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Welcome to the seventh issue of Saitama Journal of Language Teaching. Five JALT Omiya Chapter members share results of their thinking, their research, or their experiences with you.

John Finucane explains how to use small whiteboards during the preparation stage of writing activities. Anna Husson Isozaki reports on her January 2013 JALT Omiya presentation on critical media literacy. Tyson Rode suggests a four-step process to help teachers find appropriate content-based themes for municipal level language classrooms in Japan. Takeshi Ishikawa investigates reading-aloud training to facilitate habit and behavior change in students. Masa Tsuneyasu looks at personality differences in students and compares these differences with their proficiency. With this issue, editors Masa Tsuneyasu and Leander Hughes will leave us. Both of them were with SJLT from the start. To both of you: You created SJLT! Thank you, Leander, for all those years – remember, you were the one who had the idea for the name “SJLT”. Thank you, Masa, for all those years – you were the only Japanese editor on the team and carried a heavy burden.

We want to give new editors a chance to work with SJLT! The remaining editors Brad Semans and Ruth Kambartel are looking for people who have experience with editing, or who do not but would like to learn by doing! Reviewing and editing papers is a great way to improve your own writing – give it a try and contact us!

The next issue of SJLT will be a short text special issue. We welcome texts of up to 1200 words. Language teaching techniques or successful lesson plans, presentation summaries, or book reviews are welcome. Please look at the submission guidelines online. Deadline for submission will be July 7, 2014.

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Using Small Whiteboards to Prepare for Writing Activities

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The problem with writing
For the low level learner, producing written English is particularly challenging. For the teacher, the constraint of a 50-minute lesson format means that writing activities can spill over into the next class resulting in lost time and momentum. This article explains a simple idea for using whiteboards to facilitate the sharing of ideas and expertise during the preparation stage of writing activities.

Whiteboards
Whiteboards can be purchased in various sizes. A4-size whiteboards can be bought for 100 yen. With markers and erasers, whiteboards for a class of 40 students, working in groups of 4, can be purchased for as little as 3000 yen. Different institutions have different policies on purchasing. Following the procedure carefully is important for maintaining your working relationship with your colleagues, especially the administrative staff.

Procedure
Consider a typical writing activity, for example "writing a thank you letter to your host family". We could begin by splitting the class up into groups of four. Each group should select a leader and a writer. Other roles can be added later. The leaders come to the front and collect a whiteboard, a marker and an eraser. The teacher explains the topic, in this case a thank you letter, and asks each group to brainstorm useful words and phrases.

This classroom is a computer room. A lack of table space can make writing on paper or in notebooks difficult. Whiteboards are much more convenient.

Once the brainstorming phase has been completed, the next step is to share ideas and expertise. Whiteboards should be grouped together in a way that makes them accessible to as many students as possible. Some A4 whiteboards have magnets on the back so they can be placed at eye level on the blackboard. Your students have now created a resource together that they can use to complete the writing task.
Notice the differences in the amount of language produced. If students were asked to prepare individually in a set time, some students would have finished and become bored and some students would have been underprepared.

Next, groups should choose a runner and an editor. Runners will consult the whiteboards for useful words and phrases. This minimizes the number of students moving around the classroom making the activity safer and more manageable. Editors check the spelling and grammar of writing produced by the group. This helps to avoid the stop and start creative process of individual writing. The preparation phase is now complete.

**Why whiteboards?**

Whiteboards have several advantages:

- They are cheap.
- They are light. This makes them easy to pass around a group, use without a table or even while standing.
- They are robust. Students will drop whatever you give them to hold. Whiteboards are unlikely to break. If they do break, at least they are cheap.
- They are reusable. This is the best argument in favor of whiteboards over scrap paper when negotiating with whoever controls the budget.
- They are non-permanent. Writing is stressful. Unlike paper, whiteboards invite a freer and less formal kind of writing. Students who are less concerned about making errors will be happier and more productive.

**Drawbacks**

1. Whiteboards get shabby. This is unavoidable, but they will remain useable and they are cheap enough to be replaced periodically.
2. Whiteboards get dirty. Regular cleaning and careful storage will minimize this problem.
3. Whiteboards lose their novelty value. This can be avoided by simply not presenting them as a novelty, but as just another part of your repertoire.
4. Whiteboards are bulky. Make the space for proper storage; it is worth the effort if you use them often.
5. Whiteboard markers and erasers suffer from all these drawbacks all the more so. Again, they are worth the effort if you use them often.

**Other Uses**

Whiteboards can make quizzes with competing teams more engaging. My colleague Matthew Shannon suggested to me that instead of asking one team for an answer during a quiz, teachers could have each team write an answer on a piece of paper. In this way each team could answer each question. This would prevent students from becoming bored, unfocused or disruptive while waiting for their turn. Using whiteboards
instead of paper meant that the answers were easier for me to read and the students, as mentioned above, were less inhibited to write and share their answers.

The words and phrases produced in preparation time can be useful for teachers as well as students. Whiteboards encourage a freer kind of writing. Often the phrases that students compose out of expediency can be amongst the most valuable. A good example from my classes is the phrase ‘That’s true but ...’. A student composed this phrase himself during preparation for a debate activity. I like this phrase because it allows you to disagree in a very non-adversarial way. It also allows you to respond to your opponents even when they make a very strong point. I have since used this phrase with all classes doing debate for the first time. A digital camera is very useful for recording these ideas.

In my communication classes I like to simplify the textbook dialog into phrases. I then ask students to practice these phrases in pairs very quickly, changing partners often. To avoid students simply repeating the same ideas over and over I supply the idea. However, to ensure that students produce as much language as possible during the activity I draw (or ask students to draw as a warm up) the ideas on whiteboards. During the activity I use the whiteboards as flashcards giving the students the idea to be used in the dialog just before they start speaking.
The ideas above were created by junior high school students. At the start of the lesson they were asked what problems they might have during an upcoming school trip to Singapore and how they could communicate them. They were encouraged to use their imagination. Students then role-played asking for help from a hotel receptionist. I erased the phrases and used the pictures as prompts for each round of the role-play activity.

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Critical Media Literacy: Resources and Skills for Critical Thinking and Better News Understanding for EFL Learners

(Presentation at JALT OMIYA, January 13, 2013)

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Introduction

“The main role of a free press is to provide citizens with the information they need to lead good lives and to help society improve.” – journalist David Bornstein and social entrepreneur Susan Davis, in their book titled Social Entrepreneurship: What Everyone Needs to Know.


Bornstein and Davis take a practical and positive view of journalism and articulate why dealing with news media is relevant and important for everyone. This article is based on a presentation for JALT Omiya and will give an overview of how to make news in English manageable and empowering for English learners.

One of the major obstacles learners face with English news is information overload, especially with the abundance of sources on the Internet and the high likelihood of running into confusing, misleading and biased materials. Navigating through overwhelming amounts of information is a challenge for anyone, and all the more so for second-language readers. Building an active habit of critical thinking can help with the sorting process enormously. Second language users benefit from help in developing strategies for actively tracking down news of interest to them. Combined with practice, good strategies can help learners confidently get the most reliable grip possible on current events, their backgrounds, and the forces likely to drive the events as they unfold.

Below, proposed course goals and ways of defining and communicating the goals will be covered as well as considerations in choosing resources and mediums for classwork; practicalities of lesson planning; text and online resources for classwork, assignments and research; and last, concluding thoughts and supplementary materials that may be useful for inclusion, adaptation, or experimental use.

Three key goals for learner-empowering news media courses

1. Individual empowerment – for learners to be able to locate and comprehend news, to check for more sources, and to understand and judge those sources with reasonable confidence.

2. Discussion empowerment – for learners to be able to show their intelligence and awareness of the world. News is what people discuss in many cultures – it is a popular intellectual and cultural exercise in which they, also, should be able to fully take part.

3. Community empowerment – for learners, if they choose, to be able to respond to news which concerns them by finding their issue community and taking action together with others.

Critical thinking is intrinsic to all aspects of these three goals and the three weave together in a safety net for well-informed communities and democracy.

Explaining Critical Thinking

Successfully conveying the meaning and the mental processes intended by the unfamiliar and admittedly somewhat awkward term “critical thinking” can be a challenge at first. Simplistically translated, the term is easily misinterpreted to a counter-productive, “Don’t believe anything!” Even when English-Japanese and English-English dictionaries offer an entry, they often do not provide enough explanation for effective understanding, or worse, render it in katakana. Confidently grasping and integrating the process of critical thinking, however, is an essential foundation for a news media or journalism course which aims to build students’ independence, and it is worth taking the time to ensure students have a solid understanding of the steps involved in critical thinking about the news and a firmly established habit of using them.

A sample explanation in class could begin with asking if any members are familiar with the term; utilizing peer knowledge in a class is often highly effective. Then either eliciting or providing a definition for students to read and note down, such as “listening or reading, checking for other sources, and deciding independently what is most likely to be true” can help. Following up with a humorous mini-demonstration can make the term seem more manageable. For example, the instructor makes a sudden, unlikely statement about the weather, and then points out that those students who quickly glanced outside the window to check the truth of the statement have provided a perfect example of simple, but effective and appropriate, critical thinking. Some further bilingual explanation can be helpful for fully integrating the term, for example:

“Critical thinking is not just accepting things at face value, and also not just rejecting everything outright” – in Japanese: “sono mama uketoranaiide そのままは受け取らないで
sono mama hitei suru koto mo nakute そのまま信じていることもなくて/否定する事もなくて”

“It is listening or reading, actively checking other sources, and deciding for yourself” – in Japanese:
“kitari yondari shite, sekkyokuteki ni nokano joho wo ete, jibun de kimeru koto きたりやりとりして、じぶんできめること/聞いたり読んだりして、積極的に他の情報を得て、自分で決める事”

Considerations in choosing resources and mediums for classwork

The commonly felt frustration of the language learner when new terms have flown by without a chance to catch them no longer needs to dominate the news-language learning experience.

These twenty years have brought tremendous growth and development in multi-media options for getting news, serendipitously now often offering multiple scaffolding supports to language learners, such as audio with transcripts, or news articles with short videos on the side.
Potential for user control has increased enormously, especially on the Internet, and a computer-equipped classroom with Internet access for classwork and homework is a decided advantage for three reasons related to autonomy and control:

1. Autonomy and control over topics – learners can actively choose what topic to pick up, click on, read, and pursue further, in contrast to television news, in which topics and the time devoted to them are decided in network or studio offices.

2. Empowerment specifically for language learners – the pacing can be set by learners who can, for example, pause to check a point. There is also less distraction with online presentation when compared to television news’ multitasking demands (voiced news on one topic while news tickers crawl the bottom of the screen about unrelated news is an example of the latter).

3. Participation – active or passive. Television tends to present news as fait accompli. Except in the case of disasters, newspapers often print news online faster or in more usable detail than television news. English can and does play a role as a tool for communicating and discussing news across borders, and the more quickly global citizens can discover a problem and discuss it, the more likely they are to be in time to influence the issue’s resolution. Relatedly, and inspiringly, more and more NGOs are specifically global citizen organizations, discussing news and issues across borders and taking it up worldwide.

**Lesson planning and assignments**

Every week students bring in articles which they have found and saved of major news happenings, with links, to develop a clippings file for their semester. First, class members briefly report the news in their own words, and then they each have time to ask about difficult vocabulary encountered in their articles. All members note down the new terms and simple definitions, and thanks to the variety of individual articles and related questions, students soon build up a good collection of news vocabulary. Within as short a time as a few weeks, some vocabulary questions will be repetitions; a sign of how quickly students are focusing in on and mastering the current news-specific vocabulary needed for confident news reading.

A short period of textbook work generally follows the individual news reports. David Peaty’s *Good News* series is one that has been useful because the chapters consist of short background essays on important ongoing trends, with support for confident speaking thanks to an audio CD that students can listen to for their class preparation. The author’s opinions are easily identified and discussed by students for critical thinking practice. Particularly useful and highly motivating is the long term relevance of topics in the books, because students can follow their text-reading by going online. Collaborative searching and updating about the week’s topic; gaining practice at finding new information and enjoying the satisfaction of sharing those updates with their classmates can lead to a useful long term habit of looking more deeply into topics to share and discuss with others.

**Designing and teaching news media and journalism courses for the goals of building skills and empowerment in critical media literacy can be straightforward and will keep course content and classwork fresh and relevant, especially if the class is making use of the superlative new media tools and resources freely available on the Internet today.**

Looking forward, if our students develop their skills, and learn to access and use the best of the world of journalism, they may be part of the community stimulating and creating a more lively journalism in their public service, informing, inspiring and creating the future Japan that they want for themselves.
Comparing sources discussion questions

International source: ___________________ Local source: _________________________

1. What is the main news story? (who, what, when, where, why, how...?)

2. What is the focus of each source?
   Int'l:__________________________________________________________________________
   Local:__________________________________________________________________________

3. What are some possible reasons for each source's focus?
   Int'l:__________________________________________________________________________
   Local:__________________________________________________________________________

Assignment details with this exercise:

1. Students find a single news event and two sources reporting on that same happening. One should be an international source, and the other should be local to the event.

2. If working independently, students SAVE the original articles and bring them to class as well (so the instructor can confirm points of the student's homework).

3. The limited space on the worksheet is to strongly encourage development of summary skills and to reinforce the instructions that the writing be in the student's own words.

4. Proposing answers for "focus" and "reason" questions can be done in group discussion, or with partners, or alone as students develop skill and confidence.

References


Presentation links, sources, related articles:

Social Entrepreneurship: What Everyone Needs to Know by David Bornstein and Susan Davis:
http://books.google.co.jp/books/about/Social_Entrepreneurship.html?id=XC2vfM1ZuwC&redir_esc=y
related: Dowser.org http://dowser.org/

Dan Rather, August 9, 2009 Washington Post opinion piece: “Faltering News Media Spell Trouble for U.S.”

Some examples of noting news articles, taking them up and altering the outcome of issues:
http://www.moveon.org/success_stories.html
NGOs often keep track, and “success stories” can be found on their sites

Guardian article about Avaaz founding and current work: http://www.guardian.co.uk/world/2012/mar/02/avaaz-activist-group-syria
and BBC profile: http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/world-middle-east-17199253
and (IMPORTANT!) a post by a blogger with serious questions about the organization on several fronts:
http://jilliancyork.com/2012/05/29/on-avaaz/


Kenji Nagai in Burma, Hiro Muramoto in Thailand, and Mika Yamamoto in Syria
Source: Committee to Protect Journalists
http://cpj.org/blog/2012/08/yamamotos-death-reflects-japans-media-duty.php/more

Sources

http://cpj.org/blog/2012/08/yamamotos-death-reflects-japans-media-duty.php/more

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Helgesen, M. (2012, September 16), TESOL certificate program workshop, Tokyo.


Identifying Content-Based Instructional Themes for Municipal Level Language Classrooms

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This paper suggests a four-step process to help language teachers identify appropriate content-based instructional themes for municipal level language classrooms in Japan. The paper gives an example of a cross-curricular content-based topic and how it was implemented successfully at a junior high school in Saitama City. The author also reviews some key assumptions behind content-based instruction and explains why CBI themes or units should be incorporated into language classrooms at the municipal level.

Introduction

Content-Based Instruction (CBI) or Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) are popular approaches to language teaching in a variety of academic settings. These approaches assume that it is both effective and motivating for students to learn an L2 through studying content themes or topics that are typically found in L1 subjects. In this paper, I propose a four-step process to select content themes and topics that can be applied to municipal level language learning classrooms in Japan. Of particular use is content that students are familiar with from other subjects because this content can be purposefully reviewed or expanded upon in the language classroom. I explore why implementing CBI may be beneficial with the help of an example of a cross-curricular content-based topic, showing how it was applied in a junior high school in Saitama City. Finally, I briefly review some of the key assumptions of content-based approaches, and I make suggestions for further research on this topic.

Four Steps for Identifying Appropriate Content

In this section, I will give some suggestions on how to identify themes or areas for content-based instruction in municipal schools in Japan. “Municipal” here refers to public elementary, junior, and senior high schools as opposed to private schools, international schools, universities and language schools, which may or may not already have specialized content-based instruction language programs in place.

The following is a four-step process to identify content suitable for municipal level language classrooms:

1. Examine the general school syllabus and the textbooks of other subjects
2. Examine the English (communication) program curriculum and textbooks
3. Consult with language teachers and teachers of other subjects
4. Decide which content themes are relevant, realistic and reasonable

1. Examine the general school syllabus and the textbooks of other subjects

At the beginning of the school year, municipal schools are required to produce the nenkan shidō keikaku, a yearly school syllabus for parents. This is a good place to start investigating what students are learning in other subjects. Once the language teacher has a general idea of what students are learning across the curriculum, it is also useful to examine the textbooks of other subjects and to take note of what content areas and learning objectives students will face throughout the year. If possible, try to look for content themes that re-occur across the curriculum in different subjects areas.

Schools will sometimes have extra textbooks in the teachers’ room, or it may be possible to borrow them briefly from other teachers. Textbooks can also be ordered and purchased from book stores like Kinokuniya. Some content areas are better for language learning than others. Social studies textbooks are particularly useful because the content can be easily applied to the language classroom (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 210).

1. Examine the English (communication) program curriculum and textbooks

When trying to bring content themes from other subjects into the language classroom, it is important to have comprehensive knowledge of the language learning objectives. Comparing these language objectives with the content objectives discovered in step 1., the language teacher will be able to match suitable language with appropriate content.
3. Consult with language teachers and teachers of other subjects

Perhaps the greatest resource for finding out what students are actually learning throughout the school year is to consult with other teachers. Showing interest in other subjects will not only give insight into what language and content objectives are important for students, but may also have the additional benefit of creating better professional relationships within the school.

4. Decide which content themes are relevant, realistic and reasonable

Relevant

Is the content purposeful, important, of interest and relevant to students’ academic needs, daily lives, and personal interests?

The question of whether or not content is relevant is important for motivating the language learner. For a detailed discussion of the matter, please see the article by Valentine and Repath-Martos, “How Relevant is Relevance?”, which concludes that relevance by itself is not enough, “other factors such as student interest, expectations for language learning, and the need for affiliation also heavily influenced student motivation” (p. 246). In this paper, I am not defining relevance as a theoretical construct that is separate and distinct from the notions of interest, purposefulness, practicality and so on. On the contrary, in my framework, relevance is viewed as encompassing students’ interests and purposes in a holistic manner. In addition to students’ actual academic needs, interests are also accounted for when determining if content is relevant.

If the content learned in other subjects can be reviewed purposefully through the medium of the L2, there is much potential to benefit students. An example of this would be to do a social studies quiz in a third grade (ninth grade) junior high school English class. The contents of the quiz would be composed of historical, geographical and societal questions that can be found on the high school entrance examinations. For example, the language teacher would ask, “What is the oldest collection of poems in Japan?” First, students listen to the teacher’s English, and then they raise their hands to answer, “I know. The Man’yoshu is the oldest.” Continuing in this manner, “Great. Ok. Who was the leader of the Shinsengumi?” “Kondo Isami was.” Since the questions review the previously taught knowledge students have learned for the entrance examinations, such a quiz is relevant to the students’ academic needs.

Realistic

Is the content realistic for the L2 classroom? What cognitive and linguistic demands will be placed on the students by introducing the topics involved?

Fig. 1 The CLIL Matrix (in Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, p. 43, adapted from Cummins, 1984)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cognitive Demands</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic Demands</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Is the content too cognitively or linguistically demanding, not demanding enough, or just at the right level for the students? For example, is it better to teach algebra in the L1 due to its cognitive complexity instead of in the L2?

Reasonable

With the many constraints already placed on the current language program, what kinds of additional issues may be of concern to the language teacher (e.g. preparation time, materials development etc.)

When deciding whether a content-based instructional unit or part thereof is reasonable or not, the language teacher should consider questions such as the following:

How many hours will be needed for preparation of the content? Will the benefits of using the content-based unit outweigh the time necessary to manipulate and implement the content complete with
materials? Can content from other subjects be readily adapted or adopted into a current unit of the English or English communication program, or would a separate unit need to be created? Does the language teacher have enough expertise in the content subject area to teach it in the L2 classroom? And is it possible to have a content expert come into the language classroom to support the class?

Energy Debate Presentation: A Cross-Curricular Content-Based Instructional Unit for Junior High School

In this section, I will give an example of how the process described for identifying content for municipal language classrooms was successfully used at a Saitama City junior high school.

In addition to a vibrant regular English program, Saitama City also offers its students an innovative English communication program from grade five of elementary school to the third grade (grade nine) of junior high school. At the climax of this program, third grade students are required to participate in a debate or debate style presentation and to express their opinions about a topic in a clear and logical manner with supporting arguments. Third grade students must make use of the cumulative communication skills and abilities they have developed over the five-year program, as well as of the language structures and vocabulary necessary to debate. These structures found in the Saitama City Board of Education ECAD curriculum (pp. 257-281) include but are not limited to: the comparative (I think ~ is as _____ as ~.); the superlative (I think ~ is the _______ because…); showing agreement and disagreement (I agree. I disagree. I think so, too. I don’t think so. That’s a good point.); and taking a position and giving supporting reasons (We are for/against ~ because …).

After the Great East Japan Earthquake on March 11th, 2011, the language teachers of the ECAD program at a junior high school in Saitama City came up with the idea of having a debate about energy resources in Japan because of the relevance of this topic to the students’ daily lives. Due to the complexity of the issues involved, they started to investigate into students’ prior knowledge about energy and what students were learning about energy in other subjects. As outlined in the first three steps of the process for identifying content-based instructional themes described above, the teachers looked at the general school syllabus, the textbook for other content subjects, and the regular English program curriculum and textbooks. Key to this investigation was the cooperation of the ECAD Chief, a Japanese teacher of English (JTE) in charge of administrating the ECAD program and promoting it within the school, who helped the language teachers consult individually with many of the third grade content subject teachers. Within a short period of time, the language teachers discovered that energy was a very important topic for junior high school students and was taught in several subjects (see Fig. 2).

As shown in Figure 2, Saitama City junior high school students study about energy in 2nd grade Geography, ‘Electric power issues in Japan,’ in 3rd grade Civics, ‘Efficiency and justice,’ in 3rd grade Science, ‘Making use of energy sources,’ and in 3rd grade English, ‘Energy debate: Which power best suits Japan?’
English, ‘Program 8, clean energy sources,’ again in 3rd grade Civics, ‘Towards solving electric power issues,’ and also, in Science, ‘Making use of energy sources.’

The language teachers thought about both the cognitive and linguistic complexities of debating a topic such as energy in English to determine whether or not it was a realistic undertaking. It was decided that although the linguistic demands on students would be high (e.g. they would not only have to master the grammatical functions and expressions used to express their opinions logically, but they would also have to learn a lot of scientific terms related to energy forms and production), the cognitive demands placed on students would not be that high because the students were studying the topic of energy across the school curriculum in L1. This prior knowledge about the energy topic and vocabulary in L1 was a key factor in deciding to continue with the energy debate project. Another factor that was instrumental in the decision that an energy debate in English would be a realistic endeavor was that in the regular English program, Saitama City junior high schools are using the Sunshine English Course textbooks at the moment. In the Sunshine Course 3 textbook in Program 8, Clean Energy Sources (pp. 82-87), students study a variety of energy terms.

Finally, the issue of whether or not an energy debate in English would be reasonable or not was addressed. Necessary materials to do the debate included vocabulary and procedural worksheets, and teaching props such as flashcards. Materials from the textbooks for other subjects could be readily adapted, adopted, simplified, and translated where necessary into English for students. In books and on the Internet, a wealth of authentic materials about energy in English was available. There was no more preparation needed than that for a regular language class. Taking this into consideration, it was determined that the energy debate was reasonable. Also, it was hypothesized that studying the topic of energy in L2 in both the regular English program, and in the English communication program would serve as a valuable review for the same topic in the L1.

Borrowing content and concepts from several units of study, the language teachers were able to link across the curriculum into the ECAD program final debate, ‘Energy Debate: Which energy best suits Japan?’

Results
The language teachers observed that many of the students took a keen interest in the Energy Debate and tried very hard to express their opinions about which energy resources are best for Japan, through the medium of the L2. Although the language and vocabulary involved to do a debate in the L2 was linguistically demanding, students had extensive prior knowledge of the content and expressed enthusiasm for the energy topic. Many students felt that what they were studying in the English communication program was necessary and useful because they were being taught similar concepts in core L1 subjects.

Why CBI in municipal language classrooms?
I have described a four-step process for identifying content-based instructional themes which are appropriate for municipal level schools, and then given an example of this process within the context of a junior high school English communication classroom. Next, I will briefly review some key CBI assumptions and suggest why content-based instructional units have a place in municipal language classrooms.

Content-Based Instruction (CBI): Key assumptions
Although a full discussion of the merits and methodologies of Content-Based Instruction (CBI) for L2 learning are beyond the scope of this paper, I will briefly review CBI and two of its main assumptions.

There are many forms and variants of content-based instructional methods for L2 learning. Content-Based Instruction (CBI) is a term popularly used in North America, while it may be better known as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in European educational circles. Immersion programs as well as English for Academic Purposes programs are examples of CBI. The main idea here is that students are learning language through the study of a content theme or area.

Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 207) state that the 2 key assumptions of CBI are as follows:
1. People learn a second language more successfully when they use the language as a means of acquiring information, rather than as an end itself.
2. Content-Based Instruction better reflects learners’ needs for learning a second language.
CBI as a source of student motivation

One of the main arguments for incorporating CBI into the language classroom at the municipal level is the notion that CBI is inherently motivating for students. Grabe and Stoller (1997) summarize various kinds of research that supports CBI as an effective method for learning L2 from both the fields of second language acquisition and educational and cognitive psychology. They state:

Motivation, positive attributions, and interest are critical factors which support student success with challenging informational activities and which help them learn complex skills. … Research has found that motivation and interest arise in part from the recognition that learning is indeed occurring and that the learning of sophisticated and challenging information justifies the effort…. Interest in content information, and the successes students attribute to content learning (based on past experiences), can lead to powerful intrinsic motivation. (p. 7)

Thus, there is definitely a link between CBI and students’ increase in motivation. For those interested in the topic of language learning motivation from the standpoints of educational psychology and L2 acquisition, reading Dornyei’s influential work in the field is a good starting place (for example, 2001, 2005). In a study on the effects of content-based instruction on EFL young learners’ motivated behaviors and classroom verbal interaction, Huang (2011) notes:

In recent decades there has been a prominent shift from the focus on integrative motivation to situational factors in research into language learning motivation…. Apart from being socially (for integrative reasons), instrumentally or even cognitively motivated towards language learning, learners can also be motivated by classroom factors such as tasks, learning activities and instructional materials (Dornyei, 1998; Ellis, 1985; Julkunen, 2001; Pinter, 2006). (p. 187)

Beyond identification of suitable content: manipulation, complementation and implementation

This paper has only addressed one method for identifying content-based instructional themes and units in a specific context. Beyond this framework for identification is the question of how to implement the content-based program or unit in the classroom. The literature tells us that, “... not all content teaching is good language teaching...” (Swain, 1988, p. 68). Swain (1998) explains that because traditional content teaching has an entirely meaning-orientated focus it doesn’t provide students with necessary means of learning the L2 effectively (e.g. students need opportunities to engage in extended discourse, form-function analysis, etc.), therefore content must be manipulated and complemented before implementation in the language classroom to make it effective for L2 learning. In alignment with the discussion on motivation above, manipulating and complementing content may also bring more opportunities for students’ motivation to increase. Bostwick (2009) offers a comprehensive framework for Content-Based Instruction based on the three principles of “1. Comprehensible Input, 2. Structured Opportunities for Output, and, 3. Simultaneously Focusing on Form and Meaning (known in the Second Language Acquisition literature as Focus on Form)” (p. 3). He gives many examples of how content can be manipulated and complemented for successful L2 learning.

Conclusion: suggestions for future research

In this paper, I have identified a four-step approach to identify suitable content-based themes for municipal level language classrooms in Japan, and given an example of this approach at a junior high school in Saitama City. I have also suggested that incorporating CBI themes or units into municipal level language classroom will be a source of students’ increased motivation for L2 learning. In future research, qualitative and quantitative data should be collected and analyzed to see how much the students’ motivation for L2 learning in the English program or English communication program is actually affected and whether or not purposefully reviewing content from other subjects through the medium of the L2 affects core subject examination results in the L1.
References

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Reading-aloud Training to Facilitate Habit and Behavior Change in Students

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This paper investigates how in-class repeated read-aloud training with an audio recording changes students’ autonomous learning habits and reading behaviors. The study took place in a university TOEIC course in the Tokyo metropolitan area in 2012. At the beginning of each class meeting, the students read aloud a dialogue or a monologue excerpt from part 3 and 4 of the TOEIC test. After engaging themselves in overlapping, eye-shadowing and shadowing for a period of three months, a large portion of students admitted to the effects of reading aloud on their ability to decode, on retention of new vocabulary as well as out-of-class learning style. Despite occasional objections, reading aloud, as long as monitored correctly, seems to be a promising vehicle to enhance students’ autonomous learning and English proficiency on the whole.

Introduction

I have often heard people with native-like fluency say that reading aloud (RA) contributed to the improvement of their proficiency. However, there is some disagreement over the effectiveness of RA among researchers. Celce-Murcia, Brinton and Goodwin (1996), for example, doubt that RA contributes to improved pronunciation in spontaneous speech because the controlled texts usually edit out all the redundant features of natural conversation. Gibson (2008), in defending RA from the opposing arguments, mentions “RA can sound slightly different from spontaneous speech, but there is no evidence to suggest that this is transferred to free speech” (p.33), and that “it is not RA in itself that is bad practice, but its misuse” (p.35). Admitting that the target of criticism has been reading unnatural single sentences as well as “the practice of unprepared reading aloud in class,” which “was commonly perceived as an unimaginative and easy time filler for the teacher” (p.29), Gibson contends that by reading aloud a long text, and handling the activity with sensitivity, RA helps students learn prosodic features of the English language, which is prerequisite to making their output as natural as possible. Likewise, Chun (2002) claims that the texts used for RA should be authentic and vary in type in order for students to become familiar with a wide range of speech patterns. Quite a few other researchers have found RA useful to facilitate students’ reading, if used with a proper aim in mind. Birch (2002) and Underhill (1994) suggest that teachers should use RA as a tool to give students feedback on their decoding skills and comprehension. Without resorting to the tool, it would be impossible to understand to what extent the student is able to connect graphemes and phonemes. Stanovich (1991) suggests that it is crucial in reading to connect these parts of language for speedy word recognition, which helps learners improve pronunciation and learn new words. RA can help learners practice the connections. Underhill also claims that RA helps students acquire stress-timed patterns of English (1994).

According to Chall (1996), after developing automaticity in decoding, we need to unglue ourselves from text and utilize prosodic features such as stress and intonation when reading. Kuhn and Stahl (2003) also mention prosody as a primary element of fluency together with accurate decoding and automatic word recognition, and explain that it “includes appropriately chunking groups of words into phrases or meaningful units” (p. 4). A large number of students struggle with decoding and chunking, and are in the vicious circle that Nuttall (1996) mentions: Those who are poor at reading are not willing to read much, and because they do not read, they...
do not find reading enjoyable. In order to help those struggling readers, two methods were invented: assisted reading (Heckelman, 1969) where a teacher and students read the same passage orally, and repeated reading (Dahl, 1979; Samuels, 1979) where students read a given passage repeatedly in order to develop fluency as well as accuracy. Dowhower (1987) found that repeated reading led to greatly improved speech pause and intonation, and Herman (1985) found that repeated reading transferred to materials that learners had not read previously. Kuhn and Stahl (2003) support the combination of the two, assisted repeated reading, in which students read text repeatedly with help from the tape-recorded model, as it can provide scaffolding. In the case of Japanese learners of English, beside the difficulties in decoding and chunking, they have yet another big problem to overcome: their reliance on Japanese word order. Some students strongly believe that reading is nothing but translating, and they cannot read text from left to right. This explains, for some part, why many Japanese learners find it difficult to solve problems in part four of the TOEIC test (monologue section). Taking this into consideration, incorporating reading aloud activities into Japanese TOEIC classes seems legitimate. Interviewing seven successful learners, Earl Stevick’s (1989) found that most of them took advantage of reading aloud as a learning tool at home. The activity helped one of them to chunk the text into sense groups. Another one found the activity was useful to improve his pronunciation. As long as teachers are aware of the caution mentioned by Chun (2002) that teachers should not spend too much time on listening and imitating to keep students from getting bored, the benefits of RA seem to outweigh the disadvantages. It is also important to keep in mind the aim of the activity, whether it be for acquiring prosodic features of English, proper chunking or accurate connection of graphemes and phonemes.

Study

Method

The aim of this university TOEIC course is, as the name implies, to improve TOEIC scores. However, considering the fact that the TOEIC score is a reflection of students’ English proficiency, simply focusing on stopgap measures such as error corrections after solving mock problems does not seem like an ideal approach. With this in mind, the teacher incorporated reading aloud activities into the lessons as a drastic measure, hoping to enhance students’ reading, listening as well as vocabulary building. On the first day of the course, a questionnaire about reading behaviors and reading habits with 4 items to be evaluated on a Likert scale (see Appendix A) was administered to 45 students (13 males and 32 females) in an aim to capture the overall trend of the class. Then, the teacher gave students an A4 handout of a transcript (with two dialogues from part three and two monologues from part four of the TOEIC test on it). From then on, at the beginning of each class meeting, after explaining the vocabulary and pronunciation of one of the passages (each of which is covered every three weeks), the teacher had students read the script aloud. In order to gain maximum benefit from the text as well as to prevent students from getting bored, the read-aloud strategies adopted varied from overlapping (reading aloud along with the CD), eye-shadowing (reproducing what is heard nearly at the same time, reading the script), shadowing (reproducing without reading the script) and looking-up-and-say (holding a script, memorizing a manageable chunk, looking up at the partner and saying it). At the end of the course, the same questionnaire as in the first class meeting was administered.

Measures

Two dependent variables were measured: students’ reading behaviors and reading habits. The dependent variable in questionnaire item 1 (“When I read, I move my eyes from left to right, without having my eyes go backward and forward.”), and 2 (“I read chunk by chunk instead of reading word by word.”) expresses students’ reading behaviors (decoding). The wrong way of decoding undoubtedly gets in the way of understanding texts as well as in the way of listening comprehension (you cannot rewind and forward what you hear). As Kuhn and Stahl (2003) mention, proper chunking is an integral part of prosody, which is a primary element of fluency. Improved score here seem to indicate that the students got familiar with the right way of reading, which can contribute to increased fluency and improved comprehension of texts. The dependent variable in questionnaire item 3 (“I incorporate reading-out-loud into
my out-of-class learning.”) and 4 (“I memorize new words by reading them aloud.”) expresses students’ reading habits (reading aloud at home). Even if they realize the effectiveness of reading aloud, unless they actually incorporate it into their out-of-class learning, it is unrealistic to expect much room for improvement in their reading. Improved scores here seem to indicate the students’ improved learning style inventory.

Data Analysis

First, students’ reading behaviors as measured by survey 2 (M = 3.74, SD = 0.80) was higher than as measured by survey 1 (M = 3.26, SD = 0.70), t (16) = 2.37, p < 0.03, two-tailed, d = 0.64. By analyzing the questionnaire administered during the first class meeting and the questionnaire given at the final class meeting (see appendix A), some changes were identified. As for reading in the proper word order, out of 9 who initially never or rarely read properly, 5 improved two points or more (3 of them improved three points or more). As for reading chunk by chunk, out of 6 students who initially never or rarely read properly, 5 improved by one or more points on the Likert scale. Second, students’ reading habits as measured by survey 2 (M = 3.58, SD = 0.67) were significantly better than as measured by survey 1 (M = 2.87, SD = 0.93), t (44) = 6.12, p < 0.0001, two-tailed, d = 0.89. The comparison between the first and the second questionnaire indicates that as for reading aloud at home, the number of those who often or sometimes read aloud at home soared from 21 (46.7%) to 39 (86.6%). Out of 25 students who initially never or rarely did the activity, 21 improved their Likert scale points, with 12 of them improving two points or more.

As for the first dependent variable (students’ reading behaviors), the mean difference between the first and the second questionnaire was 0.48, and Cohen’s d was 0.64. As for the second dependent variable (students’ reading habits), the mean difference was 0.71 and Cohen’s d was 0.89. Judging from this, students seem to have received a greater impact from reading aloud in terms of reading habits than reading behaviors. This is no wonder because fluency takes time and it requires a sustained habit for a new behavior (reading in the proper order and chunk by chunk is the case in point here) to take root. However, the fact that the read aloud habit in the classroom for a period of only three months helped improve the reading behaviors of some students seems to be a good sign. The fact that quite a few of them started taking on the habit at home as well could indicate that their reading behaviors will improve even more down the road.

Changes

Below is the analysis of the students (all pseudonyms) whose mean response difference was worth studying closely.

The change in Sayo

As for the questionnaire item 1 (“When I read, I move my eyes from left to right, without having my eyes go backward and forward.”), the answer changed from “never” to “very often.” In the free writing section in the second questionnaire, Sayo wrote, “Reading aloud was pure fun. Also, the difference between the syllable-timed language (Japanese) and stress-timed language (English) was quite informative. I’m a prime example of somebody who came to dislike English after going through the ordeal of the entrance examinations, but recently my love of English has come back. I’m determined to enjoy reading English books this summer.” It is wonderful to know that someone who used to read in the wrong order (in other words, constantly focusing on word-for-word translation) finally started enjoying the content of text.

The change in Hiromu

In response to questionnaire item 2 (“I read chunk by chunk instead of reading word by word.”), in the 1st questionnaire, the answer was “rarely,” but it was “often” in the 2nd questionnaire. In the free writing section in the second questionnaire, Hiromu wrote, “Recently, I consult my dictionary more often than before to check the accent and pronunciation of words.” Hiromu’s comment shows how little attention he had paid to English pronunciation before.
The change in Seiko
In response to questionnaire item 3 (“I incorporate reading aloud into my out-of-class Learning.”), in the 1st questionnaire, the answer was “never,” but it was “often” in the 2nd questionnaire. In the free writing section in the second questionnaire, Seiko wrote, “After starting to incorporate the activity into my learning, some change happened in me: I found it easy to memorize the passage when reading it aloud. I believe the rhythm and stress helped me do it. I began reading aloud new phrases from my vocabulary book.” Seiko realized that vocabulary building without using sound is inefficient. Even if you can read a certain word but do not know how to pronounce it, it will cost you double effort.

The change in Yuko
In response to questionnaire item 4 (“I memorize new words by reading them aloud.”), in the 1st questionnaire, the answer was “rarely,” but it was “often” for the 2nd questionnaire. In the free writing section in the second questionnaire, Yuko wrote, “I used to read aloud the text without using any sound source, but I found it really effective to read aloud with help from a CD. After repeatedly reading aloud, I felt that the new English phrases I heard stayed longer in my long-term memory. It used to be that I rarely studied English at home because I did not know how to study. After getting into the habit of reading aloud, I began to feel that this is a good way to develop practical skills of English.” Like Seiko, Yuko also realized the importance of resorting to sound. Practicing speaking English without using a sound source tends to reinforce your wrong pronunciation as well as intonation.

Discussion and conclusion
At the beginning, 56% of the students investigated here never or rarely read English text aloud at home, 20% never or rarely read English in the proper word order, 13% never or rarely read chunk by chunk, and 27% never or rarely memorized new words by reading them aloud (see appendix B). As shown in the analysis and changes section, it seems that the reading aloud training had a certain degree of impact on a number of students. What is interesting to notice is that the training influenced them in different ways; there are some who acknowledged it influenced their speaking, and others said it influenced their listening, vocabulary building, or reading. That said, it is true that with any training, you cannot always expect every student to benefit from strategy training such as this. To illustrate, there was one student whose mean response difference between questionnaire 1 and 2 was 0. However, it seems to be likely that without this training, Sayo would probably still be unaware of her wrong way of reading; Hiromu would probably still fail to pay attention to his pronunciation; Seiko would probably not know that rhythm and stress are a major part of learning how to speak English well; and Yuko would probably still be struggling to find a good way to learn practical English skills. I would say that reading aloud for them was powerful enough to make it worthwhile.

To date, there is no collective view as to which causes the effectiveness of RA, the amount of reading or the repetition itself. Anderson, Wilson, and Fielding (1988), BerLiner (1981), Taylor, Frye, and Maruyama (1990) claim that increasing the amount of text learners read leads to an improvement in their reading ability. Homan, Klesius, and Hite (1993) on the other hand maintain that as long as a learner reads the same amount of text, whether it be a small number of texts read repeatedly or a bigger number of texts read once, there is no significant difference in the improved reading rate of the students. Taking into account the feasibility, having students read a small amount of texts repeatedly seems easier to implement rather than constantly finding new material of the right level. Reading aloud seems to be a powerful assistant to prompt students to become autonomous learners.

I cannot help but hope that those students who have started reading aloud continue learning autonomously long enough to gain genuine fluency.
References


Dahl, P. R. (1979). An experimental program for teaching high speed word recognition and comprehension skills. In J. E. Button, T. Lovitt & T. Rowland (Eds.), *Communications research in learning disabilities and mental retardation* (pp. 33-65). Baltimore, MD: University Park Press.


Appendix A

Students' reading behaviors
1. When I read, I move my eyes from left to right, without having my eyes go backward and forward. 「英語を読む際、目をキャロキャロさせることなく、順順通に左から右に読んでいる。」
   □ □ □ □ □
   Very often Often Sometimes Rarely Never

2. I read chunk by chunk instead of reading word by word. 「単語ひとつひとつではなく意味の区切りで塊（かたまり）として読んでいる。」
   □ □ □ □ □
   Very often Often Sometimes Rarely Never

Students' learning habits
3. I incorporate reading-out-loud into my out-of-class learning. 「自宅学習の中で音読を取り入れている。」
   □ □ □ □ □
   Very often Often Sometimes Rarely Never

4. I memorize new words by reading them aloud. 「新しい単語は音読をして覚える。」
   □ □ □ □ □
   Very often Often Sometimes Rarely Never

Appendix B

The overall trend of the class elicited from the first questionnaire

Students' reading behaviors
Table 1. Questionnaire item No.1: When I read, I move my eyes from left to right, without having my eyes go backward and forward.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very Often</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students' learning habits
Table 2. Questionnaire item No.2: I read chunk by chunk instead of reading word by word.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very Often</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Questionnaire item No.3: I incorporate reading-out-loud into my out-of-class learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>Often</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
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<td>14</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Questionnaire item No.4: I memorize new words by reading them aloud.

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>Often</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
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<td>%</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Takeshi Ishikawa teaches English at a university in the Metropolitan Tokyo area. He is currently interested in learner autonomy.
The Relationship between Personality and Proficiency: Using The YG Personality Inventory and TOEIC Scores

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This study looked at personality differences between individual English learners and compared these differences with learner proficiency. The study attempted to replicate some aspects of a previous study (Robson, 1992) and to examine the relationship between personality (using the YG Personality Inventory) and proficiency (using TOEIC scores) with undergraduate students in Japan.

1. Personality and proficiency

1.1 Personality

For a theory of personality, the “big five” model is dominant in psychology (Ellis, 2001). The five dimensions of personality are: (1) openness to experience, (2) conscientiousness, (3) extraversion/introversion, (4) agreeableness, and (5) neuroticism/emotional stability. These five dimensions are measured by analyzing responses to self-reports or questionnaires such as the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, or the Yatabe-Guilford Personality Inventory (Ellis, 2001).

Ellis (2001) also mentions that, among these, extraversion/introversion, and neuroticism/stability are the dominant traits which are called the “big two”. Dewaele and Furnham (1999) further mention that the dimension of extraversion/introversion is regarded as one of the basic components of personality. Therefore, they focus on this dimension and confirm that extraversion affects speech production. According to them, recognition of the relationship between personality and oral language helps successful teaching.

It is also important to investigate the relationship between personality variables and different kinds of behavior that learners engage in. There are various individual differences (ID) factors: language aptitude, learning style, motivation, anxiety, personality, willingness to communicate, learner beliefs, and learning strategies. Concerning these factors, Robson (1992) conducted a study of English learners in Japan in order to measure personality using the YG test and participation in oral English classes. This study revealed that extravert and emotionally stable
learners were more active and willing to participate in classroom activities compared to introverts and neurotics.

Yatabe-Guilford Personality Inventory (YG)
The YG Personality Inventory is based on the Guilford inventory, and was adapted, and translated into Japanese by Yatabe (1957). In Japan, this method is seen as one of the more effective ways to measure personality. Many companies in Japan have administered this test to get familiar with new employees and to use it as a screening test. This inventory consists of twelve sub-scales (Tsuijoka, Yatabe, and Sonohara, 1982):

1. Depression,  
2. Emotional Instability,  
3. Inferiority Complex,  
4. Nervousness,  
5. Lack of Objectivity,  
6. Lack of Cooperativeness,  
7. Disagreeableness,  
8. General Activity  
9. Easy-Goingness,  
10. Extroverted Thinking,  
11. Dominance/Controlling, and  
12. Social Extroversion.

The six neurotic-stable traits are from 1 to 6 and the six extravert-introvert traits are from 7 to 12. There are 10 items for each scale.

1.2 Proficiency
Ellis (2001, p. 976) defines proficiency as follows:

L2 proficiency refers to a learner’s skill in using the L2. It can be contrasted with the term ‘competence’. Whereas competence refers to the knowledge of the L2 a learner has internalized, proficiency refers to the learner’s ability to use this knowledge in different tasks.

For this paper, with its emphasis on personality and one other variable, proficiency, a small scale study was conducted. The TOEIC test which includes tests of listening and reading was used to measure proficiency.

There are two research questions:

• What personality types will the YG Personality Inventory identify for this group of learners?
• Is there any relationship between personality and proficiency?

The alpha for all statistical decisions was set at p < .05.

2. Method
2.1 Participants
Nineteen undergraduates (mean age = 19.5: range 18.4 to 23.1 years of age) participated in this study. They were first year students majoring in agriculture.

2.2 Measurements
Yatabe-Guilford Personality Inventory (YG)
The YG is composed of 12 traits each one which has ten questions for a total of 120 items. The 19 participants were required to choose between: (1) yes, (2) no, and (3) uncertain. (1) as well as (2) scored two points and (3) scored one point for a possible zero to 20 points per trait. The inventory was administered in June 2012 and took approximately 25 minutes to complete.

TOEIC Scores
The proficiency measure was drawn from the TOEIC test (Test of English for International Communication) which is an English proficiency test that includes listening and reading questions. The test consists of 100 items respectively and it requires about 2 hours to complete. The full score on the test is 990 points. The participants (n=19) took the TOEIC test in April 2012.

Analysis
The statistical analysis of the data began with calculating the descriptive statistics for all measures, the TOEIC scores, the listening and reading subtest scores, and the YG Personality Inventory, using the statistical package SPSS.
3. Results

The descriptive statistics for all measures are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for all measures

<table>
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<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Skew</th>
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<td>7.2</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>1.003</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>-0.683</td>
<td>-0.349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOEIC</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>-0.224</td>
<td>-0.923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>-0.242</td>
<td>-0.541</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1.345</td>
<td>2.268</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Referring to the descriptive statistics in Table 1, there were high scores of inferiority complex (I), nervousness (N), easy-goingness (R), and social extraversion (S). The range of TOEIC scores from 175 to 285 is not wide, and the reading scores are especially low.

The correlations between the measures of proficiency and personality are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Correlations between personality and proficiency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>TOEIC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>0.562*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>0.226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>0.225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>0.483*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ag</td>
<td>-0.457*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>-0.449</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>-0.453</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>-0.654*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>-0.365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>-0.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = p < .05

Table 2 shows the correlations between the measures of proficiency and personality. Similar to previous results (Midorikawa et al., 2008), there were a number of positive significant correlations between such neurotic measures as depression (D) and nervousness (N) and the TOEIC test. On the other hand, there are some negative significant correlations between the extrovert measures of disagreeableness (Ag) and extraverted thinking (T) and the TOEIC test.

4. Discussion

The descriptive statistics shows that there are a number of high scores on various measures of personality. Moreover, there is some correlation with the TOEIC test and personality. The results also reveal that this group of students was rather neurotic and nervous and also possessed certain types of leadership-mind. Additionally, neurotic tendencies may influence test-taking positively and extravert tendencies may influence test-taking negatively. These results are similar to previous studies; neurotic traits can be a positive factor in test-taking and extrovert traits can be a negative (Midorikawa et al., 2008; Griffiths, 2008). Based on Dewaele and Furnham (1999), this finding probably resulted from the following descriptions of the behavior of a highly extraverted and a highly introverted person: the typical extravert is sociable, has many friends, and does not like reading or studying alone. On the other hand, the typical introvert is a quiet person and fond of books rather than people (Ellis, 2001, 2008).

The answer to the first research question: What personality types will the YG Personality Inventory indentify for this group of learners?, provides results that educators can use to understand individual students’ personalities. The answer to the second research question: Is there any relationship between personality and proficiency? is probably yes. Without comparison between control and experiment groups, it is hard to interpret the results. It is not clear what is affecting what, and other variables, which were not measured in this study, certainly influence students’ proficiency. However, this study at least revealed that the neurotic students scored better than the extravert students.

The main problem regarding personality is that there is no apparent theoretical basis for predicting which personality variables would be positively or negatively related to which aspects of L2 proficiency (Ellis, 2008). Thus, generalizing the results of ID studies is difficult. Ellis also mentions that personality traits are usually stable (2001, 2008). From this point of view, benefits of acknowledging students’ personality and educational implications may be scarce; however, the dimension of personality has attracted a lot of attention from many
researchers. IDs including personality have been one of the intriguing issues in both L1 and L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2010).

5. Conclusion
This small scale study was a first step and needs to go further. Future research will look to expand the size of the sample. In addition, some expanded combination of various IDs such as aptitude, and other measures such as task types as well as participation should be considered. Additionally, personality needs to be studied in a more qualitative way. Such data may be collected through classroom observations, interviews, or different kinds of questionnaires.

Identifying students’ traits enables educators to understand individual students better. Teachers can help particular students with concrete support and try to make them become more confident learners. For instance, more reading activities for introvert students and more speaking activities for extrovert students may be suitable. Extraversion indeed affects speech production (Dewaele and Furnham, 1999; Ellis, 2008; Dörnyei, 2010). Also, for students who scored high in leadership, giving opportunities of group activities, discussion, or more independent tasks may be effective. Based on ID research, the following can be said: teachers may be able to pay more attention to IDs and obtain information about students’ personality traits.

References