The Effects of Own Language Use on Ethnic Malay Learners of the Japanese Language:

Towards the Localization of Japanese Language Education in Malaysia

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This dissertation is dedicated to my father, the person who inspired me to pursue academia.

This one is for you, Bah.

ABSTRACT

This doctoral dissertation focuses on the effects of own language use on ethnic Malay learners of the Japanese language. The effects investigated in this study are mainly focused on their grammar comprehension and their attitudes towards own language use in the Japanese language classroom. To examine these effects, a 5-week quasi-experimental pretest-posttest comparison group research was study designed. 19 students attending a Japanese language preparatory school in Malaysia volunteered to participate in the study. The students were divided into two groups, where one group received own language inclusive instruction and the other received target language only instruction. Three research questions guided the study. The first research question looked at the effects of own language use on students' grammar comprehension and grammar achievement, the second research question looked at students' attitudes towards own language use, and the third looked at the effects of own language use on students' attitudes towards own language use. In addition, two exploratory questions investigated the difference in the perceived level of comprehension from the students and the difference in learning difficulty of each grammatical word. The data in this study were collected in the form of pretest and posttest scores, diagnostic test scores, responses to lesson questionnaires and a pre-and post-attitude survey. The data were analyzed with Mann-Whitney U test and the Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

Own language use was found to have positive effects when learning grammatical words associated with time related expressions. The findings also depicted a pattern where Japanese

grammatical words with similar meaning and use are more comprehendible when their respective English and Malay translations are not similar to each other. Although own language is able to support students' grammar comprehension, findings from the student comments revealed that providing sufficient example sentences and practice questions are as equally important due to the limitations of own language. In regard to students' attitudes, significant positive changes were recorded in the students who were in the own language inclusive group.

The findings from this study presents an introductory approach to utilizing own language in the advanced Japanese language classroom. Furthermore, it extends investigations of previous research by providing a possible framework of determining which grammatical words in the Japanese language are better suited to be taught with own language than target language only. More importantly, it is hoped that this study can benefit local nonnative Japanese language teachers in Malaysia by providing new information and insight to further expand the current syllabus and teaching methods of Japanese language education in the country. Following this, Malaysia can finally move towards fully achieving the localization of Japanese language education.

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"The role of own language in the localization of Japanese language education in Malaysia." *The Japan Association of Comparative Culture.* (2020 年 10 月掲載)

Chapter 2

"Reconsidering the direct teaching method in Japanese language education.*" JALT Journal of Japanese Language Education.* 15. pp. 13-20. (2019 年 12 月掲載)

"Malaysian students' attitudes towards L1 use in Japanese language classroom." *The International Journal of Language Literacy and Translation* 2.1. pp. 10-25. (2019 年 5 月掲載)

Chapter 3

"Student's response to the direct teaching method: A case study on Malaysian learners of the Japanese language." *Journal of the Faculty of International Studies Utsunomiya University.* 50. pp. 171-178. (2020 年 9 月掲載)

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This doctoral dissertation investigated the effects of own language use on ethnic Malay students' grammar comprehension in Japanese as a Second Language (JSL) at a Japanese language preparatory school in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. The effects of own language use in the classroom were explored using quasi-experimental methods consisting of two groups and two treatments. This study focused on investigating the effects of own language use on students' grammar comprehension with regard to its effects on the students' test scores and overall understanding, as well as their attitudes towards own language use. In addition to this, the grammatical words tested in the study were examined to determine which would be better understood using the students' own language compared to using the target language only.

This introductory chapter firstly discusses the contextual background of the study by considering the language environment as well as the Japanese language education context in Malaysia. Then, the statement of the problem, aims and objectives of the study and the study's significance are explained, followed by definitions of key terms. Finally, the structure of the dissertation is outlined with regard to the content of each chapter.

1.1 Contextual Background of Study

Malaysia is a multiethnic, multireligious and multilingual country. A census report by the Department of Statistics Malaysia (2019) showed that Malaysia has a total population of 29.4

million which include the multiethnic groups of Malay (68.8%), Chinese (23.2%), Indian (7.0%), and others (1.0%). Bahasa Melayu or the Malay language is the national and official language of the country. However, English is also widely used, and it is the second-most shared language in the country with 61% speakers[1]. In addition, Mandarin as well as regional dialects such as Cantonese and Hokkien are spoken by most ethnic Chinese citizens, and Tamil is spoken by most ethnic Indian citizens. As a result of the plethora of languages in the country, it is very common for Malaysians to codeswitch or interchange between languages, making the language environment in Malaysia quite unique.

1.1.1 Language Policies in Malaysia

In the Malaysian education system, Malay and English are compulsory subjects throughout elementary and high schools. While Malay or *Bahasa Malaysia* became the official medium of instruction in national schools after independence, a special emphasis was placed on English due to British influence. The effects of globalization, however, resulted in the English language becoming the medium of instruction at the tertiary level in 1996 for private universities, and 2005 for public universities (Ali, 2013).

In addition, Chinese and Indian primary vernacular schools use Mandarin or Tamil as the language of instruction. Apart from the compulsory and ethnic languages, students also have

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[1] EF English Proficiency Index – A comprehensive ranking of countries by English skills

the opportunity to learn foreign languages in selected high schools as an elective subject and as a third language in university. Among the languages commonly offered are French, Arabic, German, and Japanese.

1.1.2 The Look East Policy

The Japanese language has grown increasingly popular as one of the foreign languages taught in Malaysia due to the influence of the Look East Policy (LEP) introduced in the early 1980s by former Prime Minister, Tun Dr. Mahathir Mohammad. The policy encouraged Malaysians to look to Japan and Korea as examples and learn from their work ethics and attitudes (Leong, 1994). Mahathir believed that making Japan and Korea model countries will inspire Malaysia's own national development (Leong, 1994). The LEP kick started various projects between Malaysia and Japan, including study abroad programs to learn technical skills. These programs, however, did require students to have fluency in the Japanese language and as a result, the first preparatory course for studying in Japan was established in 1982 at University of Malaya. Since that year, 100 students are sent to Japan each year as international students. In 1984, as an effort to introduce the Japanese language earlier into the Malaysian school system, the Japanese language was taught at six fully residential schools selected by the Ministry of Education in

Malaysia. By the year 1990, there were a total of 48 Japanese language schools, 191 teachers, and 6,094 learners in Malaysia[2].

Malaysia's Japanese language education is largely influenced by the LEP and has been characterized mainly by government initiatives. Through the public service department scholarship (JPA), high achieving students are selected to pursue their studies in Japan. These students are required to attend a preparatory course for two years before their departure. There are four main institutions in Malaysia that provide preparatory education for students who wish to study abroad in Japan:

1．Rancangan Persediaan Khas ke Jepun, Pusat Asasi Sains, Universiti Malaya（通称 Ambang Asuhan Jepun、AAJ）　マラヤ大学予備教育部日本留学特別コース

2．Kumpulan Teknikal Jepun（KTJ）, INTEC Education College
INTEC 教育カレッジ東方政策プログラム高等専門学校予備教育コース

3．Malaysia Japan Higher Education Programme（MJHEP）, Yayasan Pendidikan MARA
マラ教育財団マレーシア日本高等教育プログラム

4．Pusat Bahasa Teikyo（PBT）　帝京マレーシア日本語学院

The preparatory schools were set up to provide adequate Japanese language education to students before their departure to ensure their survivability in a Japanese university. Students focus only

on learning the Japanese language during the first year and are introduced to either science or arts subjects during the second year. After completing two years of preparatory education, the students undergo an examination by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology before proceeding to attend a university in Japan. According to the Embassy of Japan in Malaysia, as of 2017, more than 7,890 students have been sent to Japan by the Malaysian government to pursue their tertiary education[3] (Table 1).

Table 1: *Number of Malaysian Students Sent by the Malaysian Government to Japan Under the Look East Policy*

Year	Study Program					
	University (Undergraduate)	**Technical College**	**University (Postgraduate)**	***JLPMT**	***MJHEP (HELP)**	**Total**
1984	39	24	-	-	-	63
1985	45	28	-	-	-	73
1986	64	30	-	-	-	94
1987	79	29	-	-	-	108
1988	81	30	-	-	-	111
1989	84	30	-	-	-	114
1990	81	29	-	10	-	120
1991	88	50	-	10	-	148
1992	104	65	-	12	-	181
1993	114	78	-	15	-	207

[3] Ibid.

1994	135	92	-	20	-	247
1995	123	89	-	17	53	282
1996	128	88	-	11	62	289
1997	145	96	-	10	79	330
1998	143	94	-	6	31	274
1999	127	84	-	-	28	239
2000	96	54	19	-	-	169
2001	107	-	18	-	52	177
2002	147	47	17	-	49	260
2003	149	56	16	4	69	294
2004	148	69	19	10	54	300
2005	172	79	18	10	56	335
2006	182	61	18	7	-	268
2007	154	71	23	8	-	256
2008	168	76	11	6	75	336
2009	165	74	11	discontinued in 2008	85	335
2010	130	72	6		79	287
2011	158	71	10		84	323
2012	132	58	12		86	288
2013	126	40	9		57	232
2014	109	91			54	254
2015	102	76			90	268
2016	123	76			103	302
2017	138	77			117	332
Total	4,086	2,084	207	156	1,363	**7,896**

*JLPMT: Japanese Language Program for Malaysian Teachers   MJHEP: Malaysia-Japan Higher Education Project

Source: The Malaysian Look East Policy by The Embassy of Japan in Malaysia, retrieved from:

https://www.my.emb-japan.go.jp/English/JIS/education/LEP.htm

Although students have been steadily sent to Japan since the inception of these preparatory courses, the styles and methods of teaching Japanese language in Malaysia remain largely unchanged. This is in contrast with the significant progress in language teaching methodologies seen in different languages such as English, in the English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context.

1.1.3 Localization of Japanese Language Education in Malaysia

The Japanese government launched The Japan Foundation in 1972 with the objective to promote Japanese language overseas (Shimazu, 2008). The Japan Foundation identifies itself as local initiative which prioritizes the localization of Japanese language education based on the diverse needs and educational policies of each country (Shimazu, 2008). According to Shimazu and Hamabe (2006), the term *localization* in this context is defined as developing a Japanese language education system that is centred on local teachers who are trained according to the educational system of that country. Thus, the syllabus, curriculum, and teaching materials should also reflect that of the country and the needs of students in their designated institutions.

The efforts of localization in Malaysia can mainly be observed through the *Program Diploma Pascasiswazah Pendidikan Bahasa Jepun* (PDPP BJ), which is a program to train local Japanese language teachers. The program was launched by the Ministry of Education to accommodate the increasing need of Japanese language teachers in secondary schools. This program is the first of its kind. Takagi, Sato and Furuuchi (2007) reported that no other country

had a system in which local Japanese language teachers are trained locally and later assigned to regular educational institutions.

Despite this effort, and the aims of the Japan Foundation to localize Japanese language education in the country, Malaysia is still far from reducing its reliance on native Japanese language teachers. Ota (1999) characterized Japanese language education in Malaysia as being *Japanese native centric*, which means relying on native Japanese teachers and experts to foster and spearhead programs instead of letting local Malaysians take the lead. The lack of emphasis on the localization of Japanese language education in Malaysia creates a dependency on native Japanese teachers. Furthermore, Ota (1999) believed that the most important task is to re-examine the growth and development of Malaysian teachers and the role of Japanese language education even after the LEP. Kimura (2016) agreed to the notion and further breaks down the localization of Japanese language in Malaysia into three stages. The first stage was when there were only native Japanese language teachers in the country. At this stage, native teachers were mostly supplied by the Japan Foundation through volunteer programs to help support the initial development of Japanese language in the country. The second stage was when local teachers who had been trained by the native teachers in stage one had returned from their degree studies in Japan and have proceeded to work alongside native Japanese language teachers in teaching Japanese. Kimura (2016) believes that Japanese language education in Malaysia has now supposedly entered the third stage, where local teachers have gained full-time faculty positions, as well as being able to propose their own teaching ideas and approaches. However, she claims

that localization has remained stagnant at this stage due to the lack resources in the country such as local Japanese teacher associations, academic societies, or even local Japanese language education journals to confide their worries and teaching concerns. Without these groups, Malaysian teachers have less opportunities to exchange views and have meaningful discussions amongst each other on how to improve the current Japanese language education in the country.

The lack of localization in Japanese language education in Malaysia can also be seen in terms of teaching methods and approaches. Since the methods are learnt and mirrored from native Japanese teachers, there is no consideration towards Malaysian students' multilingual background as well as specific problems and differences that Malaysian students might face compared to those from other countries. Similar to the prior issues faced in the English language context in Malaysia, Kachru (1994, p.241) stated that "approaches to the teaching of English developed in the western contexts cannot be accepted without question for the non-western context". This is due to the sociolinguistic context of the country not being taken into consideration (Darus, 2009).

Thus, in order to further develop Japanese language education in the country, teachers need to consider different methods and approaches in their teaching. This dissertation suggests that the use of own language in the classroom contributes to the localization of Japanese language education in Malaysia. This is also in part an attempt to reconsider the direct method that has been dominating the language learning context.

1.2 Statement of Problem

The use of students' own language in second and foreign language[4] classrooms has been an ongoing issue in the field of language acquisition. Own language use has been deemed secondary or lesser when it comes to language teaching methods or approaches, inferior to the direct method where students are restricted to the use of only the target language (L2). This is because such target language-only classrooms are considered to be a conducive environment for students to learn a language as they enable students to be fully immersed in the language (Vermes, 2010). This leaves little or no space for own language use which is often painted as the villain due to the fear of it causing interference in students' language learning as well as minimizing the amount of L2 input in the classroom (Cook, 2010). Since the Reform Movement (Cook, 2010), language teaching has focused on the direct method where own language and first language (L1) use is largely prohibited. Following this trend, own language and translation use in the classroom has been neglected without empirical evidence of its unreliability.

However, recent literature revealed that own language use and translation can be helpful to a student's second language development. This includes the ability to promote the acquisition of English and bi-literacy development (Manyak, 2004; Cummins, 2007), as well as a positive impact on elementary level students' recall and retention when acquiring vocabulary (Ramachandran & Rahim, 2004). Despite these positive outcomes, Butzkamm (2011) argued

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[4] This dissertation does not differentiate between second and foreign language learning.

that teachers and students' own negative attitudes are preventing own language from being utilized in the classroom, especially at the advanced levels. Furthermore, in the context of Japanese language education, the direct method is heavily favored and is the most widely used teaching method in Japanese language schools (Sawada, 1990; Sasaguri, 2017; Takamizawa, 2004).

Due to this influence, Japanese language schools in Malaysia also practice the direct method as their principal teaching method, particularly the Japanese language preparatory courses for students who will pursue their tertiary education in Japan. Rivers (2018) stated that the direct method is most successful when used in an environment where students are able to hear and practice the language outside the classroom. In the case of Malaysia where Japanese language is considered a foreign language, this is almost impossible, and students can only rely on classroom input to practice. In pursuit of the localization of Japanese language in Malaysia, own language should be recognized and utilized in Japanese language schools to support students' language learning. Although the direct method has been established as the general teaching method in the preparatory courses, it is common to observe local non-native teachers resorting to the use of own language and translation in the classroom in order to accommodate students' needs. In the case of native Japanese teachers, research conducted by Arashi (2018) and Tanimori (2016) showed that students generally have no problems using English as an intermediate language when learning the Japanese language. Thus, they suggested that native Japanese teachers can still opt to use English in situations where they want to explain difficult words and ideas in further

detail to students, even though they do not know the students' own language. Nevertheless, as illustrated by literature, teachers who use own language and translation often use it as a last resort, and usually do so in an improvised manner (B. Turnbull, 2018). This can be especially challenging for novice teachers with less experience as lack of proper guidance can lead to the overuse of own language and translation (Macaro, 2001). Furthermore, the extent to which own language and translation use supports students' grammar comprehension in the JSL context is still unclear. Likewise, research on which grammatical words are better understood by students when explained using own language and translation is still limited.

1.3 Aim and Objective of Study

Vast support towards the direct method has made me rethink of my own experience in learning languages, particularly when learning the Japanese language. My school had also adopted a strict ban on own language use and translation, making it difficult for me to understand what was being taught in the classroom. However, I was surprised to find out that not all my classmates had this problem, and they easily excelled in the language program. I had to work much harder and was often left behind in class regardless of the amount of studying I had done. I wondered why teachers refused to use our own language to explain challenging grammatical words and was interested to know if it would have affected my language learning. This curiosity became the starting point of my interest in this study.

The aim of this study is to investigate the effects of own language use on the grammar comprehension of ethnic Malay learners of the Japanese language. Though many studies have been conducted in the areas of own language use particularly in the context of ESL, as aforementioned the study of own language use in the context of JSL in Malaysia is still inadequate. This study has two principal aims:

    i.   To contribute to the debate on own language use and translation in second and foreign language classrooms by providing empirical evidence of the effect of own language use on student grammar comprehension.

    ii.   To contribute an own language and translation inclusive teaching framework by identifying which grammatical concepts are more effectively explained through own language compared to target language-only explanations.

The research questions that this study aims to address are:

    I.   Is students' grammar comprehension better facilitated by a teacher's use of own language or by providing target language-only information?

    II.   What are students' attitudes towards own language use?

    III.   Does exposure to own language use in the classroom improve students' attitudes towards it?

1.4 Significance of Study

The findings of this study will have benefits for the society, considering that language plays an important role in the world of globalization today. The greater demand for multilingual graduates, specifically with fluency in the Japanese language, justifies the need for more effective and localized teaching approaches. More specifically, this study will contribute to the knowledge, theory and practice on the relationship between own language use and its effects on JSL students' grammar comprehension. First, a concrete and thorough guideline on how to effectively utilize own language in second and foreign language classrooms is needed for language teaching, teacher education, and policymaking. Thus, the results derived from this study can provide a proper outline for teachers both local and native on how to approach own language use and translation to help enhance students' language learning without worrying about the possibility of overuse. Furthermore, the results from this study can address the gap of identifying which grammatical words are better understood by students when they are explained using own language (Tian & Macaro, 2012). As pointed out by Carreres (2006), there is a need to gain further insight into the effectiveness of own language use that is relative to other language learning activities (p.18).

Secondly, there is a shortage of research into the actual effects of own language use on ethnic Malay students' grammar comprehension in Malaysia. Most studies have investigated own language use within different EFL contexts, the functions of own language use, and students' preferences towards own language use. However, to date, very few research has been carried out

to investigate the actual effects of own language use on students' grammar comprehension in the JSL context. Empirical research in this area is important to ensure that the possible benefits of own language use is genuinely supported by research and evidence.

Thirdly, this study investigated students' attitudes towards own language use. Although there have been studies on students' attitudes and preferences (Yen, 2004; Nazary, 2008; Bartlett, 2017), studies focusing on HOW own language use can affect students' attitudes are still few and far in between, in particular studies that compare students' attitudes before and after using and receiving instruction in their own language with the attitudes of students who use and receive target language-only instruction in the classroom. A positive view towards own language use is vital to ensure that teachers and students can utilize it within the classroom without guilt (Ford, 2009) in order to actively participate in the language learning process (Thang & Ting et al, 2011). Thus, this study believes that by showing students how own language use can support their grammar comprehension, their attitudes towards own language use will simultaneously improve. Additionally, students can overcome their negative thoughts on past taboos that own language use has often been associated with.

Finally, this research can contribute to the efforts of localizing Japanese language education in Malaysia. Since Malaysia is facing a shortage of Japanese language teachers, it is important to empower the local teachers (Kimura, 2016) by providing them with the proper manual and guidelines to confidently use their own language as a consideration to Malaysian

students' multilingual background. It is anticipated that the results of this study will contribute to the said guidelines, reduce local teachers' dependency on native Japanese language teachers, and aid towards the establishment of a curriculum that is distinctive and specific for Malaysian students.

1.5 Definitions of Key Terms

Direct Method

This paper uses Cook's (2010) definition of the direct method which is "any and all teaching which excludes the use of the student's (first) or own language from the classroom, whether for translation or for explanation and commentary. . . . including major approaches such as graded structures, situational teaching, audiolingualism, communicative language teaching, task-based instruction, lexical syllabuses, and so forth." (p. 7)

Own Language

This dissertation adopts the term 'own-language' as opposed to the conventional 'first language (L1)' or 'mother tongue' to refer to the language spoken by students other than the target language (L2) in the language classroom. As pointed out by Hall & Cook (2014),

"In many language classrooms, the most common shared language of the learners is not the first or native language of all students (e.g. although German is the language used

in German secondary schools and therefore the language likely to be used to assist the teaching of English, it is not the first language of all the pupils in those schools who may, for example, be recent arrivals from Turkey or Poland)" (p.7).

This is similarly applicable to Malaysia where students come from multiracial backgrounds and thus, the use of the terms 'mother tongue', 'native language' or 'first language' will be inaccurate. Students in Malaysia are more likely to use Malay and English interchangeably. This further supports the decision to use the term 'own language' in this study.

Target Language

In the field of language acquisition, the most common term used to refer to a language being learned is 'second language' or more generally referred to as the 'L2' (Cook, 2010). Considering that the background context of this study is Malaysia where students are multilingual and generally learn English as their L2, using the term 'L2' to refer to the learning of a third language, in this case, Japanese, will be unsatisfactory. Therefore, the neutral term 'target language' will be utilized in this dissertation.

Target Language (TL) User

In his paper, Cook (2012) used the term 'L2 user' to refer to "people who know and use a second language at any level" (p. 3). The use of the term 'L2 user' is preferred compared to the term 'L2

learner' because the latter implies that people are continuously learning without ever mastering

the language. Considering that the majority of people who have learned a target language do not

reach native-like competence (Cook, 1992), using the term 'L2 user' recognizes the person's

ability to use the target language regardless of their level of proficiency. Doing so thus elevates

L2 users' status rather than leaving them to remain as second-class learners incessantly (Cook &

Wei, 2016).

This dissertation adopts the same concept; however, instead of 'L2 user', this dissertation

uses the term 'target language (TL) user'. This term is used as an alternative to maintain

coherence in this dissertation which, as illustrated above, has selected to use the term 'target

language' in substitute of 'second language (L2)'.

Code-switching and OL Use

Poplack (2001) defined code-switching as "the mixing, by bilinguals (or multilinguals), of two

or more language in discourse, often with no change of interlocutor or topic." (p. 2062). In

Malaysia, code-switching is considered to be one of the features of spoken communication due

to the multilingual background of the country (Hei, 2002). As aforementioned, ethnic Malay

students in Malaysia regularly codeswitch between Malay and English without exclusively using

only one language (either Malay or English) when speaking. This results in a unique mix of

language referred to as *Manglish* in Malaysia (Kadir, Maros, & Hamid, 2012). Therefore, in

order to accommodate this unique language feature, in this dissertation, the term 'own language (OL) use' is used more generally to refer not only to the use of either Malay or English, but also to the codeswitching phenomenon and the use of *Manglish* in the classroom.

Grammatical Words

This dissertation uses "grammatical words", a translation of "文法用語" to refer to the grammar items and topics that are learned throughout the study. The grammatical words in this dissertation focuses on complex sentences (複文) which have multiple predicates (述語). Specifically, on the adverbial clause (副詞節) type of complex sentences where it modifies a predicate to express the cause, reason, purpose or condition[5].

Attitudes

This dissertation adopts Gardner's (1985) definition of the term attitudes which is "an evaluative reaction of some referent or attitude object, inferred on the basis of the individual's beliefs or opinions about the referent" (pp.54-55).

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[5] Retrieved from the National Institute for Japanese Language and Linguistics (NINJAL) 2001

1.6 Summary of Chapters

This dissertation is divided into seven chapters including the present introductory chapter (Chapter 1).

Chapter 2 presents an overview of relevant literature on own language use and covers several theoretical frameworks that are relevant to the research questions. First, the theoretical frameworks are discussed from the perspectives of Multicompetence Theory and Macaro's (2001) positions regarding L1 use in the classroom. Also included is an in-depth look into the own language and target language debate in both the ESL and JSL contexts. Empirical studies which have investigated own language use as well as research on students' attitudes towards own language will also be presented. Chapter 3 discusses the pilot study conducted prior to refine the instruments that will be used in the main study. Chapter 4 presents the methodology used in the study in terms of the research design, participants and sample, research instruments, data collection, and data analysis.

Chapter 5 and 6 illustrate the findings of the study. In order to answer the guiding research questions, the findings will be reported in three major sections. Chapter 5 will present the first and second sections which deal with the overall effects of own language use on students' grammar achievement and comprehension. These sections are further examined with an analysis of individual lesson questionnaires to determine students' level of comprehension and identify which grammatical words are better understood when own language is used to explained them.

Chapter 6 will look into students' attitudes towards own language use by specifically comparing the attitudes of students before and after the study, as well as comparing the attitudes between students in an own language-inclusive classroom and students in a target language-only classroom.

Chapter 7 summarizes the study with a discussion of the findings, the study's limitations, recommendations for Japanese language teachers, and implications for future research and practice, followed by the conclusion.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews literature related to own language (OL) use in target language learning. This particular study was undergirded by two theoretical frameworks, namely the Multicompetence Theory and the theoretical positions of OL use in the target language (TL) classroom. The first section of this chapter will first discuss the two theoretical frameworks. The second section will summarize the history of the OL and TL debate in the ESL context, followed by the JSL context. The third section presents literature on principled use of own language. Finally, the fourth section will present literature on students' attitudes.

2.1 Theoretical Framework

2.1.1 Multicompetence Theory

The first theory that I utilized is the multicompetence theory. The multicompetence theory was first coined by Cook in 1991 as "the compound state of a mind with two grammars" (p. 112). This definition was later modified to "the overall system of a mind or a community that uses more than one language" (Cook & Wei, 2016) to clarify certain aspects that were missing in the original definition while retaining the same overall concept. The theory is a direct opposite of *monocompetence* which demonstrates the state of the mind with only one grammar (Cook, 1992). Multicompetence posits that the minds of people who know two languages or more are different from those of people who only know one (Figure 1). The difference is illustrated in how

multicompetent speakers think about languages differently compared to monolinguals (Magiste, 1979; Watson, 1991), have different knowledge of the TL (Coppetiers, 1987) and use different cognitive processes than monolinguals (Feldman & Shen; 1971; Landry, 1974). Furthermore, instead of having two distinct language systems between the OL and the TL, multicompetence suggests a merged language system of both OL and TL (Cook, 1992). Among the evidence that support this includes the argument that OL and TL share the same mental lexicon (Caramazza & Brones, 1979; Grosjean, 1990), TL processing cannot be cut off from OL (Blair & Harris, 1981; Altenberg & Cairns, 1983), TL proficiency is related to a learner's OL proficiency (Skehan, 1988; Cummins, 1991), and the phenomenon of codeswitching (Poplack, 1980; Sridhar & Sridhar, 1980).

Figure 1: *Cook's Model of Multicompetence*
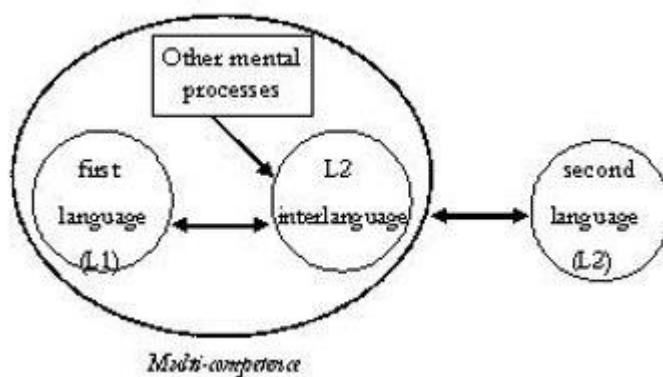
Source: Cook (1991). Retrieved from http://www.viviancook.uk/Writings/Papers/BilCog&Teaching.htm

The theory of multicompetence is vital because "it provides a different perspective from which to look at target language learning" (Cook, 1992, p. 577). In the second language pedagogy, language teachers and programs often aim for their students to achieve native-like competence. This is depicted in the syllabus and teaching methods where the knowledge and behavior of native speakers are extracted in hopes of replicating them. However, achieving such native-like competence is a rarity in the case of TL learners. Learners who do reach native-like competence only make up a small minority of students who have learned a TL (Cook, 1992). This results in the negative assumption that most learners who learn a TL ultimately fail due to their inability to reach native-like competence. Viewing TL learners from the multicompetence stance acknowledges the learners as a success in their own right for going beyond the monolingual stage instead of treating them as a deficient monolingual (Cook & Wei, 2016).

Cook (1992) referred to an example of codeswitching in Malaysia that supports the notion of multicompetence in TL learners. Codeswitching in Malaysia is often observed due to the multilingual background of the country and is considered one of the features of spoken communication (Hei, 2002). This indicates that Malaysians are a multicompetent society. According to Cook (1992), "a syllabus that does not take the particular nature of L2 users into account will be inadequate." (p. 583). Thus, direct method approaches which are developed based on native speakers and monolinguals are considered ineffective because it does not take into account the particular nature of Malaysian speakers' multilingual environment.

2.1.2 The Theoretical Positions of OL in the TL Classroom

The second theory that I utilized is based on Macaro's (2001) theoretical positions of OL use in the TL classroom. Macaro (2001) identified three positions to explain the role and function of OL in the TL classroom. The three positions are the virtual position, maximal position, and optimal position. These three positions are explained below.

The virtual position supports the total exclusion of OL use in the TL classroom because the OL is assumed to have no communicative or pedagogical value. The classroom is treated as the target country; thus, the students envision a virtual reality where the OL cannot be used. The virtual position is the most common stance that monolingual approaches such as the direct method take to advocate the maximizing of TL use in the classroom. This stance stems from the Comprehensible Input Hypothesis (CIH) proposed by Krashen (1981). The CIH proposes that learners "with more exposure to a second language tend to show more proficiency in it" (Krashen, 1982, p. 411), thus supporting the idea that teaching methods which supply more comprehensible input are more effective than others (Krashen, 1982).

The maximal position is the defective version of the virtual position. This position considers the importance of maximizing the TL in the classroom; however, it concedes that this is difficult because perfect learning conditions do not exist. Therefore, while maximizing the TL remains the priority, OL use is allowed but only as a last resort and is considered to have no pedagogical value (Macaro, 2001). Furthermore, the benefits of OL use are disregarded and its

use is associated with feelings of guilt (Macaro, 2001). The guilt that teachers feel is due to the assumed failure of not being able to maximize TL use and instead, minimizing it by using OL. However, as reported by Macaro (2001), there are no theoretical foundations for the maximal position because it is impossible to test a teacher using 100% of the TL. Furthermore, there is no means of determining the difference in language acquisition of students between a teacher that maintains 100% of TL use and a teacher who included 5% of OL use in the classroom (Macaro, 2001).

The optimal position is defined by Macaro (2009) as "where codeswitching in broadly communicative classrooms can enhance second language acquisition and/or proficiency better than second language exclusivity" (p. 38). Otherwise speaking, the optimal position considers that there is pedagogical value in OL use and that it can enhance some aspects of language learning (Macaro, 2001). This position is in line with Cook's (1991) multicompetence theory as it offers a different and more positive perspective on how OL is used in the second language classroom. Research supporting OL use and its ability to facilitate language learning will be further explored in Section 2.2 of this chapter.

Of the three positions presented, the optimal position appears to be the most suitable stance for the Malaysian context. Presently, the maximal position is most practiced by local teachers in the JSL context. However, since teachers and students share the same OL and are already using it albeit with a negative conscience, it is more reasonable that they utilize OL with

proper guidance and recognize it as a valuable tool in students' language learning such as that proposed by the optimal position.

2.1.3 Significance of Identifying TL Users as Learners in their Own Right

According to the multicompetence theory and the optimal position, recognizing OL as a valuable tool is important to facilitate students' language learning. From both perspectives, it can be concluded that the OL is part of the user's TL which cannot be separated because they are interlinked as part of the same system. Therefore, to suppress the OL from the TL is not only futile (Freeborn & Gondree, 2016) but can also cause more harm than good. Instead of avoiding the inevitable, teachers and students need to embrace the OL by utilizing it in the classroom where necessary. However, this is not as simple as it sounds considering the thick taboo surrounding OL use. As a multicompetent society, the OL is an integral part of Malaysian students' identity and investigating its effects and roles can be a powerful contributor to language learning; thus, the phenomenon is worth studying.

2.2 Major Literature

2.2.1 History of the OL and TL Debate

The direct method can be traced back to the year 1882 following the publication of Wilhelm Viëtor's *Der Sprachunterricht muß umkehren* which found translation to be problematic and

hence gave start to the Reform Movement (Siefart, 2013). The direct method is intended to

replicate how children naturally acquire their first language (L1) (G. Cook, 2001; Butzkamm,

2011). V. Cook (2010) defined the direct method as follows:

"Any and all teaching which excludes the use of the student's (first) or own language

from the classroom, whether for translation or for explanation and commentary. . . .

including major approaches such as graded structures, situational teaching,

audiolingualism, communicative language teaching, task-based instruction, lexical

syllabuses, and so forth." (p. 7)

The method aims to develop the ability to think in the target language, including when conversing,

reading or writing without interference from other languages (Rivers, 2018). Rivers explained

that this inductive teaching method depends on students forming their own generalizations

regarding grammatical structure by reflecting on example sentences and previously learned items.

A key principle in the method is the exclusion of all kinds of other language use in the classroom.

The banning of students' own language is justified by stating that it will provide the wrong

stimulus to the student as it allows them to think in other languages rather than the target language

(Vermes, 2010). This will then result in the wrong form of foreign language behavior and

negative transfers, or 'mother tongue interference' (Camilleri, 2004).

Although the core principle behind the direct method is to emulate how children learn their first language, Cook (2001) explained that this is not comparable to how students learn the target language. This is because target language learners are expected to have a more developed skillset. Butzkamm (2011) shared this sentiment by stating that children also have more time and input for their OL acquisition compared to the time that target language learners have to learn in the classroom. This enables them to grasp more than what target language learners are able of.

Rivers (2018) stated that due to the inductive nature of the method, students who do not possess well-developed powers of induction can get left behind and discouraged when learning the TL. Furthermore, Mizutani (1986) mentioned that students will have more difficulty asking questions in the classroom when only TL is used. Considering this and the nature of mechanical drills, it is questionable if students can comprehend what is being taught in the classroom. This is supported by Wong and Van Patten (2003), who stated that drills mainly focus on learner production and not learner comprehension. During a drill, a student is expected to correctly produce a form or structure rather than understand the meaning. While mechanical drills can be considered to be a form of input, it is not meaningful in terms of language acquisition (Wong & Van Patten, 2003).

To compensate for the lack of meaning and ambiguity mentioned above, the Improved Direct Method was introduced (Rivers, 2018). The Improved Direct Method attempts to provide additional comprehension to students by providing them with textbooks or vocabulary lists along

with translations. However, the classroom overall still maintains the inductive approach wherever possible (Rivers, 2018). This method still retains the exclusion of the OL and shared language by teacher and students (Yamamoto, 2013). Although this approach seems to answer the problems faced by the direct method, it is disputed whether this modification can help students achieve meaningful learning. Yamamoto (2013) argued that knowing the translations of words or phrases is not necessarily the same as student comprehension. Even if students know the meaning, it is doubtful if they will be able to correctly apply it in the target language due to differences in lexical forms and syntax.

A more prominent version which followed shortly after the direct method is the Audiolingual Method. It however focuses more on habit formation in belief that learning a language is in essence learning a set of habits (Cook, 2008). According to Rivers (2018), the method is similar to the Improved Direct Method where some translations of dialogues are provided in textbooks of the audiolingual method but in the form of idioms and not word-for-word translations. However, the use of OL is still generally rejected due to the idea that its use can lead to the formation of 'bad habits' and result in negative interference (Yavuz, 2012).

Language teaching methods with different levels of tolerance towards OL use slowly emerged starting from the 1960s onwards (Hall, 2017). Compared to the previous methods, these methods were labeled as 'humanistic approaches' because it "embodies a set of progressive educational values and beliefs about learners, learning and the purpose of education more

generally" (Hall, 2017, p. 90). The humanistic approach mainly consists of the Silent Way which permits OL use to give instructions; Suggestopedia where OL is used to explain dialogue; and Community Language Learning where OL is used to provide a sense of security to students (Yavuz, 2012, p. 4340).

Alongside the emergence of humanistic approaches, the shift from structural syllabus to communicative competence had resulted in the Communicative Approach (CA) where focus is on the pragmatics of communication (Cook, 2010, p. 26). Although the move towards meaning-focused approaches appear to be a step forward from the rigid and artificial language learning style of the direct method, in reality it reduced the number of allowed activities in the language classroom, thus further outlawing OL use (Cook, 2010, p. 28). Contrary to what these methods and approaches advocate which is to focus on the learner, as summarized in Table 2, none appeared to have any recognition for the learner's own language (Cook, 2010).

Table 2: *List of Teaching Methodologies and their OL Use Principles*

Method	OL Inclusivity
Direct Method	OL use is prohibited.
Audiolingual Method	OL use is prohibited; however, textbooks may have idiomatic translations of dialogues.
Suggestopedia	OL use is restricted to explaining dialogue.
Total Physical Response	OL use is prohibited.

The Silent Way	OL use is restricted to giving instructions.
Community Language Learning	OL use is permitted for students' sense of security.
Communicative Approach	OL use is only permitted for reasonable use.

One of the reasons why OL use is often disregarded in language teaching is because its critics associate it with the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) and its shortcomings (Cook, 2010; Chang, 2011). Although Cook (2010) stated that the neglect of OL use cannot be solely pinned on academic criticisms of the GTM during the Reform Movement, the criticisms remain stuck and OL use as well as translation still suffer from disapproval. According to Cook (2010):

"But in the language-teaching literature and education, the extension of the critique of Grammar Translation to cover all uses of translation became deeply entrenched. The notions that monolingual instruction is better and more natural than bilingual instruction, that inductive learning is better than deductive learning, and that the adult learner should follow the path of the native-speaker infant, run through the communicative language teaching revolution of the 1970s, and continue in many of the supposedly cutting-edge movements of the 2000s" (p. 18).

Carreres (2006) listed several reasons why OL use has been rejected - its focus on mainly only two language skills (reading and writing) makes it unsuitable in a communicative methodology,

it has no real-world application, it is not suitable for the average learner but may be better for literary-oriented learners, and it creates dependence on L1 and causes interference. Similarly, Malmkjaer (2010) also raised the argument of interference as students will be encouraged to keep their L1 in mind instead of thinking in the TL. The issue of equivalence where students think that there is a possible word-to-word correspondence between languages is also among the reasons stated by Newson (1998) and Malmkjaer (2010) on why OL use is not preferred in language teaching.

Despite the arguments against OL use, empirical studies on a wide range of contexts and languages have concluded with positive effects on various aspects of language learners. This includes the use of the OL to explain vocabulary, providing accurate meanings of words, and maintaining control in the classroom as depicted in the following studies.

Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) investigated if students would use their OL as a mediating tool and the possible cognitive functions it would serve in the ESL context. 24 university students were divided into 12 pairs where 6 shared the same OL and the other 6 had different OLs. Results from this study revealed that the students found the OL to be useful in meaning-focused activities as it provided them with definitions of words more directly and successfully. However, the study only focused on the functions of OL use in the classroom and did not provide insight into the probability of it being more useful when compared to a TL-only context.

In the same vein, Littlewood and Yu (2011) reported after interviewing 50 second-year tertiary classroom students from Hong Kong and mainland China that the most common purposes a teacher resorts to OL use in the classroom fall into three categories, which are 1) to establish constructive social relationships, 2) to communicate complex meanings to ensure understanding and/or save time, and 3) to maintain control over the classroom environment. This is similar to the five functions of the OL in the classroom as reported by Mattioli (2004). Both studies have been specified to either English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or English as a Second Language (ESL) situations; therefore, whether the same functions can apply to JSL learners is yet to be known. Considering how each language is unique with its own nuances, one can assume that a different function for the OL might be present when it comes to a different language, in this case, Japanese.

A study conducted by Tian and Macaro (2012) investigated the effects of code-switching on 80 first-year university students in an OL condition and a TL-only condition. The results from the study present initial evidence that teachers who code-switch into the OL may produce better results compared to teachers who provide TL-only information. However, the beneficial effects of the study were not major enough to imply that teachers should switch to the OL to provide the meanings of unknown words.

Another common positive effect that has been frequently echoed is the role of own language to explain grammar in the second language classroom.

Carreres (2006) conducted a questionnaire on second- and third-year modern language degree students at the University of Cambridge to find out their perceptions about using translation as a language learning activity. The results revealed that 96% of the students agreed that translation into English (their OL) when learning grammar would help them improve in that area. Besides, 93% of the students agreed that translation into English supported their learning of vocabulary. However, 56% of the students believed that they could make faster progress through other methods besides translation, showing a divide between students who believed in its effectiveness and students who did not. This portrays the negative assumptions that still linger around OL use even though it has been proven to be beneficial to an extent to students' language learning.

Hidayati (2012) examined the role of OL in teaching receptive skills and grammar on 100 Indonesian English Foreign Language polytechnic students. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were utilized to determine if OL (Bahasa Indonesia) use contributes to classroom interaction and to also verify its benefits in the classroom. Results from this study found that 59% of students want teachers to use OL to explain grammar points. Furthermore, the benefits of OL use in the classroom beginning with the highest frequency were concluded as: (1) to explain grammar, (2) to explain difficult vocabulary items, (3) to check students' comprehension, (4) to create a relaxed learning environment, (5) to give suggestions, and (6) to give complex instructions (p. 30). However, this study also reported an overuse of the OL by

teachers, particularly when giving instructions to students, hence illustrating the need for a more principled approach to OL use in the classroom.

Bruen and Kelly (2014) investigated the attitudes and behaviors of teachers and students towards OL use in a university setting. Qualitative interviews were conducted with six native and non-native Japanese language teachers and six native and non-native German language teachers. Results from the Japanese and German student responses found that the most common use of the OL is in the explanation of complex grammatical structures and rules. Also, the results revealed that OL use is fairly effective for vocabulary acquisition, a better understanding of language concept, and increased awareness and understanding of cultural gaps (p. 15). Although the teachers and students reported positive attitudes towards OL use, a majority of the teachers stressed that it is important not to overuse it in the classroom in fear that it would affect the students when they go abroad for their study programs. This illustrates the importance of having a guideline which teachers can refer to in order to abstain from said overuse.

These past studies suggest that there is a strong link between OL use and the teaching of grammar. These empirical studies illustrate the various positive effects that OL has on students' language learning. Most importantly, the literature shows that the negative connotations and assumptions made about OL use are not supported by research. The debate regarding this issue has yet to be concluded; however, with more emerging studies supporting OL use, the focus is

now on developing OL-inclusive teaching frameworks and identifying words and terms that are more successfully conveyed through OL use.

Nevertheless, this positive shift in the debate towards OL use is mainly observed in the ESL context. Research in other language contexts are few and far in between, and in the JSL context, most teaching approaches and policies are observed to remain adamant to the direct method. The reasoning behind this occurrence will be explored in the following section.

2.2.2 The Direct Method in Japanese Language Education

Sawada (1990) stated that the direct method used in Japan was heavily influenced by Palmer in the year 1922 and Fries from the year 1950 in the context of English for second language teaching. The direct method was seen as an answer to the problems faced by the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) which at the time was considered to be the conventional way of learning foreign languages. Fries proposed three stages to the method which are as follows: firstly, the acquisition of the language's sound system; secondly, the acquisition of the language grammatical structure; and thirdly, automaticity. In short, oral exercises were constantly practiced to lead to the acquisition of the grammatical structure and finally automated responses similar to students' first language.

According to Takamizawa (2004), the direct method gained overwhelming support for Japanese language education beginning from the year 1950. This was largely influenced by the

Naganuma teaching style which was originally used to teach the Japanese language to US military officers (Sawada, 1990). The teaching style mainly follows the rules and beliefs of the direct method. Due to its popularity, it eventually became the mainstream teaching method in Japanese language education. This resulted in multiple variations of the direct method. Asano (1972) proposed a method called the question-response method which was derived from the Berlitz method. It is a method of learning pronunciation and sentence patterns by having students listen to Japanese native speakers frequently and answering in accordance with the model stated by the teacher. According to Asano (1972), the question-response method can be used regardless of the teaching material. This is because the main point is to arrange, develop, and promote previously learned words and sentence patterns from the most basic to complex levels. For instance, the teacher can begin with actual materials in everyday life, then proceed to the outside world, or from concrete to abstract things, and then from reality to conceptual combinations. Without this sequence, it will be difficult to achieve an effective outcome (Asano, 1972).

Another variation of the method was proposed by Jorden and Chaplin (1962) and Kamei (1987) which emphasizes on drills to promote automaticity. It practices a strict 'no textbook open' rule during the drilling exercise. Kamei (1987) explained that having the textbook open does not help improve speaking skills or help foster Japanese language skills in students. Jorden & Chaplin (1962) introduced five basic types of drills which consist of substitution drills, grammar drills, response drills, level drills, and expansion drills, all of which have different purposes but a shared objective of developing fluency and automaticity.

While it is argued that the direct method in Japanese language education relies heavily on automaticity and lacks in understanding, the opposite can also be said for the GTM where students can read and comprehend the language yet are unable to speak and use it. Thus, this method focuses on the applicability of the language rather than the understanding of it. Nagaho (1987) gives an analogy of how using OL in the classroom is equivalent to a student learning how to swim with the help of a float or beach board, while the direct method is swimming by themselves without such help. Furthermore, students using the direct method will be able to continue with language studies on their own after the end of a course; the same however cannot be said for students who use their OL.

Despite efforts to introduce the communicative approach (CA) in 1980, CA did not manage to have a significant impact on Japanese language education, especially at the beginner levels (Nishiguchi, 2017). The beginner level for Japanese language education is mainly a structure-based approach that relies on the accumulation of sentence patterns and grammatical words (Nishiguchi, 2017). Benati (2009) concluded that grammar teaching in Japanese language education is still traditional, consisting of paradigmatic explanations that are followed by pattern practice and substitution drills. These drills, however, have been disputed by Wong and Van Patten (2003) to be ineffective because its main focus is only on learner production and not learner comprehension. Moreover, Hall (2017) stated that constant repetition and drilling can be demotivating for students.

Nishiguchi (2017) reported that there is still a form of eclecticism in Japanese language education which incorporates some form of the audiolingual method and CA. However, it retains the principle of the direct method of not allowing translation or own language use. Sawada (1990) stated that this is because classrooms tend to be multinational. Because most students come from different countries and do not have a shared language, it leaves teachers with no other option than to only use the TL in the classroom (Yamamoto, 2013). However, he also stated that in most classrooms where students do have a shared language, translation and OL will be used. Nevertheless, Takamizawa (2003) disagreed and explained that due to the overwhelming influence and support of the direct method and its no-translation policy, most Japanese language classrooms do not encourage the practice of OL use and banned it even in circumstances when the students have a shared language. This view is also supported by observations of Japanese language classrooms by Tanimori (2016) and Sasaguri (2017).

Adding to the debate, Nishiguchi (2017) argued that the overwhelming increase of not only Japanese language teachers but also their diversity in the past decade calls for more specific textbooks and manuals for teaching. However, teachers were not provided with the necessary instruction manuals, textbooks, and teaching materials. Arashi (2018) believed that this may the basis for why the Japanese language teaching methodology remains adhered to methods and approaches prior to CA.

OL and translation use in Japanese language learning have also been criticized and frequently avoided. Mizutani (1986) highlighted that students are prone to face problems in Japanese-only classrooms as it is difficult for them to ask questions in class. This may lead to students remaining in the state of not understanding what is taught and are unable to express it due to the fast drills and rapid nature of these types of classes that force them to proceed forward.

Tanimori (2016) also argued that using OL to translate specific grammatical words can be more effective and less time-consuming than relying solely on the target language. He further elaborated that OL can be used to improve JSL students' grammar comprehension especially when using it to explain time-related expressions, extended predicates, negotiation particles, assumption expressions, and manner forms. However, due to its association with GTM and the taboo surrounding its use, students' and teachers' attitudes are still conflicted about whether OL should be used in language classrooms.

It can be concluded that the direct method even with modifications might not be enough to lead to meaningful language learning. Why and how it continues to be favored in the Japanese language education setting remains questionable. Furthermore, the ban on OL use may only lead to more problems in both implementation and unanticipated outcomes (Freeborn & Gondree, 2016: 89). Instead, what is needed is the establishment of a principled guideline for OL use. Managing the use of OL in the classroom can be especially difficult for novice teachers with less experience (Macaro, 2001) and can also be difficult for veteran teachers who might have become

comfortable with teaching the target language using the OL. A principled use of OL needs to be introduced to refrain from these two scenarios. Without careful consideration of OL implementation in the classroom, there is a risk of refusing complete OL use as suggested by the direct method.

2.3 Principled Inclusion of Students' Own Language

Freeborn and Gondree (2016) argued that careful and selective use of students' OL or translation in the classroom can be suitable for language teaching. In the same vein, Vienne (1998) as cited in Malmkjaer (1998) believed that OL use will not be detrimental to students' language learning as long as it is well planned and purposefully applied in the classroom. Okumura (2002) agreed and explained that in the context of Japanese language education, teachers need to be proficient in the students' OL in order to provide accurate explanations to avoid misunderstanding.

2.3.1 The Functional-Translation Method

The functional-translation method is among the earliest methods proposed by Weschler (1997) that included students' OL to help "the student to understand and convey the meaning of ideas most useful to them" (p. 98). The method focused on addressing the issues faced with the traditional GTM. Weschler (1997) presented four features of the functional-translation method:

1) the goal of the method, 2) the type of language being translated, 3) materials used to apply the method, and 4) the classroom procedures.

The functional-translation method's goal is to enable students to learn the target language they want using OL when necessary. In contrast with the GTM which has a rigid type of language, the functional-translation method focuses on the needs of the students and is thus more flexible on the type of language learned. This means that the type of language can be academic, colloquial, or even casual. The materials used are mainly task-based such as information gaps designed for pair and small group work. This allows students to compare what they know in their OL and what they want to express in the target language. Lastly, the procedures of the functional-translation method are intended to be communicative and student-centered. Should these four features be fulfilled, then OL use can be a valuable tool in mastering the target language. As stated by Weschler, "Whether it is useful or detrimental depends entirely on the goal to which it is applied, the type of language being translated, the materials used to apply the method, and the procedures used in the classroom" (p. 104).

2.3.2 Sandwiching Technique

Butzkamm (2008) claimed that the principled use of OL will be able to help teachers to modulate the classroom atmosphere that they wish to create. He suggested the technique of sandwiching to minimize classroom disruption flow and confirm students' comprehension. The technique

involves a three-step procedure where the teacher introduces a new word in the target language, inserts a brief translation in the students' OL, and repeats it again in the target language. He explained that this type of meaning-conveyance includes the pragmatic aspects of meaning and therefore is different from word lists such as those used in the improved direct method.

2.3.3 Mirroring Technique

Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009) also proposed the bilingual or mirroring technique. The technique is based on the principle of double comprehension where students must understand what is meant and what is literally said. The technique also involves three main steps where first, students are given an example in the target language as well as the meaning in the shared language. Secondly, the teacher gives two more examples in the shared language and asks the students to immediately translate it into the target language, and finally, students are asked to make their own example sentences. For example, when learning the causative conjunction "〜ため", the sequence illustrated in Figure 2 can be used.

Figure 2: *Example of Mirroring Technique for the Japanese Language*

> **Step 1: Introduction of example sentence and its meaning (double clarification).**

- 台風のため、今日のイベントは中止します。
- Today's event has been canceled because of the typhoon. (What it means)
- Typhoon ため (because of) event has been canceled. (How it is expressed)

> **Step 2: Give examples for students to translate into the target language.**

- The restaurant is closed because it ran out of soup.
- The train is late because of an accident.

> **Step 3: Students practice making their own sentences.**

- Woke up late ため late for school
- Flu ため absent from work.

According to Butzkamm (2011), mirroring is an elegant and highly time-efficient way of identifying the meaning of components and where they appear in foreign language sentences. Moreover, he argued that it provides students with the clearest possible understanding of foreign language sentence structures.

2.3.4 Selective Words

While the two techniques mentioned above focus primarily on how OL can be used in TL classrooms, another consideration of principled OL use can be in the form of which or what type of words will be more effectively understood with the use of the OL (Tian & Macaro, 2011). In the context of Japanese language education, Tanimori (2016) proposed several grammatical words at the intermediate level that can be better understood by students who use English as their OL. This includes extended predicates such as "わけ", assumption expressions such as "なら", and relative clauses. He further expressed that it is possible to teach more precisely with own language use. He gave an example where teachers can use the OL when explaining the difference between the conjecture expression "ようだ" and "らしい". The two are often confused with each other and assumed to have the same meaning due to its similarity when explained in the Japanese language. However, when the OL is used, teachers will be able to explain that the word "ようだ" is used to represent the five senses in English when expressing content that is inferred through information (e.g., it sounds like he is asleep, it smells like hair burning, etc.), while "らしい" infers to the meaning of 'it seems' (e.g., it seems like it will rain tomorrow). Thus, students will be able to differentiate between sentences such as "日本人は，熱いおふろが好きらしい" and "先生は毎日お忙しいようです" when the OL is used for explanation. Tanimori also stated that some grammatical words can be difficult even for native speakers, thus expecting students to inductively understand them without OL use can be ineffective.

Another example presented by Tanimori is using comparative analysis of the OL and

TL to explain time-related expressions. Tanimori identified that students commonly make the

mistake of equalizing the Japanese tense "~た" and the English tense "came", resulting in the

production of incorrect sentences such as "日本へ来た前にカメラを買いました" (p. 99). However,

through comparative analysis using the word "~時", students can identify "~た" as an aspect and

not a tense. Although critics may argue that the cause of such incorrect sentences are due to OL

transfer itself, Ortega (2009) stated that such transfer is unavoidable in language acquisition and

is also present in children who are acquiring their first language. Thus, in this case it is clear that

OL use is not the sole part of problem but can be a valuable part of the solution instead.

2.3.5 Reverse Translation

Defending against critics who argued that students from different countries have no shared OL

with each other or the teacher, Kerr (2014) argued that the principled use of OL can still be

utilized in TL classrooms. Some examples are such as conducting grammar or vocabulary

revisions using reverse translation. Firstly, after learning new vocabulary or grammar, the teacher

asks students to take out a sheet of paper and prepare for sentence dictation. Next, the teacher

dictates the sentences in Japanese, but students must instead immediately translate them into their

own language and write them down. After the dictation of all the sentences is completed, the

students are then required to translate the sentences back into Japanese without consulting their

textbooks. According to Kerr (2014: 75), such reverse translation allows students to notice features of a language and draw attention to the cross-cultural nature of translation. This activity is suggested to be used as a follow up to any grammar or vocabulary learning.

A summary of the methods for principled own language use is illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3: *Summary of Methods for Principled OL Use*

Method	
Functional Translation Technique	A combination of the Grammar Translation Method, the Direct Method and the Communicative Approach that helps students understand and convey the meaning of concepts that they want.
Sandwiching Technique	Usage of brief translations followed immediately by its equivalent in the target language to minimize classroom interruptions. Includes pragmatic aspects of meanings.
Mirroring Technique	Use literal and idiomatic translation to provide double comprehension where students can understand what is meant and what is literally said.
Reverse Translation	Regardless of the students' OL, they can translate into their OL then back translate into the TL, enabling them to notice the different features of the two languages.
Use of Selective Words	Teachers identify specific grammatical words which can provide students with better comprehension when their OL counterparts are used.

In conclusion, the direct method's principle of OL exclusion should be reconsidered as it is unsupported by literature and research. It is only due to tradition and early influence surrounding the method which has led to its stronghold on Japanese language education. In contrast, past literature and research show that students' OL and shared language use can be beneficial to their language learning, especially when it is used purposefully. However, research on its implementation in the classroom while progressing is still few and far between. Specific guidelines for inexperienced teachers need to be developed if translation and students' OL are to be utilized at its full potential in language learning.

2.4 Attitudes of Students Towards Own Language Use

For the successful application of OL use in the classroom as proposed by literature, there is a need for teachers and students to firstly have a positive view of it. This is because their attitudes can determine the extent to which students continue to actively participate in the language learning process (Thang & Ting et al, 2011). However, this is difficult considering the years of stigma surrounding OL use and initial training that always encourages teachers to maximize the TL. Negative attitudes towards the OL may result in less participation among students if they believe that OL use in the classroom is not beneficial to their language learning. Thus, investigating the attitudes of teachers and students is vital in revealing what they really feel about their OL and if they do believe that its use can benefit their language learning and teaching.

Studying their attitudes can also further reveal when and where students find OL use most useful in the target language classroom.

Yen (2004) studied the attitudes of teachers and students towards OL use in Japanese conversation classes in Taiwan. The results from this study revealed that the necessity of using their OL gradually declined as the learning grade increases from beginner to intermediate and advanced. The students were also reluctant to use their OL and tend to avoid it. In contrast, the teachers, especially the non-natives appreciated the use of OL in the TL classroom.

Similarly, a study by Liao (2006) explored students' beliefs about OL use on 351 students enrolled in a college in Taiwan. Three different questionnaires and interviews were conducted. The results reported that more proficient learners tend to report negative beliefs about OL use and prefer less of its use compared to their less proficient peers. Considering that beginner students will be more inclined towards OL use due to their low language competence, it is natural to observe more adverse attitudes stemming from the advanced students who would prefer input in the target language. However, most students did endorse the belief that OL use had a positive effect on their English language learning.

Nazary (2008) examined the attitudes and perceptions of Iranian college students towards OL use in ESL classrooms. A questionnaire regarding OL use was distributed to 85 participants of beginner, intermediate, and advanced ESL levels. The results of the research revealed that the students seldom use their OL in the TL classroom. This is because they believe

that the OL does not have any effective importance in their target language acquisition. Specifically, 81% of advanced learners and 68% of intermediate learners answered that the teacher should at least know their OL; however, when it comes to its use in the classroom, only 22%, 21%, and 16% from each respective level agreed to its use. While this study concluded an overall view of the students' attitudes towards their OL, it lacks specific conditions of how or when the OL can be used in the classroom.

From his interviews with 10 English as A Foreign Language (EFL) teacher in Japan, Ford (2009) found that a majority of the teachers preferred not to use OL in the TL classroom. The teachers believed that by using OL, students will become complacent and lazy as they are not required to listen or pay attention. Additionally, the few teachers that did agree to OL use in the classroom only agreed so for specific situations which were mainly to either give assurance to students, give instructions, or guide a specified given task. What needs to be questioned here is the ultimate goal of the students and teachers in target language acquisition. Although to an extent a full TL classroom can motivate students to work harder, there are instances where this can backfire and result in the students to not want to try at all.

Bartlett (2017) concluded on his survey of 64 second-year Japanese University students that the students had a clear preference for OL use in the EFL classroom. The students indicate that OL use enabled them to understand and hear difficult language content as well as feel more comfortable when asking questions or report concerns to their teachers. 100% of the students

believed that OL use did not hinder their opportunities to comprehend or communicate in the TL. However, due to strong beliefs in favor of the monolingual classroom, implementation is still difficult to achieve.

Mixed perceptions can be observed from both students and teachers in universities towards OL use in the second language classroom. However, studies conducted in the Malaysian context have yielded slightly different results.

Research on OL use in Malaysia have dominantly been centered on code-switching, which as aforementioned in Section 1.5 of Chapter 1, is the alternating use of two or more languages in discourse (Poplack, 2001). Thus, this dissertation will consider code-switching as a form of OL use to discuss the following studies that have been carried out.

Ariffin and Susanti Husin (2011) conducted a survey that showed mixed attitudes towards OL use in a content-based classroom, particularly by students with higher proficiency in the TL. Students with higher language competence held less favorable attitudes towards OL use and believed that the TL (English) should be maximized in the classroom. However, this becomes an issue for lower proficiency students as they will not even be able to comprehend what is being taught, thus resulting in them having more positive views of OL use.

Nordin and Ali et al. (2013) conducted research on 45-second semester diploma students in Malaysia and found that a majority of learners (82.2%) have positive attitudes towards OL use in the English language classroom. Furthermore, 86.7% of the learners believed that their OL

should be used when learning English. Despite the students' constructive view towards the OL, they also believed that it should only be used only for specific purposes such as giving feedback, checking comprehension, and explaining grammar, and not to the extent of overpowering the language that is being learned in the classroom.

Similarly, Azlan and Narusaman (2013) surveyed 28 Malaysian university students and found that 60.7% agreed that OL use was effective in the classroom. However, 70% of the students also admitted that the use of their OL will affect their English, believing that it would result in a decrease of vocabulary and incorrect use of sentence structure.

Studies have generally shown mixed and positive attitudes towards OL use in Malaysia, and although students agree to its use, there is still a negative perception towards the OL in the overall language learning context. However, as aforementioned, the focus has been mainly centered on English language learning and is lacking when it comes to other target languages that are offered in the country, specifically in the context of Japanese language education. Japanese language education in Malaysia started with its introduction to six secondary schools in 1984; it has expanded to 135 schools as of September 2015 as reported by the Japan Foundation. Considering the on-going Malaysia-Japan relations and the importance of the language to the country, this dissertation believes that there is a need to investigate the attitudes of ethnic Malay JSL learners in learning the TL as depicted in the third research question.

Own language and translation can be a valuable tool in language learning (Macaro, 2001), but students' negative attitudes towards its use may hinder them from its benefits. The negative attitudes towards OL use need to be reconsidered if we hope to implement it in classrooms. As Gardner (1985) puts it, "If attitudes and motivation influence how well someone learns a second language, is it not equally possible that the experience of learning a second language influences attitudes and motivation?" (p. 84).

2.5 Chapter Conclusion

The review of literature in this chapter illustrates not only empirical studies on effects of OL use in TL classrooms but more importantly, highlights the two main obstacles preventing OL use and implementation in the TL classrooms which are 1) the shortage of resource and guidelines of OL inclusive approaches, and 2) the negative attitudes of students and teachers towards OL use despite its potential efficacy on their language learning. This is especially prevalent in the JSL context which from the review of its history revealed uncompromising support towards the direct method. However, in Malaysia where efforts to localize the Japanese language is ongoing, maintaining the direct method policy will not be sustainable considering the nature of local teachers themselves who are TL users. Thus, it is more reasonable to adopt the optimal position as suggested by Macaro (2001) by fully utilizing the OL using guidelines recommended through principled OL use.

The literature review conducted in this chapter contributed to the research design of the present study. In line with the research gaps identified above, the review of literature has helped me realize the need to identify an OL-inclusive teaching framework as well as grammatical words that are more successfully understood when OL is used to convey their meanings. Furthermore, reviewing research on students' attitudes revealed the need to detect where and how either negative or positive attitudes towards OL use are formed.

The next chapter presents a pilot study that was conducted prior to the main study in order to test the methodology used in this research.

CHAPTER 3: PILOT STUDY

This chapter covers the pilot study which was conducted prior to the main study of this research. Firstly, the definition and value of pilot studies are presented. Next, the objective of the pilot study and the procedure of the pilot study are presented. Finally, the outcomes of the pilot study are discussed by focusing mainly on its implications on the main study of this research. The statistical results obtained are also illustrated at the end of the chapter.

3.1 Definition and Value of Pilot Studies

A pilot study is defined as "a small-scale methodological test conducted to prepare for a main study and is intended to ensure that methods or ideas would work in practice" (Kim, 2011, p.2). A pilot study is important because it enables researchers to test out the research instruments prior to the main study and make adjustments if necessary (Kim, 2011). According to Simon (2011), a pilot study can be used to resolve the following issues prior to the main study:

1. Check that instructions are comprehensible.

2. Check that investigators and technicians are sufficiently skilled in the procedures.

3. Check the wording of a survey.

4. Check the reliability and validity of results.

5. Check the statistical and analytical process to determine if they are efficacious.

The main study in this research utilizes three different instruments to answer the research questions posed in Chapter 1. Thus, it is important to ensure that the instruments as well as the teaching method that will be carried out are first examined in a pilot study to ensure its feasibility to increase the likelihood of success.

3.2 Objective of Pilot Study

The objective of the pilot study in this research is mainly to test the instrument, syllabus, and teaching method to be used in the main study. In terms of instrument, the pilot study was used to assess its reliability and validity. For syllabus, the pilot study was used to examine the most appropriate grammatical words to include in the main study, while for teaching method, the pilot study was used to practice the delivery and execution of principled own language use and target language-only instruction. The procedure of the pilot study in this research is described in the following section.

3.3 Procedure of Pilot Study

This pilot study employed an equivalent time samples research design to compare the learning outcomes of students when own language- or target language-only is used in the Japanese

language classroom. In an equivalent time samples design, there is only one group and no separate control group. Instead, the one group becomes its own control group by alternating the provision of the treatment (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). A time series design is a pre-experimental design. According to Phakiti (2014), pre-experimental designs are weak versions of quasi-experimental designs and are more exploratory than confirmatory (p. 56). Since the main goal of this pilot study is to test the instrument, syllabus, and teaching method, this research design is regarded appropriate.

This pilot study was conducted on six ethnic Malay students who are enrolled as first-year students in a national university in Japan. As aforementioned in Chapter 1, although the students' first language is Malay, they often code-switch into English which is their shared second language. Thus, their own language is a mixture of the Malay and English languages. The students are learners of the Japanese language and based on their Japanese Language Proficiency Test (JLPT) results, have a proficiency level of N2 at the time of the study. Prior to their enrollment in the university, the students had attended a Japanese language preparatory school for 21 months in Malaysia.

The students were taught selected grammatical words from the N1 level of the JLPT which were taken from the *New Kanzen Master Grammar JLPT N1* textbook. After careful examination of all 20 topics listed in the textbook, eight topics were selected where each contained three to five grammatical words to be learned. In addition, the English translation and

explanation of these grammatical words were taken from *Nihongo So-matome JLPT N1: Grammar* textbook published by Ask Publishing and *A Handbook of Japanese Grammar Patterns for Teachers and Learners* by Kuroshio Publishing. The Malay translations and explanations were extracted from online Japanese-Malay learning websites with additional information formulated by the researcher.

The equivalent time samples research which consisted of one group and two treatments was conducted in an eight-week span. The teacher alternated the use of own language- and target language-only instruction each week. Thus, own language-inclusive instruction was carried out in weeks one, three, five and seven. During these weeks, students were provided with handouts that included English and Malay translations and example sentences. The teacher also used the sandwich technique developed by Butzkamm (2003) and the reverse translation approach by Kerr (2014) to implement the principled own language use in the classroom. On the other hand, target language-only instruction was carried out in weeks two, four, six, and eight. During these weeks, the students were only provided with handouts in Japanese without any English or Malay translations or explanations. The teacher also maintained a full Japanese language-only classroom and did not allow any own language use by students. At the beginning of each lesson, the students were reminded of the language rules of the specified week to avoid confusion. Each lesson lasted for 75 minutes and the students took a diagnostic test and a lesson questionnaire at the end of each lesson. Detailed description of the diagnostic test and lesson questionnaire will be explained in Section 4.5 in Chapter 4.

For the analysis, the diagnostic tests were marked, tabulated, and analyzed with a paired sample t-test. Next, the responses to the lesson questionnaire were tabulated and their frequencies were also calculated. Finally, the comment section of the lesson questionnaire was analyzed using thematic analysis.

3.4 Outcome of the Pilot Study

According to Kim (2011), a pilot study "may not be intended to produce results" (p. 3) because its main role is to test the research instrument. On the account of this, the following section focuses on how the pilot study was able to refine the instrument, syllabus, and teaching method utilized during the main study. However, the results will still be briefly discussed, focusing mainly on the diagnostic test and Question 1 of the lesson questionnaire.

3.4.1 Outcomes for the Syllabus

From the selected topics in the syllabus, the students learned three to five grammatical words in the span of 75 minutes. However, upon analysis of the students' comments in the lesson questionnaire, it was revealed that the students felt that learning four to five grammatical words in one lesson was quite draining. Furthermore, since there were many grammatical words to learn, the students felt that they were not able to fully focus on each grammatical word. In addition, the increased number of grammatical words caused the lesson to proceed faster than usual. The

students expressed that learning three grammatical words during each lesson was most suitable

for the duration given.

Taking these comments into consideration, the syllabus was revised for the main study

to focus on topics that had a maximum of three grammatical words but still maintained different

levels of difficulty. As a result, the eight topics were reduced to five topics. The revised syllabus

is illustrated in Section 4.4.5 of Chapter 4.

3.4.2 Outcomes for the Instrument

For the pilot study, the handouts given to the students for own language-inclusive weeks only

had English and Malay translations of the Japanese explanation and idiomatic translation of the

example sentences (Figure 3). Moreover, the example sentences were also limited to only two to

three sentences. Comments from the students expressed that the translated explanations were

quite lengthy and sometimes made them more confused due to the multiple languages.

Figure 3: *Example of Pilot Study Handout for Own Language Use Weeks*

1.	V 辞書形・た形＋～**が早いか**
意味	～するとすぐ続いて次のことが起こる。 Almost as the same time as doing. Pada masa yang hampir sama.
注意点	時間的なことを表す動詞につく。後には、話者が少し意外感を持つ事実を表す文が来る。話者の希望・意向を表す文や働きかけの文は来ない。 Attached to verbs that represent things in time. Later comes a sentence that describes the fact that the speaker has a bit of a sense of surprise. There are no sentences or statements that indicate the speaker's wishes or intentions. Bersambung dengan kata kerja yang menunjukkan masa. Kemudian datang ayat yang menggambarkan hakikat bahawa penutur mempunyai sedikit rasa terkejut. Tidak ada ayat atau pernyataan yang menunjukkan kehendak atau niat penutur.
例文	小学校 5 年の息子は、ただいまと**言うが早いか**、もう遊びに行ってしまった。 No sooner did my fifth-grader son say "I'm home" than he left to play outside. Anak saya terus keluar bermain sebaik sahaja memberitahu saya dia sudah pulang dari sekolah. 彼は、そばにあった棒を**つかむが早いか**、どろぼうになぐりかかった。 He had scarcely grabbed a stick that was nearby when he started hitting the robber. Dia terus memukul perompak itu sebaik sahaja menggapai kayu yang berdekatan.

A student also commented that since their Japanese level is N2, the detailed explanation might be unnecessary and can be verbally explained if the student is unable to understand the meaning. In addition, the students also agreed that increasing the number of example sentences would help increase their comprehension of the grammatical words.

Based on the students' comments, the handouts for the own language group were revised by removing the English and Malay translations from the explanation section and increasing the number of example sentences. Furthermore, following up on Butzkamm and Caldwell's (2009) mirroring technique explained in Chapter 2, the revised handouts included an English and Malay gloss for the first example sentence alongside its idiomatic translation to provide students with double clarification. The amended handout will be presented in Section 4.4.6 of Chapter 4.

3.4.3 Outcomes for the Teaching Method

During the pilot study, the teacher mainly used Butzkamm's (2003) sandwich technique and Kerr's (2014) reverse translation to implement the principled own language use during weeks where own language was used in the classroom. Although these two methods were executed during the pilot study, the researcher noticed that there were many instances where the teacher spent a substantial amount of time answering students' questions using own language. This can be a threat to internal validity concerning the researcher effect (refer Section 4.4.3 of Chapter 4). Therefore, the researcher carefully planned a script for each lesson and memorized it for the main

study. In order to avoid the overuse of own language, the researcher also ensured that time was equally allocated for the explanation of each grammatical word for both groups. In addition, when answering questions from students in the own language group, the researcher was stipulated to first answer in the target language and only use own language if the students still do not understand. If the students continue to have trouble, the teacher should then ask the students to come for a discussion after class hours. Following this approach, the researcher was able to effectively control the variables in the experiment to obtain the best results.

3.4.4 Results of the Time-series Design Pilot Study

The results from the diagnostic test conducted during the pilot study are illustrated in Table 4.

Table 4*: Results of Pilot Study Diagnostic Test*

	第 1 課	第 2 課	第 3 課	第 4 課	第 5 課	第 6 課	第 7 課	第 8 課
A	70	100	89	83	90	88	60	71
B	60	/	78	83	80	88	70	86
C	60	90	89	50	80	100	60	86
D	90	100	89	83	100	88	80	86
E	70	/	80	83	100	100	50	86
F	80	50	/	67	/	/	40	57
Median	70	95	89	83	90	88	60	86
Mean	71.7	85	85	74.8	90	92.8	60	78.7

The diagnostic test consisted of 10 questions. Each question was awarded 10 marks if answered correctly. Hence, the possible test scores ranged from 0 to 10. The mean score obtained on own language-inclusive weeks (Weeks 1, 3, 5, 7) is 76.7 and the median score is 78.35. In contrast, the mean score obtained on target language-only weeks (Weeks 2, 4, 6, 8) is 82.8 and the median score 81.85.

Although the mean and median score on target language-only weeks is higher than that of the own language-inclusive weeks, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test conducted revealed that there was no significant difference in both scores ($Z = 0.887$, $p = 0.375$). This was expected considering that it is a pilot study with a limited number of participants. Thus, no conclusive findings could be deduced from the students' diagnostic grammar test scores.

Table 5: *Results of Pilot Study Lesson Questionnaire (Question 1)*

	第1課	第2課	第3課	第4課	第5課	第6課	第7課	第8課
A	95	95	95	95	95	95	95	95
B	75	0	95	95	95	75	95	95
C	95	95	95	75	95	95	95	95
D	75	95	75	95	95	95	75	75
E	55	0	75	95	55	75	75	95
F	75	75	0	75	0	0	75	75
Median	75	85	85	95	95	85	85	95
Mean	78.3	60	72.5	88.3	72.5	72.5	85	88.3

As aforementioned, the students also answered a lesson questionnaire at the end of each lesson to investigate the students' perceived grammar comprehension (Table 5). Question 1 is a closed ended question which asked the students how much of the class they were able to understand. Students had to choose on a scale between 15 (lowest) to 95 (highest) on how much of the class content they understood. The mean comprehension score obtained on own language-inclusive weeks (Weeks 1, 3, 5, 7) is 76 and the median comprehension score is 73. In contrast, the mean comprehension score obtained on target language-only weeks (Weeks 2, 4, 6, 8) is 79 and the median comprehension score 88. Like the results of the diagnostic test, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test revealed no significant difference between the two scores ($Z = 0.368$, $p = 0.713$). An interesting observation is that the highest and lowest recorded mean comprehension score from the students are on target language-only weeks. The lowest recorded mean score was on Week 2 (60), and the highest was on Weeks 4 and 8 (88.3). Although this may suggest that the students have better comprehension during the target language-only weeks, closer examination revealed that the students had a steadier understanding during the own language-inclusive weeks with a variation of score of only 12.5 points. Meanwhile, the variation of score for the target language-only weeks was 28.3 points.

Due to the pre-experimental nature of pilot studies, the inconclusive results were expected. However, more importantly, it has managed to provide a better outlook on possible challenges that may arise during the main study and allowed the researcher to be better prepared in dealing with them.

3.5 Chapter Summary

 This chapter presented the pilot study that was conducted prior to the main study of this research. The objective of the pilot study was to carry out a test run on the syllabus, instrument, and teaching method of the main study. An equivalent time samples research design was used for a duration of eight weeks. Students were taught using own language-inclusive methods in Weeks 1, 2, 5, and 7, and target language-only in Weeks 2, 4, 6, and 8. A total of six ethnic Malay students participated in the pilot study.

 The results from the pilot study are mainly used to refine and revise the syllabus, instrument and teaching method. In terms of the syllabus, the number of topics and grammatical words used were reduced from eight topics to five topics, with each topic covering a maximum of three grammatical words. The change was devised after comments from the students revealed that the number of grammatical words learned in the time allocated for each lesson exceeded their comprehension capabilities.

 In terms of instrument, specifically the handouts utilized for the own language group, the Malay and English translations were reduced to avoid confusion. Furthermore, comments from the students revealed that they required more example sentences for better understanding. Thus, the number of example sentences was increased, and an English and Malay gloss were also included for every first example sentence to provide students with double comprehension.

In regard to the teaching method, the teacher was able to refine the implementation of principled own language use by scripting and memorizing the lesson plans. In addition, the teacher ensured that each grammatical word was allocated the same amount of time for explanation to avoid threats to internal validity.

In regard to the results of the diagnostic test conducted during the pilot study, the students' mean scores during target language-only weeks were higher than those scored during the own language-inclusive weeks. However, results from Wilcoxon signed-rank tests revealed no significant difference between the two mean scores. In addition, the results from the lesson questionnaire also revealed no significant difference between the mean comprehension scores from the own language inclusive-weeks and the target language-only weeks.

Although no conclusive results were obtained from the tests conducted, as a result of the pilot study, the researcher was able to make necessary amendments to the syllabus, instrument, and teaching method to be utilized in the main study. The detailed revisions of the three items will be explained in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines how the data in this study were gathered and analysed to answer the research questions. Firstly, the aim of the study is presented, followed by the research questions. Next, the research paradigm and research design including the research site and participants involved are presented. Then, the data collection methods are explained, including the rationale behind their selection for this study. Lastly, data analysis methods are explained and clarified in detail.

4.1 Aim of Study

This study aimed to investigate the effects of own language (OL) use on the grammar comprehension of pre-university level ethnic Malay learners of the Japanese language in Malaysia. The specific goals of the study are (1) to identify whether OL use in the Japanese language classroom has a significant difference on students' grammar comprehension compared to target language-only instruction, (2) to detect which grammatical words are more effectively understood when OL is used to explain them, and (3) to investigate the attitudes of students who have undergone OL inclusive instruction compared to students who have undergone target language-only instruction. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to contribute to the debate on OL use by providing empirical evidence and to also further understanding on OL inclusive teaching frameworks in the Japanese language context.

4.2 Research Questions

This study was guided by the following three questions:

1. Is students' grammar comprehension better facilitated by a teacher's use of own language or by providing target language-only instruction?

2. What are students' attitudes towards own language use in the Japanese language classroom?

3. Does exposure to own language use in the classroom improve/change students' attitudes towards it?

To answer these three major research questions, it was hypothesized that (1) the group that received OL instruction would have a higher level of Japanese grammar achievement and understanding than the group that received TL-only instruction, and (2) the group that received OL instruction would have more positive attitudes towards OL use in the classroom that the group that received TL-only instruction.

The alternative hypotheses for the first and third research questions are as follows:

1. In the grammar tests, the mean score of the group that received OL instruction is higher than the mean score of the group that received TL-only instruction.

2. Students' attitudes are more positive towards own-language after receiving own language-inclusive instruction.

3. After the instructional intervention, the attitudes of students who received own-language instruction is more positive towards own language than the attitudes of students that received TL-only instruction.

4.3 Research Paradigm

The research design of this study is quantitative in nature and based on a post-positivist perspective. The aim of quantitative research is "to fulfill one of the three inferential goals: to describe, to relate, or to make causal inferences" (Richards, Ross & Seedhouse, 2012, p. 23). This approach is suitable for achieving the research goals which focus on determining correlations between OL use in the classroom and ethnic Malay students' grammar comprehension as represented by their grammar test scores. Furthermore, using the quantitative approach "can provide evidence about what the current state of affairs is, that there are relations among different phenomena" (Richards, Ross & Seedhouse, 2012, p. 23). This also echoes the research's objective which is to identify students' attitudes towards OL use and its possible relation to their experience in an OL inclusive classroom. Post-positivists are critically aware that research exists in reality with possible bias and thus aim to "test claims of relation and causation against representative samples from the real world" (Richards, Ross & Seedhouse, 2012, p.23).

Because all measurements are fallible, post-positivists emphasize on the importance of multiple measures and observations as each may possess different types of error. They also emphasize on the need to use triangulation across these multiple errorful sources to try to get a better read on what's happening in reality.

4.4 Research Design

This study employed a quasi-experimental pre-test-post-test comparison group research design to compare the own language group with the target language-only group in terms of grammar comprehension and attitudes towards own language use. An experimental study is often used in the context of language classroom research; however, it is not conducted in its pure form due to difficulties in controlling all possible confounding variables (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). Language researchers utilizing the experimental study often "investigate the mental mechanisms hypothesized to underpin second language acquisition." (Nunan & Bailey, 2009, p. 6). Thus, this aligns with the research objective of investigating if OL use in the classroom will result in more effective grammar comprehension than target language-only instruction.

4.4.1 Sampling Procedure

Convenience and random sampling were used in this study. Convenience sampling refers to data collection from the nearest and readily available members of the population. On the other hand,

random sampling refers to randomly assigning participants across the experimental and control groups in the study. Since both convenience and random sampling approaches were used in this study, detailed explanation of the procedure is illustrated below.

Firstly, the convenience sampling conducted was based on the preparatory school of students who were chosen to participate in the study. In language learning research, convenience sampling is the most common sampling strategy due to the limitation of recruiting study participants from their own institutions or intact classrooms (Richards, Ross & Seedhouse, 2012) As mentioned in Section 1.1.1 of Chapter 1, there are five schools in Malaysia that offer preparatory programs to study abroad in Japan; however, the participants in this study were students from only one school. A call for participants were sent out by email and circulated by the principal who used to be my teacher. The call for participants was only circulated to a specific target sample which is students in their second year of the preparatory course who have undergone 500 to 1000 hours of Japanese lessons. Students who were interested in participating submitted in their names through a Google signup sheet. The call for participants remained open until the required number of respondents was achieved. A total of 19 students participated in the study (see Appendix 2).

Secondly, random sampling was used to randomly assign the students into the control and experimental groups by asking each of them to draw lots provided during the initial briefing of the study.

In addition, when it comes to the sampling procedure, it is important to consider external validity because it determines whether or not the results can be generalized to the larger population. According to Phakiti (2015), external validity is "associated with generalizability of the inferences made on the basis of an experimental finding to other learners and other settings" (p. 93). In regard to generalization to other learners in terms of age, geographical, racial, or social group, there is no concern for threats because the students came from various social backgrounds from all over Malaysia. In regard to generalization to other settings, the results are likely to be generalized to ethnic Malay students from Japanese language preparatory schools that are funded by the Ministry of Education of Malaysia.

4.4.2 Participants

The participants of this study were centered on ethnic Malay Japanese as a Second Language (JSL) learners studying in Malaysia who have undergone 500 to 1000 hours of Japanese lessons and passed the N2 level of the Japanese Language Proficiency Test (JLPT). The participants of the study consisted of 19 ethnic Malay JSL learners aged 18 to 19 studying at a preparatory college in Kuala Lumpur. These students are enrolled in the Japanese university preparatory program where they are required to study Japanese for 21 months in Malaysia before being accepted to a university in Japan. It should be noted that the students enrolled in the program are

recipients of the Public Service Department Scholarship which is funded by the Ministry of Education of Malaysia.

4.4.3 Procedure

After establishing the groups, a grammar pre-test as well as a pre-intervention attitude survey was administered. One week later the instructional intervention began, and this lasted for a total of 3 weeks. At the end of each lesson, a diagnostic grammar test was administered alongside a class questionnaire related to the items learnt. One week after the end of the instructional intervention and fifth diagnostic test, a final delayed achievement post-test and post-intervention attitude survey was conducted. In total, the study was carried out in a span of 5 weeks (see Figure 4 on p. 80).

In regard to the procedure, threats to internal validity needed to be practically controlled to ensure that the differences in treatment conditions were what caused the obtained results. Threats are "other possible independent influences beyond those identified by the experimenter that can have an effect on an outcome or dependent variable" (Phakiti, 2015, p. 86). There are nine threats to internal validity, and I have carefully examined each of them in the aim of controlling them and their possible effects on the study.

Selection Bias

This threat concerns the individual characteristics of the participants in terms of their intelligence, language proficiency, motivation and anxiety. The students who participated in the study are all enrolled in the same program to further their study in Japan. Thus, it is reasonable to believe that they had similar motivations. Furthermore, the results of the pre-test revealed that there was no significant difference between the control and experimental groups in terms of Japanese language proficiency.

History Effect

This threat concerns a specific situation or event that occurs outside classroom time during the experimental period. To control this threat, I examined the students' regular course syllabus to ensure that no N1 units will be learned prior or during the experimental study. Furthermore, since students from both the control and experimental group are enrolled in the same program, students from both groups are required to attend all the same events which included a speech contest during the experimental period.

Maturation Effect

This threat concerns participants' natural growth and development. Students growing older and wiser could influence the outcomes of the study. The maturation effect is more distinct when the experiment involves "young children, than with adults, or when we conduct an experiment

extensively over a long period of time" (Phakiti, 2015, p. 88). In the context of this study, the students are young adults aged from 18 to 19 years old and the experimental period is 5 weeks. Thus, any development or maturity will likely occur in a similar way.

Attrition Effect

This threat concerns participants that drop out from the study during the experimental period. For this study, none of the students withdrew from the experiment. However, due to unavoidable circumstances, not all students were able to participate in all lessons conducted. To minimize this threat, I was careful to make necessary adjustments to the data analysis.

Diffusion Effect

This threat concerns the sharing of information between the control and experimental groups. This may result in the control group also receiving the experimental treatment unintentionally, which may affect the outcomes of the study. To minimize this threat, measures were taken to keep the two groups as separate as possible. In addition, students from both groups were informed that they were not allowed to discuss any content of the lessons with the opposing group or share notes with each other.

Researcher Effect

This threat concerns the researcher having an unintentional personal bias towards the participants and this can affect the outcome of the experiment. To minimize this threat, the lessons in the study were carefully planned, scripted, and memorized. I also made sure that time was equally allocated for the explanation of each grammatical word for both groups. This reduced any extra enthusiasm or preference for either group during the experimental period.

Regression Effect

This threat concerns the selection of students based on extreme scores. Extreme scores tend to gradually regress toward the mean and can affect the outcome of the experiment. The students who volunteered to participate in this study included high, average, and low achievers. The results of the pre-test also reveal that none of the students' scores were extreme enough to pose a threat to the validity of the study.

Testing Effect

This threat concerns identical pre-test and post-test instruments. Students may perform better because they can recall answers to the questions, and this can affect the outcome of the experiment. In this study, identical pre-test and post-test were utilized. To minimize the effects of this threat, after the students finished answering the pre-test, the test papers were immediately collected. The answers were not discussed with the students; thus, they were not able to identify

which questions they had answered correctly or wrongly. In the post-test, the sequence of the

questions was rearranged to further minimize this threat.

Instrumentation Effect

This threat concerns the reliability and validity of instruments used. The instruments in this study

had reasonable reliability and validity, thus this threat did not cause any affect to the outcome of

the experiment.

Figure 4: Relationship between instructional intervention and the testing process

	Timeline
Pretest 1 and Pre-Attitude Survey	Week 1
Lesson 1 ：時間関係の表現	Lesson 2：範囲の始まりの表現	Week 2
Diagnostic Test 1 and Class Survey 1	Diagnostic Test 2 and Class Survey 2	
Lesson 3：条件の表現	Lesson 4：逆接条件の表現	Week 3
Diagnostic Test 3 and Class Survey 3	Diagnostic Test 4 and Class Survey 4	
Lesson 5：付随行動の表現	Week 4
Diagnostic Test 5 and Class Survey 5	
Delayed Posttest and Post-Attitude Survey	Week 5

4.4.4 Instructional Intervention

The instructional intervention for both conditions was additional to the students' regular courses and was provided by the researcher. Students attended lessons twice a week except during the third week where only one lesson was held. The duration of each lesson was 1.25 hours.

For this study, the sandwich technique developed by Butzkamm (2003) and the reverse translation approach by Kerr (2014) were used to implement the principled own language use in the classroom. During each lesson, the teacher provided handouts on the topic to the students. Students in the experimental group received handouts that had the TL and its equivalent translation and explanation in their OL. Students in the control group received the exact same handouts; however, only information in the TL was provided.

The teacher first asked the students to read through the handout before proceeding to explain the concept of a grammatical word. At this initial stage of the lesson, it should be noted that the teacher did not use the OL in both groups. Next, the students were asked to read out the example sentences. In addition, students in the experimental group were asked to translate the example sentences into their OL. At this stage of the lesson, the teacher used OL in the experimental group to provide support and clarify any questions where necessary, for example when a student had asked for a meaning of a word and the teacher replied with a similar word or synonym in the TL and yet, the student was still unable to comprehend. Another instance is when the student inquired in the OL and the teacher responded in the OL as well. In the control group, however,

information and questions were explained only in the TL, and meaning of words were provided

by giving examples or synonyms in the TL. After going through the example sentences, the

students answered a 3-question quiz to check their understanding before moving on to the next

grammatical word.

Figure 5: *Overview of Instructional Intervention*
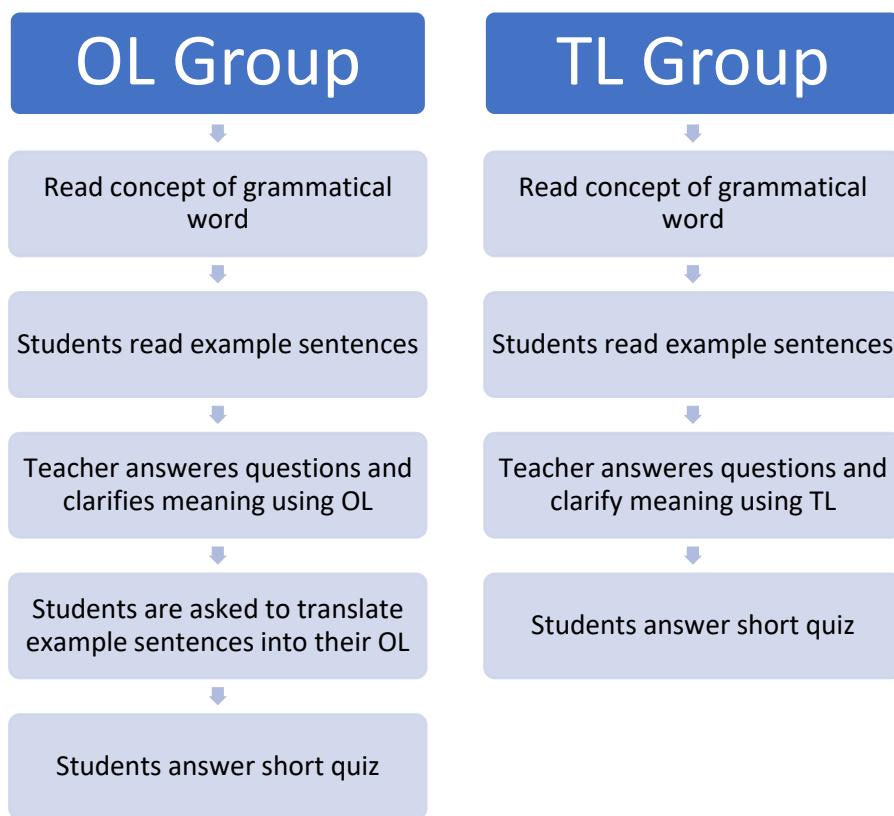
All sessions were audio-recorded. Due to inevitable attendance fluctuation, not all 19

students took part in every test. The following transcripts illustrate the difference in instructional

intervention between the two groups when 1) responding to a question and 2) explaining a

grammatical word.

1) Example Student Asking A Question

OL Group Classroom Transcript（時間関係表現）

先生：　この授業のルールは、グループＡのルールとして日本語はもちろん、英語とマレー語
　　　　を使うことができます。だからもしかして授業中に何がわからないことがあればぜひ
　　　　聞いてください。何語でも。
　　　　今日のテーマは時間関係で、３つの文法を勉強します。じゃ、最初の文法はなになに
　　　　が早いかという文法表現です。下に、意味のところがあります。じゃ、S さん読んで
　　　　くれますか。

学生：　（意味のところを読む）
先生：　分からない言葉がありますか？
学生：　意向はなんですか？
先生：　意向は、intention, atau niat,　どうするつもりかという考えのことです。

TL Group Classroom Transcript（時間関係表現）

先生：　はい、今日Ｎ１の文法のテーマは時間関係です。今日は 3 つの文法を勉強します。最
　　　　初は〜が早いかという文法表現です。この下に意味のところがありますね。Ｓさん、
　　　　読んでくれますか。
学生：　はい。（意味のところをよみます）
先生：　はい、この文のなかでわからない言葉ありますか？いいですか？こちらのキーワード
　　　　は３つあります。1 つ目は瞬間的、2 つ目は意向を表す文や働きかけの文は来ないで
　　　　す。だから「〜してください」とか「してほしい」というような文は後ろにこないで
　　　　す。
学生：　先生、意向はどういうことですか？
先生：　意向はどうするつもりかということ、あと自分がしたいこと、何かしてほしいという
　　　　ことが意向です。

2) Example of Grammatical word Explanation

OL Group Classroom Transcript（時間関係表現）

先生： この文をぱっと読んだら、理解できますか？この文法の使い方。

学生： 最初はちょっとわかったけど、その後半のほうちょっとわからない。

先生： ちょっと難しいでしょう。だから例文があります。一緒に例文をみに行きましょう。1番の例文をよんでください。

学生： （例文を読みます）

先生： その下にliteral translationと英語とマレー語の翻訳が書いてありますね。
じゃ、読みますね。
-その学生は、授業の終わりのベルが鳴るが早いか、教室を出て行った。
-The student left the classroom as soon as the bell rang at the end of the class. また、
-Pelajar itu meninggalkan bilik darjah sebaik sahaja, だから～が早いかは as soon as または sebaik sahaja. Atau satu lagi benda yang kita boleh tengok untuk が早いか is kita tak tahu yang mana berlaku dahulu, だから～が早いか yang mana lagi cepat? Literally translated。Kalau kita tengok 例文 yang pertama, loceng bunyi dulu ke, dia keluar kelas dulu ke ちょっと曖昧です。でも Sebenarnya kita tahu, tapi nak menunjukkan betapa lajunya 瞬間的に yang mana berlaku dahulu, kita pakai が早いか。大丈夫ですか？

学生： はい

先生： じゃ、次の例文に行きましょう。

TL Group Classroom Transcript（時間関係表現）

先生： 理解するために例文を見に行きましょう。Ｓさん１番をよんでください。

学生： はい。（例文を読みます）

先生： はい。大丈夫ですか？イメージできますか。Ｎ１の文法はやっぱりイメージが大事です。そのイメージができたら理解しやすいです。ということで、やっぱりどちらか早い？ベルか、学生さんの出ることかというイメージです。でも実際にわ

かってますね。ベルは先になって、その後学生さんが出るんですけど、この文で
はその瞬間を表しています。

大丈夫ですか？

学生：　はい

先生：　じゃ、次の例文に行きましょう。

As stated in Figure (5), students in the OL Group were also required to translate the other example sentences into their own language. The following transcript illustrates how reverse translation was carried out during the instructional intervention.

3) Example of Reverse Translation

OL Group Classroom Transcript（時間関係表現）

先生　はい、じゃＳさん、Ａの例文を読んでくれますか。

学生　はい。「うちの子はいつも学校から帰ってきて、かばんを放り出すが早いか、遊び
に行ってしまう。」

先生　いいですね。わからないことばありますか？いいですか？それではその例文を訳し
てください。英語かマレー語か両方混ぜても大丈夫です。どういうふうに自分が理
解しているかのように訳してください。

学生　自分のことばで？

先生　そうです。それじゃ、Ｓさん、訳した文を読んでください。

学生　The children came back after school as soon as he put the bag, he would go out
to play

先生　いいですね。みんな同じですか？Ｓさんはどうですか？

学生　Setiap kali anak saya pulang dari sekolah dia akan keluar bermain sebaik sahaja
meletakkan beg.

先生　いいですね。すごく上手に訳しました。

4.4.5 Syllabus

Five different topics from the JLPT N1 level were used as the syllabus during the instructional intervention. JLPT is the "largest-scale-Japanese-language test in the world" and is used by many companies and institutions as a yardstick to evaluate the Japanese proficiency of non-native speakers[6]. The Japan Foundation and the Japan Educational Exchanges and Services (JEES) initially offered the test in 1984 and have over 644,000 applicants as of 2019. The test offers five levels of evaluations (N5, N4, N3, N2, and N1) and consists of four sections which are vocabulary, grammar, reading, and listening. The highest proficiency level of the JLPT is N1 where students are tested on their "ability to understand Japanese used in a variety of circumstances" (ibid).

Based on the *New Kanzen Master Grammar JLPT N1* textbook published by 3A Network, there are a total of 20 topics listed in the grammar syllabus of the JLPT N1 level. In each topic, there are three to six different grammatical words introduced. I examined all 20 topics carefully and selected three grammatical words from five topics that vary in terms of difficulty. Since the aim of this dissertation is to investigate whether own language use can be a useful tool in the advanced level, specifically to aid with the understanding of grammatical words that have similar meanings and functions, such criteria were emphasized during the selection. To warrant validity,

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[6] Retrieved from Japanese Language Proficiency Test website: https://www.jlpt.jp/e/about/purpose.html

the topics and grammatical words selected were crosschecked with my three supervisors. The

following topics were selected to be included in this study (Table 6).

Table 6: *List of Grammatical Words Tested in the Study*

	Topic	Grammatical words
Lesson 1:	時間関係表現 (Time-Related Expressions)	〜なり
		〜そばから
		〜が早いか
Lesson 2:	範囲の始まりの表現 (Starting of Range Expressions）	〜を皮切りにして
		〜に至るまで
		〜をもって
Lesson 3:	条件の表現 (Conditional-Related Expressions)	〜たら最後
		〜とあれば
		〜ようでは
Lesson 4:	逆接条件の表現 (Reverse Condition-Related Expressions)	〜たところで
		〜であれ
		〜ようとも
Lesson 5:	付随行動の表現 (Accompanying Action-Related Expressions)	〜かたわら
		〜がてら
		〜かたがた

As aforementioned, grammatical words from varying levels of difficulty were selected. Compared to the other topics in the textbook, the five selected are common topics that are learnt even at the beginner level. The reasoning behind the selection is explained as follows:

a. 時間関係表現 (Time- Related Expressions)

This is the first lesson in the *New Kanzen Master Grammar JLPT N1* textbook, and this topic was included in the selective words (refer to Chapter 2, page 46) mentioned by Tanimori (2016) to be more effectively understood with the use of own language. There were originally six grammatical words included in this topic of the textbook. However, due to time constraints and the comments received during the pilot study, only three were selected for this study. The words (〜なり，〜そばから，〜が早いか) were selected based on their explanations which were similar to one another. For example:

〜が早いか: 〜するとすぐに続いて次のことがおこる。

〜なり：〜という動作にすぐ連続して次のことをする。

Due to their similarities, it would be useful to know whether own language use can help them differentiate or understand the concepts better.

b. 範囲の始まりの表現 (Starting of Range Expressions）

This is the second lesson in the *New Kanzen Master Grammar JLPT N1* textbook. There were

originally five grammatical words included in this topic, but only three were selected for this

study. In contrast with the first topic, the words in this topic (〜を皮切りにして，〜に至るまで，

〜をもって) were included due to their differing functions and meanings. For example:

　　　〜を皮切りにして: 〜から始まって次々に何かをする。

　　　〜に至るまで : 〜ということ以外にまで、あることの範囲が及ぶ。

To wholly investigate the extent to which own language can be useful to students' in the

advanced Japanese language classrooms, the effects of own language with grammatical words

that differ in meaning must also be included.

c. 条件の表現 (Conditional related expressions)

This is the ninth lesson in the *New Kanzen Master Grammar JLPT N1* textbook. . There were

originally five grammatical words included in this topic, but only three were selected for this

study. Although the explanations differ from one another, the use of the grammatical words can

be unclear or ambiguous. For example:

　　　〜たら最後 : 〜たら、必ずひどいことになる。

　　　〜ようでは : 〜のような良くない状態では、良くない結果になるだろう。

Since the explanation for both grammatical words lead to undesired results （良くない結果、ひ

どいことになる） there is a tendency for a misunderstanding. This is similar to (a), however on

a more intermediate level.

d. 逆接条件の表現 (Reverse Condition-Related Expressions)

This is the tenth lesson in the *New Kanzen Master Grammar JLPT N1* textbook. There were

originally five grammatical words included in this topic, but only three were selected for this

study. The grammatical words in this topic were also selected based on the similarities in

explanation and use. For example:

　　　〜ようとも：〜でも、それに関係ない・影響されない。

　　　〜であれ：たとえ〜でも、それに関係ない・影響されない。

This topic is considered to be advanced level among all the topics selected in this study.

e. 付随行動の表現 (Accompanying Action-Related Expressions)

This is the seventh lesson in the *New Kanzen Master Grammar JLPT N1* textbook. There are

only three grammatical words included in this topic and all the three were selected for this study.

In contrast to the other topics, this theme was selected not only due to their similarity in meaning,

but also due to the similarity in pronunciation. For example:

〜がてら：〜のついでに、その機会を利用してあることをする。

〜かたがた：〜という別の目的も持って、あることをする。

For this topic, this study can investigate if own language can help students not only with grammatical words that are similar in meaning, but also with those that are similar in pronunciation.

4.4.6 Handouts

The handouts used in this study were taken from the *New Kanzen Master Grammar JLPT N1* textbook published by 3A Network. For the control group, I used the information in the textbook as it is without any modification. However, extra example sentences were taken from other textbooks and included in the handouts to help with inductive grammar.

For the experimental group, I used the same handout and included information and translation in English and Malay. The English translation and explanation of the grammatical were extracted from the *Nihongo So-Matome N1 Grammar* textbook by Ask Publishing, and supporting notes were gathered from various online websites. For the Malay translation and explanations, I referred to the Japanese Malay Dictionary and online sources and formulated them as deemed appropriate. A sample of the handout is as shown in Figure 6.

Figure 6*:* Sample Handout for the Experimental Group

第１課：時間関係の表現.

GROUP A

〜が早いか

意味：するとすぐ続いて次のことが起こる。瞬間的なことを表す動詞につく。後には、話者が少し意外感を持つ事実を表す文が来る。話者の希望・意向を表す文や働きかけの文は来ない。

–似ている文法：同時に・とたんに

–動詞（辞書形）＋が早いが

例文

その学生は、授業の終わりのベルが鳴るが早いか、教室を出て行った。

*Student wa, class finished bell rang as soon as, left the classroom.

The student left the classroom as soon as the bell rang at the end of the class.

Pelajar itu meninggalkan bilik darjah sebaik sahaja loceng kelas berakhir berbunyi.

Translated Grammatical Words

As aforementioned, English and Malay translations were used in the handouts for the experimental group. The translations of each grammatical word are illustrated in Table 7.

Table 7: *English and Malay Translations of Grammatical words*

Topic	Grammatical word	English	Malay
時間関係表現 (Time-Related Expressions)	〜なり	As soon as…	Sebaik sahaja…
	〜そばから	As soon as…	Sebaik sahaja…
	〜が早いか	As soon as…	Sebaik sahaja…
範囲の始まりの表現 （Starting of Range Expressions）	〜を皮切りにして	Starting in…	Bermula dengan…
	〜に至るまで	Even…	Termasuk…
	〜をもって	End as of…	Berakhir pada…
条件の表現 (Conditional-Related Expressions)	〜たら最後	once they…	Sekali …
	〜とあれば	If…	Sekiranya…
	〜ようでは	If…	Jika…
逆接条件の表現 (Reverse Condition-Related Expressions)	〜たところだ	No matter…	Tidak kira…
	〜であれ	No matter…	Tidak kira…
	〜ようとも	No matter…	Tidak kira…
付随行動の表現 (Accompanying Action-Related Expressions)	〜かたわら	While…	Semasa…
	〜がてら	And also..	Dan juga…
	〜かたがた	While…	Semasa…

4.5 Data Collection Methods

The data collection methods in this study are divided into two main sections. The first section focuses on conducting treatments and grammar tests to identify any significant difference

between the control and experimental groups. By using interval data such as test scores, statistical analyses can be performed to answer the research question of this study.

The second section focuses on survey research. Two surveys were distributed during the course of this study. The first survey is a lesson questionnaire distributed at the end of each lesson after students have completed the grammar test. The second survey is an attitude survey distributed before the start of the study and after the final delayed post-test was concluded. In total, three different instruments were used in this study to determine the effects of own language use on students' grammar comprehension and students' attitudes towards own language use.

4.5.1 Grammar Test

Three types of grammar tests were utilized in this study. The tests are in the form of multiple-choice questions, which are often used in tertiary education for their high reliability (Dehnad, Nasser, & Hossein, 2014). The grammar tests utilized in this study consisted of a three-option multiple choice questions. According to Farhady and Shakery (2000), and Vyas and Supe (2008), there is no significant difference in psychometric characteristics between three, four, and five option tests. In addition, Rodriguez (2005) states that three-option tests enhance the coverage of content, and thus, the decision to use the three-option answer for the tests in this study.

Firstly, a grammar pre-test was administered during the student briefing to determine the baseline performance of students prior to intervention (see Appendix 3). The pre-test consisted

of 25 objective multiple choice questions that were carefully examined and selected from JLPT N1 workbooks and quizzes based on the syllabus. After the 25-item pre-test was administered to the students, results indicated that the test had a Cronbach alpha valued at .26. According to Yu (2005), a low reliability level is common in pre-tests because it is conducted pre-intervention where students have not learnt the subject matter. This results in random guessing which led to the low alpha reading. Administration of the test took 15 minutes.

Next, individual diagnostic grammar tests were conducted to measure the students' grammar comprehension for each lesson (see Appendix 4). A diagnostic test "is done at the end of a course book unit or recent class work" (Chiedu & Omenogor, 2014, p. 3). This allows the teacher to examine how well students have learnt the units in the class. Each diagnostic test had 10 objective multiple-choice questions. The questions were also carefully examined and selected from JLPT N1 workbooks and distributed to students at the end of each lesson. The answers to the questions were later discussed with the entire class.

Finally, a delayed 25-item achievement post-test to determine any significant differences between OL use and non-OL use were conducted a week after lessons had ended. An achievement test is used "to measure what has been learnt over a longer period of time than a diagnostic test" (Chiedu & Omenogor, 2014, p. 3). Students from both groups were allowed to study their handouts that were distributed during the lessons for a duration of 15 minutes. After the allotted study time, students were instructed to put away their handouts and the post-test was

distributed. The post-test is identical to the grammar pre-test with the sequence of the questions rearranged. The post-test results indicated that the test had a reasonable reliability valued at .47.

A student received one point for each item answered correctly. Possible test scores ranged from 0 to 25 for the pre-test and post-test, and 0 to 10 for all diagnostic tests.

4.5.2 Lesson Questionnaire

The students also answered a questionnaire at the end of each lesson (see Appendix 5). The questionnaire was used to determine how the students felt about the lesson conducted and to find out which grammatical words they were able to fully comprehend or unable to fully comprehend. Brown (2001) defined questionnaires as "any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react, either by writing out their answers or selecting from existing answers" (p. 6). The questionnaire in this study consisted of 4 questions which included both open and closed items. According to Mackey and Gass (2005), using closed-items questions provides better reliability because it utilizes more uniformity of measurement, while open-ended items provides more insightful data because respondents can freely express their thoughts. Considering that the aim of this questionnaire is to investigate students' response to OL and TL use and to identify which grammatical words benefit from OL or TL use, utilizing both open and closed items can provide a holistic view to answering both questions.

Questions 1, 2, and 3 were all closed-item questions. Question 1 required students to choose on a scale between 10 (lowest) to 100 (highest) on how much of the class content they understood. Question 2 asked the students on which grammatical words they were able to fully comprehend, while Question 3 asked them on which grammatical words were difficult to comprehend. Both questions had the same four choices which consisted of the grammatical words learnt.

Lastly, Question 4 was an open-ended question that asked students to freely write and comment about the class as well as why they thought the grammatical words (if they had chosen it in Question 3) were difficult to understand. According to Lewis (2001), the use of student comments can provide hints for developing strategies to address specific concerns in language teaching. Furthermore, appending specific questions help students structure their written comments concisely yet addressing the question that is of interest (Lewis, 2001). By utilizing this instrument, this paper believes that it can give insight to how students' respond to OL and TL use in Japanese language classrooms and answer the second research question included in Section 4.2.

4.5.3 Attitude Survey

An attitude survey was distributed at the beginning and at the end of the study (see Appendix 6). This is to determine if there are any changes in the students' attitudes towards own language use before and after the study was completed. In language classroom research, the Likert scale is

commonly utilized to measure people's attitudes towards a series of statements (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). Thus, it is appropriately used to answer the third research question as mentioned in Section 4.2.

The survey is a 14-item questionnaire (see Appendix 6). The questions were divided into five categories which are (A) general questions towards the OL use in Japanese Language Classroom (questions 1 to 3), (B) questions that suggest the effectiveness of OL use in specific situations (questions 4 to 6), (C) questions that encourage OL use in specific situations (questions 7 to 10), (D) questions on students' OL use in the classroom (questions 11 to 13), and (E) a question regarding OL use and student motivation (question 14). The questions were then presented on a Likert scale from 1 to 5, with 1 representing 'Strongly Disagree', 2 representing 'Disagree', 3 representing 'Neither Agree nor Disagree', to indicate that they neither agree nor disagree with the statement, 4 representing 'Agree', and 5 as 'Strongly Agree' to determine the students' attitudes. The choice of 'Neither Agree nor Disagree' has been shortened to 'Neither' in the questionnaire and it is included as the students come from differing language learning environments. Thus, there are instances where there is a possibility that the students will have a neutral perspective towards the statement given.

The survey was piloted with a population sample before the commencement of the study and revised where necessary. Results indicated that the survey had a Cronbach alpha value of .88.

Table 8: *Attitude Survey Items and their Categories*

Category	No	Question
A (General Use)	1	In a Japanese classroom, the teacher should know Bahasa Melayu or English.
	2	The teacher should use Bahasa Melayu or English during Japanese Class.
	3	Students should be allowed to use Bahasa Melayu or English during Japanese Class.
B (Suggested Effectiveness)	4	It is easier to understand Japanese grammar when the teacher uses Bahasa Melayu or English.
	5	It is easier to understand when the teacher uses English or Bahasa Melayu to give instructions in Japanese class.
	6	It is easier to understand when the teacher explains mistakes in Bahasa Melayu or English.
C (Affirmation)	7	Teachers should use Bahasa Melayu or English to explain Japanese grammar.
	8	Teachers should use Bahasa Melayu or English when explaining homework.
	9	Teachers should use Bahasa Melayu or English when giving instructions.
	10	Teachers should explain mistakes in Bahasa Melayu or English.
D (Student Use)	11	Students should be allowed to talk in Bahasa Melayu or English when talking in pairs or groups.
	12	Students should be allowed to translate a Japanese word to Bahasa Melayu or English to show that they understand.
	13	Students should be allowed to explain what they do or don't understand in Bahasa Melayu or English.
E (Motivation)	14	Using Bahasa Melayu or English in Japanese class will increase my motivation to learn.

4.6 Data Analysis

4.6.1 Descriptive Analyses

The means and frequency distribution of the grammar tests administered in this study were calculated to determine the students' overall performance. Test scores from the pre-test, post-tests and diagnostic tests from both groups were calculated and tabulated to identify the mean, median and mode.

The results from the close-ended questions of the lesson questionnaire were tabulated, and their frequencies were also calculated. The open-ended question in the classroom questionnaire was coded following the principle of thematic coding (Saldana, 2013).

The students' attitude scores for the pre- and post-attitude survey were tabulated by adding up the total of all of the 14 Likert items. The highest attitude score (if a student answered "Strongly Agree (5)" to all items) was 70, whereas the lowest possible score was 14. The change in attitude score was calculated by subtracting each student's pre-attitude score from their post-attitude score. The means and standard deviation of the attitude survey were calculated to determine the students' overall attitude towards own language use.

4.6.2 Inferential Analyses

To determine whether there are significant differences between the means of both groups, the Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test (also known as the Mann-Whitney U test) was used. The Mann-

Whitney U test is a non-parametric test that is equivalent to the parametric two samples t-test. A non-parametric test is appropriate when comparing independent samples which are small in size and not normally distributed. Since the number of participants in this study is 19 and only two groups were being compared, using the u-test was sufficient to determine any significant differences.

4.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter explained the methodology of this study which included the research design, participants, instrumentation, procedures, and data analysis.

For the research design, this study used a quasi-experimental pre-test-post-test comparison group research design. Nineteen ethnic Malay students who are enrolled in a Japanese language preparatory program volunteered to participate in this 5-week study. The students have undergone 500 to 100 hours of Japanese language lessons and are recipients of the Public Service Department Scholarship funded by the Ministry of Education of Malaysia. The experimental group received own language inclusive instruction and the control group received target language-only instruction.

Four instruments were used in this study to measure the effects of own language use on students' grammar comprehension and their attitudes. They were (1) a grammar pre-test and

post-test, (2) individual diagnostic tests, (3) individual lesson questionnaires, and (4) a pre- and

post-attitude survey (Table 9).

Table 9: *Research Question, Instrument, and Data Analysis Matrix*

Research Question	Instrument	Data Analysis
1. Is students' grammar comprehension better facilitated by a teacher's use of own language or by providing target language-only instruction?	Pre-test Post-test Diagnostic Test Lesson Questionnaire	Mann-Whitney U test Wilcoxon signed-rank test Frequency responses
2. What are the students' attitudes towards own language use in the Japanese language classroom?	Attitude Survey	Mean responses
3. Does exposure to own language use in the classroom improve/change students' attitudes towards it?	Attitude Survey	Mann-Whitney U test

Data collected from this study was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics.

This included calculating the mean, mode, and median, and conducting Mann-Whitney U tests

and Wilcoxon signed-rank tests to determine any significant differences between the two groups.

The results of these data analyses will be presented in Chapters 5 and 6.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS ON STUDENTS' GRAMMAR COMPREHENSION

This chapter reports the results related to Research Question 1 (see below); this question was addressed using descriptive statistics as noted in the Methodology Chapter (see Chapter 4). The results involving the students' test scores and after-class questionnaire are divided into two sections in this chapter: 1) grammar test results, and 2) lesson questionnaire results, each of which includes students' comments. The students in the own language group will be referred to as the OL group, and students in the direct method group will be referred to as the TL group.

5.1 Analysis of Grammar Test Results

5.1.1 Descriptive Analysis of Grammar Test Results

This section presents the descriptive statistical information on the sample and the results of the grammar tests conducted in this study. The descriptive analysis for the attitude survey will be discussed in Chapter 6.

A sample of 19 students was randomly allocated into two groups with nine students in the OL group and 10 students in the TL group. Table 10 presents the demographic information of the students who participated in the study.

The total sample consisted of 42% (8) male and 58% (11) female students. The gender distributions in both groups were similar to that of the total sample which is 42% (4 in the OL

group and 4 in the TL group) male and 57.78% (5 in the OL group and 6 in the TL group) female students. In regard to the students' age, all students were born in the year 2000, making the sample age to be 19 at the time of the experiment.

Table 10: *Demographic Information of the Sample*

	Total Sample		Own Language Group		Target Language Group	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Gender						
Male	8	42.11	4	44.44	4	40
Female	11	57.89	5	55.56	6	60
Total	19	100	9	100	10	100

Thus, from the demographics, it can be deduced that in terms of gender and age, both groups were similar.

Next are the descriptive analyses of the grammar tests conducted in this study. A total of 7 grammar tests were implemented. The 7 tests are a pre-test, 5 diagnostic tests, and an achievement post-test. The students took the pre-test before the commencement of treatment (i.e., OL-inclusive instruction or TL-only instruction). The students took each individual diagnostic test after each lesson, and finally took the achievement post-test after all lessons concluded. Table 11 shows the mean scores of the test results for each group and the total sample.

Table 11: *Mean Scores for the Grammar Tests*

Grammar Test	OL Group (*n* = 9)		TL Group (*n* = 10)		Total Sample (*n* = 19)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Pre-test	40.89	9.55	40.8	4.92	40.8	7.25
Diagnostic Test 1	84.44	8.82	75	9.26	80	10
Diagnostic Test 2	96.25	5.18	91.43	9.00	94	7.37
Diagnostic Test 3	82.5	14.88	80	10.69	81.25	12.58
Diagnostic Test 4	91.25	11.26	90	10.54	90.56	10.56
Diagnostic Test 5	90	10	96.25	5.18	92.94	8.49
Delayed Post-test	80.89	8.89	80.5	8.40	80.71	8.39

*M: mean, SD: standard deviation

The pre-test consisted of 25 questions (see Appendix 3). Each question was awarded 4 points if answered correctly. Thus, the possible test scores ranged from 0 to 100. The students answered on average 40% of the questions correctly. The variation[7] in scores among the total sample was not too large, with scores ranging roughly at 30 points. The mean scores of the OL group and the TL group were close to identical (40.89 and 40.80). However, the variation in scores for the OL group was larger compared to the variation in scores for the TL group (32 and 16 points respectively).

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[7] Variation is used to describe the distribution of data and is measured by range. The range is the difference between the highest and lowest scores obtained.

Each diagnostic test consisted of 10 questions (see Appendix 4). Each question was awarded 10 marks if answered correctly. Thus, the possible test scores ranged from 0 to 100. In Diagnostic Test 1, the topic learnt was Time-Related Expressions (時間関係の表現). The students answered on average 80% of the questions correctly. The variation in scores among the total sample was average, with scores ranging about 30 points. The mean score of the OL group was higher than that of the TL group (84.44 and 75). The variation in both groups differed 10 points from each other (30 and 20 points respectively).

In Diagnostic Test 2, the topic learnt was Starting of Range Expressions (範囲の始まりの表現). The students answered on average 94% of the questions correctly. The variation in scores for the total sample was average, with scores ranging roughly 20 points. The mean score of the OL group was higher than that of the TL group (96.25 and 91.43). The variation in scores among the OL group was also smaller compared to the variation in scores of the TL group (10 and 20 points respectively).

In Diagnostic Test 3, the topic learnt was Conditional-Related Expressions (条件の表現). The students answered on average 81.25% of the questions correctly. The variation in scores for the total sample was large, with scores ranging about 50 points. The mean scores of both groups were similar (82.5 and 80) and the variation in scores for both groups were also large (50 and 30 points respectively).

In Diagnostic Test 4, the topic learnt was Reverse Condition-Related Expressions (逆接条件の表現). The students answered on average 90.56% of the questions correctly. The variation of scores in the total sample was average, with scores ranging around 30 points. The mean scores of both groups were nearly identical (91.25 and 90). The variation in scores for both groups was also similar to that of the total sample and ranged about 30 points.

In Diagnostic Test 5, the topic learnt was Accompanying Actions-Related Expressions (付随行動の表現). The students on average answered 92.94% of the questions correctly. The variation in scores was average, with scores ranging roughly 30 points. The mean score of the TL group was higher than that of the OL group (90 and 96.25). Furthermore, the variation in score for the OL group was larger than the variation in score of the TL group (30 and 10 points respectively).

Similar to the pre-test, the achievement post-test consisted of 25 questions. Each question was worth 4 points if answered correctly. Thus, the possible test scores ranged from 0 to 100. The students answered on average 80.71% of the questions correctly. The variation in scores among the total sample was small, with scores ranging about 24 points. The performance of both groups was also nearly identical (80.89 and 80.5). The variation in scores for both groups were also small (24 and 20 points respectively).

5.1.2 Inferential Analysis of Grammar Tests

Multiple Mann-Whitney U tests and Wilcoxon signed-rank tests were conducted to answer Research Question 1. All statistical tests conducted used an alpha level of .05.

Research Question 1 asked the following: Is students' grammar comprehension better facilitated by a teacher's use of own language or by providing target language-only instruction? To answer this question, Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted to compare the grammar test scores of students who received OL-inclusive instruction and students who received TL-only instruction. The Mann-Whitney U tests was considered the most suitable statistical test for this study because it is fitting for small data sets and is commonly used in language classroom research. To accompany the Mann-Whitney U tests, the effect size (*r*) was also calculated to determine the strength of relationship between the instructional intervention and the students' grammar comprehension scores.

First, the Mann-Whitney U test for the pre-test and post-test were analyzed (Table 12). For the pre-test, there was no significant difference between the scores of the OL group (*Mdn* = 40) and the TL group (*Mdn* = 40), $U = 37$, p = 0.5 [*Mdn*: median number of students, *U*: The U-value represents the number of times observations in one sample precede observations in the other sample in the ranking]. This confirms that the two groups were equal prior to the instructional intervention.

For the post-test, the Mann-Whitney U test results indicated there were no significant difference between the scores of the OL group (*Mdn* = 80) and the TL group (*Mdn*=80), $U = 35.5$, p = 0.96. The effect size was small ($r = 0.012$).

Table 12: *Mann-Whitney U test Results of Pre-test and Post-test*

	OL Group (n=9)	TL Group (n=10)	
Test	Mean rank	Mean Rank	Z-value
Pre-test	10.89	9.20	-0.67
Post-test	9.06	8.94	-0.049

*Note. *Mean rank*: arithmetic average of the positions in the list of scores,*

Z-value: the number of standard deviations a score or a value (x) is away from the mean.

Next, a Wilcoxon signed-ranks test was conducted to compare the pre-test and post-test scores of the OL group, and the pre-test and post-test scores of the TL group (Table 13). The Wilcoxon signed-rank test is also a non-parametric test used to compare two related samples. It is an equivalent of the paired samples t-test. For the OL group, there was a significant difference between the pre-test (*Mdn* = 44) and the post-test (*Mdn* = 84), Z = 2.673, p = 0.008. The effect size was also medium (*r* = 0.6).

For the TL group, there was also a significant difference between the pre-test (*Mdn* = 40) and the post-test (*Mdn* = 80), Z= 2.536, p = 0.01. The effect was medium (*r* = 0.6). Although both groups acquired a significant difference, examination of the results from Table 13 indicated that the outcomes from the OL group were more likely due to the instructional intervention of OL use.

Table 13: *Wilcoxon signed-ranks test Results of OL and TL Group*

Group	Mean ranks (positive ranks)	Sum of ranks	Z-value
OL Group	5	45	2.673
TL Group	4.5	35	2.536

*Note. *Sum or ranks*: the total sum of the positions in the list of scores.

Next, Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted for all five grammar diagnostic tests to compare the scores of the students from the OL group with the students from the TL group (Table 14). For Diagnostic 1, there was a significant difference between the scores of the OL group ($Mdn = 80$) with the scores of the TL group ($Mdn = 70$), U = 16, p = 0.04. Furthermore, the effect size was medium ($r = 0.5$). This suggests that the effects of OL instruction on students' grammar comprehension scores are probable when learning time-related expressions.

In Diagnostic Test 2, there was no significant difference between the scores of the OL group ($Mdn = 100$) and the TL group ($Mdn = 90$); U = 19.5 p = 0.28. However, the effect size was medium ($r = 0.3$).

In Diagnostic Test 3, there was no significant difference between the scores of the OL group ($Mdn = 85$) and the TL group ($Mdn = 80$), U = 23.5, p = 0.35. Contrary to Diagnostic Test 2, the effect size was small ($r = 0.2$).

In Diagnostic Test 4, there was no significant difference between the scores of the OL group (*Mdn* = 95) and the TL group (*Mdn* = 90), U = 36.5, p = 0.74. Similar to Diagnostic Test 3, the effect size was small (*r* = 0.1).

Table 14: *Mann-Whitney U test Results of Diagnostic Tests*

	OL Group (n=9)	TL Group (n=10)	
Test	Mean rank	Mean Rank	Z-value
Diagnostic Test 1 時間関係表現	11.22	6.50	*-2.035
Diagnostic Test 2 範囲の始まり	9.06	6.79	-1.091
Diagnostic Test 3 条件	9.56	7.44	-0.927
Diagnostic Test 4 逆接条件	9.94	9.15	-0.33
Diagnostic Test 5 付随行動	7.50	10.69	-1.427

Note. * p<.05

Finally, in Diagnostic Test 5, there was no significant difference between the scores of the OL group (*Mdn* = 90) and the TL group (*Mdn* = 100) U= 22.5, p = 0.15. The effect size was small (*r* = 0.3).

5.1.3 Summary on Descriptive and Inferential Analyses of Grammar Tests

Research Question 1 investigated the differential effects of two instructional approaches, own language- (OL-) inclusive instruction and target language- (TL-) only instruction on students' grammar comprehension. Results from the descriptive analyses of the students' test scores in the achievement post-test were found to be in favor of OL-inclusive instruction. The students in the OL group also outperformed the students in the TL group for Diagnostics 1, 2, 3 and 4. It was only for Diagnostic Test 5 that the mean score of the students in the TL group surpassed those of the OL group.

However, upon deeper examination through inferential analyses, it was found that only Diagnostic Test 1 (Time-Related Expressions) presented a significant difference as well as a medium effect size in favor of the OL group. Thus, returning to Research Question 1, it can be inferred that students' grammar comprehension is better facilitated by a teacher's use of own language when learning time-related expressions. The first alternative hypothesis (see p. 70, Chapter 4) for Diagnostic 1, time-related expressions is accepted.

5.2 Results of Lesson Questionnaire and Exploratory Questions

In addition to the grammar tests conducted, a questionnaire was distributed at the end of each lesson to further investigate the effects of own language use in the target language classroom.

The results from the questionnaire aimed to answer exploratory questions A and B, which are as follows:

A) Is there a difference in the perceived level of comprehension between students who receive own language- (OL-) inclusive instruction and students who receive target language- (TL-) only instruction?

B) Is there a difference in which grammatical words are easier or harder to learn between the students who receive own language- (OL-) inclusive instruction and students who receive target language- (TL-) only instruction?

5.2.1 Exploratory Question A

This section presents the descriptive statistical information on Question 1 of the lesson questionnaire. Table 15 (p. 106) shows results from both groups for all five lessons.

For Lesson 1, the total sample answered a weighted average of 4.5, where 47% of the students answered that they understood 70 – 80 of the class and 53% of the students answered that they understood 90 – 100 of the class. 47% of the students from the OL group answered that they understood 70 – 60 of the class and 53% answered that they understood 90 – 100 of the class. Similarly, 44% of students from the TL group answered that they understood 70 – 80 of the class and 56% of students answered that they understood 90 – 100 of the class.

Table 15: *Descriptive Statistics for Question 1: How much did you understand today's lesson?*

	Group	n	10 – 20 (1)	30 – 40 (2)	50 - 60 (3)	70 – 80 (4)	90 – 100 (5)	Average rating	Total Average Rating
Lesson 1 : 時間関係の表現	OL	9	0	0	0	4	5	4.5	4.5
	TL	8	0	0	0	4	4	4.5	
Lesson 2 : 範囲の始まり表現	OL	8	0	0	0	2	6	4.8	4.8
	TL	7	0	0	0	1	6	4.9	
Lesson 3 : 条件の表現	OL	8	0	0	0	3	5	4.0	4.5
	TL	7	0	0	1	3	4	4.4	
Lesson 4 : 逆接条件の表現	OL	7	0	0	0	3	4	4.6	4.5
	TL	9	0	0	0	5	4	4.0	
Lesson 5 : 付随行動の表現	OL	8	0	0	0	3	5	4.6	4.8
	TL	8	0	0	0	1	7	4.9	

For Lesson 2, the total sample answered a weighted average of 4.8, where 20% of the students answered that they understood 70 – 80 of the class and 80% of the students answered that they understood 90 – 100 of the class. 25% of the students from the OL group answered that they understood 70 – 80 of the class and 75% of students answered that they understood 90 – 100 of the class. Meanwhile, 14% of students from the TL group answered that they understood 70 – 80 of the class and 85% of the students answered that they understood 90 – 100 of the class.

For Lesson 3, the total sample answered a weighted average of 4.5, where 6% of students answered that they understood only 50 – 60 of the class, 38% of the students answered that they

understood 70 – 80 of the class and 56% answered that they understood 90 – 100 of the class. 38% of the students from the OL group answered that they understood 70 – 80 of the class and 63% answered that they understood 90 – 100 of the class. In contrast, 12% of students from the TL group answered that they understood 50 – 60 of the class, 38% of students answered that they understood 70 – 80 of the class, and only 50% answered that they understood 90 – 100 of the class.

For Lesson 4, the total sample answered a weighted average of 4.5, where 50% of the students answered that they understood 70 – 80 of the class and 50% of students answered that they understood 90 – 100 of the class. 43% of the students from the OL group answered that they understood 70 – 80 of the class and 57% of the students answered that they understood 90 – 100 of the class. In contrast, 56% of the students from the TL group answered that they understood 70 – 80 of the class and 44% of students answered that they understood 90 – 100 of the class.

For Lesson 5, the total sample answered a weighted average of 4.8, where only 25% of the students answered that they understood 70 – 80 of the class and 75% answered that they understood 90 – 100 of the class. 38% of students in the OL group answered that they understood 70 – 80 of the class and only 63% answered that they understood 90 – 100 of the class. Conversely, 13% of the students from the TL group answered that they understood 70 -80 of the class and over 87% answered that they understood 90 – 100 of the class.

Returning to Exploratory Question A, it appears that there was no difference in the perceived level of grammar comprehension between the students in the OL group and the students in the TL group for Lesson 1. However, in Lesson 2, a slight difference can be seen where more students from the TL group answered that they fully understood the class compared to the students from the OL group. Nevertheless, in Lessons 3 and 4, more students from the OL group answered that they fully understood the class compared to students in the TL group. In Lesson 5, a major difference is observed in the perceived level of grammar comprehension between the two groups where seven eighths of the students from the TL group answered that they fully understood the class. On the other hand, only five eighths of the students from the OL group answered that they fully understood the class (Figure 7).

Figure 7: Lesson Questionnaire Results for Question 1

問１：今日の授業どのくらい理解できましたか。

Lesson 1：時間関係の表現　Lesson 2：範囲の始まり表現　Lesson 3：条件の表現　Lesson 4：逆説条件の表現　Lesson 5：付随行動の表現

OL　TL　OL　TL　OL　TL　OL　TL　OL　TL

■ 50 - 60%　■ 70 - 80%　■ 90 - 100%
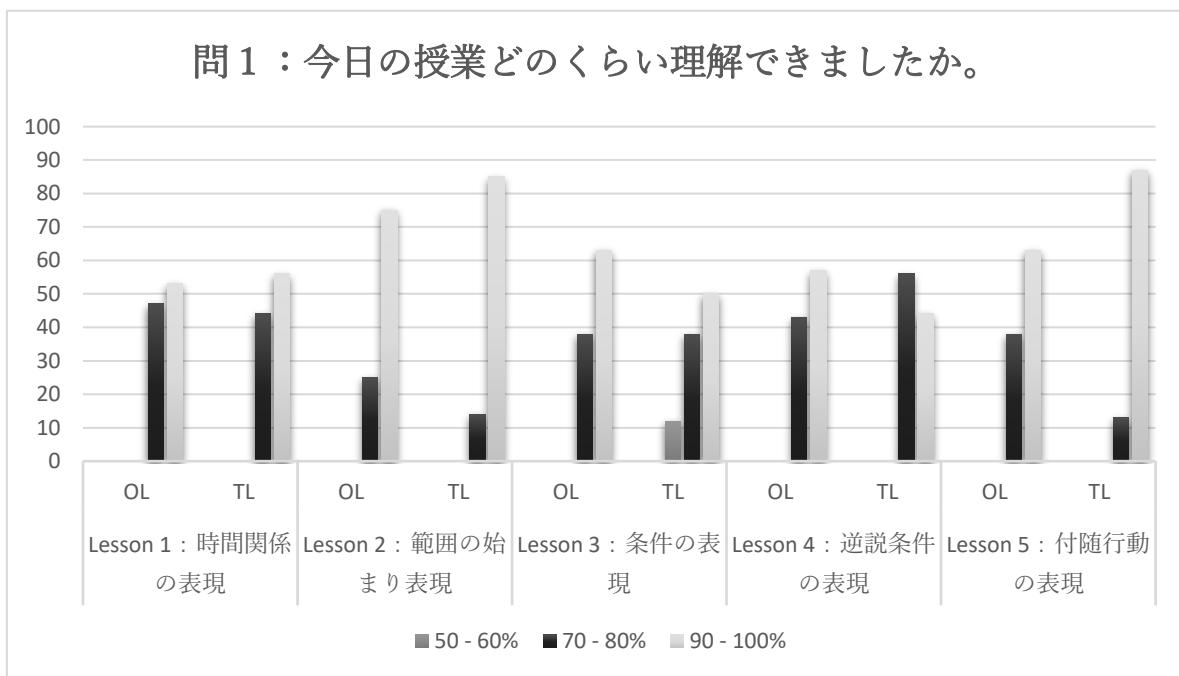
An additional observation is the relation between the students' perceived amount of understanding and their actual performance on the grammar tests. Even with own language explanations, not all students from the OL group felt like they fully understood the class. Regardless of their perceived amount of understanding, they still scored a higher mean when compared to the TL group, where more of the students were fairly confident that they fully understood the lessons as seen in Lessons 1, 2, and 3 (Figure 8).

Figure 8: *Mean Score of Grammar Tests and Students' Perceived Grammar Comprehension*
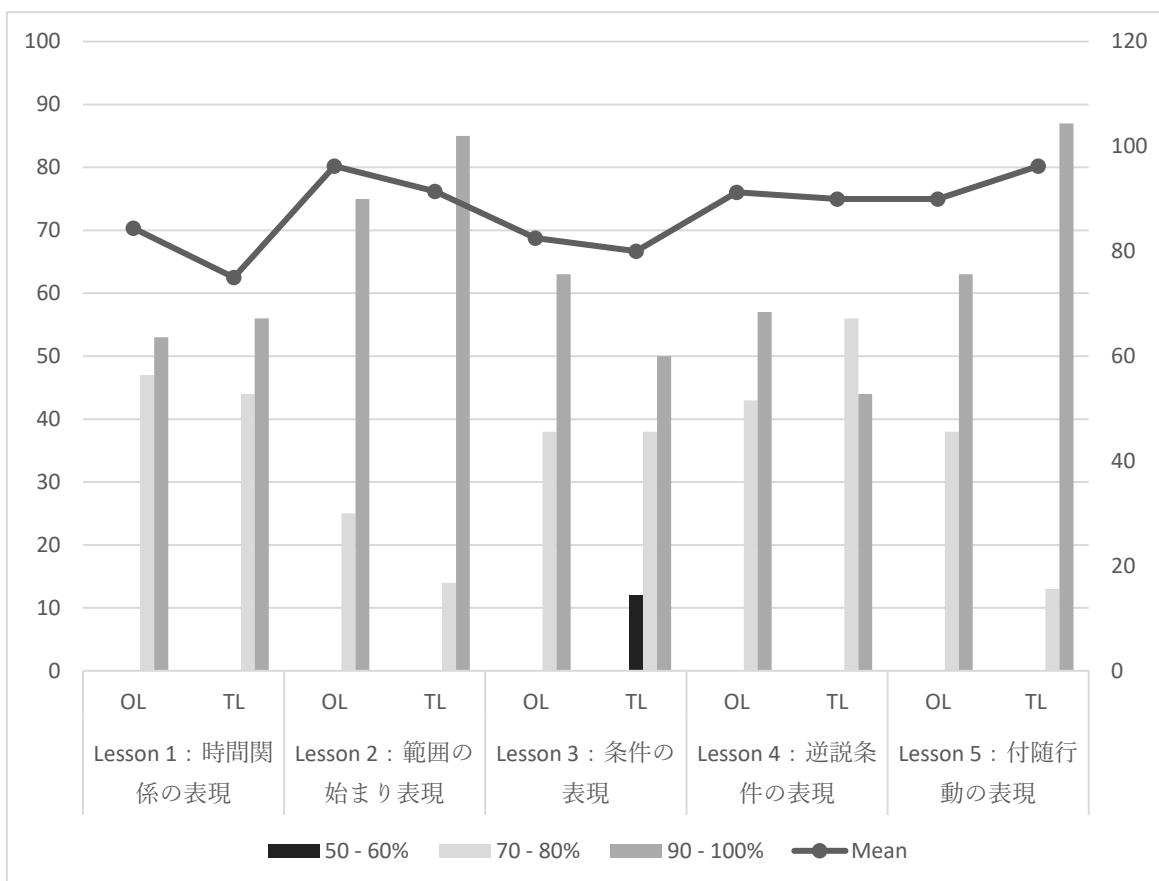
5.2.2 Exploratory Question B

This section presents the descriptive statistical information on Questions 2 and 3 of the lesson

questionnaire. The comments written by students in Question 4 are also illustrated in this section

to give a better understanding on the students' choices. The results are presented according to

each lesson conducted.

Lesson 1 (時間関係の表現：Time-Related Expressions)

In Lesson 1, students learned three grammatical words which are shown in Table 16. For

Questions 2 and 3 of the classroom questionnaire, students were allowed to circle more than one

answer.

Table 16: *Results of Questions 2 and 3 for Lesson 1's Questionnaire*

Lesson 1: 時間関係表現	Question 2 時間関係を表す以下の語句のうち、最もよく理解できるのはどれですか。		Question 3 時間関係を表す以下の語句のうち、理解するのが困難だったのはどれですか。	
	OL	TL	OL	TL
なり	2	2	3	2
そばから	5	3	2	1
が早いか	4	3	3	
どれでもない		1	1	5

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In the OL group, only 2 students answered that they fully understood the word "なり", and 3 students answered that it was difficult to understand. For the word "が早いか", 5 students answered that they fully understood the word, and only 2 students answered that it was difficult to understand. For the word "そばから", 4 students answered that they fully understood the word and 3 students answered that it was difficult to understand. Only 1 student from the OL group answered that s/he did not find any of the grammatical words difficult to understand.

Similarly, for the grammatical word "なり", only 2 students from the TL group answered that they fully understood the word, while another 2 students answered that it was difficult for them to understand. Only 3 students from the TL group answered that they fully understood the word "が早いか", whilst 1 student answered that it was difficult to understand. For the word "そばから", 3 students answered that they fully understood the word and none of the students answered that it was difficult to understand. 1 student from the TL group answered that s/he did not fully understand any of the three grammatical words learnt, and 5 students answered that none of the grammatical words were difficult to understand.

In the comment section (Question 4), the students in the OL group stated that "なり" was difficult to understand because of its similarities in meaning and use with "が早いか". Comments that illustrate this are for example:

「〜なりという表現はちょっと〜が早いかと似ていますから、表現はどう決めるかちょっと迷っています。」Student C, OL Group

「その文法の使い方はよく分かりましたが、テストをする時、〜なりと〜が早いかを選ぶが迷います。教え方はもういい！」Student G, OL Group

「分からないというよりも全ての文型は似ているので、選択をする時迷っている。」Student H, OL Group

One student did comment that the use of own language made it easier for her to differentiate the words from each other:

"このような勉強し方がいいと思う。Sebab 文法 yang hampir sama 意味 dikumpulkan senang nak compare."

"I think this learning style is good because grammatical words that have similar meanings are grouped together makes it easy to compare."

In contrast, students from the TL group kept their comments limited to the teacher's teaching style in which they seemed not to have any difficulties with the direct method-only approach. Examples of these comments are:

「説明し方はとてもよかったです。」Student M, TL Group

「文法の説明と例文はわかりやすいから、よく理解できました。」Student O, TL Group

「授業指導はいいと思います。良く分かりました。」Student P, TL Group

Only one student mentioned difficulties in differentiating the words in Lesson 1, commenting that:

「勉強した文法は今日勉強したのと似ているので少し分からないところもあった。でも今分かるようになりました。」Student R, TL Group.

Although the students from the TL group did not comment on having any difficulties in the classroom, it should be noted that this is the lesson where the mean score is lowest among all the diagnostic tests conducted.

Lesson 2 (範囲の始まりの表現：Starting of Range Expressions）

In Lesson 2, students learned three grammatical words from the topic of Starting of Range Expressions which are shown in Table 17.

Table 17: *Results of Questions 2 and 3 for Lesson 2's Questionnaire*

Lesson 2: 範囲の始まり表現	Question 2 範囲の始まりを表す以下の語句の うち、最もよく理解できるのはど れですか。		Question 3 範囲の始まりを表す以下の語句 のうち、理解するのが困難だっ たのはどれですか。	
	OL	TL	OL	TL
を皮切りにして	3	1		1
に至るまで	5	4		
をもって	3	4		2
どれでもない	1		8	4

In the OL group, 3 students answered that they fully understood the word "を皮切りにして", 5 students answered that they fully understood the word "に至るまで", and 3 students answered that they fully understood the word "をもって". None of the students found any of the three grammatical words difficult to understand; however, 1 student answered that s/he did not fully understand any of the three grammatical words learnt.

In the TL group, only 1 student answered that s/he fully understood the word "を皮切り にして" and 1 student answered that it was difficult to understand. For the word "に至るまで", 4 students answered that they fully understood the word, and none answered that it was difficult to understand. For the word "をもって", 4 students answered that they fully understood the word and 2 students answered that it was difficult to understand. At least 4 students from the TL group also answered that none of the words were difficult to understand.

In the comment section, the students state that the words are naturally easy to understand without much difficulty. Comments representative of this include:

「良かったです。理解するのはそんなに難しくないと思います。簡単です。」Student E, OL Group.

「今日のトピックは意外に簡単なので、あまり問題ない。」Student H, OL Group.

Students in the TL group also commented that the grammatical words in Lesson 2 were easier to understand compared to Lesson 1 and that they would prefer more example sentences for better comprehension. Examples of these comments are:

「昨日の授業と今日のと違って、文法は全部理解できます。」Student O, TL Group

「今日の新しい文法は面白いです。もし先生の説明はもっと詳しくいただいた方がいいと思います。もし、たくさん例を聞いていただいたら、もっといいと思います。」Student N, TL Group

「すごく分かりやすかったです。もし例文は 1 つがシンプルで 1 つがあまり難しくなくて、1 つが難しい例文で、いろいろな例文があったら、楽しみです。」Student Q, TL Group

Although both groups in general did not have any difficulties with the grammatical words in Lesson 2, the comments show that students in the OL group have more confidence in their understanding compared to the students from the TL group who still want more example sentences to aid their inductive learning.

Lesson 3 (条件の表現 ：Conditional-Related Expressions)

In Lesson 3, students learned three grammatical words from the topic Conditional-Related Expressions which are shown in Table 18.

Table 18: *Results of Questions 2 and 3 for Lesson 3's Questionnaire*

Lesson 3 条件の表現	Question 2 条件を表す以下の語句のうち、最もよく理解きできるのはどれですか。		Question 3 条件を表す以下の語句のうち、理解するのが困難だったのはどれですか。	
	OL	TL	OL	TL
たら最後	3	5	2	2
とあれば	2	3		2
ようでは	1	3	3	2
どれでもない	3		4	2

In the OL group, 3 students answered that they fully understood the word "たら最後" while 2 students answered that the word was difficult to understand. For the word "とあれば", 2 students answered that they fully understood the word while none of the students answered that it was difficult to understand. Only 1 student answered that s/he fully understood the word "よう

では" and 3 students answered that it was difficult to understand. In addition, 3 students answered that they did not fully understand any of the grammatical words in the lesson and 4 students answered that none of the grammatical words were difficult to understand.

In the TL group, 5 students answered that they fully understood the word "たら最後" and 2 students answered that it was difficult to understand. At least 3 students answered that they fully understood the word "とあれば" while 2 students answered that the word was difficult to understand. For the word "ようでは", 3 students answered that they fully understood the word and 2 students answered that it was difficult to understand. Only 2 students answered that none of the grammatical words were difficult to understand.

From the results obtained, it can be deduced that with regard to Question 2, a majority of students from both groups answered that they fully understood the word "たら最後". For Question 3, none of the students from the OL group thought that "とあれば" was difficult, and most of them answered that none of the words were difficult to understand. In contrast, students in the TL group found all words to be equally difficult with an exception of 2 students.

The comment section revealed that students from the OL group were able to understand well due to similarities between the grammatical words and their own language. For example, comments that illustrate this are:

「その表現はマレー語での日常会話の話し方のスタイルはだいたい同じだから分かりやすい。」 Student C, OL Group.

「今日は日本語と英語もマレー語も使って分かりやすい。」Student G, OL Group.

One student also stated that since N1 grammar is difficult, using own language was helpful:

「教え方は良かったですが N1 の文法だから理解するのはめっちゃ難しいと思います。今日のようにマレー語と英語に通じて授業をやっていていいと思います。」Student E, OL Group.

Conversely, most students in the TL group found the words difficult to understand. Examples of these comments are:

「今日の文法はちょっと難しいと思います。」 Student P, TL Group.

「なんとなくたら最後の文は難しく感じる。」Student O, TL Group.

「授業は楽しかったです。でもあるところは理解するのが難しいので時間かかりました。」

Student R, TL Group.

In contrast, two students stated that they had no problems understanding the grammatical words in the class:

「今回は易しいと思います。」Student J, TL Group

「今日の話もよかったです。」Student M, TL Group

The difference in comprehension between the students in the TL group echoes the views of Rivers (2018) of how a class can diverge in terms understanding due to the nature of the direct method that favors students with high inductive skills.

Lesson 4 (逆接条件の表現 ：Reverse Condition-Related Expressions)

In Lesson 4, students learned three grammatical words from the topic Reverse Conditional-Related Expressions which are shown in Table 19.

Table 19: *Results of Questions 2 and 3 for Lesson 4's Questionnaire*

Lesson 4: 逆接条件の表現	Question 2 逆接条件を表す以下の語句のうち、最もよく理解できるのはどれですか。		Question 3 逆接条件を表す以下の語句のうち、理解するのが困難だったのはどれですか。	
	OL	TL	OL	TL
たところだ	7	6		1
であれ		2	4	3
ようとも	1	1	4	3
どれでもない	1		3	3

In the OL group, 7 students answered that they fully understood the word "たところだ" and none of them answered that it was difficult to understand. However, for the word "であれ", none of the students answered that they fully understood the word and 4 students answered that it was difficult to understand. Similarly, only 1 student answered that s/he fully understood the word "ようとも", while 4 students answered that it was difficult to understand. In addition, 1 student answered that s/he did not fully understand any of the words and at least 3 students answered that none of the words were difficult to understand.

Similarly, in the TL group, 6 students answered that they fully understood the word "たところだ"; however, 1 student answered that it was difficult to understand. At least 2 students answered that they fully understood the word "であれ" and 3 students answered that it was difficult to understand. Only 1 student answered that s/he fully understood the word "ようとも", while 3 students answered that it was difficult to understand. Similar to the students in the OL group, 3 students in the TL group did not find any of the grammatical words in Lesson 4 difficult to understand.

From the results obtained, it can be inferred that in response to Question 2, a majority of students from both groups fully understood the word "たところだ" compared to the other grammatical words learned in Lesson 4. For Question 3, students from both groups also appear to concur that "であれ" and "ようとも" are equally difficult to understand, with more students from the OL group answering as such.

In the comment section, it was revealed that students from the OL group found "であれ" and "ようとも" difficult to understand due to their similarities in words of meaning and use. Examples of these comments include:

「だいたい使い方が同じなのでどちらの方を使うか、決めるのがちょっと難しい。」Student C, OL Group.

「ようとも、であれの意味はだいたい同じだから、私の頭の中には理解するのがちょっと難しい。」Student F, OL Group.

「ようとも、であれの文型の使い方はちょっと似ているのでどうやって区別できるか困った。そして説明し方はすごく分かりやすい。」Student H, OL Group.

On the other hand, comments from students in the TL group show that although the words were difficult to understand, they believe that they were able to comprehend by the end of the class through different means. Comments that exemplify this are:

「今回の授業は面白かったです。でも習った時、ちょっと分かりにくかったですが、もしちょっと練習したら理解できると思います。」Student N, TL Group.

「今日の文法は難しかったですが、キーワードが取らえるので、分かりました。」Student Q, TL Group.

「３つの文法は特別な使い方があるので分かりやすいです。でもすこし誤解するところもあったが、最後に理解できるようになりました。」Student R, TL Group.

Lesson 5（付随行動の表現：Accompanying Action-Related Expressions)

In Lesson 5, students learned three grammatical words from the topic Accompanying Action-Related Expressions which are shown in Table 20.

Table 20: *Results of Questions 2 and 3 for Lesson 5's Questionnaire*

Lesson 5: 付随行動の表現	Question 2 付随行動を表す以下の語句のうち、最もよく理解できるのはどれですか。		Question 3 付随行動を表す以下の語句のうち、理解するのが困難だったのはどれですか。	
	OL	TL	OL	TL
かたわら	8	6		
がてら	1	5	2	
かたがた	1		5	5
どれでもない			4	3

In the OL group, a total of 8 students answered that they fully understood the word "かたわら", whilst none of the students answered that it was difficult to understand. Only 1 student

answered that s/he fully understood the word "がてら" and 2 students answered that it was difficult to understand. However, for the word "かたがた", only 1 student answered that s/he fully understood the word and at least 5 students answered that it was difficult to understand. In addition, 4 students from the OL group responded that none of the words were difficult to understand.

In the TL group, 5 students answered that they fully understood the word "かたがた" and similar to the OL group, none of the students answered that it was difficult to understand. In contrast, at least 5 students from the TL group answered that they fully understood the word "がてら" and also none of the students found it difficult to understand. For the word "かたがた", no student answered that they fully understood the grammatical word and at least 5 students answered that it was difficult to understand. Only 3 students from the TL group answered that none of the words were difficult to understand.

From the results illustrated above in regard to Question 2, it can be concluded that a majority of students from both groups answered that they fully understood the word "かたわら". However, a difference is observed for the grammatical word "がてら" where not many students from the OL group answered that they fully understood the word. In contrast, many students in the TL group responded that they fully understood the word. In Question 3, students from both groups equally agreed that "かたがた" was difficult to understand.

The comment section shows that students from the OL group found the words in Lesson 5 to be similar to each other, thus making it difficult to differentiate between them. Some examples of these comments are:

「三つの表現はだいたい意味違うだけど、使い方はどう決めるかちょっと難しい。」Student C, OL Group.

「かたがたとがてらちょっと似ているので区別しにくい。」Student D, OL Group.

「がてらとかたがたの意味は分かっていますが少し mengelirukan です。」Student F, OL Group.
"I understand the meaning of the grammatical words, but they are a little confusing."

Since students in the TL group did not face much difficulty in Lesson 5 as shown in their responses to Questions 2 and 3, their comments in the same manner also indicated that they fully understood the class without problems. However, one student did express his concern of being in a target-language only classroom:

「マレー語を全然使わず、日本語で説明したら、分からない言葉がけっこうあるから、その言葉を説明してほしい。」Student J, TL Group.

5.2.3 Summary for Lesson Questionnaire Results

In Exploratory Question B, the question asked was: is there a difference in which grammatical words are easier or harder to learn between the students who receive own language- (OL-) inclusive instruction and students who receive target language- (TL-) only instruction? The results of Questions 2, 3, and 4 of the lesson questionnaires revealed that there are similarities and differences.

A clear difference was observed for Time-Related Expressions in Lesson 1 where more students from the TL group answered that they had no difficulty in understanding all three grammatical words. However, when the mean score of Diagnostic Test 1 is put into consideration, the students from the OL group still outperformed the students from the TL group even though more students answered that they had difficulty understanding some of the words.

In Lesson 2, Starting of Range-Related Expressions, eight out of the total of nine students in the OL group reported not having any difficulty with any of the words. In contrast, students in the TL group answered that they had difficulty understanding certain grammatical words included in this topic. This combined with the mean score of the students from the OL group suggests that using own language to teach starting of range related expressions might be better than using target language instruction only.

Similarities between the two groups were observed in Lesson 3, Condition-Related Expressions and Lesson 4, Reverse Condition-Related Expressions. Students from both groups

found the grammatical words in both lessons equally difficult either/or easy to understand, with slight advantage to students in the OL group who reported better comprehension. This suggests that although there may be no difference in using own language or target language only because the students' grammar comprehension is close to identical, there still may be more benefits in using own language. Furthermore, the comment section did reveal that several students from the OL group were able to understand better due to the use of own language, which is in contrast to the comments of students from the TL group that expressed the words to be more difficult.

Finally, in Lesson 5 of Accompanying Action-Related Expressions, students from both groups also reported a similar understanding of the grammatical words. However, a slight advantage was observed in students in the TL group who only found the third grammatical word difficult to understand compared to students in the OL group who found the second and third grammatical words difficult to understand. This is reflected in the mean score of Diagnostic Test 5, where students from the TL group outperformed students from the OL group. Thus, this suggests that using target language-only instruction is sufficient for students' grammar comprehension when learning accompanying action-related expressions.

5.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the findings of this study. In response to Research Question 1 of this study, initial findings show that the OL group has a higher mean for all the tests except Diagnostic Test

5 (付随行動の表現). For inferential analysis, Mann-Whitney U tests and Wilcoxon signed-rank tests were conducted to compare the grammar comprehension test scores of students in the OL group and the TL group. There was no significant difference in the grammar test scores of the Pre-test, Diagnostic Test 2, Diagnostic Test 3, Diagnostic Test 4, Diagnostic Test 5, and the Delayed Achievement Post-test. However, there was a significant difference between the scores of the OL group (*Mdn* = 80) with the scores of the TL group (*Mdn* = 70), U = 16, p = 0.04 in Diagnostic Test 1. Furthermore, the effect size was medium ($r = 0.5$). This appears to support the positive effects of own language use on students' grammar comprehension when learning grammatical words related to time expressions.

Following the results of the grammar tests, Exploratory Questions A and B were investigated using the results obtained from the Lesson Questionnaires. For Exploratory Question A, the perceived level of grammar comprehension of the students from the OL group and students from the TL group appeared to differ according to each lesson. While similarities were observed for time-related expressions in Lesson 1, students in the TL group appeared more confident when it comes to their grammar comprehension of starting of range expressions in Lesson 2 and accompanying action-related expressions in Lesson 5. Conversely, students in the OL group seemed more assured of their grammar comprehension in condition-related expressions in Lesson 3, and reverse condition-related expressions in Lesson 4.

For Exploratory Question B, it can be inferred that the instructional intervention in both groups do affect the level of understanding of selected topics and grammatical words. A better level of understanding was apparent in students from the OL group for starting of range-related expressions in Lesson 2. In contrast, students in the TL group reported a better understanding of the time-related expressions of Lesson 1 and accompanying action-related expressions of Lesson 5. The grammatical words related to conditions in Lesson 3 and reverse conditions in Lesson 4 appear to be equally either easy or difficult for students in both groups to understand, implying no difference in the use of own language or target language instruction. The comment section also revealed that students in the own language group still had difficulty differentiating between more advanced grammatical words even when own language is used. In contrast, students in the target language-only classroom did not express any need for own language use in their comments and were confident in the direct method even though they found some lessons difficult. Instead, they attributed their lack of understanding to the shortage of example sentences and time to practice or study the words.

The findings from the data analyses in this chapter, in conjunction with those obtained from Chapter 6, will be discussed in more depth in Chapter 7.

CHAPTER 6: RESULTS OF STUDENTS' ATTITUDE SURVEY

This chapter presents the results related to Research Questions 2 and 3, concerning the pre- and post-attitude survey conducted. Similar to the results reported in Chapter 5, these questions were addressed using descriptive and inferential analyses as noted in Chapter 4. Firstly, the overall results of the pre- and post-attitude survey for the total sample are presented. This includes detailed frequency of the students' responses to each item. Next, the results of the pre- and post-attitude survey for each group are displayed to identify any changes in their responses. The results are then analyzed using Mann-Whitney U tests and Wilcoxon signed-ranks test to determine any significant differences. The chapter concludes with a summary and outcomes to the research questions posed.

6.1 Attitude Survey Results

The descriptive statistics for the total sample and both attitude surveys are shown in Table 21. In the pre-attitude survey, the students had an average attitude score of 34.05 and the variation in scores among the total sample was 25 points. The average score of the OL group and the TL group were nearly identical (34.11 and 33.5). The variation in scores of the two groups were also close to that of the total sample at 22 points and 17 points respectively.

In the post-attitude survey, the students had an average attitude score of 38.18, and the variation in scores among the total sample was 24 points. Individually, the average score of the OL group was higher than that of the TL group (43.11 and 32.63). The variation in scores of the students in the OL group was also 24 points; however, the variation in scores of the students in the TL group was smaller at about 12 points.

Table 21: *Descriptive Statistics of Attitude Survey*

Attitude Survey	OL Group ($n = 9$)		TL Group ($n = 10$)		Total Sample ($n = 19$)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Pre	34.11	7.34	33.5	6.04	34.05	6.72
Post	43.11	8.02	32.63	4.60	38.18	8.40

6.1.1 Total Sample's Pre-Attitude Survey Results

This section presents the overall results of the pre-attitude survey for the total sample. The findings in this section are related with Research Question 2: what are students' attitudes towards own language use in the Japanese language classroom? To answer this question, the pre-attitude survey was first analyzed to determine the students' attitudes before the commencement of the instructional intervention. The pre-attitude survey results for the total sample are shown in Table 22.

As aforementioned in Chapter 4 (p. 90), the attitude survey consists of 14 items, which also refer to statements (see Appendix 6) that are divided into five categories. The choice of 'Neither Agree nor Disagree' has been shortened to 'Neither' in the questionnaire

Items in Category A (General Use) were related to students' attitudes towards the general use of own language in the classroom. Aside from item 1, more than 75% of students from both groups disagreed and strongly disagreed that teachers and students should not use or be allowed to use OL in the Japanese language classroom (items 2 and 3). In contrast, more than 65% of students agreed and strongly agreed that the teacher should know the students' OL, and only 5% of students disagreed with the statement.

Table 22: *Total Sample's Pre-Attitude Survey Results*

Item & Statement	Category	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. In a Japanese classroom, the teacher should know Bahasa Melayu or English.		16%	53%	26%	5%	0%
2. The teacher should use Bahasa Melayu or English during Japanese Class.	A	0%	0%	16%	42%	42%
3. Students should be allowed to use Bahasa Melayu or English during Japanese Class.		0%	11%	11%	47%	32%
4. It is easier to understand Japanese grammar when the teacher uses Bahasa Melayu or English.		5%	11%	32%	42%	11%
5. It is easier to understand when the teacher uses English or Bahasa Melayu to give instructions in Japanese class.	B	0%	11%	26%	63%	0%
6. It is easier to understand when the teacher explains mistakes in Bahasa Melayu or English.		5%	21%	21%	32%	21%
7. Teachers should use Bahasa Melayu or English to explain Japanese grammar.	C	0%	5%	11%	58%	26%

8. Teachers should use Bahasa Melayu or English when explaining homework.		0%	5%	11%	47%	37%
9. Teachers should use Bahasa Melayu or English when giving instructions.	C	0%	0%	5%	53%	42%
10. Teachers should explain mistakes in Bahasa Melayu or English.		0%	16%	5%	53%	26%
11. Students should be allowed to talk in Bahasa Melayu or English when talking in pairs or groups.		5%	32%	32%	21%	11%
12. Students should be allowed to translate a Japanese word to Bahasa Melayu or English to show that they understand.	D	5%	63%	11%	11%	11%
13. Students should be allowed to explain what they do or don't understand in Bahasa Melayu or English.		5%	26%	21%	42%	5%
14. Using Bahasa Melayu or English in Japanese class will increase my motivation to learn.	E	0%	5%	58%	26%	11%

In Category B (Suggested Effectiveness), the items were related to the suggested effectiveness of OL use in specific situations. More than 50% of students disagreed and strongly disagreed that Japanese grammar is easier to understand when OL is used, while only 16% of students agreed and strongly agreed to the statement. Although none of the students from both groups strongly disagreed with item 5, more than 60% of students disagreed with its statement which states that it is easier to understand when the teacher uses OL to give instructions. On the other hand, only 11% of students agreed to the same statement. A slight increase in positivity is observed for item 6 where 26% of students agreed and strongly agreed that it is easier to understand mistakes if the teacher explains it using OL. However, a majority of the students (53%) disagreed and strongly disagreed to the same statement.

In Category C (Affirmation), the items were related to affirming OL use in specific situations. The items in this category reported the highest percentage of disagreements compared to items from other categories. More than 80% of the students disagreed and strongly disagreed with the statement that teachers should use OL to explain Japanese grammar. Similarly, 84% of the students disagreed and strongly disagreed with the statement that teachers should use OL to explain homework. An overwhelming 95% of students disagreed and strongly disagreed with the statement that teachers should use OL to give instructions, while none of the students agreed with it. At least 75% of the students disagreed and strongly disagreed with the statement that teachers should explain mistakes using OL, and only 16% of students agreed with it.

In Category D (Student Use), the items were related to students' use of OL in the classroom. This category reported the highest percentage of agreements compared to responses to items in other categories. At least 35% of the students agreed and strongly agreed with the statement that students should be allowed to use OL when talking in groups or pairs. About 32% of the students disagreed and strongly disagreed with the statement, and another 32% of the students neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement. However, only 31% of the students agreed and strongly agreed with the statement that students should be allowed to explain themselves using OL while more than 45% of the students disagreed and strongly disagreed to it.

Finally, in Category E (Motivation), the item was related to students' motivation and OL use. This category reported the highest percentage of students who answered that they neither agreed nor disagreed. Only 5% of the students agreed with the statement that OL use will increase their motivation to learn, while 37% of the students disagreed and strongly disagreed to it.

Returning to Research Question 2, the results from the pre-attitude survey revealed that students' attitudes prior to the study were overwhelmingly negative. Nine out of the 14 items in the pre-attitude survey had at least 53% of the students disagreeing or strongly disagreeing to the statements. This negative attitude is constant in both the OL group and the TL group even after their responses were separated according to their respective groups.

6.1.2 Total Sample's Post-Attitude Survey Results

After the post-achievement grammar test, the students were asked to answer the attitude survey for a second time. The results of the post-attitude survey for the total sample are presented in Table 23.

Table 23: *Total Sample's Post-Attitude Survey Results*

Item & Statement	Category	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. In a Japanese classroom, the teacher should know Bahasa Melayu or English.		6%	47%	18%	29%	0%
2. The teacher should use Bahasa Melayu or English during Japanese Class.	A	0%	24%	12%	47%	18%
3. Students should be allowed to use Bahasa Melayu or English during Japanese Class.		0%	12%	18%	47%	24%

Statement	Group					
4. It is easier to understand Japanese grammar when the teacher uses Bahasa Melayu or English.		12%	41%	24%	18%	6%
5. It is easier to understand when the teacher uses English or Bahasa Melayu to give instructions in Japanese class.	B	0%	29%	18%	53%	0%
6. It is easier to understand when the teacher explains mistakes in Bahasa Melayu or English.		6%	47%	12%	29%	6%
7. Teachers should use Bahasa Melayu or English to explain Japanese grammar.		0%	18%	24%	35%	24%
8. Teachers should use Bahasa Melayu or English when explaining homework.	C	0%	0%	6%	76%	18%
9. Teachers should use Bahasa Melayu or English when giving instructions.		0%	6%	12%	76%	6%
10. Teachers should explain mistakes in Bahasa Melayu or English.		0%	24%	6%	59%	12%
11. Students should be allowed to talk in Bahasa Melayu or English when talking in pairs or groups.		0%	35%	29%	24%	12%
12. Students should be allowed to translate a Japanese word to Bahasa Melayu or English to show that they understand.	D	24%	35%	24%	18%	0%
13. Students should be allowed to explain what they do or don't understand in Bahasa Melayu or English.		0%	41%	18%	35%	6%
14. Using Bahasa Melayu or English in Japanese class will increase my motivation to learn.	E	0%	12%	59%	18%	12%

A slight increase in the 'agree' and 'strongly agree' responses can be observed in the post-attitude survey results, and although the percentage of the students that answered 'disagree' was still relatively high, the percentage of students who answered 'strongly disagree' had decreased. Compared to the pre-attitude survey, only 6 out of 14 items in the post-attitude survey had at least 53% of students disagreeing or strongly disagreeing to the statements. Overall, the results from the total sample's post-attitude survey showed that the students' attitudes are still more negative than positive. However, when the post-attitude results were separated according to their

respective groups, a distinct difference can be detected between the attitudes of students in the OL group and the TL group. The detailed results of each group will be discussed in the following section.

6.1.3 Comparison of OL Group's Pre- and Post-Attitude Survey Results

The results of the pre- and post-attitude survey of students in the OL group are shown in Table 24.

In Category A, the percentage of students who strongly agreed to item 1 decreased from 22% to 11%, while the students who agreed increased from 22% to 33%. Surprisingly, the number of students who disagreed with the statement also increased from 11% to 22%. A major increase from 0% to 40% was seen in the students who answered that they agreed to the statement in item 2, and the percentage of students who disagreed with the same statement decreased from 67% to only 22%. Although the percentage of students who agreed or strongly agreed with the statement in item 3 did not show any changes, the percentage of students who disagreed and strongly disagreed to the statement decreased from 89% to 55%.

In Category B, the percentage of students who agreed and strongly agreed to item 4 increased from only 11% to 89%, while the students who disagreed with it reduced from 56% to 0%. The percentage of students who agreed to item 5 also increased from 22% to 33%, while the students who disagreed with it decreased from 56% to 33%. Similarly, for responses in item 6, the percentage of students who agreed to the statement increased from 22% to 67%, and the students who disagreed and strongly disagreed to the statement decreased from 44% to 22%.

In Category C, the percentage of students who agreed to item 7 increased from 0% to at

least 30%, while the percentage of students who disagreed and strongly disagreed to the same

statement showed a dramatic decrease from 89% to only 22%. In contrast, the percentage of

students who agreed or strongly agreed to item 8 remained unchanged at 0%. However, the

percentage of students who disagreed increased from 56% to 78%, while the percentage of

students who strongly disagreed to the statement decreased from 33% to 11%. For item 9, the

percentage of students who agreed with the statement increased from 0% to 11%. Although the

percentage of students who strongly disagreed with the statement decreased from 44% to 0%,

the percentage of students who disagreed increased from 56% to 67%. Similarly, for item 10,

although the percentage of students who strongly disagreed with the statement decreased from

33% to 0%, the percentage of students who disagreed increased from 44% to 56%. The

percentage of students who agreed also increased from 22% to 33%.

Table 24: *Comparison of OL Group's Pre- and Post-Attitude Survey Results*

Category	Item & Statement		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
A (General Use)	1. In a Japanese classroom, the teacher should know Bahasa Melayu or English.	PRE	22%	22%	44%	11%	0%
		POST	11%	33%	33%	22%	0%
	2. The teacher should use Bahasa Melayu or English during Japanese Class.	PRE	0%	0%	22%	11%	67%
		POST	0%	44%	22%	11%	22%
	3. Students should be allowed to use Bahasa Melayu or English during Japanese Class.	PRE	0%	11%	0%	56%	33%
		POST	0%	11%	33%	44%	11%
B (Suggested Effectiveness)	4. It is easier to understand Japanese grammar when the teacher uses Bahasa Melayu or English.	PRE	0%	11%	33%	56%	0%
		POST	22%	67%	11%	0%	0%

	5. It is easier to understand when the teacher uses English or Bahasa Melayu to give instructions in Japanese class.	PRE	0%	22%	22%	56%	0%
		POST	0%	33%	33%	33%	0%
	6. It is easier to understand when the teacher explains mistakes in Bahasa Melayu or English	PRE	11%	22%	22%	22%	22%
		POST	11%	67%	0%	11%	11%
C (Affirmation)	7. Teachers should use Bahasa Melayu or English to explain Japanese grammar.	PRE	0%	0%	11%	67%	22%
		POST	0%	33%	44%	11%	11%
	8. Teachers should use Bahasa Melayu or English when explaining homework.	PRE	0%	0%	11%	56%	33%
		POST	0%	0%	11%	78%	11%
	9. Teachers should use Bahasa Melayu or English when giving instructions.	PRE	0%	0%	0%	56%	44%
		POST	0%	11%	22%	67%	0%
	10. Teachers should explain mistakes in Bahasa Melayu or English.	PRE	0%	22%	0%	44%	33%
		POST	0%	33%	11%	56%	0%
D (Student Use)	11. Students should be allowed to talk in Bahasa Melayu or English when talking in pairs or groups.	PRE	11%	22%	44%	11%	11%
		POST	0%	44%	33%	11%	11%
	12. Students should be allowed to translate a Japanese word to Bahasa Melayu or English to show that they understand.	PRE	11%	67%	0%	0%	22%
		POST	44%	33%	0%	22%	0%
	13. Students should be allowed to explain what they do or don't understand in Bahasa Melayu or English.	PRE	0%	33%	22%	33%	11%
		POST	0%	56%	22%	22%	0%
E (Motivation)	14. Using Bahasa Melayu or English in Japanese class will increase my motivation to learn.	PRE	0%	11%	44%	22%	22%
		POST	0%	22%	67%	11%	0%

In Category D, the percentage of students who strongly agreed to item 11 decreased from

11% to 0%. However, students who agreed increased from 22% to 44%. Interestingly, the

percentage of students who disagreed and strongly disagreed with the same statement remained

unchanged at 22%. For item 12, the percentage of students who strongly agreed increased from

11% to 44%. However, students who agreed to the statement decreased from 67% to 33%. The

percentage of students who strongly disagreed with the same statement decreased from 22% to

0% and in contrast, the percentage of students who disagreed increased from 0% to 22%. The percentage of students who agreed with item 13 increased from 33% to 56%, while the percentage of students who disagreed and strongly disagreed with the statement decreased from 44% to 22%.

Finally, in Category E, the percentage of students who agreed increased from 11% to 22%. In contrast, the percentage of students who disagreed and strongly disagreed decreased from 44% to 11%. The percentage of students who neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement also increased from 44% to 67%, and this is the highest recorded percentage for that answer in the OL group's post-attitude survey results.

The results from the OL group revealed a slight increase in the positive responses towards own language use. This is especially apparent in items 4 and 6 of Category B, and item 12 of Category D, which reported more than 75% of agreement to OL use in the classroom.

6.1.4 Comparison of TL Group's Pre- and Post-Attitude Survey Results

The results for the pre- and post-attitude survey of students in the TL group are shown in Table 25.

In Category A, the percentage of students who strongly agreed and agreed to item 1 decreased from 90% to 63%, while the percentage of students who disagreed increased from 0% to 38%. For item 2, the percentage of students who disagreed and strongly disagreed to the

statement increased from 90% to a complete 100%. Item 3, however, only saw an increase of 3% in students who agreed to the statement, and an increase of 70% to 88% in students who disagreed and strongly disagreed with the same statement.

In Category B, the percentage of students who strongly agreed and agreed with item 4 decreased from 20% to only 13%, while the percentage of students who disagreed and strongly disagreed slightly increased from 50% to 51%. For item 5, there is an increase in the percentage of students who agreed to the statement from 0% to 25%; however, the percentage of students who disagreed to the same statement also increased from 70% to 75%. In contrast, item 6 saw an increase in the percentage of students who agreed from 20% to 25%, and a decrease in the students who disagreed and strongly disagreed from 70% to only 50%.

Table 25: *Comparison of TL Group's Pre- and Post-Attitude Survey Results*

Category	Item & Statement		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
A (General Use)	1. In a Japanese classroom, the teacher should know Bahasa Melayu or English.	PRE	10%	80%	10%	0%	0%
		POST	0%	63%	0%	38%	0%
	2. The teacher should use Bahasa Melayu or English during Japanese Class.	PRE	0%	0%	10%	70%	20%
		POST	0%	0%	0%	88%	12%
	3. Students should be allowed to use Bahasa Melayu or English during Japanese Class.	PRE	0%	10%	20%	40%	30%
		POST	0%	13%	0%	50%	38%
B (Suggested Effectiveness)	4. It is easier to understand Japanese grammar when the teacher uses Bahasa Melayu or English.	PRE	10%	10%	30%	30%	20%
		POST	0%	13%	38%	38%	13%
	5. It is easier to understand when the teacher uses English or Bahasa Melayu to give instructions in Japanese class.	PRE	0%	0%	30%	70%	0%
		POST	0%	25%	0%	75%	0%

	6. It is easier to understand when the teacher explains mistakes in Bahasa Melayu or English	PRE	0%	20%	20%	40%	20%
		POST	0%	25%	25%	50%	0%
C (Affirmation)	7. Teachers should use Bahasa Melayu or English to explain Japanese grammar.	PRE	0%	10%	10%	50%	30%
		POST	0%	0%	0%	62%	38%
	8. Teachers should use Bahasa Melayu or English when explaining homework.	PRE	0%	10%	10%	40%	40%
		POST	0%	0%	0%	75%	25%
	9. Teachers should use Bahasa Melayu or English when giving instructions.	PRE	0%	0%	10%	50%	40%
		POST	0%	0%	0%	88%	13%
	10. Teachers should explain mistakes in Bahasa Melayu or English.	PRE	0%	0%	11%	67%	22%
		POST	0%	13%	0%	63%	25%
D (Student Use)	11. Students should be allowed to talk in Bahasa Melayu or English when talking in pairs or groups.	PRE	0%	40%	20%	30%	10%
		POST	0%	25%	25%	38%	13%
	12. Students should be allowed to translate a Japanese word to Bahasa Melayu or English to show that they understand.	PRE	0%	60%	20%	20%	0%
		POST	0%	38%	50%	13%	0%
	13. Students should be allowed to explain what they do or don't understand in Bahasa Melayu or English.	PRE	10%	20%	20%	50%	0%
		POST	0%	25%	13%	50%	13%
E (Motivation)	14. Using Bahasa Melayu or English in Japanese class will increase my motivation to learn.	PRE	0%	0%	70%	30%	0%
		POST	0%	0%	50%	25%	25%

In Category C, the percentage of students who agreed to item 7 further decreased from 10% to 0% while the percentage of students who disagreed and strongly disagreed continued to increase from 80% to a complete 100%. Similarly, item 8 also saw a decrease in the percentage of students who agreed from 10% to 0%, and an increase in the percentage of students who disagreed and strongly disagreed from 80% to 100%. Item 9 also saw an increase in the percentage of students who disagreed and strongly disagreed from 90% to 100%. For item 10, there was a slight increase of 13% in the percentage of students who agreed with the statement.

However, the percentage of students who disagreed and strongly disagreed to the same statement remained similar for both pre- and post-attitude surveys (89% and 88%).

In Category D, the percentage of students who agreed to item 11 decreased from 40% to 25% while the percentage of students who disagreed and strongly disagreed increased from 40% to 51%. For item 12, a major decrease was seen in the percentage of students who agreed with the statement from 60% to 38%, while the percentage of students who strongly disagreed also decreased from 20% to 13%. However, a 30% increase was seen in the percentage of students who neither agreed nor disagreed with the same statement. Similarly, item 13 saw a decrease in the percentage of students who agreed and strongly agreed to the statement from 30% to 25%, while the percentage of students who disagreed and strong disagreed increased from 50% to 63%.

Finally, in Category E, a 20% increase was seen in the percentage of students who disagreed and strongly disagreed with item 14, and no changes in the percentage of students who agreed and strongly agreed to the same statement.

In contrast to the results from the post-attitude survey of the OL group, the results from the post-attitude survey of the TL group revealed a large increase in the negative responses towards own language use. This is especially apparent in the items under Category C where 3 out of 4 items reported a complete 100% disagreement to OL use in the classroom.

6.2 Inferential Analyses of Attitude Survey

A Wilcoxon signed-rank test and Mann-Whitney U test were conducted to answer Research Question 3. All statistical tests used an alpha level of .05.

Research Question 3 asked the following: does exposure to own language use in the classroom improve students' attitudes towards it? To answer this question, Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted to compare the post-attitude scores of students who received OL-inclusive instruction and students who received TL-only instruction. As aforementioned in Chapter 3 in Section 3.6, the students' attitude scores were calculated by adding up the total of each of the 14 Likert items. The change in attitude score was also calculated by subtracting each student's pre-attitude score from their post-attitude score.

Table 26 displays the changes in the mean of attitude scores before and after the instructional intervention. A Wilcoxon signed-rank test conducted for the total sample revealed no significant difference between the pre-attitude scores of the total sample ($Mdn = 34$) and the post-attitude scores of the total sample ($Mdn = 38$), $Z = 1.811$, $p = 0.07$. However, when the total sample was sorted according to groups, the OL group showed positive pre- to post-attitudes towards own language use, while the TL group showed a negative change towards own language use.

Table 26: *Pre- and Post-Attitude Scores by Group and Type of Attitude Change*

Group	Type of Attitude Change	Pre-Survey		Post Survey		ΔM	r
		M	SD	M	SD		
OL	Positive	34.11	7.34	43.11	8.02	9	1.0
TL	Negative	33.5	6.04	32.63	4.60	-0.87	0.2
Total Sample	Positive	34.05	6.72	38.18	8.40	4.13	0.5

Note: ΔM – mean difference

A Wilcoxon signed-rank test was also conducted for each group (Table 27). The results for the

OL group showed a significant difference between the pre-attitude survey scores (*Mdn* = 37) and

the post-attitude survey scores (*Mdn* = 46), Z = 2.67, p = 0.008. The effect size was also large (*r*

= 1.0). Thus, the positive change in attitude score was deemed statistically significant. The

second alternative hypothesis (see p. 71, Chapter 4) is accepted.

The Wilcoxon signed-rank for the TL group, however, revealed that there was no

significant difference between the pre-attitude scores (*Mdn* = 33) and the post-attitude survey

scores (*Mdn* = 32), Z = 0.593, p = 0.553.

Table 27: *Wilcoxon signed-rank test Results for Pre- and Post-Attitude Survey*

Group	Mean ranks			Sum of ranks		Z-value	p
	Positive	Negative	Tie	Positive	Negative		
OL Group	5			45		2.67	0.008
TL Group	3.50	4.28	1	10.5	17.5	0.593	0.553
Total Sample	8.58	8.25		103	33	1.811	0.07

The Man-Whitney U test results for the pre- and post-attitude surveys are illustrated in Table 28.

For the pre-attitude test, there was no significant difference in the attitude scores of the OL group

(*Mdn* = 37) and the TL group (*Mdn* = 33), U = 44, p = 0.934. This confirms that the two groups

had equal attitudes towards own language use prior to the experiment.

For the post-attitude survey, Man-Whitney U test results indicated that there was a

significant difference in the attitude scores of the OL group (*Mdn* = 46) with the TL group (*Mdn*

= 32), U = 10.5 , p = 0.01. The effect size was also medium (*r* = 0.6). Thus, it can be concluded

that there is a positive difference in the attitudes of students who received own language

instruction and students who receive target language-only instruction. The third alternative

hypothesis (see p. 70, Chapter 4) is accepted.

Table 28 *Man-Whitney U test Results for Pre- and Post-Attitude Survey*

Attitude Test	OL Group (n=9) Mean rank	TL Group (n=10) Mean Rank	Z-value	*r*
Pre-test	9.89	10.10	-0.082	0.02
Post-test	11.83	5.81	-2.457	0.6

6.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the findings of the attitude survey conducted in this study. In response to

Research Question 2, initial findings from the pre-attitude survey showed that prior to the

instructional intervention, the total sample and the individual groups had negative attitudes towards own language use. The negative attitudes were particularly evident in the responses for Category C concerning the students' affirmation of the benefits of own language use in the classroom. Furthermore, nine out of the 14 items in the pre-attitude survey had at least 53% of students disagreeing or strongly disagreeing with its statements.

In the post-attitude survey results, a positive change of 4.13 was reported in the mean of the total sample. In addition, when compared to the pre-attitude survey, only 6 out of 14 items in the post-attitude survey had at least 53% of students who disagreed or strongly disagreed to its statements. Although a slight increase in positive responses was recorded, the Wilcoxon signed-rank results for the total sample revealed no significant difference. However, upon individual examination of the two groups, a distinct difference was identified between the post-attitude scores of the students in the own language group and the students in the target language-only group.

The students in the own language group reported a positive change in their attitude scores after the instructional intervention. Examination via Wilcoxon signed-rank test revealed that the positive change was statistically significant with a medium effect size. In response to Research Question 3, it can be concluded that exposure to own language use in the classroom improves students' attitudes towards it. Thus, the second alternative hypothesis is accepted.

In contrast, students in the target language group reported a negative change in their attitude scores. Examination via Wilcoxon signed-rank test, however, revealed that the negative change was not statistically significant with a small effect. This provides further evidence that the students' attitudes towards own language use remain negative when they are not exposed to own language-inclusive approaches.

Finally, a Mann-Whitney U test revealed a significant difference in the post-attitude scores of the own language group and the target language group. This finding also supports the argument that students who were exposed to own language-inclusive approaches are more likely to have positive attitudes towards it compared to students who were not. Thus, the third alternative hypothesis is also accepted.

The findings from the data analyses in this chapter, in conjunction with those obtained from Chapter 5, will be discussed in more depth in Chapter 7.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION

The present study was designed to examine the effects of own language use on ethnic Malay students' grammar achievement, grammar comprehension, and attitudes towards own language use. Comparisons between own language-inclusive instruction and target language-only instruction groups were made using a quasi-experimental research design. The experimental group received lesson handouts which contained own language explanations and translations for each grammatical word, and the teacher used the sandwich technique and reverse translation when providing own language support in the classroom. The control group received identical lesson handouts without any own language explanation or translations provided. The duration of the experiment was 5 weeks. Based on the results reported in Chapter 5, own language use was more effective when learning grammatical words associated with time-related expressions. The results in Chapter 6 also revealed that students who were exposed to own language-inclusive approaches were more likely to have positive attitudes towards own language use in the classroom.

Discussion of the results is presented in this chapter according to the major research questions and subsequent exploratory questions. The research questions are:

1. Is students' grammar comprehension better facilitated by a teacher's use of own language or by providing target language-only instruction?

2. What are the attitudes of students towards own language use in the Japanese language classroom?

3. Does exposure to own language use in the classroom improve/change students' attitudes towards it?

The exploratory questions are:

A) Is there a difference in the perceived level of comprehension between students who receive own language- (OL) inclusive instruction and students who receive target language- (TL) only instruction?

B) Is there a difference in which grammatical words are easier or harder to learn between students who receive own language- (OL) inclusive instruction and students who receive target language- (TL) only instruction?

Each section of the discussion includes a summary of the findings, explanation of the findings, and the findings' relation to current literature. This chapter also includes the implications for theory and practice, the limitations faced in the current study, and suggestions for future research.

7.1 Effects of Own Language Use on Students' Grammar Achievement

The first research question investigated the effects of own language use on students' grammar comprehension. Results indicated that the students who received own language-inclusive instruction performed better than those who received target language-only instruction when learning time-related expressions (時間関係表現), starting of range expressions, (範囲の始まり), conditional-related expressions (条件の表現), and reverse condition related-expressions (逆接条件の表現). The initial findings support the hypothesis that students in the own language group

would perform better in the selected grammar tests than students in the target language group. However, upon deeper examination, it was revealed that only the results for the time-related expression diagnostic test were statistically significant. These findings echo those of previous research which state that own language use can support students' grammar comprehension in the second language classroom (e.g., Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Tian & Macaro, 2012; Hidayati; 2012).

The significant difference obtained for the time-related expression lesson is supported by Tanimori's (2016) argument which stated that in the context of Japanese language education, OL can be used to improve Japanese as a second language (JSL) students' grammar comprehension when using it to explain time-related expressions. He argued that a comparative analysis of translation between the OL and the TL allows the student to clearly identify the tense and aspect between both languages. Since the students in the OL group were provided with both Malay and English language translations of the example sentences, they were able to compare the three languages and identify the differences between them. In addition, the students in the OL group could see how the grammatical words are expressed equivalently in Malay and English, thus supporting their comprehension.

Although the students in the OL group were able to compare the translations of the three languages in all five lessons, aside from lesson 1, increased grammar comprehension is only seen in the mean scores, but it was not enough to produce a significant difference. This can be

attributed to the simplicity of time-related expressions compared to the more intricate grammatical words in the later lessons. In addition, JLPT N1 grammatical words are complex to understand, thus using the OL alone is not enough to support students' grammar comprehension. This is clearly depicted in the students' comments where students in the OL group expressed that other than usage of the OL, more practice questions and example sentences were needed to further promote their grammar comprehension.

In contrast, a more important observation is that OL use did not produce any adverse effect on the grammar comprehension of students in the OL group. The taboo surrounding OL use as depicted by literature is often related to the possible negative effects of negative transfer and interference (e.g., Carreres, 2006; Malmkjaer, 2010). Because of this, OL has been avoided from being utilized in target language classrooms. Malmkjaer (2010) pointed out that interference and transfer is unavoidable when using translation; however, learning to manage it is more important than shutting out OL use completely. Reflecting on the results of the grammar tests, it can be concluded that the principled use of own language carried out in this study did not cause excessive interference to the extent of it affecting the students' grammar comprehension. This finding is further supported by the views of Ortega (2014) who found that possible interference presented between languages may not result in any type of learning difficulty (p. 32). The ability of students in the OL group to perform better is also supported by Macaro's (2005) research where exclusive target language use may not necessarily improve students' language acquisition.

Based on Macaro's (2001) optimal position theory, the point is not to maximize or force unnecessary own language use; instead, it is to use it efficiently when it is needed so that it can support smooth engagement with the target language in the classroom. In this case, the students in the OL group were able to immediately ask questions and confirm their understanding with the teacher using the own language which enabled the class to proceed in the TL while at the same time, assuring the students of their comprehension. In contrast, students in the TL group at times were faced with guessing and uncertainty which ended up stalling the progression of the class. In other words, allowing students and the teacher to turn to own language use when required helps both the target language lesson and the comprehension of the students.

The present study contributes to existing literature by presenting empirical evidence that own language use benefits students' grammar achievement when it comes to advanced time-related grammatical words in the context of the Japanese language. It also provides evidence that own language use produces the same if not better results in terms of grammar achievement when compared to target language-only classrooms, proving that its use does not hinder or inhibit the language understanding of students.

7.2 Effects of Own Language Use on Students' Grammar Comprehension

In line with the first research question, two exploratory questions were investigated using the results obtained from the lesson questionnaire. For Exploratory Question A, results from

Question 1 indicated that the grammar comprehension of students from both groups varied according to each lesson. For time-related expressions, the lesson questionnaire revealed that there was no difference in the perceived level of grammar comprehension between students in the OL group and students in the TL group. Students in the TL group had more confidence in their comprehension when it comes to starting of range expressions (Lesson 2) and accompanying act expressions (Lesson 5). In contrast, students in the OL group reported higher level of comprehension in the lesson questionnaire for conditional expressions (Lesson 3) and reverse conditional expressions (Lesson 4). However, upon cross-examining the responses to Questions 2 and 3 with Question 1 of the lesson questionnaire, the students' perceived level of grammar comprehension appeared to be different altogether.

Figure 9: *Overall Results of OL Group's Lesson Questionnaire*
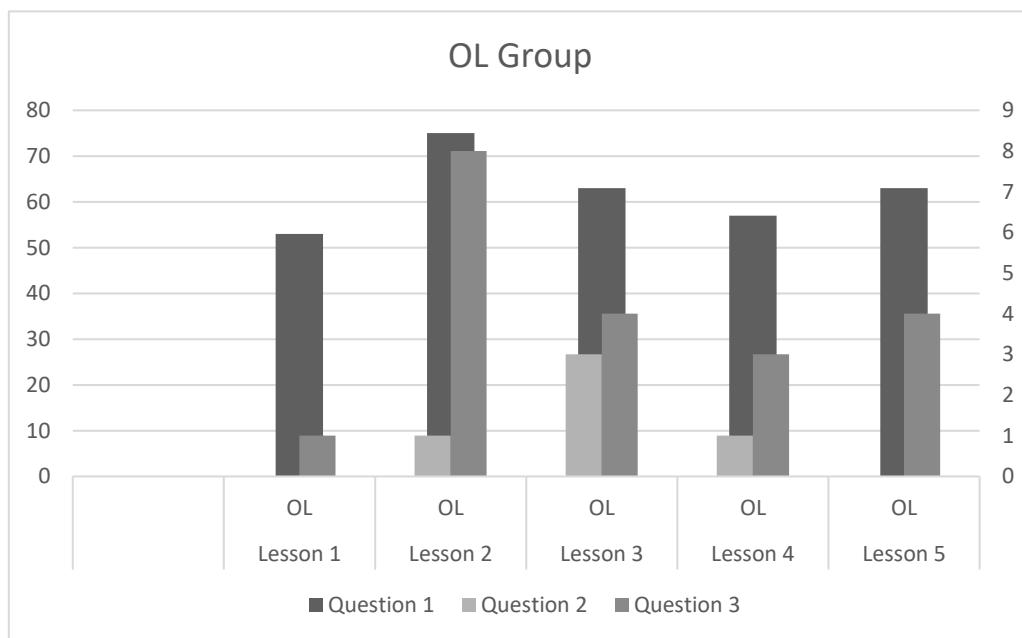
Figure 10: *Overall Results of TL Group's Lesson Questionnaire*
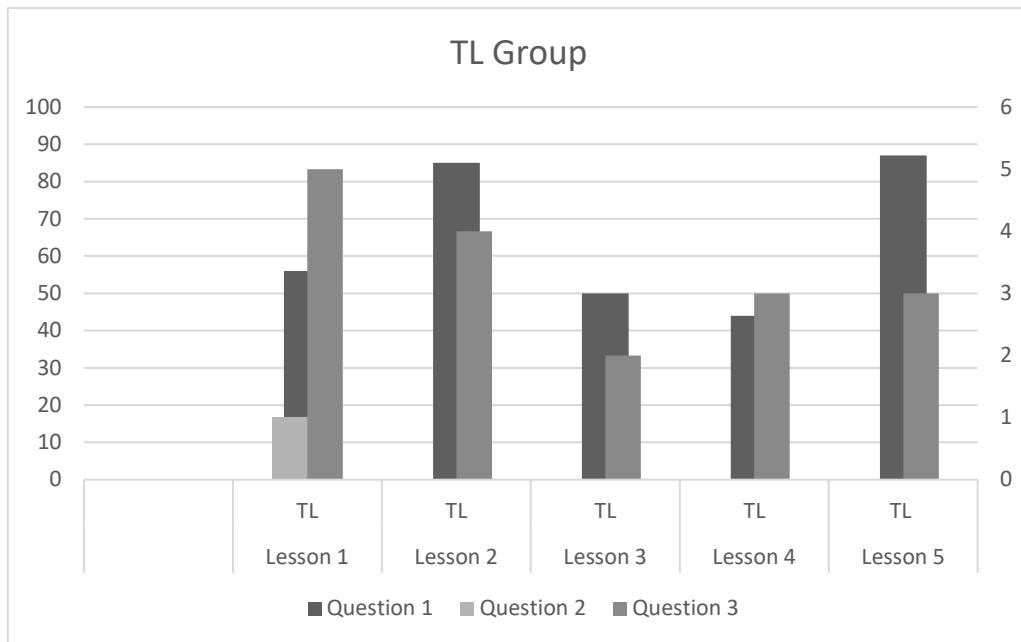
Due to the mixed response, it is difficult to properly determine the differences in the perceived grammar comprehension of students in both groups. What can be concluded, however, from comparing the perceived level of comprehension and grammar achievement is that students in the TL group have confidence in their understanding even though they might face some difficulties. In contrast, students in the OL group were quite reserved with how much they felt they understood the lesson even with the support of own language in the classroom. This is most probably due to the new learning style that was introduced to the students in the OL group. Throughout their studies under the scholarship program, the students have been accustomed to learning solely in the target language. Thus, the sudden exposure to an own language-inclusive classroom and new grammar learning approaches required the students to adapt. According to

Roehl, Reddy and Shannon (2013), it may take students more than a semester to adjust to a new instructional method and "recognize its value" (p. 48). Considering that the lessons in this study were held only twice a week in a span of five weeks, the students' lack of confidence in the teaching method is expected.

In Exploratory Question B, the results from Questions 2, 3, and 4 of the lesson questionnaires revealed that there are similarities and differences in which grammatical words each group found difficult or easy to understand. A majority of students in the OL group did not have difficulty understanding all three of the words of starting of range expressions in Lesson 2, while the students in the TL group reported more difficulty with several of the words. The students in the OL group revealed through their written comments that their full understanding was likely due to the simplicity of the words. Although the students in the TL group also admitted that the words were simple, most of them required more example sentences. Liu and Matsumoto (2017) stated that students' efficiency in learning various Japanese language functional expressions can be enhanced by providing appropriate example sentences (p. 297). Considering that the students in the OL group were provided with extra example sentences albeit in the form of English and Malay translations, their lack of difficulty in understanding the words is probable. A similar observation is present in Lesson 3 where students in the OL group reported less difficulty understanding all three grammatical words compared to students in the TL group. In addition, in the comment section, a majority of students in the OL group attributed their comprehension to the similarities between the Japanese words and the English and Malay

translations. Up to this point, it can be assumed that the OL students' performance in the

achievement test is due to these two factors.

However, the same factors were absent in Lessons 1, 4 and 5. In Lessons 1 and 4,

students from both groups reported similar comprehension levels for all three grammatical words.

The comment section in Lessons 4 and 5 revealed that a majority of students from the OL group

had difficulty with the grammatical words due to their similarities in meaning. A closer analysis

of the Malay and English translations used in Lessons 1, 4 and 5 also showed that the

grammatical words were nearly identical when it comes to their meaning and are mostly

differentiated through their specific use. For example, in Lesson 1 all three grammatical words

(なり，そばから，が早いか) when translated are equivalently translated into '*as soon as*' in

English, and '*sebaik sahaja*' in Malay. Similarly, in Lesson 4, the grammatical words (ようとも，

であれ，たところで) also had identical translations which are '*no matter*' in English and '*tidak*

kira' in Malay. In Lesson 5, the grammatical words (かたわら，がてら) were both translated into

'*while'* in English and '*semasa*' in Malay. This may be the reason why the students in the OL

group still found the words difficult to differentiate from one another even though the meanings

were provided in their own language. This converges with Yamamoto's (2013) argument which

stated that knowing word meanings is not equivalent to comprehension because students will

need more than knowing the meaning to be able use it correctly in the target language due to the

different lexical forms and syntax. This is different when compared to the translations in Lesson

3 where all three grammatical words (たら最後，とあれば，ようでは) had different translations in English (*if, once*) and Malay (*sekiranya, sekali, jika*).

Thus, this suggests that the benefits of own language use are fairly limited when used in the context of advanced Japanese grammatical words, especially when it comes to grammatical words that not only have similar meanings but also similar-to-identical translation in students' own language(s), which in this case are English and Malay. These research findings echo that of Tian and Macaro (2012), who suggested that there is benefit in using own language in the classroom for specific words or phrases as to solely using the target language. Providing the meaning only is insufficient, but as commented by students in the TL group, more practice questions and example sentences should be provided for more complex grammatical words. In this case where the students' own language is unable to provide sufficient support to the students' comprehension, using only the target language in the classroom would be satisfactory.

The present study contributes to existing literature as it appears to be the first study that attempted to identify which grammatical words in the advanced Japanese language grammar are more effectively understood when explained using support from students' own language. The findings illustrate that the comprehension of starting of range expressions and conditional expressions are more successful when explained using own language. However, for reverse conditional expressions and accompanying action expressions, it is preferable to use target language only in the classroom. The findings also provide a new possible approach to how

teachers can determine which grammatical words are more effectively explained by analyzing their translations into the own language.

7.3 Effects of Own Language Use on Students' Attitudes

The second research question investigated the students' attitudes towards own language use prior to the commencement of the experiment. Results from the pre-attitude survey revealed that the total sample and both individual groups had negative attitudes towards own language use. Out of the 14 items included in the survey, a total of 9 items recorded more than 50% of students disagreeing to statements which promoted own language use in the classroom. The students reported the highest negative attitude score in Category C which concerned the students' affirmation of the benefits of own language use in the classroom. Item 9 reported the highest disagreement with 95% of students who disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement that teachers should use the OL to give instructions. These findings are in line with literature on negative attitudes from more advanced level students (Yen, 2004; Liao, 2006; Nazary, 2008). The reason behind the students' prominent negative attitudes can be due to their original language learning environment in the Japanese language preparatory school. The students who participated in the study have been learning Japanese language using the direct method for the past 15 months with strict prohibition of own language use. Thus, it is expected for the students to have strong confidence and belief in the effectiveness of the direct method and total rejection of own language use even though they have yet to experience an own language-inclusive

classroom. This is supported by Nazary (2008) who found that students did not believe that own

language is effective in aiding their language learning. Furthermore, these findings reinforce

arguments put forth by Cook (2010) regarding the negative assumptions that still exist and hinder

students and teachers from utilizing own language in the classroom.

The third research question investigated the students' attitude changes after experiencing

an own language-inclusive classroom. Results from the post-attitude test revealed a statistically

significant positive change in the attitude scores of the students in the OL group. Meanwhile, the

students in the TL group reported a statistically non-significant negative change in their attitude

scores. A statistically significant difference was also present between the post-attitude scores of

the students in the OL group and students in the TL group. As suggested by Good and Brophy

(1990), attitudes can be stimulated through experience and exposure. Therefore, students who

are exposed to own language-inclusive approaches are more likely to have positive attitudes

towards it compared to students who are not. These findings are further supported by Burden's

(2004) study which stated that "with more classes, students would become even more attuned

towards the teaching method adapted by the teacher" (p. 34).

The positive shift in students' attitudes are important because as aforementioned, it is the

students' attitudes towards own language that can determine the students' participation in the

language learning process (Thang & Ting et al, 2011). Having a positive attitude towards own

language use not only facilitates the successful application of principled own language use in the

own classroom, but also reduces the long-term taboo of using own language as a last resort and eradicates any unnecessary guilt that may exist alongside its use. The present study contributes to the existing literature by presenting findings of positive attitude changes of students after exposure to an own language-inclusive teaching approach.

7.4 Implications of Study

The findings of this study have improved our understanding on the effects of own language use on students' grammar achievement, grammar comprehension and attitudes in the context of ethnic Malay learners of the Japanese language. Implications of the findings can be discussed in terms of theory, research and practice.

7.4.1 Theoretical Implications

This study was based on Cook's (1991) Multicompetence Theory which acknowledges the target language learner as a user in his/her own right, and not a deficit version of a native speaker. The attitude results of this study are consistent with this theory. Students in the own language group revealed positive attitude changes after experiencing an own language-inclusive classroom. This implies that the students have gained confidence in the possible benefits of using their own language to learn the target language which leads to positive self-image of themselves as target language learners. The positive attitude towards one's own language is important because it

strengthens the belief that a target language learner can be fluent and efficient without having to embody the mind of the monolingual speaker.

In addition to the Multicompetence Theory, this study adopted Macaro's (2001) Optimal Position as the theoretical model in the research field of own language use. The Optimal Position recognizes the value of own language as a useful pedagogical tool which facilitates some aspects of students' language learning. The grammar test results of this study are consistent with this model. Students in the own language group showed higher mean scores in their grammar achievement and better grammar comprehension when learning selected grammatical words. It appears that own language facilitates learning not only because it provides students with direct and accurate meaning of words or translations, but also because students are able to create social relationships thus creating a relaxed learning environment which decreases the anxiety of learning advanced grammatical words.

This Optimal Position can be further enhanced with additions of specific frameworks of principled own language use.

7.4.2 Methodological Implications

In regard to research methodology, this study conducted two exploratory analyses which intended to give a more holistic view of the results of the research questions. If the study had been concluded with the major research questions, our understanding of own language use would

have been limited to the difference in grammar achievement of students learning with own language and students learning with target language only. Through the exploration of which grammatical words are more difficult or easier to understand, we can understand that although own language use is able to boost students' grammar achievement, in order to observe a more robust difference the students need time to adapt to the learning style to increase their belief in its effects. In addition, it is made clear that own language use does not always have to be the first choice, and there are instances where target language-only approaches may be better for students' comprehension. In a nutshell, by taking into consideration the types and topics of grammatical words learned, we are able to go beyond the differential effects of own language use and clearly determine when and where it can effectively support students' grammar comprehension.

The findings of the exploratory questions illustrate the importance of examining the participants, measurement tools, and data of a study from different perspectives in order to understand the fundamental nature of a research. In addition, the researcher should also be open to experimenting with various methods and procedures to determine if it can add depth to the research.

7.4.3 Pedagogical Implications

Based on the findings of this study, it appears that in order to successfully implement own language use in the target language classroom, teachers need to adapt their teaching style to incorporate it systematically using a possible framework. In order for students to trust a teaching

method, they need time to adapt and experience its effects. The status quo where teachers regularly turn to own language use as a last-ditch effort to explain something difficult not only results in overuse but may reduce the confidence that students have towards its overall use, therefore causing negative attitudes. JSL practitioners could consider using versatile own language-inclusive methods such as the sandwich technique, the mirroring technique, or the reverse translation approach (refer to Chapter Two for brief descriptions of these teaching methods) to slowly introduce a principled use of own language in the classroom.

The translations of grammatical words should also be carefully examined before utilizing them in the classroom. Findings from this study revealed that it may only lead to further confusion. Thus, teachers need to consider which grammatical words can be more effectively explained using own language. Research in this area is still few and far between. However, teachers can first try and adopt certified translations or meanings available from multilingual textbooks as a guideline.

The present study also has pedagogical implications for non-native speaker teachers, especially in the efforts of localizing Japanese language education in Malaysia. The choice to systematically adopt own language use in the Japanese language classroom can empower local teachers to create personalized teaching approaches for multilingual students in the country. Based on the students' objective of learning the Japanese language, teachers should decide how much own language use is actually needed for their students to achieve their goals. Therefore,

teachers need to be flexible in adapting and knowing when own language use can either support or resist students' language learning.

7.5 Delimitations and Limitations

The present study is not exempted from delimitations and limitations which will be pointed out in the following section. Simon and Goes (2013) stated that limitations are constraints beyond the researcher's control, while delimitations are conscious choices made by the researcher to either include or exclude selected characteristics in the study.

7.5.1 Delimitations

The most prominent delimitation of this study is the grammatical words learned during the experiment. Among the various grammatical words available at the JLPT N1 level, the researcher chose only five topics (time-related expressions, starting of range expressions, conditional expressions, reverse conditional expressions, and accompanying action expressions) to test the effects of own language use on students' grammar achievement and comprehension. The next delimitation is that the generalization of the results will be delimited to university level adult ethnic Malay learners in Malaysia. In addition, grammar achievement in this study was measured using multiple choice objective questions. Thus, the grammar achievement was

delimited to performance in the context of an objective written test instead of a subjective written test or oral communicative test.

7.5.2 Limitations

The present study recognized some possible limitations in the interpretation of its findings and the implementation of the experiment. Firstly, is the limitation of a small sample size. Although the sample size met the minimum requirements for an experimental study, the sample size is still fairly small. Since the study required volunteers to participate, the researcher had no control over the possible number of participants in the study. A larger sample size may produce better and statistically significant results which can be more difficult to obtain with small sample sizes.

Secondly is the duration of the experiment. A total of five lessons were conducted in the span of five weeks. Compared to regular language courses which usually last for at least 15 weeks, the duration of the experiment is considered brief. A longer time frame can provide better results on students' attitude changes and allow more JLPT N1 grammatical words to be included in the syllabus.

7.6 Suggestions for Future Research

The present study has resulted in the following suggestions for future research. For the independent variable, this study has chosen to investigate the differential effects of own language

and target language-only instruction. Future studies can consider including a third group which incorporates Macaro's (2001) Maximal Position where own language is utilized without pedagogical value and only used as a last resort. Adding this variable can increase more depth to the results and provide more information on the different types of own language use and their possible outcomes.

For dependent variables, the grammar achievement tests of the present study focused on advanced level grammatical words. It would be interesting to explore the different effects of own language use on beginner and intermediate level grammatical words as well. In addition, future research can explore the effects of own language use on Japanese language vocabulary as well.

Aside from grammar achievement, grammar comprehension, and student attitudes, there are many other different aspects that can also be explored, for example the effects of own language use on students' motivation. Literature has echoed that own language use can increase students' motivation in learning a target language (Cummins, etc.), but this was not included in the scope of the present study.

Other aspects of own language use can be explored in the form of its effects on speaking and writing comprehension. Research has discovered that own language use can improve students' speaking and writing proficiency for leaners of the Spanish and English language (Van Weijen, Van den Bergh, Rijlaarsdam & Sanders, 2009; de la Fuente & Goldenberg, 2020). However, as aforementioned, research of own language use in the scope of Japanese language

education is still few and far between. Therefore, future studies can consider investigating this in

the context of the Japanese language as well.

CONCLUSION

Japanese language education has set roots in Malaysia for more than 60 years and since then has resulted in various Japanese language programs, schools, and initiatives to further improve Japan-Malaysia relations. Moving forward with the renewal of the Look East Policy on the 31st of May 2019, plans on the establishment of the first branch campus of a Japanese university in Malaysia have been confirmed. Irrespective of the rapid growth of Japanese language in the country, Japanese language education in Malaysia remains relatively similar to when it started in 1957. At the time, the focus was mainly on beginner to intermediate levels and using native Japanese speaker teaching models in the syllabus. Furthermore, as pointed out by Ota (1999), the bulk of Japanese language teachers in Malaysia are primarily native Japanese teachers brought in from abroad or volunteers from international associations. Although programs to develop local non-native Japanese speakers such as *Program Diploma Pascasiswazah Pendidikan Bahasa Jepun* (PDPP BJ) to become teachers in high schools have been set up in the country, it still focuses on using target language-only instruction and methods. In a multilingual country like Malaysia, if Japanese language education is to further develop, then there is a need to empower local teachers to use their own language to create a tailored syllabus for Malaysians. However, the taboo surrounding own language use is still prominent; this calls for a reevaluation of its use and investigation on its effects on students' language learning.

Findings in recent research have indicated that own language use can support students' language learning. Although the benefits of own language use have been established in the context of English language education, studies in the context of Japanese language education are still limited.

This dissertation was an effort to contribute to the body of literature by investigating the effects of own language use on students' grammar achievement, grammar comprehension and attitudes. The findings of this study corresponding to the three main research questions addressed are summarized as follows:

a. The results of this study indicate that when teaching advanced JLPT N1 grammatical words related to time expressions, starting of range expressions and conditional expressions, to an extent, own language use is more effective than target language-only instruction in promoting grammar achievement and grammar comprehension.

b. The findings show a pattern that indicates that grammatical words with similar use and meaning are better understood when their translations in Malay and English are unlike their counterparts. This provides a new possible approach on how teachers can determine which grammatical words are more effectively explained by analyzing their translations into the own language.

c. There are significant positive changes in the attitudes of students who attended own language-inclusive classrooms towards own language use compared to those who attended target language-only classrooms.

This study presents an introductory approach to utilizing own language in the advanced Japanese language classroom. It contributes to existing literature not only by offering empirical evidence of the positive effects of own language use, but also by proving that students' attitudes towards own language use can be improved by providing sufficient exposure to it and its benefits. Furthermore, this study extends investigations of previous research by providing a possible framework of determining which grammatical words in the advanced JLPT N1 level are better suited to be taught using own language than target language only in the context of the Japanese language.

The present study has succeeded in answering various questions in regard to own language use in the Japanese language classroom. However, there are still many more tasks that arise with the closing of this study. Implications on theory, research and practice have been presented as well as suggestions for future research, which can further extend the discussions and research of own language use in the classroom. To conclude, it is evident to say that the findings from the present study would provide local non-native Japanese language teachers in Malaysia with new information and direction to further expand the current syllabus and teaching methods in order to work towards the localization of Japanese language education in the country.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

(Ethics Board Approval)

Appendix 2

(Consent Form)

同　意　書

宇都宮大学　国際学研究科 言語学研究室

　佐々木一隆　様

研究題目：The Effects of Own Language Use on Ethnic Malay Learners of the Japanese Language

　私は，上記研究の実施について，**AZALIA BINTI ZAHARUDDIN** より

　　　年 月 日 ＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿において，説明書に基づき説明を受け，研究計画の目的，意義，方法，個人情報保護の方法，安全管理への配慮などについて，十分理解しました。

　そのうえで，対象者に対し　　年　月　日　＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿において，説明書を用いて説明を行い，計画に参加し，求められた個人にかかわる情報，データ等を提供することに関し同意が得られたことを確認しました。

　以上より，私は本研究の実施について，代表者として同意します。


　　　年　　　月　　　日

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　団体名：

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　職名：

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　氏名（自署）：

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　連絡先：

Appendix 3

(Pre-test & Post-Test)
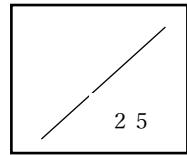
日本語集中講座文法テスト　　　　名前：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

次の文の（　）に入れるのに最も良いものを、a・b・c から一つ選びなさい。

1. その人は、信号の色が（変わる）が早いか、走り出した。
    a. 変わって
    b. 変わる
    c. 変わるの

2. 父は１月の（　）、次々の各地の大会に出場している。
    a. ゴルフ大会からして
    b. ゴルフ大会をもって
    c. ゴルフ大会を皮切りに

3. 私は勉強といっても家でも１、２時間教科書を読む（　）、たいしたことはしていないんです。
    a. というわけで
    b. といったところで
    c. ということで

4. 本年（　）本社の通信販売は終了させていただきます。長い間ありがとうございました。
    a. をもって
    b. 限りでは

    c. に限り

5. 生物というものは、子孫を残すため（　）、どんなことでもする。
    a. とあれば
    b. とあって
    c. とすれば

6. こんなところで財布を（　）、絶対お金が入ったまま戻ってはこないと思う。
    a. 落としたようでは
    b. 落としたら最後
    c. 落としたところで

7. どんなに便利なものだろうと、（　）。
    a. 要らないものは買いたくない
    b. 要らないものも買ってしまう
    c. 要るものは買う

8. その商品がヒットしたの（　）、次々と類似品が発売された。
    a. が最後
    b. を皮切りに
    c. を思いきや

9. あの議員は、マスコミにどんなに（　）、平気な顔をしている。
    a. 批判されようとされまいと

b. 批判されようと

c. 批判されまいと

10. 田中さんは日本語の教師をする（　　）小説を書いているそうだ。

a. かたわら

b. がてら

c. ついでに

11. 山川さんは運転席に（　　）、勢いよくエンジンをかけた。

a. 座りがてら

b. 座らんばかりに

c. 座るなり

12. この店にはスプーン（　　）、大型家具に至るまで、生活世品は何でもそろっている。

a. を皮切りに

b. から

c. をはじめに

13. 母は夕飯を（　　）、電話で長話をしている。

a. 作りかけたまま

b. 作りかけっぱなし

c. 作りかけた最後

14. 結婚して（　　）くらいなら、一人で暮らすほうがましだ。

a. 自由がほしい

b. 自由がなくなる

c. 自由がなくなった

15. 敬語がちゃんと使えないようでは、（　）。

a. しっかり勉強しなさい

b. 接客の仕事はできない

c. 日本人に聞いたほうがいい。

16. 先日のお礼（　）、新製品のご紹介に参りました。

a. ながらも

b. として

c. かたがた

17. どんな国（　）、貧富の差は大なり小なり存在する。

a. であれ

b. において

c. でもって

18. デパートが開始する（　）、主婦たちが特売場に押し寄せた。

a. そばから

b. までもなく

c. が早いか

19. 面接試験では、難しい質問に（　）、また別の質問が次々に出された。

a. 答えようものなら

b. 答えようが

c. 答えたそばから

20.あの大臣、あんなひどい発言を（　　）、辞職に追い込まれるかも
しれない。
a. 繰り返すくらいなら

b. 繰り返すようでは

c. 繰り返すとばかりに

21.社長に反抗など（　　）、会社を辞めさせられるだろう。
a. したら最後

b. するに至って

c. すればこそ

22.国の援助なしでは（　　）。
a. 民間の企業から寄付をしてもらおう

b. この研究は続けられない

c. 私はこの研究班を辞める

23.今さら（　　）、もう遅い。
a. 後悔したところで

b. 後悔すればしたで

c. 後悔しようがするまいが

24.語彙勉強しているが、覚えたと思った（　　）忘れてしまう。

a. そばから

b. がてら

c. かたわら

25.彼女は子供を育てるかたわら、（　　）。

　a. 時間が足りなくて悩んでいる

　b. 家で料理教室も開いている

　c. 家事が得意で何をするのも早い

Appendix 4

(Diagnostic Test)
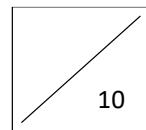
第1課：時間関係表現 文法テスト　　　　　　　　名前：_____

1. 彼は不正が（　）退職した。
A. ばれるが早いか　　B. ばれてからというもの　　C. ばれるそばから

2. 父は私の顔を一目（　）笑い出した。
A. 見てからというもの　　B. 見るなり　　C. 見たそばから

3. 片付ける（　）、子供たちがまた部屋を散らかす。
A. が早いか　　B. そばから　　C. なり

4. 今日は1件（　）次の仕事を頼まれて、一日中本当に忙しかった。
A. 処理するなり　　B. 処理したそばから　　C. 処理しつつ

5. デパートが開始する（　）、主婦たちが特売場にお押し寄せた。
A. そばから　　B. が早いか　　C. なり

6. その商品は、並べる（　）飛ぶように売れていった。
A. が早いか　　B. そばから　　C. なり

7. 119番の通報をうける（　）、救急車は出動した。
A. が早いか　　B. そばから　　C. なり

8. あの人はいつも電車に乗り込む（　）、席を確保しようとする。
A. が早いか　　B. そばから　　C. なり

9. 彼ったら、家に（　）なり、パソコンの前に座るんだから．．．。
A. 帰った　　B. 帰る　　C.帰って

10. 語彙を勉強しているが、覚えたと思った（　）忘れてしまう。
A. が早いか　　B. そばから　　C.なり
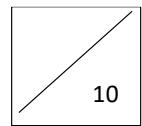
第2課：範囲の始まり表現 文法テスト　　　　　　名前：_____

1. 全国高校野球大会は、一昨日の第1試合（　）連日熱戦がくり広げられている。

　　　A．を皮切りに　B.に至るまで　C．をもって

2. ただいま（　）チケットの販売を打ち切らせていただきます。

　　　A．を皮切りに　B．に至るまで　C．をもって

3. 田中さんは10年前の個展を皮切りとして、（　）。

　　　A．いろいろなところで個展を開いている。　C．その後2度個展を開いた

　　　B．1度も個展を開いていない

4. 今期をもって私は（　）。

　　　A．この職に転職します　C．この職を引退します　D．この職を続けます

5. 日常のおかずから高級料理の食材（　）、この店にないものはない。

　　　A．をもって　B．に至るまで　C．を皮切りに

6. わたしは退職の記念旅行を皮切りとして、（　）。

　　　A．旅行が老後の趣味になった　C．国内、国外をあちこち旅行している

　　　B．旅行会社に勤め始めた

7. 父は1月の（　）、次々に各地の大会に出場している。

　　　A．ゴルフ大会を持って　C．ゴルフ大会に至るまで

　　　B．ゴルフ大会を皮切りに

8. このホテルのバイキングは、すし、ステーキからラーメン（　）、あらゆる料理がそろっている。

　　　A．に至るまで　B．を皮切りに　C．をもって

9. 昨日の会議では、彼の発言（　）反対意見が次々と出た。

　　　A．を皮切りに　B．に至るまで　C．をもって

10. その商品がヒットしたの（　）、次々と類似品が発売された。

　　　A．を皮切りに　B．に至るまで　C．をもって
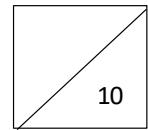
Group: _____

第 3 課：条件表現 文法テスト　　　　　　　　名前：_____

1. 敬語がちゃんと使えないようでは、（　）。

 A．しっかり勉強しなさい　C．日本人に聞いたほうがいい

 B．接客の仕事はできない

2. 生物というものは、子孫を残すため（　）、どんなことでもする。

 A．とあれば　B．とすれば　C．として

3. 私は卵アレルギーなので、卵が入っている食品をうっかり口にしたら最後、（　）。

 A．すぐにミスを飲む　B．顔中に赤いぶつぶつができる　C．絶対食べたくない

4. 一日アニメばかり見ているようでは、（　）。

 A．アニメの専門家になれますよ　C．アニメの学校に行くといいですよ

 B．勉強する時間がないでしょう

5. ここでやる気を（　）、彼は再び立ち上がれなくなるだろう。

 A．なくしたら最後　B．なくすとあれば　C．なくすようでは

6. （　）、どんなことでもするんですか。

 A．お金もうけとあれば　B．お金を受けたら最後　C．お金をうけるようでは

7. 生まれたばかりなのに、今から子育てが大変なんて（　）この先やっていけませんよ。

 A．言うようでは　B．言ったら最後　C．言うとあれば

8. 彼は普段はとてもおとなしいが、ひとたび（　）暴れて手がつけられなくなる。

 A．怒ったら最後　B．怒るが早いか　C．怒るようでは

9. 家で楽しく運動（　）、そのゲームの人気が高いのもうなずける。

 A．できるとあれば　B．できたら最後　C．できるようでは

10. あの大臣、あんなひどい発言を（　）辞職に追い込まれるかもしれない。

 A．繰り返したら最後　B．繰り返すようでは　C．繰り返すとあれば
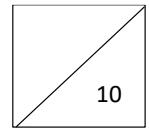
Group: _____

第 4 課：逆説条件表現 文法テスト　　　　　　　　　名前：_____

1. どんなに便利なものだろうと、（　）。

　　　A．要らないものは買いたくない　C．要るものは買う

　　　B．要らないものも買ってしまう

2. たとえ仲のいい友達であれ、今は（　）。

　　　A．誰も信じることが出来ない　C．だれでも信じられるのだ

　　　B．だれでも信じようと思う

3. こんなに給料が安くては、どんなに働いたところで、お金は（　）。

　　　A．たまらない　B．たまらなかった　C．すぐなくなった

4. 今さら（　）、もう遅い。

　　　A．後悔したところで　B．後悔しようが　C．後悔であれ

5. 彼は相手が（　）、敬語を使わない。

　　　A．だれであれ　B．だれであったところだ　C．だれだろうと

6. たとえ（　）、判断ミスには謝罪するべきだ。

　　　A．社長だったところで　B．社長であろうと　C．社長であれ

7. この先何があろうと、（　）。

　　　A．私は心配だ　B．心配するな　C．心配ではないのか

8. （　）相手が偉い人物であろうと、私は記者として真実を新聞に書く。

　　　A．たとえ　B．どんな　C．なにも

9. どんなに（　）、絶対に間に合わないだろう。

　　　A．走ったところだ　B．走ろうと　C．走る

10. どの大学（　）、進学先が決まってほっとした。

　　　A．であれ　B．であろうと　C．だったところで
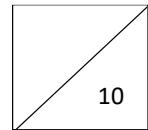
Group: _____

第5課：付随行動表現 文法テスト　　　　　　　　　名前：_____

1. 母は（　）よく音楽を聞いている。

　　　　A．庭仕事かたがた　B．庭仕事をするかたわら　C．庭仕事をしながら

2. 今回のことでは取引先に迷惑をかけてしまった。（　）挨拶に行ってこよう。

　　　　A．おわびがてら　B．おわびのかたがた　C．おわびかたがた

3. （　）神社にお参りしてきた。

　　　　A．花見がてら　B．花見かたがた　C．花見のかたわら

4. 近くまで来ましたので、ご挨拶（　）お伺いしました。

　　　　A．かたがた　B．かたわら　C．ながら

5. 散歩（　）立ち寄った美術館はとてもすいていた。

　　　　A．がてら　B．かたがた　C．かたわら

6. サラさんは日本語を勉強するかたわら、（　）。

　　　　A．日本の文化についても勉強する　C．中国語も勉強する

　　　　B．日本人に英語も教えている

7. では一両日のうち、調査の結果をお知らせ _____、わたしのほうからお訪ねいたします。

　　　　A．かたわら　B．かたがた　C．がてら

8. たかし氏は不動産業を営む _____、暇を見つけては作家活動をしている。

　　　　A．かたわら　B．かたがた　C．がてら

9. 駅前のスーパーまで散歩 _____買い物に行った。

　　　　A．かたわら　B．かたがた　C．がてら

10. 本日は先日のおわび（　）伺いした次第です。

　　　　A．かたわら　B．かたがた　C．がてら

Appendix 5

(Lesson Questionnaire)

第１課：時間関係　　　　　　　　　　　　名前：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

問１．　今日の授業どのくらい理解できましたか。

- a.　10％〜20%理解できました
- b.　30％〜40%理解できました
- c.　50％〜60%理解できました
- d.　70％〜80%理解できました
- e.　90％〜100%理解できました

問２．　時間関係を表す以下の語句のうち、最もよくに理解できるのはどれですか。
（複数回答可）

- a.　〜が早いか
- b.　〜なり
- c.　〜するそばから
- d.　〜どれでもない

問３．　時間関係を表す以下の語句のうち、理解するのが困難だったのはどれですか。
（複数回答可）

- a.　〜が早いか
- b.　〜なり
- c.　〜するそばから
- d.　〜どれでもない

問４．　問３において（d）以外を回答した人にお聞きします。その語句が困難と感じたのはなぜですか？自由に書いてください。また、授業指導に関するコメントがあれば書いてください。日本語でも、英語かマレー語でも構いません。

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第２課：範囲の始まり・限度　　　　　　　　　名前：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

問１．　今日の授業どのくらい理解できましたか。

    a.　10％〜20%理解できました

    b.　30％〜40%理解できました

    c.　50％〜60%理解できました

    d.　70％〜80%理解できました

    e.　90％〜100%理解できました

問２．　範囲の始まりと限度を表す以下の語句のうち、最もよくに理解できるのはどれですか。（複数回答可）

    a.　〜を皮切りにして　　　　　　c.　〜をもって

    b.　〜に至るまで　　　　　　　　d.　〜どれでもない

問３．　範囲の始まりと限度を表す以下の語句のうち、理解するのが困難だったのはどれですか。（複数回答可）

a.　　　〜を皮切りにして　　　　　　c.　　　〜をもって

b.　　　〜に至るまで　　　　　　　　d.　　　〜どれでもない

問４．　問3において（d）以外を回答した人にお聞きします。その語句が困難と感じたのはなぜですか？自由に書いてください。また、授業指導に関するコメントがあれば書いてください。日本語でも、英語かマレー語でも構いません。

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

第３課：条件　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　名前：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

問１．　今日の授業どのくらい理解できましたか。

    a.　10％～20%理解できました

    b.　30％～40%理解できました

    c.　50％～60%理解できました

    d.　70％～80%理解できました

    e.　90％～100%理解できました

問２．　条件を表す以下の語句のうち、最もよくに理解できるのはどれですか。
（複数回答可）

    a.　～とあれば　　　　　　　　c.　～ようでは

    b.　～たら最後　　　　　　　　d.　～どれでもない

問３．　条件を表す以下の語句のうち、理解するのが困難だったのはどれですか。
（複数回答可）

    a.　～とあれば　　　　　　　　c.　～ようでは

    b.　～たら最後　　　　　　　　d.　～どれでもない

問４．　問３において（d）以外を回答した人にお聞きします。その語句が困難と感じたのはなぜですか？自由に書いてください。また、授業指導に関するコメントがあれば書いてください。日本語でも、英語かマレー語でも構いません。

＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

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第４課：逆接条件　　　　　　　　　　　名前：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

問１．　今日の授業どのくらい理解できましたか。

    a.　10%～20%理解できました

    b.　30%～40%理解できました

    c.　50%～60%理解できました

    d.　70%～80%理解できました

    e.　90%～100%理解できました

問２．　逆接条件を表す以下の語句のうち、最もよくに理解できるのはどれですか。
（複数回答可）

    a.　〜（よ）うと（も）　　　　c.　〜たところだ

    b.　〜であれ　　　　　　　　　d.　〜どれでもない

問３．　逆接条件を表す以下の語句のうち、理解するのが困難だったのはどれですか。
（複数回答可）

    a.　〜（よ）うと（も）　　　　c.　〜たところだ

    b.　〜であれ　　　　　　　　　d.　〜どれでもない

問４．　問３において（d）以外を回答した人にお聞きします。その語句が困難と感じたのはなぜですか？自由に書いてください。また、授業指導に関するコメントがあれば書いてください。日本語でも、英語かマレー語でも構いません。

＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

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第５課：付随行動　　　　　　　　　　　　名前：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

問１．　今日の授業どのくらい理解できましたか。

    a.　10％〜20%理解できました

    b.　30％〜40%理解できました

    c.　50％〜60%理解できました

    d.　70％〜80%理解できました

    e.　90％〜100%理解できました

問２．　付随行動を表す以下の語句のうち、最もよくに理解できるのはどれですか。
（複数回答可）

    a.　〜がてら　　　　　　　　　　c.　〜かたわら

    b.　〜かたがた　　　　　　　　　d.　〜どれでもない

問３．　付随行動を表す以下の語句のうち、理解するのが困難だったのはどれですか。
（複数回答可）

    a.　〜がてら　　　　　　　　　　c.　〜かたわら

    b.　〜かたがた　　　　　　　　　d.　〜どれでもない

問４．　問３において（ｄ）以外を回答した人にお聞きします。その語句が困難と感じた
のはなぜですか？自由に書いてください。また、授業指導に関するコメントがあれば書い
てください。日本語でも、英語かマレー語でも構いません。

＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

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Appendix 6

(Pre- and Post-Attitude Survey)

Survey of the Role of OL in a Japanese Language Classroom

_____

Name: Group:

For each of the statements below, please circle a number to indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statement presented.

Item	Scale				
	Strongly Agree	**Agree**	**Neither**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
1. In a Japanese classroom the teacher should know Bahasa Melayu or English	5	4	3	2	1
2. The teacher should use Bahasa Melayu or English during Japanese Class	5	4	3	2	1
3. Students should be allowed to use Bahasa Melayu or English during Japanese Class	5	4	3	2	1
4. It is easier to understand Japanese grammar when the teacher uses Bahasa Melayu or English	5	4	3	2	1
5. It is easier to understand when the teacher uses English or Bahasa Melayu to give instructions in Japanese class.	5	4	3	2	1
6. It is easier to understand when the teacher explains mistakes in Bahasa Melayu or English	5	4	3	2	1
7. Teachers should use Bahasa Melayu or English to explain Japanese grammar.	5	4	3	2	1
8. Teachers should use Bahasa Melayu or English when explaining homework	5	4	3	2	1
9. Teachers should use Bahasa Melayu or English when giving instructions.	5	4	3	2	1
10. Teachers should explain mistakes in Bahasa Melayu or English.	5	4	3	2	1
11. Students should be allowed to talk in Bahasa Melayu or English when talking in pairs or groups.	5	4	3	2	1
12. Students should be allowed to translate a Japanese word to Bahasa Melayu or English to show that they understand.	5	4	3	2	1
13. Students should be allowed to explain what they do or don't understand in Bahasa Melayu or English.	5	4	3	2	1
14. Using Bahasa Melayu or English in Japanese class will increase my motivation to learn	5	4	3	2	1