

Mainly English, Some Japanese: Exploring the Opinions of EFL Students and EFL Teachers on
Using Translanguaging in EFL Classrooms in Japan

by

Gill Serpas

M.A, University of Victoria, 2023

B.A, Southeastern Louisiana University, 2015

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of the Requirements for the Degree of

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University of Victoria

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Supervisory Committee

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Abstract

The Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) identified a widespread pattern of low English speaking-ability in Japan. To solve this, MEXT has implemented the "Teaching English in English [only]" approach in Japanese high schools. Many private Eikaiwa language schools in Japan also use this method to teach their students. Despite this, Japan has still yet to see a significant increase in English scores of Japanese high school students. In order to improve Japanese students' English proficiency level, English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers should try out different teaching methods. Thus far, English teaching methods practiced in Japan either use predominately Japanese (Yakudoku method) or predominately English (Communicative Language Teaching) to teach EFL lessons.

Translanguaging is a teaching method that uses all languages in the classroom to teach and learn a new language. This study explored the opinions that EFL teachers and students had on translanguaging in EFL classrooms in Japan. 30 EFL teachers and 37 EFL students completed a questionnaire that asked about Japanese use during English lessons. The questionnaire included sections that asked about (a) demographic information, (b) Japanese use during teacher instruction, and (c) Japanese use during group work activities. The teacher's questionnaire included a section at the end that asked about the term "translanguaging". First, descriptive analyses calculated the measures of central tendency on Excel. Next, content analysis was used to determine themes that emerged from the participants' open-ended questions and categories were made based on these themes. Statistical analysis included Chi-Square tests that calculated the p value for the comparison between the students' and teachers' responses. Results suggests that teachers and students think that Japanese use in EFL classrooms is

beneficial. However, both groups of participants believed that Japanese would be more helpful during teacher instruction than student group work activities. Further analysis revealed that a higher percentage of teachers than students believed that Japanese could be beneficial during student group work activities. Based on the results, the researcher argues that “*mainly* English, *some* Japanese” could be used in EFL classrooms in Japan to help improve students’ English skills.

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate this thesis to my daughter. Who was still in my tummy when I started courses at UVic but has given me the reason to persevere and do the best I can from the very beginning.

Chapter 1 – Introduction

1.1 Background

In Japan, there is a widespread problem of low English-speaking ability (Aoki, 2017). While The Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) has implemented changes to English education to increase students' proficiency level, there has not been much improvement (Japan's English Proficiency Drops Among Non-English-Speaking countries, December 4th, 2019). MEXT has aimed for 50% of third-year high schoolers to get a score of Grade Pre-2 on the Eiken test (Eiken Foundation of Japan, n.d.). Students who score Grade Pre-2 should "be able to understand and use English at a level sufficient to allow them to take part in general aspects of daily life" (Eiken Foundation of Japan, n.d.). This score is equivalent to a level of A2 on The Common European Framework of References for Languages (CEFR). CEFR levels include A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2. A levels are defined as "basic learners" while C levels are defined as "proficient users" (Cambridge English, 2022). In 2017 only 36.4% of third year high school students achieved such score (Aoki, 2017). Up until this point, most schools in Japan used the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) to teach English (Terauchi, 2017). GTM is based on translation and memorizing second language vocabulary based on translations from the first language (Natsir & Sanjaya, 2014). In 2018, however, MEXT decided to move towards more Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in hopes to improve students' English ability (MEXT, 2018). CLT is a type of teaching method that focuses on increasing a student's communicative ability with less emphasis on learning grammar and formal structure

(Richards, 2005; Kianiparsa, 2015). Although CLT is a popular method amongst many language teachers, there are some drawbacks as well, especially in Japan.

For example, in second language classrooms there is a misconception that CLT is a monolingual approach which does not use students' own language (Aoyama, 2020; Spada, 2007, pg. 280). This misconception could have very well inspired the "English Only" policy found in most English Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms in Japan. This policy is not only implemented within high schools and middle schools (MEXT, 2011), but also in private English language schools as well. NOVA, a popular private English school in Japan, has listed the school's "advantages" on their website. One of these advantages states that, "Lessons are taught in the target language only in order to be fully immersive" (NOVA, n.d.). This is not an uncommon practice in EFL education. The L1 = L2 Hypothesis argues that second language learners should acquire a new language the way children acquire their first language (McMillan & Rivers, 2011). Along with this argument, educators stress that students who live in a monolingual country will only have access to their new language in the classroom and therefore should follow "monolingual only" rules (Littlewood & Bu, 2011). However, others believe that this style of teaching is not compatible with Asian students (Hobbs, Matsuo, and Payne, 2010). GTM, with heavy Japanese use, is also favored by teachers in Japan for reasons such as "it's easier to teach because that's how they were taught", "entrance exam requirements", and "Japanese tradition and its resistance to change" (Terauchi, 2017, pg. 72-73). Furthermore, even in "English Only" language classrooms, rules are typically broken (Turnbull, 2018; Stone, 2019). Lucas and Katz (1994) state that "the use of native language is so compelling, that it emerges even when policies and assumptions mitigate against it" (pg. 558). There is also literature that supports the

use of the students' own language in the classroom as it provides opportunities for learning (Lucas & Yiaoumetti, 2019; Turnbull, 2019; Stone, 2019). The *Translanguaging* method (Wei, 2022) could fill the gap between strict English Only policies and first language use in EFL classrooms.

Translanguaging, originating from the Welsh term "*trawsieithu*" (Lewis et. al, 2012), is the strategy of using all languages in the classroom for the purpose of teaching and learning (Conteh, 2018; Wei, 2018). The term was originally coined by Cen Williams to describe a bilingual classroom in which the language mode switches from input to output (i.e., teacher asks a question in English, student responds in Welsh). The word was later translated into English by Colin Baker and the meaning has slowly evolved since (Lewis et. al, 2012).

Turnbull (2018), who has done research on translanguaging in Japan, has discussed what the translanguaging method looks like in a classroom. He states that students can do assignments, discussions, and presentations in any language as long as the teacher receives the "final output" in English. He also expresses that the teacher does not need to know the students' own language in order for the translanguaging method to work. This method should not be confused with first language (L1) and second language (L2) use in the classroom as this idea treats languages as separate entities. In the translanguaging method, languages are not viewed as "separate". Garcia (2009) argues that "one plus one does not always equal two". This means that the "quality and effectiveness of the integrated sum [of languages]" is more important than the isolation of them (p. 5). Additionally, some educators believe that foreign language students are considered "emergent bilinguals" and as such their bilingualism is not linear, but dynamic (de Oliveira, 2019). Instead of switching between languages, these

bilinguals “select features from their linguistic repertoire based on the communicative context” (Ossa & Proctor, 2021, p. 769). The translanguaging method allows these emergent bilinguals to add features to their linguistic repertoire (de Oliveira, 2019) and focuses on what languages do instead of what they look like (Makalela, 2019).

As mentioned above, MEXT has implemented English Only policies and CLT methods in EFL classrooms in hopes to improve the English proficiency level of students in Japan (MEXT, 2011; MEXT, 2018). However, according to some literature (Turnbull, 2018; Stone, 2019) these rules are not always strictly followed. Research indicates that teachers hold pedagogical beliefs and that these beliefs influence what they do in the classroom (Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Li & Walsh, 2011). These beliefs are usually hard to change and are based on the instructor’s teaching experience (Phipps & Borg, 2009). This could possibly explain why these teachers break “English Only” rules in their lessons. Although MEXT has the final say in what should be implemented in EFL classrooms in Japan, ultimately teachers and their beliefs will overshadow these rules. Sabarwal et al. (2022) state that “we need to take teacher beliefs more seriously” to “improve teacher effectiveness”. Listening to English teachers and their beliefs on English Only policies may lead to a more effective learning environment.

1.2 Purpose of the study

To this date, many studies have compared English Only policies and use of the first language in EFL classrooms in Japan (Aoyama, 2020; Clancy, 2018; Lucas and Yiakoumetti, 2019; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Turnbull, 2018; Turnbull, 2019) and in other contexts (Chen et al, 2021; De La Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Wang & Curdt, 2019). While Turnbull (2018) and McMillan and Rivers (2011) have conducted research on translanguaging with the use of questionnaires,

neither study compared the use of translanguaging during teacher instruction and group activities. Furthermore, their research only focuses on university students and teachers. This study will be the first to compare teacher and student beliefs on the use of translanguaging during teacher instruction and group activities. Additionally, participants in the reported study not only work at/go to universities, but also high schools and private English language schools as well. This study aims to discover (a) what some EFL teachers and students in Japan believe about translanguaging use during teacher instruction and (b) what some EFL teachers and students in Japan believe about translanguaging use during group activities. Teacher instruction can be described as any moment in the lesson when the teacher is talking to the students. Whereas, group activity can be described as any activity where students are talking with each other, and the teacher is not involved.

1.3 Significance of the study

The study reported in this thesis is important for empirical, theoretical, and pedagogical reasons. Empirically, this study builds on translanguaging research in Japan and addresses themes that have not been focused on before. For example, this study will not only include participants from universities in Japan, but also high schools and English language schools as well. As the English Only policy is seen to be implemented in all types of schools in Japan, it is important to collect data from all of them. Additionally, in contrast to previous studies that only focused on the opinions of using translanguaging during teacher instruction, this study will also look at the opinions of use of translanguaging during group activities. Since English Only rules are broken during both instruction and group activities (Aoyama, 2020; Turnbull, 2019; Stone,

2019), it is crucial to explore the opinions teachers and students have on using translanguaging in both situations.

Theoretically, this study will use the theoretical framework of the importance of teacher and student beliefs (Sabarwal et. al, 2022) and continue to investigate the theoretical potential the translanguaging method has in EFL classrooms in Japan (Turnbull, 2018). Although rarely discussed in previous studies, I think the first perspective may provide a possible explanation for this study's results. Furthermore, I hope that this study can provide information to build on the translanguaging method.

Pedagogically, this study has implications for EFL teachers in Japan who want to explore new teaching methods. For example, many teachers report that they want to use Japanese in their lessons, but do not know how to effectively incorporate it in the classroom (Turnbull, 2018). This study may give insight and familiarise educators on ways translanguaging is used in EFL classrooms. Secondly, the results of this study provide evidence that EFL teachers and students believe that Japanese use during EFL lessons is beneficial. Every ten years MEXT updates their "Course of Study" which includes student objectives and teaching content (Aoyama, 2020). Although MEXT's goal is to improve student's English proficiency scores, little is being changed (Aoki, 2017). The last *Course of Study* was issued in 2018 meaning that the next one will be issued around 2028. It is hoped that this study will be published before then and therefore build on the literature on translanguaging in Japan with the aim to give insight about the opinions some teachers and students have.

Chapter 2 – Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature related to this thesis. The chapter begins with Section 2.2 where Japanese students' English proficiency level and English education in Japan are discussed. Section 2.3 introduces bilingual education and what it looks like in regard to learning a new language. Bilingual education is used as an umbrella term for many types of teaching methods; therefore, Section 2.4 discusses translanguaging specifically. This section explores what translanguaging means and how it can be used in the classroom. Section 2.5 looks at the empirical research where translanguaging was used in EFL classrooms, and the opinions teachers and students had on using it. This study uses questionnaires to ask students and teachers about translanguaging. For that reason, Section 2.6 will be centered around teacher beliefs and why they are important. It will also include previous research on teachers' and students' perceptions of translanguaging. Next, this section discusses the limitations to previous research and explains the need for the current study. Lastly, in Section 2.7 this study's research questions will be introduced.

2.2 English in Japan

English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education was introduced to Japan in the Meiji era (1868-1912), although what is taught in these EFL lessons has changed since (Bouchard, 2017). In 2018, The Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) changed the English curriculum for students aged middle schoolers to high schoolers (Terauchi, 2017, p.80). Hours of English lessons increased for all students in high schools and teachers were required to teach English in English (Terauchi, 2017; MEXT, 2011). Despite these changes

to EFL education, Japanese students continue to score poorly compared to other Asian countries on English exams (Aoki, 2017; Japan's English Proficiency Drops Among Non-English-Speaking countries, December 4th, 2019). The next two sections will discuss these topics further.

2.2.1 Low English proficiency

Although Japanese students start English class at age 10 in elementary school (MEXT, 2018), they have low English proficiency ability (Aoki, 2017). According to the EF English Proficiency Index (n.d.), low English proficiency can be categorized as being able to engage in small talk and understand simple emails. Compared to other countries in Asia, Japan scores the lowest on English tests such as the TOEFL IBT (Sullivan & Schatz, 2009). The TOEFL IBT is an English test, based on the internet, that measures reading listening, speaking, and writing (*ETS home*, 2022). Each section has a score of 1-30 and when added together a total score of 0-120. In 2021, Japanese students scored an average total of 74, which is lower by 10 points compared to other Asian countries including South Korea, China, and Indonesia. It is important to note that the creator of the TOEFL, ETS, argues against comparing scores of countries. This is because there are many factors that differ per country such as hours spent learning English and how early English was introduced into their education (*Test and score data summary*, 2022). However, this data shows that students with a native language of Japanese tend to score on the lower range for this test. This is somewhat surprising, as Japanese English teachers usually focus on "learning for testing" rather than communication skills (Bouchard, 2017). The Japan Times claims that English proficiency is improving, however students are still not reaching the goal set by the government (English proficiency of Japanese students is improving, government says,

n.d.). MEXT has aimed for 50% of third-year high schoolers to get a score of Grade Pre-2 on the Eiken test (Eiken Foundation of Japan, n.d.). This score is equivalent to a level of A2 on The Common European Framework of References for Languages (CEFR). This level is considered “basic”. However, in 2021, 46.2 % of third year high school students achieved such a score (English proficiency of Japanese students is improving, government says, n.d.). The Japan Times (2022) states that percentage is “up 2.5 points” from previous surveys and as such, is an improvement, but nonetheless still needs work. Furthermore, according to the 2022 results of the EF English proficiency Index, Japan ranks 80 for English proficiency out of 111 countries globally and is labeled as “low proficiency” (*EF English proficiency index*, n.d.). To give a comparison, countries that ranked “very high proficiency” included Netherlands, Singapore, and Austria. There are many possibilities as to why scores are so low, one being the English education system in Japan.

2.2.2 EFL in Japanese schools

Yakudoku method, otherwise known as the translation method, is the most popular method used in English lessons in Japan (Terauchi, 2017). The use of this method dates to Sui Dynasty China (589-618) when Japanese people visited China and then came back to Japan to share what they learned. Some Japanese people learned how to read and write Chinese characters (kanji), but they did not want to learn how to speak or listen to Chinese (Terauchi, 2017, p.70). Later, during the Meiji Era, Japanese people started to learn other foreign languages as well, such as Dutch, Spanish, and French. However, the purpose of learning foreign languages was not to communicate, but to learn about Western culture (Terauchi, 2017,

p. 70-71; Bouchard, 2017). Now the goal of learning English is mostly focused on test preparations (Bouchard, 2017).

Many teachers in Japan still use Yakudoku method, despite the negative connotations, that some researchers have with it (Noda & O'Regan, 2020; Terauchi, 2017). These negative connotations include ideas such as Yakudoku method being too "old school" and associated with "outmoded practices" (Noda & O'Regan, 2020). Japanese teachers may still use this method because it saves lesson preparation time, is straightforward, and is effective for teaching second language (L2) skills needed for entrance exams as these exams do not test for communication skills (Bouchard, 2017). When using Yakudoku method, the teacher will only use English to translate a sentence (Terauchi, 2017). The teacher will focus on word translations, however they "fail to examine the syntactic and discorsal contrasts between Japanese and English" (Terauchi, 2017, p.72). Yakudoku method is effective for learning reading skills, though not so much for writing, speaking, and listening skills (Terauchi, 2017). Although Japanese English teachers tend to prefer this method, non-Japanese English teachers (i.e., teachers originally from countries other than Japan) typically do not use it (Wadden & Hale, 2019).

In Japan, there are a few different types of English teaching jobs that are available for non-Japanese instructors. The first, an Assistant Language Teacher (ALT), is a position held by a native speaker of English who assists a Japanese English teacher (JTE) in their English classes in junior high and high schools (Interac Network, n.d.). ALTs are only required to be a "native English speaker" and have a bachelor's degree, while knowledge of instruction is not necessary (Lucas & Yiakoumetti, 2019). Although these teachers may be able to model native-like English,

due to lack of experience they might not have the teaching ability capable of conducting efficient EFL lessons compared to teachers who do have a background in education. Before coming to Japan, many ALTs focus more on how to prepare for life in a foreign country rather than how to prepare for their teaching position (Kushima & Nishihori, 2006). In addition to this, some ALTs might not be “English natives” themselves. Tuttyandari (2022) found that Indonesian ALTs did not have a sufficient knowledge of the English language as English wasn’t their “mother tongue”. Furthermore, some ALTs feel like they can’t connect, and work will with their JTE effectively (Kano & Ozeki, 2018). This barrier could also lead to difficulties when teaching and result in decreased levels of teaching ability. Different from an ALT, an Eikaiwa teacher doesn’t have a JTE and teaches their lessons on their own.

Eikaiwa schools are commercial English conversational schools in Japan that offer students various types of lessons to all different ages (Noda & Zhu, 2022). These lessons can be conducted either in groups or privately, and focus on improving conversation (Noda & Zhu, 2022). Because Eikaiwas are commercial schools, they run as a business and will promote “what sells” (Hooper, 2019). Many Eikaiwa schools’ big selling point is that lessons are run by native speakers in English and English Only (Critiques of Native Speaker Discourses in Japan, 2004); NOVA, n.d.). Although this may sound appealing to Japanese students, English teachers in Japan think differently. An Eikaiwa job is often compared to working in the fast-food service “flipping burgers” as these companies are not concerned with training new instructors and focus only on customer service (Hooper, 2019). Training teachers is important, because most of these new employees do not have previous teaching experience and certain Eikaiwa schools have a specific teaching format they would like their teachers to use (NOVA, n.d.). Unlike Eikaiwa

teachers, university English teachers are viewed as more professional and respected as they are better trained and typically have a background in education.

Different from ALTs and Eikaiwa teachers, English university teachers in Japan tend to have the freedom to teach in their own way and are not given any guidelines by MEXT (Terauchi, 2017). This is because the university itself is designated to make these decisions. These teachers are offered a higher salary and more vacation days than Eikaiwa teachers and are granted more professional respect in their position (Hooper, 2019). Although many English teachers in Japan prefer this job over Eikaiwa teacher or ALT, it is still not considered a perfect position. Universities may use these English teachers as a selling point as foreigners are seen as exotic and friendly (Hooper, 2019). Furthermore, Hooper (2019) found that teachers who transitioned from Eikaiwas to universities in Japan didn't have any significant higher levels of satisfaction in their work life. All three of these positions available to non-Japanese English teachers have their own pros and cons, though the right to use one's own teaching method is unique to only the university position.

2.2.3 MEXT and its Course of Study

Every ten years MEXT updates their "Course of Study" which includes student objectives and teaching content (Aoyama, 2020). The last Course of Study was released in 2018 and had many changes to the English teaching guidelines. Since 2009, MEXT has wanted to move away from Yakudoku method and more towards Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) with focus on speaking and listening (MEXT, 2018). The goal of CLT is "communicative competence" which includes knowing how to use a language in different contexts, settings, and situations (Richards, 2005). CLT focuses away from traditional approaches (such as the Yakudoku method) and uses

activities like role play and group work to facilitate learning (Richards, 2005). This approach was thought to be designed for students who may know the language's grammar, but struggle when it comes to communication (Kianiparsa, 2015). Considering Japanese students struggle with speaking and listening skills (Pachina, 2020; Terauchi, 2017), it may seem obvious as to why MEXT wanted to change to a CLT method. However, there is a misconception about CLT as a teaching method as well.

CLT can be interpreted in many ways based on different theoretical and empirical research (Spada, 2007). For example, according to Krashen's Input Hypothesis, second language learners should learn language the way children acquire their first language (Higgs & Krashen, 1983, McMillan & Rivers, 2011). This hypothesis states that the only way to learn a second language is to receive "comprehensible input" and that speaking will come with time when the learner is ready (Higgs & Krashen, 1983). It also says that the speaker may not produce grammatically accurate sentences at first, but the more accurate input they receive, the more they will improve (Higgs & Krashen, 1983). This theory has potentially caused the misconception that the CLT method does not use a student's first language (L1) by EFL teachers (Aoyama, 2020; Spada, 2007). This is possible because in most cases the CLT method replaces the Grammar Translation method which relies on heavy L1 use (Spada, 2007). However, CLT can be defined as a teaching method that focuses on increasing a student's communicative ability with less emphasis on learning grammar and formal structure (Richards, 2005; Kianiparsa, 2015). Although there are many interpretations of what the CLT method entails, many researchers agree that L1 use exists under a CLT method, but educators should be cautious about the amount of L1 they use (Wu, 2008). Furthermore, there is research that supports the

use of L1 in second language learning environments (Cook, 2001; and more recently Lucas & Yiakoumetti, 2019; Turnbull, 2019; Wei, 2018). Despite this, MEXT has implemented teaching “English in English” in high schools in Japan (MEXT, 2018).

2.2.4 Teaching English in English

Although in most EFL classrooms in Japan the “English Only” rule is implemented, it often gets broken. The rule is not only broken by students, but teachers as well. Turnbull (2019) found that both Japanese EFL students and EFL teachers reported to “sometimes” use Japanese in the classroom. Teachers reported using Japanese for functions such as teaching grammar and vocabulary, whereas students reported using it to ask questions and understand new vocabulary. Furthermore, Aoyama (2020) discovered that high school students in EFL classrooms used Japanese with each other for many different reasons. Although a factor of L1 use included peer influence, asking for help and helping peers understand English concepts were also reported. While these studies focused on L1 use during classroom activities, L1 with L2 use has been seen to be used outside of lesson tasks. Stone (2019) looked at off-task conversation in university English communication classes and how students talked to each other when they were not participating in the lesson. He found that students mostly communicated in English and used Japanese as a resource to further their English understanding by asking questions to confirm meaning and sentence accuracy.

2.3 Bilingual education

Bilingual education (BE) can be defined as “education in more than one language” (Garcia, 2009, p.5). In traditional education, language is taught as a subject, but in BE the language is used as a medium of instruction (Garcia, 2009). In the US, BE was originally

implemented to assist minority children with English while also helping them maintain proficiency in their L1 (Bialystok, 2018). In Canada where there is no one official language, BE is used to encourage bilingualism (Bialystok, 2018) including in schools that teach French immersion (Safty, 1991).

BE is used as an umbrella term and encompasses a lot of different types of teaching methods including translanguaging (Garcia, 2009). This section will discuss the theoretical underpinnings of BE and BE in practice.

2.3.1 Theoretical frameworks of BE

According to Garcia (2009), there are four theoretical frameworks of pedagogy for BE. The first two can be defined as *monoglossic* and are what shaped BE programs in the twentieth century. The outcomes of these frameworks follow monolingual norms and promote proficiency in the dominant language.

The first of the two, *Subtractive*, views bilingualism as a problem and its goal is to “shift” to the more “powerful” language. Teachers will teach both languages as interchangeable and as a result, the students will find that their L1 is useless. In this framework, students will learn a new language and, in the end, lose their own language. This happens because these schools do not provide L1 support to minority students (Roberts, 1995). Although this is considered illegal at schools that have non-native English speakers, schools with a smaller number of minority students might be unaware of these rules (Roberts, 1995). The second, *Additive*, views bilingualism as an enrichment and the goal is to add a new language. This framework is used for both majority and minority students; however, the majority students will not be expected to

learn the culture of their new language, whereas minority students are expected to learn how to function in two cultures (Garcia, 2009).

The last two frameworks are defined as *heteroglossic*. They do not follow monolingual norms and view bilinguals as non-linear (i.e., there is nothing to “add” and there is nothing to “subtract”). The goal and outcome of these two frameworks is bilingualism. *Recursive*, the third framework, views bilingualism as a right and works to revitalize minority languages. This framework is usually used in education with children who are not the majority. This practice can be found in schools in New Zealand, where the Māori language community is located (Garcia & Woodley, 2014). Different cultures are equally represented, however only when enacted. The fourth and final framework, *Dynamic*, views bilingualism as a resource and promotes the mixture of cultures and contexts. This framework supports the use of all languages simultaneously in communication and translanguaging.

Within the dynamic framework, bilingualism is not seen as $1+1=2$ (Garcia & Woodley, 2014). Instead, languages are thought to be integrated and not in isolation (Garcia, 2009). Languages can co-exist naturally, allowing bilinguals to add new information to their linguistic repertoire (Flores & Schissel, 2014). Dynamic framework takes on the natural communication style of bilinguals and implements it into education (Flores & Schissel, 2014). It also supports children who are on different levels of the bilingual continuum to learn together (Garcia, 2009). Garcia and Sylvan (2011) state that in schools using this approach, “the locus of control for language is the students’ own active use—their language/content understandings in motion and in dynamic interrelationship” (p.391). Even if the lessons aren’t “bilingual”, each students’ own language will be recognized and considered when teaching.

As MEXT has ordered high school English teachers to teach English in English, these BE frameworks are not used to implement English lessons in Japan. However, the dynamic framework could be used in English lessons in Japan to provide students with an education that does not focus on monolingualism. This framework supports the use of translanguaging, and natural communication used by bilinguals. Students learning a second language can be considered “emergent bilinguals” (Garcia, 2009) and therefore, should be treated as such.

2.3.2 BE in practice

As discussed previously, there are different BE frameworks that shape how languages are taught in schools. Based on these different frameworks, rules on language use are implemented to teach an additional language. There are many different types of rules a school can enact when teaching languages, including the use of time allocations and language arrangements. These will be discussed in the next sections.

2.3.2.1 Bilingual allocation

Bilingual allocation is the practice of giving time allotments for the use of one language or the other (Garcia, 2009). The two most popular and used allocations are 90:10 and 50:50, where the numbers represent the percentage of time a language is used (Garcia, 2009). A 90:10 allocation is popular in Content and Language Integrated learning (CLIL) programs. In these programs, the dominant language takes up most of the instruction (90), whereas the additional language is only used in one or two periods of instruction (10). In a 50:50 allocation, the school will spend half the day in one language and other half in the other language (Morita-Mullaney & CHIU, 2021). Some education programs have a “sliding bilingual allocation” which means that as students develop one language, the amount of time spent on the other may decrease

(Garcia, 2009). Immersion education often uses this bilingual allocation by using a student's second language 100% of the time and then slowly integrating the student's first language until they are both used equally (Garcia, 2009).

2.3.2.2 Bilingual arrangements

In addition to time allocations, BE programs may implement rules outlining when and how the languages will be used in their curriculum (Garcia, 2009). There are three different types of bilingual arrangements: strict separation, flexible convergence, and flexibility multiplicity (Garcia, 2009).

The first, strict separation, is the separation of languages completely (Garcia, 2009). They can be separated by time, teacher, place (i.e., classroom), and subject. In Dual Language Education programs, these separation rules, however, are argued to be based on the school's external resources and not on the student's own needs (Sánchez et al., 2017). Furthermore, these BE programs follow the additive BE framework and usually result in encouraging use of the majority language over the minority one (Garcia, 2009).

The second bilingual arrangement is called flexible convergence and can be described as "the flexible use of languages" (Garcia, 2009, p.295). There are two types: random code-switching and monoliterate bilingualism. Code-switching can be defined as "bilingual speakers us[ing] two or more languages, dialects or varieties in the same conversation, without any apparent effort" (Gardner-Chloros, 2009, p.1). In random code-switching, the teacher switches back and forth between the two languages to teach the same content concurrently (Garcia, 2009). The switch is random and with no real control which may result in use of the more powerful language over the minority one (Garcia, 2009). The switch is considered random,

because teachers using this type of code-switching do not put much thought in why they are going back and forth between the languages. Monoliterate bilingualism, however, is when the teacher uses the majority language for reading and writing assignments and then the local vernacular to confirm understanding (Garcia, 2009). While flexible convergence includes the use of all languages flexibly, it usually results in more use of the majority language and thus follows a subtractive framework.

Lastly, flexible multiplicity views languages not as separate, but as dynamic (Garcia, 2009). The goal is not monolingualism and therefore does not make a “shift” to the majority language. There are four types of flexible multiplicity arrangements: responsible code-switching both ways, preview/view/preview, co-languaging, cross-linguistic work and awareness, and translanguaging (Garcia, 2009). Unlike random code-switching, responsible code-switching is carefully controlled and can be used as a pedagogical technique (Garcia, 2009; Van der Walt, 2009). Although this is not always easy to do, teachers who take the time to use code-switching responsibly can give “meaningful instructional support” (Garcia, 2009, p.299). Meaning that teachers are not just code-switching to give orders, give instructions, or discipline students, but also to provide a definition of a word, or give a linguistic summary (Garcia, 2009).

In a review/view/review (P/V/R) arrangement the teacher previews a lesson in one language, teaches the language in the other, and then finally, reviews the lesson in either language (Garcia, 2009). Mercuri (2015) explains that this method can “facilitate(s) the bridging for content understanding by connective, not repeating, the concepts across the three parts of the structure, and, as a result, avoiding concurrent translation” (p.86). P/V/R is especially useful

for tertiary education in which technical terms are often taught, however can be used at any level of education (Garcia, 2009).

Co-linguaging is the “strategy of presenting many languages side-by-side so students with different linguistic profiles can make meaning” (Martin-Jones et al., 2015, p.240). This is usually seen in PowerPoint presentations where multiple languages are presented next to each other. Students can choose the language they understand, while also being able to compare it to the other languages (Garcia, 2009; Martin-Jones et al., 2015). It is also used in books and movies that uses the voice of one language and subtitles of the other (Garcia, 2009; Martin-Jones et al., 2015). This method is particularly helpful for deaf and hearing students who speak different languages (Garcia, 2009). This is because the languages are easily accessible in different ways (i.e., on a PowerPoint written out) and allows all students to follow the lecture.

Cross-linguistic work and awareness refers to the practice of comparing different languages to each other (Garcia, 2009). Usually in these BE programs, the languages are used and taught separately, however the curriculum allows time for the comparison of both (Garcia, 2009). Cross-linguistic awareness can be defined as, “the ability of multilinguals to make implicit or explicit use of the connections and overlappings that exist between the different languages systems in the human brain during language production and use” (Pinto & Mayr, 2021, p.165). This can include comparing the different languages’ vocabulary, structures, and discourse patterns (Garcia, 2009). Cross-linguistic awareness can increase a student’s metalinguistic awareness, as well as multilingual awareness (Garcia, 2009; Pinto & Mayr, 2021). It also allows space for “many language practices that are present in the classroom and community” (Garcia, 2009, p.303).

The last flexible multiplicity arrangement, translanguaging, is defined by Garcia (2009) as “the hearing, singing, or reading of lessons in one language and the development of the work in another language” (p.301). This arrangement gives students equal opportunity to use both languages (Garcia, 2009). Translanguaging, as well as the other flexible multiplicity arrangements, follows a dynamic framework as they do not view languages as separate, but instead, integrated or mixed (Garcia, 2009).

2.4 Translanguaging

The word *translanguaging* originated from the Welsh term “*trawsieithu*” (Lewis et al., 2012) and can be defined as the strategy of using two languages in the classroom for the purpose of teaching and learning (Conteh, 2018; Wei, 2018). Cen Williams, a Welsh educationalist, originally coined the term to describe a bilingual classroom in which the language mode switches from input to output (i.e., teacher asks a question in English, student responds in Welsh). He first translated the word to “translinguifying”, but later changed it to “translanguaging” after discussing it over with Colin Baker (Lewis et al., 2012).

The meaning and practices of translanguaging have changed overtime, however the idea stays the same: language learning with the use of all available languages (Conteh, 2018). The sections below will further discuss important terms, the meaning of translanguaging, and lastly, how it can be used in the classroom.

2.4.1 Own language and new language

Thus far, this paper has used terms such as “native language”, “L1/L2”, and others for the purpose of simplicity. However, from here, the terms “own language” and “new language” will be used as the researcher finds these words are more appropriate. These terms

can be defined as “the language the student already knows” and “the language being learned” respectively (Hall and Cook, 2012, p.274). Terms such as “native language” and “first language” do not always make sense as the language the students are speaking most of the time might not be their own language, but just a language they can speak fluently. The term “mother tongue” can also be controversial as the language might not have been their mother’s actual language. Furthermore, the term “second language” could imply that the student only knows one other language. For these reasons, Hall and Cook (2012) believe that the only satisfactory terms are “own” and “new” language. This paper will also use these terms.

2.4.2 What is Translanguaging?

The word translanguaging has two parts: trans and languaging. The “*trans*” portion in translanguaging is important, because it implies that bilinguals “transcend named languages by going beyond them” (Kleyn & Garcia, 2019, p.71). This means that these speakers are not speaking in one specific language, but instead, “select[ing] features from their linguistic repertoire based on the communicative context” (Ossa & Proctor, 2021, p.769). The second part of translanguaging, “*languaging*”, is an activity preformed in “real time” that involves “neural, bodily, situational, social, and cultural processes and events” (Thibault, 2017, p.76). Additionally, Swain (2006) defines it as the action of using language to make meaning. When combining these two terms together, translanguaging can further be defined as bilingual people using different features from their linguistic repertoire to make meaning while communicating.

2.4.2.1 Translanguaging space and translanguaging instinct

Wei (2018; 2011) discusses two terms involving translanguaging. The first, *translanguaging space*, is a “space for the act of translanguaging as well as a space created

through translanguaging” (p.1223). In this space, cultures and identities come together and combine to create new “identities, values, and practices” (Wei, 2011). Furthermore, this space allows bilinguals to “use their linguistic resources for communication in a strategic way” (Karpava, 2021, p.935). The second term, *translanguaging instinct*, can be defined as the drive to use your own language as a resource to learn a new language (Wei, 2018). Wei (2018) further states that translanguaging instinct “drives humans to go beyond narrowly defined linguistic cues and transcend culturally defined language boundaries to achieve effective communication” (p.24-25). This instinct allows bilinguals to use all their linguistic resources in different situations and for different purposes to attempt to accomplish a task.

Both translanguaging space and translanguaging instinct are important for language learning. Hamman (2018) argues for a “critical translanguaging space” in which teachers “encourage(s) students to experiment with language and draw upon their entire linguistic repertoire for meaning-making, while also prioritizing the minority language and minority language speakers” (p.38). In this space, students should be included in discussions about “what it means to be a bilingual” and the design of the space itself (Hamman, 2018). Furthermore, teachers and students should be able to “go between and beyond social constructed language and educational systems” and to “generate new configurations of language and education practices” (Wei, 2018, p.24). Translanguaging instinct, on the other hand, allows students to learn language by using all available resources they have at that particular time (Wei, 2018). This instinct is argued to be innate by Wei (2018) and allows the learner to exploit whatever resources they can to make meaning. Creating a translanguaging

space and allowing students to use their translanguaging instinct, gives language learners the chance to effectively add new features to their linguistic repertoire.

2.4.2.2 Own language use, code-switching, and translanguaging

There is often confusion between the concepts of translanguaging, codeswitching, and using students' own language in class. Code-switching is "the practice of switching between two languages in the course of a single utterance" (Adams, 2003, p.3). Bilingual speakers will often use code-switching when talking with each other and the use of it is not necessarily related to learning language in a classroom. This is an example of code-switching taken from MacSwan (2017) and demonstrates what a Spanish-English bilingual person might say: "This morning mi hermano y yo fuimos a comprar some milk" (This morning my brother and I went to buy some milk) (p.168). Although Garcia (2009) argues that code-switching is used to learn a new language and is a type of translanguaging, it cannot be defined as translanguaging itself. Furthermore, code-switching treats the languages as separate language systems (Garcia & Lin, 2017), although some literature argues against this (See López, 2020).

According to Turnbull (2018), using a student's own language is when students translate their new language into their own language from a vocabulary list or read a passage in both languages one after the other. In this sense, it is simply translation. This method also views the languages as separate with little interaction between them (Turnbull, 2018). However, as discussed above, translanguaging uses all languages and the integration of these languages to learn (Conteh, 2018; Garcia, 2009; Wei, 2018). What this means is that any language the student knows, can be used to their advantage (whether it's Japanese, English, Spanish, and so on). Under the translanguaging approach, learners are not expected to become "native-like" as

this goal is nearly impossible (Kleyn & Garcia, 2019). Instead, learners are just “adding to the integrated linguistic system of which their native language, and any additional languages, are already a part” (Turnbull, 2018, p.105).

2.4.3 Translanguaging in practice

Translanguaging approach is the notion of using the students’ own language (or languages) to improve the weaker of the two (Turnbull, 2018). Students can do assignments, discussions, and presentations in any language as long as the teacher receives the “final output” in English (Turnbull, 2018). The teacher can also use any language in their linguistic repertoire to teach students and foster learning. The way translanguaging is used in teacher instruction and group activities will be discussed in the sections below.

2.4.3.1 Translanguaging in teacher instruction

Translanguaging can be used both by the teacher and by the students in the classroom. When a teacher uses the translanguaging approach, they must “view all linguistic features and practices of any given student as a resource in general and specifically for their learning” (Klyen & Garcia, 2019, p.73). Furthermore, they should pair up students who share the same own language and offer bilingual resources, such as bilingual books, to the class (Klyen & Garcia, 2019). Teachers can also allow their students to answer in any language, even if the teacher initially asked the class a question in only one language (Velasco & García, 2014).

There are two forms of translanguaging a teacher can implement: weak and strong (Garcia & Lin, 2017). In a weak form of translanguaging, all languages are used separately, but with “softened boundaries” (Turnbull, 2019). For example, students might read a passage in English, but discuss it in Japanese without any use of the English language (Turnbull, 2019).

Weak versions of translanguaging practices can be found in “integrated curriculums” (Cenoz & Gorter, 2022). In these integrated curriculums, different languages are used in separated classes however, the classes are “coordinated” so that the languages “reinforce each other” (Cenoz & Gorter, 2022). Another example of weak translanguaging, would be the occasional use of the students’ own language to support learning their new language (Vijayakumar et al., 2020). This dialogue from Vjyakumar et al., (2020) shows an example of this:

Turn	Speaker	Utterance & English translations
1	*TEA:	உன் luggage -குள்ள என்னெல்லாம் வெச்சுருப்ப? [What do you put inside your <i>luggage</i> ?]
2	*CHI:	Hmm.
3	*TEA:	தெர்லனா English -ல சொல்லு, பரவால. [If you do not know, you can say it in <i>English</i> , and it is all right.]
4	*CHI:	English -ல? Luggage -ல உள்ள தண்ணீ இருக்கும். [In <i>English</i> ? There is water in the <i>luggage</i> .]

(p.10)

The teacher uses the English word “luggage” to help the student understand what they were discussing. This is different from own language use in that the teacher is not simply translating the Tamil word to English directly but using the English words to facilitate understanding. The teacher also allowed the student to use English to feel more comfortable and to participate in the lesson. In this example, the student’s own language was used to help the student understand their new language better. However, stricter weak translanguaging practices may have other rules. In this next example taken from Turnbull (2019), students are told they may only use Japanese for discussion and then later, only English when writing their paper. The discussion is meant to prepare students to write their papers and get feedback from their peers. However, they run into some problems:

P2: やっぱ親孝行を書いといたらいいんじゃない。

(Actually, we could just write “oyakoukou right?)

P1: 親孝行の英語がわからない。

(I don't know what 'oyakoukou' is in English.)

P2: ほんまや。

(That's true.)

P1: じゃあ、あとは？

(So, what else then?)

(p.240)

In this example, the students were told not to speak in English, therefore they could not discuss the English word for “oyakoukou”. Due to this restriction, they decided to move onto the next topic instead of finding an answer for their translation. Although the teacher is not involved in this interaction, the teacher's rules to the group discussion interfered with their language use.

In contrast to weak translanguaging, strong translanguaging practices allow “any and all named languages” to be used to help students learn their new language (Turnbull, 2019, p.234). In this form of translanguaging, argued by Garcia and Wei (2014), there are no boundaries between languages. Bilingual speakers will “draw on features” from their “linguistic repertoire” to communicate with each other (Garcia & Wei, 2014). Additionally, the teacher will provide the opportunity for students to “fully use their language repertoire” (Garcia & Lin, 2017). For example, students can use any language in which they have knowledge of to work on a task and then later submit the task in their new language (Turnbull, 2019). However, the final copy of the task that they submit must be in a language the teacher can understand. This is an example of strong translanguaging taken from Garcia (2009):

T: I'm getting angry at you [to Iris, a Spanish-speaking emergent bilingual]

A: ¡Qué tienes que escuchar a la maestra, Iris!

(That you have to listen to the teacher, Iris!)

T: Sit up!

A: In Spanish, it's siéntate arriba [says to whole class]

R: How do you say snowball in Spanish?

A: Right Ms T. que snowball es nieve bola? (p.306)

In this example "A" helps the teacher by supplying translations to the class. The students also mix both English and Spanish to communicate effectively. In this next example from Garcia and Wei (2014), the teacher uses Spanish to help students understand the meaning of an English word:

Teacher: Do you know what warm means? What does warm mean?

... ¿No saben? [You don't know?]

Students: {Shake heads 'No'}

Teacher: Oh, ahora caigo, now I understand. Calentar [to warm]

Student 1: Ooooh calentar

Student 2: Calentar...caras [to warm...faces]

Teacher: So, calienta su cara. So it warms...faces?

Student 2: The land.

Student 1: The land. (p.91)

The teacher gives the translation of “warm” to the students, however they are still unsure of what is being “warmed”. The teacher negotiates in both Spanish and English to help students conclude the meaning is to “warm the land” (or earth). Garcia and Wei (2014) claim that this example would be considered *natural translanguaging*. This usually happens when teachers talk with students individually and with no planning of translanguaging use. *Official translanguaging*, on the other hand, is when translanguaging acts are planned and conducted by the teacher (Garcia & Wei, 2014). Here is an example, also taken from Garcia and Wei (2014), which demonstrates official translanguaging used in a science class:

Teacher: Hit the bar. Vamos con el foco. ¿Quién me puede leer lo que dice el foco, en inglés?

[Let’s go to the focus. Who can read to me what the focus is in English?]

Student 1: (Reads in English) Earthquakes are usually caused when rock underground suddenly breaks along a fault. The spot underground where the rock breaks is called the focus of the earthquake.

Teacher: What does it say?

Student 2: Focus is foco...y abajo, underground, cuando hay un break, allí es que ocurre el earthquake...

Teacher: The earthquake happens cuando hay un break underground. Y qué es el focus?

Student: El focus es dónde está el break, when rock break. (p.99)

In this class the teacher uses Spanish to teach however, the class uses a book written in English and English materials for activities. The teacher allows the class to use their entire linguistic repertoire to develop their language ability and help understand the scientific material.

Although strong translanguaging is more closely related to the definition used in this paper, Garcia and Lin (2017) argue that in order to “offer a fairer and more just education”, teachers should “combine the weak and strong versions of translanguaging” (p.127). In doing so, students can work on building their linguistic repertoire while also learning the contexts of when to use a “named language” based on the communicative setting (Turnbull, 2019). Teachers can plan and set rules on translanguaging and how they’d like students to use it, but the use of translanguaging by students takes place in bilingual education naturally, as seen in the next section.

2.4.3.2 Translanguaging in group activities

Students in bilingual classrooms use translanguaging to confirm understanding and to include others (Garcia, 2009). In the following example, taken from Stone (2019), three Japanese university students use translanguaging in off topic conversation:

M: when did you go to the bed

K: ah

M: last night?

K: iya. Yesterday sonna ni osokunai tte nan da.

M: not so

R: not so late

K: not so late

(p.197)

Although, “K” did not know how to say “not so late” in English, she was able to communicate with her classmates and acquire how to say it without intervention from the teacher. “M” and “R” were able to work together to help “K” learn that “sonna ni osokunai” could be said as “not so late” in English. In the next example, taken from Tsuchiya (2019), three students are working on a project together. Two students are Japanese, and one is Saudi Arabian. These students use both English and Japanese during their group work:

Omar: はい、今はアメリカで

(now in America)

Haru: in America?

Daiki: うん In America

(Yeah)

Omar: now it's in America

(p.273)

During this group work Haru mostly uses Japanese, however in this dialogue she switches to English to confirm meaning with Omar. Translanguaging can be used to initiate confirmation which is a clarification strategy.

Aoyama (2020) observed high school students in an International Communication class in Japan using translanguaging. Afterwards he conducted interviews with them to understand why they chose to use Japanese in their English class. One student responded as so:

“I couldn’t come up with the English word. I was like ‘My dog is very...what’s the word?’ and I ended up using Japanese for that. The word ‘timid’ was simply not available in the dictionary in my brain and I thought if I explained the word differently in English, it would take too much time” (p.8).

This student decided to use Japanese as a communication strategy as it would be more concise and less confusing than trying to think of the English comparison. In the next example, again from Aoyama (2020), a student uses a difficult English word and then says its translation in Japanese. The student explained their reasonings for doing so:

“There are occasions the listeners look completely blank when you use a word you recently remembered, for example, the word ‘compensate’ or a difficult one like ‘co-existence’, even though you found the perfect situation for using these words, aren’t there? If that is the case, I switch to Japanese. Yes, that happens often. I know I should’ve paraphrased those words in English, but I couldn’t” (p.8).

Instead of trying to explain a difficult English word, this student used the Japanese equivalent to make sure their peers understood what they were talking about. This is also a communication strategy and is helpful for learning new words. In the last example, from Turnbull (2019), Japanese students use translanguaging during a discussion about medical tests results:

P4: 検便って英語で何というんだろう

(What's kenben called in English?)

P1: 何というやん？ Checking?

(What is it called? "Checking"?)

P2: そうそう。Examine?

(Yeah. "Examine"?)

P1: Examination of かな？

(I wonder if it's "examination of"?)

P3: Test of かな？ I think.

(I wonder if it's a "test of"? I think.)

P4: あ、stool test だ。

(Ah, it's "stool test".) (p.241-242)

In this dialogue, students are unsure of the word "kenben" (stool test) in English. Instead of feeling restricted to only using English words, they were able to "draw on linguistic features from both English and Japanese" and in turn figure out the English translation (Turnbull, 2019).

2.4.4. Translanguaging summarized

The meaning of translanguaging and how it can be used in practice has been discussed in the previous sections. However, it is imperative to reiterate the differences of translanguaging versus just using a student's own language in the classroom. To discuss this topic further, examples from Garcia and Wei (2014) are used to illustrate the distinction between the two:

Example of Translanguaging:

- A teacher introduces 2-3 key vocabulary words and their definitions at the beginning of the lesson and asks students to translate the definition into their home languages

Example of non-Translanguaging:

- The teacher speaks in English and then translates what she said into Spanish after every few sentences.

Example of Translanguaging:

- A teacher has students listen to a song in Spanish about the topic of the day. She then has them answer a series of questions about the song in English.

Example of non-Translanguaging:

- A teacher does a word-for-word translation of a text and tells students to either read the English text or the text in their home language; all students choose to read the home language only or English Only text.

(p. 124)

Demonstrated by these examples from Garcia and Wei (2014), translanguaging does not involve simple translation. Instead, the teacher makes use of all languages and integrates them together to teach the new language.

Translanguaging is also different than code-switching, as code-switching treats languages as two separate linguistic systems (Garcia and Lin, 2017). Garcia often compares code-switching and translanguaging to typing on an I-Phone. Whereas code-switching can be compared to switching languages on the keyboard setting, translanguaging would not follow these constraints. Instead, translanguaging would be like “turning off” the language switch

function and using all features from the speaker's semiotic repertoire, including emojis, pictures, and different features from "named languages" (Garcia & Wei, 2014). In other words, translanguaging goes "beyond" code-switching (Anderson, 2017).

Both teachers and students can use translanguaging to their advantage to teach and learn a new language. This can take place both naturally and officially (planned by the teacher) (Garcia & Wei, 2014). Students will use translanguaging for different strategies including negotiation of meaning (Stone, 2019; Turnbull 2019), confirmation of meaning (Tsuchiya, 2019), and to teach peers a new or difficult word (Aoyama, 2020).

2.5 Empirical research on translanguaging

Although research in own language use in education is not something new, there has been a significant increase in literature on translanguaging since 2011 (Kyllen & Garcia, 2019). Many researchers have tested the effectiveness of the translanguaging approach, as well as the opinions students and teachers have on using students' own languages in the classroom. This section will discuss the empirical research conducted on translanguaging.

2.5.1 Benefits of using translanguaging in practice

There have been many studies that have demonstrated the benefits of using translanguaging in EFL classrooms (Lucas and Yiakoumettim 2019; Makalela, 2019; Turnbull, 2019; Yasar Yuzlu & Dikilitas, 2022). Lucas and Yiakoumetti (2019) compared English Only instruction and cross-linguistic instruction in university EFL classes in Japan over a period of 4 weeks. The cross-linguistic group received instruction that focused on comparing their own language to English that targeted the usage of articles and plurals. The English Only group received instruction on articles and plurals and were explicitly taught the rules in English. The

teacher did not use cross-linguistic awareness activities in these lessons; however, they did use the same type of activities used in the experimental group with relation to English Only. The students took three tests: one before the intervention, one during, and one when finished. The tests included two parts: identification and correction of errors, and production of the targeted linguistic features. The researchers found that the cross-linguistic group improved on identifying and correcting their errors of plurals and articles whereas the control group did not show any significant differences in performance. Furthermore, the control group's performance had no significant difference across the three tests, but the experimental group appeared to improve overtime. They also found that the experimental group improved from the first test of the production of plurals and articles, however their scores from the article production test were not significantly different from the control group's scores. The researchers argue that this is empirical evidence that own language use in language learning classrooms is effective.

In addition to this study, Turnbull (2019) explored using English Only instruction, "weak" translanguaging (WT) instruction, and "strong" translanguaging (ST) instruction in two EFL classes in Japan. The researcher defines WT instruction as the teacher indicating which language to use during each task and ST instruction as the teacher giving no indication of what language to use during any task. Students in the strong group could choose which language to use and switch languages at any point of time. Both types of groups discussed their writing plan and then afterwards individually wrote their papers. From observation, Turnbull found that the ST group was able to keep focus during discussions whereas the other two groups went off track. Additionally, he found that the English Only group often "broke" the rules of being English Only during discussion. The composition scores in the ST group were significantly

different from the English Only group in both classes. In one class the WT group's scores were not significantly different from the ST or English Only group. However, in the other class the scores between the ST and WT groups were significantly different.

There has also been research conducted on teachers who have taken a course on translanguaging. Makalela (2019) looked at 15 English literacy teachers in Africa who participated in a two-week intensive training course on implementing translanguaging. The teachers learned about the theory of translanguaging and then participated in demonstration lessons as first students, and then later the teacher themselves. Three months after the training sessions, the researcher returned to observe the teachers' lessons. The researcher found that the teachers used intentional translanguaging and multiple language greetings to facilitate a deeper comprehension of content and the formation of translingual concepts and vocabulary. For example, one teacher created a routine in which students exchanged greetings in different languages spoken in the area. Another example found in lessons was the use of translanguaging techniques to convey a message:

Teacher: What is the Title of the story

Learner 1: Malusi and her diary

Teacher: A secret diary ... what is a diary, what do we do with a diary? What do we use a diary for?

Learner 2: Re ngwala diphiri.<We write secrets>

Teacher: Write daily activities <learners clap hands three times> (p. 246)

In this example, the teacher is scaffolding a story that students were assigned to later read. The researcher states that instead of worrying about the boundaries of languages, the students used a “meshed version” of the languages to communicate and learn new words. The researcher found that students were able to use named languages in socially appropriate contexts, however they had knowledge of multiple languages and were able to use them boundary-less. Makalela (2019) concluded that translanguaging techniques performed by the teacher help support multilingual students learn new languages.

Yasar Yuzlu and Dikilitas (2022) wanted to see the influence translanguaging had on students who had been exposed to a grammar translation method (GTM) and those who had been exposed to communicative language teaching (CLT). 60 pre-intermediate and 60 upper-intermediate high school students in Turkey participated in the study. The pre-intermediate students had been taught English using GTM and the upper-intermediate students with CLT. Each level was divided into a control class taught in their traditional EFL instruction (with no overlap) and an experimental class taught using the translanguaging method based on Garcia’s (2009) model. All students took a pre- and post- skill test which included reading, writing, listening, and speaking sections. 10 students from each translanguaging group were also randomly selected to be interviewed after the intervention. There were no significant differences on the pre-test between the three groups, however the scores of the post-tests were significantly different. Both experimental groups outperformed the CLT and GTM groups regarding receptive and productive skills. The scores are presented in the chart below.

Table 1 *Results from Yasar, Yuzlu, & Dikilitas (2022)*

	Pre-test Mean	Post-test Mean
Pre-intermediate exp	74.77	90.07
Pre-intermediate control	76.20	84.63
Upper-intermediate exp	75.40	87.60
Upper-intermediate control	75.87	84.87

These results show that the experimental groups improved more from the pre-test than the control groups did at both levels.

During the interview sessions with students from the experimental groups, the researchers asked questions about their opinion on learning through translanguaging. Students reported that translanguaging helped them make meaning and understand topics better, realize their potential by “accessing their full linguistic repertoire”, facilitate learning, and develop feelings of comfort when learning English. The researcher found that four fifths of the interviewees viewed translanguaging positively. One-fifth of the interviewees were concerned with using Turkish as they felt learning English “should not involve other languages”. However, the researchers stated that this could have been a result of a “deeply-rooted monoglossic attitude” that influenced the students. They concluded that translanguaging is a more effective approach than CLT and GTM and suggested that policy makers should reconsider English Only policies.

De La Campa and Nassaji (2009) did research on own language use in German classrooms in Canada. This study looked at two German teachers, one experienced and one novice, in German conversation courses at a university in Canada. It involved lesson observations, semi-structure interviews, and stimulated recall sessions to find out how much and why the teachers used English in their classrooms. The researchers found that English was used mostly for translation, own language and new language contrast, and evaluation. The novice teacher tended to use more English than the experienced teacher, however the amount of English used was very dependent on the lesson. They both agreed that student proficiency level determines the amount of English they would use. The researchers concluded that although own language was used sparingly, the teachers effectively incorporated it to facilitate learning and better understanding of their lessons' contents.

The studies discussed above provide evidence that supports the use of translanguaging to teach a new language. Using translanguaging can be beneficial for comparing languages (Lucas & Yiakoumettim, 2019), writing papers (Turnbull, 2019), facilitating comprehension (De La Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Makalela, 2019), and learning receptive and productice skills (Yasar, Yuzlu & Dikilitas, 2022).

2.5.2 Translanguaging in group activities

Japanese EFL students are often seen using translanguaging whether the teacher has allowed it or not (Turnbull, 2019; Turnbull, 2018). Tsuchiya (2019) found that while Japanese students used their own language for social purposes during group activities, they also used it for learning. Students were observed using their own language to ask for clarification and for help when discussing their group projects. For example, when the students were confused

about which “scene” they needed to perform, they used both Japanese and English to confirm the scene with each other. Although Japanese was used more often, English was also used during discussion of a group project. Aoyama (2020) also found that Japanese students used their own language to ask for help and for metalanguage purposes. He defines metalanguage purposes as the discussion of tasks students have to complete. For example, students asked each other what they were supposed to discuss in their group: “Nanka robotto dake ga shindan suruno wa iika waruika tte koto dayone [Is it like whether it’s good or bad for us to rely on robots diagnosing patients?].” In both studies, students are using translanguaging in group activities to supplement their learning. Allowing students to use their own language freely, gives them opportunity to advance in their English studies. These studies provide evidence that translanguaging is used by students during group activities and that the use of their own language serves a purpose: to improve their weaker language.

2.5.3 Translanguaging in teacher instruction

While translanguaging in group activities seems to occur regardless of if the teacher allows it or not, translanguaging during teacher instruction can be purposefully implemented by the teacher. Wang and Curdt (2019) studied the use of translanguaging in English centered business classes in China. They found that instead of “getting lost in translation”, translanguaging helped “broadened [their] horizons, deepened [their] understanding of theories, and improved [their] practical application abilities”. They also discovered from student interviews that the teacher’s use of Chinese and English, helped “maximise their disciplinary learning”.

In addition to deep understanding of new languages, translanguaging has also been found to increase student and teacher motivation. In Chen et al.'s (2021) study of using translanguaging to facilitate French pronunciation skills in China, researchers found that the teacher incorporated the students' own language in a unique way which improved the lesson by making it fun. In this case, the teacher showed the class a set of pictures and their correlated Mandarin pronunciations. For example, the phoneme [y] means "fish" in Mandarin, so the teacher presented a picture of a fish with the "=" sign and [y] next to it. After that the teacher showed a French excerpt with pictures of the fish replacing the corresponding Mandarin [y] phonemes that are seen in French. This helped the students conceptualize the French pronunciation and made it easier to remember. The presentation resulted in laughter from the students and the teacher felt excited that her students were enjoying her lesson. The teacher reported that she felt motivated to teach in this style and would like to do more lessons like this in the future. Using translanguaging during teacher instruction can increase students' metalinguistic awareness, provide a deeper understanding of concepts, and increase motivation.

2.6. Teacher and student perceptions of translanguaging

The current study looks at teachers' and students' opinions on translanguaging; therefore, previous research on teacher and student perceptions of translanguaging will be discussed. However before discussing these studies, the importance of teacher beliefs and how they can influence teacher practice will be outlined.

2.6.1 Teacher Beliefs

Teacher beliefs can be defined as “the cognitive basis for the articulation of values and behaviors that mediate teaching practice” (Tatto, 2019, p.1). Teachers hold a “complex set of beliefs” and these beliefs “have been shown to influence the instructional judgments and decisions made in classrooms” (Farrell & Bennis, 2013, p.163). Furthermore, these beliefs can also impact the way policies are implemented and their success rate (Sabarwal et al., 2021). Teachers who are more experienced are seen to correspond their beliefs with their practices more so than less experienced teachers (Farrell & Bennis, 2013). There is also evidence that teacher beliefs and their actual practices don’t always “match” (Phipps & Borg, 2009). The next sections will discuss what influences teacher beliefs, teacher beliefs versus actual practices, and how these beliefs can influence the practices that are implemented in the classroom.

2.6.1.1 Factors that influence Teacher Beliefs

Teachers’ pedagogical beliefs come from both formalized knowledge (an external source) and personal experiences (an internal source) (Fives et al., 2015). Research shows that teacher beliefs are influenced by their “social, cultural and institutional context” which could be classified as formalized knowledge (Fives et al., 2015; Li & Walsh, 2011). For example, in Japan, Japanese English teachers believe that grammar-orientated tests are important and that the Yakudoku method should be used to teach English (Terauchi, 2017). A reason for the popularity of this method is due to “Japanese tradition and its resistance to change” as well as entrance exam requirements (Terauchi, 2017, p.72-73). Furthermore, Mori (2011) found that teachers used methods that they deemed appropriate based on the country’s culture. In Mori’s study, one language teacher said that many Japanese students lack confidence and are worried about

making mistakes. For this reason, the teacher did not use a strict form of correction, and instead a gentler approach (Mori, 2011). Teacher beliefs may also be closely linked to teachers' own experiences as learners (Phipps & Borg, 2009). For example, Japanese English teachers believe in Yakudoku method because that was the method by which they learned English in school (Terauchi, 2017).

Similarly, teacher beliefs can also be grouped as either core or peripheral (Phipps & Borg, 2009). Core beliefs are believed to be "experientially ingrained" whereas peripheral beliefs are rooted by theory (Phipps & Borg, 2009). Teachers may base their peripheral beliefs on what they have learned in their formal education or teacher training (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2017). Core beliefs, however, stem from either the teacher's actual experience or observations of other teachers they have made (Fives et al., 2015; Phipps & Borg, 2009). Phipps and Borg (2009) claim that core beliefs influence teachers' work significantly more than peripheral beliefs.

2.6.1.2 Beliefs versus practice

Research shows that teacher beliefs do not always match with what teachers do in the classroom (Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Li & Walsh, 2011; Nassaji et al., 2023; Phipps & Borg, 2009). The amount of experience a teacher has can play a role in how consistent their beliefs are with their practices (Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Li & Walsh, 2011). Farrell and Bennis (2013) compared beliefs and actual practices of experienced versus non experienced English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers. They found that the experienced teacher's beliefs and practices were "generally" the same, with some instances of "diverging". However, the non-experienced teacher's beliefs and practices did not always match, with only some instances of "converging".

Farrell and Bennis (2013) state that non experienced teachers might still be in the process of forming their own beliefs and therefore their stated beliefs and practices might not match.

Other reasons that can explain belief and practice inconsistencies include time constraints (Mori, 2011), class size (Bao, 2019), classroom management concerns (Phipps & Borg, 2011), student expectations (Phipps & Borg, 2011), student personality (Mori, 2011), and examination pressure (Li & Walsh, 2011).

Li and Walsh (2011) argue that teacher beliefs and practices are complex and exist in a “symbolic relationship”, one that is difficult to understand by just interviewing teachers. Phipps and Borg (2009) saw this complex relationship by interviewing teachers and observing their lessons over an 18-month period. One teacher thought that fill-in-the-gap activities were useless and not effective, yet they used them in class. This teacher reported that they know that students enjoy this activity and as so, used it as a classroom management tool. Phipps and Borg (2009) argue that although these teachers’ stated beliefs and practices did not match, they did align with “deeper, more general beliefs about learning” (p. 387). This means that teachers will make classroom decisions based on beliefs they were unaware existed. Farrell and Bennis (2013) suggest that teachers should reflect upon their work and compare their beliefs with their practices. This can help teachers implement changes to their own approaches and make them more confident in knowing what they believe about language teaching (Farrell and Bennis, 2013).

2.6.1.3. The influence of teacher beliefs

Although teachers’ reported beliefs are not always consistent with their observed practices, there is evidence that some beliefs influence what teachers do in the classroom (Li &

Walsh, 2011; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Sabarwal et al., 2021). These beliefs are believed to be “deep-rooted” and “resistant to change” (Phipps & Borg, 2009, p.381). As discussed previously, core beliefs will have a greater impact on what teachers decide to do in the classroom. For example, if a teacher knows that students do not like contextualized grammar work, but they are interested in whole class spoken work, the teacher will implement the latter to teach grammar (Phipps & Borg, 2009).

In Mori’s (2011) study, some teachers decided to go against what their institute embraced and followed their own beliefs. For example, instead of trying to create “articulate students” as the school wanted teachers to do, one teacher decided to let the conversation flow in his lessons and not point out every mistake the students made. He reported that building confidence was more important and his experience as a language learner influenced him to teach that way.

Teacher beliefs may also “mediate program and policy implementation (Sabarwal et al., 2021, p.100). Five and Buehl (2016) recommend allowing teachers the space to reflect on their beliefs to create meaningful changes in practice and for policy makers to take these ideas into consideration. Unfortunately, there is research that shows teachers do not feel confident in making any policy changes outside of their classroom (Hinnant-Crawford, 2016). Wallace and Priestley (2011), however, suggest that “teachers’ classroom actions have the potential to influence policy in a way that reaches beyond their individual classrooms...” (p.378). Furthermore Giudici (2020) argues that teachers can “change the belief of those in power” by expressing their concerns and what they experience in the classroom.

Teacher beliefs influence what teachers decide to do in their classrooms, even if it's against what their school's policy is (Mori, 2011). Additionally, research says that teacher beliefs have the power of changing policy and reform (Five & Buehl, 2016; Giudici, 2020). Although some teachers may not feel confident in expressing these ideas to policy makers (Hinnatt-Crawford, 2016), they will continue to implement these practices in their own lessons (Li & Walsh, 2011; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Sabarwal et al., 2021). Giving teachers the opportunity to voice their opinion about rules and policies will ultimately lead to a better education for students and therefore, should be taken into consideration.

2.6.2 Teacher and student beliefs on translanguaging

There have been studies conducted specifically on the opinions teachers and students have on translanguaging. Turnbull (2018) did research in Japan to ask students and teachers about their thoughts on translanguaging. Participants included 373 Japanese tertiary students and 251 tertiary EFL teachers. Teachers reported that they already use an approach like translanguaging in their classes, but they would like to learn how to structure it better. They also said that using this type of approach could help those students who have low confidence about their English ability. On the contrary, a few teachers were concerned that using a translanguaging method would result in heavy Japanese use by students. They also were unsure about trying it out due to policy rules and restrictions at their school. Students reported wanting to try it as they "hate the idea of having perfect English" and that there "wouldn't be a bias between one language or the other". Students commented that they thought the approach would be beneficial to their English learning. Some students worried that Japanese use would get in the way of their English practice. However, the researcher pointed out that

translanguaging method doesn't "promote one language over the other". Instead, it breaks down the boundaries between the languages, so that both can be used without competition. He concluded that there was space for the translanguaging method to be implemented in EFL Japanese classrooms.

McMillan and Rivers (2011) also explored the opinions of EFL teachers in Japan on own language use in English lessons. The researchers wanted to know to what degree teachers were moving away from an English Only approach at a university where English Only is policy. 60 university EFL teachers (who did not have an own language of Japanese) took an online survey that included six open ended questions about different teaching issues. They found that 41.4% of teachers had a positive attitude towards teachers using a student's own language in the classroom. Teachers argued that own language use can save time, was good for rapport, and showed appreciation towards the students' language and culture. On the other hand, 41.4% also had a negative attitude towards it. These teachers believed that it was important to use English Only as students did not have much time to practice English outside of class. The researchers also asked teachers about their opinions on students using their own language in class. 37.8% had a positive attitude about it, but at the same time, 37.8% had a negative attitude towards it. Teachers said that students using their own language can help facilitate successful communication with the teacher, was good for complex ideas, and is an effective confirmation strategy. The teachers against it thought that student own language use was lazy and should only be used in emergencies. Some teachers also stated that students should try and speak English and not rely on Japanese use. The researcher found that teachers in favor of own language use had reasonings that were supported by literature. Alternatively, teachers'

reasonings for not believing in own language use was not supported by the literature. The researcher also noted, however, that the teachers that believed in own language use also said they were cautious not to overuse it.

Additionally, Yuvayapan (2019) investigated the opinions English teachers in Turkey had on translanguaging. 50 EFL teachers in different schools and cities in Turkey took a questionnaire about translanguaging. 10 of these teachers participated in semi-structured interviews, and 5 of the teachers' lessons were observed. In the questionnaire, the researcher found that 58% of participants thought own language use in English classrooms was beneficial and that 75% thought that the use of Turkish was important to help lower-level students. In the interviews, teachers reported that own language use is a "short-cut" and that it might hinder students from learning English. Others reported that they would like to use more Turkish, but their school's policy is against it. Some teachers commented that own language use was beneficial for reviewing lesson content, maintaining classroom routines, and increasing rapport with students. In the lesson observations, teachers were found to use Turkish to teach vocabulary and quickly clarify directions. It was examined that the EFL teachers' practices did not always match with their perceptions of translanguaging. The researcher concluded that this might be because schools discourage the use of translanguaging, however teachers naturally translanguage to help their students learn.

Hall and Cook (2012) discussed some disadvantages teachers have reported about using students' own language during lessons. Many teachers said they felt guilty when using the students' own language in class and thought that it decreases the time the students could be practicing their new language. Additionally, they felt that using translanguaging could be seen

as “laziness” if the teacher or student constantly communicates in the students’ own language. Teachers also stated that they would not know how much new language use is best for learning. According to Hall and Cook (2012), teachers typically use more of the new language in class with moderate to minimal use of the students’ own language. Of course, the context, content, and teacher style will influence the amount and it would be difficult to keep this ratio completely constant. Teachers reported that they keep students’ own language use to a minimal due to the negative feelings they have about translanguaging.

Many teachers in Japan seem to think that translanguaging is just “own language use” and the concept is very misunderstood (Turnbull, personal communication, January 31st, 2022). This could be contributing to the strong preference of English Only lessons over translanguaging in Japan.

Research has also been conducted to explore the opinions that Japanese students have on using own language in the classroom. Clancy (2018) compared Japanese university students’ opinions on using Japanese in EFL lessons and their English proficiency level. 175 undergraduate students took a questionnaire that asked about the importance of own language use in English classrooms and the necessity for EFL teachers to be fluent in Japanese. The students’ English proficiency level was measured through their Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) scores. Through the students’ responses, the researcher found that most students preferred for their teacher to be fluent in Japanese and to use Japanese during class “when appropriate”. Clancy also discovered that students with a higher English proficiency level thought that Japanese could be useful for learning new vocabulary, whereas students with a lower proficiency level believed that it could be helpful for understanding class instructions. He

concluded that Japanese university students prefer for their teacher to use Japanese during their English lessons.

As discussed in a previous section, Aoyama (2020) examined the opinions Japanese high school students had on using Japanese during EFL lessons and observed the reasons for why they use it. 190 high school students who attended an advanced leveled prefectural school took questionnaires and were also interviewed after the researcher observed their class. The researcher found that all students used at least some Japanese during communicative activities for purposes such as fillers, asking for help, and equivalent (use of partial Japanese in a sentence). However, through interviews, many of the students expressed that they would like to use more English even though they acknowledged that Japanese use can be helpful. Aoyama suggests teachers to “embrace” students use of occasional translanguaging and view it as a strategy for language learning.

As discussed above, studies on the perceptions of translanguaging have been conducted in many ways. These studies included teachers’ opinions (Hall & Cook, 2012; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Yuvayapan, 2019), students’ opinions (Aoyama, 2020; Clancy, 2018), and the comparison of students’ and teachers’ opinions (Turnbull, 2018). Teachers in these studies thought that translanguaging was useful for saving time (McMillan & Rivers, 2019), reviewing lesson content (Yuvayapan, 2019), and a confidence booster (Turnbull, 2018). There were also some negative attitudes towards translanguaging from teachers including that own language use was lazy (Hall & Cook, 2012), served as a “short-cut” (Yuvayapan, 2019), and that students would use rely on it (Turnbull, 2018). Additionally, students from Turnbull’s (2018) study reported that they would like to try translanguaging in their English lessons. The research on the opinions of

translanguaging provides evidence that there are teachers both for and against the use of translanguaging and students who are interested in trying it out.

2.6.3 Limitations of previous research and rationales for the present study

As can be seen, there have been several studies that have examined the role of translanguaging as well as EFL teachers' opinions about own language use in Japan (McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Turnbull, 2018). However little research has been conducted on the use of translanguaging by high school and Eikaiwa teachers and what they think about translanguaging. Additionally, although there has been research on what university and high school Japanese students think about Japanese use in English lessons (Aoyama, 2020; Clancy, 2018) the scope of such research has been limited to one or a few schools. The current study involves participants from different types of schools in Japan, including high schools, universities, and Eikaiwa schools. As English Only policies are implemented in all three types of schools and because Japanese students in general tend to have a low English proficiency level, it is important to include participants from all types of schools in this study.

Second, most of the research conducted in Japan on perceptions of translanguaging involve either only teachers or only students, with no comparisons between them (Aoyama, 2020; McMillan & Rivers, 2011) with the exception of Turnbull (2018). The current study is closely related to Turnbull (2018) in that it examines the perceptions of Japanese students and EFL teachers in Japan on translanguaging. However, Turnbull's (2018) focus was on bilingualism and what teachers and students think of the definition of being "bilingual". Although it does compare the opinions teachers and students have on translanguaging, it does not differentiate between translanguaging used in teacher instruction versus group activity. Additionally,

Turnbull (2018) gives teachers and students a definition of what “translanguaging” is before participants fill out a questionnaire. Turnbull later concluded that teachers in Japan might not understand the real definition of what translanguaging is and that may have influenced the results (Turnbull, personal communication, January 31st, 2022). To avoid confusion, the current study does not give a definition of translanguaging and only asks participants about Japanese use in English classrooms. Unlike Turnbull (2018), this study looks at the differences and compares teachers’ and students’ opinions on the use of translanguaging during both teacher instruction and group activity. Furthermore, the current study does not look to measure the reported amount of own language used in these situations, instead it focuses on why own language is used and in what ways it is beneficial or not.

In sum, to this date, no study has explored the opinions that different types of Japanese students and EFL teachers in Japan have on translanguaging in different situations.

2.7 Research Questions

1. What are the Japanese EFL students’ and teachers’ opinions on using translanguaging in EFL classrooms? More specifically:
 - a. What are their opinions on using translanguaging during teacher instruction?
 - b. What are their opinions on using translanguaging during group work activities?
 - c. Are there any differences between the teachers’ and the students’ opinions in using translanguaging during teacher instruction and group work activities?

Chapter 3- Methods

3.1 Participants

The researcher submitted an Ethics application to her university's REB to get approval for this study (See Appendix 1). Teachers who worked at high schools, universities, and Eikaiwa schools were recruited, along with students who went to university or an Eikaiwa school. Altogether, 30 EFL teachers and 37 EFL students in Japan volunteered in response to private messages on Facebook and Instagram, along with recruitment notices posted to Reddit. Only teachers whose own language was not Japanese were recruited. This is because most Japanese EFL teachers use the Yakudoku method to teach English, which requires heavy use of Japanese (Terauchi, 2017). However, teachers who are not from Japan tend to teach in English Only as either personal practice or when instructed by their company/school (MEXT, 2018). As discussed in the literature review section, there is evidence that own language use in EFL classrooms is effective. This study looks at the opinions that EFL teachers have on translanguaging; therefore, only non-Japanese EFL teachers were chosen.

There were 30 EFL teachers who participated in this study (See Table 2). Most of the teachers (60%) had 6 to 10 years of teaching experience in Japan, 27% with less than 6 years, 10% with over 16 years, and 3% with 11 to 15 years. 80% of the teachers had English as an own language, while 20% reported a different own language. These languages were not reported. Out of the teachers, 53% reported that they could have a conversation in Japanese, 17% said they could speak fluently, 17% reported they couldn't really speak it, and 13% could speak a little. However, only 33% had taken the *Japanese Language Proficiency Test* (JLPT) in the past at various levels (See Table 3). The JLPT is a "test to measure and certify the Japanese-language

proficiency of those whose native language is not Japanese” (*Message from the Organizers*, 2012). The test consists of five levels, N5 being the easiest, and N1 being the most difficult according to the JLPT site.

Table 2 *Characteristics of teacher participants*

Participant Characteristics	<i>n</i>	%
Teaching Experience		
0-5 years	8	27
6-10 years	18	60
11-15 years	1	3
16+ years	3	10
Own Language		
English	24	80
Other	6	20
Japanese Proficiency		
Fluent	5	17
Can have a conversation	16	53
Can speak a little	4	13
Can't really speak it	5	17
JLPT		
Taken	10	33
Haven't taken	20	67

Table 3 *Teacher JLPT levels*

Level	<i>n</i> of passes
N1	1
N2	2
N3	5
N4	1
N5	0

Teachers worked at high schools, universities, and Eikaiwa schools, however the percentages of each school were not recorded.

37 Japanese EFL students also participated in the study (See Table 4). The researcher aimed to only recruit Japanese EFL students, as these students are reported to have low English proficiency levels (Aoki, 2017). This is desirable, because MEXT wants to increase students' English proficiency level in schools and to do that, they are implementing CLT methods. As discussed in Chapter 2, however, this method is not producing the results they have aimed for. One student's own language that was not Japanese, however their responses were still used in this study as this student was studying English in Japan. Many student participants (57%) were recruited with help from the researcher's peer who worked as an EFL teacher at their school. Other participants included previous students of the researcher along with friends of peers.

The majority of students (94%) self-reported an English proficiency level of below upper intermediate, with 59% at an intermediate level and 35% at a pre-intermediate level. 5% of the students reported to have an upper intermediate level of English proficiency, while only 3% said they were advance. Of these students, 89% had taken an English test before, such as the EIKEN or TOEIC (See Table 5), with some students (16%) who had taken multiple tests.

Table 4 *Characteristics of student participants*

Participant Characteristics	<i>n</i>	%
English Proficiency		
Pre-intermediate	13	35
Intermediate	22	59
Upper-intermediate	1	3
Advanced	1	3
English Test		
Taken	33	89

Haven't taken	4	11
Own Language		
Japanese	36	97
Other	1	3
Had been taught English in English		
Yes	36	97
No	1	3

Table 5 *English tests taken by students*

Test	<i>n</i>
TOEIC	18
Eiken	18
GTEC	1
TOEFL	1

Lastly, 97% of students reported to have been taught English in only English before and 3% said they had not been taught this way. The students went to both universities and Eikaiwa schools, however these percentages were not recorded. All participants signed a consent form before filling out a questionnaire sent to them by email or private message.

3.1.1 Note on recruitment

The researcher chose to use Word documents to create this study's questionnaires, because Word is universal and used in Japan. There was no online link or Google Docs paper to complete the questionnaire. Participants had to either fill out the Word document on their computer or print out the document and fill it out by pen. If the latter was chosen, the participant then needed to either scan their documents or take pictures of them to upload to

their electronic device. This potentially created a hurdle as the questionnaire was not very accessible. A few potential participants declined to participate after learning about this. Unfortunately, due to timing, the researcher could not change the format of the questionnaires.

3.2 Data Collection

3.2.1 Procedure

Two questionnaires were created by the researcher: one for students and one for teachers. Cargan (2007) argues that questionnaires help researchers make “descriptive assertions” with a large population of participants. Furthermore, they allow many different topics to be addressed through a variety of questions (Yuvayapan, 2019). Turnbull’s (2018) questionnaires on translanguaging were used as guidelines when designing the material. The researcher contacted EFL teachers and students in Japan that she knew to fill out the questionnaire. Afterwards, she used snowball sampling to find more participants to volunteer. As the participant goal was not reached, social media platforms such as Facebook and Reddit forums were used. The researcher posted an explanation of the research project and asked potential participants to message her to obtain the questionnaire. All participants received a consent form document and the questionnaire document on Word. The consent form was signed by either pen or an E-signature. The researcher stopped recruiting participants once a minimum of 30 from each group were collected. The researcher collected the responses, and then translated the Japanese into English from the student questionnaire responses. Two English-Japanese bilingual peers checked the translations for correctness.

3.2.2 Pilot

Both the student and teacher questionnaire were piloted with English and Japanese peers to refine question items. Based on this feedback, several questions were reworded, some added, and a few deleted from the questionnaires. For example, the student questionnaire originally only asked students what their English proficiency level was in terms of levels with no extra detail. A few Japanese peers stated that this might be confusing to Japanese people and therefore comments were added to outline the levels in more detail. Another example from the student questionnaire, was using the word “difficult” in front of vocabulary or grammar. The pilot group expressed that Japanese students would not know what was considered “difficult” or “easy”, so the word “difficult” was removed from these questions. On the teacher questionnaire a few words were changed. Instead of saying “cultural items”, I received feedback to change the word to “cultural topics”. There was also feedback regarding using the terms “L1” and “L2”. The researcher originally wanted to use these terms as she thought they were familiar to EFL teachers. However, some peers (who were past and current EFL teachers) were confused by which language was being discussed and suggested to write the languages out instead (i.e., English, or Japanese). Once these changes were made, the questionnaires were re-piloted to a different group of peers who agreed that there were little to no errors.

3.3 Questionnaires

The teacher questionnaire had 18 open- and closed-ended question items, and the student questionnaire had 15 (Appendix 2 and 3). These questions were grouped into four sections. For both questionnaires, the questions in the first two sections were similar with some wording differences (i.e., the teacher questionnaire asked, “do you allow your students to

speak Japanese in group activities?” whereas the student questionnaire asked “do you speak Japanese in group activities?”). Both questionnaires had open-ended questions, however the open-ended questions in the student version were extensions of closed-ended questions and as such, more scaffolded. This was decided after piloting the questionnaire as advice was given such as, “Japanese students won’t know how to answer these types of open-ended questions”. However, as per the researcher’s supervising committee’s feedback, a few open-ended questions about different language skills were asked in the student questionnaire. This was to get a better understanding about how students felt about using Japanese in different situations. The teacher’s questionnaire did not have these questions; however, it did include more open-ended questions about the advantageous and disadvantageous of using Japanese in EFL lessons. In the next paragraph, the sections’ questions will be discussed in more detail.

The first section of the questionnaire asked for demographic information. For teachers this section included: length of teaching experience in Japan, reported own language, and reported Japanese proficiency level. On the student questionnaire this section included: reported English proficiency level, English test information, reported own language, and learning English in English experience. The second section was designed to help answer the first research question regarding the use of translanguaging use during teacher instruction. Questions asked about the use of Japanese by the teacher and if participants thought it was helpful or not. The third section asked questions related to the second research question regarding translanguaging use in group activities. This section included questions about students and their use of Japanese during group activities without the teacher involved. The fourth section on the teacher questionnaire asked about translanguaging specifically, whereas

this section on the student questionnaire asked about English Only methods and when they are most effective. The last question on the student questionnaire asked about Japanese use in English lessons and when it would be most effective.

Turnbull (2018) concluded that EFL teachers in Japan were confused by his definition (See Figure 1) of translanguaging and that could have influenced the results. For this reason, the term “translanguaging” was not used in this study’s questionnaires. However, the last question on the teacher’s questionnaire asked if the term “translanguaging” is known and if so, what is known about it. For simplicity, the languages in question were used in place of own or new language.

Figure 1 *Turnbull's (2018) definition of translanguaging*

Translanguaging is a developing concept in which the deliberate and systematic use of two “languages” is encouraged for education and learning purposes. Translanguaging views all of the “languages” in a speaker’s linguistic repertoire as belonging to a single integrated system, whereby speakers select and use the most suitable elements of each language for communicative use in a given context. Second language learners are not considered to be acquiring a new second language, but adding to the integrated linguistic system of which their first language is already a part. In second language learning, then, an important concept within a translanguaging approach is the idea that both learners’ first and the target language are encouraged and utilised in the classroom for the purpose of developing the weaker target language.

(p.109)

3.3.1 Teacher instruction versus group activity

Similar to other studies (Aoyama, 2020; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Tsuchiya, 2019; Turnbull, 2018; Yuvayapan, 2019), this study aims to understand what EFL students and EFL teachers think about own language use in English lessons. However different from past studies, this study looks at own language use in both teacher instruction and student group activity. To do this, the researcher used different sections to ask questions about each situation. To clarify what “group activity” means, a definition was provided on the student questionnaire:

“グループ活動とは、例えば、あらかじめ先生が用意した質問にグループ内で話し合い質問に答えていく様な内容です。”

“Students discussing and answering content in groups that was prepared by the teacher in advance.”

An explanation was not provided on the teacher questionnaire, as it was assumed most instructors would understand what this meant. Furthermore, this did not pose a problem when the questionnaire was piloted. Both sections ask about the amount of Japanese used in these situations and the opinions participants have on the using their own language in English lessons. For example, on the teacher questionnaire in the teacher instruction section, this question is asked: “Do you use Japanese while teaching students”? However, in the group activity section, another question is asked: “Do you allow your students to speak Japanese during group activities”? This allowed the researcher to answer both research questions and compare results between the two.

3.4 Data Analysis

3.4.1 Inter-rater reliability

The researcher used content analysis to group responses from open-ended questions into different categories and themes (See Appendix 4). She did this by reading all responses and then grouping similar answers together. The researcher then met with two different colleagues (both applied linguistics graduate students) to decide which theme would fit best with each participant’s answer. Due to timing issues, one colleague worked on the teacher responses and the other on the student responses. The researcher discussed the themes and then went through each participant’s responses with the colleague. Once 100% agreement was reached,

the next question's response was looked at. During this process, some themes were deleted, and others added. This happened when the researcher and colleague couldn't agree on a theme and thought it would be best to add a new one. The themes that were not used were later deleted. The researcher and two colleagues came to 100% agreement on all responses for both questionnaires.

3.4.2 Analysis

First, the researcher converted close-ended quantitative questionnaire responses into numerical scores. Then, descriptive analyses were conducted on Excel. This included the mean, median, mode, and upper and lower confidence intervals for each question. Pivot tables were created between different variables to answer all three research questions (See Figure 2 for an Example). Pivot tables are used to "summarize data a large amount of data" (McFredies, 2010). A Chi-Square test was then calculated to determine the difference in percentages between variables. According to Cohen et al. (2000), using both closed-ended and open-ended questions increases the reliability of the test. Therefore, both types of questions were used and analyzed.

Figure 2 Example of a PivotTable

Count of teachers Row Labels	Column Labels		
	No, not really	Yes, sometimes	Grand Total
A little, I can communicate in simple sentences	1	3	4
No, not really	1	4	5
Yes, enough to have a conversation	2	14	16
Yes, fluently	1	4	5
Grand Total	5	25	30

Content analysis was used to analyze the open-ended questions' responses. The responses were recorded on Excel and the researcher observed similarities. Then, thematic groups were created per question and coded into numerical values (See Table 6 and Appendix 4). The researcher met with two colleagues to assign themes per each response in order to measure inter-rater reliability. 100% agreement was reached for both questionnaires on all responses. A scale reliability analysis was calculated on both questionnaires for the quantitative questions on Excel. Cronbach's alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of the questionnaires' items to determine if the scales are reliable and related to one another (i.e., the Likert type questions that form a "scale") (Bland & Altman, 1997). The teacher questionnaire's Cronbach's alpha was measured to be .69 and .93 for the student questionnaire. Although it is often reported that an alpha score of .7 and above is considered "acceptable", Barbera et al. (2021) state that there is "no standard, threshold, or criterion value for an acceptable alpha" and that researchers should "make a case for what information alpha is providing" (p. 258). Literature says that the alpha score is dependent on the length of the test (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). In other words, the fewer the test items, the lower the score will be. Furthermore, Cronbach's alpha is used to measure scaled questions (i.e., Likert) that have multiple responses (ex. Scale of 1-5) (Bonett & Wright, 2015). Therefore, the researcher concluded that considering the number of questions (18 and 15 respectively) and that some questions involved either a "yes" or "no" answer, the value is acceptable and a satisfactory reliability rate.

Table 6 *Thematic groups coded into numerical values*

Theme	Code
Rely on Japanese too much	1
Not “thinking in English”	2
Less immersive/Less exposure to English	3

Chapter 4- Results

The results from the teacher and student questionnaires are presented in this chapter. As discussed in Chapter 2 and 3, the term “translanguaging” was not used in these questionnaires to avoid confusion. Instead, the phrases “Japanese use” and “English Only” were used to distinguish between translanguaging and a monolingual approach. This chapter first discusses the teacher results, followed by student results, and lastly, a comparison of teacher and student results.

4.1 Teacher Results

The teacher questionnaire included four sections: demographics, teacher instruction, group activity, and translanguaging. The last three sections will be discussed below.

4.1.1 Teacher instruction

The first research question asked what EFL teachers and students in Japan think about translanguaging during teacher instruction. To answer the first part of this question, teachers were asked questions about Japanese use during teacher instruction. I define teacher instruction (in Japan) as the teacher instructing the class with minimal participation from students. To determine the amount of Japanese used by teachers during instruction, teacher participants were asked to report their Japanese use. The teachers could choose from using Japanese “all the time” to “not at all”. The results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7 *Teachers' reported Japanese use during instruction*

	<i>n</i>	%
Yes, all the time	0	0
Yes, sometimes	25	83.3
No, not really	5	16.6
No, not at all	0	0
I'm not sure	0	0

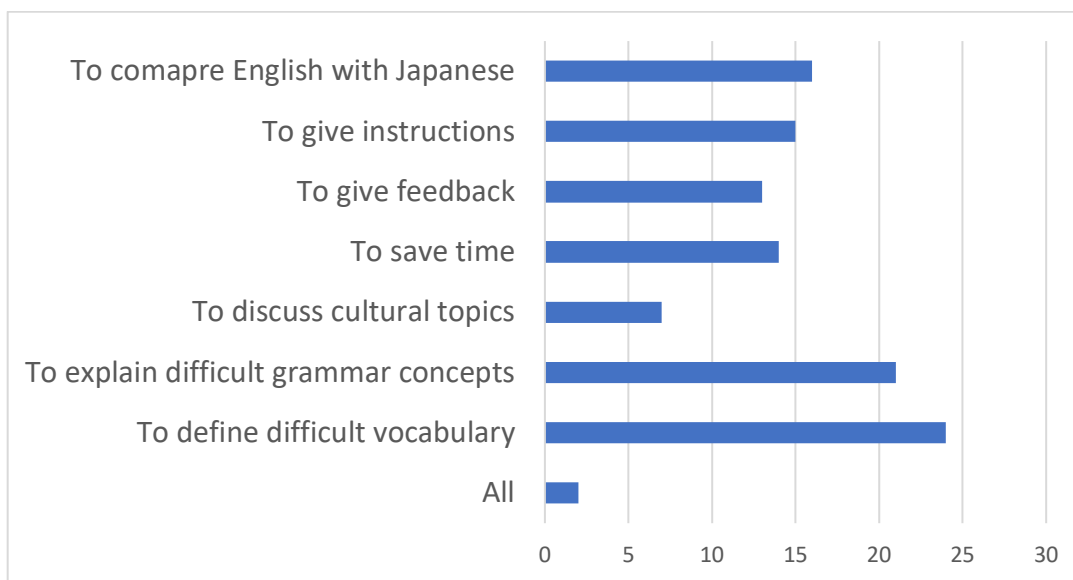
More than 80% of participants reported that they used Japanese sometimes during instruction, whereas only 16.6% said they did not really use it. It is interesting to note that the participants only chose two of five available responses. This could mean that teachers have a concrete idea of how much Japanese they use. The teachers were then asked, "Do you think using Japanese while teaching is beneficial for student learning?" (Table 8).

Table 8 *Teachers' opinion on Japanese use during instruction being beneficial for learning*

	<i>n</i>	%
I think so	15	50
It might be	14	47
I don't really think so	1	3
Not at all	0	0

According to the Merriam-Webster, *I think so* is used to “say that one believes that something is true” whereas *it might be* is used to “say something is possible”. Furthermore, Likert scale styled questions tend to have answers ordered by rank (ordinal scale), so the individual answers will differ in meaning this way (Wu & Leng, 2017). For these reasons, I believe that “I think so” is stronger than “it might be”. This means that more teachers (by 3%) believe that using Japanese during instruction is more beneficial than teachers who think that it’s *possibly* beneficial. However, almost all participants (97%) agreed that Japanese use during instruction is at least “possibly” beneficial to student learning. Only 3% reported that they did not think so, however none of the participants chose the response “not at all”. This is important, because it means that none of the teachers believed that Japanese use was not beneficial. Next, the teachers were asked what reasons Japanese use during teacher instruction would be beneficial for (Figure 3). Teachers were able to check all answers that applied to them.

Figure 3 Teachers' reported beneficial reasons for Japanese use during instruction



The four most common reasons that Japanese use was considered beneficial during teacher instruction were defining *difficult vocabulary*, *explaining difficult grammar concepts*, *comparing English with Japanese*, and *giving instructions*. 21% of teachers thought that Japanese use during instruction was beneficial for defining vocabulary, whereas only 6% of participants reported that Japanese use was beneficial for discussing cultural topics. Participants were also able to write their own responses under “other”. These responses included but are not limited to: “motivational talks”, “to strengthen teacher-student relationship”, “jokes”, and “class management”. This means that teachers were not only using Japanese to teach English, but also to build rapport with students. One participant in favor of Japanese use during instruction stated, “If all participants can understand the target of the lesson, thus leaving no one behind, it benefits collective work of the individual and the class”. Another teacher reported,

“It is often useful to allow low-proficiency learners to discuss an issue using their L1 as their L2 is insufficient for them to express themselves. One example is when learners are asked to discuss the best way to complete a task.”

The teachers were then asked a series of open-ended questions about their use of Japanese during instruction. They were asked these questions to get more feedback about their responses, unlike the closed-ended responses that required no further explanation. The first question asked why they did or did not use Japanese in their lessons. As this question was open-ended, the responses were categorized into themes. The researcher did this by examining the responses and grouping together ones that were similar. First, the responses were categorized into “use”, “don’t use”, and “it depends” in relation to Japanese use (Table 9). Next, the responses were grouped into more detailed themes that explained when teachers used Japanese (Figure 4 and Figure 5).

Table 9 *Use of Japanese during lessons by teachers*

	<i>n</i>	%
Use	17	57
Don’t use	9	30
It depends	4	13

Figure 4 *Reasons for use of Japanese in lessons*

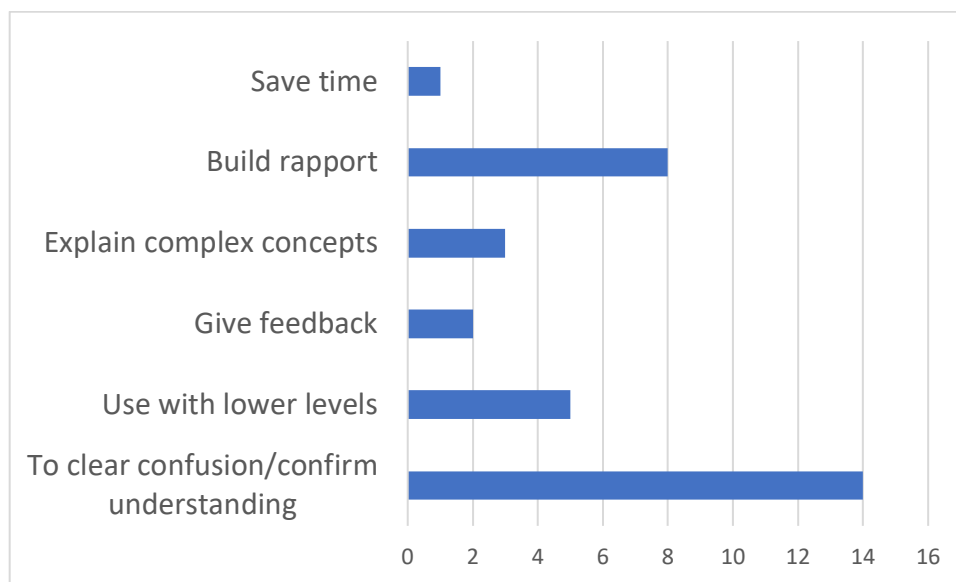
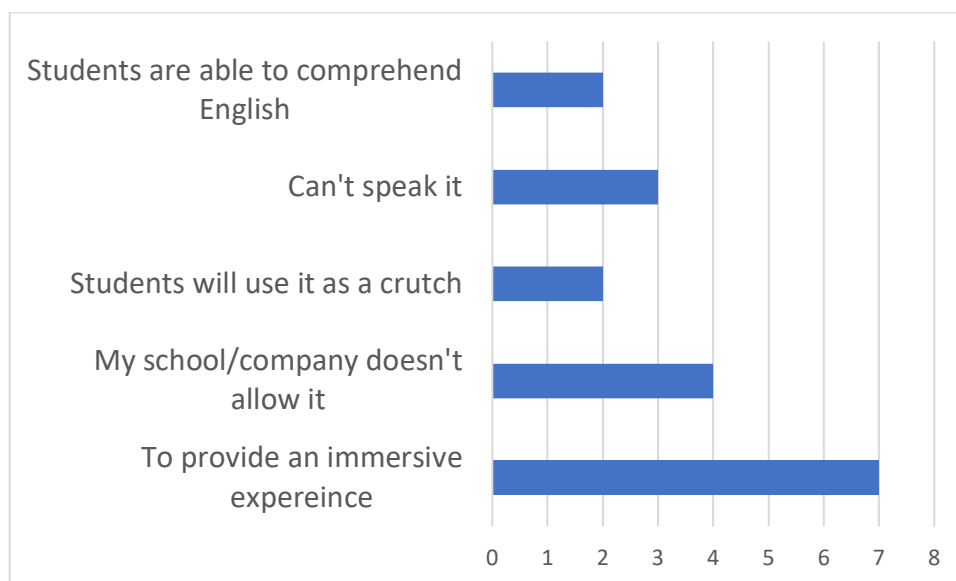


Figure 5 *Reasons for not using Japanese in lessons*



More than half of the teachers (57%) reported that they use Japanese during lessons. This aligns with the results from Table 5. The most common reason reported for using Japanese was to clear confusion and confirm understanding. The least common reported answer was to save time. 30% of teachers reported that they don't use Japanese in their lessons. The most

common reason for not using Japanese was to provide an immersive experience in the classroom. Not being able to speak Japanese along with school or company policies were also common reasons for using English Only. Furthermore, 13% of teachers reported that Japanese use depended on different circumstances and gave reasons for why they both use and don't use it in their lessons. This means that these teachers believed Japanese use was helpful, however they chose how and when they used it, which is a factor to consider when using translanguaging. For example, one teacher who believed that some Japanese is ok said,

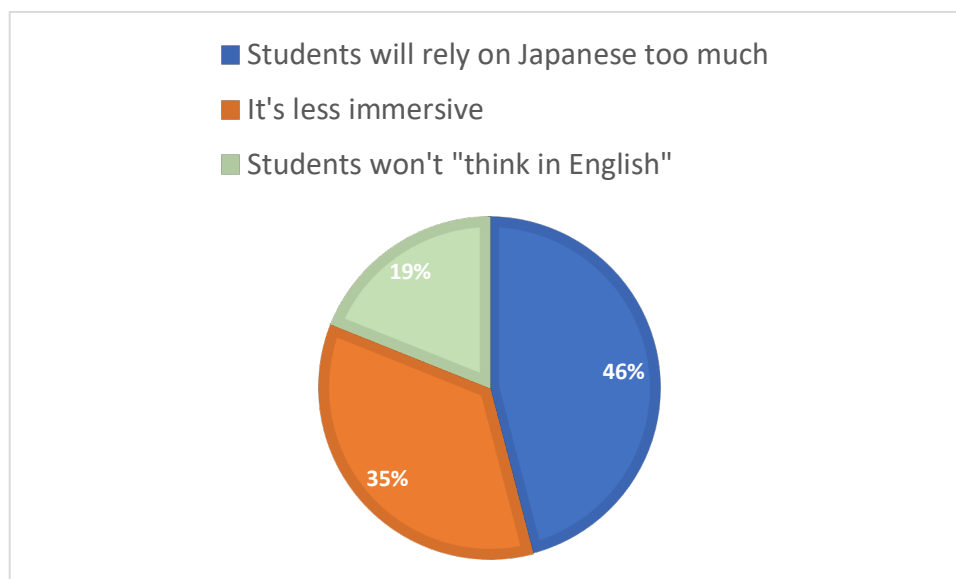
“Generally, I try to use easy English for everything I can. However, Japanese can be useful for all of the activities mentioned in question three, particularly when you have already explained in English a couple of times and still see confused students. I have also noticed that pep talks to students to boost motivation and certain jokes land better in the students' native language. Additionally, you can act as a role model to students and share with them the difficulties that you have faced and still face with language learning”.

Alternatively, some teachers believed it was better to use English Only. For example, another teacher said, “Sometimes I refrain from using Japanese, even when I am capable of saying things in the language. This is because I believe that the students are probably capable of understanding what I am saying in English”

Lastly, teachers were asked if there were any disadvantages to using Japanese in their lessons. Responses were first categorized into “yes”, “no”, and “it depends” (Table 10). After this, the “yes” and “it depends” responses were grouped into more detailed themes (Figure 6). These themes were created by looking at the data and categorizing similar responses together. The themes explain the reasoning for why teachers thought Japanese use was disadvantageous.

Table 10 Teachers' opinion on if there are disadvantages to using Japanese

	<i>n</i>	%
Yes	23	77.6
No	2	6.6
It depends	5	16.6

Figure 6 Teachers' reasons for Japanese use to be disadvantageous

Of all the teachers, 77.6% reported that Japanese use in their lessons could be disadvantageous. The most common reason reported was that students will rely on Japanese too much. Some teachers (16.6%) thought that using Japanese would be disadvantageous only in certain situations. A teacher who thought that Japanese use should be controlled stated, “An overreliance on the translation can sometimes cause an issue which is why the teacher needs

to carefully manage how much they use within the lesson.” Furthermore, another participant said, “I think it depends on the main purpose of the lesson, but there can be both disadvantages and advantages”. On the other hand, one participant pointed out, “I think [using Japanese] outweighs the disadvantages. Japanese students lack confidence when speak [sic] English. The fact that they can turn to Japanese when needed makes them feel more comfortable during the lesson”. This participant believed that the advantages outweighed the disadvantages concerning Japanese use.

Overall, the majority (83%) of teachers reported that they use Japanese during teacher instruction. However, in the open-ended question response, only 57% of teachers reported that they used Japanese during instruction, with 13% reporting that it “depended”. The most reported reason for using Japanese was *to clear confusion and confirm understanding*. The most common reasons for not using Japanese were *to provide an immersive experience in the classroom, lack of Japanese proficiency, and school or company policies*. Furthermore, almost all (97%) participants believed that using Japanese during instruction could be helpful. The four most common reasons that Japanese use was considered beneficial during teacher instruction were for *defining difficult vocabulary, explaining difficult grammar concepts, comparing English with Japanese, and giving instructions*. On the other hand, 77% of teachers believed that there were disadvantages to using Japanese during instructions. The most common reported reason for it being disadvantageous was that *students will rely on Japanese too much*. This section discussed the results from teachers’ responses about teacher instruction, including their answers from closed- and open-ended questions. The next section will present the teachers’ responses concerning group work activities.

4.1.2 Group activity

The second research question asked what EFL teachers and students thought about translanguaging during group work activities. To answer the first part of this question, teachers were asked questions about their opinion on Japanese use during students' group work activities. Group activity can be defined as any task completed by the students without the teacher's involvement. The responses to these questions are significant, because as discussed in Chapter 2 literature on translanguaging shows that students can benefit from using their own language when learning a new one. To discover the participants' rule on Japanese use during group activities, teachers were asked to report how much they allow their students to speak Japanese. As MEXT has implemented "English Only" rules in English classrooms in Japan, the researcher wanted to find out if the participants had their own rules about Japanese usage. This is presented in Table 11.

Table 11 Allowance of students' Japanese use by teachers

	<i>n</i>	%
All the time	3	10
Sometimes	18	60
Not really	8	27
Not at all	1	3
I'm not sure	0	0

Most of the teachers (70%) allowed their students to speak in Japanese during group activities, while 30% did not. None of the participants answered, "I'm not sure". Next, teachers were

asked if allowing students to use Japanese during group activities would help them understand the lesson better (Table 12).

Table 12 *Teachers' opinion on students using Japanese to help them understand the lesson*

	<i>n</i>	%
I think so	6	20
it might be	18	60
I don't really think so	5	17
Not at all	1	3

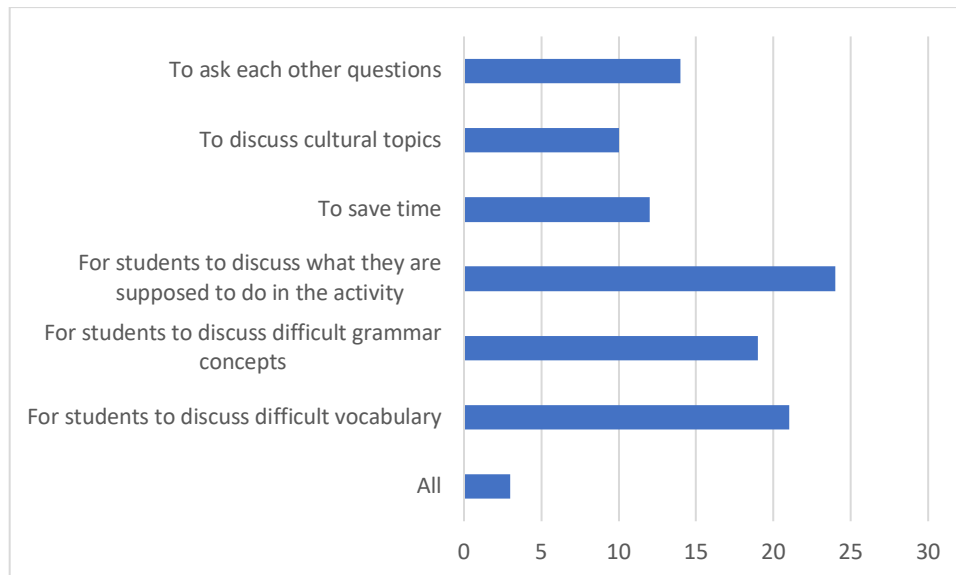
Many teachers (80%) thought that allowing students to use Japanese would help them understand the lesson better, whereas 20% of participants did not think it would help students understand the lesson better. It is interesting to note that 70% of teachers allowed Japanese use in group activities and 30% did not (Table 11). These results differ by 10% with the current question's results. Teachers were then asked if allowing students to use Japanese gave them permission to "slack off". The results are presented in Table 13.

Table 13 *Teachers' opinion on using Japanese to "slack off"*

	<i>n</i>	%
Yes, definitely	3	10
Yes, somewhat	15	50
No, not really	8	26.6
No, not at all	2	6.6
I'm not sure	2	6.6

More than half (60%) of teachers believed that letting students use Japanese during group activities gave them permission to slack off. 40% of teachers either did not think it did or were not sure. After this question, teachers were asked what reasons Japanese use would be beneficial for students during group activities (Figure 7). This was asked to find out if teachers believed that students translanguaging would be helpful for learning English.

Figure 7 Teachers' reported beneficial reasons for student Japanese use



The three most common reasons for Japanese use being beneficial during group activities were: *for students to discuss what they are doing in an activity, for students to discuss difficult vocabulary, and for students to discuss difficult grammar concepts*. Similar to Figure 1, only a small percentage of participants (3%) chose the response of “all”. This question also allowed teachers to write their own answers. These included, “structure-building for language activity”, “to plan and coordinate projects”, “to provide feedback”, and “to bridge the level gap between students”. These responses showed that the teachers believed Japanese use could be helpful not just to learn new concepts, but also for students to help each other and work together to learn their new language. This type of translanguaging is often seen in research as a useful tool (Turnbull, 2019; Tsuchiya, 2019). This means that the teachers’ responses were supported by translanguaging literature.

The teachers were then asked a series of open-ended questions related to students’ use of Japanese during group activities. The first question asked if Japanese use would get in the

way of English use. The answers were first categorized as “yes”, “no”, or “it depends” (Table 14). After that, they were grouped into more detailed themes that explained why or why not Japanese would get in the way of English (Figure 8 and 9).

Table 14 Teachers' opinion on Japanese getting in the way of English

	<i>n</i>	%
Yes	17	56.6
No	2	6.6
It depends	11	36.6

Figure 8 Teachers' reasons for why Japanese would get in the way of English

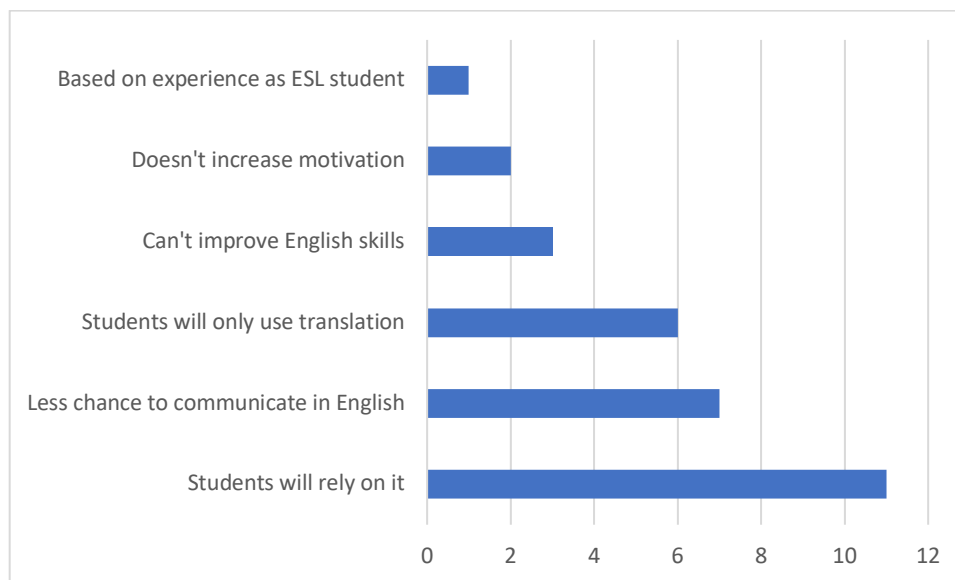
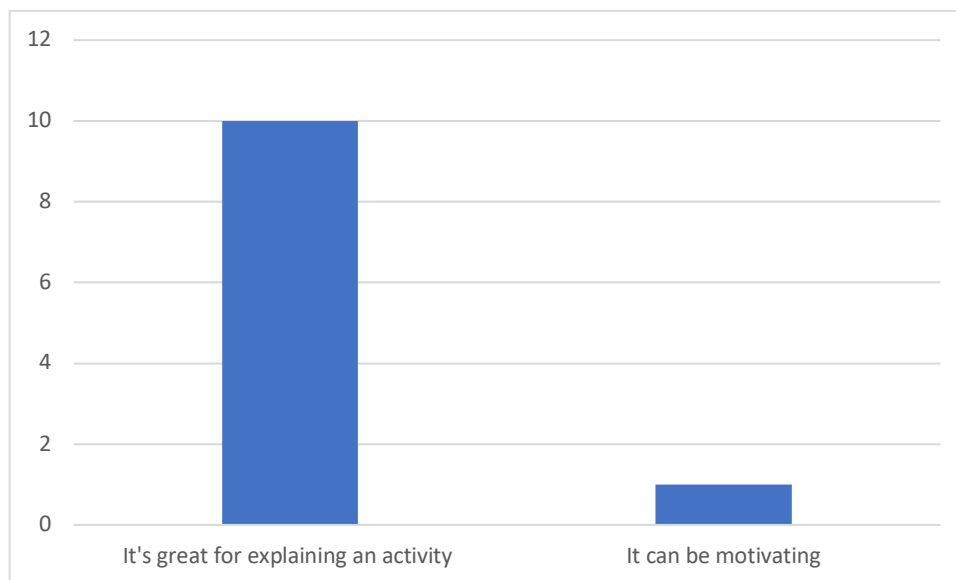


Figure 9 Teachers' reasons for why Japanese would not get in the way of English



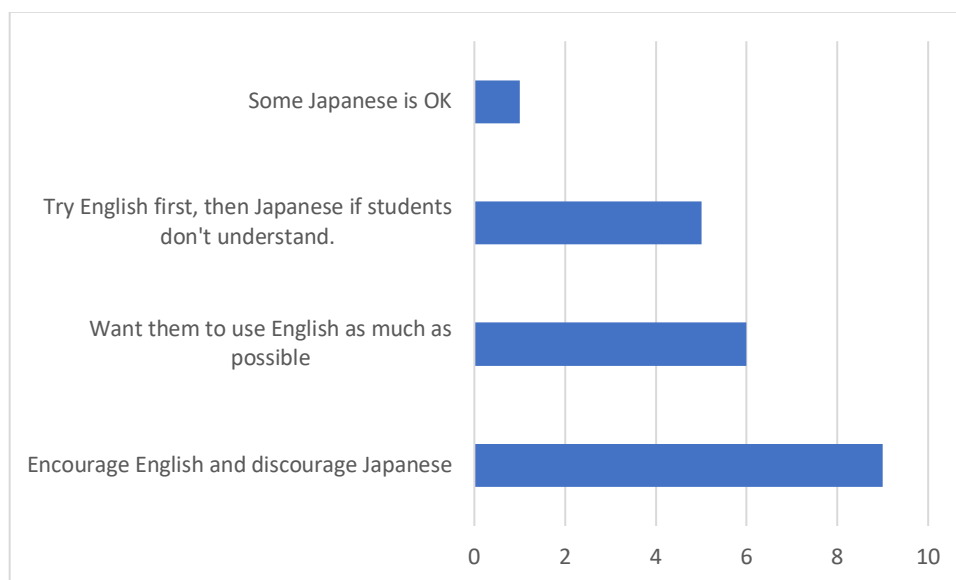
Out of the teachers, 36.6% reported that Japanese use would get in the way of English Only in certain situations. For example, one teacher stated: “It depends on how it's being used. If it is one student trying to help another understand I think it's ok, but if it was just a regular conversation then I would encourage them to use English”. Additionally, another teacher said, “It depends on the activity. Having students mentally prepare for an activity in their native language can be beneficial”. 56.6% of teachers believed that using Japanese would get in the way of English. Out of these teachers’ responses, the most common reason being that “students will rely on it”. One teacher stated that as an ESL learner, using their own language did get in the way of learning English in their experience. A few teachers (6.6%) reported that Japanese would not get in the way of English use. The reasons they reported were that Japanese use was great for explanation and that it can be motivating. It is interesting to note

that “motivation” was both reported under reasons for why Japanese would get in the way and also, why it wouldn’t.

Next, the teachers were asked if they have a rule on Japanese use during group activities and if so, what the rule is based on. The responses were first categorized as “yes”, “no”, and “it depends” (Table 15). Then responses were grouped into more detailed themes (Figure 10). Teachers were also asked if this rule was based on a lesson’s activity or proficiency level (Table 16).

Table 15 *If teachers have a rule on student Japanese use*

	<i>n</i>	%
Yes	6	20
No	16	53
It depends	8	27

Figure 10 Rule on student Japanese use**Table 16** What rule is based on

	<i>n</i>	%
Proficiency Level	4	33.3
Activity	1	8.3
Both	5	41.6
Neither	2	16.6

Only 20% of teachers reported that they had a rule on Japanese use during group activities, however 53% did not have any rule. The two most common rules were *encouragement of English* and *discouragement of Japanese*. Some of the teachers (27%) said that their rule depended on certain situations. For example, one teacher stated, “I don’t have a blanket rule,

but I strongly urge my higher-level students to speak only English”. Additionally, another teacher said, “I adapt based on class-by-class basis”. 33.3% of teachers reported that their rule is based on proficiency level, whereas only one teacher said that it depended on activity. Almost half of participants said their rule depended on both, and two participants said it was not dependent on either. Out of these two participants, one said that their rule was age dependent and that they were stricter with children. Lastly, teachers were asked if the benefits of Japanese use in group activities outweighed the disadvantages. The answers were categorized into “yes”, “no”, “it depends”, and “I’m not sure”. The results are presented in Table 17. Some of the responses fit into multiple categories, so the number of possible answers is greater than the number of participants.

Table 17 *Teachers' opinion if Japanese use in group activities is advantageous*

	<i>n</i>	%
Yes	17	40.4
No	7	16.6
It depends	13	30.9
I’m not sure	5	11.9

Only 16.6% of teachers thought that the benefits of Japanese use in group activities did not outweigh the disadvantages. Some reasons for this included distraction and less English exposure. One teacher said that it’s not beneficial “... unless the class has a specific curriculum to finish within a certain term, as it helps to save time”. 40.4% of participants thought that the

benefits did outweigh the disadvantages. For example, one teacher said “Japanese students lack confidence when speak English. The fact that they can turn to Japanese when needed makes them feel more comfortable during the lesson”. Other reasons included that it helps with understanding and that it’s great if balanced. Many teachers (30.9%) felt that it depended on the situation. This included student proficiency level, the content, the end goal, and the students in general. 11.9% of teachers were unsure if the benefits outweighed the disadvantages.

In conclusion, 70% of teachers let their students speak Japanese during group work activities. Furthermore, the majority of teachers (80%) believed that Japanese use during group work activities was helpful for students. The three most common reported reasons that teachers believed Japanese use was helpful were: *for students to discuss what they are doing in an activity, for students to discuss difficult vocabulary, and for students to discuss difficult grammar concepts*. On the other hand, 70% of teachers thought that Japanese use would allow students to “slack off” and another 56.6% believed that it would get in the way of English use. The most common reason being that “students will rely on Japanese”. However, some teachers believed that Japanese use by students wouldn’t get in the way of English use. The reasons they reported were that *Japanese use was great for explanations* and that *it can be motivating*. Some of the teachers (20%) said that they did have rules on Japanese use. The two most common reported rules were *encouragement of English* and *discouragement of Japanese*. Finally, 40.4% of teachers believed that Japanese use in group activities was advantageous, while 16.6% did not think so. To find out if teachers knew about translanguaging, the fourth

and final section on the teacher questionnaire asked about the method. This section will be discussed next.

4.1.3 Translanguaging

To find out if teachers knew about translanguaging, they were asked if they had heard the term before (Table 18), and if so, what they know about it. This was asked to see if their knowledge of translanguaging influenced what they thought about Japanese use during English lessons. However, Chi-Square tests performed resulted in no significant differences between the knowledge of translanguaging and both the amount of Japanese used in the classroom and opinion on if Japanese use was beneficial or not.

Table 18 *Teachers' reported knowledge of translanguaging*

	<i>n</i>	%
Yes	11	37
No	19	63

More than half (63%) of teachers reported that they did not know the term translanguaging. This signifies that the teachers did not know how the students' own language can be used to teach a new language. Furthermore, teachers may have concluded that any form of own language use followed a Grammar Translation Method, instead of a method that does not involve strict translation (such as translanguaging). 37% of participants said that they had heard the term before, however two of the participants said they did not know much, and one participant thought translanguaging meant "translation method". One of the participants said

they learned about translanguaging in their master's course, while others just gave definitions of translanguaging. Some of the definitions provided by the participants were:

“Using (switching between) more than one language in the classroom. It encourages students to use their full linguistic repertoire in order to develop communication skills”.

“I think it means using different languages in the classroom, often strategically.”

“It is the use of the resources available to students in learning a language. The main resource here is their mother tongue, so translanguaging encourages the use of the students' native to help them learn a language.”

“Basically, it's the practice of allowing students to use their native language in addition to the target language”.

These definitions provided by teachers show that they understood what translanguaging meant to at least some degree. It is important to note, though, that in the consent form signed by teachers, a brief definition of translanguaging was discussed. It was written as follows: “using all languages in a second language class to learn”. However, the definitions provided above give more detail and it can be assumed that the teachers knew about the term before completing the questionnaire and reading the consent form.

4.1.4 Comparison of teacher instruction and group activity

To see if there were any differences between the teachers' reported responses about teacher instruction and group activities, the results of four questions were compared. This is significant, because the researcher wanted to know if EFL teachers thought differently about translanguaging during different situations in the classroom. First the responses concerning

Japanese use during teacher instruction and group activity were compared (Figure 11 and Figure 12).

Figure 11 *Teachers reported use of Japanese during instruction*

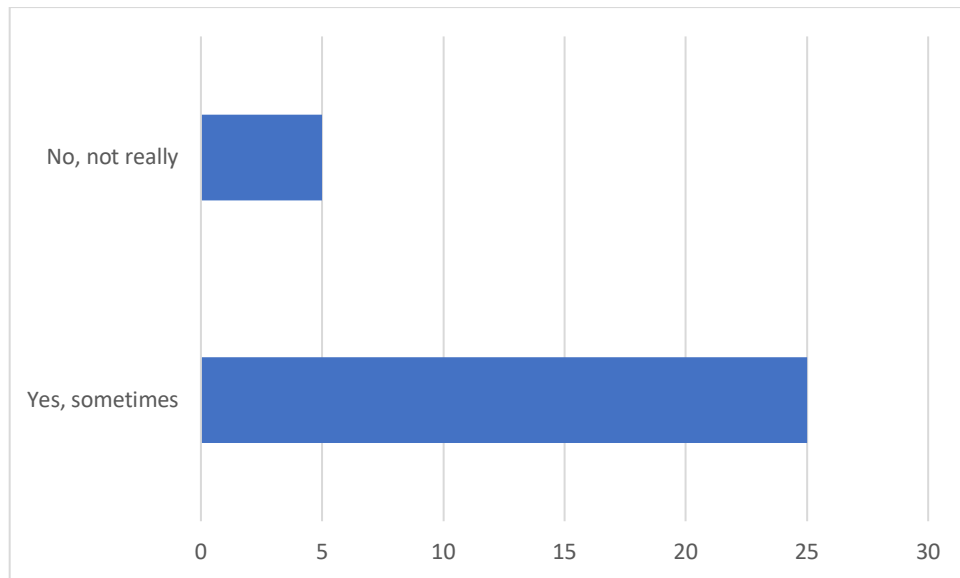
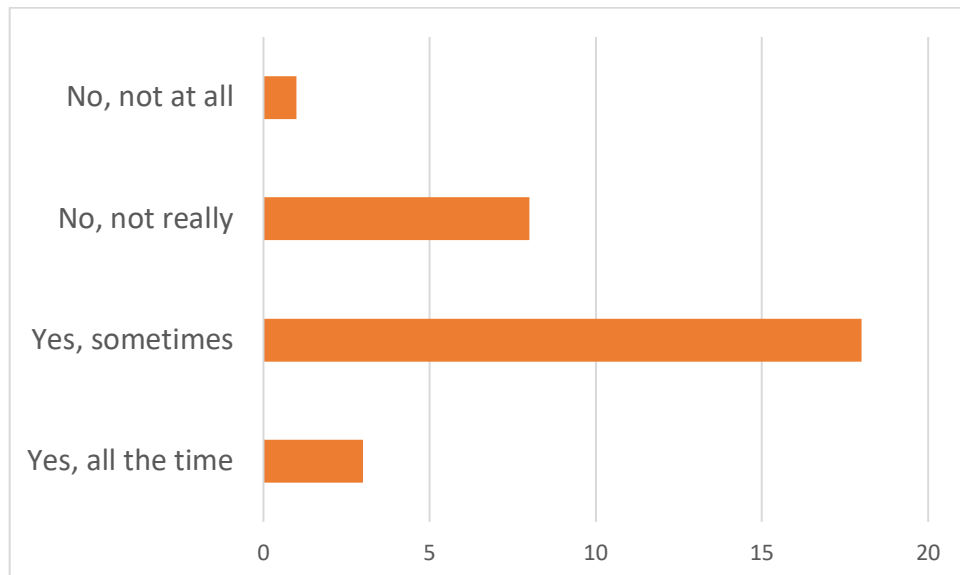


Figure 12 *Teachers reported allowance of Japanese by students in group activities*



Many (83%) teachers reported that they use Japanese at least sometimes during instruction, whereas 73% reported that they allowed their students to speak Japanese during group activities at least sometimes. Furthermore, a few teachers (17%) said that they didn't really use Japanese during instruction, while 27% of teachers said they didn't really allow students to use Japanese in group activities, along with 3% who said they don't allow it at all. These results signify that a slightly higher percentage of teachers use Japanese in teacher instruction than the amount they allow their students to use it in group activities. Additionally, only two responses were chosen for the "teacher instruction" question, however four of the responses were chosen for the "group activity question". This could mean that teachers allow their students to use Japanese either freely or not at all. While in contrast, teachers use Japanese during instruction either "sometimes" or "not really", which is more of an ambiguous response.

Next, the teachers' responses on if Japanese use was beneficial (or not) during teacher instruction and group activity were compared. These results are presented in Figure 13 and 14.

Figure 13 Teachers' reported opinion if Japanese during instruction was beneficial

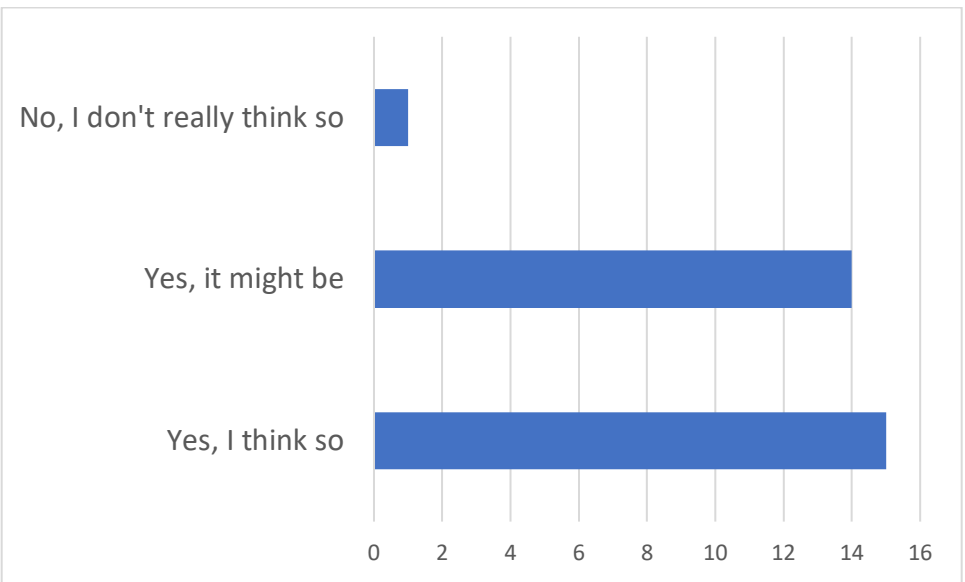
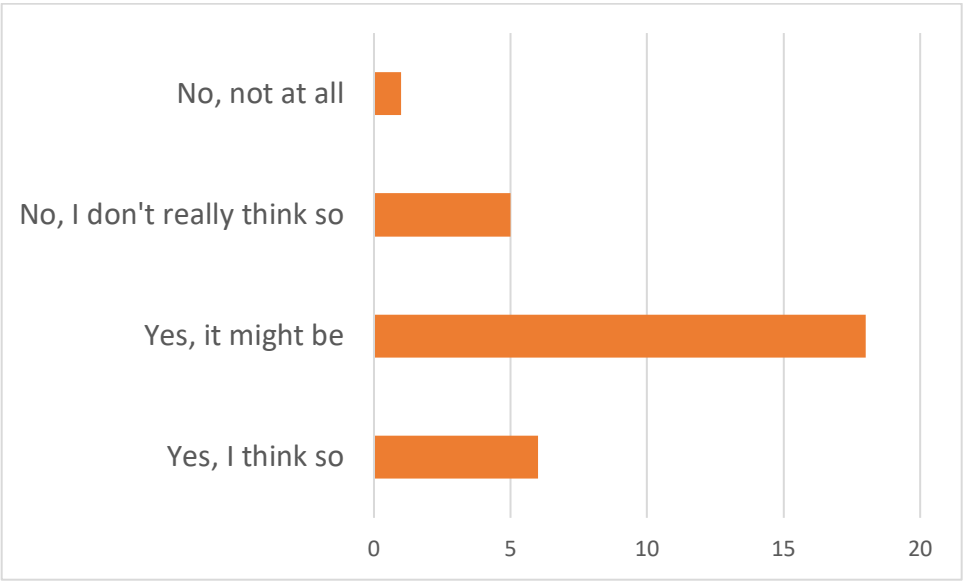


Figure 14 Teachers' reported opinion if Japanese during group work activities by students was helpful



Almost all of the teachers (97%) believed that Japanese use during teacher instruction could be at least somewhat beneficial, along with 80% who thought it could be at least somewhat

helpful in group work activities by students. Only 3% of teachers believed that it would not really be beneficial during instruction, whereas 20% thought it wouldn't be helpful during group activities. These results are similar to those of the previous question in that a higher percentage of teachers is in favor of Japanese use during teacher instruction than group activities. Again, this could be due to the fact that teachers think students would take advantage of a "Japanese is ok" rule instead of benefitting from it. Even so, though, a high percentage of teachers believe that Japanese use can be beneficial in both situations.

In conclusion, more teachers used Japanese during instruction than they allowed their students to use in group work activities. Additionally, more teachers believed that Japanese use was beneficial during teacher instruction than they believed it was helpful during group work activities. However, overall, a high percentage of teachers allowed Japanese in both situations and believed it to be helpful. This means that teachers in this study believe that own language use can be used as a tool to learn a new language.

4.2 Student Results

The student questionnaire included four sections: demographics, teacher instruction, group activity, and three language skills. The last three sections will be discussed below.

4.2.1 Teacher instruction

The first research question asked what EFL teachers and students in Japan think about translanguaging during teacher instruction. To answer the second part of this question, students were asked questions about Japanese use during teacher instruction. To find out the amount of Japanese used in their lessons, student participants were asked if their teachers

used Japanese during instruction. The choices included usage of Japanese “all the time” to “not at all”. These findings are presented in Table 19.

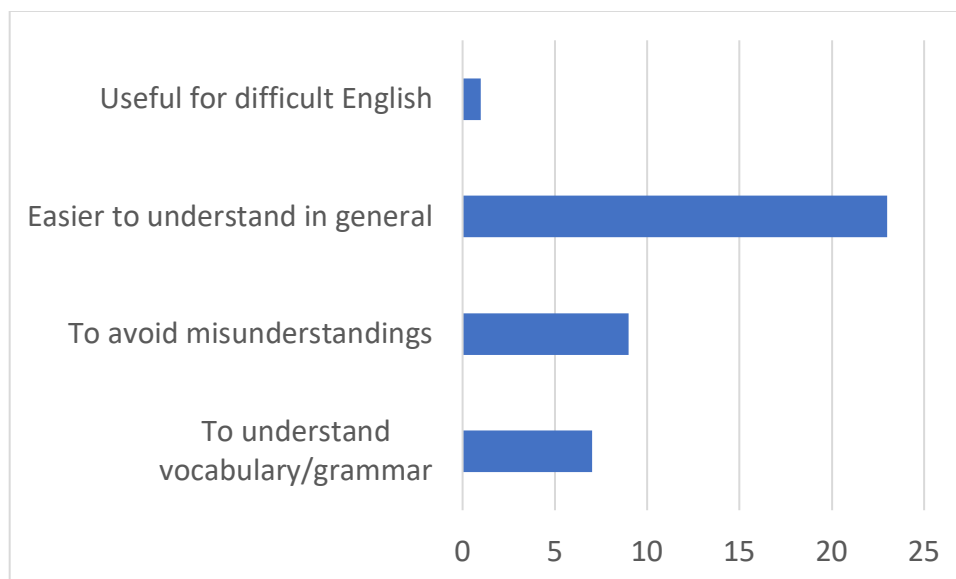
Table 19 *Students' reported Japanese use by teacher*

	<i>n</i>	%
All the time	7	19
Sometimes	15	41
Not really	13	35
Not at all	2	5
I'm not sure	0	0

Out of the students, 60% reported that their teacher uses Japanese during their instruction, while 40% said they did not. None of the participants chose the answer “I’m not sure”, indicating that the answer to this question was very straightforward. It is important to note that the teachers that students reported about were not the ones found in this research, but their own teacher who did not take part in this study. Next, the students were asked if Japanese usage by their teacher was helpful (Table 20). They were also asked to explain their reasonings in an open-ended question. These answers were categorized into different themes that explained why Japanese use by the teacher is helpful (Figure 15).

Table 20 *Students' opinion on if teacher Japanese use is helpful*

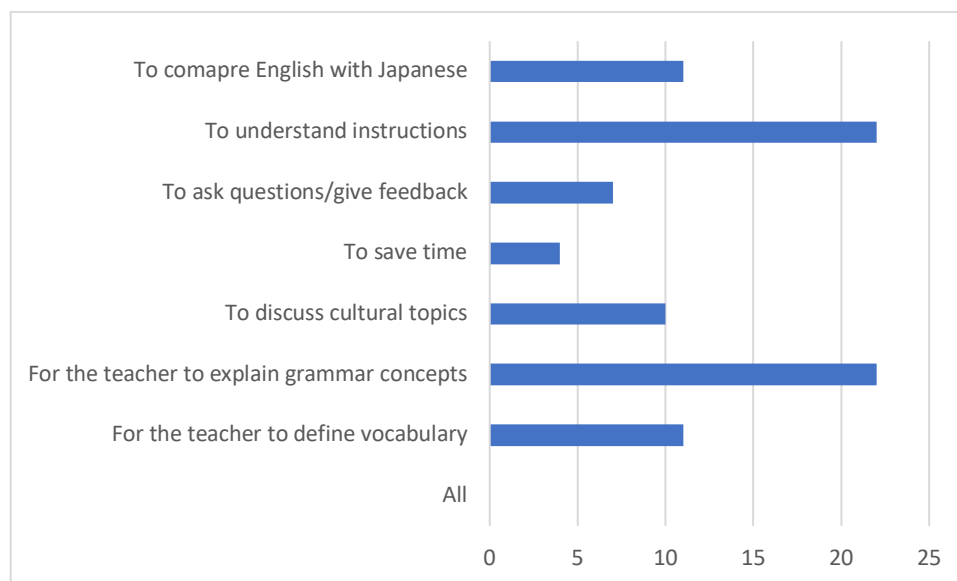
	<i>n</i>	%
Yes, definitely	11	30
Yes, somewhat	22	59
No, not really	3	8
No, not at all	1	3
I'm not sure	0	0

Figure 15 *Reported reasons to why Japanese usage by teacher is helpful*

More than half of the students (59%) thought that Japanese used by the teacher was somewhat helpful and 30% thought that it definitely was helpful. Only 11% thought that it was not helpful, and none of the participants were unsure. The most common reported reason for Japanese use being helpful was that the lesson was “easier to understand in general”. A few students gave reasonings for why they did not think it was helpful. These included “分からないことがある

とき、英語で説明を受けるほうが自分のためになる” (When there’s something I don’t understand, an English explanation is better for me [to improve]) and “自分で理解しようとする力が身に付かないと思うから” (Because I think I won’t learn to try and understand for myself). The students were then asked what reasons Japanese use during instruction would be most beneficial for learning (Figure 16).

Figure 16 Students' reasons for Japanese use being beneficial during instruction



The most common reasons that students thought Japanese use was beneficial during instruction were to *understand instructions* and *understand grammar explanations*. None of the students chose all the responses. One student wrote in the “other” column that Japanese use was beneficial for explaining English proverbs. None of the other participants wrote responses in the “other” column.

In conclusion, 60% of students reported that their teacher used Japanese during teacher instruction, whereas almost all participants (89%) thought that Japanese used by the

teacher was helpful. Common reported reasons for this included that *(the lesson is) easier to understand in general, to avoid misunderstandings, to understand grammar/vocabulary, and that it's useful for difficult English*. 11% of the students thought that Japanese used by the teacher was not helpful. Students expressed that they would like to try and understand for themselves, and that English Only was helpful for their English level improvement. Finally, students were asked to report what reasons Japanese use by the teacher would be beneficial. The most common reasons that students thought Japanese use was beneficial during instruction were *to understand instructions and understand grammar explanations*. This section discussed results related to teacher instruction. The next section will discuss students' results concerned with group activities.

4.2.2 Group Activity

The second research question asked what EFL teachers and students thought about translanguaging during group work activities. To answer the second part of this question, students were asked questions about their opinion on Japanese use by students during group work activities. To find out how much Japanese was used during group activities, students were asked to report their Japanese use. These results are presented in Table 21.

Table 21 *Students' reported use of Japanese during group activities*

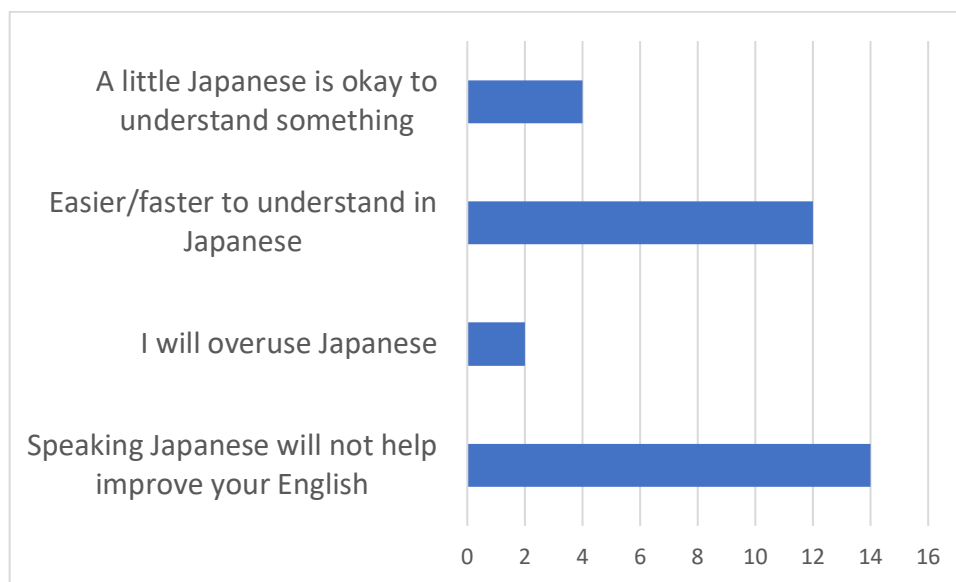
	<i>n</i>	%
All the time	9	24
Yes, sometimes	18	49
Not really	7	19
Not at all	2	5
I'm not sure	1	3

More than half (73%) of the students reported they used Japanese during group activities, whereas 24% said they did not. One student responded that they were unsure. Next, the students were asked if Japanese use during group activities helped them understand the content of the lesson better (Table 22). The students were also asked to explain their reasonings in an open-ended question. These responses were categorized and grouped into themes (Figure 17).

Table 22 *Students' reported opinion on Japanese use during group activities being helpful*

	<i>n</i>	%
Yes, definitely	6	16
Yes, somewhat	11	30
No, not really	17	46
No, not at all	1	3
I'm not sure	2	5

Figure 17 *Reasons for Japanese use being beneficial (or not) in group activities*



About half (49%) of students said that they did not think Japanese use was helpful during group activities. Reasons included that they would overuse Japanese, and that speaking Japanese would not help improve their English. 46% of students reported that Japanese use during group activities would be beneficial. These students gave reasons such as “レッスンの内容と自分の認識が合っているかを確認する場合...” (To make sure my own understanding matches with the contents of the lesson) and “コミュニケーションを取れるから” (so I can communicate [easier]). Two of the students were unsure if Japanese use was beneficial or not in group activities.

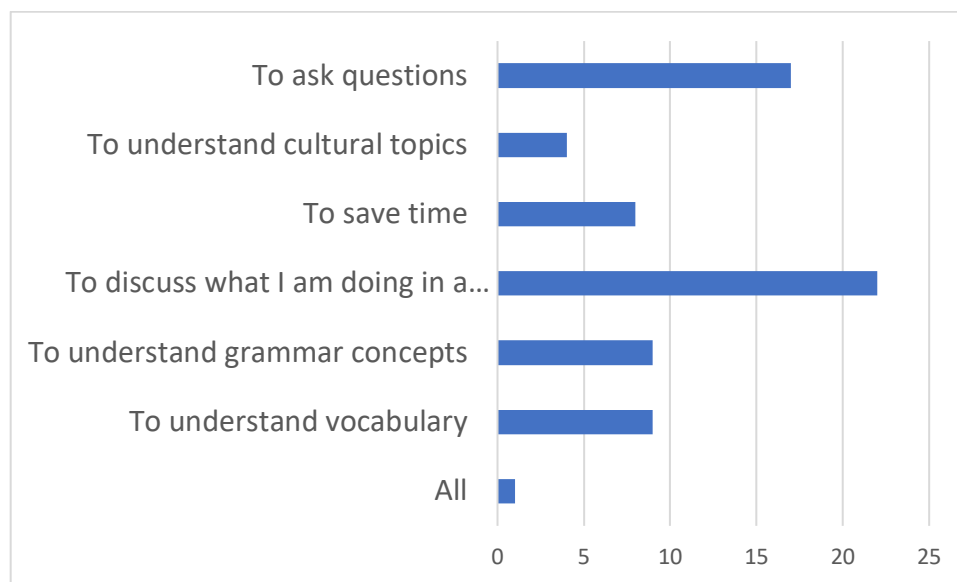
The students were then asked it would be less stressful if their teacher allowed Japanese use during group activities. The findings are shown in Table 23.

Table 23 *Students' reported opinion if Japanese use in group activities would be less stressful*

	<i>n</i>	%
Yes, definitely	9	24
Yes, somewhat	16	43
No, not really	8	22
No, not at all	2	5
I'm not sure	2	5

The majority of students (67%) believed that using Japanese in group activities would be less stressful. 22% of participants thought it wouldn't really be less stressful, whereas only 5% reported it wouldn't at all. Another 5% of students reported that they were unsure. Last, students were asked what for what reasons Japanese use in group activities would be most beneficial (Figure 18).

Figure 18 Students' reported reasons for Japanese use being beneficial in group activities



The most common reasons for Japanese use being beneficial in group activities were to *discuss what we are doing in an activity* and to *ask questions*. One of the participants chose all reasons for this question. Furthermore, two students provided their own reasons for this question: “単語・文法以外で、文章のニュアンスが相手に伝わっていないとき、他に良い表現がないか意見を聞きたいと” (Besides vocabulary and grammar, I want to hear opinions about if there are better expressions when the person you are speaking to doesn't understand what you are trying to say) and “英語で話してみても相手に伝わらなかった場合” (If the person I'm talking to doesn't understand what I'm saying in English).

To conclude this section, the majority of students (73%) reported that they used Japanese during group activities, however about half of the students (49%) thought that using it wouldn't be beneficial. Reported reasons for it not being beneficial included that they would overuse Japanese, and that speaking Japanese would not help improve their English. On the

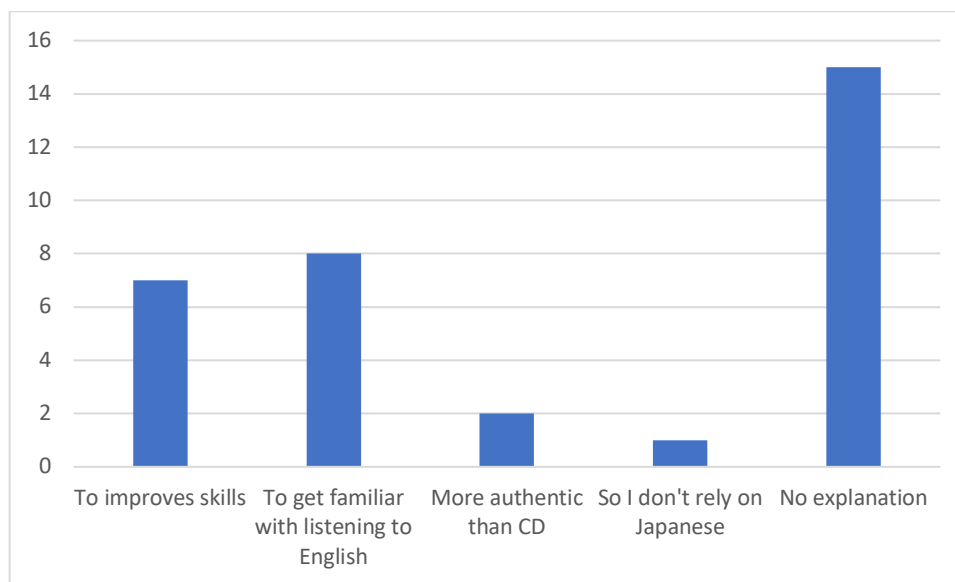
other hand, 46% of students reported that Japanese use during group activities would be beneficial. Students reported that Japanese use would make communication easier and allow them to check if they understood the lesson's contents correctly. Additionally, many students (67%) believed that using Japanese in group activities would be less stressful. Students also reported reasons that Japanese use during group activities would be beneficial. The most common reported reasons for Japanese use being beneficial in group activities were to *discuss what we are doing in an activity* and to *ask questions*. The section before this and the current section discussed student results related specific situations in the classroom. However, the next section discusses results related to three language skills and translanguaging.

4.2.3 English Only versus use of both languages

The first and second research questions asked about translanguaging during teacher instruction and group activities. To further understand what students thought about using Japanese versus using only English in English lessons, participants were asked in open-ended questions about different English skills. First, students were asked about listening skills. Answers were first grouped into three responses: "Yes", "no", and "a little Japanese is okay" (Table 24). Then, the "yes" responses were categorized into more detailed themes (Figure 19)

Table 24 Students' opinion if English Only was best for listening skills

	<i>n</i>	%
Yes	29	78
No	1	3
A little Japanese is okay	5	14
No response	2	5

Figure 19 Reasons that students thought English Only was best for listening skills

The majority of participants (78%) thought that an English Only lesson style was best for improving listening skills, 3% did not think it was best, and 14% reported that a little Japanese was okay to use. A few of the participants (5%) did not leave a response to this question. Furthermore, as can be seen Figure 31, most of the “yes” responses did not come with an explanation. However, the most popular reasons for English Only being thought of as best was

“to improve skills” and “to get familiar with listening to English”. The student who did not think it was best gave the reasonings of:

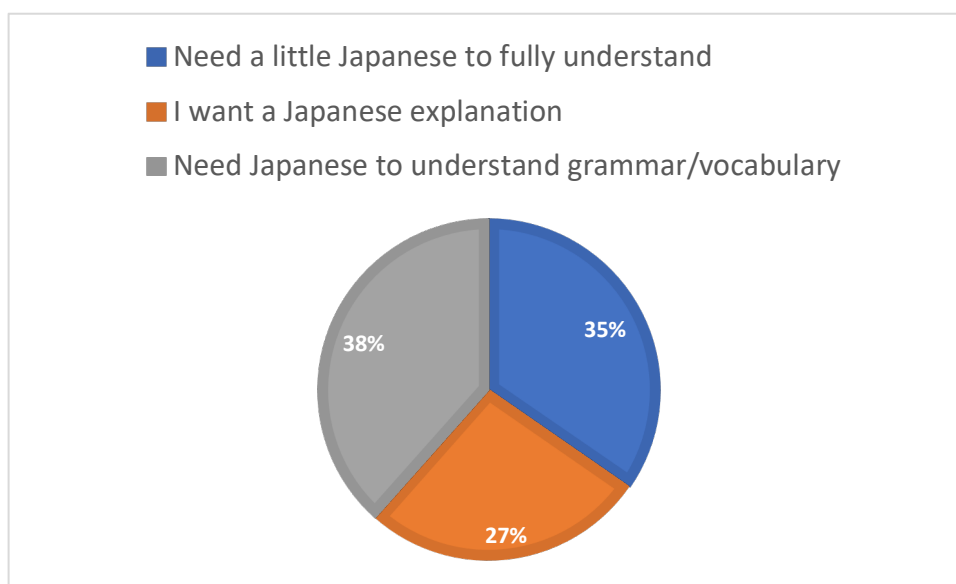
“ベストなのは日本語も使うべきで、理由はついていけなくなったり、ネイティブの発音が聞き取れずに授業が進んでしまったりしてしまい授業に対する意欲が低下してしまうため” (It’s best to use Japanese as well, because if you can’t keep up and if you miss something the native speaker says the class will go on and you will lose motivation).

The participants who responded that a little Japanese is okay to use gave reasons such as:

“ときどき、日本語を使うのが良いと思います。9割は英語で、残りの1割は日本語で説明するなどが良いのかなと思います” (I think it’s good to use Japanese sometimes. I think an explanation in 90% English and the remaining 10% in Japanese is best) and “「英語だけのレッスンが」ベストだと思いますが「日本語で」単語の説明もしてもいいと思う” (I think [an English Only lesson] is best, but I think it would be okay to explain vocabulary [in Japanese] as well). Next, students were asked if they thought an English Only lesson was best for writing skills. The answers were first grouped into the responses “yes” or “no” (Table 25). Then, the responses for the “no” responses were categorized into more detailed themes (Figure 20).

Table 25 Students' opinion if English Only was best for writing skills

	<i>n</i>	%
Yes	13	35
No	21	57
No response	3	8

Figure 20 Reasons that students thought a mix of English and Japanese was best for learning writing skills

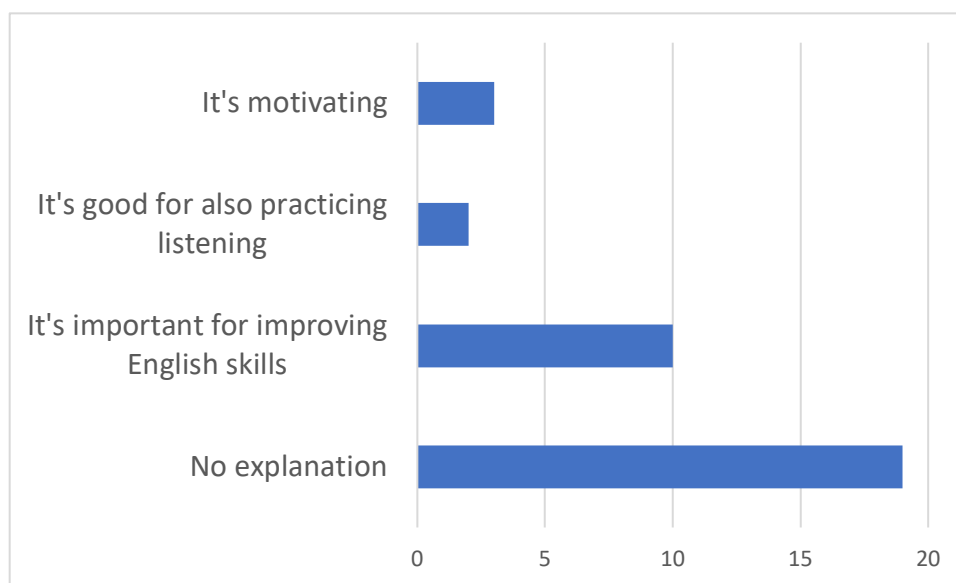
57% of participants did not think an English Only type of lesson was best for learning English writing skills, 35% thought it was, and 8% did not give a response. The most popular reported reasons for why an English Only lesson was *not* best for writing skills were “I need a little Japanese to fully understand” and “I need Japanese to understand grammar and vocabulary”. The students who thought English Only was best gave reasons such as: “レッスンに関する説明が理解できる範囲の英語であれば有効であると思う” (I think it’s effective if the English is

within the range that the explanation about the lesson can be understood) and “リスニングができてライティングができるようになるので、英語だけのレッスンはベストだと考えます” (I think it’s the best idea to use only English during class, because you can practice listening and writing English). One student that was also in favor of an English Only lesson for writing skills said, “ベストだとは思いますが、理解できない時だけ授業後に日本人の先生に聞くのもあり (I think [an English Only lesson] is best, but when you don’t understand something it’s okay to ask a Japanese teacher after class). Next, students were asked if an English Only lesson style was best for learning speaking skills. First the answers were categorized into “yes” and “somewhat” (Table 26). Then they were grouped into more detailed themes (Figure 21).

Table 26 *Students' opinion if English Only was best for speaking skills*

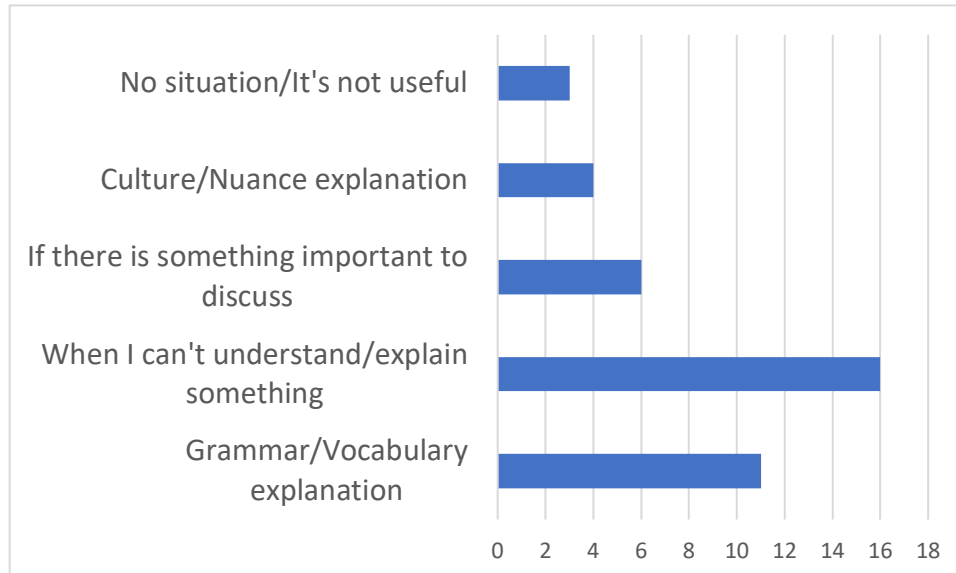
	<i>n</i>	%
Yes	32	86
Somewhat	1	3
No response	4	11

Figure 21 Reasons that students thought English Only was best for speaking skills



All of the participants thought that an English Only style of lesson was best for improving speaking skills, with one student who thought that a little Japanese would be okay. The most common reason was that “it’s important for improving English skills”. The student who thought that some Japanese would be okay to use said, “意味を理解するための日本語は許されるか、他は許されない” (To understand the meaning of some things I think using Japanese is okay, but not for anything else). Next, the students were asked in what situation would Japanese use be best for learning. The responses were categorized into themes and are presented in Figure 22.

Figure 22 *Situations where use of Japanese during a lesson would be beneficial*



Many students ($n=16$) thought that Japanese use was best for when they couldn't understand or explain something in English. Other students thought it would be beneficial for a grammar or vocabulary explanation and if there was something important to discuss. Three of the participants reported that there was no situation where Japanese use would be beneficial. One student didn't provide a situation of when it would be best, but instead said, “便利だけど、英語の力が伸びなくなる” (it's convenient [to use Japanese], but it doesn't improve your English).

In conclusion, the majority of students believed that an English Only type of lesson was best for improving listening (78%) and speaking (86%) skills. Students believed that in order to improve their English proficiency level, it would be best not to use Japanese. A few students, however, did believe that using Japanese would be “OK”. Students expressed that a few occasional Japanese words were okay to use for explanations. Additionally, more than half

(57%) of the students believed that Japanese was necessary for improving writing skills. These students believed that they needed Japanese to fully understand the lessons' contents. Finally, students reported that Japanese use would be beneficial for understanding concepts, grammar/vocabulary explanations, important discussions, and cultural explanation. Only three participants believed that there was no situation in which Japanese would be best to use. This section discussed results pertaining to students' opinions on using Japanese or English Only for different types of learning skills. The next section will compare the students' responses between translanguaging during teacher instruction and group activities.

4.2.4 Comparison of teacher instruction and group activities

To see if there were any differences between the students' reported responses about teacher instruction and group activities, the results of four questions were compared. First the responses concerning Japanese use during teacher instruction and group activity were compared (Figure 23 and Figure 24).

Figure 23 *Students' reported Japanese use by their teacher*

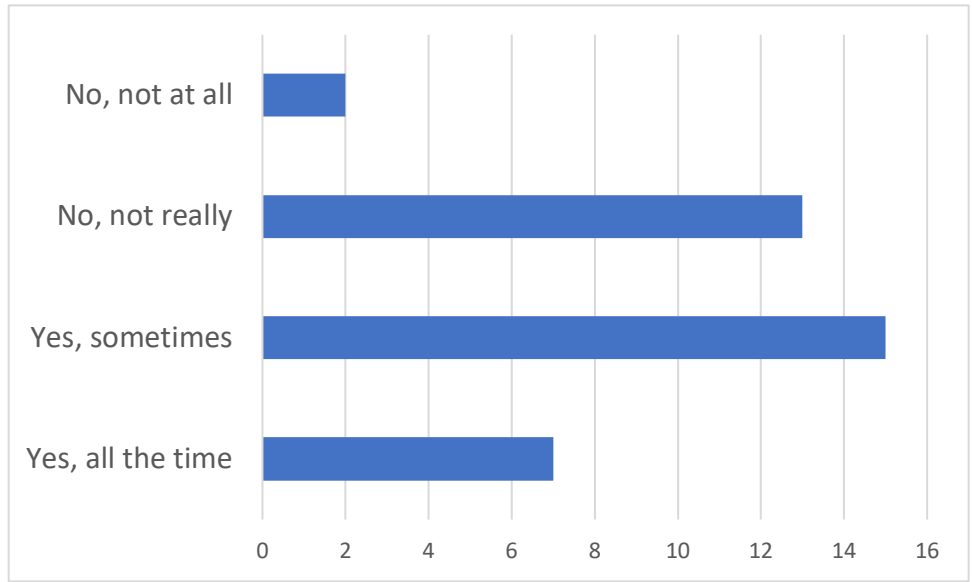
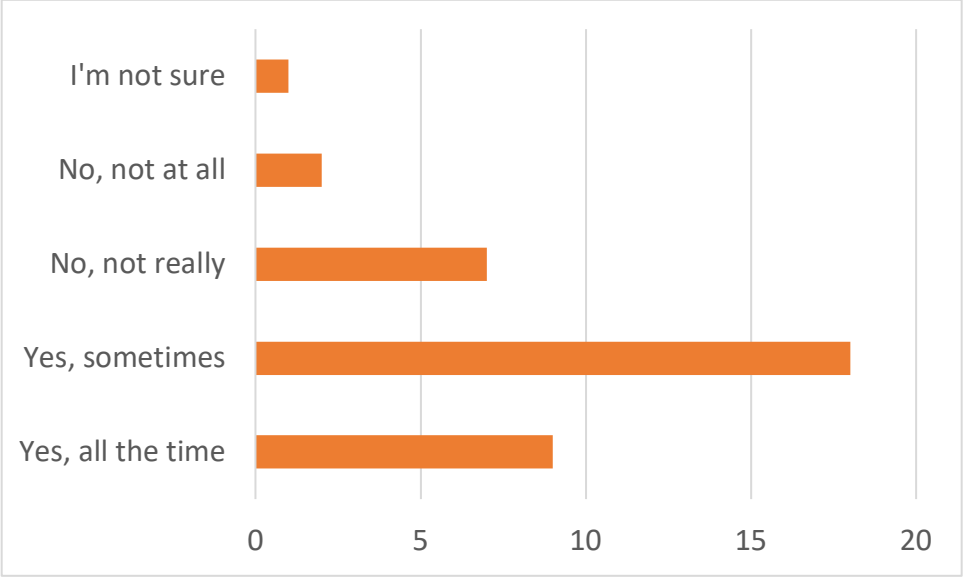


Figure 24 *Students' reported use of Japanese during group work activities*



Many (60%) of the students reported that their teacher uses Japanese during teacher instruction, along with 73% who said they use Japanese during group work activities. This indicates that in group activities, students believe they use Japanese more than their teacher

does during instruction. Although a slightly higher percentage of students reported Japanese use during group activities than during teacher instruction, the same number of students (5%) chose “not at all” for both categories. One student reported “I don’t know” for Japanese use during group work activities, however that answer was not chosen for teacher instruction. This could be because the student was unsure of what “Japanese use” meant and if it meant for simply communicating with peers or using it to do work together.

Next the students’ responses on if Japanese use was beneficial during teacher instruction and group activity were compared (Figure 25 and 26).

Figure 25 *Students' reported opinion if Japanese during instruction was beneficial*

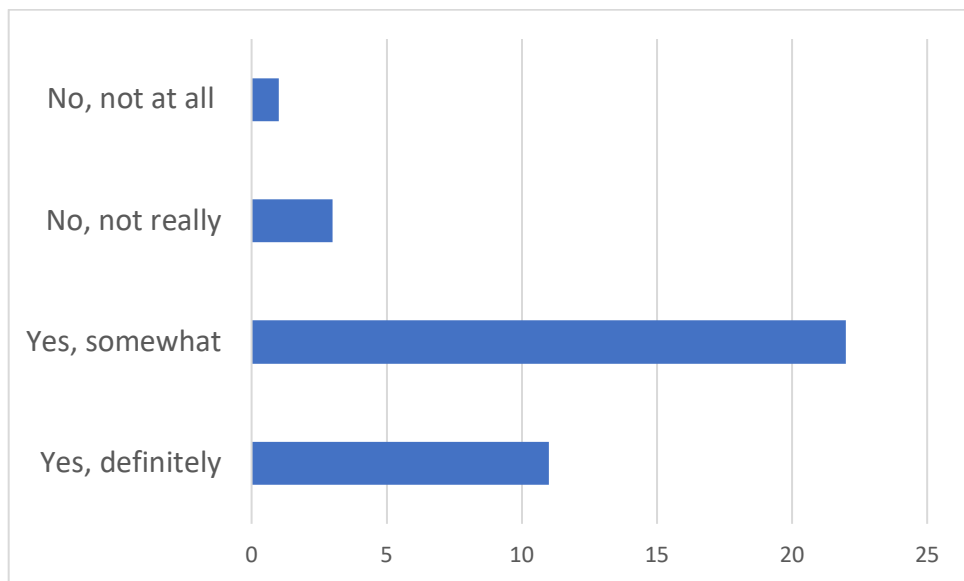
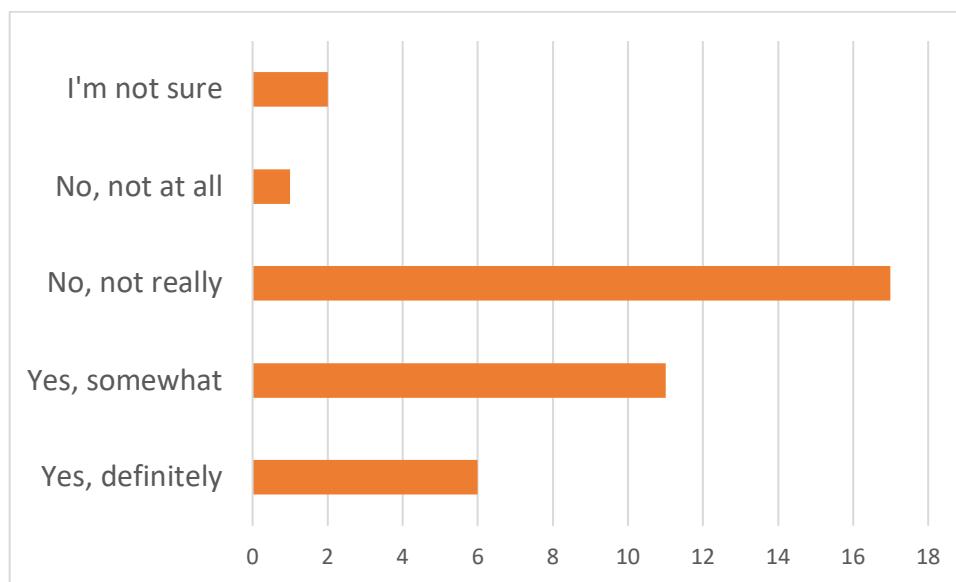


Figure 26 *Students' reported opinion if Japanese during group activity was beneficial*



The majority of students (89%) believed that Japanese use during teacher instruction was beneficial to learning, whereas only 46% of students reported that it was beneficial during group work activities. This could be because students are concerned that using Japanese will interfere with their time to practice speaking in English. It could also be due to the fact that students believe their teacher won't slack off when teaching, however they might if given the opportunity to speak in Japanese. 5% of the students reported that they were unsure if Japanese use would be beneficial during group work activities, however this response was not chosen for teacher instruction. This signifies that students may not understand if there are benefits to speaking Japanese to each other in an English lesson.

To conclude, a higher percentage of students reported that their teacher used Japanese, and that Japanese was beneficial during teacher instruction, than what was reported in group work activities. Students also reported that they were unsure about Japanese use and Japanese being beneficial during group work activities. It is possible that students believe that if they use

Japanese, they won't be able to improve their English. Furthermore, they may believe that their teacher would not use Japanese unless to help students in class.

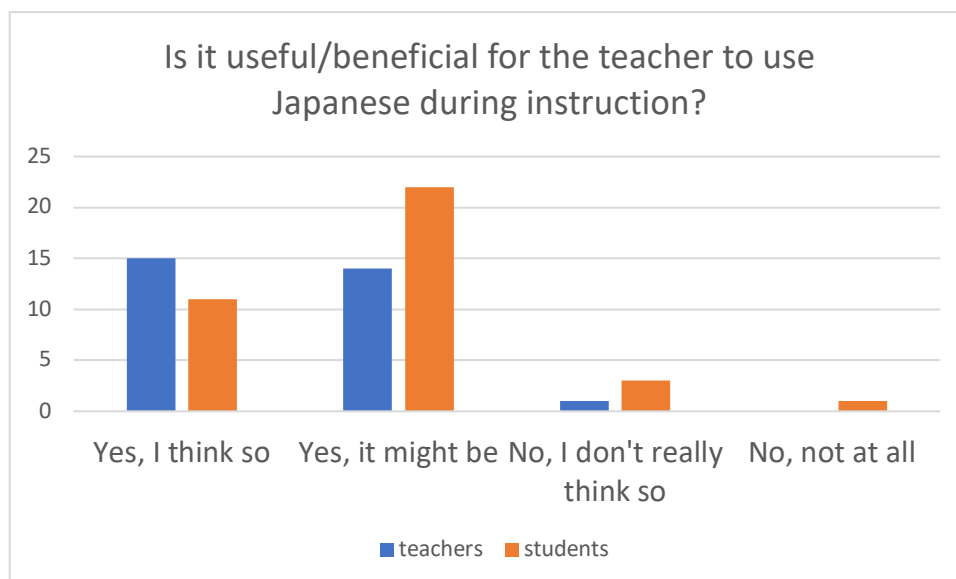
4.3 Comparison of teacher and student results

The third research question asked if there were any differences between the teachers and students' responses. To determine this, the two groups' responses were compared for both teacher instruction and group activities. The results are discussed in the sections below.

4.3.1 Teacher instruction

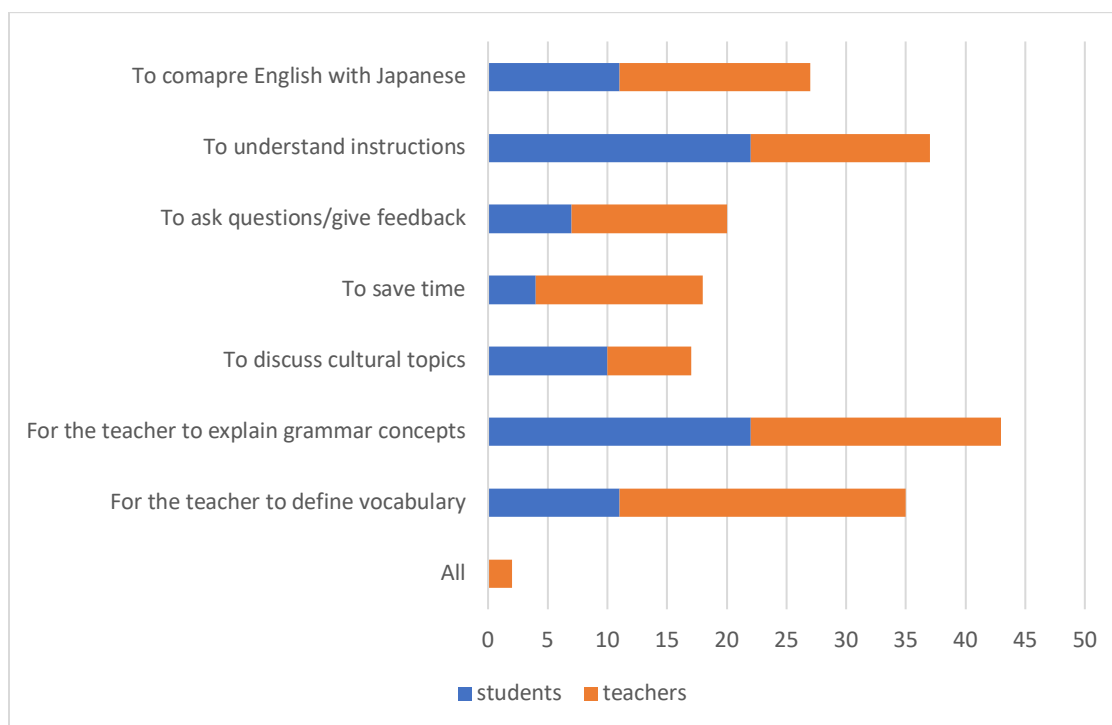
The teachers' and students' responses on opinions of Japanese use during instruction were compared to determine if there were any differences between the two groups. First, responses were compared on if participants thought that Japanese use during teacher instruction was beneficial or not (Figure 27). This was to find out what teachers and students thought about translanguaging used by the teacher and if their opinions are different or not.

Figure 27 Comparison of teacher and student responses on Japanese use during teacher instruction



More than half of both students and teachers (53.7%), responded that Japanese use during teacher instruction might be (or is somewhat) beneficial. Similarly, only a small percentage (5.9%) of teachers and students responded that Japanese use during teacher instruction isn't really helpful. One student responded that Japanese use during instruction was not helpful at all, whereas this answer was not selected by any of the teachers. A Chi-Square test was conducted to determine if there were any significant differences. The p value was .716 indicating that there were no significant differences between the two groups of participants. This suggests that the teachers' and students' opinions on translanguaging being helpful during teacher instruction were not different. Next, the reported reasons for why Japanese use is beneficial during instruction were compared between teachers and students (Figure 28).

Figure 28 Teachers' and students' reported reasons for Japanese use being beneficial during instruction

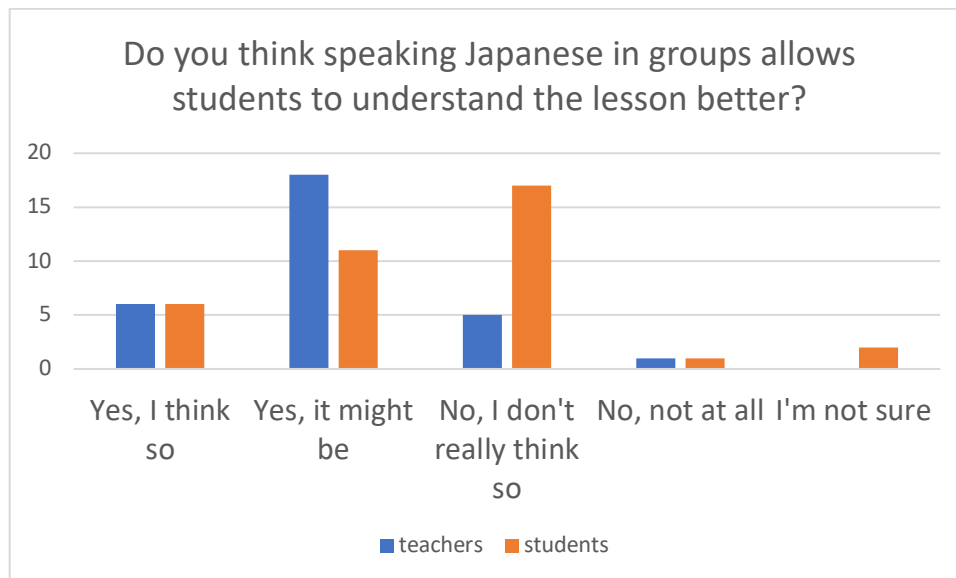


Visual differences can be seen between the teachers' and students' reported reasons for when Japanese use would be beneficial during teacher instruction. These included "to save time" and "for the teacher to define vocabulary". A Chi-Square test showed no significant differences ($p=.521$), meaning that the two groups were different in general. Similar to Figure 26, this indicates that students and teachers believed translanguaging would be helpful for the same reasons. However, significant differences were observed for "save time" ($p=.065$) and "understand instructions" ($p=.053$). A higher percentage of teachers believed that Japanese use was helpful for saving time (difference of 7.9%), whereas a higher percentage of students believed it was helpful for understanding instructions (difference of 11.89%). This signifies that the teachers' and students' opinions differed slightly regarding individual reasons.

4.3.2 Group Activity

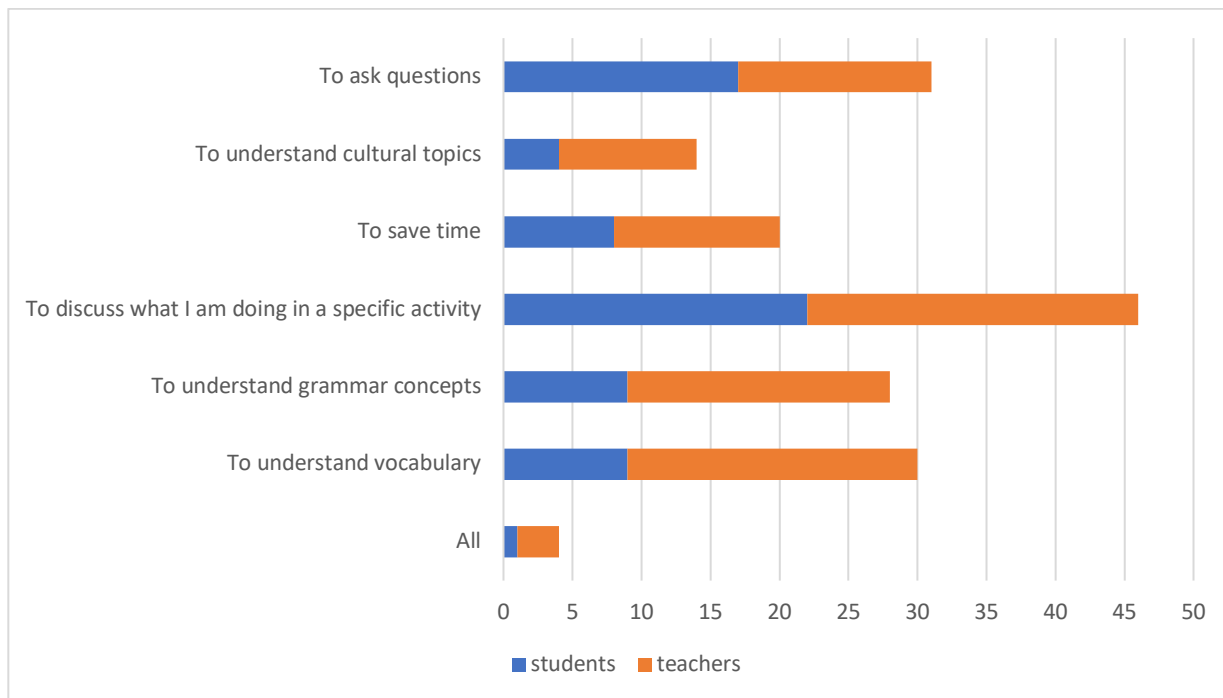
Opinions on Japanese use during group activities were compared between teachers and students. To determine if there were any differences in responses, teachers' and students' reported answers on if Japanese use was helpful during group activity were compared (Figure 29).

Figure 29 Comparison of teachers' and students' responses on if Japanese use is helpful during group activities



The two biggest observable differences between the two groups of participants were the responses “No, I don’t really think so” and “Yes, it might be”. However, a Chi-Square test showed no significant differences ($p=.293$) indicating that teachers’ and students’ responses were not different. Further analysis was performed to see if there was a difference between “yes” and “no” answers between the two groups of participants. A significant difference was found for “no” responses ($p=.037$), including “no, I don’t really think so” and “no, not at all”. More students reported “no” answers than teachers by a difference of 31.4%. This indicates that more students than teachers believe that Japanese use during group work activities is *not* helpful. Next, teachers’ and students’ reported reasons for when Japanese use during group activities would be beneficial were then compared. These comparisons are shown in Figure 30.

Figure 30 Teachers' and students' reported reasons for Japanese use being beneficial during group activity



Based off this comparison, more teachers than students reported that Japanese use would be beneficial “to understand grammar concepts” and “to understand vocabulary” during group activities. The most common reason reported by the two groups was “to discuss what I am [students are] doing in a specific activity”. A Chi-test showed significant differences between the two groups ($p=.000$). This indicates that teachers and students reported different answers for this question.

In summary, teachers and students shared similar beliefs about Japanese use during teacher instruction. For example, the majority of both groups reported that Japanese use during teacher instruction was beneficial. Furthermore, their opinions about when translanguaging is helpful were similar. However, more students believed that Japanese use was helpful for understanding instructions, whereas more teachers reported that Japanese use

was helpful for saving time. Additionally, teachers and students had different beliefs about Japanese use during group activities. More students than teachers believed that Japanese use would *not* be beneficial during group activities. Moreover, their reported reasons for when Japanese use would be helpful during group activities were significantly different. This indicates that their beliefs on translanguaging differed concerning Japanese use during group work activities.

Chapter 5 – Discussion and Conclusion

5.1 Discussion

As was discussed in Chapter 2, there is evidence that Japanese students tend to have a low English proficiency level. Over the last few decades, MEXT has been trying to address this problem by changing English education with the use of different teaching methods (such as CLT). Despite this, not many significant changes have been made. Furthermore, there is literature that supports the use of translanguaging to learn a new language. To find out if the translanguaging method had potential in English classrooms in Japan, the current study reported in this thesis examined EFL teachers' and students' opinions on using Japanese during English lessons in Japan. The results of this study are discussed below following each research question.

5.1.1 The first research question

The first research question asked what Japanese EFL teachers and students thought about using translanguaging during teacher instruction. To address this, the questionnaire asked questions about Japanese use by the teacher and for what reasons own language use would be most beneficial.

5.1.1.1 Teachers' opinions on translanguaging during teacher instruction

Although MEXT has implemented English Only policies and most Eikaiwa schools also have a "no Japanese" rule, the majority of teachers (83%) reported using Japanese in their lessons. It is also interesting that none of the participants reported that they didn't use Japanese "at all". This differs from Turnbull (2018), where several teachers reported that they "rarely" used Japanese in EFL lessons. This could be due to the fact that the current study's

participants teach at a variety of different schools (Eikaiwa, high schools, universities) and their student population is different from the ones found in Turnbull (2018) (only university). Some of the reported reasons for avoiding Japanese were that their school or company didn't allow it and that they couldn't speak the language. For example, one participant said "As an ALT, I used Japanese all the time. However, at my current eikaiwa [sic], we are not allowed". In addition, a different participant explained: "One reason [why I don't use Japanese] is because of my lack of Japanese language. The other reason is my Company [sic] says we are not allowed to use it". This aligns with McMillian and River's (2011) study in which some teachers reported that they didn't use Japanese because they wanted to follow policy rules, along with one participant who reported that their "inability to use the students' L1" motivated the students to try and speak in English.

On the other hand, teachers who did use Japanese said that they used it for reasons such as building rapport and clearing confusion. One teacher pointed out that "If the class know [sic] you can speak Japanese, then they feel a lot more comfortable and ready to approach for correction, advice or not understanding. They are more likely to participate". Another participant said, "a big part of my job is to motivate people and using Japanese to motivate has been a useful tool to inspire". This signifies that the teachers valued a good relationship with their students. Frisby (2018) argues that "building rapport with students is more important than ever in our current social, political, and educational landscape". This relationship with students is important because it may have an impact on students' learning outcomes. Furthermore, Zhou (2021) states that "teacher-student rapport plays a pivotal role in fostering student academic

engagement” and “teachers in any educational context should employ appropriate interpersonal behaviors to create a close relationship with students”.

Several teachers (77%), however, thought that there were disadvantages to using the students’ own language during lessons. These participants were concerned that students would rely on Japanese too much and that they would only use translations, without “thinking in English”. For example, one participant argued “by explaining certain things in Japanese, students may lose the chance to gain the flexible thinking that is required in language learning (ex. How to conceptualize something without translating directly)”. A second participant also declared that “overuse of Japanese can create a situation where students approach language learning strictly from a grammar-translation approach rather than trying to use English as a communicative tool”. Considering most (63%) of the teachers had not heard of the term “translanguaging” before, it could be assumed that teachers view own language use in lessons as a type of Grammar Translation Method (GTM) that only uses strict translations. Some of the responses from teachers (as discussed above) could also confirm these assumptions. However, a Chi-Square test determined that there were no significant differences between teachers who knew about translanguaging and teachers who did not, and their use of Japanese during instruction. This means that knowledge of methods such as translanguaging does not indicate how much Japanese a teacher will or will not use in their classroom.

5.1.1.2 Students’ opinions on translanguaging during teacher instruction

Similar to teachers, most (60%) of the students reported that their EFL teacher uses Japanese during lessons. However, a few (5%) students reported that their teacher did not use Japanese “at all”. This is comparable to Turnbull’s (2018) study in which many students

reported that their teacher “sometimes” used Japanese, but many also reported that they “rarely” used it.

Furthermore, almost all (89%) of the students thought that Japanese use by the teacher was helpful, whereas only one student found it “not helpful at all”. Students reported that using Japanese was beneficial because “ニュアンスなども知る事ができる。。。 ” (...you can understand nuances) and “その英語がどういう意味を持つのか、どのような使い方をするのか、理解しやすいからだと考えます”(I think because it’s easy to understand what the English means and how to use it). However, a few students expressed why Japanese use by the teacher wouldn’t be helpful. This included: “英語での説明のほうが注意して聞くことができる”(I can listen to explanations more carefully in English) and “自分で理解しようとする力が身に付かないと思うから”(Because I think I won’t learn to try and understand for myself).

Although some students reported that Japanese use by the teacher would not be helpful, only three students reported that there was “no situation” in which Japanese use would be beneficial in EFL lessons. This suggests that most of the students believed that Japanese could be helpful for several different reasons. The remaining 34 students expressed that Japanese use was a good tool for grammar and vocabulary explanations, avoiding misunderstand, culture explanations, and important discussions (i.e., assignments and grades). One student explained:

“。。。 「マツコ・デラックスみたいな人」と日本人が聞いたら、すぐさま“大きな人”や“太った人”などと連想できますが、海外の方に言っても“誰のことだろう”となります。英語でそのような文章が出てきたときに日本語や日本の似たよ

うな文化・予備知識を使用することによって理解を深めることができ。。。 ”

(...when a Japanese person hears “someone like Matsuko Delux”, they will think "oh that's a fat person" or "that's a big person", but if a foreigner hears that name, they will think “who is that?”. If there is an example like that in English, it's best to use Japanese or an example that Japanese people know for [students] to be able to understand better...).

This student believed that Japanese could be used for explaining cultural concepts. Kuo and Lai (2006) argue that “...understanding a new culture is an important element in achieving the success in second language acquisition” and recommend teachers to implement different strategies to teach culture in order to “enhance students’ linguistic comprehension” (p.6,9). According to the results of the current study, students think that using Japanese during teacher instruction can help them understand cultural concepts better. If they are able to understand these cultural concepts, their ability to learn their new language might also improve as well.

Lastly, Japanese students thought English Only was best for improving listening skills (78%) and speaking skills (86%). Students that thought English Only was best for listening focused lessons reported that it helped them “get familiar with listening to English” so they “wouldn’t rely on Japanese”. This is similar to Clancy’s (2018) study in which some Japanese students did not want their English teacher to be fluent in Japanese because then they might “depend on [Japanese]”. In the current study, however, in regards to listening, one student reported: “「英語だけのレッスンが」 ベストだと思いますが「日本語で」 単語の説明もしてもいいと思う” (I think [an English Only lesson] is best, but I think it would be okay to

explain vocabulary [in Japanese] as well). Furthermore, another student expressed: “ときどき、日本語を使うのが良いと思います。9割は英語で、残りの1割は日本語で説明するなどが良いのかなと思います” (I think it’s good to use Japanese sometimes. I think an explanation in 90% English and the remaining 10% in Japanese is best). This aligns with what the current study argues for, and also McMillan and Rivers’ (2011) suggestion of a “mainly English” rule rather than an “only English” one. This type of view is also similar to what one participant expressed when discussing speaking focused lessons: “意味を理解するための日本語は許されるか、他は許されない” (To understand the meaning of some things I think using Japanese is okay, but not for anything else). This participant also agreed that mainly English was important with use of “some Japanese”. However, it is important to note that the majority of students disagreed with using Japanese during a speaking focused lesson. Reasons included that it was important for improving their English and that it’s also motivating. For example, one student said “英語しか使えない状況なら自分が知っている英語を使おうとするので、話す能力は鍛えられると思います” (If I can only use English, then I will try and use the English that I know, so I think I will improve my speaking ability). This is similar to a participant in Clancy’s (2018) study, in which they explained “If there is no other way than to speak in English then the student will try their best” (p.7).

Although many of the participants believed that English Only was best for a speaking and listening focused lesson, more than half (57%) of the students thought that Japanese was needed for a lesson focused on writing skills. The most popular reported reasons for why an English Only lesson was not best for writing skills were “I need a little Japanese to fully

understand” and “I need Japanese to understand grammar and vocabulary”. These results clash with findings in literature that say that speaking skills are the most difficult for English learners to improve on (Darancik, 2018; Demirdöken & Okur, 2022; Jeff, 2019) rather than writing skills. This is surprising, because the more difficult the skill is for the student, the more support is required from the teacher (whether it’s own language use, or additional lessons etc.). However, the current study’s results could be attributed to the fact that most Japanese students learn writing through Yakudoku method where Japanese is mainly used, whereas they learn speaking skills with their non-Japanese native EFL teacher (who tends to speak in English Only). Additionally, one student said that English Only would be best for writing skills, however they also included that “理解できない時だけ授業後に日本人の先生に聞くのもあり”(when you don’t understand something it’s okay to ask a Japanese teacher after class). This could be because the student thinks their EFL teacher can’t give an explanation in Japanese. As discussed in Chapter 2, many EFL teachers are not allowed to use Japanese in class, and this might give students the idea that the teacher can’t speak it. Clancy (2018) found that students prefer their teacher *not* to pretend that they don’t know Japanese, and to use it when needed to confirm understanding. If EFL teachers used more Japanese in class, the students might feel more confident in asking them questions in Japanese rather than waiting after class and possibly forgetting part of the question to ask a Japanese teacher.

5.1.2 The second research question

The second research question asked what EFL teachers and students thought about using translanguaging during group work activities. To answer this, the questionnaires asked

the participants what they thought about students using Japanese in group activities and if it was helpful or not.

5.1.2.1 Teachers' opinions on translanguaging during group work activities

Similar to the teachers' reported Japanese use during teacher instruction, more than half (70%) of the participants said they at least allowed their students to "sometimes" use Japanese during group activities. This follows Turnbull's (2018) study in which most of the teacher participants reported that their students sometimes use Japanese (in general).

In the current study, the majority (80%) of teachers thought that Japanese use by students in group activities helps students understand the lesson better. One teacher reported "The fact that [students] can turn to Japanese when needed makes them feel more comfortable during the lesson". Similarly, another teacher concluded: "Allowing Japanese use in the class helps put the students at ease, avoids frustration, helps to clarify instructions, and avoids wasting time on communicating points that are apart from the main focus of the lessons". This signifies that the teachers value their students' comfortableness during lessons. Humpries et al. (2020) found that "student confidence followed by classroom support are the most important underlying factors causing classroom CTS [capacity to speak]" in English learning classrooms in Japan. Meaning that the students' confidence level determines how much they are willing to participate (speak) in class. Furthermore, Cadiz-Gabejan (2021) suggests English language teachers to "involve the collaboration of learners" in "syllabus design to assist them in gaining confidence in speaking English". The teachers in the current study emphasized the importance of creating a learning environment where students feel confident and more comfortable. They did this by allowing students to speak Japanese in group activities.

Additionally, many teachers believed that Japanese use was helpful for students who had a low English proficiency level. This can be seen in the following responses: “For lower ability level language learners it is beneficial”, “With lower students the need to use Japanese is quite often higher”, and “At an elementary level, understanding basic instructions and even activity content is crucial to second language acquisition”. This is similar to McMillian and Rivers’ (2011) study in which teachers believed that lower leveled students benefitted from using Japanese in EFL lessons.

On the contrary, more than half (60%) of the teachers believed that allowing students to use Japanese in class gave them permission to “slack off”. Moreover, only two participants thought that Japanese would *not* get in the way of English use, whereas 17 teachers thought that it *would*. Teachers were concerned that allowing students to speak in Japanese gave them less of a chance to communicate in English and therefore, wouldn’t be able to improve their English level. For example, one teacher reported, “The more Japanese the students use, the fewer chances they have to engage in meaningful communication in the target language.”. Another teacher expressed, “Students [will] become less interested in English as a means of communication and more as a set of tasks to be completed”. Furthermore, a few teachers were worried that students would “only learn English by association with Japanese” and wouldn’t be able to “access [English] in their brain when they need to”. As discussed in Chapter 2, there are other ways to use the students’ own language that does not involve translation. It is possible, as I concluded in section 5.1.1.1, that these teachers are not familiar with the translanguaging method and think that student own language use is equivalent to using GTM.

Although many teachers believed that Japanese use would get in the way of English, only 20% of teachers had implemented a rule on Japanese use. This could be because these teachers did not want to push strict rules on their students who might already be apprehensive about learning English. Jiang et al. (2021) found that western students had a negative attitude towards strictness, and it led to decreased motivation. Furthermore, they concluded that teachers from “examination-orientated cultures” (in this case, Asian cultures) tend to be stricter with rules. In the current study, none of the teachers came from Japan and most of them had an own language of English. It could be assumed that these teachers did not implement strict rules about Japanese use, because they are not from an Asian country where stricter rules are often enforced. On the other hand, some teachers who did have rules on Japanese use reported that it was dependent on different factors. These included student proficiency level, age, and activity. One teacher said that they “adapt based on class-by-class basis”, whereas another participant reported “If it’s purely a dialogue practices, I ask that it’s 100% English. If it’s a vocabulary based activity such as a game, I’ll allow English to Japanese dictionaries or group mates or the teacher to give hints”. These responses are similar to ones found in McMillian and Rivers’ (2011), in which a teacher reported that Japanese use was beneficial for students when studying grammar, but not so much for “practice classes”.

Finally, only 17% of teachers thought that the benefits of Japanese use in group activities did *not* outweigh the disadvantages. These disadvantages included distraction, less exposure to English, and reliance on Japanese. One teacher said that it’s not beneficial “... unless the class has a specific curriculum to finish within a certain term, as it helps to save time”. Some teachers felt that Japanese use in group activities was only advantageous if the

amount used was moderated. For example, one teacher reported “As long as Japanese doesn’t replace the targeted English and is only used as an explainer for those who struggled to understand the English instructions then I would think it is fine”. On the other hand, many (41%) teachers thought that allowing students to use Japanese would be more advantageous than not. One teacher argued “Students should always have a level of L1 support”. Another teacher expressed:

“As a multilingual individual myself, I definitely find language learning easier when you can make sense of it and think of it in relation to the other languages you know, and in my experience, my students who are able to understand how something works in relation to Japanese and how it’s similar or different and why are generally able to remember and apply that knowledge much more easily”.

This idea is supported by translanguaging research, especially in Lucas and Yiakoumetti’s (2019) study, in that comparing your own language to your new language is an effective way to learn a new language. Furthermore, Horst et al. (2010) argue that “raising cross-linguistic awareness is a viable pedagogy with demonstrable advantages for learners” (p.347). Based on the quotations above, the teachers in the current study also believe that cross-linguistic awareness is important when learning English.

5.1.2.2 Students’ opinions on translanguaging during group work activities

The majority of students (73%) reported that they use Japanese at least “sometimes” during group work activities. This is comparable to Aoyama’s (2020) study in which most of the students reported that they “often” use Japanese during communicative English activities. However, in the current study, almost half (46%) of the students thought that using Japanese in

these activities was “not really” helpful. One student thought that “日本語を話すと日本語ばかりになってしまふ。。。 ” (if you speak in Japanese, then you’ll end up just speaking in Japanese). Another student expressed “日本語で話しても英語は上手しない。。。 ” (I won’t improve my English if I speak in Japanese). These responses are not surprising as most of these students only have the opportunity to speak English in their EFL classes. In McMillan and Rivers’ (2011) study, teachers believed that using English Only in their lessons was important, because the students did not get much practice outside of class. This could be because Japan is a monolingual society (Hiramoto, 2022) with not much exposure to other foreign languages (such as English). Although 46% of students in this study didn’t find Japanese use in group activities to be helpful, another 46% thought that it was at least “somewhat” helpful. One student said that Japanese use in group lessons helps them “communicate easier”. Furthermore, another student reported that Japanese use in group activities was helpful: “レッスンの内容と自分の認識が合っているかを確認する場合。。。 ” (To make sure my own understanding matches with the contents of the lesson).

Additionally, 67% of students thought that using Japanese in group activities would be “less stressful”. This makes sense as Hasemi (2011) reported that language learning classrooms were often “a major source of stress and anxiety” due to “its demand to be more correct and clearer in using the target language” (p.1813). Although the question was related to group activities and not speaking in front of the teacher, students may feel pressured to speak English perfectly and being able to use some Japanese can mitigate these feelings. For example, Matsuoka (2008) found that due to perfectionism (along with competitiveness and face-protecting orientation), Japanese students were apprehensive to communicate in their English

lessons. She further suggests teachers to allow own language use to reduce student nervousness and therefore, increase their willingness to communicate. The current study also indicates that students would like to use Japanese in order to feel less stressed.

5.1.3 The third research question

The third research question asked if there were any differences between students and teachers on their opinions of translanguaging. To answer this the responses from the students' and teachers' questionnaires were compared.

5.1.3.1 Comparison of teachers and students on teacher instruction

Teachers and students answered similarly regarding Japanese use during teacher instruction. The majority (93%) of teachers and students thought that Japanese use during teacher instruction was at least somewhat helpful. Furthermore, there were no significant differences in the two groups' answers concerning reasons for Japanese use being beneficial overall. However, the individual reason "understand instructions" was significantly different ($p=.053$). A higher percentage of students over teachers reported this reason to be beneficial during teacher instruction. This may be because students have a hard time following directions that are strictly in English. For example one student believed that Japanese use was best "先生の指示がどうしても英語で理解できないとき" (When you can't understand the teacher's instructions in English). This is similar to Clancy's (2018) study in which students with a lower English proficiency level wanted their teacher to use Japanese to give class instructions. The teachers giving these instructions, however, may be unaware that the students do not understand the directions. As discussed previously, Japanese students are apprehensive to communicate and ask questions in their English class (Matsuoka, 2008), and this could

especially be the case if they are prohibited from speaking Japanese. If the students aren't able to let teachers know they don't understand something, the teacher will not know and therefore move on in the lesson. For example, one student believed it's good to use Japanese to improve listening skills, because “。。。ネイティブの発音が聞き取れずに授業が進んでしまったりしてしまい授業に対する意欲が低下してしまう” (...If you miss something the native speaker says the class will go on and you will lose motivation).

The other individual reasons were not significantly different between the two groups. This means that the teachers and students answered similarly regarding these reasons, which included “compare Japanese with English”, “ask questions”, and “for the teacher to explain grammar concepts”, along with others. This could be because these reasons are important for both teachers and students. For example, both teachers and students reported in open-ended answers that Japanese use by the teacher was helpful for avoiding misunderstanding, which could be related to those reasons listed above. One teacher reported that Japanese use was beneficial “To make sure [students are] following what is being said in English and to double check they understand specific vocabulary”. Additionally a student expressed that Japanese use was best: “自分も、周りの生徒も指示された事が理解できなかった時や、難解な文法習った時” (When you and all of the other students can't understand something that is being taught to them and also for learning difficult grammar). Based on these comments as well as the results from the question discussed above, it is apparent that both teachers and students believe that using Japanese is helpful for confirming understanding.

In conclusion, both teachers and students believed that Japanese use during instruction was beneficial. However, more students than teachers believed that Japanese use was helpful for understanding instructions. This could be because students have a hard time understanding instructions that are strictly in English. Besides “understanding instructions”, there were no other significant differences between teachers and students on their opinions of when own language use was beneficial. This signifies that teachers and students have similar opinions on translanguaging during teacher instruction.

5.1.3.2 Comparison of teachers and students on group work activity

Overall, the teachers and students answered similarly regarding their opinion on Japanese use by students in group activities. However, the answers “Yes, it might be” and “No, I don’t really think so” in regard to the question “Do you think speaking Japanese in groups allows students (you) to understand the lesson better?” were significantly different between the two groups of participants. A Chi-Square test did not show significant differences for “Yes, it might be” ($p=.061$). On the other hand, a Chi-Square test showed significant differences for “No, I don’t really think so” ($p=.003$) where a higher number of students reported this response than teachers. Further analysis shows that there is a significant difference ($p = .037$) between the groups for the answer “no” (whether that be “no, not really” or “no, not at all”), but not for the answer of “yes” (whether that be “yes, I think so” or “yes, it might be”). This means that more students than teachers thought that Japanese during group activities was *not* beneficial for learning. This could be because students are concerned that they would continue to talk in Japanese to each other if it were allowed. It is interesting that this difference did not occur for the opinions of Japanese use during teacher instruction. This difference may be because

students want to practice using English when they have the chance, whereas during teacher instruction there isn't much student participation to begin with. For example, one student said “英語でディスカッションすることに意味があると思う。。。 ” (...Having a discussion in English is the main [most important] point).

Moreover, there were significant differences ($p=.000$) between the two groups concerning all reasons for why Japanese use by students in group activities could be beneficial. More students (24%) than teachers (14%) thought that Japanese use by students was beneficial to ask questions. As discussed previously, teacher participants often reported that Japanese students lack confidence. For example, one teacher said, “Many of my first-year university students are apprehensive about English after years of high school study which have left them unable to communicate with confidence”. Furthermore, a student participant said that when using Japanese during group work: “内容がわかりやすくしてストレスが少ない” (The lesson is easier to understand so I have less stress). Students' lack of confidence and desire for the lesson to be less stressful may explain why more students than teachers believe that asking questions in Japanese is beneficial. On the other hand, more teachers believed that Japanese use during group activities was beneficial for understanding vocabulary and grammar concepts (difference of 7.5% and 5.6% respectively). These results are different from those found in Turnbull's (2018) study in which more students than teachers reported that they *use* Japanese to understand vocabulary when talking with each other. The results in the current study could be explained by the importance teachers put on grammar and vocabulary. For example, one teacher reported, “I think some use of Japanese can help students understand new vocabulary or grammar points ...”. In the students' open-ended question however, none of the students

reported that using Japanese would be helpful for understanding vocabulary or grammar during group work activities. It is possible that the students do not trust their peers to understand the grammar or vocabulary to the extent that they could explain it well. There is also a possibility that students think there are other reasons more beneficial for using Japanese in groups. For example, more students than teachers believed that Japanese use during group work was beneficial for discussing what students were supposed to do in an activity (a difference of 8%). This could also be related to confidence in that students want to make sure they complete the activity correctly with no mistakes.

5.2 Pedological Implications

This study has significant implications for using translanguaging in EFL classrooms. Although the term “translanguaging” was not used throughout the questionnaire, the participants were asked about use of Japanese during EFL lessons. Japanese use during English lessons would go against a monolingual approach and more towards a multilingual approach, such as translanguaging.

First, policy makers should consider the beliefs that teachers have about English teaching methods. Although English Only is strictly enforced in most EFL classrooms in Japan, many teachers in this study use Japanese in their lessons and believe that it can be helpful. Some teachers, however, did not use Japanese due to their school’s rule but believed that using it could be beneficial. If schools and companies discussed different teaching methods with their employees, teachers could voice their opinion and not be afraid to “break the rules” by using a method or strategy they believe in. Five and Buehl (2016) recommend giving teachers the opportunity to reflect on their beliefs and for policy makers to take these beliefs into

consideration. Giving teachers this space could potentially create a better learning environment for teachers and students alike.

Second, given that a large percentage of students believed that Japanese use could be helpful in EFL lessons, teachers should plan lessons accordingly. Overall, students expressed that Japanese use during instruction was beneficial to their learning. Moreover, they voiced that Japanese use for lessons focused on writing skills is better than using English Only. As discussed previously, building rapport with students is important for academic achievement (Frisby, 2018; Zhou, 2021). Teachers should therefore discover what teaching method is preferred by students and consider their beliefs when planning out lessons and creating rules. For example, if students prefer to use more English than Japanese in group work activities, the teacher should allow for an English-speaking space. On the other hand, if students feel more comfortable when the teacher uses a little Japanese to clear confusion, the teacher could use translanguaging during instruction. Ultimately, the teacher should have the final decision in which rules they choose to implement. However, listening to their students and taking their beliefs into consideration can help build rapport and in turn improve students' learning outcomes.

Lastly, EFL teachers could undergo training to gain knowledge on different types of teaching methods. Although many of the teachers' teaching methods were supported by literature, some of the teachers did not have that knowledge. Furthermore, more than half of the teachers had not heard of translanguaging before. While translanguaging is fairly new to English teaching research in terms of other methods (such as GTM and CLT), it is becoming more popular and should at least be understood by current English teachers. As discussed in

Chapter 2, many Eikaiwa and ALT teachers do not have teaching education and often come to Japan unprepared for their new job. There is literature that states English teachers in Japan are rarely “ordered” to attend any training for their professional development (Lamie, 1998) and that many teachers have insufficient training to teach their lessons (Sakamoto, 2012).

Moreover, Martínez Agudo (2014) recommends teachers to go through training throughout their education career regardless of their experience to gain new knowledge and skills. Ensuring that teachers get proper training on different methods allows them to make a more educated choice on how to teach their students and familiarizes them with different teaching methods. Even if they choose not to implement translanguaging in their classroom, knowing about it and other teaching methods can help teachers reflect on their own methods and why they believe they are important.

5.3 Conclusions, limitations, and directions for future research

The purpose of this study reported in this thesis was to discover the opinions EFL students and teachers have on using translanguaging during EFL lessons. The current study together with Turnbull (2018) indicated that regardless of English Only rules and policies, students and teachers in Japan use Japanese during EFL lessons. The current study reveals that Japanese is used more during teacher instruction than group work activities. Furthermore, EFL teachers believe that own language use could be beneficial for teaching and learning. However, this study suggests that both teacher and students believe that Japanese use is more beneficial during teacher instruction than group work activities. Thus, similar to McMillan and Rivers (2011), I argue that *mainly* English, *some* Japanese would have potential in EFL classrooms in Japan. As indicated by the students’ preferences in this study, teachers could allow for an

English-speaking space during group work activities, allowing some use of Japanese if used to in relation to the lesson's contents (i.e., asking about grammar, but not talking about what they will do after school). Additionally, teachers could use some Japanese while teaching dependent on the students' proficiency level, the activity, and the particular group of students as well. On the contrary, teachers and students would still use English in order to improve students' English skills overall. This follows a weak translanguaging approach, in which the boundaries between national languages are "softened", but still "acknowledging their existence" (Turnbull, 2019). In contrast to Turnbull (2019), I conclude that weak translanguaging, over strong translanguaging, has the potential as a teaching method in EFL classrooms in Japan.

This study contributes to translanguaging research in several ways. First, it is the first to examine the opinions that teachers and students have on translanguaging during both teacher instruction and group work activities. It is important to compare translanguaging use between teacher instruction and group work activities, because Japanese is seen to be used during both in the literature (Aoyama, 2020; Stone, 2019; Turnbull, 2019). This study, therefore, was able to compare the two and give insights based on these comparisons. Next, the current study explored opinions of EFL teachers and students not only at the university level, but also at high schools (teachers), and Eikaiwa schools. As English Only rules are implemented in all three types of schools, it is crucial to include participants from all. This study also contributes to SLA research in Japan, with focus on English learning. As discussed in Chapter 2, there is a widespread problem of low English proficiency level in Japan. Discovering helpful methods that teachers implement and teaching styles that students prefer, gives insights into some issues,

and provides helpful evidence. The present study suggests that teachers and students in Japan think that Japanese use is helpful in their lessons.

This study, however, has limitations and therefore the findings should be interpreted with caution. First, this study did not include EFL Japanese-native teachers. This was decided, because most EFL non-Japanese teachers tend to teach in English Only. Furthermore, only Japanese-native students were recruited, as these were the students who are reported to have a low English proficiency level. However, due to these decisions, the results cannot be generalized to all EFL teachers and students in Japan as the participation pool is not random. Consequently, this study could be replicated to include all types of EFL teachers and students in Japan.

Another limitation of this study is that the term “translanguaging” was not used on the questionnaire (apart from the last section on the teacher’s version). As concluded by Turnbull (2018) in his study, teachers and students in Japan had a difficult time conceptualizing the term by just its definition and misunderstandings were assumed to have occurred. Due to this reason, I decided to use the phrases “English Only” and “Japanese use” to categorize the differences between using translanguaging versus a monolingual teaching method. However, as seen in the current study’s results, many teachers confused “Japanese use” with GTM. These teachers were particularly against translation methods, and this could have impacted the results. If this research was to be conducted again, interviews could be conducted in which the researcher could explain what translanguaging means with multiple examples.

Further, the current study only examined teacher and student beliefs based on reported responses on questionnaires. Some literature states that teacher beliefs can differ

from their actual practice (Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Li & Walsh, 2011; Nassaji et al, 2023; Phipps & Borg, 2009). Additional research could compare the teachers' and students' reported beliefs on translanguaging and the methods they use during class. For example, a questionnaire could be conducted first to discover what teachers and students think about own language use in EFL classrooms. Next, observations could be conducted to discover if these beliefs align with practice. Last, the researcher could interview participants and ask questions based on their reported beliefs and observed practices. An interesting question for future research would be if teachers' and students' beliefs on translanguaging matched with their actual practices in the classroom.

Finally, the study was limited to questionnaires that asked about opinions on translanguaging. Further investigation could examine the effects of translanguaging through use of an experimental design. More specifically, future research could investigate (a) the differences of using translanguaging, GTM, and CLT in EFL classrooms in Japan and (b) the opinions students and teachers have on these different methods.

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Appendix 1. Ethics Approval



**University
of Victoria**

Office of Research Services | Human Research Ethics Board
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T 250-472-4545 | F 250-721-8960 | uvic.ca/research | ethics@uvic.ca

Certificate of Approval - Amendments

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Hossein Nassaji (Supervisor) PRINCIPAL APPLICANT: Gill Serpas Master's student UVIC DEPARTMENT: Linguistics LING	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>ETHICS PROTOCOL NUMBER</td> <td>22-0313</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="2">Expedited review - delegated</td> </tr> <tr> <td>ORIGINAL APPROVAL DATE:</td> <td>12-Aug-2022</td> </tr> <tr> <td>APPROVED ON:</td> <td>21-Sep-2022</td> </tr> <tr> <td>APPROVAL EXPIRY DATE:</td> <td>11-Aug-2023</td> </tr> </table>	ETHICS PROTOCOL NUMBER	22-0313	Expedited review - delegated		ORIGINAL APPROVAL DATE:	12-Aug-2022	APPROVED ON:	21-Sep-2022	APPROVAL EXPIRY DATE:	11-Aug-2023
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ORIGINAL APPROVAL DATE:	12-Aug-2022										
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APPROVAL EXPIRY DATE:	11-Aug-2023										
<p>PROJECT TITLE: Mainly English, Some Japanese: Exploring the opinions of EFL students and English Teachers on Using Translanguaging in EFL Classrooms in Japan</p> <p>RESEARCH TEAM MEMBERS: Gill Serpas - Student, University of Victoria John Archibald - Committee Member, University of Victoria</p> <p>DECLARED PROJECT FUNDING: None</p> <p>DOCUMENTS INCLUDED IN THIS APPROVAL: recruitment script.docx - 19-May-2022 tcps2_core_certificate.pdf - 23-May-2022 consent form.doc - 02-Jun-2022 teacher questionnaire.docx - 27-Jun-2022 Student questionnaire.docx - 27-Jun-2022 consent form .docx - 12-Aug-2022</p>											
Conditions of approval											
<p>This Certificate of Approval is valid for the above term provided there is no change in the protocol.</p> <p>Amendments To make changes to the approved research procedure in your study, please submit "Amendments" or "Annual renewal with amendments" form. You must receive research ethics approval before proceeding with your amended protocol.</p> <p>Renewals Your ethics approval must be current for the period during which you are recruiting participants or collecting data. To renew your protocol, please submit a "Request for Renewal" form before the expiry date on your certificate. You will be sent an emailed reminder prompting you to renew your protocol about six weeks before your expiry date.</p> <p>Project Closures When you have completed all data collection activities and will have no further contact with participants, please notify the Human Research Ethics Board by submitting a "Notice of Project Completion" form.</p>											
Certification											
<p>This certifies that the UVic Human Research Ethics Board has examined this research protocol and concluded that, in all respects, the proposed research meets the appropriate standards of ethics as outlined by the University of Victoria's policies for research involving human participants.</p>											

Appendix 2. Teacher questionnaire

Japanese Use in the Classroom: Teacher questionnaire*Section 1: Introduction*

1. How long have you been teaching English in Japan?
 - a) 0-5 years
 - b) 6-10 years
 - c) 11-15 years
 - d) 16+ years

 2. Is your native language English?
 - a) Yes
 - b) No

 3. Do you speak Japanese?
 - a) Yes, fluently
 - b) Yes, enough to have a conversation
 - c) A little, I can communicate in simple sentences
 - d) No, not really
 - e) No, not at all

 4. Have you taken the Japanese-Language Proficiency Test (JLPT)?
 - a) Yes
 - b) NoIf yes, please list what level(s) and the outcome(s).
-

Section 2: Japanese use during English language teacher instruction

1. Do you use Japanese while teaching students?
 - a), Yes, all the time
 - b) Yes, sometimes
 - c) No, not really
 - d) No, not at all
 - e) I'm not sure

2. Do you think using Japanese while teaching is beneficial for student learning?
 - a) Yes, I think so
 - b) Yes, it might be
 - c) No, I don't really think so
 - d) No, not at all

3. For what reason(s) would it be beneficial to use Japanese during instruction. Check all that apply.
 - To define difficult vocabulary
 - To explain difficult grammar concepts
 - To discuss cultural topics
 - To save time
 - To give feedback
 - To give instructions
 - To compare English with Japanese
 - Other: _____

4. Please explain why you do/do not use Japanese in your lessons.

5. Do you think there are any disadvantages when using Japanese to teach English? If so, what are they?

Section 3: Japanese use in group activities in English language lessons

1. Do you allow your students to speak in Japanese during group activities?
 - a) Yes, all the time
 - b) Yes, sometimes
 - c) No, not really
 - d) No, not at all
 - e) I'm not sure

2. Do you think allowing students to speak in Japanese during group activities would help them understand the lesson better?
 - a) Yes, I think so
 - b) Yes, it might be
 - c) No, I don't really think so
 - d) No, not at all

3. Do you think allowing students to use Japanese during group activities gives them permission to "slack off"?
 - a) Yes, definitely
 - b) Yes, somewhat
 - c) No, not really
 - d) No, not at all
 - e) I'm not sure

4. For what reason(s) would Japanese use in group activities be most beneficial for? Check all that apply.
 - For students to discuss difficult vocabulary
 - For students to discuss difficult grammar concepts
 - For students to discuss what they are supposed to do in the activity
 - To save time
 - To discuss cultural topics
 - To ask each other questions
 - Other: _____

5. Do you think Japanese use would get in the way of English use? Why or why not?

6. Do you have a rule on Japanese use during group activities? If so, what is it? What are your reasonings behind that rule?

7. If you answered "yes" to question six, is the rule based on classroom activity or student proficiency level?

8. Do you think the benefits of Japanese use in group activities outweigh the disadvantages? Why or why not?
-

Section 4: Translanguaging

1. Have you heard of the term “translanguaging” before?
If yes, please explain what you know about it.
- a) Yes
b) No
-

Appendix 3. Student questionnaire

日本語

Japanese Use in the Classroom: Student questionnaire

英語の従業での日本語の使用：生徒へのアンケート

Section 1: Introduction

パート 1：初めに

1. What do you think is your English level?
あなたの英語のレベルはどれくらいと思いますか？
 - a) Beginner 初心者
 - b) Pre-Intermediate 初中級
 - c) Intermediate 中級
 - d) Upper intermediate 上中級
 - e) Advanced 高度

2. Have you taken an English test before? (i.e., EIKEN)
英語のテストを受けたことありますか？（例：EIKEN）
 - a) Yes あります
 - b) No ありません

If yes, what test(s) and what was your score(s)?

受けたことがあれば、成績とテストの名前を教えてください。

Test テストの名前: _____

Score 成績: _____

3. Is your native language Japanese?
日本語は母国語ですか？
 - a) Yes はい
 - b) No いいえ

4. Have you ever been taught English in English? (i.e., The teacher uses no Japanese)

英語で英語を教えられたことがありますか？（例：先生は日本語を全く使いません）

- a) Yes はい
- b) No いいえ
- c) I'm not sure わかりません

Section 2: Japanese use during English language teacher instruction

パート 2 : 英語の授業時、先生による日本語の使用

1. Does your teacher use Japanese while they are teaching?

あなたの英語の先生は英語を教えるときに日本語を使いますか？

- a) Yes, all the time はい、いつも
- b) Yes, sometimes はい、時々
- c) No, not really いいえ、あまり
- d) No, not at all いいえ、全然
- e) I'm not sure わかりません

2. Do you think it is helpful for a teacher to use Japanese while teaching?

英語を教える時、英語の先生が日本語を使う事は役に立っていると思いますか？

- a) Yes, definitely はい、絶対
- b) Yes, somewhat はい、まあまあ
- c) No, not really いいえ、あまり
- d) No, not at all いいえ、全然
- e) I'm not sure わかりません

Please explain why or why not: _____

その理由を教えてください。

3. For what reason(s) would Japanese use during teacher instruction be most beneficial? Check all that apply.

先生が日本語を使うのはいつが有益と思いますか？当てはまる答えを全部チェックしてください。

- For the teacher to define vocabulary 英単語の説明のため
- For the teacher to explain grammar concepts 英文法の説明のために
- To discuss cultural topics 海外の文化の説明のために
- To save time 時間を節約するために
- To ask questions お互いが質問を聞くために
- To understand instructions 指示を理解するために
- To compare English with Japanese 日本語と英語を比べるために
- Other: _____ 他: _____

Section 3: Japanese use in group activities in English language lessons

パート 3 : 英語の授業で、グループ活動時の日本語の使用

Group activity is defined as any task in the lesson where the teacher is not involved. An example of a group activity would be students working together to answer questions about a story they read in class.

グループ活動とは、例えば、あらかじめ先生が用意した質問にグループ内で話し合い質問に答えていく様な内容です。

1. Do you speak Japanese during group activities?

英語の授業のグループ活動のときに日本語で話しますか？

- a) Yes, all the time はい、いつも
- b) Yes, sometimes はい、時々
- c) No, not really いいえ、あまり
- d) No, not at all いいえ、全然
- e) I'm not sure わかりません

2. Do you think speaking in Japanese during group activities helps you understand the content of the lesson better?

英語の授業のグループ活動のときに日本語で話すことは、レッスンの内容をより理解するのに役立つと思いますか？

- a) Yes, definitely はい、絶対
- b) Yes, somewhat はい、まあまあ
- c) No, not really いいえ、あまり
- d) No, not at all いいえ、全然
- e) I'm not sure わかりません

Please explain why or why not: _____
その理由を教えてください。

3. Do you think if the teacher allowed you to use Japanese during group activities, it would be less stressful?

もし英語のグループ活動のときに日本語を使っても良いルールがあったなら、あなたのストレスは少なくなると思いますか？

- a) Yes, definitely はい、絶対
- b) Yes, somewhat はい、まあまあ
- c) No, not really いいえ、あまり
- d) No, not at all いいえ、全然
- e) I'm not sure わかりません

4. For what reason(s) would Japanese use in group activities be most beneficial for? Check all that apply.

英語の授業のグループ活動のとき日本語で話すことはいつが有益だと思いますか？当てはまる答えに全部チェックしてください。

- To understand vocabulary 英単語を理解するため
- To understand grammar concepts 英文法を理解するため
- To discuss what I am doing in a specific activity グループ活動を円滑に行うために
- To save time 時間を節約するために
- To understand cultural topics 海外の文化のことを理解するために
- To ask questions 質問を聞くために
- Other: _____ 他: _____

Section 4: English Only versus Use of both languages

英語だけのレッスンと日本語と英語、両方使っているレッスン

English Only is when your English teacher only uses English to teach. They will not use any Japanese during the lesson.

英語だけのレッスンとは先生が英語だけで授業を行います。先生は全く日本語を使いません。

1. Do you think an “English Only” style of lesson is best for learning listening skills? Why or why not?

英語のリスニング能力の練習のために英語だけを使うレッスンは一番ベストだと思いますか？貴方の考えを教えてください。

2. Do you think an “English Only” style of lesson is best for learning writing skills? Why or why not?

英語のライティング能力の練習のために英語だけを使うレッスンは一番ベストだと思いますか？貴方の考えを教えてください。

3. Do you think an “English Only” style of lesson is best for learning speaking skills? Why or why not?

英語のスピーキング能力の練習のために英語だけを使うレッスンは一番ベストだと思いますか？貴方の考えを教えてください。

4. When would using Japanese during a lesson be best for learning?

英語の授業の時、いつ日本語を使うのが有益だと思いますか？

*Note that English was not included on the questionnaire given to the students.

Appendix 4. Thematic codes

Teacher questionnaire:

Question 2.4

Theme	Code
Immersive experience	1
School/company policy	2
Rely on Japanese	3
Can't speak it	4
Confirm understanding	5
Based on proficiency level	6
Feedback	7
Explain complex concepts	8
Build rapport/Jokes/Motivation/Relate as a language learner	9
No need	10
Save time	11

Question 2.5

Theme	Code
Rely on Japanese too much	1
Not "thinking in English"	2
Less immersive/Less exposure to English	3

Question 3.5

Themes	Codes
Students will rely on it	1
Less communication in English	2
Only use translation	3
Can't improve English	4
Doesn't increase motivation	5
ESL student experience	6
Good tool for confirmation	7
Motivating	8
It depends	9

Question 3.6

Theme	Code
Encourage English/Discourage Japanese	1
Use English as much as possible	2
Try in English first	3
Japanese use is okay for motivation	4
No	5
It depends on activity/class/proficiency level	6

Question 3.8

Theme	Code
It depends on proficiency level/goal of lesson/student/curriculum	1
Yes, if it's moderated/balanced	2
Yes, it helps build confidence/understanding	3
No, students need to use English as much as possible	4
Not sure	5

Student questionnaire:

Question 2.2

Theme	Code
To understand vocabulary/grammar	1
To avoid misunderstandings	2
Easier to understand	3
Useful for difficult English	4
English (only) improves skills	5

Question 3.2

Theme	Code
Japanese use will not help improve your English	1
Overuse of Japanese	2
Easier to understand Japanese	3
A little Japanese is okay	4
Unrelated to the question	5

Questions 4.1

Theme	Code
No explanation	1
Improves skills	2
To get used to English	3
Authentic	4
It's difficult (disagreement)	5
A little Japanese is okay	6
Don't want to rely on Japanese	7

Question 4.2

Theme	Code
No explanation	1
Simple English needed	2
Need Japanese	3
Want a Japanese explanation	4
Japanese to understand grammar/vocabulary	5
English immersion is best	6

Question 4.3

Theme	Code
No explanation	1
Important for improving English	2
Good listening practice	3
Motivation	4
Some Japanese is ok	5

Question 4.4

Theme	Code
Grammar/Vocabulary explanation	1
To explain a concept	2
When discussing something important	3
Culture/Nuance explanation	4
Not useful	5
Useful	6
Unrelated to question	7