well-designed questionnaire can be easy and convenient for respondents to complete. This will aid engagement and additionally will result in creating data in a format that is straightforward to analyse. These benefits were confirmed by Dörnyei and Csizer who noted that questionnaires are the backbone of any survey-based study and commented that '[t]he most common way of obtaining large amounts of data in a relatively short period of time in a cost-effective way is by means of standardized questionnaires' (2012:75). The questionnaire for the current study was designed to contain both open and closed questions. The closed questions in the survey were in the form of, firstly, Likert scale questions and, secondly, yes/no questions. These types of questions were included to provide quantitative data. Wagner (2010) justified the use of Likert scale questions by commenting that in a survey-based study, Likert scale questions are one of the most often used items. He further noted that a Likert scale response generally has four or five response options, however having more options can improve the validity and reliability,

or in other words the ‘psychometric properties’ of the questionnaire. However, having an increased amount of response options can result in difficulties in the respondent being able to exactly pinpoint their degree of agreement or disagreement. The number of options was considered during the design of the questionnaire and confirmed as appropriate during the piloting process as no issues arose from using ten response options. Therefore, it was decided to use ten response options in the final questionnaire, which was done with the intention of improving the data. Open questions were included to allow respondents an opportunity to give any additional views on the topic and were included to provide qualitative data.

The questionnaire (Appendix iv) was designed to answer the research questions set out in this paper. It aimed to do this by considering the situations set out by Ellis and Shintani (2014) in their ‘pros and cons of using the L1’ table (Appendix i). The design of the questionnaire also considered previous research conducted with regard to the perspective of Japanese students, which was noted in the literature review section of this paper. Questions from the studies carried out by Carson and Kashihara (2012) and Bartlett (2017) were replicated and used in the current study. Additionally, classification questions such as gender, age and English proficiency level were included to be able to provide further analysis of the data acquired.

As with the participant information sheet, the questionnaire was also translated into Japanese. Once again it was translated with the help of a native Japanese speaker, as well as online translation software. This was to remove the potential of any confusion or misunderstanding of any questions in the questionnaire and therefore improve the quality of the data. The questions were presented in both Japanese and English on the final version of the questionnaire. It was recognised during development that the Japanese translation was conducted by a native Japanese speaker, but they were not a professional translator. To address this situation and to help identify any potential translation issues that this may have caused, following the original translation, and as part of the piloting process, two further native Japanese speakers were asked to read the questionnaire to see if any confusion or issues in

understanding occurred. No issues were reported, and the pilots were able to complete the questionnaire as required, as a result, the translations were considered to be acceptable.

Piloting

Before the questionnaire was made available to potential participants, it was sent to seven people to pilot to understand if there were any obvious issues with its application. It was sent to people of various linguistic backgrounds, three native Japanese speakers, four native English speakers, and two native speakers of Vietnamese. Of these nine people, five people were language teachers. Only minor issues were noted, including a small spelling mistake and a suggestion to change the order of the final three questions. The spelling mistake was corrected and the question 'Please share any other thoughts on benefits and drawbacks on using Japanese in the English classroom.' was moved after the subsequent two questions to become the final question of the questionnaire to allow the respondents an opportunity to provide any final thoughts on the topic. As no further issues were identified with either the translations or the practicality of the questionnaire, it was made available through an online system, Google Forms.

Response

The questionnaire was made available online and continued to be available until an appropriate number of respondents had been recorded. Originally a target of 30 respondents was set to help with the validity of the study. However, this number was exceeded and in total there were 83 responses to the questionnaire. Despite this being the total number of responses, not all respondents met the eligibility requirements of the study. One respondent had listed their nationality as 'other', and a further seven respondents had indicated that they had only studied English during compulsory education or 'other' contexts. Efforts were made to only send the questionnaire to respondents who were eligible for the study, but due to the 'snowball' nature of the sampling, and the questionnaire's unrestricted availability on the internet, it was not possible to ensure that only eligible respondents took part. As a result,

these eight responses that did not comply with the eligibility requirements were removed from consideration. This left a total of 75 responses for consideration in the study, and the responses from this sample formed the data on which this study is based.

Participant demographic information

The table on the following page offers a breakdown of the demographics of the respondents to the questionnaire.

Table 1 – Participant demographic information.

Variable	Response	Number	Percentage
Gender	Male	59	78.67%
	Female	16	21.33%
Age	18-25	15	20%
	26-35	32	42.67%
	36-45	15	20%
	46+	12	16%
	Prefer not to say	1	1.33%
English proficiency level	Beginner	13	17.33%
(Own assessment)	Intermediate	44	58.67%
	Advanced	18	24%
English proficiency level	Beginner (CEFR A1 & A2)	2	3.64%
(Test scores)	Intermediate (CEFR B1 & B2)	46	83.64%
	Advanced (CEFR C1 & C2)	7	12.72%
Number of languages	2 languages	59	78.67%
spoken	3 languages	14	18.67%
	4 languages	2	2.66%
Length of time studying	Up to 1 year	1	1.33%
English	1-5 years	1	1.33%
	5-10 years	38	50.67%
	10-20 years	29	38.67%
	21+ years	6	8%
Location of studying	Compulsory education	71	94.67%
English	Higher education	56	74.67%
	Language school	28	37.33%
	Study abroad	58	77.33%

Participant demographic information notes

- Not all respondents had taken a proficiency test, or they could not remember their score. As a result, 'English proficiency level (Test scores)' represents the 55 respondents who had provided a mark, rather than the full 75 respondents.
- For the variable for 'English proficiency level (Test scores)', respondents were placed into relevant beginner, intermediate, or advanced levels by the lead researcher. This was done based on the proficiency test mark they had provided. The lead researcher did this using 'Guides to English proficiency tests' (British Council, 2022a & 2022b) which is a document that advises the relevant Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) level based on the marks obtained in various proficiency tests (Appendix v).
- A number of students had studied English in more than one setting. As a result, the number of responses to 'Location of studying English' exceeds the total number of responses to the questionnaire. The percentage for this variable relates to the percentage of respondents who had studied in that specific context,

Results and Findings

This section of the paper will offer some insight into the results and findings obtained from the responses to the questionnaire. The first two sections of the questionnaire contained demographic questions to help classify the respondents. Section 3 of the questionnaire consisted of a series of Likert scale questions to establish to what level the respondent agreed with a given statement. Of the fifteen Likert scale questions in this section, twelve statements framed Japanese use as a positive. These statements were:

- Using Japanese in class helps me to understand complex grammar.
- Using Japanese in class helps me to understand new vocabulary.
- Using Japanese in class helps me to understand the instructions for activities.
- Using Japanese in class improves my overall learning experience.
- Using Japanese in class helps me express my thoughts and ideas more easily than in English.
- Using Japanese in class to communicate with my classmates helps build relationships.
- Using Japanese in class makes group work easier to complete.
- Using Japanese in class makes me feel more comfortable to communicate.
- My teacher being able to use Japanese helps my English studies.
- I feel more comfortable if my teacher can use Japanese.
- I prefer to be able to ask my teacher questions in Japanese.
- Classes that forbid Japanese use make me feel uncomfortable.

Three statements framed Japanese use as a negative. These statements were:

- Using Japanese in class reduces my opportunity to learn English.
- Using Japanese in class negatively impacts on my English studies.

- My teacher using Japanese in the English classroom reduces my opportunity to learn English.

The below tables, 2 and 3, show to what degree the respondents agreed with the Likert scale statements. The 'agreement' score is an average score, across all respondents, out of 10, with 10 indicating full agreement across all respondents with the statement and 0 representing full disagreement with the statement.

Table 2 – Responses to statements framing Japanese use as a positive.

Statement	Agreement	Standard deviation
Using Japanese in class helps me to understand complex grammar	6.95	2.64
Using Japanese in class helps me to understand new vocabulary	6.23	2.84
Using Japanese in class helps me to understand the instructions for activities	6.21	2.94
Using Japanese in class improves my overall learning experience	4.89	2.88
Using Japanese in class helps me express my thoughts and ideas more easily than in English	6.45	3.06
Using Japanese in class to communicate with my classmates helps build relationships	5.72	2.87
Using Japanese in class makes group work easier to complete	6.56	2.81
Using Japanese in class makes me feel more comfortable to communicate	6.89	3.01
My teacher being able to use Japanese helps my English studies	6.35	2.92
I feel more comfortable if my teacher can use Japanese	5.8	3.03
I prefer to be able to ask my teacher questions in Japanese	3.95	2.79
Classes that forbid Japanese use make me feel uncomfortable	3.36	2.4
Average	*5.78*	

Table 3 – Responses to statements framing Japanese use as a negative.

Statement	Agreement	Standard deviation
Using Japanese in class reduces my opportunity to learn English	8.15	2.69
Using Japanese in class negatively impacts on my English studies	5.89	2.79
My teacher using Japanese in the English classroom reduces my opportunity to learn English	6.92	2.98
Average	*6.99*	

The average agreement rate for the statements showing Japanese use as a positive was 5.78, whereas the average agreement rate showing Japanese use as a negative was 6.99. This shows an indication that Japanese students see Japanese use as a negative as it displays that the respondents have a bigger agreement with statements framing Japanese use as a negative when compared to Japanese use as a positive.

Tables 2 and 3 also show the standard deviation of each response. The deviations range between 2.4 and 3.06 which shows a degree of consistency amongst the responses with no large outliers which demonstrates the reliability of the study.

Section 4 of the questionnaire consisted of a series of situations a teacher might face in the language classroom. Using yes/no questions, the respondents were asked if they felt Japanese should be used in these situations. The following table shows the overall responses, of all respondents, to these questions.

Table 4 – Should Japanese be used in the following situations.

Statement	Yes	No	Don't know
To explain difficult concepts.	54 (72%)	15 (20%)	6 (8%)
To check comprehension.	35 (46.67%)	38 (50.67%)	2 (2.67%)
To define new vocabulary.	30 (40%)	41 (54.67%)	4 (5.33%)
For testing.	12 (9%)	56 (74.67%)	7 (9.33%)
To build rapport with students.	28 (37.33%)	40 (53.33%)	7 (9.33%)
To introduce new material.	26 (34.67%)	47 (62.67%)	2 (2.67%)
To summarise old material.	20 (26.67%)	52 (69.33%)	3 (4%)
For small group work.	15 (20%)	58 (77.33%)	2 (2.67%)

These results show that the majority of respondents felt that in all except one of the given situations, Japanese should not be used. The only situation where Japanese should be used was to explain difficult concepts, where 72% of the respondents felt it was acceptable to use Japanese. These results give a clear indication that the majority of Japanese students expect Japanese use to be limited. However, it can also be noted that checking comprehension also offered very close results. 46.67% of respondents felt Japanese could be used in this case,

compared with 50.67% of respondents who felt it couldn't be used, with a further 2.67% to offering an opinion.

Conclusions, discussion, and teaching implications

This section of the paper will look at the results obtained from the study and offer thoughts on the implications that arise from this for teaching English to Japanese students. It will also look beyond the overall results and look at what different demographics from within the sample thought. It will consider the results by referring to the three research questions that were set out in the methodology section of this paper.

Q1: What are Japanese students' views on the use of L1 in the English classroom?

When considering the results as a whole, the data suggests that the respondents have the perception that increased Japanese use has a negative impact on their English study and as a result, increased English input will aid their learning of the language. Overall, these results go against what was previously written about Japanese students in studies undertaken by Carson and Kashihara (2012), Bartlett (2017), Sullivan (2016), and Clancy (2018), who noted that generally Japanese students welcomed the use of their L1. However, despite there being generally negative views towards L1 use, there is still a significant proportion of responses that viewed Japanese use as a positive. Indeed, one respondent went as far as to note that 'only English class probably makes they have a trauma [sic]'. Whilst the extreme extent of this comment may be somewhat lost in translation, it does give evidence that consideration should be given to some students who may be suffering from increased anxieties in an enforced English only environment. This therefore suggests that to ignore these views and to adopt a complete prohibition on the use of the L1 in the classroom would not be the correct approach to undertake.

To quantify the results, it was noted that the respondents demonstrated a bigger agreement with statements framing Japanese use as a negative, compared to those framing it as a positive. The respective average agreements for these statements (out of 10) were 6.99 for negative statements, compared with 5.78 for positive statements. This created an 'agreement

difference' of +1.21. This gives the study a score that can be used to compare with different demographics of the cohort to see how views might vary, but still shows that overall, the respondents were more likely to view Japanese use as a negative rather than a positive feature for their English studies.

As noted, when looking deeper at the data that has been obtained, different conclusions to these results can be made by considering different demographics from within the sample. One variable from the sample that can be considered is that of the age of the respondents. When this variable is broken down there are some differences to be noted. Students aged 18-25 resulted in an agreement difference between the negative and positive statements of +2.13. This compares with students who are aged 46+ where the agreement difference is only +0.6. This indicates that older students have a larger appreciation of Japanese use in their studies. Their larger appreciation of Japanese use is potentially related to the idea of language learner anxiety existing in older students. Almoayidi notes that 'it is known that adult learners are more rigid in learning than children and they are more inclined to be cautious when learning. As such, the use of L1 is essential to minimise language learning anxiety in classrooms' (2018:376). Additionally, this may also be a result of the older students having experienced more traditional Japanese teaching methods. This could come from the perceived over-reliance on the use of the L1, the grammar-translation approach, and the use of yakudoku that was typically used in the language classroom in Japan before recent changes. This can further be exemplified by one respondent who noted that traditional Japanese teaching methods played a factor in their English studies. They noted that 'Japanese schools require us to understand difficult grammars more than be able to actually "communicate" in English'. This shows that they understood and experienced an over-reliance on Japanese use and shows a preference for teaching students to understand potentially complex grammar points using a grammar-translation method rather than teaching for communicative purposes.

Similarly, there was also a marked difference when considering the perceived proficiency levels of the students. Whilst it should be noted that the proficiency level is based on the respondent's own perception, and therefore it may not be fully representative of their actual proficiency level, those respondents who considered themselves beginners of English felt that the positives of using Japanese were to a similar degree as the negatives of using Japanese. Their agreement difference was just +0.36. This was in comparison to +1.56 for intermediate English speakers and +1.41 for advanced English speakers which show a far greater appreciation for the negatives in Japanese use. This may come from a lack of confidence in their own English abilities, a fear of misunderstanding, and therefore, feeling more comfortable with the option of speaking Japanese. To further support that conclusion, many respondents noted this, offering such comments as 'for beginners, it's better to explain the difference between English and Japanese in Japanese', '[to] avoid misunderstanding for beginners', and 'helps beginner level students to understand the instructions quicker'.

Whilst taking the context of age and English proficiency of the respondents into consideration showed a mark difference in the results, this was not the same when considering the gender of the respondents. The results from male respondents gave an agreement difference of +0.91, this compares similarly with the agreement difference from female respondents which was +1.30, suggesting that whilst females slightly appreciate the negatives of Japanese use on the whole, these students provide similar results. Similarly, when considering the context of where the respondents studied, there was no significant variance in the agreement difference. Students who had studied in compulsory education gave a result of +1.12, higher education (for example, university) gave a result of +1.21, a language school, +1.36 and a study abroad programme, +1.16.

It should also be noted that overall, the respondents averaged over 50% agreement with statements framing Japanese use as a positive (5.78 out of 10). So, whilst, they give a bigger appreciation for the negative aspects of using Japanese, they also appear to agree with its

use to some degree. The biggest agreement advocating Japanese use as a positive came with the statements ‘Using Japanese in class helps me to understand complex grammar’ (6.95 out of 10) and ‘Using Japanese in class makes me feel more comfortable to communicate’ (6.89 out of 10). What these views suggest, confirming what was noted within the literature review in this paper, is that it is clear that there is an undoubted appreciation to using a student’s L1. However, consideration must be given to when it might be acceptable to use. A teacher must appreciate the balance of L1 and L2 use but not be over-reliant on using the students’ L1.

Q2: When is use of their L1 appropriate?

Based on the responses, it is clear that the main situation that Japanese should be used is ‘to explain difficult concepts’. As noted in the results section, 72% of respondents felt it was acceptable to use Japanese in this situation. Furthermore, this figure is consistent with the number of students that agreed with the statement ‘Using Japanese in class helps me to understand complex grammar’ which had an average agreement score of 6.95. This statement had the highest average agreement regarding the positives of Japanese use than any other statement in the survey. This view was also confirmed by various comments obtained from the questionnaire which noted that using Japanese was ‘useful for comprehending complex subjects’, ‘useful for explaining complex matters and providing detailed explanations of nuances and grammar’ and useful ‘to understand difficult grammar’.

Whilst the majority of respondents seem to appreciate that in most situations Japanese should not be used, interestingly when looking at the context of genders, there is a marked difference in what the results show. When considering solely male respondents, when asked whether Japanese should be used, at least 50% of the respondents felt that it should be in five of the eight situations. These situations were, ‘to explain difficult concepts’, ‘to check comprehension’, ‘to define new vocabulary’, ‘to build rapport with students’, and ‘to introduce new material’. This suggests that male students may appreciate the increased use of

Japanese. This result may also highlight an issue with the study due to a large discrepancy in the amount of male and female respondents, which is discussed in the criticisms section of this paper.

Another issue discussed in the criticism section of this paper is that the respondents were heavily weighted toward students with an intermediate proficiency in English. When considering the respondent's own perception of their English abilities, there was a spread of proficiency levels. However, when considering proficiency test marks, this resulted in 83.64% of the respondents having an intermediate level of English. This removed the opportunity for this study to compare results judged by their proficiency level. Despite this discrepancy, all respondents will have been beginners at some point in their studies and a large number of respondents commented that Japanese use was acceptable and useful for lower proficiency level students. One respondent noted 'I think it only good to use Japanese when teachers are teaching students who are in a beginner level. Use of Japanese helps students who are in a beginner level to understand complicated instructions quickly.' So, whilst there may be situations where a high proportion of respondents have said that Japanese should not be used, it may be acceptable to do so when teaching low-level learners. To further back this observation, the respondents who perceived their current proficiency as beginner, suggested that in five situations, more response said Japanese should be used, than it should not. These situations were 'to explain difficult concepts', 'to check comprehension', 'to define new vocabulary', 'to introduce new material', and 'to summarise old material'. Furthermore, one beginner noted that using Japanese was useful to 'capture students' interest'. It could be considered that when starting to learn a new language it is important to capture the students' interest in learning the language to make them interested in continuing their study.

Again, when considering the context in which the respondents had studied, there was no significant variance in the data. The majority of all four contexts felt that Japanese should only be used to explain difficult concepts and similarly the majority felt that in all other contexts, Japanese should not be used. This is consistent with the overall results.

To summarise, generally, the consensus from the responses was that Japanese use in the English classroom overall has a negative impact on an individual's English studies. However, as discussed there are contexts and situations where the consensus is that Japanese use is acceptable, such as when teaching low-level students or discussing difficult concepts and grammar.

Q3: When is use of their L1 not appropriate?

As noted above, the majority of respondents felt, that in all except one situation Japanese should not be used. However, there was still a significant portion of respondents who felt that Japanese should be used in all specified situations. Over a third of respondents felt that Japanese should be used to explain difficult concepts, check comprehension, define new vocabulary, build rapport with students, and to introduce new material with almost half (46.67%) of the respondents feeling that Japanese should be used to check comprehension. This represents a significant portion of respondents whose views cannot simply be ignored.

On the opposite end of the scale, only 9% of respondents felt that Japanese should be used for testing, which goes against the literature written in this field. The literature review in this paper noted studies by Cook, Cajkler and Addleman, and Smith and Conti, which commented that testing and assessing is one of the acceptable situations where L1 use is recommended. The 9% of students who felt that Japanese shouldn't be used in this situation represent by far the smallest result of these situations. This result may come from respondents' familiarity with the testing process of proficiency tests such as IELTS or TOEIC which, due to them being administered internationally, are conducted fully in English. This may have resulted in a perception that language testing should be conducted in the target language. However, the respondents may under-appreciate the value of using the L1 in a testing situation. Buck (2001) noted 'The penalty for misunderstanding one question is one item incorrect, but the penalty

for misunderstanding one simple instruction could be many items incorrect – a penalty usually far out of proportion to the mistake made' (2001:119). This is a view that is confirmed by Bachman and Palmer (1996) who highlighted the need for instructions to be explicit and as a result, a decision must be made to have the instructions in the test takers' 'native language, the target language, or both' (1996:51). Additionally, Alderson (2000) states that it might also be acceptable to assess students by having them convey a passage written in the target language into their first language to demonstrate comprehension. This demonstrates, particularly at a lower level, the importance and usefulness of using the L1 when testing and assessing students. In comparison, the next smallest result was for 'small group work' in which 20% of respondents felt English should be used. So, whilst testing and assessing is by far the one situation where the respondents felt strongest that English should not be used, this goes against what has been written in recent literature, where theories from Cook, Cajkler and Addlemen, and Smith and Conti specifically mention assessing as an acceptable use of the L1.

The survey responses show that besides testing, there are no other situations where the L1 should definitively not be used. However, in a testing environment, as detailed in the literature, there are definite benefits of using the L1 which the respondents may not have appreciated. Whilst the use of the target language should undoubtedly be prioritised, switching to the L1 to aid a student's understanding of instructions during assessment, as exemplified by Buck and Bachman and Palmer, should be given careful consideration. This is certainly prevalent when teaching lower ability and lower proficiency levels of students. Whilst teaching higher level students, where there is an expectation for instructions to be understood, L1 use can be avoided, for teachers of lower-level students, using L1 is an option that cannot be completely ignored. As a result, it cannot be suggested that there is a situation in the English classroom where the use of Japanese should definitively not be used.

Recommendations

Overall, the data has shown that across the board there is a perception that using Japanese is viewed more as a negative rather than a positive. Respondents of all ages, genders, and proficiency levels were in agreement that increased use of English was beneficial to their English studies.

The data that this study has obtained, however, provides insight into when and where to use the L1. It suggests that the most acceptable situation to use Japanese would be when explaining difficult grammar and concepts, regardless of the cohort that is being taught. However, using the students' L1 to help comprehension of complex concepts might prove to be troublesome. Many students may find themselves being taught by a native English teacher who might not be fully bilingual and as a result, it might be the case that explaining *difficult* concepts might be beyond the teachers' own Japanese ability. In addition to explain difficult grammar and concepts, there was also significant support for using Japanese to introduce new material.

In addition to these situations, the respondents accepted that it would be acceptable to use Japanese when teaching low-proficiency students. This falls in line with Harmer's recommendation to 'differentiate between levels' (2007a:135). He noted that it made sense to use the L1 to give explanations and to help build rapport with the students, but this approach becomes less appropriate when the students' level of English improves to a level where this is not required. Furthermore, Harmer (2007b) advises on specific situations where the L1 can be used. His list includes:

- Asking students to repeat the instructions of an activity in their L1.
- Translating words and phrases into their L1.
- Using an equivalent sound in the L1 when teaching pronunciation.
- Watching films in the L1 with English subtitles.

He notes that these processes may be linked to the now perceived outdated grammar-translation method, however, using the L1 may help students to notice differences and connections between the target language and their own language with the teacher's use of the L1 offering further assistance to do this.

Furthermore, the results suggest that older students, more attuned to previous teaching methodologies in Japan might benefit from input in the L1. As a result, it can also be considered that when teaching older students, particularly those aged over 45, it might be more acceptable to use Japanese to help with these.

These recommendations would therefore fall in line with Macaro's 'optimal position' approach to English teaching. As noted in the literature review, this is an approach that appreciates the value of using the student's own language. Whilst priority should be given to using the target language where possible, teachers should also recognise and appreciate situations where using the L1 might aid the students' acquisition of the target language. The recommendations are formed from the results of the study coupled alongside what has been written in the literature review which suggests that the value of using the L1 in the classroom cannot be underestimated. The literature suggests times when L1 use can be employed by the teacher and, whilst there is some contradiction in the value of using the L1 to conduct testing, these theories are confirmed to some degree by the results of the study. Generally, the respondents accepted that increased English use was beneficial, however some views appreciated the positives of using Japanese in the classroom.

As suggested by Garcia and Wei (2014), the use of the L1 can be used as a scaffolding approach to help students acquire the language. As a result, to make use of the recommendations in this study, the teacher needs to recognise situations when using a student's L1 will benefit their language acquisition and have the freedom to use it, only doing this when necessary and not at the expense of providing the student with English input. It must be considered that it would be difficult to provide a clear-cut rationale for when English use is acceptable. Edstrom 2009, for example, noted that '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' (2009:14). Indeed, even Littlewood commented when offering his list of communication strategies, '[t]here seems little doubt that the use of appropriate communication strategies can be regarded as a domain of skill in its own right' (1984:86). This implies that studies such as the current one can give teachers useful insight into when to employ communication strategies and using L1 is certainly an appropriate communication strategy to employ, however it is up to the personal development and the experience of skilled teachers to learn definitively when is the best time to use them.

Criticisms of the study

Careful consideration was put into both the design and undertaking of the study. However, following the completion of the study and from reflecting on its processes and results, there are some potential criticisms of the study to consider.

Whilst the study aimed to be as reflective of the English studying population in Japan as possible the sample surveyed does represent a relatively small sample of the intended cohort. This small sample no doubt plays a role in there not being a wide spread of English abilities amongst the respondents. Of the 75 respondents to the questionnaire, 55 provided a proficiency score to enable the research to establish if they were a beginner, an intermediate, or an advanced English speaker. Of these 55 respondents, only two were beginners, seven were advanced, however 46 were classed as intermediate. As a result of this imbalance of the proficiency of respondents, the study was unable to adequately offer insight into the differing views of the respondents, judged by their proficiency level. A particular issue with this is the lack of beginners surveyed. As noted in the study, beginners have different needs when undertaking their English studies. It would have been interesting to obtain the views of current beginner-level English learners. However, the lack of beginners in this study may come from the fact that the 20 respondents who did not offer a proficiency score mark were made up of beginner-level students who are currently at a stage of their English studies where they do not feel comfortable with taking a proficiency test. Unfortunately, this study suffers from a lack of students who would describe themselves as beginners, and related to this, there is also a lack of respondents who have been studying English for fewer than 5 years. This lack of diversity may be due to how the subjects of the study were obtained. Dörnyei commented on the drawbacks of using snowball sampling and noted that the participants can be ‘much more heterogenous than in traditional research’ (2007:122). The participants of the study were selected from acquaintances of the lead researcher and as a result, might not be considered representative of a wider sample of Japanese language students. This lack of diversity with

regard to the proficiency level of the respondents may be demonstrative of the drawbacks of using convenience and snowball sampling.

Another issue, potentially related to the snowball sampling of the study, was there being a disparity in the genders of the respondents. 59 (78.67%) of the respondents were female, whereas only 16 respondents (21.33%) were male. Whilst this might not appear to be an issue due to 16 respondents being male which represents an acceptable sample, when discussing when L1 use might be acceptable in the discussion section of this paper, it was noted that male respondents felt that Japanese use was acceptable in more situations than female respondents. When considering the sample as a whole, there was only one situation when Japanese use was considered acceptable. Had there been a nearer 50/50 split in the genders of the respondents, this may have meant further acceptance to use of Japanese in other situations.

A further issue was the design of the study. In the design of the Likert scale questions, twelve questions framed Japanese use as a positive, whereas only three framed Japanese use as a negative. If the research was to be conducted again, it might be more beneficial to have a more even spread of questions that are framed between negative and positive. Answering negatively to only three questions might not necessarily line up with the respondents' own views on whether they felt Japanese use had a negative impact on their English studies. However, whilst all these are genuine considerations that might improve the study, they were not large enough to negate the results that the study has produced. Having samples that are fully representative of the cohort are difficult to obtain so therefore it be considered that this study gives an acceptable insight into the views and attitudes of Japanese students regarding L1 use in the English classroom.

Word count: 15,233

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Appendices

Appendix i – The pros and cons of using the L1. (Ellis and Shintani, 2014:234)

Table 9.3 The pros and cons of using the L1

Use of L1	*Pros*	*Cons*
Convey L2 meaning	The L1 serves as a rapid and easy way of conveying the meaning of L2 words and sentences.	There is a danger that using the L1 to convey meaning will result in treating the meanings of the L2 as translation equivalents of the L1.
Maintain discipline	When the teacher uses the L1 to discipline the class or an individual student, it indicates that what they say is for 'real' rather than 'pretend'.	Using the L1 for discipline signals to the students that when 'real' communication needs are at stake, there is no need to use the L2.
To explain tasks and tests	The L1 serves as the quickest and most efficient way of getting a task or test underway and ensures that the students are clear what they need to do.	Using the L1 to explain tasks signals to the learners that when there is a real communicative purpose it is all right to use the L1.
To explain grammar	'If the goal is for students to understand the grammar itself rather than to benefit from the incidental language involved, the teacher has to choose the best vehicle for conveying this, which may be the first language' (V. Cook, 2005: 59).	Grammar explanations are of most use to more advanced learners; such learners benefit from explanations in the L2 as they provide learners with L2 input (Krashen, 1982).
To practise codeswitching	Codeswitching is natural in a classroom where the learners share the same language(s) and should be encouraged as an effective form of communication.	Allowing learners to codeswitch will inevitably result in them using their L1 whenever they have a communicative problem, rather than finding out how to deal with the problem in the L2 and this will inhibit the development of L2 strategic competence.
Building personal relationships with students	Performing a pastoral role requires the use of sophisticated discourse skills that cannot be effectively executed in the L2.	Using the L1 to build personal relationships with students provides one of the most 'natural' contexts for the use of the L2 and helps develop learners' competence to use the L2 for personal expression.
Avoidance of unnecessary input modification	If teachers do not codeswitch, they need to resort to input modifications to make what they say comprehensible. The teacher ends up 'hogging the discourse space' and this results in reduced interaction (Macaro, 2005).	Input modifications serve as an important way of making input comprehensible while maximizing exposure to the L2 and thus promoting L2 learning.
Developing translation skills	Use of the L1 can develop the translation skills that some learners will need outside the classroom.	Use of the L1 encourages learners to always think in the L1 rather than in the L2 and thus impedes the development of L2 communication skills.
Preparing for activities conducted in the L2	The L1 can be used in pre-listening and pre-reading activities (e.g. for schema-raising) and also to plan for a spoken or written task. The L1 will ensure deeper conceptualization of the topic addressed in the task.	Preparation for listening, speaking, reading or writing activities is best carried out in the same language the students will use when undertaking the activities (i.e. the L2) as this will facilitate transfer of training and enhanced accuracy.
Reduce anxiety in the learner	When the teacher codeswitches, the anxiety learners experience when trying (and often failing) to comprehend L2 input is lessened. Similarly, learners will feel less anxious if they can sometimes use their L1.	There are other ways of ensuring that learners do not experience debilitating anxiety when exposed to L2 input (e.g. modifying the input to suit the level of the learner) and not requiring the learner to speak in the L2 until they are ready.
Demonstrating respect for the learner by acknowledging their L1 identity	As Brooks-Lewis (2008) put it 'if the L1 is banished, in essence the learner is also' (p. 227). Recognizing the learner's L1 may be especially important if the L2 is associated with colonial or economic subjugation.	It is not necessary to use the L1 to demonstrate respect for the learner. Respect is displayed through the teacher demonstrating familiarity with individual learners and in the way the teacher interacts with them.

Appendix ii – Participant information sheet

英語の後に日本語が続きます

Dear sir/madam

I am currently undertaking a Master's Degree in Applied Linguistics at Manchester Metropolitan University.

For my dissertation, I am required to complete a research project. The project I have chosen aims to understand the views of Japanese students with regards to using Japanese whilst studying English.

I would be grateful if you could complete the following questionnaire. It should take approximately 10 minutes of your time. Please think about your current or previous English lessons when completing this questionnaire.

The questionnaire is eligible to all Japanese people, aged over 18, who have studied English in a university, on a study abroad programme or at a language school/eikaiwa.

Any information provided will be used to form part of the research project. All responses will be anonymous and will only be viewed by myself and any supervisors of the project

You may withdraw from the project at any given time.

If you wish to obtain further information about, or wish to withdraw from, this project please email Benjamin.tuck@stu.mmu.ac.uk

Thank you for your cooperation.

Ben Tuck, Manchester Metropolitan University

皆さま

私は現在、マンチェスター・メトロポリタン大学で応用言語学の修士課程に在籍しています。

私の学位論文では、研究プロジェクトを完了することが求められています。私が選んだプロジェクトは、英語を勉強しながら日本語を使うことに対する 、日本人学生の意見を理解することを目的としています。

そのため、以下のアンケートにご協力いただければ幸いです(所要時間は約10分)。このアンケートにお答えいただく際には、現在または過去の英語レッスンについてお考えください。

同調査は、大学、留学、語学学校、英会話で英語を学んだことがある18歳以上の日本人全員が対象です。

ご記入いただいた情報は、研究プロジェクトの一環として使用させていただきます。回答はすべて匿名とし、私とプロジェクトの監督者のみが閲覧します。

このプロジェクト参加に同意された後でも、参加はいつでも取り消しできます。このプロジェクトについての詳細、または参加の取り消しをご希望の場合は、
Benjamin.tuck@stu.mmu.ac.uk までメールでご連絡ください。

お忙しいところ恐れ入りますが、どうぞよろしくお願いいたします。

ベン・タック

マンチェスター・メトロポリタン大学

Appendix iii – Ethics approval email

05/07/2023

Project Title: Japanese students' perspective on L1 use in the English classroom

EthOS Reference Number: 57653

Ethical Opinion

Dear Benjamin Tuck,

The above application was reviewed by Dr Mai Nguyen and on the 05/07/2023, was given a favourable ethical opinion. The approval is in place until six months after the end date recorded in your application documentation (11/09/2023).

Approved Documents

Document Type	File Name	Date	Version
Project Protocol	Protocol	30/07/2019	

Conditions of favourable ethical opinion

The favourable ethical opinion is granted with the following conditions

Approval is in place for your UG/PGT project

This approval is only valid for Undergraduate (UG) and Post Graduate Taught (PGT) projects and does not grant approval for any Staff or PGR projects.

Adherence to Manchester Metropolitan University's Policies and procedures

This ethical approval is conditional on adherence to Manchester Metropolitan University's Policies, Procedures, guidance and Standard Operating procedures. These can be found on the Manchester Metropolitan University Research Ethics and Governance webpages.

Amendments

If you wish to make a change to this approved application, you will be required to submit an amendment. Please visit the Manchester Metropolitan University Research Ethics and Governance webpages or contact your Faculty research officer for advice around how to do this.

Appendix iv – Questionnaire

1. Gender 性別

Male 男

Female 女

Prefer not to say 無回答

Other その他

2.Age 年齢

18-25

26-35

36-45

46+

Prefer not to say 無回答

3.Nationality 国籍
Japanese 日本人

Other その他

4.English proficiency level　英語のレベル

Beginner初心者

Intermediate中級者

Advanced上級者

5.Have you taken any proficiency tests? TOEFL/TOEIC/IELTS etc.

英語の技能試験 試験を受けたことがありますか? 例: TOEFL/TOEIC/IELTSなど。

Yes はい

No いいえ

6.If so, what was the highest score you attained? If you don't know, please type 'don't know'.

「はい」の場合、あなたが取った最高点は何点でしたか? 分からない場合は「分からない」と入力してください。

7.How many languages (including Japanese/English) do you speak?

日本語と英語を含め、あなたは何ヶ国語を話すことができますか?

8.Which languages?

どの言語ですか?

9.How many years have/did you study English? 合計で何年間英語を勉強していますか、または何年間英語を勉強しましたか?

10.In what contexts have/did you study English? (Select all that apply).

英語をどこで勉強していますか、またはしましたか。 (当てはまるものをすべて選んでください)

Compulsory education 義務教育 (小学校・中学校・高校)

Higher education (e.g. university) 大学・専門学校

Studied a language in a foreign country 留学

Language school 英会話学校

Other その他

For the next section, please indicate from 1-10 how much you agree with the statements. 1 = completely disagree and 10 = completely agree. Please consider how you feel/felt during any form of education you have received. Eg. School/university/language classes.

次のセクションでは、1-10の質問にどのくらい同意するかをご回答ください。 (1 = まったくそう思わない、10 = とてもそう思う) また、ご自身の学校教育をどのように感じている/感じたかをお考えください。(例: 小中高、大学、語学学校)

11.Using Japanese in class helps me to understand complex grammar

授業で日本語を話すと、複雑な文法を理解するのに役立ちます。

Completely disagree まったくそう思わない

1

2

3

4

5

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7

8

9

10

Completely agree とてもそう思う

12.Using Japanese in class helps me to understand new vocabulary

授業で日本語を使うと、新しい単語を理解するのに役立ちます。

Completely disagree まったくそう思わない

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

Completely agree とてもそう思う

13.Using Japanese in class helps me to understand the instructions for activities

授業で日本語を使うと、アクティビティの指示を理解するのに役立ちます。

Completely disagree まったくそう思わない

1

2

3

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9

10

Completely agree とてもそう思う

14.Using Japanese in class improves my overall learning experience

授業で日本語を使うと、学習経験が全般的に向上します

Completely disagree まったくそう思わない

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

Completely agree とてもそう思う

15.Using Japanese in class helps me express my thoughts and ideas more easily than in English

授業で日本語を使うと、英語よりも自分の考えやアイデアを簡単に表現できます

Completely disagree まったくそう思わない

1

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10

Completely agree とてもそう思う

16.Using Japanese in class to communicate with my classmates helps build relationships

授業で日本語を使って、クラスメートとコミュニケーションを取ると人間関係を築くのに役立ちます。

Completely disagree まったくそう思わない

1

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10

Completely agree とてもそう思う

17.Using Japanese in class makes group work easier to complete

授業で日本語を使うと、グループワークが容易になります

Completely disagree まったくそう思わない

1

2

3

4

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7

8

9

10

Completely agree とてもそう思う

18.Using Japanese in class makes me feel more comfortable to communicate

授業で日本語を使うと、コミュニケーションが楽になります。

Completely disagree まったくそう思わない

1

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Completely agree とてもそう思う

19.Using Japanese in class reduces my opportunity to learn English

授業で日本語を使うと、英語を学ぶ機会が減ってしまいます。

Completely disagree まったくそう思わない

1

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10

Completely agree とてもそう思う

20.Using Japanese in class negatively impacts on my English studies

授業で日本語を使うと、英語の勉強に悪影響を及ぼします。

Completely disagree まったくそう思わない

1

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10

Completely agree とてもそう思う

21.Classes that forbid Japanese use make me feel uncomfortable

日本語禁止の授業は居心地が悪いと思う。

Completely disagree まったくそう思わない

1

2

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10

Completely agree とてもそう思う

22.My teacher being able to use Japanese helps my English studies

先生が日本語を話せると、英語の勉強にも役立ちます。

Completely disagree まったくそう思わない

1

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10

Completely agree とてもそう思う

23.I feel more comfortable if my teacher can use Japanese

先生が日本語を話せると、居心地が良くなります。

Completely disagree まったくそう思わない

1

2

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10

Completely agree とてもそう思う

24.I prefer to be able to ask my teacher questions in Japanese

私は先生に日本語で質問するのが好きです。

Completely disagree まったくそう思わない

1

2

3

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7

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10

Completely agree とてもそう思う

25.My teacher using Japanese in the English classroom reduces my opportunity to learn English

英語の授業で先生が日本語を使うと、英語を学ぶ機会が減ります。

Completely disagree まったくそう思わない

1

2

3

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7

8

9

10

Completely agree とてもそう思う

Untitled section

Should teachers use Japanese in the following situations?

次のような場合、教師は日本語を話すべきでしょうか?

26.To explain difficult concepts.

難しい文法を説明するため。

Yes はい

No いいえ

I don’t know わかりません

27.To check comprehension.

理解を確認するため。

Yes はい

No いいえ

I don’t know わかりません

28.To define new vocabulary.

新しい語彙を定義するため。

Yes はい

No いいえ

I don’t know わかりません

29.For testing.

テストを受けるため。

Yes はい

No いいえ

I don’t know わかりません

30.To build rapport with students.

生徒との信頼関係を築くため。

Yes はい

No いいえ

I don’t know わかりません

31.To introduce new material.

新しい教材やアクティビティを紹介するため。

Yes はい

No いいえ

I don’t know わかりません

32.To summarise old material.

これまでの教材やアクティビティのまとめをするため。

Yes はい

No いいえ

I don’t know わかりません

33.For small group work.

少人数のグループワークのため。

Yes はい

No いいえ

I don’t know わかりません

Untitled section

34.What advantages do you believe the use of Japanese can bring to your English studies?

授業中に日本語を使うことは、英語の勉強にとってどのような良い点があると思いますか?

35.What challenges or disadvantages do you believe the use of Japanese can bring to your English studies?

授業中に日本語を使うことは、英語の勉強にとってどのような課題や悪い点をもたらすと思いますか?

36.Please share any other thoughts on benefits and drawbacks of using Japanese in the English classroom.

英語の授業で日本語を使うことの良い点 と悪い点 について他に考えがあれば教えてください。

Appendix v - Guides to English proficiency tests (British Council, 2022a & 2022b)

Test/Level	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
IELTS	-	-	4.0-5.0	5.5-6.5	7.0-8.0	8.5, 9.0
TOEFL	-	-	42-71	71-94	95-120	115-120
TOEIC	120-234	235-549	550-784	785-944	945-990	-
KET (Key)	100-119	120-139	140-150	-	-	-
PET (Preliminary)	-	120-139	140-159	160-170	-	-
FCE (First)	-	-	140-159	160-179	180-190	-
CAE (Advanced)	-	-	-	160-179	180-199	200-210
CPE (Proficiency)	-	-	-	-	180-199	200-230
CELPIP	-	4	5	6,7	8,9	10-12

Level	CEFR	IELTS (9.0)	TOEFL iBT (120)
Basic user	A1	N/A	N/A
	A2	N/A	N/A
Independent user	B1	0-4	0-31
		4.5	32-34
		5	35-45
	B2	5.5	46-59
		6	60-78
		6.5	79-93
Proficient user	C1	7	94-101
		7.5	102-109
		8	110-120
	C2	8.5	N/A
		9	N/A