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**MOBILE-VIDEO RECORDINGS IN JAPANESE UNIVERSITY  
ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS: AN EFFECTIVE OR  
DISRUPTIVE LEARNING TECHNOLOGY?<sup>1</sup>**

**ABSTRACT.** This paper reports on the ways in which six English as an international language (EIL) Japanese university faculty members utilized mobile-video recordings as an instructional tool, as well as their perceptions as it pertained to potential benefits and barriers. It also discusses the cultural friction that can arise when mobile-videos are integrated into an EIL course. The researcher conducted semi-structured interviews, observed a mobile-video supported lesson, and examined six digital video projects. The results indicate that the majority of the participants viewed mobile-videos to be a powerful instructional and learning tool that can help Japanese university EIL students improve their presentation skills and reflective competencies. However, the educators also identified nine distinct disadvantages of using mobile-videos in an EIL class. They were concerned about ethical and privacy issues as well as the impact that mobile-video recordings can have on their students' public speaking anxiety.

*Keywords:* technology-enhanced learning, mobile-video, Japanese students, case study, higher education.

## **1. Introduction**

In recent years, the dual forces of globalization and technology have dramatically altered the English as an international language (EIL) teaching terrain in Japanese higher education. According to Whitsed and Wright (2013),

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there is now a strong emphasis on ‘global competence’, ‘intercultural communication’ and ‘internationalisation’ within the tertiary sector. An examination of a typical Japanese post-secondary private institution’s website (i.e., Ritsumeikan University, 2018) certainly seems to confirm this finding as it reveals photos of studious foreign students liberally sprinkled throughout the site as well as a carefully-worded mission statement trumpeting the importance of globalization and the need for graduates to become ‘global citizens’. Nowadays, EIL instructors are expected to harness 21<sup>st</sup> century learners’ critical thinking abilities, presentation skills, and digital literacies in addition to their traditional teaching duties.

In many ways, teaching English to Japanese university students is analogous to that of a coach who works with elite athletes. Most people would agree that becoming fluent in a foreign language and performing at a high level in a sporting event are two things that require a tremendous amount of time, dedication, focus, and guidance. Another similarity is that an increasing number of EIL educators and coaches are integrating technology into their professional practice to bring out the best performance results of their students and athletes. A case in point from the world of sports concerns the 2018 United States bobsled and skeleton teams who use iPads and Hudl Technique, an application

that provides instantaneous video analysis and feedback, to get a competitive edge (Hudl Technique, 2014; United States Olympic Committee, 2018). Coach Tuffy Latour claimed that the integration of this app has not only enriched his athletes' training sessions, it has also taken coaching from the "dark ages of using a video camera, computer and hours of downloading video to a simple-to-use technology" (Hendry, 2014, para. 4). Clearly, this professional coach appears to view mobile-videos as an indispensable part of his team's training and development.

This sentiment reverberates with a growing number of EIL teachers who perceive mobile devices to be not only a highly valuable instructional tool, but indeed an essential one in today's technologically-infused globalized world. In the Japanese higher education context, EIL instructors have incorporated mobile devices into their courses to enhance students' reading comprehension (Milliner, 2017), vocabulary (Barr, 2016), learner autonomy (Leis, Tohei, & Cooke, 2018) as well as to foster collaborative and blended learning (Ilic, 2015; McCarty, Obari, & Sato, 2017). Other researchers from Japan have examined the impact that mobile-video recordings have on learners' communicative abilities (Gromik, 2012), self- and peer assessments (Miles, 2014), digital storytelling

skills (Gromik, 2015), and presentation performances (Toland & Mills, in press).

At the other end of the technology-enhanced learning spectrum, there is a sizable segment of the EIL teaching population who are adamantly opposed to the idea of allowing students to utilize mobile devices, especially the video record function, during lessons. Undoubtedly, there are some teachers who can vividly recall the high level of stress they experienced during their pre-service practicums or first lessons at a new school when a video recording was used as an evaluative mechanism versus a professional development resource. Others might feel handcuffed by ethical issues (Liu, 2012), cultural concerns (Ezzi, Teal, & Izzo, 2014), technological difficulties (Burston, 2014) and the belief that incorporating a mobile device into a class is an open invitation for students to engage in off-task behaviors (Wood et al., 2012). Finally, there are instructors who believe that time and curricular constraints, as well as a lack of support from their university administrators (Humphries & Burns, 2015), make it impossible to introduce technology-enhanced teaching initiatives into their professional practice.

Without question, there are a number of thorny issues that EIL teachers must address before they can effectively interweave mobile technology into

their lessons. Nowadays, it is essential that 21<sup>st</sup> century English language learners are taught digital literacies together with more traditional communicative skills (Pegrum, 2016). The ubiquitous and pervasive nature of mobile devices (Viberg & Grönlund, 2017) in conjunction with the fact that almost anyone can create a high quality audio-visual recording (Jordan, 2012) has opened up an exciting new array of teaching and learning opportunities.

## **2. Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this research investigation was to examine the ways in which six EIL educators utilized mobile-video recordings as an instructional tool, as well as their perceptions as it pertained to potential benefits and barriers. In addition, the researcher explored the cultural friction that exists in Japanese university communicative English classrooms. The academic literary landscape is full of studies that promote the transformative impact of certain learning technologies while glossing over the negative aspects. This study attempted to provide a more balanced account of mobile-videos in the hope that it will help front-line practitioners improve their professional competencies and ensure that this technology is utilized in a responsible manner during EIL lessons. Although smartphones are omnipresent in Japan, there is a noticeable gap in the academic

literature in regard to the use of mobile-video recordings in a Japanese higher education context. This project addresses this shortcoming by adding some practical insights to the knowledge base. Throughout this paper, the term ‘mobile-video’ refers to a media file created on a mobile device. It excludes video footage recorded on hand-held video and digital cameras, as well as laptop PCs.

### **2.1. Research Questions**

This study critically scrutinized the participants’ perceptions of mobile-videos and the underlying tensions that are ingrained in Japanese university EIL communicative and presentation lessons. The following research questions were addressed:

1. What do Japanese university faculty perceive as potential advantages and disadvantages of the use of mobile-video in an EIL lesson?
2. What cultural tensions, if any, arise when using mobile-video recordings in an EIL course at a Japanese university?

### **3. Literature Review**

#### **3.1. English Language Learning and Oral Presentations in Japan**

Critics of the English-language education system in Japan have argued that the strong emphasis on preparing learners for entrance examinations through grammar and vocabulary exercises have hindered their L2 communicative competencies (Kikuchi, 2013). Others have claimed that homogenized schools churn out mediocre students who are great at memorizing but suffer from a lack of creativity and independent thinking (Park, 2013). These overly simplified stereotypes, as Park (2013) astutely noted, fail to account for the actual complexities that are present in the Japanese school structure.

In English language classrooms throughout Japan, there is an overreliance on traditional teaching methodologies which have an adverse impact on cooperative learning and the students' 'willingness to communicate' (Maftoon & Ziafar, 2013). The predominance of a teacher-centered pedagogical approach is ultimately not that surprising when one considers that Japanese teachers are not only overworked and underpaid (Tsuboya-Newell, 2018), but many lack confidence in their own EIL abilities and failed to receive adequate training on how to teach communicative English during their pre-service practicums (Okumura, 2017). In addition, high school and university instructors are

frequently frustrated with logistical issues such as large student numbers, small rooms, and inadequate ICT equipment which further undermines opportunities for students to develop their public speaking skills (Cripps, Miles, & Wilson, 2015).

According to Wroblewski et al. (2014), the Japanese school system has underemphasized public speaking so students do not get many chances to learn and practice oral presentations. Wroblewski's research team reported that public speaking anxiety is considered to be "... one of the most feared context-based apprehensions in Japan, even when done in Japanese" (p. 59). Many Japanese learners will also experience a certain amount of 'foreign language anxiety' (MacWhinnie & Mitchell, 2017) and may worry about making mistakes in front of their peers (Carless, 2012). The lack of familiarity with Western-style teaching practices (Cutrone, 2009) in conjunction with the students' preconceived notions about the elements that go into an effective oral presentation, which can be quite different than that of their foreign EIL instructors (Cripps, Miles, & Wilson, 2015), are other issues that can further impede the learning process.



### **3.2. ICT and Foreign Language Education**

Throughout the globe, technological advances have had a pronounced impact on people's lives, especially the way in which individuals communicate and learn. Although the idea of integrating information and communication technology (ICT) into an EIL classroom might seem to be a relatively recent development, it is actually something that has a long and rich history. Beatty (2010) pointed out that students have used computers to learn English for over four decades and the lessons have evolved throughout the years from simplistic gap-fill tasks to highly sophisticated interactive multimedia presentations. Nowadays, the EIL teaching field is awash with ICT acronyms and terms such as 'massive open online courses' (MOOCs), 'computer assisted language learning' (CALL), 'technology assisted language learning' (TALL), 'web-enhanced language learning' (WELL), 'mobile assisted language learning' (MALL), and 'bring your own device' (BYOD) (Cowie & Sakui, 2013; Cripps, 2017; Farr & Murray, 2016).

Farr and Murray (2016) argued that technology-enhanced initiatives have "revolutionized" language learning and teaching (p. 1). This certainly seems to be the case, especially when one considers that a growing number of educators are interweaving Web 2.0 tools such as social networking sites, wikis, blogs,

vlogs, podcasts, and virtual reality games into their pedagogical practices. Students are able to access technological enhanced instructional material on their mobile devices as well as create new content and collaborate with peers outside the confines of the classroom. Smartphones are powerful multifunctional tools (Burston, 2014) which enable users to interact with others in a flexible and cooperative learning environment (Ozdamli & Uzunboylu, 2015). Kukulska-Hulme, Lee, and Norris (2017) noted that the affordances of mobile devices have blurred the traditional boundaries between informal and formal language learning settings.

For the last two decades, numerous researchers have extolled the benefits of mobile learning in a variety of contexts. For example, Cavus and Ibrahim (2017) reported that an interactive smartphone application using children's stories helped EIL students in Cyprus improve their vocabulary, pronunciation, listening, and comprehension. Other studies have noted that MALL enhanced English language learners' speaking abilities as well as facilitated communication amongst their peers and instructors (Golonka et al., 2014; Hwang & Chen, 2013).

### **3.3. Mobile-videos: An Effective Learning Tool**

Although video feedback in a foreign language context has been around since the early 1960s (Tochon, 2008), the use of video recordings was quite limited due to a variety of factors such as prohibitive costs, problematic technical issues, as well as the difficulty of using and transporting heavy bulky equipment (Burston, 2014; Richards & Farrell, 2005; Rosenstein, 2002). Nowadays, smartphones and tablets can produce high quality audio-visual files. Godwin-Jones (2013) believed that this reality has paved the way for L2 learners to create videos that are “linguistically and culturally rich” (p. 6). Added to that, EIL students can benefit by watching a mobile-video of their own public speaking performances as it provides them with “denser linguistic information” (Dufon, 2002, p. 44) as well as a more accurate visual artifact than their memories or a written evaluation from a teacher (Jordan, 2012).

A small but growing number of EIL educators in Asia have successfully integrated mobile-videos into their lessons. Gromik (2012) claimed that the Japanese university participants in his research study were motivated to learn English when they used mobile-videos to practice their speaking skills. In addition, the students improved their word counts and confidence levels. In a similar context, Miles (2014) contended that students who watched a mobile-

video of their own presentation were able to develop greater learner autonomy via the process of self-reflection as well as a more pronounced sense of responsibility during the peer-viewing activities. Likewise, Toland, Mills, and Kohyama (2016) discovered that mobile-videos enhanced their Japanese university participants' self- and peer-reflective feedback. In an earlier study, Hung (2009) argued that video supported reflection helped Taiwanese EIL learners' language development by fostering their ICT literacy skills, "affective engagement," and "cognitive reinforcement" (p. 186). Clearly, the findings of the aforementioned researchers demonstrate that mobile-videos, especially video supported feedback, have the potential to be a highly beneficial learning tool in an EIL environment.

### **3.4. Mobile-videos: A Precarious and Disruptive Technology?**

At the other end of the teaching continuum, there are a number of significant hazards that educators must not overlook. Stockwell (2016) argued that integrating mobile devices into an EIL classroom is "surprisingly complex" and teachers often erroneously assume that students are competent and willing users of technology (p. 303). On a similar note, Selwyn (2014) cautioned educators from having a technocentric approach as the inclusion of digital

technology in a higher education context has often been ‘messy’ and failed to live up to its hype. Many EIL teachers in Japan take it for granted that all learners will own a fully-functioning, up-to-date smartphone or tablet, especially as mobile devices are widely considered to be affordable and indispensable. This assumption is misguided as some students will not have access to any type of device, or they can only afford an antiquated cellphone.

Perhaps the greatest concern for educators falls under the umbrella of privacy. Most smartphones contain a plethora of personal information so it is no great surprise that people are worried about how their digital data is tracked as well as who has access to it (Ketelaar & van Balen, 2018). Earlier MALL studies (see Kondo et al., 2012; Stockwell, 2010) discovered that Japanese university students were reluctant to use their personal mobile devices for educational purposes due to privacy concerns. Privacy issues in an EIL classroom are further exacerbated whenever a mobile-video file is created. Videotaping a public speaking task can be intrusive and may result in learners experiencing anxiety as soon as they step in front of a camera (Nielsen & Harder, 2013) as well as embarrassment afterwards when they watch themselves (Jordan, 2012). In addition, peer viewing tasks can often be an uncomfortable experience and there is a possibility that students might be ridiculed if they

perform poorly. There is also the danger that a classmate could make a surreptitious mobile-video and upload it to a social networking site. Cyberbullying is a serious problem in many higher education contexts (Washington, 2015), thus it is vital that EIL instructors establish mobile-video guidelines that will protect their students' privacy and well-being.

#### **4. Methodology**

##### **4.1. Case Study Approach**

A case study methodology was employed to explore the participants' usage and perceptions of mobile-videos in their EIL classrooms. Yin (2014) defined a case study as a "contemporary phenomenon" that exists in a "real world context" (p. 16), whereas Eisenhardt (1989) believed that this approach enables a person to understand the "dynamics present within single settings" (p. 534). This methodological tool was selected for this study because it can help cultural outsiders conduct a more rigorous and purposeful investigation (Smith-Maddox & Solórzano, 2002) as well as shed light on the interplay between ICT integration and learning (e.g., Kuo et al., 2014). Critics of the case study approach have argued that it lacks rigor due to the subjectivity of the research practitioner (Simons, 2009) and the small sample size of most cases (Tsang,

2014). Flyvbjerg (2006) challenged this notion by arguing that the practical insights which emerge from an individual case study are not confined to one particular situation and can be utilized in other learning contexts. Furthermore, using a variety of sources or ‘triangulating the data’ can counterbalance the personal biases that a researcher brings to a scholarly investigation (Darke, Shanks, & Broadbent, 1998). Keeping these ideas in mind, the researcher incorporated three sources of data into this study and crosschecked his interpretation of the data with two of the participants.

#### **4.2. Setting and Participants**

The study took place at a private university in Japan. The qualitative data for this investigation were collected through an examination of students’ mobile-video presentation projects, a classroom observation session, and semi-structured interviews with six EIL instructors. The participants were recruited for this investigation because they identified themselves as having utilized mobile-videos as an instructional and learning tool in their classrooms. They work at the same university, albeit in different faculties. Two of them are female, while the other four are male. The individuals involved with this study were given pseudonyms and their genders have been randomized. Combined,

the participants have 98 years teaching experience ( $M=16.3$  years) in a variety of contexts, including 70 years ( $M=11.6$ ) working with Japanese higher education students on their oral presentation skills. The participants identified their ICT proficiency as ‘intermediate’ or ‘advanced’ and reported that they were comfortable using technology in their lessons.

#### **4.3. Data Collection and Analysis**

The data for the interviews were collected over a two-week period at the beginning of the 2016 spring semester both inside and outside of the university environment. Participation in the study was entirely voluntary and confidential, and no incentives for participation were provided. During the recruitment process, the objectives of the project were discussed with each participant. Two days before the scheduled interview, the participants were provided information about the study, including the questions they would be asked. Before the start of the interview, their informed consent was obtained. The interviews were conducted in a comfortable setting and audio recorded. Combined, they lasted 147.9 minutes or 2.47 hours ( $M=24.65$  minutes). Immediately after each interview, the researcher recorded his thoughts on a digital voice recorder. The audio files were transcribed in full and checked for accuracy. Afterwards, two of



the participants met with the researcher to review their interview transcripts and they confirmed that the contents were correct. The preliminary findings of the study were also discussed at this meeting.

The ninety-minute classroom observation occurred during the thirteenth week of the semester. Merriam and Tisdell (2016) argued that field observations, especially when they are combined with document analysis and interviews, are an important source of data. Organizing a classroom observation session in a Japanese tertiary context is something that is often much easier said than done. There are a variety of factors that must be taken into consideration such as scheduling realities, consent issues, and the impact that an outside observer will have on the classroom dynamics. Fortunately, one of the participants agreed to let the researcher observe a mobile-video lesson which was basically a highly focused practice session for the students' final presentation. In many ways, it was the ideal class to observe. First, David appeared to have incorporated mobile devices into his lesson in an innovative and pedagogically sound manner. Next, the researcher had worked with the majority of David's students in a previous course and this familiarity helped to counterbalance the intrusiveness factor. Before the observation session began, the purpose of the project was outlined and none of the students objected to having a former

instructor watch their lesson. The researcher sat quietly at the back of the classroom and recorded his observations in a notebook. No recording devices were used as they may have contributed to the learners' public speaking anxiety.

#### **4.4. Coding the Qualitative Data**

In addition to this first-hand account, the researcher watched six mobile-video projects the students created during the first part of the semester. The analysis of these visual artefacts also generated significant data. This information was coded alongside the researchers' observational notes and the transcripts from the six semi-structured interviews. The process of carefully examining and re-examining the transcripts and video analysis charts helped the researcher see various themes emerge. This material was inserted into a thematic mind map, created by the software MindNode, to organize and code the different concepts (IdeasOnCanvas, 2018). During this stage, open coding (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011) was utilized to recast the data into smaller and more manageable pieces. The open coding process generated 18 different codes. Afterwards, axial coding was used to reorganize and reformulate the initial codes. Liamputtong (2011) pointed out that axial coding allows researchers to draw connections between a major category and subcategories.

Eleven distinct axial codes were identified which helped capture the multifaceted nature of the data. The qualitative software package, Nvivo 10 for Mac, was used to organize and analyze the data.

## **5. Results and Discussion**

The data revealed that the instructors used mobile-videos in a variety of ways and for different types of communicative tasks such as informative speeches, job interview roleplays, poster presentations, class-fronted Microsoft PowerPoint and PechaKucha presentations, and digital storytelling projects. The participants felt that mobile-videos could help students become more cognizant of elements such as eye contact, gestures, voice volume, voice rhythm, posture, vocabulary usage, and pronunciation. At one end of the teaching continuum, David and Jenny appeared to have interwoven mobile devices into their lessons in a manner that provided students with more autonomous learning opportunities. David encouraged students to use their own smartphones during public speaking exercises because he felt that it reduced off-task behavior and provided them with *“more time in front of a camera.”* He noted: *“you could have a lot of students sitting idly if there’s not enough equipment to go around”* and *“it’s much easier to get more practice if they use their own devices.”* In

many ways, Jenny's classroom mobile-video usage mirrored her colleague's lessons with one important difference. She had access to her department's rich cache of iPads so students did not need to use their own devices. Whereas, Ken and Marie's students usually practiced in small groups as they waited to borrow one of their instructor's smartphones or tablets. According to Charles, interweaving mobile technology into his lessons was a good idea because it "*adds a little variety.*" Likewise, Mark commented: "*I will definitely do the videotape thing again. In fact, I'll probably expand it... I'm convinced of its value.*" These sentiments reverberated throughout the majority of the interviews, albeit with certain important cautionary caveats.

### **5.1. Research Question One: Mobile-video Advantages and Disadvantages**

The first research question explored the participants' thoughts on the potential benefits and barriers that exist when mobile-videos are integrated into an EIL class. A number of advantages were identified that ranged from the highly practical to the more abstract.

## **5.2. Advantages**

All of the participants were in agreement that mobile devices are accessible and portable. David captured this sentiment in the following manner: “... *all of my students own a smartphone so it’s not difficult to get the equipment into class*” and “*I’m really freed up from space constraints... I can divide students into several different classrooms to practice their presentations.*” His observations merely confirmed previous studies (e.g., Kukulska-Hulme, Lee, & Norris, 2017; Viberg & Grönlund, 2017) that highlighted the ubiquity and portability of mobile devices.

On another practical note, Jenny claimed that student-generated mobile-video recordings reduce the inevitable time lag that exists whenever a teacher videotapes and uploads a presentation to a learning management system (LMS). She stated: “*if they do the recording, they have the video right in front of them and it’s instantaneous... they don’t need to wait until it’s on the LMS.*” Mark echoed this notion, albeit from a real-time pedagogical perspective. He noted: “... *if they do their presentation in class it’s a linear process*” whereas “... *if I get them to do it digitally on their phones, my class time is used for other things... five students can actually be videotaping at the same time.*” Mark also observed that there is “*always downtime*” whenever a teacher grades oral

presentations synchronously “*especially during the changeover process.*” He passionately commented: “*doing it on video reduces the gap, the waiting time!*” Mark’s observations echo the findings of researchers who reported that the flexibility of mobile devices has dramatically altered traditional learning boundaries (Kukulska-Hulme, Lee, & Norris, 2017; Ozdamli & Uzunboylu, 2015).

Another advantage that emerged is that most of the instructors felt that mobile-videos enhanced the critical self- and peer-reflective process. Marie stated: “*I’m a big believer in seeing yourself as an effective teaching strategy.*” Similarly, Charles also claimed his students benefited from “*watching their presentations mistakes on a smartphone screen.*” Ken contended that video-supported peer feedback was “*a great way [to get students] to discuss among themselves the things they need to change or improve.*” Although Jenny created opportunities for learners to self-reflect, she believed that peer evaluation was especially important in an EIL presentation course. She noted: “*they are or should be by the end of the course experts as well, so they should have a say in how it’s [final presentation] assessed.*” Collaboration and peer support were noticeable during the observation session. David’s students taped printouts of their final presentation slides to the classroom walls and videotaped their

presentation performances. The learners were encouraged to use their L1 to highlight the positive aspects as well as areas that needed to be improved. Throughout the self- and peer-viewing activities, the majority of the learners were focused and could be heard providing one another with helpful suggestions. In fact, a number of students were observed pausing their classmate's mobile-video file as they made notes and rewinding it to watch certain parts more than once.

During a post-observation debriefing, David contended that students are “*more serious and provide better feedback when they use smartphones*” and “*most students try to do a decent presentation if they know someone is going to watch it.*” David believed that his students enjoyed creating collaborative ‘how to’ instructional videos on their mobile devices during the earlier part of the term. He stated: “*they liked working with their friends ... they really got into it.*” The mobile-video projects that were examined certainly confirmed this sentiment and it was obvious that a considerable amount of time went into the editing process. In addition, most of the videos had a logical and well-worded script which supports Godwin-Jones’ (2013) contention about the linguistic richness of smartphone audio-visual files. The video analysis, classroom observation, and interview data confirmed previous investigations that found

mobile-videos can play a role in enhancing EIL students' motivation (Gromik, 2012), sense of responsibility (Miles, 2014), self- and peer-feedback (Toland, Mills, & Kohyama, 2016), and ICT skills (Hung, 2009). Clearly, there were a number of significant advantages that were identified by the participants (Table 1).

Table 1  
*Summary of Mobile-video Advantages*

Item
1. Mobile devices are accessible and portable
2. Instantaneous viewing – no delay waiting for videos to be uploaded to an LMS
3. More efficient use of an instructor's time during class (e.g., no downtime between presentations)
4. Enhances students' self-reflection
5. Produces better quality peer feedback
6. Students are more serious and responsible during self- and peer viewing activities
7. Improves ICT skills
8. Enhances motivation levels
9. Mobile-video scripts are often linguistically rich



### **5.3. Disadvantages**

The majority of the instructors indicated that they were initially apprehensive about interweaving mobile-videos into their normal teaching practice because of time concerns and an excessively busy curriculum. Ken passionately stated: “*our classes have too many things together! We have writing, communication, and presentation skills ... they [mobile-video lessons] are valuable but definitely time-consuming.*” Likewise, Charles noted: “*the whole management of it can be quite tricky.*” These comments are not surprising because many EIL teachers can feel overwhelmed by time and curricular constraints (Humphries & Burns, 2015). In addition to logistical considerations, four of the participants felt that another notable drawback of using mobile-videos in their lessons was that some learners had a hard time staying on task with a smartphone in their hands. Ken indicated that he had become “*extra vigilant*” to make sure his students were not “*playing with their phones*” or “*looking at each other’s pictures.*” During the classroom observation session, David gently admonished one learner with these words: “*stop sending out tweets ... finish the peer-viewing activity.*” The participants’ comments mirror the findings of Wood et al. (2012) who reported that many teachers were concerned that mobile devices would exacerbate off-task behaviors.

All of the participants identified problematic technical barriers that they had to overcome. Jenny noted that some students use “*ancient cellphones*” so the “*quality of their film is not very good.*” Mark required his learners to upload their mobile-videos to the university’s LMS. He stated: “*I only received 60% functional responses ... I think about 30% of the kids just gave up.*” Furthermore, the other “*major problem was video quality*” and “*some students sent their videos in five different pieces.*” Marie empathised with her colleague’s frustrations. She commented: “*the biggest problem you have with it [LMS] is there’s a limit on file size [50 GB]. For that reason, I never upload videos.*” Even David, a tech-savvy Apple enthusiast reported that he “*found it difficult to troubleshoot or give any sort of advice*” when students bring Android devices to class. Likewise, Marie pointed out that a recent upgrade to her smartphone left her “*frustrated*” and “*anxious*” during a lesson when she was unable to effectively demonstrate how to email a voice memo. These comments reiterate the fact that integrating technology into a university classroom can be complicated (Selwyn, 2014) and students are not always competent smartphone users (Stockwell, 2016). Not surprisingly, these issues can create pedagogical challenges for educators who use MALL (Burston, 2014). In addition to dealing with problematic technical barriers, David noted that a “*pretty expensive mistake*

*and uncomfortable situation*” could occur if a student accidentally drops and damages a classmate’s mobile device.

Without question, the most significant disadvantage that emerged from the interviews was the threat that mobile-videos posed to students’ privacy and emotional well-being. Mark felt that the *“invasion of privacy is never far away”* in a mobile-video lesson. Ken reported that some of his learners were *“unwilling to use their own phones”* during group presentation practice sessions. This observation reiterated the findings of previous MALL studies which highlighted the apprehension students had about integrating their personal devices into lessons (Kondo et al., 2012; Stockwell, 2010). Jenny pointed out that *“a lot of videos get automatically stored on a cloud ... they could end up on YouTube or another forum.”* David felt that this type of scenario could expose learners to *“cyberbullying”* and *“create a really bad situation.”* He also stated: *“many instructors are very afraid of making one big mistake and getting fired ... the potential is there if you upload mobile-videos to various sites.”* These comments were not surprising as they mirror the academic literature. The participants were concerned about ethical issues (Liu, 2012), who had access to their students’ digital files (Ketelaar & van Balen, 2018) and the problem of cyberbullying

(Washington, 2015). Table 2 provides an overview of the mobile-video disadvantages that emerged from this study.

Table 2  
*Summary of Mobile-video Disadvantages*

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Item
1. Time-consuming and difficult to fit into a busy curriculum
2. Resistance from students about using their personal mobile devices during lessons
3. Technological barriers (e.g., antiquated cellphones, uploading video files to an LMS)
4. Increases the potential for off-task behaviors
5. Invasion of privacy
6. Cyberbullying opportunities increase
7. Self- and peer-viewing tasks can be uncomfortable and stressful
8. Mobile devices can be damaged during the viewing and recording sessions
9. A privacy breach (i.e., video file uploaded to a SNS) could result in an instructor losing her/his position

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#### **5.4. Research Question Two: Cultural Tensions**

The second research question examined the cultural tensions that can arise when mobile-videos are used in an EIL course. The participants were at

different ends of the spectrum when asked if they thought it was necessary to teach Japanese university students presentation skills. Four of the instructors were adamant in their belief that the ability to speak English in a public context is “*absolutely essential*” in our modern globalized world. However, Marie felt that some learners “*might be going in a different path so for them it’s not all that necessary.*” Charles was passionate in his contention that teaching public speaking techniques to first and second-year students is often “*completely pointless*” because “*most of them don’t have a solid English-language foundation.*” He added: “*we’ve got too caught up in the presentation skills and moved away from language, which is what we should be teaching ... it’s like learning to run before they can walk.*” These words echo previous studies (e.g., Kikuchi, 2013; Wroblewski et al., 2014) that highlighted the Japanese education system’s shortcomings in the public speaking arena. However, it was unforeseen that there would be such a sharp divide amongst the non-Japanese EIL instructors.

A theme that kept resurfacing throughout the interviews was the intercultural gulf that exists between the expectations of the foreign EIL teachers and the presentation style that is deeply entrenched in the Japanese academic and business worlds. Mark noted that a typical PowerPoint presentation is

“*data-heavy*” and “*not very easy for the consumer to consume.*” Jenny reported that a PechaKucha assignment generated a great deal of anxiety for several of her students. She stated: “*one student couldn’t get it into his head that he only had twenty seconds per slide ... the Japanese mindset is to put as much information on a slide and just talk and talk about it.*” Another learner faced the screen and “*refused to look at the audience.*” Marie pointed out that students are required to use completely different styles in their economics and EIL classes. She stated: “*our faculty want presentations to have academic words, economic words ... they [Japanese professors] are very uncomfortable if they can’t read text-heavy slides.*” Charles passionately questioned the divide between the two presentation styles in the following manner: “*there’s a huge cultural clash! It always makes me wonder whether we should be teaching things like gestures and eye contact ... is it our job to culturally assimilate them?*” The intercultural tension that the participants identified was not entirely unexpected as Western-style teaching practices (Cutrone, 2009) and different presentation style expectations (Cripps, Miles, & Wilson, 2015) can undermine a student’s confidence and ‘willingness to communicate’ (Maftoon & Ziafar, 2013).

The data from the classroom observation and analysis of the student mobile-video projects revealed that some learners were nervous and

apprehensive about speaking English in front of a smartphone camera. During the observation session, one student made an impressive presentation when he was practicing in front of his partner. However, this individual was noticeably stiffer and less confident when he was videotaped. Charles claimed that the Western presentation format might actually hinder the learning process because it makes many students feel “*self-conscious and embarrassed.*” Furthermore, “*watching themselves on camera creates even more discomfort.*” Likewise, David commented: “*Japanese people tend to be very private ... there can be a lot of embarrassment to put themselves out there.*” These observations were anticipated as previous studies have discussed performance anxiety as well as the uncomfortable friction that can be generated watching yourself on a smartphone screen (Jordan, 2012; Nielsen & Harder, 2013). All of the participants were in complete agreement that inserting mobile-videos into an EIL lesson created a certain amount of foreign language anxiety for Japanese higher education learners. However, the majority of the instructors felt that it was not an insurmountable barrier and their students benefited from the challenge.

## **6. Limitations**

There are several significant limitations to this study. First, only six semi-structured interviews were conducted with instructors working at the same private institution. Other researchers may want to increase the sample size and diversify it by including EIL educators from public universities as well as different parts of Japan or even other countries. They should also consider using focus group interviews so that participants can cross-check and validate their individual experiences. An analysis of a greater number of video artefacts and more classroom observation sessions would have enhanced the rigor of this investigation. Finally, the researcher worked at the university where the study was conducted and this reality created the potential for personal bias. Ethical research practices were followed and multiple data sources were examined to minimize the possibility of any of the researcher's preconceived notions seeping into the study.

## **7. Conclusion**

In many ways, mobile-videos are like the proverbial double-edged sword. On one side, they can enhance EIL students' public speaking skills as well as enable peers and instructors to provide richer feedback. The flipside to this is



that mobile-videos have the potential to cause a tremendous amount of serious damage to both the learners and teachers. The data that emerged from this study underscores the fact that integrating mobile devices into an EIL lesson is something that requires a great deal of thought and careful consideration. Furthermore, educators must establish a set of ethical mobile-video guidelines constructed on a foundation of trust and respect that will protect their students' privacy and well-being.

The findings from this study support Selwyn's (2014) contention that integrating technology into a higher education learning environment is often a 'messy' and complicated process. Even though most Japanese university students seem to have a smartphone permanently glued to their hands, it does not necessarily mean that they are proficient users of mobile technology. Teachers can avoid getting stuck in the quicksand of technocentrism by remembering to always put the pedagogy before the technology and not the other way around. Mobile-video lessons must be designed to accommodate a variety of different devices and learning styles. In addition, students need to be provided with non-technological alternatives if they are not comfortable using their smartphone in class or lack the financial resources to own a mobile device.

As noted previously, the athletes and coaches who are members of the 2018 United States bobsled and skeleton teams spend a tremendous amount of time with a mobile device in their hands recording workouts and watching video footage of their training sessions and competitions. While the integration of technology into the team's training regime has undoubtedly helped the competitors perform more efficiently, it has not been a sure-fire path to Olympic gold medal glory. Likewise, incorporating a smartphone into an EIL classroom will not miraculously transform a learner's public speaking performance into a mesmerizing 'TED Talk' type speech. However, if educators can adequately address privacy issues and establish a pedagogically sound approach towards technology-enhanced learning, they will be more likely to view mobile-videos in a similar manner to that of an elite coach of high performance athletes. Simply put, they will come to appreciate the fact that mobile-videos are a powerful instructional and learning tool that can help Japanese EIL university students cultivate their public speaking skills and reflective competencies.

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