

Student EFL Development :
Changes in L1 Preferences and L2 Proficiency

Eleanor Carson

松 山 大 学
言語文化研究 第37卷第2号 (抜刷)
2018年3月

Matsuyama University
Studies in Language and Literature
Vol. 37 No. 2 March 2018

Student EFL Development : Changes in L1 Preferences and L2 Proficiency

Eleanor Carson

Abstract

This triangulated study aims to examine student preferences for teacher use of student L1 (first language, or Japanese), as influenced by student L2 (second language, or English) proficiency over time. Research questions include : 1) Does student L2 proficiency affect student L1 preferences ? 2) Does student proficiency change over one academic year ? And, 3) Do student L1 preferences change over one academic year ? Students ($n = 752$) completed SPIL in April, July, and January of the 2013-2014 academic year. Participants were categorized into four proficiency groups. Analysis outcomes from a questionnaire survey given to these participants revealed that L2 proficiency was inversely related to L1 preference factors at Time 1, L2 proficiency changed over time, and EFL students indicated significant but modest L1 preference changes for instructional factors rather than non-instructional factors over time. Qualitative responses indicated that students preferred L1 support for comprehension and understanding of test requirements, and looked to JTEs and NESTs for different forms of support.

Key words : L1/L2-switching ; student proficiency ; student L1 preferences ; medium of instruction ; MOI ; longitudinal

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to explore the influence of student L2 (second language, or English) proficiency on their L1 (first language, or Japanese) preferences for teacher L1 support, and to explore longitudinal proficiency and preference changes over one academic year. First, the conceptual basis for this study will be outlined through the literature review. Next, the research questions will be listed. After that, the longitudinal application of a new instrument will be described in the method. Following that, the results for each of seven L1 preference factors will be discussed according to each research question they address, both quantitatively and qualitatively, before arriving at the conclusions.

Background

Although some researchers argue that the L1 interferes with and may block L2 learning and communication (Kaushanskaya & Marian, 2007; Liu, 2013), and teachers should avoid using the L1 since it displaces opportunities to use the L2 (Duff & Polio, 1990), others have been critical of these positions (Cummins, 2009; Pan & Pan, 2010). In fact, the L1 is already present in the students' minds and cannot be ignored or banned (Butzkamm, 2003). Instead, some researchers argue that the L1 should be used to aid L2 learning (Çelik, 2008; Cook, 2001, 2007; Zhao & Macaro, 2016), particularly for low-proficiency students (Carson & Kashihara, 2012).

Teachers can use the L1 to support basic L2 acquisition in several ways. The L1 can be used to reinforce lexical acquisition (Cook, 2001; Tang, 2002) by connecting new L2 words to previously learned L1 words and then L1 concepts (Kroll & Tokowicz, 2001; Zhao & Macaro, 2016). The L1 can be used to

support grammar learning (Kim & Petraki, 2009), and comprehension (Hosoda, 2000 ; Schweers, 1999). The L1 can be used at a deeper level, as a cognitive tool to enhance learning the L2 (Swain & Lapkin, 2000) and for developing complex ideas in students' L1 prior to expressing them in their L2 (Antón & DiCamilla, 1998). Finally, of practical interest to teachers, use of the L1 can assist students emotionally (Burden, 2001 ; Tang, 2002) and to augment classroom management (Norman, 2008). These concepts guided the researcher's development of an instrument to assess student preferences for teachers' use of the L1, as will be described in the Method.

Despite the potential usefulness of the L1 to study the L2, research has been inconclusive regarding the influence of L2 proficiency levels on student preferences that their teachers can use the L1. This is an important issue to clarify as teachers have often found it helpful to modify the amount of their L1 use, depending on their students' L2 proficiency (Hosoda, 2000). Two exemplars of these studies will be examined in greater detail.

The first example involves a study conducted by Nazary (2008) with 85 Farsi-speaking EFL students. He found that only 22% of beginners compared with 21% of advanced students wanted their teacher to use L1 in class. Not only were student responses unexpectedly low, but also, he reported no difference in L1 preferences between beginner and advanced students.

The second example, by Carson and Kashihara (2012), found results contradictory to the first example. Carson and Kashihara surveyed 303 Japanese EFL students, and found that 86% of beginner students compared with 0% of advanced students wanted their teacher to use their L1 in class. They found an inverse relationship between proficiency, determined using Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) scores, and students' desire for Japanese support in class.

One potential source of confusion could be the collection of data in cross-sectional research at different times in the year. Some students begin the year with the happy anticipation of using the language that they have studied for years, only to crash and burn when they find it more difficult than they had anticipated. Thus, attitudes change with experience over time. Some researchers may have realized this possibility when they reported the time their data collection took place (e. g. Burden, 2000 ; Schweers, 1999), while others did not (e. g. Carson & Kashihara, 2012 ; Nazary, 2008 ; Tang, 2002). A cross-sectional data collection at the beginning of the year could have different results than an identical one gathered at the middle or end of the year.

Furthermore, researchers employing cross-sectional studies have found that preferences decrease as proficiency levels increase (Carson & Kashihara, 2012). However, cross-sectional studies cannot capture the changing relationships occurring in the classroom. Learning is dynamic (Ellis & Larsen-Freeman, 2006). The rapport between students and teachers changes as L2 proficiency develops (Ellis, 2008). Even the development of lexical competence and complexity is dynamic because it entails the gradual accumulation of meanings and contexts to a word previously learned at its simplest level (Nation, 2005). Cross-sectional data collections illuminate the dynamic developments in the classroom to the same extent as a photograph. Like a film, to capture this dynamic relationship, longitudinal research is needed (Dörnyei, 2003 ; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012).

Limited evidence to support the need for longitudinal research has already been provided by pre-test/post-test research. Although there are many EFL studies delivering pre-test/post-test results, there are few in the area of L1/L2 switching (Berwick & Ross, 1989). Yet, some pre-test/post-test studies have found support for potential changes even over a brief period. For example, Tian and Macaro (2012) conducted an experimental study during which they found changes in

vocabulary acquisition over a nine-week period resulting from focus-on-form, and English-Only or code-switching treatments. Although they grouped their participants into three proficiency levels, they were unable to observe differences between proficiency groups, which they attributed to a potential homogeneity of the three proficiency groups (p. 382). Few longitudinal studies exist that focuses on L1 /L2 switching attitudes as influenced by differing student proficiency levels. Thus, proficiency effects over time are still unclear.

While pre-test and post-test studies reveal illuminating trends, they differ from longitudinal methods (Dörnyei, 2007). Pre-test and post-test studies, or two-wave studies, compare responses over two points in time, and measure change in chunks or increments of change in achievement, attitudes, or some other outcome. However, an increment cannot describe the process of change, for two reasons. First, it cannot tell us the shape of change – for example, if it is linear or non-linear. Second, it cannot distinguish between change and measurement error. However, a true longitudinal study requires a comparison of responses over at least three points in time to enable the assessment of variability (Singer & Willett, 2003). In fact, following the trend towards increasing sophistication of research (Loewen & Gass, 2009), the use of longitudinal analysis is the next logical step in the study of L1 use in EFL classes.

One last data contribution was made to enhance interpretation. While quantitative research has advantages in that it can be analyzed with a variety of statistical tests, and questionnaires can be given to many people to elicit reliable data in a short period of time, discrete questions might fail to capture important elements that are associated with participant responses. That is, some variables might exist of which the researcher is unaware but students feel are important to their EFL learning. Therefore, the current exploratory research included semi-structured surveys and interview data following distribution of the quantitative

questionnaire to elicit unanticipated responses that were important to students and to help explain the results (Dörnyei, 2007). All data was triangulated to provide a robust picture of student L1 preferences.

For convenience, “student preferences” will refer to students’ preferences for their teachers’ use of students’ L1 (Japanese). “L1” will mean, “Japanese,” and “L2” will mean “English.”

Research Questions (RQs)

1. Does student L2 proficiency affect student L1 preferences ?
2. Does student proficiency change over one academic year ?
3. Do student preferences change from the beginning to the end of one academic year ?

Quantitative Method

Research Design

An explanatory sequential design began with a quantitative portion followed by a qualitative portion that further explored data uncovered during the quantitative analysis (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The quantitative portion is both cross-sectional and longitudinal, depending on the research question involved, and used a questionnaire developed by the researcher: Student Preferences for Instructional Language (SPIL) (Carson, 2014, 2015). SPIL is described in the Instrument section. Qualitative data was elicited using written and oral responses to a semi-structured questionnaire to explore findings obtained by SPIL, and was sought secondary to and following quantitative analysis. To avoid confusion, the quantitative portion is described first, followed by the qualitative portion, and integration occurs in the discussion. Quantitative data was collected in April, July, and January of the

2013-2014 academic year ; all qualitative data was collected in January of the same year, following distribution of SPIL. The procedure is illustrated in Figure 1.

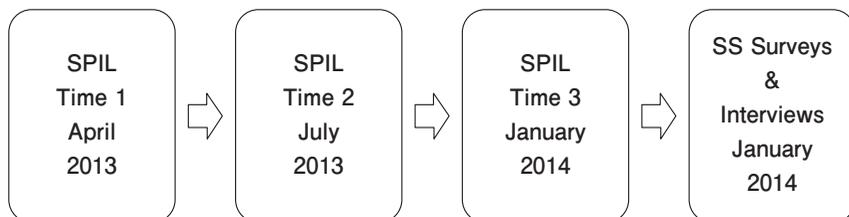


Figure 1. Research Procedure

Note. Student Preferences for Instructional Language (SPIL) was used to collect quantitative data, and SPIL-SS (Semi-Structured) was used to collect qualitative data.

Participants

Students ($n=752$) from EFL classes in 13 universities in central and western Japan consented to participate in this study. Participants were gender-balanced (377 males, 375 females) ; most were freshmen (633 first-year, 119 second year and above), and most were not English majors (637 non-English majors and 115 English majors). Most students were in classes with a strong verbal communication aspect (612 in classes with a strong speaking or listening component, 130 in literacy-based classes). Most students had not travelled overseas to a country in which English was predominantly spoken (578 had not while 174 had). Most students had not studied English privately outside of the education system (695 had not while 57 had). Most had had an ALT in some classes in high school (657 with an ALT, 89 with no ALT).

Of 752 students who participated, 513 (68%) could report their TOEIC scores. Students were stratified into four proficiency groups, with the lowest proficiency students in Group 1 (TOEIC scores ≤ 299) and the highest proficiency students in Group 4 (TOEIC scores ≥ 500). Means are plotted in Figure 2.

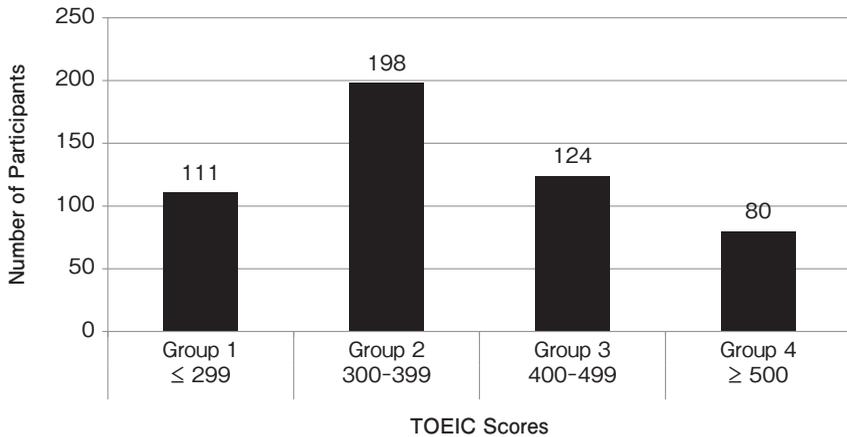


Figure 2. Proficiency groups according to ranges of TOEIC scores

Note. Total $N = 752$. Not all students could report having taken the TOEIC test.

The four proficiency groups were not balanced, with most students appearing in Group 2. Next, I review results from SPIL to locate student L1 preferences according to their use in the EFL classroom.

Instrument

In order to find reliable results, the researcher created a 40-item instrument by applying an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to student L1 preference responses to 5-point Likert-response items in an earlier version of the questionnaire that had contained 66 items (Carson, 2014, 2015). In the Likert-response format, in response to statements beginning with, “I prefer my teacher to use Japanese to :” (followed by a variety of potential language-support functions), 1 meant strongly disagree, while 5 meant strongly agree. Reliability analysis of the newly developed 40-item instrument indicated that SPIL had a high reliability : Cronbach’s $Alpha = 0.901$. Further reliability analysis for SPIL with a new set of participants for the current study indicated that the instrument remained reliable : Time 1, Cronbach’s

$Alpha = 0.902$; Time 2, Cronbach's $Alpha = 0.904$; and Time 3, Cronbach's $Alpha = 0.915$.

The seven factors elicited during the EFA collated student preferences for their teachers to use the L1 for the following functions :

Learning Target Factors

Factor 2. Lexico-Grammar (short : LexGram), concerned with using L1 when defining new words and introducing new grammar.

Factor 4. Tests, concerning teachers use of Japanese to check that students understand the requirements for tests and reports.

Factor 5. Review, comprised of using the L1 when reviewing previously learned concepts, vocabulary and grammar.

Factor 6. Comprehension (Short : Compr), including questions about using L1 when the student doesn't understand the teachers' English explanation.

Para-Learning Target Factors

Factor 1. Emotions, including student L1 preferences when feeling lost or confident.

Factor 3. Teachers' L1 Ability (Short : TuJ), consisting of student preferences about teachers knowing and using Japanese.

Factor 7. Culture and Society (Short : Culture), about students' L1 preferences when discussing social and cultural issues in countries in which the English language is the dominant language.

The preceding list of factors was adapted from Carson (2014, p. 250). Henceforth, data within all factors will be referred to by their short names. For example, "Factor 2 Lexico-Grammar" in text will be F2 Lexico-Grammar, and in some figures

and tables, F2 LexGram.

Interpretation of responses within the seven factors, as described above, were based on means of responses to Likert-response items. Response means above 3.0 indicated a positive preference for Japanese use in class, while response means below 3.0 indicated a negative desire for Japanese use in class. Factor means are plotted in Figure 3 to aid interpretation.

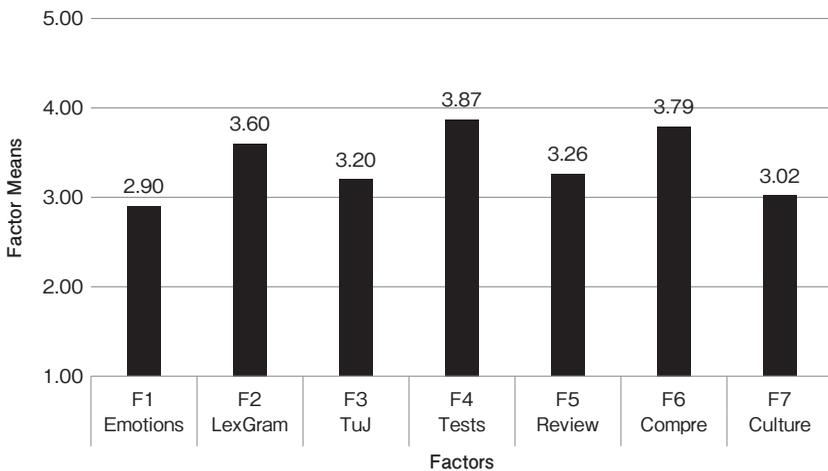


Figure 3. Means for Seven Factors

Note. Total participants $N = 752$.

Procedure

Longitudinal quantitative data were collected at three consecutive times over the 2013-2014 academic year. The data collections took place at Time 1 (April 2013; beginning of the year and of the first term); Time 2 (July 2013; end of the first term); and Time 3 (January 2014; end of the second term, and end of the academic year). The first data collection included a section on

background items (Part 1), while all three data collections included a general section (Part 2) and a specific preference section (Part 3). Students were informed that participation was voluntary, anonymous, and unrelated to class evaluation. Students could take as long as they needed, but generally took about 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire in class. Completion of the questionnaires implied consent.

Analyses

The influence of the independent variables on the dependent variables are used to answer all three research questions. The between-subjects independent variable is student L2 proficiency as measured by self-reported TOEIC scores (four levels, as reported above in Figure 2). The within-subjects independent variable is time (three levels : Time 1, or April ; Time 2, or July ; and Time 3, or January, of one academic year). The dependent variables are each of the seven factors of student L1 preferences as outlined above and described previously (Carson, 2015), as measured by SPIL.

Each research question (RQ) explores the variables using an analysis of variance (ANOVA). RQ 1, testing for the influence of proficiency on each of the seven L1 preference factors, is answered by viewing cross-sectional data from Time 1, and requires a between-groups one-way ANOVA. RQs 2 and 3 are studied longitudinally, using responses from Times 1, 2, and 3. RQ 2 measures the student proficiency change over time with a 1-way repeated measures ANOVA. Finally, RQ 3 measures the influence of time on each of the seven L1 preference factors with a set of seven 1-way repeated measures ANOVAs.

Quantitative Results

RQ 1: Proficiency Influence on Preferences (Cross-sectional)

Does student L2 proficiency (in TOEIC scores) affect student L1 preferences (in a Likert response scale)?

To find an answer to this research question, student preference factors were grouped according to ranges of their TOEIC scores for April (Time 1). Due to space limitations, rather than provide a complex and lengthy descriptive statistics table, the means of the descriptive statistics are plotted in Figure 4.

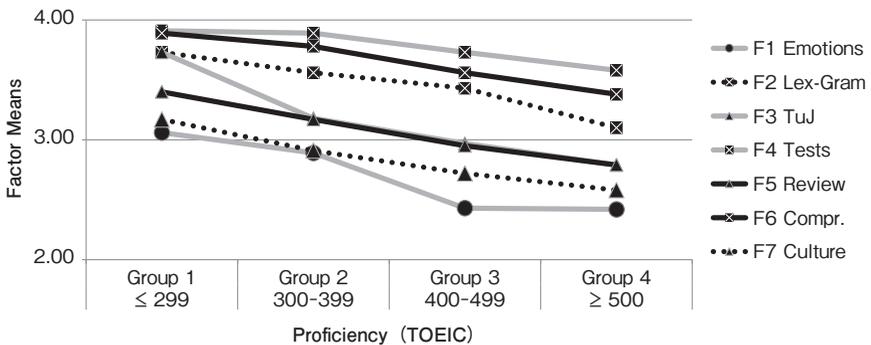


Figure 4. Means of Four Proficiency Groups plotted for Seven Factors

In descending order, students preferred the most L1 support for F4 Tests, F6 Comprehension, and F2 Lexico-grammar. The means for these three factors remained above 3.0 for all the TOEIC groups. Next, students indicated that they preferred that F3 Teachers could help them in Japanese, L1 support for F5 Review, for discussing issues of F7 Culture and Society, and least for F1 Emotional support. The means of this second group of factors started with beginners above 3.0, but decreased to levels less than 3.0 by the advanced group. As can be seen in

Figure 2, as proficiency increased, student preferences for L1 support decreased for all seven of the factors.

Review of the data for all three statistical tests was found to meet basic requirements for ANOVAs. A visual assessment of boxplots disclosed no extreme outliers. There was homogeneity of variances for all groups (four TOEIC x seven factors), as assessed by Levene's test of homogeneity of variances ($p > .05$).

ANOVAs were run on each of the seven factors for L1 preferences across the four TOEIC group levels at Time 1 to find differences between proficiency and preference means at Time 1, as is shown in Table 1. Analysis revealed that the means for the four TOEIC levels were significantly different for students in all seven preference factors for their teachers' use of L1 in the EFL class. Effect sizes were medium for F3 Teachers' use of Japanese, F2 Lexico-grammar, F4 Review, and F1 Emotions. Effect sizes were small for F4 Tests, and medium small for F6 Comprehension and F7 Culture and Society, and may be the result of a large sample size (Cohen, 1988).

Table 1. ANOVA Results Showing Influence of Proficiency on Factors

Factors	<i>df</i> 1	<i>df</i> 2	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>Partial</i> η^2
F1 Emotions	3	509	14.58	.000*	0.08
F2 Lexico-Grammar	3	509	12.99	.000*	0.07
F3 Teacher use J	3	509	11.60	.000*	0.06
F4 Tests	3	509	3.77	.011*	0.02
F5 Review	3	509	12.37	.000*	0.07
F6 Comprehension	3	509	7.46	.000*	0.04
F7 Culture & Society	3	509	8.93	.000*	0.05

Note. *Partial* η^2 = Partial eta squared, or effect size. Small = .02; Medium = 0.06; Large = 0.138 (Cohen, 1988).

**Sig.* = $p < .05$.

To locate the significant influence of proficiency on factors, different proficiency levels are compared for each of the seven factors, as given in Table 2.

Table 2. Paired Comparisons Showing Influence of Proficiency on Factors

Dependent V	TOEIC		Mean Dif (I - J)	Sig.	95% CI	
	(I)	(J)			Lower	Upper
F1 Emotions	≤ 299	300-399	.172	.374	-0.10	0.45
	≤ 299	400-499	.629*	.000	0.32	0.93
	≤ 299	≥ 500	.638*	.000	0.30	0.98
	300-399	400-499	.456*	.000	0.19	0.72
	300-399	≥ 500	.466*	.001	0.16	0.77
	400-499	≥ 500	.010	1.000	-0.32	0.34
F2 LexGram	≤ 299	300-399	.167	.190	-0.05	0.38
	≤ 299	400-499	.296*	.008	0.06	0.53
	≤ 299	≥ 500	.622*	.000	0.35	0.89
	300-399	400-499	.129	.383	-0.08	0.34
	300-399	≥ 500	.454*	.000	0.21	0.70
	400-499	≥ 500	.325*	.008	0.06	0.59
F3 TuJ	≤ 299	300-399	.148	.286	-0.07	0.36
	≤ 299	400-499	.365*	.000	0.13	0.60
	≤ 299	≥ 500	.540*	.000	0.27	0.81
	300-399	400-499	.217*	.036	0.01	0.42
	300-399	≥ 500	.393*	.000	0.15	0.63
	400-499	≥ 500	.175	.303	-0.08	0.44
F4 Tests	≤ 299	300-399	.022	.996	-0.23	0.27
	≤ 299	400-499	.181	.338	-0.10	0.46
	≤ 299	≥ 500	.339*	.027	0.03	0.65
	300-399	400-499	.159	.335	-0.08	0.40
	300-399	≥ 500	.318*	.020	0.04	0.60
	400-499	≥ 500	.159	.536	-0.15	0.46
F5 Review	≤ 299	300-399	.228	.055	0.00	0.46

	≤ 299	400-499	.445*	.000	0.19	0.70
	≤ 299	≥ 500	.607*	.000	0.32	0.89
	300-399	400-499	.217	.059	-0.01	0.44
	300-399	≥ 500	.380*	.001	0.12	0.64
	400-499	≥ 500	.163	.437	-0.12	0.44
F 6 Compre	≤ 299	300-399	.110	.691	-0.15	0.37
	≤ 299	400-499	.332*	.015	0.05	0.62
	≤ 299	≥ 500	.512*	.000	0.19	0.83
	300-399	400-499	.222	.102	-0.03	0.47
	300-399	≥ 500	.402*	.002	0.11	0.69
	400-499	≥ 500	.181	.444	-0.13	0.49
F 7 Culture	≤ 299	300-399	.266*	.045	0.00	0.53
	≤ 299	400-499	.449*	.000	0.16	0.74
	≤ 299	≥ 500	.590*	.000	0.27	0.91
	300-399	400-499	.183	.246	-0.07	0.44
	300-399	≥ 500	.325*	.023	0.03	0.62
	400-499	≥ 500	.142	.657	-0.18	0.46

*Sig. = $p < .05$, with Tukey HSD correction.

First, I review mean differences across all factors based on the change from only one proficiency level to the next higher level (adjacent groups). The mean difference between Proficiency Groups 1 and 2 was only significant for F7 Culture, suggesting that low-level proficiency might be influential for content courses taught in English, for example, chemistry taught to Medical majors in English. The mean difference between Proficiency Groups 2 and 3 only differed significantly for F1 Emotions and F3 Teacher use of Japanese. The mean difference between Groups 3 and 4 was significant for F4 Tests, the only factor the researcher associates with being a language-learning target. It seems that differences between adjacent low-proficiency groups do not influence the factors most likely to be associated with language acquisition, i. e. F2 Lexico-Grammar, F4 Tests, and F6 Comprehension.

Second, an interesting picture emerges when comparing mean differences across multiple groups. Mean differences were significant between Group 1 and Group 3 for all factors except F4 Tests. Mean differences were significant between Group 2 and Group 4 for all factors. Mean differences were found between Group 1 and Group 4 for all seven factors. Considering that the mean difference between adjacent proficiency groups was significant for the most factors between Groups 2 and 3, the combination of all these comparisons suggests that a watershed for student attitudes may be located between proficiency levels of 300-499.

From here, I move on to the longitudinal part of the current study.

RQ 2: Proficiency Change Over One Academic Year

Does student proficiency change over three data collections in one academic year?

A one-way repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there were statistically significant differences in TOEIC levels over one academic year. First, TOEIC means are plotted within groups over three times in Figure 5. The percent of participants in Groups 1 and 2 decreased, while the percentage of participants in Groups 3 and 4 increased over time, showing that L2 proficiency increased over time.

Visual inspection of boxplots indicated that there were no extreme outliers, but the assumption of sphericity was violated, as assessed by Mauchly's test of sphericity, $\chi^2(2) = 89.355, p < .001$. Therefore, a Greenhouse-Geisser correction was consulted ($\epsilon = 0.86$) (Maxwell & Delaney, 2000). The proficiency means differed significantly over time, $F(1.7, 841.69) = 47.67, p < .0005$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.088$, with proficiency means increasing from Time 1 ($M = 2.34, SD = .99$) to Time 2 ($M = 2.54, SD = 1.00$) to Time 3 (end of year) ($M = 2.58, SD = 1.02$).

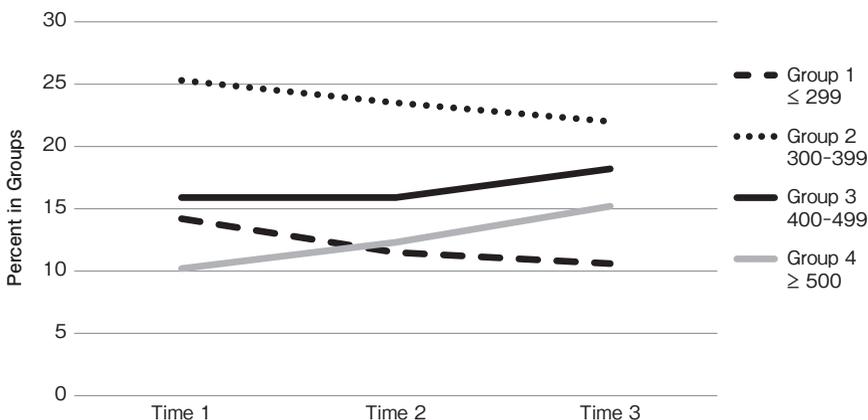


Figure 5. TOEIC group means plotted over three times

Post hoc analysis with a Bonferroni adjustment revealed that proficiency scores increased from Time 1 to Time 2, from Time 2 to Time 3, and from Time 1 to Time 3, as seen below in Table 3. All pair-wise comparisons indicated significant differences. The biggest difference in means was between Time 1 and 3, followed by Time 2 and 3 and last by Time 1 and 2. The biggest change in proficiency occurred in semester 2 (Time 2-3).

Table 3. Paired Comparisons with Significant Differences for Proficiency x Time

(I) Time	(J) Time	Mean Difference (I - J)	Sig. ^a	95% CI ^a	
				Lower	Upper
2	1	.118*	.000*	0.071	0.165
3	1	.242*	.000*	0.174	0.310
3	2	.124*	.000*	0.062	0.186

Note. ^aBased on estimated marginal means. CI = Confidence Intervals.
 *Sig. = $p < .05$, with Bonferroni correction.

RQ 3: Preference Changes Over One Academic Year

Do student preferences change from the beginning to the end of one academic year?

Descriptive mean differences were plotted across the seven factors of L1 use over the three data collections in April, July, and January in Figure 6. From the highest preference means to the lowest, students preferred L1 support for F4 Tests, F6 Comprehension, F2 Lexico-grammar, F4 Review, and F3 Teacher willingness to use Japanese to assist them. Students preferred L1 support least for discussions involving F6 Culture and Society issues, and for F1 Emotional support. Student preferences for L1 support decreased over time for all factors of L1 use, except for F3 Teachers' willingness to use Japanese in class. Responses to F3 items increased slightly from April to July, but then stayed about the same between July and January. All differences in preferences were greater in the first term compared to the second term.

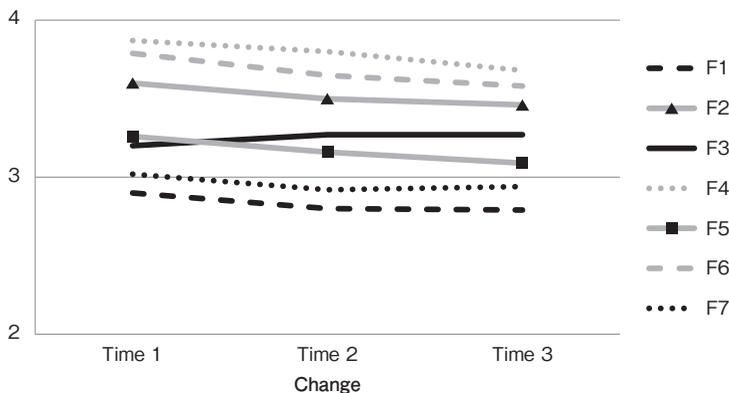


Figure 6. Changes in L1 preference means (factors) over time

Next, a series of one-way repeated measures ANOVAs was conducted to determine whether there were statistically significant differences in student L1 preference factors over the course of one academic year. Since the repeated measures ANOVA is extremely sensitive to departures from sphericity, I interpreted the ANOVA results using a Greenhouse-Geisser correction (Maxwell & Delaney, 2000). Significant differences between factors over time are reported in Table 4. Significant differences occurred at some time for all seven of the factors. Only three differences involved size effects large enough to be meaningful. A perusal of partial η^2 results revealed a small effect of time on F6 Comprehension, F4 Tests, and F5 Review, in descending order.

Table 4. Repeated measures ANOVAs comparing 7 factors across 3 times

Factors	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>Partial η^2</i>
F1 Emotions	1. 98	1, 489. 21	7. 03	. 001*	0. 009
F2 Lexico-grammar	1. 96	1, 471. 80	13. 10	. 000*	0. 017
F3 Teacher use Japanese	2. 12	6377. 76	4. 21	. 015*	0. 006
F4 Tests	1. 97	1, 479. 81	17. 78	. 000*	0. 023
F5 Review	1. 97	1, 477. 79	15. 93	. 000*	0. 021
F6 Comprehension	2. 00	1, 502. 00	21. 78	. 000*	0. 028
F7 Culture and Society	4. 59	612. 82	5. 63	. 004*	0. 007

Note. *Partial η^2* = Partial eta squared, or effect size. Small = .02; Medium = 0.06; Large = 0.138 (Cohen, 1988).

* $p < .05$.

Pair-wise comparisons are used to determine the times at which each preference factor changed, and are summarized in Table 5. The highest number of significant changes occurred over the entire academic year (Time 1 to Time 3), and next in the first term (Time 1 to Time 2). All factors that were significantly different in semester 1 (Time 1 to Time 2) but not semester 2 (Time 2 to Time 3) except F3 Teacher use of L1 and F4 Tests.

Table 5. Significant pairwise comparisons of seven factors across three times

Factors	(I) Time	(J) Time	Dif(I-J)	Sig. ^a	95% CI ^a	
					Lower	Upper
F1 Emotion	2	1	-.103*	.01	-0.185	-0.021
	3	1	-.111*	.00	-0.191	-0.032
	3	2	-.008	1.00	-0.084	0.068
F2 LexGram	2	1	-.096*	.00	-0.160	-0.031
	3	1	-.134*	.00	-0.202	-0.065
	3	2	-.038	.40	-0.098	0.023
F3 T u J	2	1	.063	.06	-0.001	0.126
	3	1	.067*	.04	0.003	0.131
	3	2	.005	1.00	-0.054	0.063
F4 Tests	2	1	-.070	.09	-0.146	0.006
	3	1	-.189*	.00	-0.270	-0.108
	3	2	-.119*	.00	-0.192	-0.046
F5 Review	2	1	-.099*	.00	-0.170	-0.029
	3	1	-.163*	.00	-0.236	-0.090
	3	2	-.064	.06	-0.129	0.002
F6 Compre	2	1	-.141*	.00	-0.219	-0.062
	3	1	-.210*	.00	-0.290	-0.130
	3	2	-.069	.08	-0.144	0.005
F7 Culture	2	1	-.101*	.01	-0.182	-0.020
	3	1	-.089*	.03	-0.171	-0.008
	3	2	.012	1.00	-0.063	0.086

Note. J means Japanese ; Culture means Culture and Society ; Dif (I-J) means Mean Differences between time I and time J ; CI means upper and lower Confidence Interval Bounds

^a Based on estimated marginal means.

* The mean difference is significant at $p < .05$ with Bonferroni adjustment for multiple comparisons.

Qualitative Method

The qualitative data was collected in two formats : Written responses and oral interviews with students using the same semi-structured interview questionnaire. The written responses enabled students to respond at length in Japanese. Later, Japanese responses were translated for the purposes of analyses. The semi-structured interview questions were developed from the seven factors from SPIL and were intended to investigate additional explanations for student responses to SPIL.

Participants

All participants were from EFL university classes in western Japan. After all students had provided quantitative responses to SPIL, I asked some students to participate in interviews or to complete written responses to a semi-structured questionnaire. A total of 66 students participated : 17 (9 males and 8 females) participated in interviews, and 49 (25 males and 24 females) provided written responses to the SPIL-SS survey.¹

Interviews involved four students in each of four groups from classes with teachers being male or female and native English-speaking Teachers (NEST) or Japanese teachers of English (JTEs), with one extra student acting as an interpreter with low-proficiency students. All responses were later transcribed and, where necessary, translated. In this way, I hoped to get a representative cross-section of students experiencing the two major variables of teacher language background and gender.

1) The survey was named "SPIL-Semi-structured" (SPIL-SS) because it was adapted from SPIL to enlarge on details regarding the factors assessed in SPIL, but unlike SPIL, the semi-structured interview version was not developed statistically.

Written responses to SPIL-SS were provided by participants who came from my classes (I am a female NEST). Two classes were English majors and two classes were information technology majors taking English as a required subject in communication-oriented courses, and used textbooks with Japanese glosses.

Instrument.

The semi-structured interview questionnaire, used in both the final interviews and all written responses, was developed to provide additional information relating to the seven factors. It is included in the Appendix.

Procedure

All students from four of my classes were asked to volunteer. Participants completed the written semi-structured surveys in my final review lecture, could answer in Japanese, and they completed these questionnaires in about 5-10 minutes, without financial compensation.

On the other hand, students who volunteered for the interviews received financial compensation. These participants were compensated due to the comparatively much greater time and effort involved in scheduling and conducting the interviews. A male JTE interpreted for two of his students; a female JTE interpreted for two of her students; and a high-proficiency student interpreted for two of my low-proficiency students. Interviews took place outside of class following student exams. The interviews were audio-recorded.

Upon completion of all interviews and semi-structured surveys, all responses were reviewed by two advanced-level English major students, who were hired to transcribe the responses but also volunteered to translate them. All transcribed and translated responses were sent to two professional translators for a final check.

All responses were analyzed and report responses concerning the seven factors, along with additional positive and negative comments about Japanese use in English class, new themes that emerged from the scripts, and unique comments. The purpose of this qualitative study was to shed additional light on student attitudes towards using Japanese in their English class, particularly where the insights apply to the seven factors elicited by SPIL.

Qualitative Results

Due to the large amount of details provided by the oral and written SPIL-SS responses (see SPIL-SS in Appendix), only salient details pertaining to the seven factors are included here. Participants are identified by pseudonyms and their background details. Translated written responses are indicated, while oral responses that were interpreted on the spot are specified along with details of the interpreter. A systematic account appears in my dissertation (forthcoming).

F1 Emotions

Assessment was based on responses to items throughout SPIL-SS that indicated participants' emotional response to instructors' MOI use. I was surprised that students' quantitative responses to F1 Emotions indicated a modest desire for L1 support. Qualitative data revealed that students did not perceive the use of Japanese in support of English learning in a positive light (for confidence or comfort) but in a negative light, that is, as a rescue (to feel less tense or when feeling lost). Responses to the use of Japanese to support them emotionally, while not rated highly statistically, suggested that students wanted Japanese support only when they were anxious or felt overwhelmed.

Although students had not indicated that L1 use to support them emotionally (F1 Emotions) was important for learning English in responses to SPIL, qualitative responses indicated otherwise. Understanding improves confidence, and confidence improves motivation :

...if it is same with what I think in Japanese, it would connect to be the student's confidence and the studying motivation. (Asuka, female, non-English major).

Motivation was not an issue raised by the preferences statements in SPIL. SPIL seemed to elicit only students' needs, or perceptions relating to anxiety and lack.

F2 Lexico-Grammar

Assessment of students' perceived need for L1 support when learning F2 Lexico-Grammar was based on responses to SPIL-SS Q5, Does Japanese help students to learn new English words, phrases, and grammar? Fifty-two responses were reviewed for yes or no choices and explanatory comments. Of the 52 responses, 48 (92.3%) responded yes, 3 (5.7%) responded no, and 1 (1.9%) responded sometimes yes and sometimes no.

When she learns new words, in a case of words, sometimes it's possible that she can understand the words without using Japanese but with English explanations. But in some cases of phrases and grammar, it is difficult for her to understand the whole concept just only in English. And because sometimes she misunderstands the meaning of the concept of phrase and grammar without knowing the context of English environment, so she wants

to avoid misunderstanding, she wants to understand the context more, so she needs to listen to Japanese explanations. (Asuka, non-English major ; female JTE interpreting).

Most students preferred teachers' use of Japanese since it is helpful for them learn some new words, phrases, grammar, and complex concepts. Furthermore, students preferred the use of Japanese to remove ambiguity and uncertainty from their understanding.

F3 Teacher use of Japanese

To locate student preferences regarding their teachers' use of Japanese while instructing them in EFL classes, I referred to responses to SPIL-SS Q6 : Should instructors know Japanese ?

I received 49 responses to this question. While most students answered that they thought the teacher should know Japanese, just over a third of the responses simply answered yes : 18 (36.7%). Many students qualified their answer with "a little," "some," or "sometimes needed," and one participant specified "20% at least" : 20 (47.6%). Finally, some participants answered, "not necessary," "unnecessary," or "no" : 4 (9.5%).

Students tended to have different expectations and hopes for JTEs and NESTs. Regarding positive expectations for JTEs, seven comments were reviewed, and the comments about JTEs' use of Japanese were more thorough than those for NESTs. Students commented that they could understand English as taught by JTEs when JTEs supported the lesson by using Japanese, and this was important not just for comprehension but also to know what was expected for classroom activities :

E : Ok, and what should they [JTEs] explain in Japanese that makes it easy to understand ?

K : What...like translating, or explain what they should do or something like that.

E : Ok, do you mean instructions for the tests or assignments, or classroom activities instructions ?

K : Yes. (Ken, English major, interview).

In contrast to comments about JTEs, the five students' comments about NESTs' use of Japanese tended to focus on emotional issues :

He says if he or she <the teacher> speaks a little Japanese, he <=R> can feel more relaxed, or not ...not afraid. (Ryosuke, non-English major, male JTE interpreting).

F4 Tests

To find students' L1 preferences when they are engaged in producing English to get a credit in reports and tests, I asked students Q8, What language do you prefer for reports and tests ? Students responded with 51 comments, in which 7 (13.7%) preferred the use of English ; 34 (66.7%) preferred the use of Japanese ; and 10 (19.6%) preferred a mix of English and Japanese.

Students who preferred to get details about reports and tests in English valued the exposure to English. One student commented that it was important to listen to as much English as possible. In a similar light, some felt that, since the information is important to them because it affects their opportunity for grades, they would focus more intently on the English than they would in other situations,

and so hearing the important information in English helps them to improve their language skills. On the other hand, some students were worried that they might not understand the details, so they wanted Japanese support. Interestingly, some participants reported that it depended on how familiar they already were with the instructions :

when (if) the student doesn't get used to listening the direction how to do some papers or exams, exactly she wants to know what she has to do for the things. But, if she's used to, you know, how to do the exam and the paper so long in the class and she can understand that, then she doesn't think it is necessary (to explain about the important information in Japanese). So, until she can understand the process of classes going on, then she wants Japanese to be spoken in the classroom. (Kazuki, non-English major ; female JTE interpreting).

F5 Review

I looked at comments in response to Q9 in SPIL-SS, "When students review words, phrases, and grammar in the class, do you want the teacher to use English or Japanese ?" Of 44 comments, 12 (27.3%) favored Japanese, 27 (61.4%) preferred English, and 5 (11.4%) hoped for a mix of English and Japanese.

Students who chose English said they would focus intently on English instructions because it would affect their grades, and so their English skills would improve. Students who chose Japanese support said it was easy to understand the content and finer points. Some were concerned that without Japanese support, they could not keep up with the class.

F6 Comprehension

This factor loomed strongly for both students and teachers during classes. To canvass student opinions relating to comprehension, I refer to responses to Q10: When you do not understand the teacher's explanation, what do you do? Most students responded with multiple strategies, for a total of 54 strategies used within 8 categories of strategies. Since students used more than one strategy, the total number of strategies resorted to is used as the unit of comparison. Of the 54 responses, 8 (14.8%) of the strategies reported asked their friends for help; 19 (35.2%) used a dictionary; 3 (5.6%) asked or answered using easier words; 5 (9.3%) used a Japanese explanation; 7 (13.0%) used gestures; 3 (5.6%) asked the teacher for help without specifying the language used or received (Japanese, English, or body language); 2 (3.7%) asked another person for help without specifying whether they asked another student or teacher; and finally, 7 (13.0%) used other strategies. Of the other strategies, 4 (4.8%) tried using the words they knew, that is, they attempted to communicate in English regardless of their uncertainty and ambiguity; 1 (1.2%) used Japanese words to substitute for the English words intended; 1 (1.2%) used both Japanese and English words, for a similar strategy; and finally, 1 (1.2%) hesitated to speak at all because of embarrassment and panic. Aside from referring to multiple strategies, most student comments were simple and without detail.

F7 Culture and Society

The last L1 preference factor is an anomaly compared to the previous six factors because it is the only factor concerned with teaching subject matter in English. Therefore, responses detailing student L1 preferences to this factor can give some indication of student attitudes towards EMI, or subjects such as chemistry taught to medical majors in English.

Responses were reviewed about Q11 : When a speaker talks about a society or culture in the English-speaking environment, which language do you think should be used, Japanese or English ? Of the 40 responses to this question, 31 (77.5%) responded that they wanted instruction in English ; 7 (17.5%) wanted instruction in Japanese ; and 2 (5%) wanted instruction in both English and Japanese.

Responses favoring the use of English to discuss sociocultural issues in English-dominant countries, or to compare such countries with Japan on the same issues, tended to focus on the cultural roots of languages. Several students indicated that there are words that are specific to a culture, for which there is no Japanese equivalent.

Because each language has an own way of expressing a meaning of concept, for example, in Japanese, there's a Japanese word 'おもてなし Omotenashi', it is a very specific Japanese and related to Japanese culture, so it's very difficult to explain in other languages, like vice versa, in a case of English, if you convey a nuance of meaning of the concept or culture and so on, it's better to use English. (Asuka, non-English major, female JTE interpreting).

Important Emerging Themes

Student comments overwhelmingly chose “understanding” as the single most important and compelling reasons to use Japanese in English class.

First, students felt that L1 use supported understanding of requirements for tests, reports, and exams. For some students, the single most important reason to use Japanese could be summed up – and often was – in one word : Tests. This one reason appeared to be the universal concern of all students, regardless of major or motivation level.

The second reason that students preferred L1 use was to support their

understanding of the language. Students preferred the use of their L1 for understanding words and grammar, particularly where there are difficult concepts or there was no direct equivalent between the languages. However, the order of translation was important. If students hear English first, they will try to understand, and will feel relieved if they can confirm their understanding by hearing a Japanese translation later :

...first she listens to an English version and after that, when she listens to the Japanese version which the English one is translated, if what she listened is right, she can have confidence, or if it is wrong, she can make sure what she misunderstands and what she can understand some parts of the English, to compare English version to Japanese one. (Ayako, female, non-English major ; female JTE interpreting)

However, if students hear Japanese before English, they will listen to the Japanese and ignore the English.

Two additional insights were provided by interviews with students. First, some students actually prefer the NEST to use more Japanese than JTEs. The reason students gave was that, even when the same words are spoken, students can understand the JTEs' accent better than that of NESTs :

Native speakers' pronunciation is more difficult than Japanese teacher. So, sometimes I want help. (Shun, male, English major).

The second additional insight has implications for the development of interlanguage and for linguistic transfer. One student commented that she thinks in Japanese, so to understand English, it helps her to hear a Japanese translation :

I think using Japanese, and I don't use English well. But a teacher uses Japanese, I can understand more. (Rina, female, English major ; translation by professional translator)

On the other hand, students indicated that there were several reasons that using the L1 might not help them to learn English. Interestingly, the negative reasons had very little to do with the seven factors of student L1 preferences. First, if they hear a lot of Japanese, they miss out on the chance to hear native English, and they were concerned about not just learning the language but also learning the native accent. Second, some students pointed out that they had difficulty learning to think in English if the language of instruction switched to Japanese. Finally, and the most common if reluctant response against using Japanese, was students' concern that they might get too comfortable and become lazy about trying to understand English. In fact, some students associated Japanese use with grammar explanation, which they were used to receiving without active participation :

If people use much Japanese, it may be the explanation of grammar and so on. The practical practice of listening and speaking will become to be lazy. So, I think Japanese should not be used too much in the opportunity to use English. (Hazuki, male, non-English major)

Discussion

RQ 1: Effect of L2 Proficiency on L1 Preferences

There is an inverse relationship between L2 proficiency (in TOEIC levels) and L1 preferences for all 7 of the factors. These results contradict Nazary's (2008), and Tian and Macaro's (2012) findings that proficiency had no significant influence

on student preferences. On the other hand, the results confirm findings by Burden (2000), and Carson and Kashihara (2012), in which they found proficiency effects on student L1 preferences. Qualitative observations support this finding; low-proficiency students tended to focus on F6 Comprehension as it involved F4 Tests and F2 Lexico-grammar issues, while intermediate and high-proficiency students tended to focus on issues involving F6 Comprehension as it involved pragmatics, complex concepts, and communication itself, which was not an issue specified in SPIL.

RQ 2: Proficiency change over time

A repeated measures ANOVA indicated that there were significant differences in TOEIC levels at all three time periods. Due to problems obtaining TOEIC measures at all three time periods, these results must be interpreted with caution. Since participants' L1 preference factors differed between proficiency levels, the finding that proficiency is significantly different at each time period suggests that proficiency changes could have an influence on preference changes over time. While teachers often take their students' proficiency levels into account (Herder, 2008; Hosoda, 2000), few studies have focused on finding a significant change in proficiency. Unfortunately, qualitative data could not focus directly on time issues and proficiency since the qualitative data was itself cross-sectional in nature. However, patterns of responses, as indicated above, hint that student attitudes change at different levels of competence with English.

RQ 3: Longitudinal Preference Changes

Results indicate modest support for positive longitudinal changes. It is judged modest since the ANOVA outcomes did not have a strong effect size. The current findings support those of Burden and Stribling (2003) regarding change over time,

and supports Tian and Macaro (2012) regarding learning over time. Again, cross-sectional qualitative observations of student attitudes were limited in support of this issue. It is uncertain how much attitude change might be due to changes in proficiency or to changes over time, since the concepts are related – changes in proficiency require time to occur. Qualitative studies on both could be informative. Additionally, a new question has emerged : Are proficiency-related L1 preference changes due to adapting to teacher styles, or do they represent language learning achievement ?

Theoretical Implications

Student preferences for teacher use of their L1 are inversely affected by their L2 proficiency and are strong in support of linguistic instruction : F6 Comprehension, F4 Test, F5 Review, and F2 Lexico-grammar. As student L2 proficiency rises, their preference for L1 support decreases for most factors. Comments from students emphasized that these functions are important for them, and all are subsumed under the need to *understand*.

The factors with the lowest means are non-instructive in nature : L1 support for F1 Emotional issues, and support for lesson content such as F7 Culture and Society. Student comments suggested that motivation, not covered by SPIL, could be a positive element for language learning and could explain the low student preferences for F1 Emotions, which had focused on L1 support in negative emotional issues. In SPIL, students responded to items involving their language learning preferences and needs, which implies a lack – which is inherently negative. It is possible that a questionnaire addressing the positive aspects of learning a language could find a higher L1 preferences regarding in emotional issues about motivation and language learning anxiety, both issues that influence their willingness to communicate (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels, 1998).

Student focus on instructive as opposed to non-instructive factors suggest a carry-over from their high school focus on tests. Some students responded that they prefer teachers' use of L1 for important information like exams. In Japan, students are under strong pressure to perform well on exams – their future professional lives depend on success. Therefore, information relating to exams is important to them, so they need L1 support. Test-taking strategies generally focus on receptive rather than productive language skills and tests. That is, students in the Japanese EFL context appear to be extrinsically motivated by visible forms of achievement, i. e. passing a course, gaining entrance to a university, or receiving a certificate or degree (Berwick & Ross, 1989). Qualitative comments focused on tests as the reason that understanding was important, suggesting that many students are learning a language to achieve a goal other than learning the language.

Limitations and potential research directions

Several limitations occurred in this study. First, student proficiency groups were not balanced because participants were required to choose among ranges of TOEIC scores. Second, proficiency was determined from self-reported TOEIC scores, and self-reported assessment tends to suffer from bias and intentional or accidental error (Maxwell, 2009). Finally, SPIL was created using an exploratory factor analysis, and needs to undergo a confirmatory factor analysis.

To compensate for limitations, testing could be done by the institution in a formal setting to acquire exact scores. With exact scores, not only will the proficiency assessment carry greater validity, but also, participants could be divided into equal groups, which would improve validity and reliability of statistical tests (Pallant, 2013).

Further suggestions for future research are that comparisons of cohorts over longer time could provide greater enlightenment, particularly if carried throughout

the high school and university years. In addition, comparison of conditions, particularly with well-controlled experimental conditions, could attempt to measure language gains as influenced by L1 use and well as manipulation of any or all of the factors as identified in SPIL. Additionally, the study of L1 preferences to support student learning in emotional situations could branch out to include positive concepts such as motivation and willingness to communicate. Finally, future research could attempt to find whether preference changes over time are a result of adaptation to teacher methods or actual language learning gains.

Conclusions

Evidence indicated proficiency effects on student preferences for L1 support, especially for tests, comprehension, review, and grammar, and these effects were maintained over time. Evidence revealed a reduction of student L1 support preference for all factors, except their preferences that teachers can use their L1 in class. Finally, a variety of theoretical implications and potential research directions were discussed.

Acknowledgements : This study builds on prior research undertaken as part of the requirements for doctoral research in Applied Linguistics. Therefore, I am indebted to my adviser, Dr. Chiaki Iwai, for his use of the Socratic method to guide my creation of SPIL and its adaptation to a version for teachers and for qualitative research. I'd like to thank the students and teachers who participated and made this research possible. I am grateful for commentary on an earlier draft by Dr. Iwai of Hiroshima City University and Dr. Ikegami of Matsuyama University. Any remaining errors are mine.

This study was completed with the support of the 2016 Special Research Fund

from Matsuyama University.

References

- Antón, M., & DiCamilla, F. J. (1998). Socio-cognitive functions of L1 collaborative interaction in the L2 classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue Canadienne Des Langues Vivantes*, 54 (2), 233-247. <https://doi.org/10.1111/0026-7902.00018>
- Berwick, R., & Ross, S. (1989). Motivation after matriculation : Are Japanese learners of English still alive after exam hell ? *JALT Journal*, 11 (2), 193-210.
- Burden, P. (2000). The use of the students mother tongue in monolingual English “conversation” classes at Japanese universities. *The Language Teacher*, 24 (6), 5-10. Retrieved from http://jalt-publications.org/files/pdf/the_language_teacher/jun00.pdf
- Burden, P. (2001). When do native English speakers and Japanese college students disagree about the use of Japanese in the English conversation classroom ? *The Language Teacher*, 25 (4), 5-10. <https://doi.org/10.1177/003368820003100107>
- Burden, P., & Stribling, P. (2003). Attitude change towards mother tongue usage in conversation class. *The Language Teacher*, 27 (1), 3-8.
- Butzkamm, W. (2003). We only learn language once. The role of the mother tongue in FL classrooms : Death of a dogma. *Language Learning Journal*, 28 (1), 29-39.
- Carson, E. (2014). Teachers and students : At L1 odds in the EFL class. In N. Sonda & A. Krause (Eds.), *JALT 2013 Conference Proceedings* (pp. 248-258). Tokyo : JALT.
- Carson, E. (2015). Introducing a new scale : Student Preferences for Instructional Language (SPIL). *Japanese Association of College English Teachers : Chugoku-Shikoku Chapter Regional Bulletin*, 12, 19-36.
- Carson, E., & Kashihara, H. (2012). Using the L1 in the L2 classroom : The students speak. *The Language Teacher*, 36 (4), 41-48.
- Çelik, S. (2008). Opening the door : An examination of mother tongue use in foreign language classrooms. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, 34, 75-85.
- Cook, V. (2001). Using the first language in the classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue Canadienne Des Langues Vivantes*, 57 (3), 402-423. Retrieved from <http://homepage.ntlworld.com/vivian.c/Writings/Papers/L1inClass.htm>
- Cook, V. (2007). Multi-competence : Black hole or wormhole for second language acquisition research ? In Z. Han, A. Revesz, E. S. Park, C. Combs, & J. H. Kim (Eds.), *Understanding Second Language Process* (Vol. 25, pp. 16-26). Clevedon, UK : Multilingual Matters.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2011). *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods*

- Research* (2nd ed.). Sage : Los Angeles.
- Cummins, J. (2009). Multilingualism in the English-language classroom : Pedagogical considerations. *TESOL Quarterly*, 43 (2), 317-321. <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1545-7249.2009.tb00171.x>
- Dörnyei, Z. (2003). *Questionnaires in Second Language Research : Construction, Administration, and Processing*. Mahwah, NJ : Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S027226310423306X>
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics : Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed Methodologies* (Vol. 19). Oxford : Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2009.00223.x>
- Dörnyei, Z., & Csizér, K. (2012). How to design and analyze surveys in second language acquisition research. In S. Mackey & S. Gass (Eds.), *Research Methods in Second Language Acquisition : A Practical Guide* (pp. 74-94). Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Duff, P., & Polio, C. (1990). How much foreign language is there in the foreign language classroom? *The Modern Language Journal*, 74 (2), 154-166.
- Ellis, N. C., & Larsen-Freeman, D. (2006). Language Emergence : Implications for Applied Linguistics – Introduction to the Special Issue. *Applied Linguistics*, 27 (4), 558-589. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/aml028>
- Ellis, R. (2008). Learner beliefs and language learning. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly*, 10 (4), 7-25.
- Field, A. (2013). *Discovering Statistics Using SPSS* (4th ed.). Los Angeles : SAGE Publications.
- Herder, S. (2008). Use of the mother tongue : Successfully negotiating the slippery slope. *The School House*, 16 (3), 35-45.
- Hosoda, Y. (2000). Teacher codeswitching in the EFL classroom. *JALT Journal*, 22 (1), 69-93.
- Kaushanskaya, M., & Marian, V. (2007). Bilingual language processing and interference in bilinguals : Evidence from eye tracking and picture naming. *Language Learning*, 57 (1), 119-163. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2007.00401.x>
- Kim, Y., & Petraki, E. (2009). Students' and teachers' use of and attitudes to L1 in the EFL classroom. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly*, 11 (4), 58-89.
- Kroll, J. F., & Tokowicz, N. (2001). The development of conceptual representation for words in a second language. In J. Nicol (Ed.), *One Mind, Two Languages : Bilingual Language Processing* (Vol. 2, pp. 49-71). Malden, MA : Blackwell Publishers.
- Liu, C. (2013). From language learners to language users : A study of Chinese students in the UK. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 23 (2), 123-143.
- Loewen, S., & Gass, S. (2009). The use of statistics in L2 acquisition research. *Language Teaching*, 42 (2), 181-196. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s.0261444808005624>

- MacIntyre, P. D., Dörnyei, Z., Clément, R., & Noels, K. A. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2 : A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *The Modern Language Journal*, 82 (4), 545-562. <https://doi.org/10.2307/330224>
- Maxwell, J. A. (2009). Designing a Qualitative Study. *The SAGE Handbook of Applied Social Research Methods*, 214-253. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9299.00177>
- Maxwell, S. E., & Delaney, H. D. (2000). *Designing Experiments and Analyzing Data : A Model Comparison Perspective* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, New Jersey : Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Nation, I. S. P. (2005). Teaching vocabulary. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly*, 7 (3), 47-54.
- Nazary, M. (2008). The role of L1 in L2 acquisition : Attitudes of Iranian university students. *Novitas-ROYAL*, 2 (2), 138-153.
- Norman, J. (2008). Benefits and drawbacks to L1 use in the L2 classroom. In M. Watts, K. Bradford, Muller, T. & Swanson (Ed.), *JALT 2007 Conference Proceedings*. (pp. 691-701). Tokyo : JALT.
- Pallant, J. (2013). *SPSS Survival Manual : A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS for Windows (Version 10)* (3rd ed.). McGraw-Hill : Open University Press.
- Pan, Y., & Pan, Y. (2010). The Use of L1 in the Foreign Language Classroom. *Colomb. Appl. Linguist. J.*, 12 (2), 87-96.
- Schweers, C. W. (1999). Using L1 in the L2 classroom. *English Teaching Forum*, 37 (2), 6-9.
- Singer, J. D., & Willett, J. B. (2003). *Applied Longitudinal Data Analysis : Modeling Change and Event Occurrence*. Oxford, UK : Oxford University Press.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2000). Task-based second language learning : The uses of the first language. *Language Teaching Research*, 4 (3), 251-274. <https://doi.org/10.1191/136216800125087>
- Tang, J. (2002). Using L1 in the English classroom. *English Teaching Forum*, 40 (1), 36-43. Retrieved from <http://eca.state.gov/forum/vols/vol40/no1/p36.htm>
- Tian, L., & Macaro, E. (2012). Comparing the effect of teacher codeswitching with English-only explanations on the vocabulary acquisition of Chinese university students : A lexical focus-on-form study. *Language Teaching Research*, 16 (3), 367-391. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168812436909>
- Zhao, T., & Macaro, E. (2016). What works better for the learning of concrete and abstract words : Teachers' L1 use or L2-only explanations ? *International Journal of Applied Linguistics (United Kingdom)*, 26 (1), 75-98. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12080>

Appendix. SPIL-SS

Student Number :

Nickname :

School :

Date :

Please answer the following questions in either Japanese or English. Please give as much detail as you can. Please write clearly.

1. How many classes do you have each week with a
 - i. Native English-speaking English teacher? _____
 - ii. Native Japanese-speaking English teacher? _____

2. What percentage of Japanese would you like your native speaking English teacher to use in your English class? _____

3. What percentage of Japanese would you like your native speaking Japanese teacher to use in your English class? _____

4. F1. If you prefer the use of Japanese in your class, why? (Please circle the relevant item.)
 - a) To boost confidence
 - b) It's more comfortable
 - c) I am less tense
 - d) I feel less lost

Which of these 4 situations is the most important to you, and why?

5. F2. Does the use of Japanese in class help you when you are learning new English words, phrases or grammar ?
6. F3. Should the instructor know Japanese ?
7. F3. Would you like your teacher to use Japanese in class ?
8. F4. When you are listening to instructions about reports and tests, do you prefer the teacher to use Japanese or English, and why ?
9. F5. When you are reviewing words, concepts and grammar in class, do you prefer that the teacher to use Japanese or English, and why ?
10. F6. When you don't understand your teacher's English, or can't think of the English words to ask or answer a question, what do you do ?
11. F7. Do you think Japanese or English should be used when talking about English-language society or culture ? Why ?
12. What is good about using Japanese in English class ?
13. What is bad about using Japanese in English class ?