SELF-DIRECTED AND TEACHER-DIRECTED JAPANESE ESL/EFL ADULT

LEARNERS: A QUALITATIVE CONTENT ANALYSIS STUDY

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A Dissertation

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by

Jason A. Fuqua

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DEDICATION

I began working on this degree many years ago. I never planned to go this far in my education but after a convincing conversation with Dr. Debra Price I decided to pursue my doctoral degree in literacy. I want to thank Dr. Price for all that she has done for me throughout my doctoral degree. I also want to thank Dr. Nancy Votteler for everything she has done for me including throughout my degree courses, comps, and as my chair for my dissertation. I cannot thank her enough for the time she spent emailing, revising, calling, texting, and meeting in person with me throughout this process.

I had several events change in my life throughout my doctoral career. I was married, lost my grandfather and grandmother in-law, changed jobs and cities, and had a beautiful son. Because of this I would like to dedicate this research project to my family. Without their support I would not have been able to carry on throughout the years of the program. Specifically, I want to dedicate this research project to my wife, Tae. She has been with me throughout the entire process while I was away for hours at a time researching, writing, and re-writing pages after pages of material. Everything I do is for my family.

ABSTRACT

Fuqua,Jason A.,*Self-directed and teacher-directed Japanese ESL/EFL adult learners: A Qualitative Content Analysis.* Doctorate of Education (Literacy), August 2020, Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, Texas.

The purpose of this study was to determine if any theories emerged from self-directed learning, teacher-directed learning, or both combined for better possible results in Japanese adult learners. The study examined second language journals, blogs, and websites for 10 consecutive years (2008-2018) to assess the study.

This was a Grounded Theory, Qualitative Content Analysis study. The three data sources included scholarly journals, blogs, and websites from 2008-2018. Three cycles of coding were completed with each data source and the process was repeated with the outcome results from the three data sources inclusively.

The theories that emerged proved a strong relationship between ESL/EFL learning achievement, motivation and self-efficacy in the English language. Those skills include Motivation/Self-efficacy, Autonomous Support, and Learning curriculum, Collaboration, Assessment and Evaluation. The implications from this research study could impact the education of adult Japanese ESL/EFL university students in terms of effective management of both the learning objectives and the mediums of learning.

KEY WORDS: Self-directed, Teacher-directed, ESL/EFL, Writing, Autonomy, Grounded theory, Qualitative content analysis

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I would also like to acknowledge my family throughout this process. My wife, Tae, has been my supporter in this process from my in-class instruction days, out of state and country conferences, through to the dissertation writing process. Without her support I would have not completed this research project.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

In March of 2008 I boarded a plane to Taipei, Taiwan to set off a once in a lifetime adventure exploring Taiwan, learning the Chinese language, and in the process, teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) to students from kindergarten to secondary school. I had a basic knowledge of teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) online in the United States for a website called TutorABC. Due to the time difference, between the United States and Taiwan, I would teach the early morning and late night classes to kindergarten and adult learners before I went to work as a graduate assistant while completing my first master's degree. I enjoyed and learned from the many ESL student experiences I encountered on the TutorABC website.

I had already been to Taiwan several times before to visit friends and was looking forward to the opportunity to live there permanently. After the long flight, I arrived late at night in Taipei and found a taxi that would take me to Taichung, three hours south. I had already secured a job at a private kindergarten before my arrival and was looking forward to working there. One week later I began working as a kindergarten teacher and continued in this profession for two years.

After working for two years at the kindergarten level I strove to move up to the secondary level and teach high school. I received a job at a private college preparatory high school and taught EFL students in Taitung. The students followed an American curriculum and I taught seventh to twelfth graders for my two years there.

I loved my time spent in Taiwan and the memories I gathered there, but found it was time to return home to America. I did not have a job set up for me upon my arrival so

I substituted at a high school in a small southeast Texas town. However, my love for ESL and EFL learners prompted me to continue my learning in a more formal way by obtaining a Master's of education degree in international literacy at a Tier-II university in southeast Texas (U.S. News and World Report, 2015). After graduation I applied to the doctoral program in literacy at the same university and was accepted.

It was at this point that my studies into ESL and EFL literacy and teaching became an obsession. I was also offered a graduate teaching position and taught two TESOL courses to third year pre-teachers for one semester before accepting a job as an ESL teacher at a Tier-II university in southeast Texas (U.S. News and World Report, 2015). I enjoyed teaching adults from many countries grammar, speaking, listening, Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), and writing.

The way that ESL adult students learned was different than the high school EFL students I had taught in Taiwan. The adult's main goals were to learn English for a better major in their home university or a better job position in their home country whereas, the high school EFL students I had taught were learning English for overseas university admittance exams or writing essays to overseas universities admissions offices as reported to me by students in my classes. The adult ESL learners were dedicated to self-directed learning to achieve their goal.

Then I met my future wife who is Japanese and an ESL learner. At the time I met her she was working towards an Associate's degree in Japan and I was teaching as an ESL teacher at a Tier-II university in southeast Texas (U.S. News and World Report, 2015). Her degree program was utilizing a curriculum in English and all the courses were hybrid; where sometimes she was online and sometimes she was in class. We would

communicate by email and Skype daily and discuss, among other things, her coursework, grammar, tense, writing, and editing.

During her coursework I noticed how an adult ESL student persevered through language translation, grammar, tense, writing, and understanding the various aspects of the English language. Her goal as an adult learner was to better her understanding of the English language and to obtain an Associate's degree in business for a better job in the future. Therefore, as an adult learner I noticed her desire and dedication to learning for a better career and future. When she moved to America in 2015 and began going to a university I noticed, in her hybrid classes, she had the same struggles she faced in Japan, but her determination and motivation to persist were profound.

It was at this point in my doctoral career that I began looking into Second Language Acquisition (SLA) studies about adult learners from Japan. I noticed several gaps in the literature and became interested in adding to the field. During this time in my life I also began analyzing Japanese ESL adult learners and their passions toward self-directed and teacher-directed learning both in their home countries and abroad.

Background of the Study

For many years approaches to adult instruction were adapted from lessons applied to children (Houle, 1961; Knowles, 1975, Tough, 1971).Nonetheless, there has always been a tradition of adults being allowed to choose what they want to learn (Beitler, 1997; Brookfield, 1985, 1990; Candy 1991; Plews, 2016). Currently, self-directed and teacher-directed learning are considered in education theory (Knowles, 1975; Knox, 1980, 1986; Merriam & Caffarella, 1991) to co-exist in varying degrees throughout the learner's lifespan.

In today's world, online learning courses at many universities around the world require the learner to be self-directed in their learning. In the United States, The Distance Education State Almanac (2017) indicates, "Students who are taking at least one distance education course comprise 29.7% of all higher education enrollments as of fall 2015" (p.11). Guglielmino, (2008) states a learner who is self-directed, "takes responsibility for his or her own learning, and more often chooses or influences the learning objectives, activities, resources, priorities, and levels of energy expenditure than does the other-directed learner" (p. 2). In today's world self-directed learners are becoming more in need as universities increase online learning courses.

Buitrago, (2017) suggests, "Self-directed learning is a necessary skill for the development of lifelong learning and for learners who want to develop their capacities to construct knowledge autonomously" (p. 141). In determining their learning needs, adults tend to be more self-directed learners in accomplishing their goals (Knowles, 1975). However, adults do not rely simply on themselves to achieve their learning goals. Kerka (1999) maintains that no act of learning can be self-directed, following the idea of the 'collective' and the 'individual' in self-directed learning.

Statement of the Problem

In Japan, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) states that around perhaps 98% of the population studies the English language for at least six years (MEXT, 2011c). However a few of these students actually achieve communicative competence in the English language (MEXT, 2011b). Many non-Indo-European languages such as Japanese have an S (Subject) O (Object) V (Verb) S-O-V word order, whereas English is an S (Subject) V (Verb) O (Object) S-V-O language (Lee

& Kim, 2006). Due to this syntactic complexity, primary and secondary Japanese teachers feel compelled to help students by giving explicit instruction on word order differences between Japanese and English to foster correct syntactic patterns in writing sentences.

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) researches among learners in adult education programs are primarily observational. SLA is focused on moving adults from proficiency in their first language to the ability to function in the second language as full participants in society and on programmatic issues rather than linguistic processes (Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994, Sakai & Takagi, 2009). There are a growing number of immigrants in adult education programs and limited resources and time to provide quality instruction to them (Burt & Keenan, 1998, Grover, Miller, Swearingen &Wood, 2014). Because of this, research with adults in non-academic settings focuses more on programmatic issues and examining profiles and models that can be replicated, looking at how adults manipulate their immediate learning needs rather than how they acquire a second language (Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994; Lalleman, 1996; Yule, 2006).

The body of SLA research conducted indicates a gap regarding work focusing on adults, particularly those in bilingual or multilingual environments (Elllis, 1997; Bialystok, 2001; Diaz, 1983; Schachter, 1998;Mynard, 2017; Sakai & Takagi, 2009; Watanabe and Swain, 2007;Watkins, Curry, and Mynard, 2014; Yule, 2006). The research on adults focuses on populations in post-secondary educational settings. There is little SLA research on adult Japanese language learners in self-directed learning, teacher directed learning, or both combined scenarios (Long, 1990, Sakai & Takagi, 2009). There are currently few solutions to solve this quandary of SLA problems among English as

Second Language learners (ESL) and English as Foreign Language learners (EFL) in adult Japanese learners (Birdsong, 1992; Bongaerts, Van Summeren, Planken, & Schils, 1997; Chomsky, 1986; Sakai & Takagi, 2009).

Purpose of Study

The rationale for the study is that few or no researchers have undertaken a qualitative content analysis of whether self-directed learning, teacher-directed learning, or both combine for better possible results in Japanese adult learners. The study will examine second language journals, blogs, and websites for 10 consecutive years (2008-2018)to assess the study. The purpose of the current research study is to explore whether self-directed learning, teacher-directed learning, or both combine for better possible results in Japanese adult learners.

Research Context

As of the 2017 academic year, there were 84,456 Japanese adult students in U.S. colleges and universities. According to the 2017 report, the number has grown and will grow significantly in the future (Institute of International Education, *Open Doors Report*, 2017). This increasing in Japanese attendance in the U.S. comes often from the perception of American universities as superior to those in their home country. Thus, since Japanese students are neither well-acquainted with the language nor with the American academic writing system, they often make common writing errors (McVeigh, 2004; Schmitt, 1998; Schachter, 1998; Weissberg, 1998).

According to McVeigh (2004), Japanese society has had a controversial relationship with the English language, where some individuals are highly accepting and others are not. Many Japanese develop an antipathy toward English, bred through

preparing for demanding examinations that focus on the intricacies of grammar. Because of this controversial relationship, many Japanese students become averse towards the English language. This aversion is established because of the highly demanding examinations that Japanese student's face that tend to focus on the grammar translation method taught in secondary and university classrooms. Because only English grammar and translation are included on the Japanese university examination, English as taught by the grammar-translation method is considered the most appropriate method to prepare secondary students (Reischauer, 1977, p. 397). Chen (2001) and Cheng (1998),stated little contact is had with the English language outside of the classroom, showing that the language is solely studied as an academic subject required for examinations.

Writing skills are governed by the standard forms found in British or American schools although the references used by the Japanese may be outdated at times. Japanese students are motivated by the need to be able to translate in order to be considered educated adults (using the form of the Japanese university examination of English as the standard) (McVeigh, 2002, 2004). In brief, it could be said that the typical Japanese adult is literate in Standard English but lacks any aural/oral skills in Standard English, or that literacy precedes orality in the acquisition of native-like English as a foreign language for the typical Japanese (Biro, 1991).

Theoretical Framework

The Socio-cultural Theory created by Vygotsky (1978) stresses the interaction between people and the culture in which they live. Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory has been discussed in relation to four aspects of human cognitive development, namely *mind, tools, Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)* and *community of practice*. First, *mind*

extends beyond a person and people and is socially distributed. Vygotsky also adds our mental habits and functioning are dependent upon our interaction and communication with others, which are also affected by our environment, context, and history (Mantero, 2002). The second aspect of cognitive development, *tools*, assists the developing communicative and cognitive functions in moving from the social plane to the psychological plane. Such tools include language; various systems of counting; algebraic symbol systems; works of art; writing; diagrams, maps, and mechanical drawings (Vygotsky, 1978). The third aspect, and the one I chose for this study, is the *Zone of Proximal Development* (ZPD) which includes all of the knowledge and skills that a person cannot yet understand or perform on their own yet, but is capable of learning with guidance (Shabani, Khatib,& Ebadi, 2010, p. 238) Vygotsky (1978) defines the ZPD as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86). Vygotsky (1978) believed that when a learner is in the ZPD, with a little assistance the learner will accomplish the assignment.

Turuk (2008) further states, "It [ZPD] believes that learning in a second language (L2) context should be a collaborative achievement and not an isolated individual's effort where the learner works unassisted and unmediated" (p. 244). The importance of the Socio-cultural Theory to second language learning (SLA) and the EFL as stated by Kao (2010) is based on, "The central concepts of Socio-cultural Theories (e.g., mediation, ZPD, scaffolding and self-regulation) offer[ing] a comprehensive framework to analyze, interpret, and examine the interaction language learners may be involved in while

constructing the language learning processes from multiple angles" (p. 128). Applying the Socio-cultural Theory to adult Japanese writing students would be instrumental in the writing process for students based on these central concepts being applied to their learning. Shabani et al. (2010) posit that the professor's ZPD also is expanded through information from other, "colleagues, researchers in the SLA field, student achievement data, narratives, observation, and pre-service and in-service LTE course rooms" (p. 242). As the students are asked to expand their ZPD, the Japanese writing students also must set new goals and make changes in their careers to expand their ZPDs. The fourth aspect of cognitive development is *community of practice*, where learning a subject domain is viewed as a process of becoming a member of a community of practice. A community of practice is a group of people who are recognized as having a special expertise in some area of significant cultural practice (Nuthall, 1997).

Knowles's (1975) Androgogy Theory can also be applied to the Japanese adult learner. Knowles envisioned that learning was lifelong. The Androgogy Theory presumes that a particular skill might be taught once; however, within a supportive environment, the learner might learn new approaches or methodologies from their fellow learners over time. Even though there is a lot of emphasis on the self-directed learner, the learner cannot exist in a void. They need to be surrounded by other self-directed learners and grouped in a manner that they can learn new perspectives from learners with different, but applicable experiences.

When students from East Asian countries study in Western universities they experience difficulties such as, culture, being away from home, and a different language among several other issues (Chien, 2015; Pecori, 2003, 2008; Sowden, 2005). The learner

ultimately has control of learning through self-directed means however; the instructor needs to create opportunities for the learner to experience growth (Sakai & Takagi, 2009). Knowles's (1975) Andragogy theory reorients adult educators from educating people to helping them learn. The methods used may range from isolated instruction within a curriculum or integrated instruction to encompassing intentional and unintentional learning situations. Perhaps, when students are aware of the reasons why they are making writing errors, then perhaps writing might become less of a problem for the student.

As a doctoral student at a Tier-II university in southeast Texas (U.S. News and World Report, 2015) I taught several writing courses to international students whose first language was not English. As a teacher of writing instruction to international adult students from various countries and learning backgrounds, my most important responsibility was to make sure that everyone was completing the task assigned in the way that I explicitly taught them in class. Students need explicit instruction to learn how to avoid writing errors in their college papers (Chien, 2015; Flowerdew& Li, 2007; Myers, 1998; Norris, 2007; Pennycook, 1996; Sowden, 2005; Yamada, 2003). Modeling writing and guiding students through the steps to avoid writing errors along with applying the strategies that they learned to complete their homework assignments are vital for international students and especially for EFL Japanese writing students to develop their skills (Bialystok, 2001; Larsen-Freeman, & Long, 1991; McVeigh, 2004; Zhou, Busch, & Cumming, 1991, Sakai & Takagi, 2009).

The two theories that I have presented are presumed optimistically to assist Japanese, English as a Foreign Language (EFL) non- academic adult learners with

improving their writing skills. Even so, it is important that students from Japan work with each other and receive explicit instruction from the professor to develop the transfer of correct writing strategies from the professor to the student. It is by these theories that perhaps EFL students can learn not to make writing errors to the extent being shown today.

Methodological Framework

A classical content analysis (Berelson, 1952; Krippendorff, 2004) will be used to determine the most used concepts throughout the data. Thus, I only focused my interest on 10consecutive years (2008-2018)of various Second Language Acquisition journals, blogs, and websites rather than in extending theory or generalizing across cases.

Qualitative Research Questions

The following qualitative research questions will be addressed in this study:

1. What are the theories that are shaping self-directed learning in English instruction as Second Language?

2. What are the theories that are shaping teacher-directed learning in English instruction as Second Language?

Significance of the Study

This study stems from the limited research concerning self-directed EFL adult learners in Japan(Birdsong, 1992; Bongaerts, Van Summeren, Planken, & Schils, 1997; Chomsky, 1986; Grover, Miller, Swearingen,& Wood, 2014).The study will add to the literature and body of knowledge related to the two traditions of Knowles's styles (self-directed learning and teacher-directed learning) research. It should also help promote both theoretical and experiential integration between the two traditions of adult learning.

The findings of the study will possibly help with regards to knowledge about self-directed learning and teacher-directed learning in Japanese adult EFL learners.

Definition of Terms

The terms in this section are directly related to this study and were used throughout thecourse ofmy dissertation. I provide these definitions from Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary (Retrieved August 8, 2018, from http:// merriam-webster.com/dictionary/eastasia)to establish a common understanding between the researcher and the reader.

East Asia: The People's Republic of China, Japan, North Korea, South Korea, Mongolia and Taiwan.

ESL: English as a Second Language: The learner studies English in another country than the one they were born in.

EFL: English as a Foreign Language: The learner studies English in the country they were born in.

Hiragana: The cursive script that is one of two sets of symbols of Japanese syllabic writing.

Katakana: The form of Japanese syllabic writing used especially for scientific terms, official documents, and words adopted from other languages.

NNES: Non-native English speaking/speakers: People who were raised speaking another language other than English and learned English as a second language.

NES: Native English speaking/speakers: People who were raised speaking English as their primary language.

Limitations

Several possible threats to internal and external validity of the findings will be identified. They will be presented as possible limitations to this study in keeping with my pragmatist stance. Threats to the internal credibility and external credibility of the findings stemming from the qualitative component will be discussed below.

Threats to Legitimation

Qualitative phase. Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007a) documented 14 possible threats to *internal credibility* and 12 possible threats to *external credibility* pertaining to qualitative research. These authors defined internal credibility as "the truth value, applicability, consistency, neutrality, dependability, and/or credibility of interpretations and conclusions within the underlying setting or group" (p. 234). Two threats to the internal credibility and external credibility of the findings stemming from the qualitative phase of this research study have been identified: (a) *researcher bias*, (b) *confirmation bias* (Onwuegbuzie, 2003a). The following procedures were followed in an effort to increase credibility: (a) triangulation, (b) complementarity, and (c) development (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007a). Each of these threats to internal credibility and external credibility of the findings are presented in the following sections.

Researcher bias can occur when the researcher's preconceived ideas or biases threaten to interfere with either the researcher's or participants' actions, thereby influencing the outcome of the study (Onwuegbuzie, 2003b). Because I, as the researcher, am considered the "primary instrument" (p. 2) for data collection, analysis, and interpretation in qualitative research, researcher bias cannot be avoided (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2008).

Confirmation bias, which occurs at the data interpretation stage, refers to researchers' predispositions toward producing interpretations and conclusions when analyzing new data that are compatible with preconceived beliefs about the topic under review (Greenwald, Pratkanis, Leippe, & Baumgardner, 1986; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007b).

Organization of Remaining Chapters

The following chapters will detail the extant literature and the method of the study. Chapter II presents a comprehensive literature review of the research literature on The Japanese educational system, Adult second language learners, and acquiring English syntax through writing. The research pertains to the background of self-directed and teacher-directed adult learners in East Asia, the Japanese educational system. Chapter III presents specific information about the method, sampling, data collection, instrumentation, and data analysis. Chapter IV presents the data and findings from the three data sources along with the overarching themes from all three data sources combined to determine the theories that emerged. Chapter V presents the findings from Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners self-directed, teacher-directed or both combined scenarios. This chapter also reveals specific data found in each data source, and how the data sources combine.

CHAPTER II

Review of Literature

The purpose of this literature review is to study current literature of the factors that shape English language education within the Korean, Chinese, and Japanese educational system. Current literature regarding attitudes towards the writing of English in a general context will also be studied, leading to a study within the context of a longitudinal study of an adult Japanese ESL (English as a Second Language) student in a non-academic setting. It is expected that this type of background information will be useful for researchers and educators when attempting to interpret information received from adult Japanese students entering an ESL/EFL (English as a Foreign Language) classroom. As the focus of the literature review is on publicly funded programs for adult Japanese ESL/EFL students, it is limited in that it cannot account for all possible experiences held by adult Japanese students. It is recognized that exceptions to the typical public education process may be extremely important in the initial assessment.

Review of Related Literature

The South Korean Education System

'Copying' and 'summarizing' have been widely used for language learning and teaching in South Korea as a way to incorporate reading and writing, while learning vocabulary, grammar, and sentence organization(Cho, 2006). However, it has a negative connotation in the West as it brings about the idea of plagiarism (Moon, 2002). Also, 'copying' is thought to be an early step of 'summarizing' and a survival strategy which may decrease or disappear as students' proficiency levels increase (Keck, 2006; Moon, 2002; Proschka & Moon, 2004; Shi, 2004; Song, 1998).

Some researchers discuss the different stages of 'summarizing' (Keck, 2006; Proschka & Moon, 2004; Shi, 2004) using slightly different terms from one another for those stages. Keck (2006), for example, places students 'summarized' work into such different stage categories as 'exact copying,' 'near copying,' 'minimal revision paraphrasing,' 'moderate revision paraphrasing,' and 'substantial revision paraphrasing' depending on the degree to which students' summaries rely on a text. The South Korean Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development (2007) indicated that 'copying' is a basic and important writing strategy for low proficiency level students and young children in learning both Korean and English. 'Copying' certain words, phrases, or sentences by consciously and carefully recognizing what is being copied has been encouraged as a tool to teach spelling, vocabulary, and grammar as an early step of the writing process for the beginning level of South Korean students (Park, 2000). The purpose of 'copying' in South Korea is to help students consciously focus on learning writing conventions, vocabulary, and grammar. That is, 'copying' does not hold the negative connotation as it does in Western countries and is purely seen as an exercise for learning a language.

The Basic Education Law, passed in 1949, still provides the core structure of the South Korean education system. Six years of free compulsory education, beginning at age six, is followed by three years of middle school, followed by three years of high school, followed by four years of college. This system, at least through high school, was in place by 1951. The South Korean education system is highly test oriented with the students' score determining what high school and university he/she is accepted to. This places a lot

of pressure on a student to do well on examinations. In reality, even the individual you marry can depend on which high school or university a student is accepted to.

Most Korean universities offer English courses for their students during the first or second year. These courses usually focus on developing either conversation skills or reading skills. The conversation courses are mostly taught by native speakers. Unfortunately, however, the reading courses are mostly taught by teachers who themselves do not have enough teaching background. They simply teach the courses as part-time instructors because they know "more" English. They mostly finished their graduate work specializing in English Language and Literature or in Linguistics, but very few of them actually have taken any English teaching courses (including reading and writing courses) in their undergraduate or graduate programs and simply do not know how to teach reading or writing (Lee, 2000). Thus, the typical practice they provide their students is sentence- by-sentence translation. Given this fact, it would be easy to imagine that the South Korean students, who received formal English instruction mostly through the grammar translation method like the Japanese education system and hence had no summary writing experience in their secondary schools, would still possibly fail to develop appropriate summarization skills during their study at the university.

The Chinese Education System

Chinese higher education has been continually molded and shaped by many factors. One such influential force was a philosophy called Confucianism (Du, 1990). This philosophy had an impact over all aspects of Chinese higher education up until recent decades. Confucius, the creator of Confucianism, tried to make education accessible to students from all social classes and education has been an equalizing force

since then. The civil service examinations were derived from Confucian thought and would lead into the Imperial period. Confucius' teachings and beliefs had an enormous impact on higher education until around 1949, when Chinese education began to shift into more of a modern trend that evolved into what it is today (Du, 1990).

The Imperial period was dominated by early Confucian ideology of educational equality for all. However, the imperial system for testing only benefitted the wealthy as they had the financial means to pay for the learning required to take the exam (Watt, 1970). Training for the exam began as a child and it was expected that every student be prepared to take and pass the exam when their time came (Yu-Wen, 2006).

The Chinese exam-based education system, as described above however, was not to last. By the mid-1800s, the educational elite, believed the system was flawed and did not fit with modern, or westernized globalized thoughts (Elman, 2009). In 1905, the existing civil service exam system was done away with and replaced with a more Western educational system which hoped to follow the American patriotism seen from abroad (Bai, Chi, & Qian, 2014).

In 1977, the new premier Deng Xiaoping established the "Four Modernizations" as a guiding philosophy for education (Liberthal, 1995). Xiaoping spoke out about the need to break away from the Mao's "dogma" and to catch up with more advanced countries in the world. In 1985, he called for all children to attend a compulsory nine-year educational program ((Lan Yu, & Hoi, 2005). This directly followed his move to reinstate the National Higher Educational Entrance Exam, in 1977. It took a year, however for the Ministry of Education to organize a nationally uniform and well-

structured test, which forms the basic cornerstone of the National College entrance exam system used today. The primary purpose of the National College Entrance Examination was to create a system to qualify students for study at Chinese colleges and Universities. Of all the Chinese educational examination processes, the College Entrance Exam is generally the largest and most influential of the designs. As such, passage of this examination is considered socially prestigious. It remains significant today because it is the primary means by which colleges and universities accept academically eligible students. These test scores, and educational preferences are not only relevant within the nation of China but can also be used when applying for international study as well (Wang, 2006). So, if a student does badly on the exam then their future in higher education is possibly over.

Chinese students, who take the National College Entrance Exam generally, feel a great pressure to excel on the test. One possible problem with the National College Entrance Exam system is that it forces children to rely predominately on rote memory. As a result, children are losing the ability to think creatively, or apply critical thinking and problem solving. This has led to a decreased number of creative patents by Chinese citizens and academic plagiarism by academic scholars and students (Bloch, 2001; Pennycook, 1996; Shi, 2006; Sutherland-Smith, 2008, Zhao, 2012).

The Japanese Education System

In Japan, around 98% of the population studies the English language for at least six years (MEXT, 2011c). At this time, few of these students actually achieve communicative competence in the English language (MEXT, 2011b). According to

McVeigh (2004), Japanese society has had a controversial relationship with the English language, where some individuals are highly accepting and others are not. Because of this controversial relationship, many Japanese students become averse towards the English language. This aversion is established because of the highly demanding examinations that Japanese students face that tend to focus on grammar. On the other end of the spectrum, many Japanese students embrace the English language for internationalization purposes. It is possible that these trends can be explained by the fact that the government stipulates that public schools use the grammar translation method. This method was introduced by the nationalist post-war government in order to prevent Japan from being invaded by English, as well as to gather scientific and technical knowledge to enable the country to more effectively compete within the global market.

McVeigh (2004) further argues that foreign language instruction weakness in higher education in Japan may be related to motivation because, in many cases, language is studied solely because it is required by other entities/people. Moreover, further complications occur because, in Japan, the English language is studied as a foreign language (EFL), as opposed to a second language (ESL). As a result, most people have little opportunity or need to use English in their daily life, including in the workplace (Tse, 1995). According to Chen (2001) and Cheng (1998), little contact is had with the English language outside of the classroom, showing that the language is solely studied as an academic subject required for examinations. Because English is seen as an academic subject required for examinations, EFL has been introduced in the lower grade levels.

Butler (2005) stated that many Asian countries, including Japan, have introduced EFL at the elementary school level, as opposed to secondary or post-secondary school

levels, because there is a growing need for the ability to communicate in the English language. However, there are concerns about the ability of elementary school teachers to effectively teach the English language, prompting priorities to be established towards improving the proficiency of these teachers in the English language. Through a self-report, teachers from Japan, Korea, and Taiwan, reported that their English speaking and writing skills (also known as productive skills) were weaker than their English listening and reading skills (also known as receptive skills). The participants also confirmed that there were substantial gaps between the minimum level required to effectively teach English in elementary schools and their actual proficiency in English, where the most significant gaps in proficiency were in productive domains and oral grammar (Butler, 2005). Nonetheless, students in Japanese primary schools are required to take and pass several exams to be accepted to secondary school and college.

In Japan, students take examinations in five course academic subjects in order to gain admission into secondary school and then again to gain admission to post-secondary school. The English language examinations at both levels focus on reading comprehension, grammatical knowledge, and aural comprehension. In 2011, the English language was acknowledged as the *lingua franca* by the Commission on the Development of Foreign Language Proficiency (MEXT, 2011a). According to Burridge and Mulder (2001), *lingua franca* refers to "a medium of communication for people who have different first languages" (p. 303). MEXT (2011a) noted that the Japanese public require smooth communication capabilities with those in different countries and cultures. It was stipulated in the 2003 Action Plan to Cultivate Japanese with English Abilities that all junior high students should have passed the third grade of the Society for Testing

English Proficiency (STEP) prior to graduation. However, in 2011, the Action Plan to Cultivate Japanese with English Abilities stipulated that students must be taught to write and speak in relation to their unique views using the English language at the minimum the third-grade level. MEXT (2011a) noted that "classes must be shifted from lecture style toward student-centered language activities by employing such educational forms as speeches, presentations, debates and discussions" (p. 3). At first glance, the 2003 and 2011 targets appear to be modest. However, the reality is that both targets are problematic. Confirming Butler's (2005) assertion, MEXT (2011a) recognized that most Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs) employed at public schools were educated in this same system, causing many of them to be unconfident regarding their ability to teach the English language. As a result, at an early age, students may learn English through conversation, the internet, and globalization before attending primary school (Stanlaw, 1987).

Stanlaw(1987) recognized that the average six year old Japanese child entering a Tokyo elementary school may have been exposed to hundreds of English words through daily conversations without knowing it. Moreover, the exposure to English words has probably increased as a result of the internet and globalization. Stanlaw (1987) also recognized that there were two types of English extant – Japanized English and the Japanese variety of English. Japanized English is based on English loanwords used by the Japanese. The Japanese variety of English refers to the version used as a second language with foreigners. Research in the field suggests that both varieties are rooted through three lines of linguistic contact that occurs between the Japanese population and the Western population (mostly the United States and the United Kingdom) during the previous

decade. The lines include: (a) pidginization; (b) borrowing; and (c) formal English instruction (Stanlaw, 1987).

Previously, Higa (1973) conducted a sociolinguistic analysis of word borrowing in order to confirm interactions that occur between different cultures, focusing on the English-Japanese interaction. In order to conduct the study, vocabulary surveys of 90 different Japanese magazines published between 1950 and 1956 were examined. Through the analysis, Higa (1973) found that 9.8% of Japanese vocabulary borrowings are derived from the English language (p. 79). Moreover, it was recognized that there are different circumstances that lead to word borrowing, suggesting that word borrowing is not only linguistic, but a cultural behavior, reflecting social and psychological aspects of cultural interactions.

Reischauer and Jensen's (1977) research indicated that Japanese students are influenced by the university exams, which use the English grammar-translation method because it is considered to be the most appropriate method for secondary student preparation. Matsubara (2001) states, "English education in Japan has been grammar-translation centered instruction, as is noted by numerous scholars" (p. 5). Thus, it has been argued that more emphasis needs to be placed on teaching Japanese students to effectively write in the English language. However, the Japanese Ministry of Education has focused on listening and oral communications in English. In the age of the internet, it has been suggested that, instead, the Japanese Ministry of Education would be better served to place emphasis on writing communication studies, because this need is becoming more apparent as technology becomes more advanced and writing – whether by hand, by text, or by a keyboard – is of increasing importance (Matsubara,

2001).Therefore, traditional methods of English language instruction should focus more on communication and not the grammar-translation method (Mext, 2011a).

According to Hu and McKay (2012), traditional English language instruction within the countries of China, Japan, and Korea have focused on gaining knowledge about English, as opposed to gaining communication capabilities. Gilfert, Niwa, and Sugiyama (1999) also recognized the influence the internet has had on globalization and increasing the need for multi-cultural communication that is comprehensible. Moreover, since English is one of the most commonly used languages in the world, making written English a critical skill in business, as well as an important social skill. It has become increasingly apparent that "university students are in a position to be on the cutting edge of acquiring these modern skills" (Gilfert et al., 1999, p. 1). Prior to 1868, Japan was viewed as being an isolated nation – a luxury it cannot afford any longer – making Japanese universities responsible for preparing students to enter society as members that are fully functional and able to communicate effectively. Despite these expectations, there are many Japanese students that face difficulties in meeting these expectations as they are not taught to write effectively in the English language (Gilfert et al., 1999).

As a result, most writing class instruction is based on grammar-translation, as opposed to a tool for communication. Different scholars (Gilfert et al., 1999; Higa, 1973; Hirayanagi, 1998; Matsubara, 2001; Reischauer & Jansen, 1977) have argued there are problems of EFL writing instruction in Asian countries, including Japan. According to Gilfert (1999), the English 'writing' or 'composition' instructional method commonly employed in the junior and senior high schools of Japan involve having students memorize essential English sentence patterns and practice these patterns by translating

Japanese sentences (p. 2). Hirayanagi (1998) took this analysis to a higher level through describing the situation faced by many Japanese college students. This situation of English-level inadequacy is the result of receiving non-communicative, grammar-translation based English language education at the junior and senior high school levels. As a result, many college students have difficulty in producing descriptive and opinion paragraphs in the English language (Hirayanagi, 1998, p. 4). As such, it is unsurprising that many college graduates in Japan have communication problems with English-speaking people, especially in written communications.

Kyodo (2015) reported that, "students in their final year of high school largely fell short of government targets in English proficiency in a recent test and had particular difficulty with speaking and writing" (para. 1). A survey conducted regarding student attitudes towards studying English showed that almost 60% dislike the subject. This survey was conducted with about 480 randomly selected third-year high school students in order to measure their English skills in reading, listening, writing, and speaking. Although approximately 70,000 students took this test, only about 17,000 took the speaking portion (Kyodo, 2015). For each skill section, most "students scored at or below the equivalent of Grade 3 in the Eiken Test in Practical English Proficiency, a widely administered English test carried out by a ministry-backed foundation — 87.2 percent for speaking, 86.5 percent for writing, 75.9 percent for listening and 72.7 percent for reading" (Kyodo, 2015, para. 4). These results are not aligned with the government target, which focused on having at least 50% of high school graduates with an Eiken Grade 2 or pre-2 English proficiency. Out of the 70,000 students, about 29.2% scored zero in writing and out of the 17,000 students, about 13.3% scored zero in speaking. It

was also noted that those students with a lower score were more likely to have a negative attitude towards the subject (Kyodo, 2015).

As Japanese student's progress through primary and secondary school they bring with them the use of English language skills. Nonetheless, the grammar-translation method and early age communication skills learned in primary and secondary school are taught by Japanese-speaking teachers of English that feel unconfident in their capabilities as teachers of the English language (MEXT, 2011a). However, as adult learners, Japanese students conform to learning the English language either as a traditional or non-traditional student in university courses.

Adult Second Language Learners

Biro (1991) studied the factors that shaped the English language education offering within Japanese education, as well as the attitudes held by Japanese learners towards English learning. Generally, the results showed that Japanized English usage is based on group norms. It has also been shown that the order of literacy skills teaching influences the development of the second language. For example, in order to be considered literate, Japanese primary and secondary students learn three writing systems, as well as understand each (Biro, 1991; Butler, 2005; P. Chen, 2001). The three writing systems are: katakana, hiragana, and kanji (Higa, 1973).These influences are more evident in consideration of informal educational systems. During the first year of elementary school, Japanese children are taught *hiragana syllabary*, used for spelling out Japanese words and are introduced to *katakana syllabary*, used in loan words. Loan words are words borrowed from another language with little or no translation needed such as in Japanese; typhoon (meaning wind) is an English loan word. Through these two

syllabaries, students are taught tools to distinguish major classes of words – Japanese words and loan words – on a visual plane, not an auditory plane (Biro, 1991). However, as noted by Biro (1991), there are few English speakers in Japan, showing that there is little motivation to develop educational reform for the development of spoken English usage, especially among adults. Until the advancement of technology that has led to the inter-connected world, the culture of the Japanese ESL/EFL student was deemed to be one where the student valued written English, as opposed to Japanized English (Biro, 1991; Takahashi, 1997).

It is assumed by many students, including adult learners, that it is the responsibility of the teacher to educate them, tell them the information needed, and/or give the correct answers. Students have been taught to be passive in the learning process, instead believing that their role is to listen to the lessons and to learn the information in the most effective way or verbatim. As a result, many students accept everything read as accuracy and factual information, even when the students are sure the authors are speaking in broad generalizations (Baitinger, 2005). This passivity is possibly caused, in part, by lack of confidence held by students, impacting how information is absorbed. At the same time, a major component of the problems experienced by students in learning is fear of embarrassment and/or humiliation in the classroom surrounded by peers. Because of these barriers, many students are unable to effectively embrace and/or share experiences/knowledge acquired during the growth process. Educators, however, are responsible for finding creative ways to engage students, as well as encourage them to be active participants in the learning process because there are many different types of learners in the classroom (Baitinger, 2005).

According to Macdonald (2018), in higher education, there are two types of students: (1) traditional: enter college right after graduating high school and (2) non-traditional: "be at least 25 years old, attend school part-time, work full-time, be a veteran, have children, wait at least one year after high school before entering college, have a GED instead of a high school diploma, being a first-generation student (FGS), are enrolled in non degree programs, or have reentered a college program" (p. 159).The role attached to traditional students is to learn full-time, where the educational setting is the normal social role, where these roles are not based on positions of power. Non-traditional students, on the other hand, have not initiated/completed education. Many of these learners have interrupted their education, which can be critical because this interruption enables non-traditional students to engage in other social roles (Baitinger, 2005). The primary distinguishing difference between traditional and non-traditional students is that traditional student's study about living life and non-traditional students are actually living life. Thus, non-traditional students recognize that they do not have to be there if the class is unpleasant. As such, when teaching non-traditional students, the learner must come first and viewed as 'right,' as opposed to the subject, as when teaching traditional students. In order to accommodate these viewpoints, when teaching non-traditional students, teachers must shift teaching paradigms so that they are learner-centered, as opposed to teacher-centered (Baitinger, 2005).

Within the past 5 years, there have been two major trends associated with adult education. These trends are based on the belief that adult learners lack needed skills for success in the workplace and have limited opportunities to acquire the needed skills. Today's workers must be able to "understand complex processes, be problem solvers,

have some degree of computer literacy, and attain fluency in professional English"
(Fernandez, Peyton, & Schaetzel, 2017, p. 5). This is true even in minimum wage jobs,
where technology is used, and workers are expected to be independent thinkers and have
the ability to solve problems. As a result, it is expected that today's workers have "high
level language skills, critical thinking skills, and confidence"(Fernandez et al., 2017, p.
5). As a result, adult education courses need to focus on developing these skills in their
students. This need is addressed by the College and Career Readiness Standards (CCRS)
through shifting the curricula to what is needed to be prepared to conduct these tasks in
the workplace, as well as address complex learning tasks, such as the production of
academic language, complex writing, and learning from text. In order to complete these
learning tasks, writing is essential, especially as face-to-face communication is no longer
sufficient when entering the workforce. Effective professional and academic
communication requires written communication. As such, the resultant trend shows that
"adult learners who lack fluency in academic English enroll in university and community
college courses in order to gain work force skills but do not complete their degrees"
(Fernandez et al., 2017, p. 5).

Chen (2001) investigated college EFL learner attitude changes in relation to
American culture exposure through a constructivist computer-assisted language learning
environment. The study consisted of 29 college freshmen in Northern Taiwan and was
based on both quantitative and qualitative research methods. The quantitative results
indicated that college EFL students had positive attitudes regarding American cultural
learning and the learning styles (both traditional and the computer-assisted language
learning environment). There was little change in their attitudes towards cultural learning

and learning styles. However, it was noted that the participants had more confidence in self-exploration of American culture, as well as in discussion with peers and American e-pals (Chen, 2001). It was also found that the more participation held in computer-assisted language learning environments, the greater importance associated with understanding the different communication styles of Americans, as opposed to their own, as well as the importance of learning how/why the behavior of Americans is different from their own. Moreover, greater participation in the computer-assisted language learning environment led to the decreased strength in the belief that Internet-obtained information was highly influential in understanding American culture, as well as decreased preference for exploring American culture through online sources. The findings of Chen (2001) contradicted prior studies, leading to suggestions that it would be beneficial to review the computer-assisted language learning environment cultural studies. Qualitative results also suggested that participants had positive perceptions of the computer-assisted language learning environment, allowing the learners to be transformed from passive receivers to active knowledge explorers. Further growth occurred in relation to one-way thinkers to multiple concept thinkers and believers to inquirers. Finally, Chen (2001) found that anxieties held at the beginning of the computer-assisted language learning environment regarding posting ideas that may differ from their peers disappeared through increased immersion in the environment.

Watanabe and Swain (2007) looked at synergistic exchange between adult ESL students of various second language L2 proficiency levels. Collective exchange is discourse in which speakers are occupied with critical thinking and information building. This idea was developed from the yield speculation which was based on data preparing

structure of learning. Notwithstanding, sociocultural theory enabled the researchers to move past yield (i.e. talking and composing) as a negligible message to be passed on, to cooperative exchange – an instrument of intellectual action that intercedes L2 learning. Various investigations have indicated peer–peer collective exchange to be a vital part of L2 learning. However, a few examinations have discovered that the examples of connection change crosswise over associate gatherings, and, significantly, certain examples of collaboration are asserted to be more helpful for L2 learning than those of others. Capability contrasts have been discussed as one of the powerful factors in the idea of peer–peer connection. Despite the fact that peer– peer connection including distinctive capability students is usually seen in a L2 classroom, shockingly little research has archived how students with various capability levels communicate with each other, and whether such a group is valuable for L2 learning (Watanabe & Swain, 2007).

Students learn through instructing, and more capable students are probably going to profit from working with less capable peers. Yet, it is unclear as to whether or not less capable students genuinely gain an advantage from getting more capable students' assistance as they may not be formatively prepared to talk about some phonetic issues. Despite the fact that the part of cooperation including L2 students has been enormously discussed in the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) writing for more than two decades, a significant part of the exploration concentrated vigorously on quantitative records of phonetic conduct with nearly no consideration regarding the socially developed nature of association(Watanabe & Swain, 2007). Swain, Brooks, and Tocelli-Beller (2002), consider LREs, "to be, as any part of the dialogue where learners talk about the language they produced, and reflect on their language use" (p. 292). The center high combines

delivered a more noteworthy recurrence of LREs than that of the center low combines. This is concurrent with the past examinations that as the general capability of the match expanded; students delivered a more noteworthy recurrence of LREs. Since a few researchers concurred that LREs speak to L2 learning in advance, this could propose that the center members profited more from working with their higher capability accomplice. Notwithstanding, the pattern showed that the center members accomplished by and large higher post-test scores when working with their lower capability accomplices than their higher capability partner (Watanabe & Swain, 2007).

The center members adapted increasingly when working with lower capability peers than higher capability peers, proposing that there is unquestionably value for more capable understudies to be matched with less capable peers. This prompted the understanding of impacts of examples of combine collaboration on LREs and post-test scores. Regarding LREs, Watanabe and Swain (2007) found that the sets with a community introduction (community oriented and master/fledgling) delivered more LREs than the sets with anon-community introduction (overwhelming/aloof and master/uninvolved). This confirmed the discovery regarding the recurrence of LREs that the center high sets delivered by and large more LREs than that of the center low matches. One might address whether this is because of capability contrast or an example of association. The sets who created the most (n = 41) and the minimum LREs (n = 1) were in certainty both center low combines. In addition, the combine with the most LREs was observed to be the community-oriented match while the combine with the slightest LREs was a non-shared, master/detached match. Given this, the examples of association

as opposed to capability contrasts appeared to have a more essential impact on the recurrence of LREs (Watanabe & Swain, 2007).

With respect to the post-test scores, Watanabe and Swain (2007) found both of the match individuals accomplished higher post-test scores when they occupied with the community design of connection, though both accomplished lower scores when they occupied with the predominant/detached or master/uninvolved examples. Given these discoveries, the distinction in the center members' post-test scores after the center low and enter high associations were more probable inferable from the distinction in designs of association as opposed to their accomplices' capability levels. That is, capability contrast in sets does not really influence the idea of companion help and L2 learning. It is imperative to note, in any case, that the capability distinction may make an alternate example of connection. Watanabe and Swain's (2007) discoveries showed that when an extensive capability contrast exists inside a couple, just the shared example of connection may be helpful for L2 learning for the two students. In the master/fledgling sets, just the master appeared to profit by their collaboration. Nonetheless, the specialists in the master/fledgling sets accomplished three of the most elevated post-test scores. Given that these master accomplices had more chances to give help to their beginner accomplices, this gives solid confirmation that understudies can undoubtedly learn from the demonstration of instructing different companions. On account of the master/fledgling sets with an expansive capability contrast, the less capable amateur students appeared to experience issues disguising all the data originating from the more capable master peers (Watanabe & Swain, 2007). Therefore, it may have been troublesome for less capable fledgling members to change the reformulated things. It is likewise conceivable that less

capable amateur members had fewer chances to clarify dialect issues to their companions amid their collaboration, and subsequently made it troublesome for them to recollect these dialect issues in their post-test. It may likewise be identified with the fledgling students' full of feeling angles. Since peer–peer learning includes forceful feelings that can impact its result, it is possible that they may have felt compelled or scared to work with the more capable student who went about as the master. Regardless, it is critical to take note of that our translation depends on a little example and that singular contrasts additionally should be considered (Watanabe & Swain, 2007).

Generally speaking, Watanabe and Swain (2007) found that companions of various capability levels could profit from working with each other, which underpins the past peer–peer learning research. This demonstrates that social intercession comes not just from a specialist, for example, educators yet in addition from peers, and even from less capable peers. Along these lines, SLA specialists and educators ought to be mindful so as not to accept that gathering distinctive capability peers is less helpful for L2 learning. Nonetheless, information likewise recommended that gathering distinctive capability students is helpful for L2 realizing when they are community. In this way, it is essential to consider the example of connection and how these designs shape. From an examination viewpoint, this investigation affirmed the significance of considering peer–peer community oriented discourse as a middle person of L2 learning(Watanabe & Swain, 2007). The connection between the students' post-test scores and their examples of communication features how L2 learning happens in connection, not because of connection. The examination underpins the claim that synergistic discourse is a valuable unit of investigation to investigate the procedure and result of L2 learning, which goes

past yield. In spite of the fact that this investigation included a little example estimate and was led in a controlled research setting for a brief timeframe, we trust that it gives knowledge into the conflicting nature of peer–peer shared discourse and its significance to L2 learning (Watanabe & Swain, 2007).

Japanese adult learners have technology as another outlet to learn writing. With the use of computer technology and online writing programs adult learners have the tools at their fingertips to correct grammar and spelling errors. Although the future in writing is becoming increasingly online, paper and pencil tests or handwritten work is still an important factor in the Japanese adult learners English writing skills (Mills & Kennedy, 2013).

Acquiring English Syntax through Writing

Increasing numbers of students utilize computers and mobile devices. However, those in Japan are still focusing on pen-and-paper tasks as opposed to digital tasks. A common reason given is the difficulty of learning the Japanese writing system, suggesting that when technology is being used, the ability to recall the characters required in writing diminishes, increasing the dependency on technology (Mills & Kennedy, 2013). Because of this concern, many parents and educators limit technology usage in educational tasks. These technological concerns are transferable to EFL. Despite the assertion that two of the most significant barriers to written language production fluency – correct spelling anxiety and grammar confidence levels – can be limited/reduced through the use of word processing systems, these systems are not commonly used in Japanese schools. Moreover, "there does not seem to be a viable reason why students should not be allowed to use computer technology for the composition of writings in

English" (Mills & Kennedy, 2013, p. 317). According to Chapelle and Jamieson (2008), there is high importance of writing because writing forces the writer to focus on the language being produced and the act of writing in an ESL/EFL context forces the writer to become aware of the gaps in knowledge of the language. Mills and Kennedy (2013) agree with Chapelle and Jamieson's (2008) assertion that the use of technology is beneficial in the learning process, yet may also lead to setbacks caused by a lack of confidence when learners become aware of failings.

More recently, computer-based writing has replaced handwriting as a written communication mode, not only in business, but also for personal use for many countries. Because of the many advantages of technology, it is unsurprising that there is a widespread use and acceptance of writing using computer technology. According to MacArthur (1988), word processing software is beneficial because the revision process can be facilitated through the ease in modifying text, as well as using tools for spelling and grammar. Most programs have thesaurus functions, saving time and allow users to focus on the process, as opposed to writing mechanics. For EFL/ESL learners, these tools are highly beneficial because they obtain immediate feedback and are given the opportunity to revise errors (Chapelle & Jamieson, 2008; MacArthur, 1988).According to Swain, Doughty, and Williams (1998), in times of student engagement in activities where they are afforded with opportunities to both identify and fix problems with writing, there is improvement in language ability. Burston (2001) and Liou (1991) noted that the ability to write in a foreign language improved through the use of error correction software. Wolfe, Bolton, Feltovich, and Niday (1996), found that students are more likely to write longer texts using computers. Lee (2002), however, acknowledged that this does not

mean that the quality is higher. Yet, it was recognized that there is immense value in utilizing computer programs to facilitate writing because of the ease of error correction (Cheng, 1998; Harris, 1985).

Dalton, Morocco, and Neale (1988) conducted a study to determine how to teach 4th grade students computer skills required to use the computer as a fluent writing tool. The study focused on determining what word processing skills were needed, as well as well as which were most difficult to learn and the most effective way to teach these skills. The study was conducted through weekly observations of writing sessions across four separate classrooms with both normally learning and learning-disabled students. These observations were supplemented with ongoing discussions with the teachers of the classes. Preliminary findings in the study show that word processing skills may be out of grasp for students of this age, yet it is recognized that this is not always the case. The research by Dalton et al. (1988) did confirm there are problems associated with not only acquiring word processing skills, but also identifies factors that contribute to these difficulties, such as " (1) simultaneous attention to writing and word processing; (2) interference of keyboarding problems; (3) lack of systematic monitoring and follow-up; (4) premature teaching of advanced editing skills; (5) teacher inexperience with computer software and management; (6) software weaknesses; and (7) a research artifact (requiring students to save each day's work)" (p. 1).

An examination analyzed the impact of word preparing on the amount and sort of planning done by writers. Subjects included 10 experienced writers and 10 students, composed papers with pen and paper, word processing alone, and a mix of word processing and pen and paper. All students were knowledgeable about computers. The

subjects' verbally process conventions and planning notes were investigated. Results showed that: (1) there was less planning with word processing; (2) there was less reasonable planning and more consecutive planning with word processing; (3) the impacts of composing media were comparative for both experienced and student writers; and (4) there were tremendous contrasts in how writers utilize word processing and pen and paper together (Haas, 1988).

Computer-based testing has increased in prominence, is progressively being executed all over the United States, and will probably turn into the essential mode for conveying tests in the future. In spite of the fact that computer-based testing offers numerous favorable circumstances over conventional paper-and-pencil testing, evaluation specialists, scientists, experts, and clients have communicated concerns about the similarity of scores between the two test organization modes. A meta-examination was directed to incorporate the organization mode impacts of computer-based testing and paper-and-pencil tests on K-12 student reading evaluations. Discoveries demonstrate that the organization mode had no factual impact on K-12 student reading accomplishment scores. Four arbitrator factors – design, test estimate, computer conveyance calculation, and computer activity – made for measurably commitments to foreseeing impact measure. Three arbitrator factors – review level, kind of test, and computer conveyance technique – did not influence the distinctions in reading scores between test modes (Shudong Wang, Hong Jiao, Young, Brooks, & Olson, 2008).

The method of organization impacts revealed here and in past examinations feature confusion that exam testing programs must overcome as they continue using tests containing open-ended questions to make conclusions about student and school

accomplishment. To diminish the method of organization impact, state testing projects ought to consider giving students the ability to choose the mode by which open-ended responses are created. For the past decade, the Province of Alberta has utilized this procedure for its graduation testing program. In the course of recent years, the territory has seen the level of students deciding to complete the English, Social Studies, Biology and French tests on computers increase from 6.7% during 1996 to 24.5% during 2000(Russell & Plati, 2001).

Snyder (1993) researched the effect of word processors on students' composition by inspecting three basic components of the written work: composing setting, process and product. Utilizing a pretest-posttest control group plan, the examination compared about two Year eight classes, one utilizing pens for forming and the other utilizing computers, inside the setting of an all-girls school. A noteworthy accentuation of the examination was the computer's effect on the nature of writings, speaking to three classifications, which the understudies created over a school year. The discoveries proposed that the computer classroom was more student focused, less educator diminished and more work-centered, and the atmosphere was cooperative and synergistic. Students' making practices differed by the class of the assignment as opposed to as indicated by the impact of the composition device(Snyder, 1993).

Summary

In chapter two the reader was informed how English language education within the Japanese educational system affects ESL/EFL students throughout primary and secondary schools. I also informed the reader how the current literature: Acquiring

English Syntax through Writing, Adult Second Language Learners, and Education in Japan viewed attitudes towards the writing of English in a general context was studied.

Chapter three will focus on providing an overview of the grounded theory methodology and how a content analysis allows for an improved understanding of the theories guiding self-directed learning and teacher-directed learning of ESL/EFL Japanese adult learners. The second portion of the chapter provides a restatement of the research problem and questions and is followed by the methodological framework. Third, information is presented regarding grounded theory. This is followed by a brief review of the theoretical framework that framed the study as a whole. Information will also be presented regarding data collection, such as the role of the researcher, the description of the data set, and procedures for data collection. Information will be presented regarding data recording and analysis procedures, followed by the presentation of information regarding the data presentation in the present study. The final chapter relates and provides discussions of trustworthiness and ethical concerns.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

The current project is framed upon an introduction of adult English as a Second Language learner (ESL) learning through self-directed learning and teacher-directed learning and how these types of learning styles (either individually or combined) yield better results for Japanese adult learners. Additionally, this study is framed upon the understanding of how different languages (namely English and Japanese) impact the learning ability of adult learners. McVeigh (2004), for example, argued that Japanese society has held a long-standing controversial relationship with the English language, where some individuals are accepting of the language and others are not accepting of the language. In fact, many Japanese students have developed a dislike towards the English language due to the rigorous examinations focusing on the intricacies of grammar required in secondary and university classrooms. Moreover, only grammar and translation are included on the examination, so the most appropriate preparation is the grammar-translation method for these students and, as a result of the animosity against the English language, Chen (2001) and Cheng (1998) noted most students have little contact with the English language outside of the classroom, suggesting that the English language is only studied as an academic subject required for examinations.

The focus of this chapter is to provide an overview of the grounded theory methodology and how a content analysis allows for an improved understanding of the theories guiding self-directed learning and teacher-directed learning of ESL/EFL Japanese adult learners. The second portion of the chapter provides a restatement of the research problem and questions and is followed by the methodological framework.Third,

information is presented regarding grounded theory. This is followed by a brief review of the theoretical framework that framed the study as a whole. Information will be presented regarding data collection, such as the role of the researcher, the description of the data set, and procedures for data collection. Information is presented regarding data recording and analysis procedures, followed by the presentation of information regarding the data presentation in the present study. The final two major sections are related and provide discussions of trustworthiness and ethical concerns.

Literature Review Themes/Analysis and Methodology

Theme identification will occur through conducting an analysis of abstracts and summaries, then I will code the most relevant themes obtained from the transcription. Coding will be conducted using qualitative analysis software – QDA Miner Version 4.1 and WordStat Version 7.0.12. Through the use of these programs, themes will be coded allowing for a classical content and keywords-in-context analysis of the transcript.

QDA Miner Version 4.1 has a modern interface with unique features. Prior versions of the software had four text-search tools, whereas the newest version has six text-search tools, which are based on information retrieval techniques and machine learning. The software also considered geotagging dimensions, finding that time was a missing dimension, which allows researchers to extract coded segments that match a specific time period or geographic location (Provalis Software, 2018a). With the new software version, project access is easier through the storing of all projects in a single file, code statistics can now be exported, and documents can be imported. Moreover, the types of documents that can be analyzed have increased to include database (such as XML) and Microsoft Excel and ASCII files. File names can be used to extract important

documents based on different variables for analysis purposes, allowing for improved section retrieval, as well as the ability to search data located in tables. Codebooks can be separated into individual files, allowing for easier management. At the same time, code marks are more easily rendered, which allows for advanced analysis showing code co-occurrence and similarity in cases (Provalis Software, 2018a). Therefore, this software is beneficial because it allows for advanced analysis of literature and increased coding options.

WordStat Version 7.0.12 allows for faster structured/unstructured information comparison and validation of text categorization. This software is unique because it has topic extraction tool, which is developed using factor analysis, allowing for faster extraction of topics. A new feature was added to this version of the software, allowing the analysis to be linked based on co-occurrence of data based on geographic information. At the time, names can be extracted for data analysis purposes (Provalis Software, 2018b). The technology in this software has become more advanced, allowing for miss-spellings and unknown words to be handled in a more efficient way. Moreover, the proximity rules associated with analysis (now allowing for four conditions) are more advanced. Especially important in relation to this study is the feature of WordStat Version 7.0.12 that allows for stemming in 18 languages (Provalis Software, 2018b). Other features are primarily associated with advanced technology and improvement of existing features. The use of this software is beneficial for the analysis of literature because it further advances coding options.

Research Problem and Questions

The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) stated that about 98% of the population studies the English language for a minimum of six years (MEXT, 2011b). Few achieve competency (MEXT, 2011a), mostly due to the difference in word order, where Japanese has a S (Subject) O (Object) V (Verb) S-O-V word order and English has a S (Subject) V (Verb) O (Object) S-V-O word order(Lee & Kim, 2006). Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research is typically observational and is focused on moving adults from first language proficiency to second language functionality as full participants in society (Bialystok &Hakuta, 1994). Because of the increasing number of immigrants in adult education programs and the limited resources for these students (Burt & Keenan, 1998; Grover, Miller, Swearingen,&Wood, 2014), most research with adults in non-academic settings focus more on programmatic issues and examining those profiles/models that can be replicated to examine how adults manipulate their immediate learning needs, as opposed to how a second language is acquired (Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994), suggesting that there is a gap in SLA research focusing on adults, particularly in bilingual or multilingual environments (Bialystok, 2001) and very little SLA research regarding adult Japanese language learners in self-directed learning, teacher-directed learning, or combined scenarios (Fenwick & Tennant, 2004; Sakai & Takagi, 2009). The following qualitative research questions will be addressed in this study:

1. What are the theories that are shaping self-directed learning in English instruction as Second Language?

2. What are the theories that are shaping teacher-directed learning in English

    instruction as Second Language?

Methodological Framework

Methodologies, such as, grounded theory allow researchers to systematically

analyze qualitative data related to teacher-directed, student-directed, and combined

learning for SLA. Grounded theory methods are beneficial because they include

systematic guidelines that fluctuate during the qualitative data collection and analysis

procedures. As data is collected and analyzed, themes emerging from the data are sorted

for theory development purposes, where the theory emerges from comparative methods

of data collection analysis. Grounded theory, then is important in this context because it

provides opportunities for researchers to consider their own observations while gathering

data (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Glaser and Strauss (1967) studied death and dying, prompting them to refocus

qualitative inquiry for analysis purposes. In this context, Glaser and Strauss (1967)

studied death in different United States hospitals, looking at how/when professionals and

patients became aware of imminent death and how the diagnosis was handled. Glaser and

Strauss (1967) were able to develop methodological strategies through the process of

constructing their analysis of death. Moreover, Glaser and Strauss (1967) advocated the

development of theories grounded in qualitative data, as opposed to deducing testable

hypotheses from theories already in existence. It was proposed by Glaser and Strauss

(1967) that theory could be generated as a result of systematic qualitative analysis.

Grounded theory is an investigation procedure which works inductively, rather

than the hypothetic-deductive philosophy. An examination using grounded theory tends

to begin with a question or with qualitative data collection. As researchers review the data assembled, repeated ideas, thoughts or elements end up self-evident, and are named with codes, which have been extracted from the data. As more data is accumulated, and re-examined, codes can be amassed into thoughts, and then categorized (Ralph, Birks, & Chapman, 2015).These characterizations may transform into the purpose behind new theory. Therefore, grounded theory is not equivalent to the traditional model of research where the researcher uses an existing theoretical structure and accumulates data to show how the theory impacts the phenomena under study (Mills, Bonner, & Francis, 2006).

As a general methodology, grounded theory is a mentality about contemplating and conceptualizing data. It revolves around the examinations of diverse populations. Approximately two decades after its inception, sociologists and researchers exhibited some gratefulness for grounded theory in perspective of its unequivocal and productive conceptualization of the speculation. The pivotal occasion for this theory came after the works of Glaser and Strauss (1967) regarding death. This helped the theory to expand some vitality in medical fields. From its beginnings in prosperity, the grounded theory methodology has come to undeniable quality in a diverse range of fields including education (Mills et al., 2006).

Grounded theory combines traditions associated with the sciences, positivism, and meaningful interactions. Ralph et. al. (2015) considered grounded theory to be methodologically interesting. Glaser's training in positivism enabled him to engage in abstract response coding, whereas Strauss' training in dynamism enabled him to engage in specific response coding based on the environment. Thus, Strauss saw the significance and luxury of emotional research concerning social methods and the multifaceted idea of

open action, Glaser saw the deliberate examination trademark in quantitative research

through line by line examination, trailed by the period of codes, classes, and properties

(Aldiabat & Navenec, 2011). According to Glaser (1992), the arrangement of grounded

theory is to take the illustration of significance in social relationship on board and study

the interrelationship between significance in the impression of the subjects and their

action. Therefore, through the noteworthiness of pictures, individuals translate their

world and the performing specialists who coordinate with them, while grounded theory

deciphers and finds new understandings of people's practices that are delivered from the

centrality of pictures. Symbolic interactionism is seen as a champion among the most

basic theories to have affected grounded speculation, according to it understanding the

world by decoding human relationships through the use of pictures and/or language

(Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The primary task of the grounded researcher is to obtain results

regarding the socially-shared inferences that shapes the practices and realities of the

individuals under study (Glaser, 2008).

Procedures for Grounded Theory

Subjective research is regularly overwhelming to a researcher, particularly to new

researchers, who must make sense of how to deal with, and decipher most of the data

sources. The explanation for picking grounded theory is to consider confirmation of the

internal components in the chief period of data amassing. At the point when the internal

variables have been determined, essential data will be extracted to examine and group the

results (Ralph et al., 2015). The internal factor will be used through the creation of theory

that is most applicable to the social group within the study. The grounded theory

methodology is inductive and the researcher will perceive components that are clearly

related to the internal factor. The goal of the researcher is to create a theory using the data that clears up of the mystery around the phenomena, as well as the segments related to the coding process to the study (Lauridsen & Higginbottom, 2014). Within a grounded theory study, the researcher should have an open-minded viewpoint, which will enable precedents of the data to emerge. In this sense, the researcher should be certain of the data collected. Other than briefly reviewing the aspects of coding, the researcher will not know what results will emerge from the data. The themes and the middle components should ascend as the examination progresses (Ralph et al., 2015).

A grounded theory study goes past figure and predisposition to the essential methods of the miracles being pondered. Furthermore, delimitation will check presumptions to cover what truly occurs in the field of coding and traditional instruction, and rather be open and empower precedents to ascend out of the data. The reasoning behind grounded theory has been for the development of another theory, instead of compelling the data to be molded within a current theory. The key idea is that the theory conveyed is grounded in the data and reveals information into social associations and practices. The researcher must discard past viewpoints relating to the subject in order to enable the new theory to emerge from the results (Ralph et al., 2015).

Grounded theory research is composed of eight components. First, it is necessary to simultaneously assemble the data and separate the data for the creation of theory. Second, constructing insightful codes and points from data, not from individuals, suspicions and thoughts. Third, the authority will review 13different Second Language Acquisition (SLA) journals, blogs and websites from 2008-2018for basic declarations. Fourth, implementing the unfaltering close strategy by making examinations in the midst

of each period of examination. Fifth, there must be constant progress for the enhancement of theory in the midst of changes in data results and the study of the data. Sixth, through consistent updates, the researcher must stop and separate considerations that emerging through the data through the selected coding strategy. Seventh, applying speculative testing that is pointed towards theory advancement. Eighth, conducting the composition overview after the self-ruling examination (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Through the creation of another theory, the researcher bases the foundation of the new theory on how participants associate with the phenomena being analyzed and is based on coding activities. Grounded theory empowers the expert to ground the examination in the data in a procedure that any theory made is self-evident. Grounded theory recommends that the expert should attempt to appreciate what the data appears, rather than trying to control the data to fit into a particular existing theory. Data collection and analysis vary across different research studies (Dingwall, Murphy, Watson, Greatbatch, & Parker, 1998).

In grounded theory, the examination of the data is a trade between the researcher and the data. The use of grounded theory is versatile in light of the way that the researcher can vary the comprehension of data reliant on creating or developed examinations as conditions change, or as additional data is broken down. Glaser's (1992) comparable methodology for grounded theory empowers the investigator to execute diverse systems for data examination that are capable, and productive without convincing the data into a pre-chosen condition. Glaser and Strauss (1967) express that the theory must fit the situation being examined, and work when put into use.

Grounded theory has stability as an examination method, since it does not endeavor to constrain one-sided insights and musings on the obtained data, which is collected from a specific social gathering. This inductive method requires persistently investigating data to choose the accompanying testing. This involves theoretical research because the rising data and subjects choose future data gathering. The use of memoing as an establishment in grounded speculation inspect is to exemplify quality and the affirmation when inundation of the sources has been perceived. Observations are the mortar that hold together the building squares (data) that include a grounded theory research (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Role of the Researcher

The role of the researcher will involve the completion of a thorough classical content analysis and the development of a grounded theory for the relationship between learning types. Open coding, themes, and structures within data will be sorted and analyzed.

Description of Data Sources

The participants for the current study included the 13 SLA journals being researched from 2008-2018. The methods used to locate the 13 SLA journals for this particular research comprises of the terms I searched in the databases, the number of articles that appeared, the databases I used, and the system of selecting the articles I chose for this study. The terms I will enter into the several databases used will be, *self-directed Japanese learners*, *self-directed adult Japanese learners*, *teacher-directed Japanese adult learners*, *EFL self-directed learners*, *ESL self-directed learners*, *SLA self-directed learners*, and *SLA teacher-directed learners*.

Several of the first terms used will be expanded upon when reading through the literature and searching the various databases. The databases I will use are ERIC (Education Resource Information Clearinghouse), GoogleScholar, PsycINFO, JSTOR, EBSCO (Elton B. Stephens Co.) and PsycARTICLES.

The SLA journal *Science Direct* for SLA titled, *System*, had a variety of articles on learner autonomy, self-directed and teacher-directed learning. A copy of the *Proceedings of the Independent Learning Conference (2003)* detailed thoughts on many second language students including Japanese. Among the 13 SLA journals researched, the journal, *Studies in Self-Access Learning Journal* (SiSAL) had among the best journal articles on self-directed and teacher-directed learning among Japanese adult students. *Elsevier, Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), Innovation in Language Learning and Technology, International Journal for Educational Media and Technology, Interactive Learning Environment,* and *the Journal of Interpretation* are among the 13 SLA journals that will be analyzed for this study.

This study will be focused on whether self-directed learning, teacher-directed learning, or both combine for better possible results in non-academic Japanese adult learners. Thus, I only focused my interest on ten consecutive years (2008-2018) of the 13 various SLA journals.

The study will also focus on blogs and websites for ten consecutive years (2008-2018) relating to self-directed or teacher-directed adult Japanese learners. I will search websites and blogs for ten consecutive years (2008-2018). My selection process for the websites will consist of examining the content, date, and author/s while looking for terms

associated only with university level ESL, EFL, self-directed and teacher-directed, Japanese, adults.

After searching for and then analyzing the SLA journal articles, blogs, and websites for ESL, EFL, self-directed and teacher-directed, Japanese, adults for ten years (2008-2018) it was evident that only the SLA journal articles were relevant to use for this study. The blogs and websites over the ten year period (2008-2018) did not have sufficient evidence to support the study. However, it was necessary to attempt to triangulate the findings by searching for SLA journals, blogs and websites over the ten year period (2008-2018) for the study.

Procedures for Data Collection

While gathering data for this examination, the researcher will scrutinize 13 SLA journals articles, blogs and websites looking at different locations. Databases will be filtered interminably for articles related to the topics of coding as a capability, reimaging the activity of advancement in preparing, the association among coding and making, effects of development on training aptitudes, computational thinking, and models which consolidate the subject of SLA.

Data Recording/Analysis Procedures

Qualitative analysis techniques will consist of the use of constant comparison analysis in order to generate a theory or set of themes (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) using QDA Miner Version 4.1 (Provalis Research, 2015a) and WordStat Version 7.0.12 (Provalis Research, 2015b). Per work conducted by Berelson (1952), a classical content analysis will be conducted in order to determine what concepts are most used throughout the data.

Constas (1992) suggests that three components must be included in category development procedures. The first component is origination; the second is verification; and the third is nomination. Category origination can occur from participants, data interpretation, literature review, the investigation itself, or programmatic language. Category verification can occur through the ways that the researcher verifies that the emergent themes exist. Category nomination can occur through how the different categories are named (Constas, 1992). The categories will be created by the researcher based on the emergent themes and sub-themes. Major themes will be verbal and non-verbal. When the data is initially analyzed, it will be divided into these two groups, and then divided into sub-themes based on similarities. Non-verbal themes will be divided into language form and language in context.

Topical examination is used in qualitative research and spotlights on dissecting subjects inside data. This methodology complements affiliation and rich depiction of the educational accumulation. Topical examination goes past simply including articulations or words a substance and continues ahead to recognize certain and unequivocal contemplations inside the data. Coding is the fundamental methodology for making subjects inside the rough data by seeing basic minutes in the data and encoding it going before interpretation. The interpretation of these codes can fuse differentiating point frequencies, perceiving point co-occasion, and graphically indicating associations between different themes. Most researchers see topical examination as a particularly accommodating system in getting the complexities of essentialness inside a data set (Creswell, 2014).

There is a wide range concerning what an enlightening accumulation includes. Compositions can keep running from a single word response to an open-completed request or as unusual as a collection of thousands of pages. As a result, data analysis strategies will likely change based on the initial data assessment. Most researchers analyze interviews or focus groups that can be 2-hours in length, leading to many pages of interpreted data per respondent. Moreover, it should be considered that multifaceted nature in an examination can move as shown by different data types (Glaser, 2008).

Topical examination takes supporting verifications with data from grounded theory. This work is proposed to create theories that are grounded in the data themselves. This is insightful in topical examination in light of the way that the technique involves scrutinizing transcripts, perceiving possible subjects, investigating subjects, and building theoretical models (Glaser, 2008).

Topical examination is also related to phenomenology in that it revolves around the human experience subjectively. This system complements the individuals' perceptions, feelings and experiences as the foremost challenge of study. Established through humanistic research, phenomenology offers a key way to conduct qualitative research based on the experiences of people. This empowers the respondents to discuss the subject in their own special words, free of prerequisites from fixed responses, which is commonly used in quantitative studies (Glaser, 2008).

Like most research methodologies, this system of data examination can occur in two basic ways—inductively or deductively. In an inductive technique, the subjects recognized are immovably associated with the data since doubts are data driven. This suggests the route toward coding occurs without endeavoring to fit the data into a past

model or edge. It is crucial to observe that all through this inductive strategy, it is not plausible for the experts to free themselves from their theoretical epistemological obligations. Deductive systems, on the other hand, are speculation driven. This kind of examination will have fewer descriptions because it is confined to preconceived notions. The result will as a rule focus on a few specific parts of the data that were settled before data examination. The choice between these two techniques generally depends upon the researchers' epistemologies (Fram, 2013).

The fundamental stage in topical examination is for experts to adjust themselves with the data. Prior to scrutinizing the gathering transcripts, experts may make a "start list" of potential codes. These start codes should be joined into a reflexivity journal with a delineation of depictions of each code and where the code is established. Analyzing data functioning will help researchers in chasing down suggestions and models in the instructive file (Glaser, 2008). At this stage, it is luring to skirt, or disregard, the data; regardless, this will help experts in recognizing possible points and precedents. Scrutinizing and re-examining the material until the point that the expert is pleasing is imperative to the hidden time of examination. While getting settled with the material, note-taking is an important part of this process in creating potential codes (Smart & Igo, 2010).

After this stage, the researcher should have the ability to recognize clear models or reiterating issues in no less than one gatherings. These precedents should be recorded in a reflexivity journal where they will be helpful when coding and checking for precision. Following the fulfillment of the elucidation strategy the researcher's most imperative task is to begin to get order over the data. Presently, it is basic to check data

that he/she watches out for the examination question. This is the beginning of the coding process (McLachlin, Larson, & Khan, 2009).

The second step in the topical examination is making a hidden review of things from the enlightening list that have a reoccurring plan. This conscious strategy for dealing with, and expanding huge parts of data as it relates to the investigation question is called coding (Guest, 2012). The coding strategy is created in the inductive study and is not considered as a linear process; yet is a cyclical process in which codes rise all through the investigation system. This repetitive methodology incorporates reviewing prior processes during the data examination as required until the point the researcher is satisfied with the final themes. Researchers guiding topical examination should try to go past surface ramifications of the data to fathom the data and relate a correct story of what the data means (Glaser, 2008).

The coding system is rarely completed on the first pass through data. Each time, experts should attempt to refine codes by including, subtracting, combining or part potential codes. Start codes are made using terminology used by individuals in the midst of the group and can be used as a sort of point of view reason for their experiences in the midst of the gathering. Steadiness increases when the master uses strong codes that rely upon talk and are undeniable in nature (Given, 2008). These codes will urge the researcher's ability to discover bits of data later and perceive why they included them. Starting coding sets the stage for point by point examination later by empowering the researcher to redo the data as shown by the considerations that have been gained all through the technique. Reflexivity journal sections for new codes fill in as a sort of viewpoint point to the part and their data territory, reminding the researcher to appreciate

why and where they will consolidate these start codes in the last analysis (Helfert, 2008). Throughout the coding system, full and proportional thought ought to be paid to each data point since it will help in the distinctive verification of unnoticed repeated structures. Coding for numerous themes and for the individual data components may appear to be insignificant, yet may be possibly be critical later in the examination process (Helfert, 2008).

Coding moreover incorporates the system of data abatement and disarray. Decline of codes is begun by doling out names or names to the instructive gathering reliant on the investigation question(s). In this stage, solidifying immense instructive files into smaller unit's permits empower examination of the data by making profitable groupings. Coding helps the researcher develops themes and understanding how the data changes these themes and re-conceptualizes the data for the analysis of more results. Researchers should make requests related to the data and deliver hypotheses from the data, extending past what has been heretofore declared in past research(Glaser, 2008).

Coding can be thought of as strategies for abatement of data or data revisions. Using fundamental anyway far reaching descriptive codes it is possible to diminish the data to a more sensible achievement. In this period of data examination, the inspector must focus on the distinctive verification of a more essential technique for dealing with data. Using data reductionism experts should join a technique of requesting the data works which could include: field notes, converse with transcripts, or diverse files. Data at this stage are reduced to classes or characterizations in which the researcher can recognize segments of the data that share a run of the mill arrangement or code(Guest, 2012). There are three diverse approaches to help with the method of data diminishing

and coding: (a) seeing relevant miracles, (b) gathering points of reference of the wonders, and (c) dismembering wonders to find resemblances, differences, plans, and overlying structures. This piece of data amassing is basic in light of the way that in the midst of this stage researchers should join codes to the data to empower the expert to consider the data in different ways(Archibald, Radil, Xiaozhou, & Hanson, 2015). Coding cannot be viewed solely as a data reduction because data complication can be used to explore the data further (Helfert, 2008).

The path of creating codes can be delineated as data reduction and data complication. Data complication can be depicted as going past the data and making request about the data to make structures and hypotheses. The entrapment of data is used to create data to make new request and clarification of the data. Examiners ought to confirm that the coding methodology does not lose a bigger number of information than is gained. Data multifaceted nature has been described as the system of reconceptualizing the data giving new settings for the data parcels. Data complication is a context for giving new procedures to the way in which data is seen and analyzed(Creswell, 2014).

Coding is a system of isolating data through analytical courses and with the ultimate objective to convey request in regards to the data, giving short lived answers about associations inside and among the data. Decontextualizing and recontextualizing help to diminish and expand the data in new courses with new theories. Checking for themes and considering what works and what does not work inside points enables the researcher to begin the examination of potential codes. In this stage, it is basic to begin by first looking at how codes join to outline over-accomplishing subjects in the data. Presently, experts have a specific list of themes, enabling them to begin to base broad

models on these themes, combining coded data with proposed subjects. Examiners moreover begin considering how associations are confined among codes and themes and between different levels of existing subjects. It may be valuable to use visual models to sort codes into the potential themes(Creswell, 2014).

Themes differ from codes because themes refer to phrases or entire sentences that identify the meaning of the data. Moreover, themes are used to describe a coding outcome for analytic reflection. Essentially, themes are composed of both ideas and descriptions found within a culture, which may be used to explain the outcomes that are derived from the stories of the participants (Helfert, 2008). It is important to narrow down the potential themes to develop a broad theme. This type of analysis allows for the emergence of categories or themes that represent repetitive ideas, indigenous terms, analogies, metaphors, topic shifts, and similarities/differences in linguistic expression. Moreover, it is important to address the information that exists and missing from the data, enabling many potential themes to be collected. It is also important to not discard themes that may appear insignificant, because it may be found that they are significant later in the analysis (Ralph et al., 2015).

When reviewing themes, the researcher searches for data that supports or refutes the proposed theory that has been developed, allowing for further expansion of and revision of themes. This process allows the researcher to establish a set of potential themes for inclusion in the final product because this process allows for a reworking of initial themes. Therefore, there may be instances where themes are combined, expanded, or eliminated (Guest, 2012). This process involves two levels of the refinement of and review of themes. Overlapping themes may be connected, which may yield an important

information source, alerting the researcher to the possibility of emerging patterns or issues within the data. If there are deviations from the codes, it may signify that the code does not actually exist. Essentially, codes are critical in this type of analysis because they enable data to be related to the conception of the phenomena of interest, where codes should represent interesting aspects and why/how they fit together (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Studying coded data extractions empowers researchers to perceive whether subjects outline balanced precedents. If subjects do not shape clear precedents, thoughts of the possibly problematic should be considered and determining whether data does not fit into the theme. If points are problematic, it is indispensable to modify the subject and in the midst of the technique, recognizing confirmation of new points may emerge. For example, it is problematic when points do not appear to work or a great deal of overlap between subjects exists. This can result in a weak or unconvincing examination of the data. If this occurs, data may need to be recognized with the true objective to create cohesive themes (Guest, 2012).

Considering the authenticity of individual subjects and how they connect with the data is imperative. It is fundamental to assess whether the potential topical guide accurately reflects the suggestions in the instructive list with the ultimate objective to give a correct depiction of individuals' experiences. It is important to examine and re-read the data to choose whether current themes relate back to the instructive accumulation. To help in this technique it is essential to code any additional items, which the themes may have been missed before in the fundamental coding stage. Mismatches among data and indicative cases lessen the proportion of support that can be given by the data. This can

be avoided if the researcher is certain that their clarifications of the data and

demonstrative examination correspond (Guest & MacQueen, 2012).

Describing and refining existing themes that will be displayed in the study helps

the researcher in separating the data within each subject. At this stage, unmistakable

confirmation of the points' epitomes relates to how every specific subject impacts the

entire picture of the data. Examination at this stage is depicted by recognizing which

parts of data are being gotten, what is interesting about the subjects, and why themes are

intriguing(Guest, 2012).With the true objective to recognize whether current points

contain sub-subjects and to discover advance significance of subjects, it is important to

consider themes within the whole picture and moreover as self-decision subjects.

Researcher should then lead and form a point by direct examination toward recognize the

record of every theme and its significance (Creswell, 2014). By the complete of this

stage, researchers can (1) portray what flow subjects contain, and (2) elucidate every

point in several sentences. Note that pros begin considering names for points that will

give the reader a full sentiment of the theme and its importance. Failure to totally separate

the data happens when researchers do not use the data to help their examination past the

substance. Researchers driving topical examination should try to go past surface

ramifications of the data to appreciate the data and describe a correct story of what the

data means (Guest, 2012).

After existing themes have been investigated, researchers begin the path toward

forming the final document. While creating the final document, researchers should pick

points that make contributions to the phenomena of interest by taking note of research

delivers which should be refined later as convincing subjects. Researchers present the

dialogue related with each subject in help of extending consistency through a thorough portrayal of the results. The goal of this stage is to form the topical examination to pass on the convoluted story of the data in a way that convinces the reader of the authenticity of the results. The audit of the report should contain enough confirmation that subjects inside the data are appropriate to the data set. Extracts should be fused into the record to get the full understanding of the included themes. The argument should be in support of the investigation question (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Data Presentation

The study will be conducted using a classical content analysis (Berelson, 1952). The researcher will examine several SLA journals, blogs and websites for ten consecutive years (2008-2018). The qualitative analysis software programs are QDA Miner Version 4.1 (Provalis Research, 2015a) and WordStat Version 7.0.12 (Provalis Research, 2015b), which will enable the researcher to code the text. These programs are used to enable the researcher to examine the text for themes and connections through domain, taxonomic, and componential analyses. The data examination will increase the researcher's understanding of the text being observed and analyzed (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2008).

Trustworthiness

Guba and Lincoln (1989)argued that there are five authenticity criteria for the improvement of the study legitimization. The first is fairness, representing the degree of value the researcher has for the evaluation process (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). The second is ontological authenticity, representing the increase in knowledge (considered through information and awareness) attained by the participant (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). The third is educative authenticity, representing the increase in personal understanding attained by

those involved within the interview process (both participant and researcher(s)) (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). The fourth is catalytic authenticity, representing the extent of facilitation and stimulation of actions by the participants (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). The fifth is tactical authenticity, representing the ability of participants (through empowerment) to act on the results and gain understanding from the study (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). This study focuses on ontological authenticity because new knowledge is gained, allowing for implementation in future actions by the participants.

Ethical Concerns

Ethical concerns revolve around the accuracy of the secondary data. It is assumed that prior researchers observed ethical standards when collecting their data and that the data results are trustworthy. It is also assumed that participants used for the studies being used for the present study were treated ethically and all protocols were observed.

Chapter Summary

This study is to explore whether self-directed learning, teacher-directed learning, or both combine for better possible results in Japanese adult learners. If there are relationships between the different types of SLA learning. This study is conducted as a qualitative study based on grounded theory. The present study will utilize secondary data sources of 13 SLA journals, blogs and websites resulting in a comprehensive analysis of the phenomena of interest across different locations, emphasizing Japanese learners in an SLA setting. The grounded theory is being used because it will allow for the development of new theories based on the data results, as opposed to the consideration of how theories influence the data. The next chapter contains the results.

CHAPTER IV

Analysis of Data

The primary purpose of this study was to determine what theories might emerge around the topics of self-directed, teacher-directed or both combined for Japanese ESL/EFL adult language learners. The research on adults focuses on populations in post-secondary educational settings. There is little Secondary Language Acquisition (SLA) research on adult Japanese language learners in self-directed learning, teacher directed learning, or both combined scenarios (Long, 1990, Sakai & Takagi, 2009). There are currently few solutions to solve this quandary of SLA problems among English as Second Language learners (ESL) and English as Foreign Language learners (EFL) in adult Japanese learners (Birdsong, 1992; Chapelle and Jamieson, 2008;Chomsky, 1986; Grover, Miller, Swearingen & Wood, 2014;Hu and McKay, 2012; Kyodo, 2015;Lammons, 2013; Matsubara, 2001; McVeigh, 2002, 2004; MEXT, 2011a, 2011b, 2011c; Mynard, 2017; Sakai & Takagi, 2009; Watanabe and Swain, 2007;Watkins, Curry, and Mynard, 2014;Yule, 2006).

This chapter presents the data and findings from the three data sources; (a) 13 scholarly journals and 29 articles, (b) zero websites, and (c) one blog. This chapter contains the findings from each of the 29 journal articles, the zero website, and the one blog analyzed. After reviewing the data from each source, I summarized the composite findings from that source. To summarize all three data sources, I combined and filtered the overarching themes from all three data sources combined to determine the theories that emerged. These findings are explained in Chapter 5. This chapter reports the findings from Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners self-directed, teacher-directed or both combined

scenarios. This chapter also reveals specific data found in each data source, and how the data sources combine.

Data Analysis of Data Source 1: Scholarly Journals

Cycle 1: Sample selection journals

I analyzed 13 scholarly journals which researched self-directed, teacher-directed, or both combined for Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners. For the years 2008-2018, I collected the table of contents for every issue included in each journal of the 13 identified: (a) *SISAL,* (b) *International Journal of Self-directed learning,* (c) *Computer Assisted Language Learning,* (d) *Innovation in language learning and technology,* (e) *Modern Language Journal,* (f)*Journal of educational and social research,* (g) *International Journal of Educational Technology and Applied Linguistics,* (h) *Journal of Adult Education,* (i)*, TESOL Quarterly (j)Language Teaching Research,(k) Journal of educational and social research (l)Academic Research International, and (m) A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas*. I reviewed the table of contents for entries that included: (a) self-directed learning, (b) teacher-directed learning, and (c) or a combination of both. Out of 5,178journal articles, only 118 of those articles from the years 2008-2018 referenced literacy as it relates to self-directed learning, teacher-directed learning, or both combined for Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners. The results of the initial journal search for articles are as follows: *SISAL*, N=2,972 ; *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, N=493, *Innovation in language learning and technology*, N=453, *Modern Language Journal*, N=448,*Journal of educational and social research,* N=194, *International Journal of Self-directed learning*, N=188,*International Journal of Educational Technology and Applied Linguistics*, N=163, *Journal of Adult Education,*

N=94,*TESOL Quarterly,* N=89*, Language Teaching Research, N=56, Academic*

Research International, N=38, and A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and

Ideas, N=*28*.During my review of all of these scholarly journals, I uncovered the fact that

many of the journals covered the topic of self-directed learning over teacher-directed or

combined for both for Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners. My focused research topic and

questions revolved around how self-directed, teacher-directed or both combined for better

results in Japanese adult ESL/EFLlearners and their abilities to write and orally

communicate in English. In order to answer my research questions, I needed to find the

alignment of the two.

  Cycle 2: Journal article selection

  I initially analyzed13 journals, however, it was determined that four of the

journals yielded the greatest number of articles with the identified key words: these four

journals included: a) *SISAL*, N=77; (b) *Computer Assisted Language Learning* N=19; (c)

Innovation in language learning and technology, N=15; (d) and *Modern Language*

Journal, N=7. Within these four journals, I found the most articles related to myself-

directed, teacher-directed or both combined. My intentions behind selecting the four

journals were to examine the journals that contained the most articles related to the

specific terms that I identified for my research. For the purpose of this research, I only

wanted to include articles that focused on Japanese adult ESL/EFL self-directed, teacher-

directed or both combined for better learning. By selecting these four journals, I

completed the second cycle of coding. The specific number of articles with each code

word identified is labeled in Table A1, Appendix A. The table refers to the first journals

identified in the study.

After identifying the four journals, I created a matrix and catalogued all the articles included between the years of 2008-2018 and coded using the terms: (a) self-directed learning, (b) self-access learning,(c) teacher-directed learning, and (d) language. The following journals did not have enough relevant articles to include in the remainder of the coding cycles and were not included in the analysis: (a) *International Journal of Self-directed learning,* N=14;(b) *Journal of educational and social research,* N=11; (c) *International Journal of Educational Technology and Applied Linguistics,* N=8; (d) *Journal of Adult Education,* N=7; (e)*, TESOL Quarterly,* N=7; *(f) Language Teaching Research,* N=5; *(g) Journal of educational and social research,* N=4; *(h)Academic Research International,* N=4; *and (i) A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas,* N=3. It was within the other two top journals that I found a significant number of articles to review. The journals titled *SISAL* included N=77 and *Computer Assisted Language Learning* N=19. In total for my Qualitative Content Analysis, I identified 29 scholarly articles. By completing this process and identifying the scholarly journals and articles for Data Source 1, I narrowed down my sample selection. I determined my sample selection of articles by cataloging the number of code words that were included in each of the 29 articles. The code words identified are motivation, technology use, accessibility, collaborative learning, curriculum, and assessment and evaluation. I then limited the 13 journals to four that related the closest to my topic of self-directed, teacher-directed, or both combined for adult ESL/EFL Japanese learners. As I narrowed the selection of articles, I looked specifically for articles with a direct connection to Japanese adult ESL/EFL self-directed, teacher-directed or a combination of both.

Cycle 3: Individual Journal Analysis

Analysis procedures of scholarly journals. After the selected articles were identified, I conduced the third cycle and identified 29 individual articles that were read in detail. Each article was then read for significant statements. For the purpose of this study the significant statements refer to the identification of statements within the data source that signify important points related to the topic of adult Japanese adult ESL/EFL self-directed and teacher-directed or both combined for learning. Secondly, I identified 'clusters of meaning' within the body of the article that related to my topic of research. For the purpose of this study, clusters of meaning refer to the identification of a group of words that are related to the research topic. Thirdly, I collected, sorted, and discovered the emerging theories from the clusters of meaning statements that answered my overarching question. Table 1 in Appendix A shows the list of 13 journal articles along with the number of clusters of meanings associated with the main themes.

Journal 1: Studies in Self-Access Learning (SiSAL) Journal

This journal had the highest number of words, clusters, and themes referencing the words self-directed learning, teacher-directed learning, and Japanese EFL/ESL, (N=77). The overriding theme in the *SiSAL Journal* is the promotion of autonomous learning. Most studies in this journal evaluated various interventions and programs for promoting self-directed learning. One such initiative was the use of mobile libraries, which are physical buses or vans contained with books taken to parts of a city or rural area for people to utilize, to enhance autonomous extensive reading for a group of Japanese EFL learners. Table B1 in Appendix B shows the list of 9 articles that were coded for significant words, clusters, and themes. Mobile learning, motivation of

learners, and enhancing assessment and evaluation, improvement of curriculum for self-directed learning are some of the core themes in the articles published in this journal. For instance, Morrison (2011) implemented the exam-focused flexible self-directed learning modules (FSDLMs) program for students at Kanda University. The program incorporated learners' diagnosis, clear goal setting, self-evaluation, and individualized learning plan aimed at promoting self-access learning. In general, the examination of articles in the *SiSAL Journal* led to the identification of 13 themes. However, a synthesis of the themes within the context of Japanese EFL/ESL learners led to a discovery of four cluster themes.

Cluster Themes for Journal 1

*Accessibility***.** The accessibility of materials or platforms for autonomous learning was the most common cluster of meaning (N=17) for journals extracted from the *SiSAL Journal.* Most studies examined in this study acknowledged the importance of accessibility in promotion of self-directed learning. In their study, Cheetham et al. (2017) evaluated the ways of enhancing accessibility of self-learning resources. This was viewed as being beneficial in promoting the freedom of the students to select learning materials and take charge of their learning. Accessibility in this study was enhanced through the provision of a mobile library to a sample of 2,075 Japanese students and a subsequent survey of 755 EFL students. The mobile library was found to be highly effective in helping students to engage in extensive reading and develop autonomous reading skills. In another study, Kimura (2014) assessed the role of a self-access center in promoting learner autonomy. Kimura (2014) analyzed self-learning at women's university in Japan that had set up a self-access center (SAC). The study involved a group of students

studying English in Japan. The focus of the investigation was to determine the students'

learning experiences and the motivations for coming to the SAC. The study revealed that

a self-access center (SAC) was beneficial in proving opportunities for developing and

maintaining a learner community. The SAC provided the physical space for learning

where students could spend time comfortably while interacting with their peers, teachers,

and counselors. Thus, the center helped to improve accessibility for self-directed

learning.

Collaborative learning. The theme of space for collaborative learning was also

common in the five articles analyzed. The articles that explored this topic were informed

by the potential beneficial role of the social dimension of self-directed learning. To

promote self-directed learning, these articles concluded that the learning environment

should have capacity for collaborative learning. In one study, Nakai (2016) examined

how learners at a Japanese language institution used Facebook to create and organize

learning activities. In this case, Facebook created a learning space outside the classroom.

Nakai (2016) noted that one of the effective strategies of encouraging collaborative

learning is creating learning activities organized around the leaner's experiences,

emotions, and needs. In a previous study, Murray (2014) examined the social dimensions

of self-directed learning. Using data from an ethnographic inquiry of Japanese English

language learners, Murray (2014) demonstrated that creation of space for collaborative

learning helped to encourage social interaction and dialogue. The study concluded that

the social process of self-directed learning is essential in learning effectiveness.

Moreover, Kimura (2014) has demonstrated that a well-functioning learner community is

useful to learner autonomy. In the study, collaborative learning was noted as a key

component of students learning experiences. Students using a self-access center (SAC)

benefited from mutual peer support and social engagements. For instance, they worked

together on homework and assignments at the SAC. Thus, collaboration and social

processes are important components of self-access learning.

     Curriculum. The theme of self-access curriculum recurred throughout the

thematic review process for SISAL Journal. Several articles (N=6) examined the

processes of curriculum development and evaluation for self-directed learning. For

example, Lammons (2013) identified the principles of establishing a self-access

curriculum. These principles were identified as content and sequencing, assessment, and

effective evaluation. In their study, Watkins, Curry, and Mynard (2014) piloted and

evaluated a self-directed learning curriculum, which they found to produce positive

students on learner autonomy. Mynard, (2017) traced the evolution of a curriculum for a

self-access learning center (SALC) at Japan's Kanda University of International Studies.

The curriculum contained freshman orientation modules, language learning modules, in-

class workshops, posters, social media, leaflets, and delivery through a module app. The

curriculum was attributed to the success of self-access learning at the institution.

     Assessment and Evaluation. The terms assessment and evaluation occurred

several times (N=19) in the *SiSAL Journal.* Researchers generally found assessment and

evaluation an integral component of self-directed learning. An example was the study by

Morrison (2011) who reviewed the process of exam preparation for self-directed learning

modules. The assessment was guided by the principles of self-evaluation, identification

of learners' strengths and weaknesses, and clear setting of goals. In a later study, Noguchi

(2014) found these practices to be useful in assessment and evaluation of self-directed

learning. The study by Noguchi (2014) sought to evaluate self-directed learning skills in SALC modules. The author noted the importance of self-reflection, fairness, and transparency in assessment and evaluation.

Journal 2: *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*

Four articles were read in the *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching* journal focusing on the pedagogies and methodologies of language learning and teaching. In this journal, four articles were coded for significant clusters, words, and themes. Table C1 in Appendix C shows the list of themes and clusters of meanings derived from the journal.

Cluster Themes for Journal 2

Self-efficacy. Developing and promoting self-efficacy among learners was the most common cluster of meaning extracted from the *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching* journal (N=4). Mizumoto (2013) described self-efficacy as the belief in one's capacity for organizing and managing courses of actions needed to manage situations. In an examination of a sample of 303 EFL leaner's Mizumoto established that self-regulated learning was positively associated with self-efficacy and vocabulary knowledge improvement. The focus of these studies was on the association between self-directed learning and self-efficacy, where positive relationships were observed. Research supports a beneficial role of self-efficacy on learning outcomes through improvement in learning attitudes and behavior (Ueki and Takeuchi, 2013). Thus, self-efficacy is an important concept in self-directed learning.

Motivation. Closely related to the theme of self-efficacy was motivation. The articles reviewed (N=4) from the *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching* journal

identified learners' motivation as a prerequisite for self-directed learning. In their study, Fukuda, Sakata, and Pope (2017) examined how self-coaching skills would help to improve the intrinsic motivation of Japanese EFL learners. The research article established a beneficial role of self-coaching skills development on intrinsic motivation, reduction in procrastination, and improvement in self-regulated learning skills. The findings mirrored those of a previous study by Ueki and Takeuchi (2013) who demonstrated a beneficial role of developing learners' motivation on autonomous learning. In their study, Ueki and Takeuchi analyzed the impact of the L2 motivational self-system on a group of Japanese EFL learners. The motivational system was seen as favorable to the developing of a clear ideal self-image among learners. The improvement in learners' motivation was also shown to improve learning behaviors, learning attitudes, and self-efficacy.

Autonomy Support. The theme of support for learners emerged in a few cases (N=5). In a recent study, McEown and Sugita-McEown (2019) examined the role of individual, teacher, and parental support on self-regulated learning. The study involved a survey of 212 Japanese students pursuing English language courses at the undergraduate level. Support for autonomy learning from teachers and parents was shown to be positively associated with self-directed learning. Individual factors such as goal orientations were also shown to influence self-regulated learning processes. It is noteworthy that the authors found parental and teacher support as necessary in sustaining individual support factors. In a different study, Mizumoto (2013) demonstrated the beneficial roles of individual support factors such as goal setting and strategy use in self-directed learning.

Journal 3: Computer Assisted Language Learning

A review of articles (N=19) in the *Computer Assisted Language Learning* journal revealed a strong focus on language learning, teaching, and testing systems. I read articles on second language acquisition, design and development of language courseware, learning management systems, curriculum development, learner assessment and evaluation, and general use of technology in language learning. I coded two articles that were most relevant to the topic of self-directed language learning. The list of these articles along with the associated clusters of meanings and themes are shown in table D1 of Appendix D. The themes of technology use and learner motivation emerged frequently in the journal.

Cluster Themes for Journal 3

Technology use. Investigating the use of technology in promoting self-directed learning (N=10) was the most common cluster of meaning in the journal. For example, one study by Lai, Shum, and Tian (2016) investigated the potential for enhancing the use of technology in self-directed language learning. Their study evaluated the effectiveness of an online training platform on a group of undergraduate students following 12 weeks of training. A survey of students' responses revealed that the training program was effective in promoting the use of technology in self-directed learning. Tsai (2019) has further acknowledged the usefulness of computer-assisted technology in self-directed language learning.

Learner Motivation. The motivation of learners for self-directed language learning formed the second largest theme (N=5) in the *Computer Assisted Language Learning* journal. In a 2011 article, Ushioda examined the theoretical perspectives of

language learning motivation. The analysis revealed that the internal domains of self and identity was essential in promoting the interests, identities, and motivation of learners. Students' sense of identity and their relationship to the social world were shown to be important in determining learner motivation for learning English as a second language. In a later study, Lai, Shum, and Tian (2016) noted the importance of motivation in development of a training program to enhance use of technology in self-directed learning.

  Collaborative learning. The theme of collaborative learning was identified in several articles reviewed (N=4) in the journal *Computer Assisted Language Learning* (N=5). An example of the theme of collaborative learning was exemplified by a study by Tsai (2019) who examined the role of collaborative learning in promoting self-directed computer assisted learning. A group of college students (N=60) participated in a computer-assisted pronunciation training (CAPT) system for a period of ten weeks. One group had peers while the other one participated without peers. Collaboration was shown to have a beneficial effect on computer-assisted learning. Through collaboration, learners interacted and shared with their peers, thus enhancing their learning capabilities.

  Journal 4: *Modern Language Journal*

  The *Modern Language Journal* had an equally high number of articles (N=29) examining the topic of self-directed learning. Two articles in this journal addressed a variety of topics on second and foreign language learning and teaching. Major topics identified in the reviewed articles included self-regulation, second language, development of language use, learner motivation, strategy use, and learning strategies. However, the themes of self-regulation and learner motivation were selected because they were most

common. Table E1, Appendix E shows the list of articles coded along with the clusters of meaning and themes derived from the journal.

Cluster Themes for Journal 4

Development, learning strategies, and strategy use. Investigating the development of language learning, learning strategies, and strategy use was the most common cluster of meaning in the reviewed articles (N=8). The development of a course of language learning and the identification of appropriate learning strategies was seen as essential in promoting self-directed learning. In one study, Sasaki, Mizumoto, and Murakami (2018) analyzed the developmental trajectories for second language writing strategy use. The developmental strategies were shown to be influenced by environmental and cognitive factors. Self-regulation was also shown to be important in the use of learning strategies.

Learner Motivation. The second largest theme that emerged from the Modern Learning Journal was the learner motivation cluster of meaning (N=4). The reviewed articles evaluated the strategies of promoting learner motivation for self-directed learning. For instance, a study by Yashima, Nishida, and Mizumoto (2017) examined the impact of learner beliefs on self-motivation on a sample of Japanese university students (N=2,631). The findings revealed that stronger ideals and self-visions led greater learning efforts. The study findings suggest that learner motivation is essential in promotion of learning activities.

Cycle 4: Summarizing the Composite Theories that Emerged from Data Source 1

The final coding cycle for the four journals involved reviewing significant statements, finding clusters of meaning, and lastly, finding the theories that evolved from

the data. As oral communication and writing skills often intersect, the clusters of

meaning and significant statements emerging from the scholarly journals also intersected.

The core themes from each journal are presented in the next section.

Core Themes for Data source 1:

Overarching Themes from Data Source 1: Journals

In order to narrow down the overarching themes from each journal to a summary

of the themes from Data Source 1, I reviewed the themes from each journal by writing

the themes on index cards and sorting them into categories. I then categorized the themes.

After sorting once, then sorting again I determined the overarching ideas from each, I

then determined the five overarching themes from the four scholarly journals. As oral

communication and writing skills often intersect, the clusters of meaning and significant

statements emerging from the scholarly journals also intersected. The following data was

found from the analysis across all four journals. The significant words and clusters of

meaning were motivation and self-efficacy, support for autonomous learning, curriculum

development, collaboration, and assessment and evaluation. Other themes included

accessibility, learning space, learning strategy, and technology use.

Data Analysis of Data Source 2: Websites

Cycle 1: *Journal*

When searching for my second data source, the websites, I found no websites that

were viable to the research project under each search term used. For example, when

searching for *Japanese teacher-directed websites* I found only websites related to SLA

and teaching Japanese to non-native speakers and learning Japanese. I used search terms

such as: *self-directed Japanese learners blogs and websites*, *self-directed adult Japanese*

learners blogs and websites, *teacher-directed Japanese adult learners blogs and websites*, *EFL self-directed learners blogs and websites*, *ESL self-directed learners blogs and websites*, *SLA self-directed learners blogs and websites*, and *SLA teacher-directed learners blogs and websites*, *Japanese teacher-directed websites*, *Japanese self-directed learners blogs*, *Japanese self-directed websites*, *teacher directed adult Japanese learning English websites*, *language teaching blogs for adults English* and *learning English for Japanese students*. My selection process for the websites also consisted of examining the content, date, and author/s while looking for terms associated with university level ESL, EFL, self-directed and teacher-directed, Japanese, adults.

Cycle 4: Summarizing the Composite Theories that Emerged from Data Source 3

Data Analysis of Data Source 3: Blogs

Cycle 1: Sample selection: Blogs: My third data source, and the source in which I repeated the same three coding cycles consisted of blogs related to self-directed, teacher-directed, or both combined for Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners across a variety of resources. When searching for the blogs, I found only one blog that was viable to the research project under each search term used. For example, when searching for *Japanese self-directed learners blogs* I found one website related to the search. The other blogs found were associated with SLA and teaching Japanese to non-native speakers. My selection process for the blogs also consisted of examining the content, date, and author/s while looking for terms associated with university level ESL, EFL, self-directed and teacher-directed, Japanese, adults.

Cycle 2:

To examine the individual blog, I created a matrix of key codes, to search for within the websites. Using the key words discovered in the Cycle 1 analysis, I narrowed down to the following words; Ambition and differences, goal setting, and collaboration and peer support.

Cycle 3: Cluster Themes for First Blogs

Core themes for Blogs: Lessons on Self-directed Learning in Japan

The blog reviewed in this study (http://blog.uncollege.org/what-i-learned-about-self-directed-learning-in-tokyo) was a reflection of the author on what he had learned about self-directed learning in Tokyo. The key clusters of meaning identified in this blog were learner differences, collaboration, peer support, space, and goal setting.

Ambitious and differences. The theme of differences between self-directed learners and other learners took a dominating position in the blog. Self-directed Learner's are different because they use their time differently and are ambitious in learning a new language. They are also viewed as different because they learn outside the system and learn on their own. These features set them apart from other learners.

Collaboration and peer support. The theme of collaboration and peer support was also prevalent in the blog. To be effective in self-directed learning, learners must seek the help of others including their peers, friends, and teachers. Pursuing self-directed learning does not mean learning alone. Instead, one obtains good results through collaboration with others who offer moral support and motivation to learn.

Goal setting. The theme of goal setting was identifiable in the blog. Through experience, the author had realized the importance of setting clear goals. In setting the

goals, one must be realistic on the expectations and achievements. The blog further notes that learners do not need to be too hard on themselves when they fail to achieve their goals. However, one must strike a balance between the accountability to complete goals and the need to letting up on the pressures from these goals.

Cycle 4: Summarizing the Composite Theories that Emerged from Data Source 2.

Data Analysis of Data Source 3: Blogs

The blog reviewed in this study revealed the trajectories of learners in self-directed learning. Analysis of the blog content revealed several clusters of meanings: ambitious (N=8), different (N=7), collaboration (N=5), support (N=3), and goals (N=7). These were grouped into three themes: ambitious and different, collaboration and peer support, and goal-setting. In acquisition of language through self-directed learning, these factors were seen to be essential in the learning process.

Cycle 5: Summary of Core Themes from all Three Data Sources

The total number of clusters identified from all three data sources totaled N=243, after sorting into themes and then determining overall themes that evolved from the data sources combined. The conventional Qualitative Content Analysis method I followed to determine the overall clusters of meaning included taking the final paragraphs that summarized the overarching themes for each data source and copied it into a new document. As I was analyzing the overarching themes from each Data Source, I reduced down the individual data source themes into a matrix. I then determined the commonalities across the themes from each Data Source. Once I had determined the overall composite themes, I analyzed and tallied the clusters that fell into each category and recorded the results. Four overall themes emerged from the 243 total clusters.

Composite/Core Message

Among the three Data Sources examined the themes of cross curricular skills, use of technology, motivation, assessment and evaluation dominated the analysis. In the final analysis of the four journals in data source 1 and based on the data presented, the message that these four journals are saying is that many of the skills necessary to communicate orally or write can be enhanced through improved access to self-learning resources, learner motivation, and support. In the final analysis of the three sets of standards in Data Source 2 and based on the data presented, the message that these three sets of standards are saying is that collaboration and peer support is essential in self-directed language learning. In the final analysis of the single blog in Data Source 3 and based on the data presented, the message that these journals and blog are saying is that technology is beneficial in supporting self-directed learning.

Summary

This is an emerging Grounded Theory study and this chapter presented the data from examining three data sources, including four scholarly articles, one blog and no websites. I was searching for significant statements and clusters of meaning that appeared through the Qualitative Content Analysis of each data source then conducting another cycle of analysis by combining the overarching themes from all three data sources to identify common themes that emerged. Through this research, I sought to answer the following questions:

1. What are the theories that are shaping self-directed learning in English instruction as Second Language?

2. What are the theories that are shaping teacher-directed learning in English instruction as Second Language?

In the next chapter I will present, implications, outcomes, discussions, and limitations of this research study. The next chapter will contain a review of the results and how they connect to the related literature in the field. I will also discuss the limitations, and finish with my stance on the outcomes and implications of this study.

Chapter V

Discussion, Findings, Limitations, Recommendations for Future Studies,

Implications and Conclusions

This study investigated the limited research on Second language acquisition (SLA) in adult Japanese language learners using self-directed learning, teacher directed learning, or both combined scenarios (Birdsong, 1992; Bongaerts, Van Summeren, Planken, & Schils, 1997; Lee & Kim, 2006; Long, 1990, Sakai & Takagi, 2009). The three data sources included scholarly journals that contained articles on self-directed, teacher-directed, or both combined for Japanese English as a Second Language and English as a Foreign Language adult ESL/EFL learners, blogs, and selected websites. The methodology of this study was a classical content analysis with the framework of a classical content analysis (Berelson, 1952). My reason for conducting this line of research was to use the findings in purposeful ways to encourage ESL/EFL teachers to explicitly teach topics to adult learners that are interesting to them and also to allow the adult learner to arrange the class in a way they feel is conducive to learning. Through an inductive content analysis framework, and a Grounded Theory lens, I determined that self-directed and teacher-directed ESL/EFL adult learning is not considered as much throughout the literature, blogs, or websites for Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners.

In Chapter 1, I explained few or no researchers have undertaken a qualitative content analysis of whether self-directed learning, teacher-directed learning, or both combine for better possible results in Japanese adult learners. Major researchers who were referenced in this study include Chomsky, Knowles, Tough, Vygotsky, Guglielmino, McVeigh, Mynard, Merriam, & Caffarella. In Chapter 2, I examined

scholarly journals and research-based books that covered the topics of Japanese adult ESL/EFL self-directed, teacher-directed, or both combined learners. In Chapter 3, I explained the reasons behind selecting a classical content analysis and the grounded theory lens. I explained my role as a researcher, research sites, data collection procedures, and established the three data sources for this study. In Chapter 4, I presented the data discovered through the research conducted on three data sources: scholarly journals, blogs, and websites. Chapter five includes discussion of findings, limitations, implications, possible areas for future studies, and conclusions from the researcher. This chapter contains discussion and future research possibilities that extend the research conducted in this study to help answer the research questions:

1. What are the theories that are shaping self-directed learning in English instruction as Second Language?

2. What are the theories that are shaping teacher-directed learning in English instruction as Second Language?

This chapter summarizes the research findings via the theories that emerged from the content analysis of three data sources. This chapter includes a discussion of the major findings related to Japanese adult ESL/EFL self-directed, teacher-directed, or both combined for better oral communication and writing skills.

Discussion of Findings

Core themes. After analyzing the clusters of meaning from all three Data Sources, the major findings from this study indicated that there is a connection between the skills needed to explicitly teach self-directed adult Japanese ESL/EFL and the need for better possible oral communication and writing at the university level. The skills that

emerged from the data include motivation/self-efficacy, autonomous support, learning curriculum, collaboration and assessment and evaluation.

Motivation/Self-efficacy. The message that evolved from the overarching data analysis of all three data sources shows that motivation/self-efficacy emerged as a critical factor in self-directed learning because it promotes the learners' initiatives in pursuing learning goals. For adult learners, it is necessary to stay motivated toward a goal, as suggested in Morrison's (2011research at Kanda University. It was important for Japanese adult students to diagnose and set clear goals, self-evaluate, and individualize a learning plan aimed at promoting self-access learning. Yashima, Nishida, and Mizumoto (2017) also suggest that learner motivation leads to stronger ideals and self-visions led to greater learning efforts.

Self-efficacy was described by Mizumoto (2013) as the belief in one's capacity for organizing and managing courses of actions needed to manage situations. The researcher established that self-regulated learning was positively associated with self-efficacy and vocabulary knowledge improvement. Vocabulary knowledge improvement could possibly lead to improved writing and oral communication skills among Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners. Accordingly, this study found that self-efficacy performs a critical role in helping Japanese adult students acquire oral and writing skills in English.

Autonomous Support. Support from teachers, parents, institutions, and fellow learners also emerged as an important component of self-directed learning. McEownand Sugita-McEown (2019) examined the role of the individual, teacher, and parental support on self-regulated learning. These researchers found support for autonomy learning from teachers and parents were positively associated with self-directed learning for Japanese

adult students. As a result, previous research indicates that it is essential for teachers to support their learners' autonomy and ensure that learners are able to self-manage their vocabulary development by writing essential notes and using new words in a wide range of real-world environments.

Learning curriculum. The findings of this study further revealed that the self-access learning curriculum plays a critical role in determining the success of self-directed learning. Mynard's (2017) self-access study center (SALC) study showed great support for Japanese adult learners in a university setting, as it played a pivotal role in identifying the success of self-directed learning. The program used an app where the students took control of their learning. When adult students are allowed to take control of their learning, they have more success as shown in research by Lammons (2013), Mynard (2017), Watkins, Curry, and Mynard (2014). Japanese adult ESL/EFL students need a written curriculum that focuses on them having greater control over their learning. The grammar-translation technique is an essential form of teaching in Japan and the English language is widely taught in the classroom environment for the purpose of passing examinations (McVeigh, 2002, 2004).

Collaboration. Collaboration was seen as essential in self-directed learning because it gives students an opportunity to learn from each other. Tsai (2019) examined the role of collaborative learning in promoting self-directed computer assisted learning where learners were able to interact with their peers and achieve success. This study follows the theoretical framework by Vygotsky (1978) used throughout this paper, that learning from more capable peers is necessary for success and high academic performance.

Assessment and evaluation. Finally, the three data sources show prominence of the role of assessment and evaluation in self-directed learning. Morrison (2011) reviewed the process of exam preparation for self-directed learning modules. Noguchi (2014) also noticed that importance of self-reflection, fairness, and transparency in assessment and evaluation was vital to adult learners needs. Researchers generally found assessment and evaluation an integral component of self-directed learning. An example was the study by Morrison (2011) who reviewed the process of exam preparation for self-directed learning modules. The assessment was guided by the principles of self-evaluation, identification of learners' strengths and weaknesses, and clear setting of goals. In a later study, Noguchi (2014) found these practices to be useful in assessment and evaluation of self-directed learning. The study by Noguchi (2014) sought to evaluate self-directed learning skills in SALC modules. The author noted the importance of self-reflection, fairness, and transparency in assessment and evaluation.

Findings Related to Literature

Motivation/self-efficacy. Motivation and self-efficacy were found to be closely related, whereby learners' motivation is considered a prerequisite for self-directed learning. Findings of this study are aligned with the findings of Fukuda et al. (2017) study examining how self-coaching skills could improve the intrinsic motivation of Japanese EFL learners. A beneficial role was found for self-coaching skills development on intrinsic motivation, reduction in procrastination, and improvement in self-regulated learning skills. This confirms the results of Ueki and Takeuchi's (2013) study emphasizing a beneficial role of developing learners' motivation on autonomous learning. Ueki and Takeuchi (2013) saw self-efficacy as supporting the development of

an ideal self-image among learners and improving learning behaviors, attitudes and self-efficacy. The relationship between motivation, self-efficacy and behavior represents a strong predictor of academic performance in a variety of education fields with self-efficacy as the key motivational factor in high academic achievements.

Research findings of this study identified motivation of learners for self-directed language learning one of the key themes. This is confirmed by Ushioda's (2011) research on theoretical perspectives of language learning motivation. The study showed that the internal aspects of self and identity were critical to the buildup of learners' interests, identities, and motivation. Learners' motivation for learning ESL is largely influenced by the learners' sense of identity and their relationship to the social world. This is further emphasized in the study by Lai et al. (2016) who analyzed the role of motivation in the use of technology in self-directed learning.

The reviewed articles explored different strategies of encouraging learner motivation for self-directed learning, such as the impact of learner beliefs on self-motivation among Japanese university students, confirming that greater learning efforts were guided by stronger ideals and self-vision (Yashima et al., 2017). This makes learner motivation critical in promotion of learning activities.

Of all motivational factors, self-efficacy appears to be one of the key drivers of academic success. It enables ESL/EFL learners to place massive efforts in their academic tasks and persist when faced with challenging or difficult tasks. Self-efficacy also makes them more flexible to different learning techniques, and depicts greater levels of inherent interest in educational tasks. Self-efficacy is also related to a higher degree of self-confidence in a person's academic abilities, a core component of academic success and

plays an important role in Japanese adult ESL/EFL motivation. Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners with higher English self-efficacy have a stronger self-concept and perceived value of the English language. ESL/EFL learners with high self-efficacy tend to be associated with strengths in individual success, whereas students with low self-efficacy portray less personal control over their achievement. Students with higher self-efficacy beliefs achieve a high English reading proficiency level and successfully manage anxiety when dealing with difficult texts or when they feel less efficacious in their reading capabilities. Learners with higher English language learning self-efficacy are highly motivated and generally achieve higher levels of learning proficiency.

Self-efficacy also corresponds with the concept of self-coaching skills, as argued in a study by Fukuda et al. (2019) which discussed the consequences of the insufficient amount of out-of-class study time. Among other issues leading to this problem, such as lack of learning skills, the authors emphasize low levels of learning motivation and, consequently, frequent academic procrastination. As discussed in the previous chapters, Fukuda et al. (2019) saw self-coaching skills as a potential solution to this problem, emphasizing the relationship between an increase in self-coaching skills and out-of-class study. And the importance of providing students with the opportunity to have a deeper insight into the psychological aspects of language learning to enhance their learning experiences and improve learning outcomes.

Self-efficacy is also highly important for teachers as ESL/EFL adult learners with high self-efficacy actively engage in performing academic tasks to the best of their abilities(Fukuda et al. (2017).In addition, when low self-efficacy students observe peers who perform an academic task effectively they develop positive self-efficacy beliefs

relative to their personal abilities(Ueki and Takeuchi, 2013). When influenced by positive feedback from teachers, low self –efficacy students could possibly perform a certain academic task on par with higher self-efficacy students.

The information from the three data sources - journal articles, blogs, and relevant websites revealed motivation/self-efficacy is a core skill in self-directed learning. It is possible self-efficacy supports students' initiatives to pursue their learning goals. This is of the highest importance for adult learners as it makes them be consistently motivated toward achieving a specific goal. In this view, it is essential that Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners set clear goals, self-assess, and personalize a learning plan that seeks to promote self-directed learning and leads to better learning outcomes. Self-efficacy may improve a person's ability to organize and manage steps in achieving control over specific situations and tasks, which makes self-regulated approach to learning highly beneficial for self-efficacy and vocabulary knowledge improvement (Fukuda et al., 2019, Ueki and Takeuchi, 2013). In turn, vocabulary knowledge improvement is likely to result in improved learning and oral communication skills among Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners, thus making motivation and self-efficacy the inextricable part of high learning outcomes.

Autonomous Support. The review of articles in this study identified the theme of support for learners. This is exemplified in a study conducted by McEown and Sugita-McEown (2019) examining the role of individual, teacher, and parental support on self-regulated learning. The study showed that support for autonomy learning from teachers and parents, in addition to other factors, such as goal orientation, was positively correlated with self-directed learning. McEown and Sugita-McEown (2019) emphasized

parental and teacher support essential in sustaining individual support factors. This is aligned with the results of Mizumoto's (2013) study demonstrating the importance of individual support factors in self-directed learning, such as goal setting and use of strategy.

Learner autonomy broadly refers to student's willingness to pursue a responsibility by engaging, using, monitoring, and assessing the learning process, which requires support from teachers, parents, or peers. Learner autonomy was found to be highly important in vocabulary development. The articles reviewed point to the importance of introducing the concept of autonomous support in EFL learners more broadly in the domain of education in Japan. It means that Japanese adult EFL learners should become independent language learners, capable of contributing to their language development process, without depending excessively on the teacher's input, and continue their learning autonomously outside classrooms. Accordingly, teachers/educators have a critical role in supporting Japanese adult EFL/ESL learners in establishing learning autonomy, so that these students can make more effective use of their English language skills.

Wide acceptance of English language makes it important to support autonomy among Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners to help them to learn the language on their own. Teachers play a key role in the development of their students' autonomy. When learning the English vocabulary autonomously, students are able to clearly understand the English Language (EL) pronunciation and its influence without the teacher's specific input. To meet the different needs of diverse students or different lesson plans, teachers need to provide students with the best learning techniques they can apply on their own.

In relation to this is the accessibility of materials or platforms for autonomous learning as one of the dominant clusters of meaning in the reviewed articles. The majority of studies analyzed in the present study emphasized the role of accessibility in promotion of self-directed learning. This is aligned with the findings of Cheetham et al. (2017) who evaluated the ways of increasing accessibility of self-learning resources as beneficial in promoting the students' freedom to select learning materials and take control over their learning process. The authors proposed utilization of a mobile library as highly effective in helping students to engage in extensive reading and develop autonomous reading skills. Kimura's (2014) study which evaluated the role of a self-access center (SAC) in promoting learner autonomy analyzed self-learning at a women's university in Japan offering a SAC. It revealed that a SAC offered valuable opportunities for developing and maintaining a learner community. The center provided students with the opportunity to interact with their peers, teachers, and counselors and thus improve accessibility for self-directed learning.

In line with the research findings of this study are Kimura's (2014) arguments that a well-functioning learner community is useful to learner autonomy with collaborative learning as a key element of students' learning experiences. Using a SAC, students are able to achieve multiple benefits from mutual peer support and social engagements by working together on homework and assignments at the SAC. This makes collaboration and social processes critical elements ofself-access learning. Additionally, Watkins, Curry, and Mynard's (2014) self-directed learning curriculum was found to improve students' outcomes based on learner autonomy.

In regard to the mobile library, mentioned in Cheetham et. al. (2017) study, vocabulary represents a critical element in the process of learning among adult ESL/EFL students. Vocabulary development helps students to comprehend, speak, read, and write any new language. Whereas, learner autonomy is essential in EFL/ESL learning since autonomous students quickly understand what they are being taught, formulate their EFL/ESL learning goals, select and make effective use of best learning techniques, self-evaluate or monitor their learning and interact with their educators in an effective and meaningful manner. Being engaged in assignments and using books (including the options like the mobile library) support language learning and improve learner autonomy.

In addition to teachers, peers/classmates have an important role on students' acquisition of languages kills, including vocabulary development. Support from other learners within the classroom environment facilitates the development of new vocabulary and gaining learner autonomy. Finally, autonomous support represents an essential element in acquiring L2 proficiency, meaning that the effective development of learner autonomy skills requires the teachers to possess intercultural understanding to effectively assist Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners in their learning process.

For the purpose of self-directed learning, Japanese ESL/EFL adult learners could possibly achieve autonomy and self-determination in order to better their English language outside the classroom, since exposure to the English language may be limited in the school setting. Therefore, it is important for teachers to support their learners' autonomy and ensure that learners are able to self-manage their learning process. A high level of autonomous learning is also positively correlated with self-evaluation, as learner autonomy improves the students' ability to conduct self-assessment, thereby enhancing

their learning process and outcomes. Autonomous support from teachers and peers helps students to realize their language mistakes, self-edit those mistakes, and promotes the improvement of English learning.

Self-access learning centers (SALC) has been recognized as a valuable instrument encouraging Japanese adult ESL/EFL students to learn autonomously, which is why it has been widely used in Japan. Due to the limited exposure to English outside the classroom environment, SALC is considered to be a valuable approach in offering a higher exposure to the language. SALC provides more than just providing a sufficient ability to speak and write in the English language because it involves key elements of learner autonomy and independent learning by offering support to students to learn and be more accountable for their own learning. SALC provides exposure to English but also encourages student autonomy and presents an opportunity for Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners to establish attitudes and abilities to learn on their own. SALC and the concept of autonomous support have been recognized as essential in university language centers and adult education. Language learner autonomy enables students to manage their own learning process, whereas SALC programs are constantly improving to actualize learner autonomy. The development of modern technologies has improved the interactivity among Japanese adult ESL/EFL students and provided a variety of methods to promote the practice and development of language student autonomy. Accordingly, language centers are recommended to be more effective at identifying new strategies of configuring these methods and means to achieve the academic objectives of ESL/EFL students and offer a curriculum for Japanese adult ESL/EFL that is focused on them having greater control over their learning.

***Learning curriculum*.** The thematic review process identified the theme of self-access curriculum as one of the key concerns in Japanese adult ESL/EFL, which aligns with Lammons' (2013) principles of establishing a self-access curriculum. Lammons (2013) identified these principles as content and sequencing, assessment and effective evaluation. This is also corroborated by Watkins et al. (2014) who piloted a self-directed learning curriculum, which produced positive outcomes based on learner autonomy. The self-access learning curriculum (SALC) is considered critical in identifying the success of self-directed learning by supporting Japanese adult students at the university level. The SALC initiative involves an application that allows learners to manage their learning. In a situation where adult learners are allowed to manage their learning, they portray high levels of success, especially in ESL learning. Research findings indicate that Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners need a written curriculum, based on the need of assuming control over their ESL learning process.

SALC is generally defined as a set of programs given to ESL adult learners with autonomous learning elements entrenched in them. In other words, SALC is self-instruction in independent learning programs and it is either supported or unsupported. In adult learning, the SALC program is used to define what the learners are anticipated to work on. For instance, SALC programs deliver instructions or directions to Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners and provide guidelines on how to utilize the resource centers autonomously. Some of the programs are connected to the curriculum while others are separate. In a learner-centered environment, SALC provides a great opportunity for students to set their own curriculum, which is always flexible with their learning abilities. Students are able to assess their strengths and weaknesses and set clear, personal goals.

Afterward, students identify relevant materials that are in agreement with their goals, selecting not only the platform best suited to them, but equally the level suitable to their proficiency.

Collaboration. As demonstrated in research findings of this study, collaboration and social processes are important components of self-access learning. The present study found collaboration to be one of the key concepts in self-directed learning among Japanese ESL/EFL learners. According to Turuk (2008), maintaining collaboration in the learning environment provides learners with an opportunity to learn from each other. This is confirmed in a study conducted by Tsai (2013) which explored the role of collaborative learning in supporting self-directed computer-based learning. The results of this study conform to Vygotsky's (1978) theoretical framework and suggest that effective interaction between learners/classmates leads to higher levels of success as learning from peers is an essential driver of learning success (Turuk, 2008).

Collaborative approach to learning is a technique that combines various elements, including planning and implementation of instructions. In this view, research findings of this study are aligned by the results of Buitrago's (2017) study that analyzed the outcomes of applying collaborative and self-directed learning strategies across speaking tasks focused on the development of oral fluency. Buitrago (2017) argued that fluency can be achieved collaboratively in the process of learning from peers and through one's mistakes. Moreover, collaborative learning supports learners' confidence in terms of making them feel as if they are not being judged, but also by means of sharing common mistakes. In this way, self-directed learning positively affects collaboration in terms of facilitating students' personal reflections and recognition of their own strengths and

weaknesses, increasing their involvement in decision-making processes and identifying

mistakes and possible ways to addressing them.

As per Vygotsky's (1978) constructivist perspective, collaborative learning

represents an effective approach in which individuals work/learn together to expand their

knowledge and achieve a common goal. Results of the present study on the importance

and impact of collaborative learning are further substantiated by Buitrago's (2017)

findings which indicated that individuals working together toward a common goal are

more efficient and accurate in problem solving. A collaborative approach also enables

individuals to develop higher-order thinking skills that may significantly impact learning

outcomes. When two or more individuals learn or make an effort to learn together,

collaborative learning represents a valuable instrument in a learning/academic

environment based on the specific strengths and abilities of each learner. Moreover, it

provides them with the opportunity to reinforce their skills. Nevertheless, Buitrago

(2017) emphasizes that for collaborative learning to yield success, participants should

demonstrate the same level of commitment.

The impact of learning outcomes may be observed in collaborative speaking tasks

when students with low levels of confidence in speaking assume passive roles by

minimizing their involvement in a task and hiding behind others who are more confident

about their knowledge. Thus, as stipulated by previous studies, such as Buitrago's (2017),

the inclusion of collaborative tasks (speaking tasks, in particular) in ESL/EFL classes can

encourage acquisition of oral fluency in learners participating in such tasks. Collaborative

learning enables learners to exchange their knowledge and, at the same time, improve

their personal and academic skills/competence. Moreover, learners are more likely to take

risk in their speaking tasks because they understand that making mistakes is inherent to the learning process. In this way, learners are encouraged to advance at learning by making mistakes, reflecting on them and through collaboration. In this process of self-directed learning, teachers need to be the primary collaborative source for learners. Accordingly, teachers and Japanese adult ESL/EFL students are supposed to establish a coherent team that communicates and engages in active negotiation and task sharing in the classroom. The active learning process, an essential element of collaborative learning, thus allows Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners to experiment with concepts, share and include them in their learning.

In addition, collaborative learning helps Japanese ESL/EFL students to learn English and develop the ability to read and write materials that suit their age, socio-economic status, and maturational degree, among other attributes. When learners are engaged in active learning, they are able to acquire English writing and reading skills with efficiency, as indicated by Gilfert et al. (1999). Active learning helps enhance learners' attitudes to information, self-efficacy, and classmates in ESL/EFL process. Collaborative learning is an active approach and effective technique used to create a community in the schoolroom and to develop interpersonal skills between learners and teachers, but also to meet diverse student needs.

A collaborative learning approach is essential in ESL/EFL classrooms as it allows students to actively engage in the learning process rather than passive listening. In this case, the approach provides an opportunity for Japanese adult ESL/EFL students to be involved in activities, such as reading, writing, and discussing. Collaborative learning focuses on learner's skills and abilities instead of providing them with information.

Collaborative learning also helps to develop positive attitudes among learners, reinforce personal values and increase learners' motivation through diverse (especially speaking) tasks. Japanese adult ESL/EFL students can benefit from collaborative learning as it facilitates face-to-face interactions among ESL learners, enables effort sharing, provides roles and tasks to complete for every team member, fosters positive interdependence, and allows pursuing a shared team goal. More importantly, it supports group and personal responsibility, development of interpersonal skills and allows for group and individual assessment. Consequently, collaborative learning facilitates identification and recognition of personal strengths and weaknesses and allows for individual feedback.

Articles reviewed in the present study point to the beneficial effect of collaborative learning on a variety of concepts, such as computer-assisted learning as it enables the learners to interact and share with their peers, and in this way, improve their learning capabilities. Reviewed blogs also confirm the critical role of collaboration and peer support, as peers, teachers and friends represent one of the key factors of effective self-directed learning. Engaging in self-directed learning does not refer to learning alone, but collaboration with others and reliance on their support for motivation as determinants of good learning results.

Analyzed data sources show that peer–peer collective exchange is a critical part of L2 learning. Nevertheless, there is a considerable gap in the pertinent literature relating to the importance of collaboration for L2 learning, although previous research provides substantial evidence on the role of collaboration in LREs and post-test scores. In conclusion, research findings of this study clearly indicate that collaboration and peer support are essential in self-directed language learning.

Assessment and evaluation. One of the themes revealed in the article review in the present study refers to assessment and evaluation occurred several times as highly beneficial for the improvement of English language performance among ESL/EFL students, whereby learner autonomy is considered an important factor in students' ability to conduct self-assessment. Previous studies found assessment and evaluation to be integral components of self-directed learning. Morrison (2011) reviewed the process of exam preparation for self-directed learning modules using the principles of self-evaluation, identification of learners' strengths and weaknesses, and a clear setting of goals. This is corroborated in Noguchi's (2014) study emphasizing the benefits of these principles for assessment and evaluation of self-directed learning. The study also confirmed the importance of self-reflection, fairness, and transparency in assessment and evaluation.

The three data sources, journal articles, blogs, and selected websites, further revealed that assessment and evaluation perform a critical role in self-directed learning among Japanese adult EFL/ESL students, with self-reflection and transparency in assessment and evaluation as essential to adult students (Noguchi, 2014). In the ESL/EFL learning environment, English teachers are always needed to assess and evaluate their students' learning progress, whereby evaluation has a more extensive perspective and function than assessment and test. Evaluation is broadly defined as a process or strategy of understanding whether or not the learning and teaching activities have been conducted by the educators successfully and appropriately by comprehending whether the signs, materials, learning techniques, and learning techniques, and media. On the other hand,

assessment processes and test elements are in accord with ESL/EFL skills, students, and learning conditions.

The evaluation of the effectiveness of ESL/EFL teaching and learning may be acquired through interviews, assessments, observations, and tests in the schoolroom environment. Assessment is a continuous process that involves a very extensive dimension which is why a teacher/educator needs to consider different components in identifying the ultimate scores of learners, including learners' motivation, involvement, performance, presentation, presence, and class work.

The aim of autonomous learning education should be to produce critical evaluation and analysis of different types of information gathered in process of learning. This implies the active engagement of students in their own learning process and their responsibility for the process and its outcomes. Self-assessment is considered to be a critical element of the learning processes as the student gathers information and reflects on his own learning and encourages learner development as a lifelong learner.

A review of articles also resulted in other, emerging themes relevant to the topic under investigation, such as the use of technology in promoting self-directed learning. Lai, Shum, and Tian's (2016) study shows the potential for augmenting the use of technology in self-directed language learning through evaluation of the effectiveness of an online training platform on a group of undergraduate students. The results of this study suggest the training program was effective in promoting the use of technology in self-directed learning. This is further supported by Tsai's (2019) study acknowledging the usefulness of computer-assisted technology in self-directed language learning. In addition, the development of a course of language learning and the identification of

appropriate learning strategies was considered critical for the self-directed learning. Identification on this theme as essential to the self-directed learning is confirmed by the research findings of Sasaki, Mizumoto, and Murakami (2018) who analyzed the developmental trajectories for second language writing strategy use. The study indicates that the developmental strategies were influenced by environmental and cognitive factors, but also self-regulation.

Through my data analysis, especially in analyzing selected blogs, I also identified the important differences between self-directed learners and other learners as a prevalent topic. The key difference was the use of time and the level of ambition in learning a new language found in self-directed learners. Self-directed learners were distinguished from other learners due to placing their learning process outside the system and the fact that they learn on their own. In the current study, I also identified the theme of goal setting as one of the major determinants of one's realistic perception of the expectations and achievements.

Finally, through my analysis, the theme of learning space emerged as an important factor in the learning process, which is why the self-access center (SAC) was widely considered a stimulating and supportive environment as it provides the physical space for learning where students could spend time comfortably while interacting with their peers, teachers, and counselors and helps to improve accessibility for self-directed learning. This is supported by Nakai's (2016) study emphasizing the importance of the social dimension of self-directed learning and the requirements regarding the capacity for collaborative learning in the learning environment (as exemplified by the Facebook's learning space outside the classroom). In his examination of the social dimensions of self-

directed learning, Murray (2014) showed that a creation of space for collaborative learning helped to encourage social interaction and dialogue.

Summary of Findings Related to Literature

As I researched for my literature review, I discovered that the connection between self-directed and teacher-directed learning incorporated many themes. While conducting the literature review for this study, multiple themes emerged from the years 2008-2018. The overarching themes included: Motivation/Self-efficacy, Autonomous Support, Learning curriculum, Collaboration, Assessment and Evaluation. These themes closely aligned with the overall findings from my data analysis in Chapter 4.

For the purpose of exploring second language acquisition (SLA) in adult Japanese language learners in relation to self-directed learning, teacher-directed learning, and/or both approaches integrated, I reviewed the major sources of data - peer-reviewed journal articles, blogs, and relevant websites including relevant information related to different approaches to adult Japanese students of English as Second Language (ESL) or English as Foreign Language (EFL) learning process. Using a classical content analysis (Berelson, 1952), the present study sought to identify the key aspects of the way adult learners can arrange their classes in a manner they feel is effective and important to the learning process. The research used an inductive content analysis model and grounded theory to identify that self-directed and teacher-directed ESL/EFL adult learning has not been explored well in the previous literature, websites, and blogs for Japanese adult ESL/EFL students. After conducting the data analysis from all the three important data sources, the research found a relationship between the skills required for the effective

achievement of the English language proficiency identified as motivation/self-efficacy, autonomous support, learning curriculum, collaboration, and assessment and evaluation.

Research findings from the study indicate a strong relationship between ESL/EFL learning achievement, motivation and self-efficacy in the English language (Mizumoto, 2013; Morrison, 2011; Yashima et al., 2017). Many researchers focused on explaining the process of studying language and how an individual can be successful in gaining speaking and writing skills (Ueki and Takeuchi, 2013; Ushioda, 2011). The results of this study suggest self-efficacy is a key motivational factor which performs a critical role in helping Japanese adult students acquire oral and writing skills in English and increases the success level of adult Japanese ESL/EFL students. Previous literature has revealed that self-efficacy has a positive impact on academic performance of ESL/EFL students, thus aligning with the recent trend of shifting the focus from the teacher/educator to the student (Mizumoto, 2013).

In addition, research findings of this study confirmed the important role of collaboration (and social processes) as the key concepts in self-directed and self-access learning among Japanese ESL/EFL learners (Buitrago, 2017; Turuk, 2008; Tsai, 2019).The results of the present study show that collaboration in the learning environment provides learners with numerous opportunities, including the opportunity to learn from each other (Turuk, 2008). Thus, the results of this study are aligned with Vygotsky's (1978) theoretical framework and imply that effective interaction between learners/classmates leads to higher levels of success considering that learning from peers is an essential driver of learning success.

The qualitative content analysis research method utilized in this study identified self-access curriculum as one of the key issues in Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners, as a predictor of positive outcomes based on learner autonomy. The self-access learning curriculum (SALC) is thought to be of the utmost importance in identifying the success of self-directed learning by supporting Japanese adult students at the university level. As adult learners manage their learning processes, they portray high levels of success, especially in ESL/EFL learning (Fukuda et al. 2019). The results of the present study show that Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners need a written curriculum, based on their need to assume control over their ESL/EFL learning process (Lammons, 2013; Mynard, 2017; Watkins et al., 2014).

Autonomous support was also identified as one of the major themes, as exemplified in a number of previous studies evaluating the role of individual, teacher, and parental support on self-regulated learning (McEown & Sugita-McEown, 2019). Research findings of the study indicate that support for autonomy learning from teachers and parents was positively correlated with self-directed learning (Kimura's, 2014; McEown & Sugita-McEown, 2019). Namely, parental and teacher support were found to be of critical importance to sustaining individual support factors, including goal setting and use of strategy. Finally, Noguchi's (2014) article review revealed assessment and evaluation as an important theme relating to the improvement of English language performance among ESL/EFL students, closely related to autonomy (Noguchi, 2014). Previous research found assessment and evaluation to be inextricable elements of self-directed learning based on the principles of self-evaluation, identification of learners' strengths and weaknesses, and clear setting of goals (Morrison, 2011; Noguchi, 2014).

The study also confirmed the importance of self-reflection, fairness, and transparency in assessment and evaluation.

Findings Related to Lens of Grounded Theory

Multiple theories surfaced from the three data sources through this qualitative content analysis study. One of the questions guiding this study was the theories that are shaping self-directed learning instruction in English as Foreign Language. The second question was to uncover what theories are shaping teacher-directed learning. Yes, through this study, due to limitations related to the application of Grounded theory, only research question number one was answered, whereas no relevant data or conclusive evidence was found in response to research question number two.

Identification of themes and patterns, followed by rigorous coding represent some of the similarities shared between content analysis and Grounded theory. Both content analysis and Grounded theory are utilized in qualitative research design, whereby Grounded theory is widely considered a research methodology and content analysis a research method. In addition, a research design based on Grounded theory corresponds with a qualitative content analysis, although specific discrepancies exist between the two.

Limitations associated with a Grounded theory refer to the theory as too open and difficult for inexperienced researchers to follow and being too rigorous and prescriptive. Either of which could influence the limited number of articles identified for this study. One solution to mitigating these limitations could be the application of a social interaction approach based on the researcher's interaction and involvement with participants. Qualitative content analysis, on the other hand is limited by the fact that it often yields distorted and simplified meanings due to cutting down text into quantifiable

units for the purpose of analysis. The simplification and distortion of data can be overcome by attending both the manifest (surface) and latent (underlying) content meaning.

In the present study, advantages of using Grounded theory mostly relate to the expanded understanding of self-directed learning in Japanese adult EFL/ESL students as a phenomenon that was neither sufficiently researched in the previous period nor pre-theoretically developed. Being an exploratory method, Grounded theory was beneficial for the process of data analysis and interpretation in this study as the topic under investigation attracted little prior research attention which has not yielded any conclusive evidence. On the other hand, due to the lack of standard rules for the identification of the categories (but also the considerable gap in the pertinent literature), the study did not succeed in identifying relevant articles and gather relevant data on teacher-directed learning.

Limitations

There were several limitations to this study. In selecting journals to review for articles, I only included scholarly, peer reviewed journals. I looked for journals that contained not only research on Japanese adult ESL/EFL self-directed, teacher-directed or both combined but also how Japanese ESL/EFL adults writing and oral communication skills improve with each theory. In addition, I wanted articles that focused on literacy. I found more articles in journals related to self-directed learning for Japanese ESL/EFL adults than journals focused on teacher-directed or both combined.

As a result, only four of the journals were included in Data Source 1.The journals included were; *SiSAL*, *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, *Innovation in language*

learning and technology, and *Modern Language Journal*. Thus, a broader schema of journals, including publications in the Japanese language, could provide research that would impact and help guide the alignment of skills to become successful in oral communication and writing in the English language.

Next, the blogs researched for this study were only researched in the English language. Thus, a broader schema of blogs, including blogs in the Japanese language, could provide research that would impact and help guide the alignment of skills to become successful in oral communication and writing in the English language.

The third limitation relates to the websites that examine self-directed, teacher-directed, or both combined for better oral communication and writing in English. Thus, a broader schema of websites, including websites in the Japanese language, could provide research that would impact and help guide the alignment of skills to become successful in oral communication and writing in the English language.

Included in this study is a limitation on the Grounded Theory lens. Due to the data sources being controlled and limited, an exhaustive review was not completed. I narrowed Data Source 1 down to four journals, limited Data Source 2 to one blog, and only included zero websites in Data Source 3. I focused on journals that had the most articles related to Japanese adult ESL/EFL self-directed, teacher-directed or both combined learning to write skills in English. I decided to select journals, blogs, and websites published domestically and internationally in English. In doing so, I was able to comprehend the content of what I was reading.

Implications

Self-directed learning, according to Knowles (1975), represents a process in which an individual diagnoses his/her own learning needs, set goals to address those needs, identifies resources and strategies to facilitate the learning process and evaluates the process itself. Autonomous learning, as identified by Oxford (2016, 2017) refers to the learner's reliance on processes making him/her responsible for the learning process and outcomes. Self-regulation, on the other hand, represents the learner's capacity to change the learning process and the actions contained in it, but also the goals, to arrive at desired outcomes (Oxford, 2016, 2017).

Self-directed English learning and self-access centers, as discussed in this paper, represent approaches to English learning, i.e., a support for English language curriculum in a variety of educational contexts globally. Therefore, this paper suggests that self-directed learning (SDL) in adult education in adult Japanese ESL/EFL students should be incorporated with other domains of language learning and other language learning strategies, autonomous and self-regulated learning.

Implications for students

The implications from this research study could impact the education of adult Japanese EFL/ESL university students in terms of effective management of both the learning objectives and the mediums of learning. In other words, learners are involved in self-directed learning by making their own decisions about what and how they are going to learn. Compared to teacher-directed methods, self-directed or learner-centered techniques encourage learners to learn English autonomously. It implies that learner-centered methods lead Japanese adult ESL/EFL students to self-directed learning since

the principles of learner-centered techniques are to identify students' objectives, selecting learning strategies, and decision-making. Self-directed learning helps Japanese adult ESL/EFL students to acquire new skills or knowledge and to bring their experience to learning.

Implications for teacher preparation

This research study could also impact professional development and teacher preparation programs by requiring native Japanese teachers to learn more about how to teach writing and oral communication skills to Japanese ESL/EFL adults at the university level. The current study will have a considerable effect on professional development and teacher preparation initiatives by exhorting local Japanese teachers to learn more about how to teach oral communication and writing skills to Japanese adult ESL/EFL students at the university level. It will equip tutors with necessary skills of assessing, evaluating, and testing the progress of their students (McVeigh, 2002). Teachers will learn about the significance of learner autonomy and student-centered learning.

This is especially important as the growing pressure of globalization has resulted in the increased influx of foreign languages and culture in Japanese society, and English, in specific. McVeigh (2004, p.125) suggests that a dominant discourse in Japanese society seeing the English as a negative impact on Japan's national and cultural identity, has made strategies to teaching and learning English as a foreign language a sign of one's "non-Japaneseness." Such negative attitude relating to the English language have had adverse effects on teaching EFL in secondary and tertiary level schooling which has been severely criticized, especially in relation to Japanese students' low scores in internationally recognized English language tests such as TOEIC and TOEFL (McVeigh,

2002). This is highly significant as Japanese EFL students of still maintain relatively low levels of communicative English skills, focusing mostly on receptive EFL skills and grammatical knowledge (McVeigh, 2002).

Conclusion

In this classical content analysis (Berelson, 1952), the researcher tried to address the factors and potential solutions to mitigating the problem of low communicative competence in the English language learners among Japanese adults. Previous research on Second Language Acquisition (SLA) in adult learners have been mostly observational and focused on learners' progression from proficiency in their first language to the ability to function in the second language, as argued by Sakai and Takagi (2009). Due to a growing number of immigrants in adult education programs, scarce resources and limited time for adequate instruction, research focused on non-academic settings mainly deals with programmatic issues and examination of profiles and models that can be replicated. Moreover, research has been primarily focused on evaluating how adults manipulate their immediate learning needs rather than the process of acquisition of a second language (Yule, 2006). Review of the pertinent literature revealed a considerable gap in research on adults, particularly those in bilingual or multilingual environments (Elllis, 1997; Bialystok, 2001; Diaz, 1983; Schachter, 1998). Hence, there is a substantial lack of SLA research on adult Japanese language learners in self-directed learning, teacher directed learning, and both scenarios combined (Long, 1990, Sakai & Takagi, 2009). The current body of knowledge suggests a couple of solutions to solve the perplexity of SLA problems among ESL and EFL in adult Japanese learners based on a set of skills including motivation/self-efficacy, collaborative learning, self-access curriculum and

assessment and evaluation(Birdsong, 1992; Bongaerts et al., 1997; Chomsky, 1986 Sakai & Takagi, 2009).

The importance of self-efficacy is evident in a series of studies showing that beliefs about self-efficacy predict one's degree of motivation, perseverance in the pursuit of desires and goals, the amount of effort put into manifesting a behavior, the amount of persistence in simpler and more complex situations and the direction of attributing success or failure. Knowledge of language learners' perceptions of efficacy is important because they imply aspects in which they need empowerment and support during the education process. This can also help their parents and teachers better understand how they perceive, understand and interpret the learning process and acquisition of language skills, as well as the impact of developing self-efficacy on academic, professional and life perspective. In line with this is the study by Ueki and Takeuchi's (2013) pointing to a beneficial role of developing learners' motivation on autonomous learning. Motivational system is seen as contributing to the development of an ideal self-image among learners and improving learning behaviors, attitudes and self-efficacy. As explicated previously, the connection between motivation, self-efficacy and behavior represents a strong predictor of academic performance in a variety of education fields with self-efficacy as the key motivational factor in high academic achievements.

Consistent with the research by Tsai (2013) and Turuk (2008), the collaborative learning method enables the students to effectively interact with their peers (and teachers) and makes them exchange information and experience in their pursuit of knowledge. Most importantly, collaboration transforms learning into meaningful and more appealing process. Collaborative teaching gives students a sense of unity and identification with a

group, thus making them more competent in understanding, accepting and mitigating their mistakes. When learning collaboratively, students become a part of a specific learning community in which everyone gives and receives academic and social support. This is particularly important among students of different performance levels as collaborative environment makes them work towards achieving a desired goal, whereby the focus is not merely on their own learning process, but other students' learning process, as well. The importance of collaborative learning is further augmented through application of teaching methods responsive to the needs, interests and motivation of the learners. In this way, students' motivation and self-efficacy are further heightened through collaborative learning because they will feel empowered and assume control over their own learning process.

In consideration of the English Language Teaching (ELT) shift in focus from the teacher onto the learner and the learning process, a number of innovative concepts have emerged, including independent and resource-based learning (Morrison, 2008). Therefore, the increased interest and understanding of the benefits of a self-access approach to learning have resulted in development of self-access center's (SACs) as an essential concept of the tertiary language learning process. Previous research (Morrison, 2008) defined key roles within the SAC in the tertiary language learning process. Relating to its effectiveness, the SAC's focus on the improvement of knowledge and proficiency, and development of effective learning strategies is potentially its key advantage considering that this may be a challenge for teachers in the classroom settings. Being a resource center, a SAC's role is to integrate superb learning materials and resources providing relevant, diverse, structured and accessible base for language

learning process. In this process, the SAC is more than a library or resource center as it acts as an incentive for autonomous learning and a provider of support for the learning process. In this view, the significance of the SAC teacher should also be addressed in further research as an important component of the process (Morrison, 2008). This is important because full understanding of SAC features is needed for it to be widely accepted as an effective alternative to traditional learning methods

In accordance with the research by Sakai and Takagi (2009), one of the insufficiently researched, but highly important issues in the educational field, is development of autonomous learners. Contrary to general perception and expectations, there are a significant number of students lacking autonomous skills, which is why the improvement of learner autonomy is one of the key considerations for many educators. Considering that the concept of autonomous learning was not common to Japanese English teachers until recently, there is limited research on learner autonomy and scarce attempts to incorporate the concept into Japanese educational settings. Moreover, the majorities of English teachers in Japan are of Japanese origin and teach in a teacher-centered environment, which, unlike the modern concept of self-centered learning, leads to an assumption they are responsible for their students' learning outcomes. Considering the cultural and linguistic barriers and discrepancies, some researchers (Sakai & Takagi, 2009) stipulate that adult Japanese learners may not be capable of developing Western-type learner autonomy, but there are successful strategies that may capacitate them to become autonomous learners. Therefore, one of the objectives of this study was to identify effective ways to promote and develop autonomous learning in adult Japanese ESL/EFL students.

Giving and receiving feedback represents an important component of formative assessment. Nevertheless, giving feedback to all of the students in a classroom can be challenging and time consuming. On the other hand, by leveraging the potential of self-assessment, students themselves can be a strong and reliable source of feedback through self-assessment, through reflection on their own work, its alignment with the set goals and potential revisions. If adequately informed and under the right conditions, self-assessment can be a relevant and valuable source of information and an excellent tool in promoting self-centered learning. In learning as a second or foreign language, self-assessment has an important role in students' motivation to learn and evaluate their own language learning process, promotion of critical thinking and reflective practices; connecting knowledge of English from a variety of resources and developing autonomy in learning.

In order to create a self-directed and student-centered learning environment, teachers who often work closest with the learners must adopt different approaches to designing and leading schools. At the same time, policy systems must facilitate and promote innovation by eliminating all potential hurdles, creating space, and nurturing an environment of encouragement of tutors who are reimagining learning. The current study found that self-directed learning cannot be achieved from a hierarchical, top-bottom structure. Instead, consistent innovation and continuous improvements to conventional school should occur side-by-side in a split screen, which eventually offers the opportunity for transformation to happen organically, over a specific period of time, as innovative methods to learning are tested, redefined, replicated, and accepted by others.

Future Studies

There are many opportunities for future studies in the area of Japanese ESL/EFL adult self-directed, teacher-directed or both combined learning and its connection to learning oral communication and writing skills. Future qualitative studies may be carried out to comprehensively explore the environments in which ESL/EFL learners acquire self-directed learning skills and/or how they improve these competencies. Undergraduate and graduate learners' self-regulation abilities may be explored comparatively. The role of technology in facilitating self-directed learning should equally be investigated. Moreover, future studies should focus on evaluating the role of launching and maintaining self-access language learning facilities and learning opportunities they can provide based on students' specific needs and interests and based on the principles of learner autonomy.

Researcher's Reflection

Conducting this study was personally important to me. I have been involved with teaching East Asian EFL speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills overseas to youth and adults for over 5 years. I also have taught East Asian, Saudi, African, Palestinian, Venezuelan, and Jordanian ESL listening, reading, and writing skills to adults here in the United States at the secondary and university level for over 10 years. I believe in helping those who are striving for a better life with the use of the English language; whether that is for a better job, to move to an English-speaking country, for their family, or to attend higher education.

In addition, this study is important to me as an educator that believes all EFL/ESL adult students are allowed an opportunity to learn. Adult learners are underrepresented in

education in today's universities. However, there are increasing opportunities for

Japanese adult ESL/EFL learners such as self-access study center's (SALC) and self-

access center's (SAC) in Japan. Adult ESL/EFL learners also need continued support

from teachers and parents.

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APPENDIX A

Table A1

| | | | | Key word and frequency | | | | |
No.	Journal title	Total no. of articles	Total no. of themes	Curri culum	Motivat ion/ Self-efficacy	Support	Collab oration	Assessment and Evaluation
1	SISAL	2,972	45	6	7	8	5	19
2	Computer Assisted Language Learning	493	20	0	5	7	4	4
3	Innovation in language learning and technology	453	31	4	4	5	6	12
4	Modern Language Journal	448	29	4	4	4	9	8
5	International Journal of Self-directed learning	194	13	2	1	1	5	4
6	Journal of educational and social research	188	2	1	0	1	0	0
7	International Journal of Educational Technology and Applied Linguistics	163	2	0	1	0	0	1
8	Journal of Adult Education	94	3	1	1	0	1	0
9	TESOL Quarterly	89	9	0	3	3	2	1
10	Language Teaching Research	56	7	2	2	2	1	0
11	Journal of Educational and Social Research	22	4	1	1	1	1	0
12	Academic Research International	18	3	1	1	0	0	1
13	A Journal of Educational	18	3	0	1	1	1	0

Strategies, Issues and Ideas Totals	5,178	171	22	31	33	35	50

APPENDIX B

Table B1

Journal 1, SISAL

Article	Clusters of Meaning	Themes
Accessibility and the Promotion of Autonomous EFL Reading	38	Accessibility, promotion, technology use, motivation, autonomy, mobile, reading, training, resources, extensive reading, library, E-reader
Promoting Learner Autonomy and Self-Directed Learning: The Evolution of a SALC Curriculum	22	Curriculum, sequencing, content, space, self-access, autonomy, accessibility, language, needs analysis, evaluation, assessment, language
Self-Directed Learning Modules for Independent Learning: IELTS Exam Preparation	17	Learning, assessment, evaluation, goal setting, motivation, exams, needs analysis, planning, implementation, diagnosis
A Pedagogical Attempt to Promote Japanese College EFL Learners' Self-growth	16	Motivation, accessibility, self-efficacy, learning methods, language, self-reflection
Establishing Group Autonomy through Self-Access Center Learning Experiences	17	Accessibility, collaborative learning, needs analysis, autonomy, accessibility, motivation, interdependence,

Principles: Establishing the Foundation for a Self-access Curriculum	11	Self-access, Curriculum, needs analysis, assessment, evaluation, content, sequencing, goal setting, presentation, implementation, checklists
The Social Dimensions of Learner Autonomy and Self-Regulated Learning	15	Autonomy, space, place, social learning, pedagogy, learning, language learning, emotions, collaboration, goal-setting, motivation, learner characteristic, metacognitive skills, social world, self-initiation
How do Learners Make Use of a Space for Self-Directed Learning? Translating the Past, Understanding the Present, and Strategizing for the Future	12	Accessibility, self-access, space, technology use, Facebook, motivation, autonomy, collaboration, emotions, training,
Evaluating Self-directed Learning Skills in SALC Modules	8	Learning, accessibility, assessment, evaluation, learning goals, learning resources, self-direction, curriculum

APPENDIX C

Table C1

Journal 2, Innovation in Language Learning and Technology

Article	Clusters of Meaning	Themes
Forming a clearer image of the ideal L2 self: the L2 Motivational Self System and learner autonomy in a Japanese EFL context	11	Motivation, autonomy, language learning, self-efficacy
Effects of self-regulated vocabulary learning process on self-efficacy	22	Motivation, self-efficacy, language learning, learning strategy, strategy use, evaluation
Developing self-coaching skills in university EFL classrooms to encourage out-of-class study time	14	Motivation, intrinsic motivation, language learning, learning outcomes
Individual, parental and teacher support factors of self-regulation in Japanese students	13	Support, parental support, teacher support, individual support, intrinsic, cognitive, metacognitive, goal orientations

APPENDIX D

Table D1

Journal 2, Computer Assisted Language Learning

Articles	Clusters of Meaning	Themes
Enhancing learners' self-directed use of technology for language learning: the effectiveness of an online training platform	19	Technology use, language learning, learner training, online, learning behaviors, self-initiation, self-motivation,
Language Learning Motivation, Self and Identity: Current Theoretical Perspectives	11	Motivation, technology use, digital technology, language learning

APPENDIX E

Table E1

Journal 4, Modern Language Journal

Article	Clusters of Meaning	Themes
Developmental Trajectories in L2 Writing Strategy Use: A Self-Regulation Perspective	7	Development, learning strategy, strategy use, motivation, group, collaboration, self-regulation
Influence of Learner Beliefs and Gender on the Motivating Power of L2 Selves	16	Motivation, self-efficacy, learner beliefs, learning strategy, strategy use, learning experience, learning context,

VITA

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EDUCATION& CERTIFICATIONS

Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, Texas
Doctorate of Education in Literacy, August 2020

Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, Texas
Master of Education in International Literacy, August 2013

Stephen F. Austin State University, Nacogdoches, Texas
Master of Arts in History, August 2007

Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, Texas
Bachelor of Science in Psychology May 2005

Principal EC-12
Standard Texas Teacher Certification 8-12 History, ESL Supplemental.
Second Language Instruction.

WORK EXPERIENCE/TRAINING

SOUTH GRAND PRAIRIE EARLY COLLEGE HIGH SCHOOL: Fall 2018-   Present

Teach Pre-AP world history and world geography grades 9-11. Prepare lessons each
week, exams, quizzes, homework. Take attendance daily and place grades in grading
system. Monitor ELL/LEP performance and make modifications for them as well as 504
students. Meet with parents; make phone calls, and emails concerning student's good and
bad behavior. TTESS administrator. Attend meetings and required duty. Attend
professional development trainings.

ALDINE INDEPENDENT SCHOOL DISTRICT: Fall 2014-2018

Taught world history grades 10-11 for majority of ELL students. Prepared lessons each
week including, exams, quizzes, homework. Took attendance daily and place grades in
grading system. Monitored ELL/LEP performance and made modifications for them as
well as 504 students. Attend meetings and required duty each week. Attended
professional development trainings.

SHSU, ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTE SPECIALIST: Spring 2014-Summer 2014

Taught adult students ages 18+ from various countries. Performed duties such as assisting
with curriculum and placement exams. Designed exams and quizzes, Taught 24 hours a

week and prepared 20 hours a week, performed graduation ceremonies, counseling, and advising. Taught listening, speaking, writing, TOEFL, reading, and grammar. Utilized BlackBoard (BB) system.

SHSU, DOCTORAL TEACHING ASSISTANT:Fall 2013

Taught pre-service teachers the best ways for them to teach English Language Learners (ELL's) in their future classrooms. Taught junior level: Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) classes 3303-02 and 3303-05. Designed course material, exams, quizzes, in-class assignments, and projects. Used the BlackBoard (BB) system. Graded coursework and advised students.

SHSU, GRADUATE TEACHING ASSISTANT: Summer 2012 to Spring 2013

Assisted professors in the Bilingual and English as a Second Language (BESL) department with online classes in TESL and ESL research. Worked with professors on a daily basis with annotated bibliographies, research, issuing surveys for research, inputting data in SPSS, and grading undergraduate course material.

HUNTSVILLE INDEPENDENT SCHOOL DISTRICT: November 2011- March 2012

Substitute teacher at Mance Park Junior High and Huntsville High School. Subbed American, Texas, World, and European History, Science, Writing, Special Education and English for grades seven through the twelfth grade.

WASHINGTON HIGH SCHOOL: July 2009 to July 2011 Taiping, Taiwan

Taught ESLL 7th to 12th graders American and European history, World history and Geography, Ancient History, Language Arts, Government, Personal Statement, TOEFL, Reading Comprehension, Writing, and Physical Education. Designed quiz and examination questions. Created homework assignments, attended regular meetings, wrote and submitted weekly lesson plans. Attended and participated in annual special ceremonies/events. Developed and wrote course curriculum and chose textbooks. Advised upper-level students on college majors and areas of interests.

GEORGIA AMERICAN SCHOOL: June 2008 to June 2009 Dali, Taiwan

Taught ESL classes including grammar, reading comprehension, daily conversation, phonics, science, handwriting, writing, and health to students from pre-k to 8th grade. Hosted kindergarten graduation ceremony in the summer of 2008. Helped plan and assisted in holiday activities. Wrote speeches, plays and judged in speech competitions. Designed mid-semester and final exams.

PRIVATE ENGLISH TUTOR: Fall 2007 to Feb. 2011 Taichung, Taiwan

Worked as a part-time ESL tutor for adults and students living in Taiwan. Taught pronunciation, grammar, phonetics, daily conversation, speaking, reading, writing, phonology, GEPT, TOEFL, IELTS, SAT, and listening.

ONLINE CONSULTANT FOR TUTOR ABC: October 2007 to May 2008 Taichung, Taiwan

Taught ESL classes to adults. Filled out evaluation reports for each student and determined advancement placement levels. Taught pronunciation, grammar, daily conversation, speaking, reading, and listening.

PUBLICATIONS

Fuqua, J. (2014). Semantic Prosody: The phenomenon of "Prosody" in lexical patterning. *Journal of Language Teaching and Learning*. *4*(2), pp. 76-83.

Fuqua, J. (2015). Developing reading and writing skills of learners' from Arabic speaking backgrounds. *Canadian Journal of Action Research. 16* (1), pp. 22-30.

Fuqua, J, Gerber, H, Votteler, N. (2015). Mitigating plagiarism with English language learners through collaborative writing programs: A review of the literature. *STEM Journal, 16*(1), 153-169.

Master's Thesis (2007): The Essence of Tea: The Effects of Lu Yu's *Ch'a Ching* on the Extent of Changes in Tea Drinking and the Material Culture of Yue Ware in Tang China after 780 A.D.

CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

Fuqua, J, Gerber, H, Votteler, N. (2015). Mitigating plagiarism with English language learners through collaborative writing programs: A review of the literature. The 19th STEM International Conference, May 16, 2015 Korea Nazarene University, Cheon-An, South Korea (http://cms.kornu.ac.kr/user/eng/)

Aleisa, M., Fuqua, J., Aboulkacem, S. Gerber, H. (2015). Incidental language learning and popular media: A conceptual; software design for Arabic English language learners. AECT Accelerate Learning: Racing into the Future, November 5, 2015 Indianapolis, Indiana.

PROFESSIONAL MEMBERSHIP

Literacy Research Association (LRA)
Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)
American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)
National Council of Teacher Educators (NCTE)