The 2011 Pan-SIG Conference Proceedings

Discovering Paths to Fluency

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Message from the editors

The 10th Annual Pan-SIG Conference, held at Shinshu University, Matsumoto, Japan over the weekend of May 21st and 22nd, 2010 was a resounding success with teachers and researchers attending from across Japan and a number of other countries. We would especially like to thank Mark Brierley and the conference committee for their efforts, which resulted in a professional, but friendly, atmosphere at the site.

The 2011 Pan-SIG Proceedings may be considered a window onto the conference for those who were unable to attend, or those who would like to revisit a particularly impressive presentation. Collected herein are 20 papers representing the excellent scholarship in evidence at this year's Pan-SIG Conference. We hope you find the papers in this volume as interesting as we have. We are looking forward to working with submissions from presenters at the upcoming 11th Annual Pan-SIG Conference to be held at Hiroshima University on June 16-17, 2012.

Lastly, we wish to dedicate the Proceedings to Mr. Matthew Walsh, who very sadly passed away at far too young an age on October 6th, 2011. Matt was co-editor for the 9th Pan-SIG Conference Proceedings and was slated to have been lead editor of this volume. In addition to being a first-rate teacher-researcher, he was a wonderful human being with a big heart and an infectious smile. He will be missed terribly.

Kim Bradford-Watts
Robert Chartrand
Eric M. Skier

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Feedback on the Tenth Annual Pan-SIG Conference 2011

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Abstract
The Pan-SIG conference is an annual collaborative effort of the Special Interest Groups (SIGs) within the Japan Association of Language Teachers (JALT). This article describes a first effort at gathering feedback on it for two purposes: to obtain input to help presenters in their future presentations and to provide suggestions for improving future conferences.
分野別研究部会年次大会(Pan-SIG conference)は全国語学教育学会（ＪＡＬＴ）内分野別研究部会による協同の取り組みである。ここでは、それに関しての初の調査について記述するもので、二つの目的がある：プレゼンターが今後のプレゼンテーションをより良くするための情報を得ること、及び今後の年次大会運営をより良くするための提案をすることである。

Key words
conference feedback, Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT), Pan-SIG, presentation feedback, conference management

The Pan-SIG conference is a collaborative effort of the Special Interest Groups (SIGs) within the Japan Association of Language Teachers (JALT). The theme of the tenth annual conference in 2011 held at Shinshu University’s Matsumoto campus was "Paths to Fluency". Participating SIGs included: Business English (BE), Bilingualism (BL), Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL), Critical Thinking (CT), College and University Educators (CUE), Extensive Reading (ER), Framework and Language Portfolio (FLP), Global Issues in Language Education (GILE), Japanese as a Second Language (JSL), Junior and Senior High School (JSHS), Learner Development (LD), Life Long Learning (LLL), Material Writers (MW), Other Language Educators (OLE), Professionalism, Administration and Leadership in Education (PALE), Pragmatics (PRAG), Study Abroad (SA), Task Based Learning (TBL), Teaching Children (TC), Teacher Education (TED), Testing and Evaluation (TEVAL) and Teachers Helping Teachers (THT), in conjunction with the Shinshu Chapter of JALT.

This first attempt to gather feedback on a Pan-SIG conference was made for two main reasons: to provide input to help presenters in their future presentations and to provide suggestions for improving future conferences. Feedback forms (see Appendix 1) were provided in the conference packets; these were to be filled out and collected by student assistants at the site exit. Data was gathered also through Surveymonkey post-conference. While over 200 participants attended the conference, feedback was received on only 35 of the approximately 120 sessions, from 16 participants (hardcopy: ten, Surveymonkey: six).

Participants were asked to rate each presentation they attended on a four-point Likert scale according to whether it was: engaging, easy to follow, beneficial to their teaching and had a good balance of practice and theory. A box was included for “good points/suggestions” about each presentation. At the end of the survey was a space for comments/suggestions about the conference as a whole including logistics such as payment/registration, venue and PR.

The feedback directed to individual presenters was sent directly to each presenter and to the program chair. Eight presenters responded positively to the feedback, saying that it was “welcome” and “useful”, while one presenter commented that the low number of replies rendered it “statistically insignificant”. If a presenter received only one reply which happened to be extremely negative, it could be not only skewed, but demoralizing. It was also noted that the forms could have been made clearer, especially when one presenter made more than one presentation. One presenter said it would be good to know ahead of time what would be done with the feedback.

Suggestions from the presenters for improving the lack of response included: 1) have presenters bring their own feedback forms to distribute and collect at their presentation, 2) have volunteer staff (who could double as timekeepers) distribute and collect forms at each presentation and put them into envelopes which would be handed to the person in charge, 3) make sure the importance of the forms is stressed at the opening ceremony and at each plenary and 4) announce that a certain amount of money would be donated to a charity for each form submitted. Implementation of suggestions 1) and 2) could be left to the discretion of the presenter.

Concerning the conference as a whole, 18 of the 25 who offered comments praised aspects such as organization, presentations, venue (good location; the compact site facilitated more networking), party (on-site), bus service (good directions), food, staff and website. All of the eight emails sent to the Pan-sig committee provided positive feedback for similar reasons, with the plenaries, presentations, and staff (friendly and helpful) receiving especial praise. Six comments included issues to be addressed or suggestions for future conferences:

- Panels should have a moderator to ensure that each panelist has a chance to speak and to keep the discussion on course.
- There were too many presentations with too few attendees.
- There were some discrepancies in the handbook.
- The presenters went over time, making it difficult to get to the next presentation on time or to set up for one's own presentation. There should be timekeepers who could also run for help in the event of an equipment breakdown.
- There was no place to sit and talk or read programs. One participant was looking for refreshments, in vain.
- Hopefully the Pan-Sig Proceedings will be online in a more timely manner than last year.

Another issue brought up was the low attendance of teachers from local schools.

As regards to pre-conference procedures, it was suggested that vetting guidelines should be stricter and presentations should be labeled to make it easier for participants to tell at a glance what kind of presentation it would be (e.g. getting ideas for classes, developing ideas for language teaching or interacting with other people).

Lastly, for the benefit of future conference planners, especially in terms of publicity, Appendix 2 shows how attendees found out about the conference and Appendix 3 the survey used to obtain the results (courtesy of Rory Rosszell).

My thanks go out to all those who have taken the time to contribute feedback and suggestions.

Biodata

Mary Aruga is a lecturer at Shinshu University, Tokyo University of Science, Suwa, and Honan College. Her interests include pragmatics, cross-cultural communication, content-based learning, and motivation.

Appendix 1: Feedback form (to cover both sides of a piece of A4 paper)

The 10th Pan-SIG Conference – Questionnaire

We would appreciate a few minutes of your time to give helpful feedback to presenters and ensure the quality of future conferences.

Presentation/Speaker:	No Yes (Please circle)	Good points/suggestions:
Engaging	1 2 3 4	
Easy to follow	1 2 3 4	
Beneficial to my teaching	1 2 3 4	
Good balance of practice and theory	1 2 3 4	
Presentation/Speaker:	No Yes (Please circle)	Good points/suggestions:
Engaging	1 2 3 4	
Easy to follow	1 2 3 4	
Beneficial to my teaching	1 2 3 4	
Good balance of practice and theory	1 2 3 4	
Presentation/Speaker:	No Yes (Please circle)	Good points/suggestions:

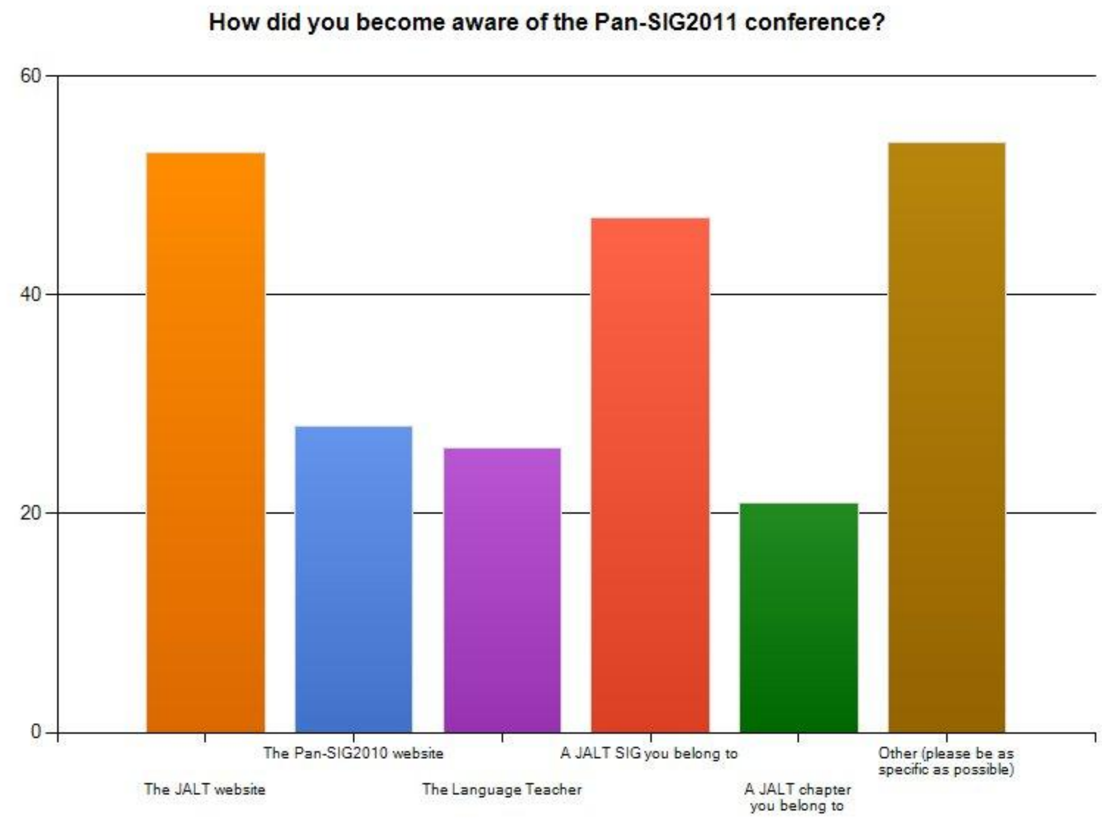
Engaging	1 2 3 4	
Easy to follow	1 2 3 4	
Beneficial to my teaching	1 2 3 4	
Good balance of practice and theory	1 2 3 4	
Presentation/Speaker:	No Yes (Please circle)	Good points/suggestions:
Engaging	1 2 3 4	
Easy to follow	1 2 3 4	
Beneficial to my teaching	1 2 3 4	
Good balance of practice and theory	1 2 3 4	
Presentation/Speaker:	No Yes (Please circle)	Good points/suggestions:
Engaging	1 2 3 4	
Easy to follow	1 2 3 4	
Beneficial to my teaching	1 2 3 4	
Good balance of practice and theory	1 2 3 4	
Presentation/Speaker:	No Yes (Please circle)	Good points/suggestions:
Engaging	1 2 3 4	
Easy to follow	1 2 3 4	
Beneficial to my teaching	1 2 3 4	
Good balance of practice and theory	1 2 3 4	

Presentation/Speaker:	No Yes (Please circle)	Good points/suggestions:
Engaging	1 2 3 4	
Easy to follow	1 2 3 4	
Beneficial to my teaching	1 2 3 4	
Good balance of practice and theory	1 2 3 4	
Presentation/Speaker:	No Yes (Please circle)	Good points/suggestions:
Engaging	1 2 3 4	
Easy to follow	1 2 3 4	
Beneficial to my teaching	1 2 3 4	
Good balance of practice and theory	1 2 3 4	
Presentation/Speaker:	No Yes (Please circle)	Good points/suggestions:
Engaging	1 2 3 4	
Easy to follow	1 2 3 4	
Beneficial to my teaching	1 2 3 4	
Good balance of practice and theory	1 2 3 4	
Presentation/Speaker:	No Yes (Please circle)	Good points/suggestions:
Engaging	1 2 3 4	
Easy to follow	1 2 3 4	

Beneficial to my teaching	1 2 3 4	
Good balance of practice and theory	1 2 3 4	
Presentation/Speaker:	No Yes (Please circle)	Good points/suggestions:
Engaging	1 2 3 4	
Easy to follow	1 2 3 4	
Beneficial to my teaching	1 2 3 4	
Good balance of practice and theory	1 2 3 4	

Any other comments/suggestions concerning payment/registration, venue, PR or other aspects of the conference?

Appendix 2



Appendix 3

How did you become aware of the Pan-SIG2011 conference? - Other (please be as specific as possible)

Member of committee ;-)

I am on the committee

I presented at the last PanSig conference

Too many drinks with XXXX

Went to last year's conference

Word of mouth via MASH and JALT friends prior to any of the above official channels

I am the XXXXX Program Chair

Word of mouth

Personal communication with co-presenter

It happens every year

Pub

Can't remember, but probably a JALT or JALT sig mail list.

friend who is also a JALT member

email announcement

My friend informed me about the conference.

via a JALT member who is a friend of mine

working for the PANSIG as a commitee menber

A friend told me about it.

fellow teacher

As I attend most years and did last year I just sort of knew

from colleagues at XXXX University - Tokyo

a colleague

I am a comittee member, so I know this conference☆

JALT Conference in Nagoya

Through colleagues

Colleagues at XXXX College

I was invited to sit on a panel discussion

A friend mentioned it

The linguist list

I've been aware of it since 2002 - now it is half-instinct to attend.

Since I live in Matsumoto, I was aware of the initial offer to host the conference at the EBM.

Former Colleague

Probaly all of the above. Been going for years.

An email message from XXXX

I wish ELT Calendar were one of the choices above. www.eltcalendar.com, conference listing and call for papers listing, ELT Calendar twitter, and XXXX on facebook

planning member

Committee member

XXXX, a colleague.

The handbook of the JALT conference in Nagoya, November 2010

Attend regularly so googled it

I help run the XXXX thing!

facebook

A colleague on the organizing committee

Friend

XXXX asked me to the Pan-SIG

EBMs (attended as JSHS SIG Coordinator)

Presentation partners

a colleague

Colleague

Jalt mailing list

Three types of reader: Activities for motivation in Extensive Reading

John Bankier

Soka University

Reference data:

Bankier, J. (2012). Three types of reader: Activities for motivation in extensive reading. In K. Bradford-Watts, R. Chartrand, & E. Skier (Eds.), *The 2011 Pan-SIG Conference Proceedings*. Matsumoto: JALT.

Abstract

In order to help teachers think more clearly about motivational issues in Extensive Reading (ER), this paper aims to separate out common problems into three theoretical *types* of learner: those who enjoy reading in the L1 but do not participate in ER, those who participate in ER but whose beliefs about learning adversely affect their chances of success, and finally those learners who are not interested reading at all. The characteristics of these types are first defined, informed by the work of Dörnyei (2005; 2009), Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) and Mori (2002), making particular reference to Mori's four factors in reading motivation. Three activities are then described, each of which targets a particular type of learner and aims to increase their motivation through drawing on group cohesion, challenging learners' beliefs about language, and using the intrinsic value of reading to counter beliefs about reading efficacy.

多読（ER）の動機付けに関する論点を教師がよりはっきりと考えられるように本稿は頻繁に起こる問題を以下の 3 つの理論上の学習者タイプに分類することを目的としている。母国語での読書を楽しむが多読に参加しないタイプ、多読に参加するが学習に対する信条が成功の可能性に負の影響を与えているタイプ、リーディングに興味を全く持たないタイプ。Dörnyei (2005; 2009)、Wigfield and Guthrie (1997)、Mori (2002)を参照して、まずこれらのタイプの特徴が明らかにされる。特に Mori (2002)のリーディングに対する動機付けの４つの要因について言及される。次に３つのアクティビティが説明される。それぞれのアクティビティは、特定のタイプの学習者に焦点が絞られ、集団の団結力を利用したり、学習者の言語学習に対する信条に異議を唱えたり、リーディング効果の信条に対抗するためにリーディングに内在する価値を使ったりすることで彼らの学習意欲を向上させることを目指している。

Keywords: Extensive Reading, motivation, demotivation, learned, reading efficacy,

activity
多読、動機付け、意欲喪失、学習性無力感、リーディング効果、アクティビティ

Motivation has a huge impact on second language learning. In Extensive Reading (ER), motivation is especially relevant, as learners will be expected to do much of the work outside class and in their own time (Waring, n.d.; Waring & Takahashi, n.d.). As a result, a key factor in a successful ER class is the extent to which learners are motivated to read, enjoy reading, and read appropriate books. Demotivation in ER is a particular issue, and I will later present examples of how even learners with an interest in L1 reading may be demotivated during ER. This paper is informed by the motivational theories of Dörnyei (2005; 2009), Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) and Mori (2002), and focuses on three theoretical *types* of learner. These types were derived from experience of recurring issues relating to lack of ER motivation, and form the basis of three activities designed to target specific aspects of learner motivation in relation to these types.

Teaching context

The activities described in this paper were designed for adult learners with a typical age range of 18-27. The students were enrolled on a two-year language program at a foreign language college in Japan (*gaikokugo senmongakkou*). The nationalities of the students were divided between 60% Japanese and 40% international, of which the majority were Korean, followed by Chinese, with a small number of other nationalities such as Colombian, Mongolian, Russian, and Brazilian. The teachers in the program were experienced overall but did not have experience in teaching extensive reading. In particular, teachers found it difficult to motivate students to read within the recommended boundaries of ER, such as the number of books read and their level. Indeed, many first year students were initially skeptical of the value of the program (see Wilkinson, 2009); however, a survey we conducted at the end of the second year indicated that the vast majority of students had been very happy with the program and enjoyed it. Despite this, the motivational issues meant that the program was not as successful as we might have hoped (see Bankier, 2011).

In terms of available resources, the number of books was limited at first but was expanded significantly in the second and third years of the program. The students had access to the complete Cambridge Readers series, the majority of the Oxford Bookworms series, and a large number of Penguin Readers, as well as some books from other publishers. All in all, the ratio of books per student was around 3:1. Shortage of books was generally not an issue that students commented on, but the shortage of particular genres of books was. In the first year of the program, we particularly lacked many non-fiction books and genres such as science fiction; by the second year, these issues had been partly addressed, but there was still a lack of variety in the materials, with a focus on thrillers, romance and abridged classics (perhaps a weakness of the graded reader series we had chosen). The activities described in this paper were designed to be used for all levels of first- and second-year students on the program, with the exception of the lowest level first-years.

A review of research into motivation in reading

Motivation in learning another language has often been conceptualized in terms of *integrative* and *instrumental* orientations (see Sturgeon, n.d., for a comprehensive review). Instrumental motivation refers to the practical value of learning a language, while integrative motivation refers to the learner's desire to learn due to a personal interest in its people and culture (Lambert, 1974, cited in Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991). Integrative motivation, however, has come under criticism in recent years (Dörnyei 2009; Mori, 2002; Ushioda, 2011), as an increase in the use of English as an international language has been seen as having deemphasized the role of cultural integration. Instead, instrumental and integrative motivation have been shown to be strongly related (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002, citied in Ushioda, 2011).

In an attempt to deal with the concerns relating to the integrative/instrumental model of motivation, Dörnyei (2005; 2009) presented a new theory, the *L2 Motivational Self System*, which "explicitly focuses on aspects of the individual's self" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 9). Dörnyei's theory is grounded in the concept of *possible selves*, in which learners are seen as looking forward to future achievement or a future conception of themselves. This can be related to the idea of the *good reader*: the extent to which learners see themselves as readers or the extent to which they see value in becoming a reader in the future.

Motivation in reading

While there is plenty of research showing achievement gains from ER, Mori (2002) and Apple (2005) both comment on the paucity of research into motivation in L2 reading. Mori, therefore, utilizes the framework developed by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997), which was developed for native-speaker child learners, based on expectancy-value theory (Mori, 2002), specifically the extent to which learners' beliefs and attitudes affect their success. Apple (2005) summarizes Wigfield and Guthrie's components as: competency and efficacy beliefs, achievement values and goals, and social aspects. That is to say, reading motivation is affected by how well learners believe they read, the value they attach to reading books, and how they are influenced by their peers or the social environment.

Mori (2002) adapts these components to L2 reading into four factors. Firstly, *intrinsic value of reading* refers to students' enjoyment of reading for its own sake, such as the degree to which learners became immersed in reading. Secondly, *extrinsic utility value of reading* refers to the instrumental value of reading, such as being able to read English newspapers or magazines or getting a job which uses English. Thirdly, *importance of reading* is linked to the idea of integrative motivation, in terms of broadening one's world view, for instance. Finally, *reading efficacy* refers to the learners' beliefs about their reading ability, such as past experiences or past grades. From the results of the research she conducted into the four motivational factors, Mori concludes that the motivation to read is not "independent of general motivational constructs" (p. 101). In other words, motivation in reading was similar to motivation in general; as a result, it is "rash to label students as either motivated or not motivated to read" (p. 101). A student who was particularly motivated to read was more likely to be motivated in general; therefore, it is more helpful to view learners in terms of motivated or not motivated *students*, rather than readers. This correlated with the findings of Wigfield and Guthrie (1997), who found that intrinsic motivation predicted the amount and breadth of reading.

Learners beliefs about all four of Mori's factors are particularly shaped by their past experiences, and my experience suggests that this can have a significant negative, as well as positive, impact on reading motivation. What learners expect from language learning will have been developed before they begin learning, and learners' beliefs will have been shaped by their past experiences (White, 1999; Gabillon, 2005).

This is particularly relevant in terms of how students approach L2 learning, and affects what strategies or approaches they are likely to adopt. Lack of success in L2 learning is frequently connected to the strategies learners use, and these strategies change as learners become more proficient (Tar, n.d.). Learners may believe they do not possess the necessary skills, and this belief will affect "the choices they make, the effort they put forth, their inclinations to persist at certain tasks, and their resiliency in the face of failure" (Zeldin & Pajares, 2000, cited in Gabillon, 2005, p. 242). Thus it is important for ER activities to take into account learners' beliefs, and for teachers to be aware of how these beliefs may affect students' performance and achievement.

To summarize, Mori's (2002) four factors focus particularly on how learners' beliefs about the value, usefulness, and possibility of success in reading affect motivation, as well as on the intrinsic enjoyment of reading which is a common goal for ER programs. I will now describe the *three types of learner* that I developed, and how these types are related to Mori's factors and other research into motivation in reading.

Three types of reader

Through conversations with teachers and students on our language program, it became apparent that motivation was an issue which required greater focus. Simple action research was conducted in the form of interviews with teachers on the extensive reading program; the interviews were initiated either by the author or by teachers themselves in response to particular motivational issues on the program. The interviews were informal and conducted over the course of the academic year. Teachers were asked how many books their students were reading, whether the students were reading books of the appropriate level, and whether students were having difficulty selecting books. Teachers were also asked to give their opinions on which students were succeeding on the program, which were struggling, and if any students were significantly lacking in motivation. As I had been teaching on the program myself since the outset, my experiences also informed the results.

A number of important recurring the issues arose. These included common problems such as students not reading enough books, students reading books considerably below their level, and students who found that the books in the library when not suitable for them for various reasons. Particularly in upper level classes, what I would view as a less common problem emerged: students who were asking to read books considerably *above* their level, such as ungraded fiction or even native-level content textbooks.

The following three types of reader represent a concrete way to look at these particular motivational issues. While the types are theoretical, the motivational issues which they represent are very real. It is my belief that putting a label on some of these issues makes it easier for teachers to think in terms of the underlying motivations behind student behavior. That is to say, instead of "This student is complaining the books aren't good enough", we can think in terms of "This student considers herself to be someone who knows what a good book is," for instance. This may have a significant impact on how the teacher approaches motivation; I would argue it makes it easier to motivate a student *intrinsically* rather than *extrinsically* (through pressure from grades or other exercises of teacher power) when one has a clearer idea of where his or her beliefs may come from.

Bookworm

In many ways, an ideal ER learner is someone who has an existing interest in reading and has already established a lifelong reading habit. These learners have strong intrinsic motivation to read, and learners who are motivated intrinsically often feel enjoyment or satisfaction in learning (Sakai, 2007). However, an open question in ER research is whether or not L1 reading habits transfer to L2. My experience is that, generally, they do. Learners who read in their L1 are more likely to enjoy reading for its own sake, as in Mori's (2002) intrinsic value of reading. Furthermore, I would also argue that these learners often feel that reading is something they have been and are likely to be successful at, in terms of Mori's factor of reading efficacy.

However, not all beliefs about learning necessarily produce positive effects. For example, a motivated learner who has learned in the past using grammar-translation methods may be reluctant to adopt a new approach (Gabillon, 2005). In the same way, a learner who has enjoyed reading a particular type of material in a particular way in the past may be reluctant to read a different type in a different way. For instance, prolific readers who prefer non-fiction in their L1 may be reluctant to read fiction in the L2. Readers who prefer gritty crime stories are reluctant to read romance. Those who gravitate to classics and works of high art may struggle to engage with populist fiction.

These issues, of course, can be dealt with by an extensive library with a wide variety of materials (Waring, n.d.); however, I would argue that there are a number of benefits to reading a wider variety of materials, including the possibility that, for example, the student who only reads L1 non-fiction may *come to enjoy* fiction.

A further issue beyond book selection is that some learners may reject the idea of simplified materials entirely. I agree that graded (or simplified) reading materials have *authenticity*, which means that the focus is on communicating a message, with learners able to understand and enjoy the text. However, it is in the nature of graded materials that they are not *authentic*, which means that they lack some of the complexity or nuance of ungraded materials (Nation & Deweerdt, 2001). For the majority of learners, this is not an issue; however, I discovered that some learners found reading graded materials in the L2 *demeaning* in a sense. If the books are perceived as being clichéd, generic, or simplified, some learners respond by rejecting graded readers entirely. A revealing comment from one student in his ER feedback was "The books in the library are too cheap." A fairly motivated L1 reader, he was referring to the tendency for many graded books to exhibit overly familiar or clichéd themes or styles. These learners then may ask if they can read their own ungraded fiction, or in other words books which are authentic in the strictest sense. While I would argue it is appropriate to allow students who are not yet ready for ungraded materials to read a small amount which hold very strong personal interest (perhaps one or two books a semester, assuming 15 books a semester), certainly no valid extensive reading program can continue if students are taking part in *intensive* reading.

Furthermore, it is my experience that some learners who consider themselves to be good L1 readers feel anxiety when reading in the L2, which can be defined as a threat to the individual's self-conception (Saito, Garza, & Horwitz, 1999); the learner's self-conception is that they are a good reader, but they may not be a good reader in the L2 or in ER. This threat can be countered by espousing a lack of interest in, or rejection of, the program. Similarly, learners who are fluent when reading in the L1 are often considerably less so in the L2. This *may* manifest itself in learners reading books which are too easy; however, my experience suggests that it is more likely to manifest itself in learners picking books which are too difficult, and thus maintaining the image of being a good reader. This creates further motivational issues related to reading books above one's level, as explained in detail below. Therefore, while many intrinsically motivated readers are successful at ER, a minority of *hard to please* but otherwise keen readers do exist. My experience is that this vocal minority can have a disproportionately negative effect on the community as a whole: to be told the books one is reading are *cheap*, overly simple, or *not real books* can be demotivating to other students. This is particularly the case when these statements come from the bookworms of the class.

Readers who read to learn

While many learners read through an enjoyment of reading, the results of our ER feedback survey showed that a large number of students were reading primarily to improve their English. These students were motivated by the extrinsic utility value of reading (Mori, 2002). This type of instrumental motivation can be very effective (Gardener & MacIntyre, 1991), yet it has the potential to conflict with the goals of ER and its role within the language curriculum in two important ways.

Firstly, instrumental motivation is connected to particular environmental factors, such as an intention to work overseas or study abroad. If these future goals were to be removed or negated in some way, the instrumental motivation or utility value of reading would disappear. This contradicts one of the main tenets of ER, namely that learners develop a lifelong reading habit in the L2. It is important that students are reading not only for these instrumental reasons if we hope to encourage real enjoyment in reading.

Secondly, learners who are motivated to improve their English may be less willing to stick within the bounds of ER. A continual issue we faced was persuading these students to read books *below* their level, as instrumentally motivated students were generally focused on the amount of vocabulary, structure or content they could *learn*. In ER programs, learners should not be reading books with less than about 98% coverage, or one word in fifty unknown (Nation, 2001), and should ideally encounter no unknown items at all (Nation & Deweerdt, 2001). If learners insist on reading books in which they know less than 98% of the words, which are too grammatically or narratively complex, or which include topic areas that are beyond their abilities, there will be a number of negative results. Firstly, learners will not improve their reading speed as much, which is an important goal, as they will be focused on new vocabulary. Secondly, the effort that learners put into ER is not always apparent: reading more difficult books does not necessarily result in large vocabulary gains. Therefore, when learners put in this effort to read difficult books, the results may be disappointing, particularly when compared to deliberate forms of learning (Nation & Wang, 1999). This is demotivating, with learners less likely to attribute success to effort. Learners may well be less likely to choose extensive reading as opposed to deliberate forms of learning in the future. Finally, if learners read books that are too difficult, they are less likely to understand them and therefore less likely to connect with them in an enjoyable and authentic manner (Nation & Deweerdt, 2001; Waring & Takahashi, n.d.), leading to less enjoyment and a lower likelihood that the learners' idea of the intrinsic value of reading will be increased. As a result, it is important to motivate *readers who read to learn* away from reading difficult materials, and towards reading more easily comprehensible texts for pleasure.

Book-phobe

Both of the above learner types can be said to represent *misplaced* motivation. That is to say, these learners may be motivated, but past experiences and beliefs about learning and reading influence their motivation in a potentially negative direction. The third type of learners are *not* motivated to read, and this belief is carried over from their L1 reading as well as L2 language learning experiences. While these learners may see some instrumental value in learning or may understand the importance of reading, their beliefs affect their view of reading efficacy, and they do not take any intrinsic enjoyment in reading. Simply, they do not like to read, and are disconnected from literacy in general (Guthrie & Davis, 2003). As Mori (2002) states, it does not seem to be the case that a large proportion of readers lack motivation in reading alone. Rather, these learners may lack motivation in language learning in general.

Such learners may suffer from *learned helplessness* (Noels, Clemént & Pelletier, 1999; Dörnyei, 1994, both cited in Sakai, 2007), in which learners feel that it is impossible for them to achieve success in language learning, caused by their past experiences of lack of success. While doubtless many students will not have experienced extensive reading before, many students certainly will have experienced reading in their L1 and intensive reading in English. This is an extreme form of the reading efficacy that Mori mentions.

A further factor affecting *book-phobe* learners is anxiety. In contrast to Mori's (2002) conclusions relating to the interrelatedness of reading motivation and motivation in general, Saito, Garza, and Horwitz (1999) found that L2 reading anxiety may be a separate concept from L2 anxiety in general. For some learners, reading can be a threat to their self-image, leading to a withdrawal of effort (Guthrie & Davis, 2003). Furthermore, Gardener and MacIntyre (1991) found that anxiety was significantly related (negatively) to achievement. For many students on our program, reading a large quantity of books was extremely daunting, particularly as it was a required aspect of the course. Learners may have experienced anxiety in past situations, such as in high school L2 intensive reading classes, and this will have significant effects on their current beliefs about reading efficacy.

Summary

Table 1 gives a summary of the three types. Beliefs about learning refers to the particular features of this type of learner which may motivate their behavior, shown in terms of the possible positive and negative manifestations of these characteristics.

Table 1. Summary of the Types of Learner

	Bookworm	Readers who read to learn	Book-phobe
Beliefs about learning	Reading in the L1 is enjoyable Consider themselves knowledgeable about literature or reading	Reading is a way to learn vocabulary and improve grammatical knowledge Reading in English is not for enjoyment	Reading in any language is not enjoyable Would prefer to watch, films or TV shows, however difficult
Positive manifestations	Becomes immersed in reading Potential to develop a lifelong habit of reading	Read a large number of books Motivated to progress to slightly more difficult books	None apparent
Negative manifestations	Unwilling to read books which are “too easy” or appear inauthentic	Read books which are too difficult; possible negative image of ER Motivation is dependent on instrumental utility of English	Read a small number of books Read books which are too easy

Representative student comments	"The books in the library are cheap" "Why can't I read my own psychology textbook?"	"I can learn new words from the books"	"I'm not good at reading in Japanese"

Note: The above comments are paraphrases of student views rather than actual discourse.

Three activities

As mentioned above, the three types of learner were derived from motivational issues which emerged in the course of the extensive reading program. The primary goal of defining the three types was not theoretical, but was as a way of thinking about these issues in a more systematic way. The goal was then to develop some activities which could be used in class to motivate these types of learners. Rather than focusing on the negative manifestations of their beliefs in learning in a combative way, the activities aim to draw on other aspects of motivation. Specifically, the activities draw on the idea of group cohesion (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1999), challenging learners' beliefs about language learning (White, 1999; Gabillon, 2005), and giving learners power over ER to counter beliefs about reading efficacy. The activities are geared towards one of the three types respectively but are intended to benefit all students. All tasks take the form of *unfocused tasks* (Ellis, 2003), in the sense that there is no particular grammar or vocabulary focus. Language development is not the goal, and the intention was for the tasks to be used with a variety of levels.

Book swap (Bookworm)

One of the reasons why learners who normally enjoy reading may respond poorly to ER is that they do not see a connection between their L1 reading habits and the books that are available. To give an example, the learner quoted earlier who thought the books in the library were cheap was unaware of many of the titles and genres available. As Nation and Deweerdt (2001) comment, while there certainly are some poorly written graded readers available, many graded readers are very well written. My impression was that the aforementioned learner's beliefs about what constituted books or literature were interfering with his ability to see the value in graded readers. This activity (see

Appendix) is a way for *bookworms* to think more objectively about their reading habits and preferences and potentially to give voice to their ideas about what constitutes a good book. It is hoped that this will make it easier for these learners to see the connection between L1 reading and ER.

Students first perform a rating task. The students are asked to think about what kind of books they read and enjoy: this could be in either the L1 or the L2. This may help to gain a measure of objectivity. Secondly, the students are asked to think of books they have read and enjoyed from the extensive reading library. This section, while it may certainly help bookworms, is primarily geared at readers who have been successful in ER to prepare them for the next task.

For the third task, the activity also makes use of *group cohesion* (Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994), which has been shown to "significantly contribute to motivation in a foreign-language classroom context" (Julkunen, 1989, cited in Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994, p. 423). As mentioned above, some learners had a dismissive attitude to extensive reading materials; however, the majority of students in our particular context enjoyed extensive reading, and read a large number of books. In this communicative task, students briefly interview each other about their reading preferences and then recommend a book to their partner. The goal of this task is for demotivated students to be motivated by other students who have read and enjoyed graded readers. The focus is shifted from student and teacher to student and student. As group cohesion is a powerful factor, learners may be more willing to take suggestions and recommendations from their peers. It is hoped that this activity will lead learners to investigate books they may not have otherwise read. It is also much harder to be dismissive of a book which your friend has recommended to you.

To further strengthen group motivation, a follow-up task consists of a peer book report: if a student reads a book that has been recommended to him or her, they can complete the report and give this to the person who recommended the book, rather than the teacher. By shifting the focus from the teacher to peers and the group, this activity is intended to make these reluctant readers more invested in the program.

Reading is like… (Readers who read to learn)

As mentioned above, readers who read to learn may be neglected at times, as their strong motivation does not cause problems in the classroom. However, if the students are not reading extensively (i.e. enjoyable and comprehensible books at 98% vocabulary coverage or higher) they will not enjoy the same language development opportunities as other students, and are less likely to develop a good habit of reading in English. Truax (2010) describes the value of explaining the purpose and value of reading to learners; while her focus is primarily on middle school readers who are reluctant to read at all, for extensive reading not only the purpose, but the *method* is important. Simply explaining to learners the value of extensive reading is not always effective, as it can be countered by the argument "Yes, but if I read more difficult books, I can learn more." This activity (see Appendix) focuses on using learners' existing knowledge to draw parallels between other learned and automatized skills. I elected to focus on the idea of fluency, rather than the separate issue of vocabulary frequency, as it is easier to draw these parallels. Consisting of a communicative task followed by discussion, in total this activity is a form of *consciousness raising* (Ellis, 1991; Willis & Willis, 1996); rather than being told the value of fluency reading, students need to discover it for themselves through their own thought process.

For the first part of the pre-task stage, each learner in a pair brainstorms a skill that they have learned, such as making origami, playing a sport, or using a cash register. They then discuss this with a partner. This helps to build interest and prepares students for this difficult topic (Ellis, 2003).

The learners will now have thought about the best way to go about learning their particular skill and some of the things that they did while learning it. In the second part of the pre-task stage, learners imagine their partner wants to learn the skill they have chosen, and make a simple timetable. It is hoped that learners will focus on a small number of key skills, followed by large amounts of practice. For instance, a learner who had chosen to teach origami would necessarily spend some time on the basic techniques of folding and basic shapes, before allowing plenty of time for his or her "student" to practice.

In the main task stage, in a communicative role-play, learners take roles of *student* and *teacher* and explain their timetable to their partner, with their students asking questions to clarify. At this stage, it should be evident that any schedules which are particularly tough and do not allow time for practice will need to be altered.

The main motivational element comes in the post-task phase. Learners have been encouraged to think about the value of improving skills by doing not only things which are new and difficult but things which are not new, but have not been fully learnt. Learners are then asked to discuss the issue of fluency and practice, and finally are given a model of reading in English. By this stage, it is hoped that some learners will have had a *eureka* moment, as they realize the connection between, for example, hours of simple baseball practice and hours spent on ER.　This activity provides a way for learners to be gently encouraged to read books of an appropriate level, rather than being discouraged to read books they want to. Possible follow-up activities could include a similar activity which is focused on vocabulary frequency.

Compare a book (Book-phobe)

Both of the two of above activities can have a positive impact on very reluctant readers; however, some learners do not feel they can contribute to discussions about reading, and are already reading easy books. It is often necessary to use a wider variety of strategies to motivate these learners. As mentioned above, *book-phobes* may feel that they are unlikely to be successful at reading based on ideas about reading efficacy, and may feel disempowered and helpless in the face of huge amounts of text. As these learners may be disconnected from literacy in general, this activity (see Appendix) aims to use their outside knowledge by providing a non-reading-based reference point for ER, as well as giving them some measure of control over their reading and evaluative process.

Even though book-phobes may not read very much in their L1, that is not to say that they do not have any interest in *anything*. In the first communicative task, learners have the option of thinking about either a film, a topic area, or a story they know in Japanese which also has a graded reader. Many extensive reading series, such as those produced by Penguin, offer movie tie-in titles and titles about famous people, such as David Beckham or Daniel Radcliffe. Series such as by the Ladder Series (ラッダーシーリズ) from IBC Publishing, and Heinle Cengage's Footprint series, offer non-fiction titles for students who have a particular interest or knowledge in certain topic areas, such as economics, travel, or the environment. Finally, as well as a large number of well-known fairy stories, the Ladder Series offer English translations of Japanese folk tales and classics of Japanese literature such as *I am a Cat* by Natsume Sōseki. Using learners' existing knowledge provides a reference point for reluctant readers.

In a follow-up task, literary criticism is used as a means for learners to gain some power over the reading process. I would argue that, while students should certainly enjoy most books they read, there is nothing wrong with students *not enjoying* books and being critical about them. Indeed, for book-phobes, not enjoying a book is likely to be the default response. Not all graded readers are excellent; some may not be as good as the films they are based on, some may contain factual omissions or errors, and some may miss out on important aspects of the original stories (at least from some learners' point of view). For learners who are disenfranchised from the extensive reading process, criticizing books in this way, and allowing students a voice to criticize books, can be a way to engage with ER.

The task, therefore, consists of a variation on the standard book review: learners assess how similar the book is to the source material, and questions encourage them to compare them critically in terms of which was better or what they would change about the book. This activity can be assigned to all students, or to specific students; an additional step would be for the teacher to provide some feedback on the student's criticism or for students to discuss their criticisms together. As well as being able to obtain a degree of power through criticizing the book, it is also hoped that learners may find books which they *do* enjoy.

Conclusion

This paper has provided a description of three theoretical types of learner. These types have been devised as a way of focusing on particular aspects of motivation. The three key issues which I have found to create the most significant problems in ER are students not reading enough or having a poor attitude to books available; students reading books which are too difficult and seeing reading purely in terms of its instrumental value; and students who are not reading enough and are simply not engaged with extensive reading. The three main ways I attempted to address these issues were making use of group cohesion to make reluctant readers more invested in the program; using learners' existing knowledge to raise consciousness of the value of reading fluency; and giving very reluctant readers a reference point in their own existing knowledge, as well as allowing them greater power over the evaluative process.

These three activities present a small sample of some of the motivational techniques which can be used in extensive reading. I hope that the three types of learner will also give teachers a reference point when thinking about motivational problems, and that the activities presented can go some way to solving these problems.

Biodata

John Bankier began his teaching career in Japan, before moving to New Zealand in 2005 to complete his CELTA and gain practical experience teaching students from a wide variety of nationalities. He returned to Japan in 2006, and worked for a foreign language college in Tokyo while studying for his M.S. Ed. TESOL at Temple University, Japan campus. In 2009, he took up a new position at Soka University, Tokyo, where he now works on the award-winning International Program. He also works at Jissen Women's University, and is currently preparing a proposal for his PhD.

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Appendix: Activities

Activity 1: Book Swap

When you read, what kind of stories do you prefer? Mark an X on these scales. You can mark more than one X if you like.

Example:

Familar to me X Learn something new

I mostly like stories that teach me something new about the world, history, culture, etc.

Exciting Relaxing

Historic Modern

Comedy Tragedy

Familar to me Something new

Realistic Fantastic

Compare with your partner

Now think of four books you have read from the extensive reading library. Check your record if you can't remember the title. Choose some words from above to describe the books.

Example:

Gandhi (biography): Historic, realistic, a little familiar to me, very slow, a mix of comedy and tragedy

1: ____

____

2: ____

____

3: ____

____

Recommending Books

Useful language:

What do you recommend?

Thanks for the recommendation

I've read it, but thanks anyway

It's <u>exciting</u> / <u>relaxing</u>

It's a mix of <u>historic</u> and <u>modern</u>

It's partly <u>familiar</u> but a little <u>new</u>

Title: ____________________ ____________________ Recommended by: ____________ Because: ____________________ ____________________	Title: ____________________ ____________________ Recommended by: ____________ Because: ____________________ ____________________
Title: ____________________ ____________________ Recommended by: ____________ Because: ____________________ ____________________	Title: ____________________ ____________________ Recommended by: ____________ Because: ____________________ ____________________

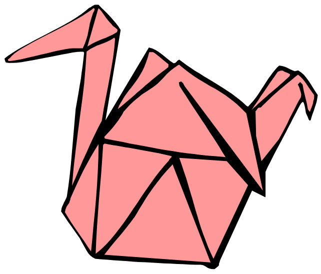
Title: ____________________	Title: ____________________
____________________	____________________
Recommended by: ____________	Recommended by: ____________
Because: ____________________	Because: ____________________
____________________	____________________

Follow-up Book Report

Dear ____________________, Thanks for recommending ____________________[1] to me.__________ ____________________ ____________________ ____________________[2]. If you liked that book, I recommend ____________________ ____________________ ____________________ ____________________[3]. Thanks, ____________	1. Title 2. Your opinion 3. A book you recommend which you think your partner will like

Activity 2: Reading is Like…

Think of 3 things that you can do well. Example: play basketball or piano, make *okonomiyaki*, do origami, use an electronic cash register.



Discussion questions:

- How long did it take you to become good?
- What did you have to learn?
- How did you practice?
- What was the hardest thing to learn?
- What did you spend most time practicing?
- Who helped you to learn?

Choose one thing you can do well. You are going to make a schedule for your partner to help them learn this. Decide:

1) What you need to learn

Example: different types of basketball shot, different styles of origami

2) How important each thing is to learn

3) How much time you need to practice each thing

Weekly schedule to learn ______________________________

	Mon	Tues	Weds	Thurs	Fri	Sat	Sun
Morning							
Afternoon							
Evening							

Introduce your partner to their schedule.

Useful language:

You need to focus on …

On Monday, you'll spend four hours practicing …

You'll spend the most time practicing passing the ball because …

Why will I spend four hours on...

Why is passing the ball important?

Discussion

Do you agree with the below:

- To improve something, we need to focus on it.
- When we learn something, we need to spend most of the time practicing difficult things.
- It is important to build up in small steps.
- If something is more difficult or complicated, it's probably more useful.

Reading in English

Most people in sports, music, cooking, teaching, or many other things agree that to improve something, we need to focus on it. When we learn something, we need to spend most of the time practicing the basic things. It is important to build up in small steps. If something is more difficult or complicated, it doesn't mean it's more useful. It's better to learn and practice basics, as well as to learn new and difficult things.

- Is this the same when studying English?
- How about when reading in English?

Read this passage and make 2 pieces of advice for reading in English:

In the same way that we need to spend lots of time learning the basic *origami* patterns, we need to spend a lot of time doing basic reading. We need to spend as much time practicing common and basic basketball shots as we do learning more advanced shots, otherwise we won't be able to play a game. When we read, we need to do lots of easier reading so we can get used to reading smoothly. We can also do more difficult or advanced reading as well, but if we only read difficult books then we won't be able to read well.

1. ____

2. ____

Activity 3: Compare a Book

Choose a book from the library which you are already familiar with. It could be:

a) There's a **film** of this book which you have seen (e.g. Pirates of the Caribbean, Gandhi)

b) You know something about this **topic area** (e.g. An Introduction to the Japanese Economy, 100 Keys to Love)

c) You've read or know **the story in Japanese** (e.g. Long Ago Stories of Japan, I am a Cat)

Discussion questions:

- What happens in the story? (Don't give away the ending!)
- Did you like this story / topic?
- Choose one:

What did you think about the characters?/What are some important points for this topic?

- What did the story teach you?
- Choose one:
    - How easy would it be to make this story into a film? Why?
    - How easy would it be to explain this topic in simple English? Why?
    - How easy would it be to translate it into English? Why?

Now read the book and complete this report

Your name: ___________________________Date: ____________________________

Book title: __________________________ Author:_____________________________

1 = not at all / 6 = a lot

1. Did you enjoy the book?		1 2 3 4 5 6
2. How similar was the book to	the film your idea of the topic area the Japanese story?	1 2 3 4 5 6
3. I enjoyed the graded reader more		1 2 3 4 5 6
4. I would like to read a book like this again		1 2 3 4 5 6

How was the book different to what you imagined?

____

What would you change about the book?

____

Intercultural communication in teacher training

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Abstract
Instances of intercultural communication are comprised of more than linguistic competency alone, and it is only sensible that foreign language instruction reflects this. It is therefore vital that language teachers are aware of the issues surrounding intercultural communication, and it is certainly useful if they are good intercultural communicators themselves. With this in mind, this study looks at the intercultural communicative competence of Japanese and non-Japanese teachers in a joint training seminar. For the study, 124 participants from such a seminar were surveyed with a questionnaire including both closed and open response questions. The results of the study illustrate some of the problems in communication between Japanese and non-Japanese teachers at the pre-tertiary level, and lead to a number of recommendations to improve future seminars of this kind.
異文化間コミュニケーションとは言語学的能力だけでないため、外国語教授法がこのアイディアを表すことは常識的。従って外国語教師は異文化間コミュニケーションに関する課題を意識することが重要であり、教師自身も上手に異文化間コミュニケーションを行えることはもちろん有用。これを考えつつ、本研究は研修会に共に参加した日本人及び外国人の外国語教師の異文化間コミュニケーション能力について調査する。調査においては、小・中・高等学校に勤めている１２４名の参加者が多肢選択式質問及び自由記入式質問を含むアンケートに回答した。調査結果は、現場の状況は複雑かつ日本人の教師と外国人の教師の間には、まだ異文化間コミュニケーションに対する改善の余地はずいぶんあることを表す。

Keywords: Intercultural communication, intercultural communicative competence, joint training seminar, teacher education

There exists a wealth of academic material on intercultural communication, with a number of scholars trying to identify exactly what factors decide the success or failure of an intercultural communicative event. Recent literature on the subject has highlighted the importance of context; and questions such as where an interaction takes place as well as the backgrounds and relationships of those involved are increasingly seen as key in understanding how instances of intercultural communication occur. However, perhaps as a result of the economic benefits at stake, a large proportion of research into intercultural communication so far has been directed at the business arena (Fujio, 2004; Miller, 2001; Tanaka & Sugiyama, 2010). This paper on the other hand, focuses on the education sector, specifically in the training of Japanese and non-Japanese teachers of English in Japan.

Inspired by personal experience of marked differences between the reactions of Japanese and non-Japanese participants to joint training seminars, this study explores aspects of both teacher education and intercultural communication. Starting with a brief review of literature relating to both areas, the primary aim of the paper is the presentation of a small-scale study which illustrates the reactions of Japanese and non-Japanese participants to an in-service training seminar conducted in English. After a discussion of the results of the study, the paper concludes suggesting a number of measures to improve future sessions of this type.

The research presented in this paper is guided by two central questions. The first is how Japanese teachers of English receive a reflective approach to teacher training based on group discussion, and the second is how an intercultural, English only environment affects Japanese participants' experience of this training. Throughout the paper, discussion will relate to one or both of these central questions.

Teacher education

In the education sector, just like in other professions, in-service training is an integral part of professional development. However, the way in which it is best carried out is the source of lively debate and no consensus upon a single desirable approach to teacher training exists. Although this lack of consensus pervades the entire teaching profession, Crookes (2003) takes a particularly pessimistic view of the situation for language teachers, suggesting that within the profession, there is a lack of support for professional development in many of the administrative structures that employ language teachers.

Despite such pessimism, in-service training is not completely lacking from the professional lives of language teachers as the two-day training seminar discussed later in this paper illustrates. Consisting of a keynote speech followed by a series of presentations and workshops, the seminar discussed in this paper follows a reflective approach to teacher training through group discussion. The following paragraphs explore the reflective approach in more detail, looking in particular at criticisms and weaknesses of the model.

In their seminal work of the professional development of language teachers, Richards & Farrell (2005) discuss workshops as a format of teacher training, characterising them as hit or miss affairs that depend heavily on adequate preparation. Workshops are commended for having the potential to develop collegiality amongst teachers, increase motivation, and provide practical classroom applications. However, the writers also highlight the importance of participation, and assert that for workshops to be successful, it is essential that participants contribute equally and actively.

Given the importance of active participation, it is perhaps worth considering some of the factors that may discourage it. Sowden (2007) suggests that self-analysis, which forms such a central part of reflective training, can threaten people's security and self-image, ultimately leading to an unwillingness to contribute. Moreover, in a group setting, participants can feel a significant amount of pressure. Hatton and Smith (1995) add that participants' unfamiliarity with certain styles of training can also increase feelings of vulnerability. There is unfortunately no quick formula to counteract these feelings, though Crookes (2003) does suggest that good interpersonal relations among teachers can assist in successful reflection.

It is probably fair to say that reflection through group discussion suits certain personalities more than others; Rodgers (2002) sums up the type of people it suits as enthusiastic, confident, open-minded and responsible. Whilst this may be true, there are further considerations to be made in groups that are comprised of people from different cultural backgrounds. Farrell (2001) highlights linguistic competence as a key factor in the ability of people to participate in reflective discussion, highlighting the enormous difficulties faced by people who are asked to collect thoughts, reflect upon them, and then articulate them in a language other than their own. The magnitude of this point cannot be underestimated and is central to the thesis presented in this paper.

Those who do not fit the template of an ideal candidate for reflection, or those who lack the linguistic competence to fully participate in group discussion can feel marginalised by reflective training. The potential therefore exists, especially in culturally diverse training groups, for marginalisation to extend to whole groups of people. This can relate to linguistic ability or personality, but also, as Crookes (2003) suggests, relate to experience, with a majority of teacher training programs targeting the beginning teacher and therefore being of less use to more experienced participants.

Based on the brief discussion above, it appears that there are a number of ideal conditions for successful reflective training to take place. First of all, a clear opportunity for reflection must be set aside in terms of time and place. Secondly, though it is impossible to decree that participants are enthusiastic, confident and open-minded, they should be as familiar with each other as possible, and as comfortable as they can be in expressing opinions in front of each other. The final condition relates to avoiding the marginalisation of participants or groups of participants, steps should therefore be taken to minimise the difficulties that participants may have in expressing themselves linguistically. Achieving this final condition is easier said than done, especially in multilingual groups. The following section explores this area in more detail, focussing upon intercultural communication between Japanese and non-Japanese people.

Intercultural communication

Successful intercultural communication involves a number of factors, of which linguistic competence is only one. Indeed, even a high level of ability in a foreign language cannot guarantee successful communication with a native speaker of that language. Of course, successful communication is a subjective term and linguistic ability can improve one’s chances of intercultural communicative success. However, intercultural communication is made up of an array of competencies and the responsibility for making successful interactions ought to be shared between interactants rather than simply the linguistic ability of non-native speakers.

For people communicating across cultural barriers, there are a number of choices the need to be made, first among which is what language to use. Tanaka & Sugiyama (2010) assert that language choice affects the security and freedom of participants in an intercultural communicative event, and can empower or disempower them accordingly. Hofstede (2001) also looks at language choice, and suggests that a great deal of literature on intercultural communication comes from monolingual authors who underestimate the power of language. Indeed, as Hofstede asserts, "it is almost impossible to grasp the importance of language if one has not struggled with learning one or more foreign languages" (p. 245).

In a recent study on language and power in business discourse, Tanaka and Sugiyama (2010) analyse a number of interactions between Japanese and non-Japanese professionals. Their study illustrates that Japanese people, when interacting in their own language, tend to use a number of culture specific, confrontation-avoidance strategies. Spencer-Oatey (2001) suggests that such strategies may be motivated by a cultural tendency to ascribe more importance to one's relationship to others, than to how exactly one projects oneself. Problems occur however, when the confrontation avoidance strategies that typify Japanese language meetings are applied in English language meetings, where cultural norms suppose a more open approach to discussion (Tanaka & Sugiyama, 2010).

Analysing Japanese-American workplace relations, Miller (2001) concludes similar results, outlining a number of misunderstandings that result from culture specific communicative strategies. Miller's study focuses in particular on expressing negative assessment, and highlights a number of problems, including the ambiguity of the Japanese word "chotto," and the inability of many participants to recognise the subtle prefaces and hesitation markers of each other's languages. In a separate work, Tannen (1989) suggests that unlike in Japanese, a positive value is attached to novelty of expression in English and therefore, in trying to make themselves stand out positively, English speakers may use a range of non-standard expressions, which can in practice have the opposite effect to that which was intended. A similar rule applies to humour, with Hofstede (2001) observing that what is considered funny is *highly culture specific*.

The study

With the two previous sections in mind, this study explores how intercultural communication and reflective training are carried out. The study looks at a training seminar carried out in Nara, Japan, comprised of both Japanese and non-Japanese teachers, and conducted entirely in English. The study contrasts the experience of Japanese and non-Japanese participants, and focuses in particular on future directions for the simultaneous training of Japanese and non-Japanese language teachers.

Two research questions underpin this study; the first is how applicable a reflective approach to teacher training is in a Japanese context, and the second is how Japanese participants' experience of such teacher training is affected by an intercultural, English only environment. This section aims to bring the two areas together, with a small scale study of a teacher training seminar based on a reflective model of training and conducted in an intercultural, English only setting.

In trying to explore two variables at the same time, the research becomes more difficult. Ascribing responsibility for any observations to either of the two variables being explored is not an exact science and therefore results can be less clear. However, the choice to attempt such a study is justified in light of the links between a reflective approach to training English teachers in Japan and the presence of participants from a non-Japanese background.

Context

Each year, a two-day seminar is held at the Nara Prefectural Institute for Educational Research. The seminar invites Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs) as well as Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) who are first language speakers of English from various countries, to come together and discuss a range of professional issues. According to interview data with the consultant in charge of organising the event, the aim of the seminar is to give an opportunity to both ALTs and JTEs, "so that they may share their experience from working together (sic) and discuss other team teaching related matters in order to find ways… to enhance English education in Nara." (A.Hasegawa, personal communication, February 7th, 2011)

The seminar is mandatory for all participants, with ALTs required to attend the full two days and JTEs required to attend at least one of the two. As the seminar takes place while the school term is in progress, not every JTE in the prefecture can attend but at least one representative from each prefectural school in Nara is obliged to be present for at least one of the days. ALTs and JTEs from all levels of the prefectural education system attend, including elementary, junior high, and senior high school teachers. The significance of this concerns elementary teachers; and particularly the fact that teachers at this level vary immensely in terms of their English ability.

The first day of the seminar begins with a keynote speech, before participants are broken into groups, which then revolve through two presentations, the first of which is hosted by representatives from CLAIR (the national body that represents government sponsored ALTs in Japan), and the second of which is designed to help teachers with elementary lesson planning. The second day consists of four workshops related to either classroom pedagogy or the professional relationship between ALTs and JTEs. From these four workshops, participants are required to attend three. All presentations and workshops are conducted entirely in English.

Methodology

This section outlines the design of the study, including the sampling frame and measurement device. The data presented is the result of a non-experimental approach to the two research questions proposed earlier. The choices made with regard to design are justified in light of work by Nunan (1997), who cautions that a number of practical problems are often associated with this sort of research, primarily in terms of time and access to participants.

Although the theoretical population for this study could be defined as every JTE and ALT in Japan, such a sample is beyond the scope of this study. The accessible population therefore, are the 184 participants of the seminar, all of whom were surveyed. From these participants, 124 responses were collected and make up the sampling frame for the study.

In order to identify differences between the reactions of Japanese and non-Japanese participants, a group administered questionnaire was used as the primary instrument. Potential language issues were dealt with by the provision of Japanese language questionnaires for participants who were not comfortable responding in English, and both versions are available as appendices to this paper. Participants were not asked to include their name on the questionnaire, but were asked to include the level at which they teach as well as for how long they had been working in their current job.

All participants were assured of their anonymity prior to being given the questionnaire and the questionnaire was also deliberately short in order to combat fatigue effects. Even with these measures in place however, it is accepted that questionnaires are less than perfect instruments for measuring opinion and phenomena such as *acquiesce bias* and the *halo effect* can affect results. A critical eye is therefore required when making any conclusions based on such results.

The first three questions took the form of simple statements, with participants asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed. An interval level of measurement was used to give some idea of the depth of feeling and following research suggesting a tendency among respondents to look for median answers in questionnaires (Rian, 2007); a *middle* value was not included. The first statement aimed to assess impressions of intercultural communication between ALTs and JTEs. The second statement was intended to evaluate how well a reflective method of training had achieved the stated aim of the seminar. The third statement was designed to give an overall impression of participants' reactions to the seminar. Finally, a fourth *open* question was included to give participants a chance to express what they were unable to convey in their responses to the first 3 questions.

Results

The data was entered into a database to allow ease of comparison. The Japanese language responses were then translated into English. Finally, in preparation for a discussion about the results of the open question at the end of the questionnaire, the sampling frame had to be reduced as 124 potential responses produced too much qualitative data to realistically be analysed in the available time. In order to maintain a balanced view of participants' opinions, the responses that appear in appendix 2 were chosen using a stratified random sample where first, those who had not responded were taken out, and from those that *had* responded, 10 ALT and 10 JTE responses were chosen at random.

Descriptive statistics

Question 1

I improved my knowledge of cross-cultural communication

	Yes	Somewhat yes	Not so much	No
ALT (72)	17	40	10	5
JTE (51)	14	29	4	4
Total (123)	31	69	14	9

Question 2

I improved my skills in team teaching

	Yes	Somewhat yes	Not so much	No
ALT (73)	27	31	9	6
JTE (51)	8	36	6	1
Total (124)	35	66	15	8

Question 3

I found the seminar useful and informative

	Yes	Somewhat yes	Not so much	No
ALT (68)	30	32	5	1
JTE (50)	15	29	3	3
Total (118)	45	61	8	4

Inferential statistics

Perhaps the most striking element of the quantitative data is the inclination for participants, both Japanese and non-Japanese to agree "somewhat" with each statement. Indeed, in each case, the number of participants that agreed "somewhat" with the statement was larger than the other three options combined. Whilst critics may point to the ambiguous nature of the word "somewhat" and object to its inclusion as an option, the data may also be interpreted as a reflection of complex feelings towards the seminar, and the fact that participants found both positive and negative aspects in their experience.

Despite the tendency to agree "somewhat" with the statements, closer inspection of the data does reveal a disparity between the proportion on ALTs and JTEs that responded with an emphatic "yes" when asked to agree or disagree with the statements. The proportion of emphatic "yes" responses between ALTs and JTEs to question 1 was quite similar (23.6% and 27.4% respectively), indicating a degree of dissatisfaction from both groups with regards to their experience of intercultural communication. There were however, marked differences with questions 2 and 3. In question 2, where participants were asked if they improved their skills in team teaching, 36.9% of ALTs responded "yes" compared to only 15.6% of JTEs. This suggests that the content of the seminar was more suited to non-Japanese participants, though it must be considered that 24 ALTs were in their first year of the job and were therefore perhaps more likely to improve their knowledge.

The 3rd question assessed the overall impression of the seminar, asking participants if they found the seminar useful and informative. Again here, the proportion of ALTs indicating an emphatic "yes" was 44%, greater than the 30% recorded from JTEs. This statistic reaffirms the conclusion that overall, the seminar was a more positive experience for non-Japanese participants than for Japanese participants. Clearly, it is difficult to speculate about reasons from statistical data alone; however, when viewed in conjunction with answers to the fourth question, inferences can begin to be made about specific problems.

The data captured by question 4 does not imply any cultural incompatibility between Japanese participants and reflective group discussion, indeed the group format of the seminar was not once cited by participants as a problem. However, comments such as "every seminar I feel the same thing, ALTs' speed is too much for me" and "I want ALTs to understand that not everyone is a native speaker" do suggest that an English only environment can make life difficult for Japanese participants. Further to this, complaints were also raised about the lack of interaction between ALTs and JTEs away from organised workshops, with remarks including "I had no chance to speak or interact directly with an ALT" and "I did not get much from the ALTs outside of the classroom."

Interestingly, alongside these assessments from Japanese participants, a number of similar sentiments were echoed in the sample of responses from non-Japanese responses, including "I felt the JTEs were heavily ignored" and "it was too ALT focussed." The responses of non-Japanese participants were on the whole more positive though, with comments also including "Thank you very much for an excellent seminar" and "I thought they were all practical and well done." While it is of course risky to make assumptions from the subjective opinions of such a small number of individuals, they do provide useful insights into why the quantitative results look the way they do, and the value of these comments should not be underestimated.

Inferential Statistics, according to Trochim (2006), are an attempt to reach conclusions that extend beyond immediate data. Given this aim, it is perhaps useful to reflect upon the questions posed at the start of the paper. Negative comments from

Japanese participants concerning their interaction with non-Japanese participants could be interpreted as suggesting that there are some aspects of Japanese culture that makes reflective discussion problematic. However, evidence of such cultural incompatibility is inconclusive at best, and further research is needed to substantiate such a claim. What is beyond doubt is the presence of *language specific* problems related to the delivery and content of English language material throughout the seminar.

It is argued that for such training sessions, a reappraisal of communication strategies from non-Japanese participants could bring a number of benefits. Reflecting Firth's (2009) call for the promotion of communication strategies above foreign language ability, it is clear that non-Japanese participants in seminars such as this need to take account of the linguistic difficulties faced by their Japanese colleagues, and modify their communication strategies accordingly. Of course, communication styles differ across cultural boundaries; however there is no clear cultural reason why reflective training cannot work with Japanese Teachers of English, especially if their non-Japanese colleagues are willing to make efforts on the linguistic front.

Recommendations

In light of the results of this study, a number of recommendations are made for future seminars of this kind. First, given the seeming lack of awareness from non-Japanese participants about the linguistic difficulties faced by their Japanese colleagues, an explicit discussion on the subject of intercultural communication is recommended. Perhaps as a part of, or perhaps instead of a keynote speech, issues such as the position of English as a lingua franca should be addressed. Alongside this, specific problems faced by speakers of English as a foreign language should be covered as well as an explanation of the type of communication strategies available to overcome such difficulties.

A second recommendation concerns steps to further lower the affective barriers caused by language anxiety. This is to ensure that Japanese translations are available for presentations and also to allow a limited amount of Japanese language use in discussion. Although this may risk alienating non-Japanese participants (many of whom have little to no Japanese ability), it may also have the effect of bringing the problems faced by Japanese participants into sharper focus, and hopefully convincing non-Japanese participants to modify their linguistic behaviour accordingly. To micro manage the amount of Japanese spoken in each discussion is unrealistic; common sense should therefore be the guide.

Underpinning each of these recommendations is Sowden's (2007) suggestion that real intercultural communicative competence can only really come about after a period of living within a culture. Non-Japanese participants all live in Japan and have opportunities every day to meet Japanese people and hone their intercultural skills. Japanese Teachers of English on the other hand, despite their language training, simply do not have these opportunities and can therefore perhaps be forgiven for feeling more anxiety as a result of the pressures of intercultural communication. These suggestions are not intended to make life easy for Japanese participants at the expense of non-Japanese participants, what they do intend to promote is a more culturally neutral environment, in which all participants can communicate.

Conclusion

This paper set out to investigate the effects of two aspects of teacher training sessions for Japanese participants. The first was the applicability of a reflective model of teacher training in the form of group discussion, and the second was an intercultural, English only environment. Academic opinion on both areas was explored, and a number of conclusions were reached. Firstly, that successful reflection in a group environment relies on the provision of ample opportunity, as well as the minimisation of affective barriers and the ability to avoid marginalising certain participants. Secondly, with regards to intercultural communication, identification with other interactants is seen as especially important and steps should be taken to foster positive identification. Finally, the emerging position of English as a lingua franca suggests a rethink of who carries the responsibility for communication in intercultural exchanges, with problems being conceptualised less as the result of linguistic incompetence of non-native speakers and more of a failure of the communication strategies of *all* participants.

These ideas informed the design of a small-scale study that set out to further investigate the central questions posed by the paper. A training seminar based on a reflective model of training, conducted in English and comprising participants from a number of cultural backgrounds was studied and the reactions of Japanese and non-Japanese participants to the seminar were measured. The results of the study suggest that whilst a reflective approach to training is not necessarily a problem for

Japanese participants, a number of aspects of intercultural communication can make life difficult and therefore, strategies ought to be developed to overcome this. In line with recent research from Firth (2009), it is suggested that responsibility for managing communication strategies is borne by all participants, not simply non-native speakers of English, it is therefore recommended that steps be taken to create a more neutral environment, one where real intercultural communication can take place, as Sowden (2007) suggests, a "border zone… which all parties can meaningfully inhabit, and within which everyone can interact on equal terms" (p. 306).

Biodata

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Appendix A

ア　ン　ケ　ー　ト

　県立教育研究所では受講された方のご意見をお聞きし、教育課題や受講者のニーズを踏まえた研修会の企画と開催に努めています。お手数ですが、以下の項目にお答えください。

研修会名	平成２２年度外国語指導助手中間期研修会

あなたの校種及び教職経験年数について、該当するところに○を付けてください。

校　　種	教　職　経　験　年　数
幼小中高特	６年未満６年以上11年未満 11年以上 16年未満 16年以上21年未満 21年以上

この講座を受講する前と比べて、ご自身でどの程度向上されたと思われますか。該当するところに○を　付けてください。

1　異文化コミュニケーション　に関する知識・理解が

A　十分に深まった　　B　概ね深まった

C　あまり深まらなかった　　D　深まらなかった

2　ＡＬＴとのティームティーチング　に関するスキルが

A　十分身に付いた　　B　概ね身に付いた

C　あまり身に付かなかった　　D　身に付かなかった

3　この講座の内容は今後の教育活動に活用できるものでしたか。

A　活用できる	B　ほぼ活用できる	C　あまり活用できない	D　活用できない

4　この研修会全体の感想についてお書きください。

EvaluationSheet

Thank you for attending the ALT Mid-Year Seminar. Please fill in the evaluation sheet so we can improve future seminars.

Name of Seminar	JET Programme Mid-Year Seminar 2010 (DAY 1)

Please circle your school type and contract year.

Your School Type	Your Contract Year
Elementary, JHS, SHS	First, Second, Third, Fourth, Fifth

Please Circle your evaluation for each subject.

1 I improved my knowledge of [Intercultural Communication].

A Yes B Somewhat Yes

C Not so much D No

2 I improved my skills in [Team-Teaching].

A Yes B Somewhat Yes

C Not so much D No

3 Did you find today's seminar useful and informative?

A Useful	B Somewhat Useful	C Not so Useful	D Not Useful

4 Do you have any opinion on today's seminar?

Responses to question 4 from the sample frame

Appendix B

Responses To Question 4 From The Sample Frame

JTE

1. Every seminar I feel the same thing, ALTs speed is too much for me

2. I want ALTs to understand that not everyone here is a native speaker

3. It has been a long time since I spent an entire day using English, I would like to join again

4. I had no chance to speak or interact directly with an ALT

5. The workshops are too long, and I have to leave my school for this, I also have to deal with the term exams and it is very tough.

6. I felt that ALTs had lots of power and enthusiasm

7. I felt this has little help for Elementary teachers

8. Mr Tsuji's presentation was a little too fast so I could not follow, it was good training overall.

9. I did not get much from ALTs outside of the lecture

10. This seminar is only in English. So there should be another seminar set up for Elementary Teachers.

ALT

1. Excellent 2 day seminar, I really enjoyed it and found it very useful. I learnt some interesting skills and new ideas. Thank you very much for an excellent seminar.

2. It was good, though I do not think it is OK for JTEs to sleep during presentations, presenters should also slow down and use easier English for the benefit of JTEs

3. I thought they were all practical and well done

4. There should be a greater emphasis put on JTE participation; both in presentations and in group work

5. It is hard to express my true feelings about my personal experiences about team teaching when I have my JTE sitting right next to me

6. Today better than yesterday because there was more JTE involvement

7. I wish my JTE could have attended because I found the seminar helpful. It would help them understand how to use me better in the classroom

8. Useful to know some people have similar thoughts about frustrations encountered, particularly in the internationalisation section. Useful/practical – good team teaching advice

9. It was too ALT focussed, not enough about team-teaching

10. I felt JTEs were heavily ignored. These workshops were heavily geared towards ALTs and JTEs probably didn't get much out of it… I want to hear their opinions more

Teaching and testing fluency

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Reference Data:
Campbell-Larsen, J. (2012). Teaching and testing fluency. In K. Bradford-Watts, R. Chartrand, & E. Skier (Eds.), *The 2011 Pan-SIG Conference Proceedings*. Matsumoto: JALT.

Abstract

This paper outlines an approach to teaching and testing fluency among university level Japanese students of English. The author argues that fluency can be taught and tested, despite the complex and seemingly subjective nature of what constitutes fluency. It is suggested that fluency may be better understood in terms of its opposition to the notion of "disfluency." In addition to items which students should incorporate into their speaking, equal weight should also be given to items and behaviours that students should actively avoid incorporating into their language. Fluency consists of both the presence and absence of certain items and behaviours. Evaluating the fluency of students is subjective, but there are ways to give broad brush stroke descriptions of fluency based upon the presence and absence of certain items and behaviours. Moreover, students can achieve levels of fluency with limited language resources by fostering autonomy in student speaking.

Keywords: Fluency, disfluency, autonomy

In a Japanese context, spoken fluency often has a very low priority in course aims, curriculum design, and lesson content. Students often display very low levels of spoken fluency, falling silent in response to questions, making brief, often one-word utterances, embedding English language utterances within Japanese language markers, and displaying an overarching concern for sentence-level grammatical accuracy, to mention a few recurrent behaviours. Confusion, extreme hesitancy, frequent abrupt topic changes, and lack of cohesion from speaker to speaker seem to be the common denominators of much student spoken output. In an attempt to address some of these concerns, this paper will discuss some of the core concepts of fluency and also investigate the concept of disfluency. The paper will then mention the centrality of autonomy in promoting spoken fluency and describe evaluation procedures for testing spoken fluency.

The concept of fluency

The concept of fluency is difficult to define in comprehensive terms, "...even in common usage, 'fluency' is difficult to define, though it is a term which has been used for a long time with reference to language teaching" (Brumfit, 1984, p.53). Even a cursory glance at the literature on fluency reveals that it is a multi-component concept. Filmore (1979), Brown (2003), and Richards, Platt, and Platt (1992) all deal with a range of components that constitute the core of the concept of fluency. The multi-component, holistic, and partially subjective nature of fluency may hinder attempts to "tease out the empirical foundations of fluency" (McCarthy, 2010, p.2) and may even lead to an abundance of "vacuous definitions" (Heike, 1985, in McCarthy, 2010, p.2). Clearly, broad categories can be intuited, such as speaking speed, length of utterances, *smoothness* and so on, whilst other categories may be less open to intuition, such as use of *smallwords* (Hasselgreen, 2004), discourse competency (Canale & Swain,1980), backchanneling devices, and so on. The presence of such elements in a speaker's output may be refereed to as *fluency markers*.

It is interesting to note that the word *fluent* is widely used in ordinary, non-technical language—the opposite term in non-technical language is simply *not fluent*, which is a simple negation. This may suggest that *non-fluency* as a folk concept simply posits the lack of certain elements in the speaker's performance, that is, the speaker has simply failed to learn enough items of the target language, or be able to utter them quickly enough. It seems reasonable to assume that learners may align themselves, however unconsciously, with this view of language fluency. This deficiency of skill or knowledge may, however, only be one side of the coin. There may also be certain elements which, by their *presence* in a speaker's verbal output, contribute to a sense of *disfluency*, that is to say, there may be elements that can be described as *disfluency markers*. Again, as with fluency markers, some of these elements are more open to intuition than others. For example, extremely slow speaking, frequent unconscious resort to L1 vocabulary or use of L1 fillers and discourse markers will clearly signal some lack of proficiency, but other features are not so obvious. Mistranslated and over-applied backchanneling phrases (e.g. "Is that so?), or poorly formed discourse (e.g. stating "Finished" to signal a conclusion to a narrative, as opposed to a more typical Labovian coda) can also contribute to a sense of disfluency. (Perhaps significantly the word "disfluency" or "dysfluency" is not found in most standard dictionaries. Richards, Platt, and Platt (1992, p.141) use the word "dysfluency" to refer to speech affected by disorders such as aphasia. This is not the sense in which "disfluency" is used here.)

To sum up, fluency might be thought of as, on the one hand, a critical mass of fluency markers, few, if any of which are essential as individual components as long as the absence or low frequency of one element is offset by sufficient presence of other elements. Balanced against this is the presence of certain disfluency markers, none of which by their very presence will render the language output *disfluent* but, in combination, may have a cumulative effect on judgements of fluency, even if fluency markers are well integrated in to the speaker's output. What precisely constitutes the correct balance and interplay of elements necessary to arrive at an assessment of fluency will have an element of subjectivity to it, and may vary from L1 to L1, from context to context and from speaker to speaker, but can, it is argued here, be assessed in a more or less systematic fashion.

Some elements of fluency and disfluency: The Japanese context

As mentioned above, perceptions of fluency have a subjective aspect, but by reviewing lessons and student output it is possible to identify some recurrent fluency markers (by their presence or absence) and also some common disfluency markers, whilst conceding that such a list is inevitably incomplete and subjective. The following criteria have been selected from reflective assessment of lessons through analysis of teaching journals, review of video and audio recordings of student performance, and comparative analysis of audio-visual recordings of English native speaker interactions. Some of the major elements which emerged were;

- Shortness of turns. In many cases students habitually resort to single word responses to what are basically phatic questions.
- *Word by word* progress of sentences, lacking any sense of *chunking*, and showing strong focus on producing grammatically perfect sentences.
- Prolonged silences. Both within turns and between turns, multi second silences are common.
- Frequent, abrupt topic changes.
- Inability to sustain discourse for extended periods.
- Frequent use of Japanese language discourse markers/fillers. (*etoh*, *anno*, *de* and so on)
- Complete or near complete absence of English discourse markers and smallwords (*Well, You know, I mean,* etc.*)*
- Unconscious (or semi-conscious) use of L1. Sometimes single words, sometimes whole phrases or sentences.
- Poor discourse awareness. Students may terminate turns by saying "Finished," ask only *transactional* questions, or fail to provide any balance of subjective and objective content in responses.
- Frequent use of Japanese response/backchanneling styles (*So, so, so; Ah; Hai, hai,* typically prolonged or exaggerated) or simple repetition of the interlocutor's final word.

Analysis of spoken language

The following table shows the occurrence of six factors in student speaking. Of a total of 14 students, 13 were native speakers of Japanese and one was a native speaker of Chinese. Each group consisted of two or three members. The students engaged in unplanned *free* conversation in English with each other for five minutes. The conversations were video recorded by the teacher. The six factors were selected to highlight both the presence and absence of English and Japanese language items. It is readily conceded that other factors that contribute to impressions of (dis)fluency were present, and the picture below represents an impressionistic overview rather than a comprehensive attempt to account for all possible fluency and disfluency markers. (See appendix 1 for an explanation of terms.)

Group No.	Japanese language utterances	Japanese style reactions	English Discourse Markers.	Short Answers	Repetitions	Silences (+2 seconds)
1	6	3	0	2	4	13
2	4	16	0	4	9	4
3	18	16	0	1	7	5
4	8	0	2	2	1	2
5	9	5	0	1	0	7
6	9	4	2	0	12	4
Total	54	44	4	10	33	37

Group (4), which comprised a native Japanese speaker and a native Chinese speaker, had a low occurrence of disfluency markers. Unsurprisingly, the native Chinese speaker did not use any Japanese response styles or make any responses in Japanese (although he is an accomplished speaker of Japanese), neither did he make any Chinese language utterances. Data from other classes also supports the observation that non-native Japanese speakers refrain from utterances in their own L1 and also seem to effect a reduction in the L1 usage of Japanese interlocutors. It seems to be the case that Japanese speakers have difficulty avoiding certain L1 behaviours, especially in spoken interaction with other Japanese L1 speakers. Although "…the use of pair and group work is the only available basis for naturalistic behaviour in conversational interaction in class" (Brumfit, 1984, p.87), prolonged practice with other Japanese speakers seems to run the risk of entrenching disfluency markers.

Centrality of autonomy.

Autonomy, like fluency, has a number of varying definitions, and is used in different senses in different contexts.

> It should be emphasized that there is no canon for concepts such as autonomy and independence in the field of applied linguistics. These are problematic concepts

> because they carry with them meanings from other discourses. (Benson & Voller, 1997, p.2)

Nonetheless, in language learning, the canonical definitions (E.g., "The ability to take charge of one's learning" [Holec,1981, p.3]) cluster around the concept of students having various degrees of control over various aspects of their learning, deciding for themselves what they will learn, or how they will learn, at what pace, and so on. These concerns primarily see the students as learners, that is, acquirers of knowledge that they did not previously have. In terms of the development of fluency in the classroom, it may be useful to see students as *doers*, that is, people who are trying to use their existing language resources to best effect to achieve real world communicative goals. Autonomy in *doing* is the sense in which autonomy is here used.

It also seems clear that spontaneity is one of the key factors in determinations of fluency. Extensively prepared, rehearsed, and memorised speaking may include fluency markers and avoid disfluency markers, but the lack of spontaneity would render these absences or presences moot. Recitation is not fluency. Rather, real time and unfolding language use, with an essentially unpredictable direction is the framework within which judgements of fluency may be made.

Student speaking has to include this central element of autonomy and spontaneity in order to move towards fluency, and yet many instances of *productive* activity remove key choices from the students. For example, a teacher may give directions for a speaking activity in the following manner: "*Ok, in your pairs, talk about your weekend for five minutes. OK, go.*"

By many standards this is a very free production activity, with no instructions as to using particular vocabulary or grammar, solving problems, accomplishing tasks or the like. However, on a deeper level, such an activity undermines the very spontaneity and autonomy that is superficially being promoted. The teacher controls the group size, conversation topic, initiates the conversation of which he/she is not a participant and determines duration. Many students in the Japanese context (in the author's experience) would view this instruction as direction to talk about the weekend and only the weekend, (and fall silent if the topic exhausts their language resources), speak in groups of two only, and await the teacher's order to cease speaking. Such exterior control (either tacit or explicit), exerted by a non-participant precludes the practice and development of such key skills as naturalistic conversational onset, topic selection and shift, entry and departure of other participants mid-conversation and so on.

Autonomy in *doing*

Autonomy in doing requires among other things, the students to self initiate speaking, without explicit instruction from the teacher, and to sustain the interactions without any teacher input.

It is vital that the teacher make the goals of this approach clear from the outset. "Telling students about the aim(s) of a particular activity helps them to identify with these aims and hence feel more responsible for the outcome" (Scharle & Szabo, 2008, 8) and also "Teachers who adopt pedagogic approaches without explaining their reasons for doing so are denying their learners access to valuable information." (Cotterall, 1995, 223-224)

In several long term projects the author has habituated students to fall naturally into conversation with partners immediately after the class register has been taken. No verbal or physical signal is given, and the students have also been habituated to continuing the conversation until they themselves decide to terminate, and then request the teacher to "start teaching." Such *free talk* is often initially perceived by Japanese students as an abrogation of the teacher's responsibilities, and is often greeted initially with confusion, and can lead to "...a phase of relative anarchy typified by uncertainty of purposes" (Breen & Mann, 1997, 143) including extensive L1 use. However, as students become accustomed to this style of lesson, naturalistic English conversation started to establish itself as the norm, and use of L1 diminished. The length of time that students could sustain English (or mostly English) interaction also increased substantially. In three separate semester long projects, classes of students meeting in 90 minute classes three times a week for 15 weeks initially sustained conversation in English for approximately 5 minutes at the start of the term, before lapsing into Japanese or falling silent. By the end of the semester, this had extended to, on average, 50 minutes. In reviewing the teaching journal, it was noted that on certain occasions the students spoke in English for the full 90 minutes of allotted class time. This tended to occur when the class was held under *abnormal* conditions, such as on a national holiday, a make up class held on a weekend, or a large number of students were absent because of a festival. It appears that if the students conceived of the class as in some sense not a *proper* lesson, they felt more able to use the class time solely for the purpose of conversing in English.

Assessment

As mentioned above, judgements of fluency will be to some extent subjective in nature. As was also noted, fluency judgments are based not only on the presence of certain elements in a student's speaking, but also the absence of other elements. That is, training for fluency involves not only teaching the students to actively engage in certain behaviours, it also requires the students to actively avoid certain other behaviours. The assessment of fluency must measure both what is there and what is not there. This requires a combination of *additive marking* and *subtractive marking,* as well as an element of *impression marking*. (See Underhill, 1987, pp.100-103 for a more detailed description of these terms)

In order to incorporate both of these aspects in assessment, the author has conducted assessments of spoken English as follows:

- A passing grade of 60%.
- Students are instructed to speak to a partner in a naturalistic way for a set time period. The teacher will act only as a monitor.
- The starting level for all students is 60%, that is, a "pass."
- Points will be gained for certain acts, such as use of discourse markers and smallwords, use of chunks, appropriate discourse structuring, active strategising to resolve communication breakdowns and so on.
- Points will be deducted for certain acts, such as use of L1, protracted silence, inappropriately short answers, use of L1 backchanneling systems, failure to use (appropriate) smallwords, or failure to use them at the appropriate time, and so on.
- No points will be deducted for grammatical or lexical errors.

In this system, all a student has to do in order to achieve a passing grade is *avoid* engaging in certain behaviours. Higher grades may be achieved by engaging in content-rich, appropriately structured and marked discourse. No sanction is placed on grammatical errors as grammatical imperfections actually provide a venue for honing the strategic skills that native speakers also utilise. This point must be stressed repeatedly to students.

The criteria for the test must be made explicit to the students, and practice tests are carried out with increasing frequency as the test date approaches. During the test, the teacher monitors the conversations and keeps a tally of plusses and minuses of the speakers' performance. Although impressionistic and subjective to a certain extent, it has been found that actual tallies of fluency and disfluency markers, and the balance or imbalance thereof, to some extent reflect overall, subjective, impressions of students' fluency. That is to say, students judged impressionistically as more fluent tended to have a higher occurrence of fluency markers against disfluency markers, with the opposite being so for less fluent students. It is of course possible that prior expectations led the teacher to unconsciously weight the scoring one way or another, but the creation of an impression of fluency and eagerness to participate and interact may also be a fluency marker in itself.

Conclusion

The achievement of fluency in a foreign language need not be seen as the distant end goal, to be arrived at only after mastering vast amounts of lexis and grammar. It is entirely possible for people with quite limited language resources to engage in more or less fluent spoken interactions with others, both native and non-native speakers of the target language.

The view of fluency presented here is that certain linguistic behaviours enhance perceptions of fluency, and certain other behaviours enhance perceptions of disfluency. Students can me made aware of these behaviours by overt teaching, and must then be given extensive and repeated opportunity to engage in extended discourse using English. Monitoring and feedback by the teacher can gradually weed out the disfluency markers and promote greater use of the fluency markers. A concrete set of criteria can be applied to judgements of students' speaking for the purposes of assessment. Such assessments based on observation of both presence and absence of certain concrete and clearly understood phenomena help to give an empirical basis for teaching, learning, and assessing spoken fluency.

Biodata

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Appendix 1

- "Japanese language utterances" refers to Japanese words, phrases or whole sentences uttered during ongoing English expression. Expressions that were (in the judgement of the researcher) both conscious and unconscious were included.
- "Japanese style reactions" refers to non-lexical utterances such as "ah" "eh" and so on. They are typically prolonged, and often have sharply rising intonation.(In Japanese these are termed *aizuchi.*)
- "English Discourse Markers" refers to "fillers" and "smallwords" such as "Well," "You know," "I mean," "Like" and so on.
- "Short answers" refers to single word or single sentence utterances that give the answer to a question, but do not satisfy the interactional demands of the situation, conveying a sense of over-literalness in response to the question or even evasiveness.
- "Repetitions" refers to the simple repetition of the speaker's last word, with no apparent pragmatic function.
- "Silences" refers to a period of silence that was, in the teacher's subjective judgment, "awkward."

Fluency development through skill transference

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Abstract

Japanese students studying English find it difficult to achieve a high level of fluency, yet when challenged to improve their abilities in clubs and jobs outside the English classroom, students are generally more willing to apply great effort in learning new skills. In contrast, the average student's attitude towards learning English usually displays much lower levels of motivation and effort. Similar to the development of linguistic fluency, acquiring extra-curricular skills requires the development of a knowledge base, effective strategies, and motivation. This paper examines how successful strategies used to learn extra-curricular activities could potentially be transferred to language learning and also shares an activity in which students considered an extra-curricular activity that they had learned successfully and applied the results to their own English learning.

日本人学生達は､英語学習において高度な流暢さを習得することに対して　すぐに限界を覚える。

しかしながら、そんな学生達に限って、課外である普段の生活の場面で英語能力の向上の必要性に直面するとき、｢難しい！｣と英語講師に気軽に頼ることは容易ではない。他の色々な活動と比較して、英語への進歩は熱意と達成感が欠落している。それは言語の流暢さ、基礎知識の発達を要求する特別教育課程、効果的戦略と熱意に類似する。このプレゼンテーションは～特別教育課程による戦略はどうやって語学学習を潜在的に転進してきたか～を考慮している。

この発表者達は､生徒たちが熟思した成功法にて学習した特別教育課程活動をここで披露します。そして、それらを自己の英語学習成果にご利用下さい。

Keywords: Motivation, skills development, strategies, skills transference

As most teachers in Japan quickly recognize, the majority of Japanese students studying English find it difficult to achieve a high level of fluency. Yet, when challenged to improve their abilities in clubs and jobs outside the English classroom, these students don't resort to the excuse familiar to English teachers: "It's too difficult." Instead, students often devote themselves to their clubs or *bukatsu* wholeheartedly, become highly motivated in these activities and are willing to apply massive amounts of effort. As Cave (2004) notes, school clubs act as effective communities of practice which employ a model of learning similar to apprenticeship. Through constant imitation and repetition, these clubs effectively socialize students into powerful values and behaviour, while simultaneously promoting intense emotional attachment and group spirit. This is the kind of description that most language teachers would like to be able to apply to their own classroom, but students generally show much less motivation in their learning of English than at their clubs.

Apart from motivation, the sheer amount of effort that students apply to their clubs or part-time jobs is clearly responsible for the aquisition of skills in these extracurricular activities and would facilitate a much higher level of fluency if it were applied to language learning. While teachers recognize this, it is clear that students also realize this themselves, for as has been pointed out by Brown (2003) and others, Japanese students believe that achievement is caused by effort and only minimally by ability.

Bukatsu is not the only extra-curricular activity where we see this phenomenon of high motivation and high effort outside the classroom. A similar amount of motivation and applied effort is also apparent in students' part-time jobs. In our language classrooms, we have many students who work two or three different part-time jobs which total up to 20 hours per week. While the money earned from these jobs is undeniably important, the students also report much greater satisfaction from part-time jobs than from their study. Again, we see huge effort and motivation toward extra-curricular activities that is not usually shown in the language classroom.

It is perhaps not only language classes that suffer from this lack of motivation and effort. Indeed, a simple walk down the corridors of a Japanese school or university and a look through the classroom door or windows will quickly reveal that many students are asleep during classes and that the teacher carries on as if this were perfectly normal. In contrast, a walk beside the sports ground or the archery ground, or meeting a student at their part-time job, quickly reveals that students are wide-awake and active. So in most cases, it is not just the language class that is the problem, but rather the different environments of the curriculum and the extra-curricular activities. Indeed, English is generally rated higher than other subjects in surveys at our universities, so while the problem is less about language learning than about studying in general, the discussion in this paper will keep the discussion within the limits of EFL.

Similar to the development of linguistic fluency, acquiring extra-curricular skills in part-time jobs or in clubs requires the development of a knowledge base, effective strategies, and motivation. This paper examines how successful the way of thinking and learning that is used in learning extra-curricular activities could potentially be transferred to language learning. We also share an activity in which students thought about an extra-curricular activity that they had learned successfully and then applied the results to their own English learning.

Rationale

Much of our thinking in this paper has been influenced by the field of neuro-linguistic programming (NLP), which suggests that the way of learning one skill, i.e. a learning strategy, may be transferable to learning another skill (e.g. Dilts, 1998). By examining the *process* of how a skill is learned, rather than just the 'content,' NLP suggests that it is possible to 'model' that learning process and then apply that process or learning strategy to other things that a person wants to learn.

While we often look at the problems that students face in the classroom and take a remedial approach to teaching, NLP also suggests that it is more useful to look at how excellent performers succeed, rather than looking at how people are failing. In the field of ELT, this assumption was explored in great depth by Rubin (1975) in a study of what constitutes a *good language learner*. One of Rubin's important findings was that good language learners are willing to experiment with different learning methods, and then choose those that work best for them. The good language learner also notices how other people learn the language and try out their methods to see if they are effective for them. Through the activity presented in this paper, students in our classrooms got opportunities to hear about other learning styles and to think about their own learning styles outside the langugage classrom, subsequently opening themselves up to the possibility of different learning methods.

People use different approaches in learning a skill successfully compared to when they learn something less successfully. Thinking about these learning strategies is a type of meta-cognition activity which can help students to realize how success in one area of their lives may be transferable to other areas of their lives. More specifically, thinking about the best ways to learn English can help our students to achieve higher levels of fluency.

Our approach differs to Rubin in one important aspect. She aimed to distill the characteristics of the good language learner by examining a large number of students who achieved success. While this is an extremely valuable approach and one which has resulted in important findings, NLP is interested in the subjective nature of reality. In other words, while successful learners of a language can certainly share characteristics, it is the successful learning style of the *individual* learner that will be most effective for that person. One simple example is that one learner might be primarily visual and learn well through pictures or looking at someone else doing a task. Another learner could be primarily auditory and learn best by listening to instructions. By identifying the nature of their personal successful learning strategies, a learner is able to potentially tap in to exactly how they can learn best in any situation.

Activity design

Based on earlier research into successful learning (Cullen, 2009) and some ideas from the field of NLP, we started out with three basic questions (1-3). As we prepared and carried out preliminary piloting, other important issues emerged and these were also included in the activity. These issues and related questions are shown in Table 1, below.

Table 1. Issues and questions used to focus meta-cognition

Meta-Cognition Focus	**Example Question**
What do you need to know?	1. What information do you need to learn?
How do you do it?	2. What skills do you need to learn?
Who are you in that situation?	3. What personal characteristics do you need to learn it?
Using what?	4. What resources do you need? Time, money, friends, books, software, …?
Why?	5. What was your motivation? Extrinsic or intrinsic?
What's the evidence?	6. How did you know that you had learned successfully? Someone else told you? You felt it yourself?
How long?	7. How much time did it take?
What feedback while learning?	8. How did you feel?

Carrying out the activities

In the sections below, we discuss the activities that we carried out with students to help them to perform this meta-cognition which allowed them to become more aware of their own personal learning styles. Subsequently, they could later apply this learning style to the study and acquisition of English. We carried out these activities with a total of 264 students at two universities. The students were a mixture of English majors and non-English majors and proficiency in English ranged from very low to very high.

Step 1. Thinking about learning an extra-curricular activity successfully

To show students what we wanted to do, we started out by explaining something that we had learned successfully. Table 2 gives the example of learning to play the guitar.

Table 2. Teacher example of learning successfully

What is something you learned successfully: Playing the guitar **When did you learn it?** 16 years old (and I'm still learning!)	
1. What information/knowledge did you need to learn?	Chord shapes; fingerpicking patterns; chord patterns for songs that I wanted to play; the names of each guitar string
2. What skills did you need to learn?	Holding the guitar; Making chords; how to hold and use a pick; keeping rhythm: stringing a guitar; tuning a guitar; bending notes; sliding; barre chords, etc.
3. What personal characteristics did you need to learn it?	Patience; hard work; a love of music
4. What other resources did you have to learn it?	I had time because I wasn't working; Many of my friends played and taught me riffs; I had books; tapes to listen to and copy; I had enough money to buy a guitar.
5. What was your motivation for learning it?	It was fun; my friends were playing too; I love music.
6. How did you know that you had learned it successfully?	My friends and family enjoyed hearing me play. I could play more songs than before. I got paid to play in bars.
7. How much time did it take to learn it?	When I was in university, I practiced several hours a day. I played at every chance available. It took me years to feel that I was good. I am still improving.
8. How did you feel while you were learning?	It was always fun for me.

After explaining our own example of "Learning Successfully" (guitar playing), we gave the "Learning Successfully" handout to students and asked them to think about something that they had learned successfully outside the classroom, such as a club activity, a sport, a hobby, or a part-time job. In order to carry it out as a useful language-learning activity as well as a useful meta-cognition activity, we gave students some time to think about the questions and then we had them form pairs to interview a partner and write down their partner's answers. The students then shared the results with the whole class or in groups. The questions were the same as those shown in Table 2.

Step 2. Thinking about learning English successfully

The next step was to have students think about learning *English* successfully. This was carried out in the following lesson in most cases. For the "Learning English Successfully" activity, the questions were phrased as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Learning English Successfully

1. What information/knowledge do you need to learn English?	
2. What skills do you need to learn?	
3. What personal characteristics do you need to learn English?	
4. What other resources do you have to learn English?	
5. What is your motivation for learning English?	
6. How will you know that you have learned English successfully?	
7. How much time does it take to learn English?	
8. How do you feel while you are learning English?	

Again, the activity was carried out in pair interviews, and the students later shared their results in groups and with the whole class. For several higher level classes, we also asked students to do a further meta-cognition activity by writing 200 words of advice for someone else on how to learn English. These advice papers were posted on the walls of the classroom, and the students spent some time with a pen and notebook, writing down the advice that their peers had shared.

Preliminary results

At this point in time, we consider this research to be a pilot study and not all the data has yet been analyzed. However, some interesting preliminary results have already emerged and these are outlined below.

- Lower-level learners generally chose sports as the activity at which they were successful. In contrast, many higher-level learners chose other activities such as cooking or musical instruments. Out of the total number of students (n=264), the highest number of learners (49%) considered that they had achieved successful learning in a sport. This was followed by a musical instrument (21%) and cooking (9%).
- Other examples of successfully learned activities were quite diverse and included English speech contest, housework, walking by hands, dancing, chemistry and biology, selling cakes, tea ceremony, ballet, and calligraphy.
- The students really enjoyed the activity and apart from its meta-cognitive value in raising awareness of personal learning style, it is clearly a motivational activity which generated a lot of active and engaged language use.
- Learning was generally stated to be more successful when an activity was considered to be fun or intrinsically motivating. "Hard" is acceptable when the level of fun is high. To a large extent, this explains the motivation and effort exerted in clubs and jobs, and adds weight to the argument that language classrooms need to be intrinsically motivating.
- Although we have not fully analyzed the data, metacognition about another successful activity appears to have been very useful because it was clear that students were referring to the previous successfully-learned activity when they started thinking about learning English successfully.
- Sharing ideas in group discussion was very useful and helped students to become more aware of other learning styles.
- Higher level English speakers were better able to describe how they achieved success. The lower level students, in turn, could gain insight into their higher level

peers' ability to achieve successful language learning and begin to see it as something they could model. This supports the assumption of NLP that we may need to ask excellent performers of a skill in order to get useful responses.

The 200 word essays written by the higher level students were also useful and provided good advice for learning English.

- “Learn lots of vocabulary.” (very common response)
- “Practice grammar thoroughly.”
- "Practice your pronunciation.”
- “Be active and positive.”
- “Have curiosity.”
- “Be patient.”
- “Talk with other people in English.”
- “Overcome embarrassment.”
- “Making mistakes is natural.”
- “Watch foreign films.”
- “Enjoy English to learn English (if you hate it, you won’t improve).”
- “Grammar can be dull, so watch a movie or choose your favourite English book.”
- “Search the Internet for your favourite musician’s lyrics – you can learn informal English.”
- “When I learned tea ceremony, I had to learn the names of objects first. These were the basics. I had to do the same for English. Learn the basics. Without knowing the basics, you cannot start anything. For tea ceremony, I needed patience and a love of Japanese culture. I needed the same for English. The most important thing is having an interest.”
- “No matter how much you love English, you will feel disgusted or a lack of confidence at least once. It takes a long time. You cannot become good at English all at once.”
- “You need to have good supporters, for example, your friends and teachers. With your supporters, you can keep on.”
- “Listen to the radio in English or read *The Japan Times*.”
- “You need resources plus personal characteristics.”

- "Study English every day."
- “Find a place where you can speak English.”
- “Your memories while you were in a foreign country may be useful to motivate you to continue learning English.”
- “You have to repeat your learning many times.”
- “Make a suitable environment and prepare necessary things such as text books or dictionaries in order to learn English. Suitable environment means a place where you can concentrate on studying.”
- “Keep up your motivation to improve your English skills.”
- “I think vocabulary is the most important thing to learn because if you have perfect grammar or your reading speed was very fast, without vocabulary you still couldn’t understand what sentences mean.”
- “Depends on which one you want to learn, speaking fluently or writing in proper grammar, how you have to study will be different.”
- “When I get tired of studying English, I watch dvds in English to get confidence and to be eager to study again. Just have fun continuously, and don’t be shy to speak English.”
- “Finally, English is English, it is actually impossible to translate English into Japanese so just feel English as English then it will be easier to learn it.”
- “If you want to be able to speak fluently, the best way is to go to a country where people speak English.”

Improvements to the Pilot Study

In the process of carrying out this study and while sharing it with participants at the conference, it became clear that the current research can be improved in various ways, and we plan to carry out the study again in an improved form.

- It has become clear that learning is context-dependent and that the environment needs to be specified, so it would be useful to add a question such as: “where did you learn it, who did you learn it with?”
- Many students followed the teacher example too closely and gave a musical instrument as their successfully-learned activity. Others followed the oral suggestion of a sport. In order to encourage a wider range of fields in which successful learning might have taken place, in future we plan to give a better list of sample skills (written as well

as explained orally). These could be drawn from the "Other" student examples in this pilot study.

- In order to extend the meta-cognition, students could also be asked to elicit a skill that they failed to learn and notice the differences between the answers. This does not match the NLP idea of looking at successful exemplars of a skill, but could certainly provide insight.
- Some students explained how feedback was useful to them as part of the learning process and it may be useful to add a question asking what specific kinds of feedback was useful to them when they learned successfully.
- In this study, although the questions in the *learning successfully* activity and the *learning English* activity were very similar, in future it would be useful to make more explicit links between learning the extracurricular activity and learning English. For example, students could identify similarities and differences between the two activities and determine what could usefully be applied to the situation of learning English.
- Currently there is considerable research being carried out into *Can Do* statements, and this activity could potentially be linked to one of the *Can Do* frameworks.
- Since this activity was used as a language-learning activity as well as a meta-cognition awareness-raising activity, we carried it out entirely in L2. However, the meta-cognition part of the activity could probably be improved by adding L1 brainstorming in order to generate richer ideas.
- While the length of the activity needs to be kept fairly short, some additional questions which could be included are:
- What did you do to maintain the skill in the activity over time?
- How did you change as a result of learning this activity successfully?

Conclusion

This study has been a preliminary attempt to apply some of the ideas of NLP and meta-cognition to the Japanese EFL classroom, particularly in identifying useful learning strategies by modelling the success students have with their extra-curricular activities. It has shown great promise and we plan to investigate this area further. We would like to thank the participants at the PanSig conference for their thought-inspiring feedback and we welcome any further feedback on this paper from researchers or teachers who would like to develop this idea further. Feel free to use this activity in your own classroom environment. Your feedback after the activity would be much appreciated. Both authors can be contacted at the e-mail addresses provided at the end of this paper.

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Using Chaos Theory as a path to language fluency

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Abstract
Chaos theory, otherwise known as complex systems theory, which has been implemented in mathematics and the natural sciences to account for the effects of interactions of various factors in order to understand and predict phenomena such as hurricane formation, has only recently begun to be explored for possible applications within the social and cognitive sciences, including language learning. This paper will first introduce the history and dynamics of chaos theory, and then observe how it has been applied to language learning. The author's personal language-learning and language-teaching experiences related to the theory will then be introduced. The paper will conclude with proposals for implementing chaos theory into a complex systems model that can hopefully be applied to language learning both inside and outside the classroom.

無秩序論または複雑な制度論は台風などの現象を理解・予報できて、いろいろな要因の総合作用の影響を説明するために、自然科学や数学に実行されていますが、その理論は語学勉学を含めて社会・認知科学に応用するために探検されるのは最近ばかりである。本検討は無秩序の歴史・動力学から初めて、その理論は今まで語学に応用されているかを紹介して、そして本著作者は自分の無秩序と関係がある語学勉教・教授の経験を現す。最後に教室内外で応用されられるため、無秩序論が複雑な制度の模型で実行できるための定義に終わる。

Keywords: chaos theory, complex systems theory, non-linearity, second language acquisition
キーワード：無秩序論、複雑な制度論, 無次方程式、第二言語習得

Chaos theory—history and dynamics

Chaos theory, or complex systems theory, is a field of study in mathematics that has been applied in various natural sciences to attempt to explain the apparent randomness that is often found in nature. The theory asserts that sensitivity to initial conditions often leads to dramatically different outcomes in the long-term. If all the initial factors are known and accounted for, the outcomes are theoretically deterministic. However, the infinite number of initial factors, coupled with the infinite variety of interconnections and evolving relationships between those factors, serve to make long-term prediction generally impossible (Wikipedia, 2011).

Although precedents of what later formed some of the basic attributes of chaos theory made their appearance in the 1880's under the name of ergodic theory (Wikipedia, 2011), the theory really became formalized in 1960, when a meteorologist named Edward Lorenz accidentally stumbled upon the importance of sensitivity to initial conditions. He had been working on weather prediction models. For one particular model the starting value for a curve sequence was .506127, and a corresponding pattern was computed for a given time interval. Later, when he wanted to view the pattern again, he entered the starting value as .506, dropping the seemingly insignificant last three digits to save time. What he found was that, although in the short term the curve patterns of the two equations were identical, they began to diverge after a certain interval (Grae's blog, 2008). With time the outcomes of the two models became very different, which in the world of weather could potentially be as great as the difference between a clear sky and a rainstorm. (Figure 1 illustrates the two patterns, which begin to separate about one-third of the way into the figure.)

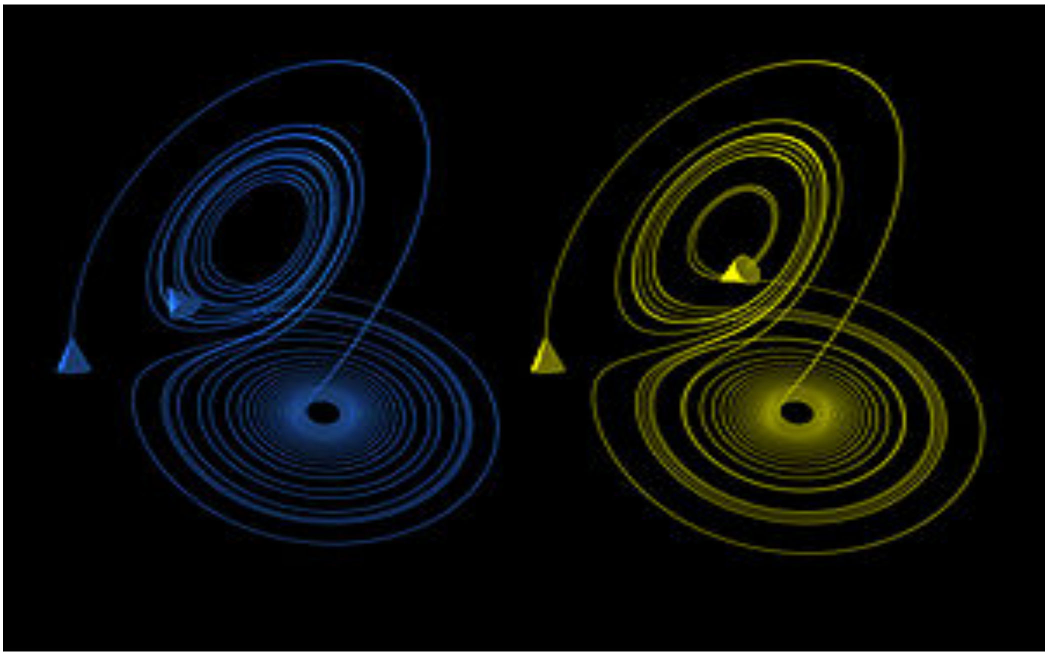
Figure 1: Lorenz's weather prediction experiment. (Ian Stewart, Does God Play Dice? The Mathematics of Chaos, p. 141, cited in grae's blog, 2008)

This "sensitivity to initial conditions" aspect of chaos theory gave rise to the notion of the "butterfly effect," whereby the flap of a single butterfly's wings in Brazil could influence the formation or lack thereof of a hurricane in Florida (Wikipedia, 2011). The implication is that in order to accurately predict future weather, one would need to take into account all of the potential weather factors, including not only atmospheric pressure, temperature, and wind speed and direction, but also all movements of all butterflies, birds, icebergs, solar flares, etc., which would be an unfathomable if not impossible task.

As Lorenz continued with his experiments into his new discovery, he came upon another key aspect of chaos theory, which is non-linearity. Prior to the observation of chaotic behavior, only two kinds of order were known, a steady state, in which variables never change, and periodic behavior, in which the system goes into a loop that repeats itself indefinitely. What Lorenz found was that some systems show spiral patterns over a period of time, with each loop either expanding or shrinking; then break out into a random pattern; and then settle again into another spiral pattern. As opposed to linear systems, which show sequential, cause-and-effect properties, non-linear systems exhibit non-sequential and thereby non-predictable properties, in which variables influence each other dynamically, creating new variables which in turn go back to affect the original variables (Wikipedia, 2011). Harshbarger (2007) uses a drop of water to illustrate the two systems. In a linear system, we can calculate a drop of water released in a vacuum to determine where and how long it will take to fall, whereas "in a non-linear, dynamic system such as inside a hurricane, the number of variables and potential interactions among those variables make determining its movement unpredictable." Larsen-Freeman (1997, cited in Hadidi Tamjid, 2007) explains non-linear systems as feedback sensitive, in which the effect is disproportionate to the cause, meaning that "a cause of a particular strength may not result in an effect of equal strength, for example, a rolling little stone can trigger an avalanche."

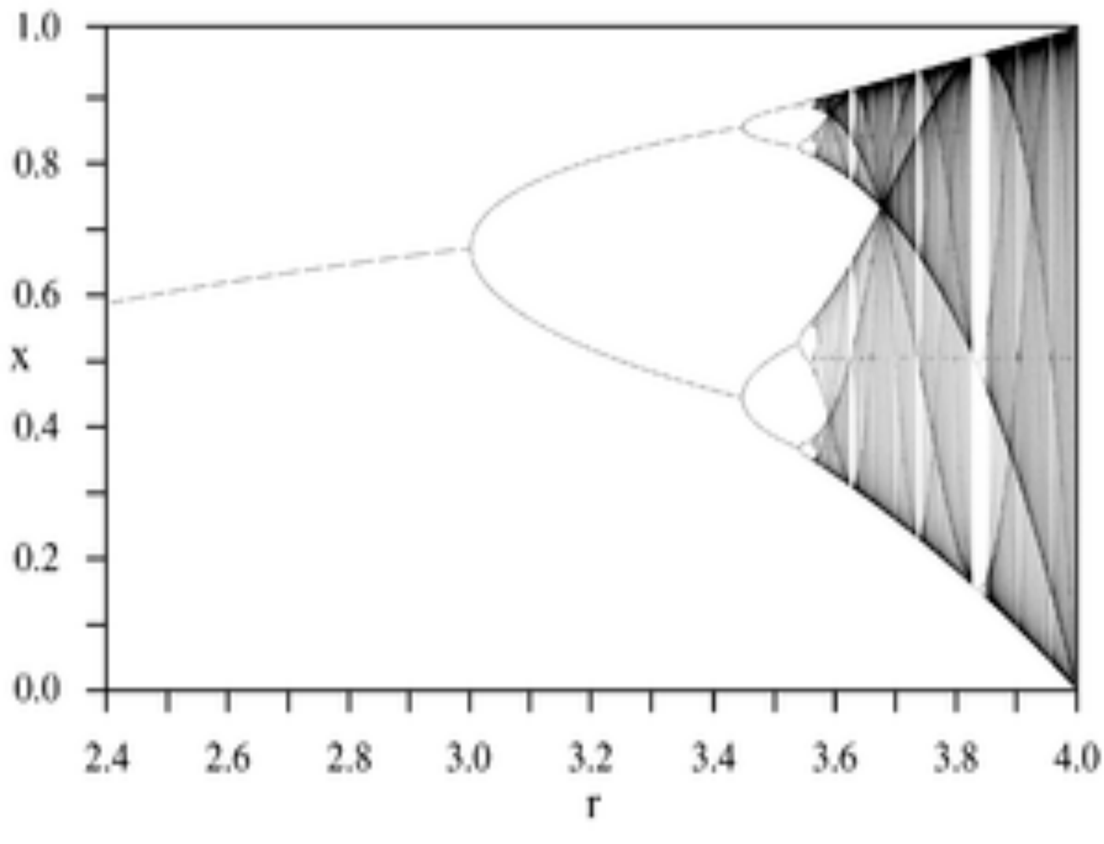
Lorenz called the factors that lead to recursive spiral patterns as "strange attractors" that create a temporary order within a chaotic equation. These attractors act like triggers that cause an equation to repeat itself in a near mirror image-like pattern. However, since the equation never actually overlaps, the recursive loop looks more like a spiral or whirlpool. In meteorology, an example of a strange attractor might be the formation of an eye in a hurricane. It may not be possible to accurately predict when or where a hurricane will form, but once formation begins, it is possible to predict that an eye will form. Each eye is slightly different from other hurricane eyes, but the process of eye formation is similar. However, the chaotic aspect reappears when trying to predict a hurricane's exact direction and strength beyond a day or so. This is due to the emergence of other factors that serve to break the spiral, at least until the next strange attractor is encountered. As Larsen-Freeman (1997) asserts, complex/chaotic systems "behave orderly until a critical point, in which they go chaotic. Following this chaotic period, they may become orderly again. (Figure 2 shows Lorenz attractors, where initial factors cause single spirals to form around strange attractors, represented by the small black holes, after which secondary spirals appear, creating double spirals or figure eights.)

Figure 2: Lorenz attractors (Wikipedia, 2011)



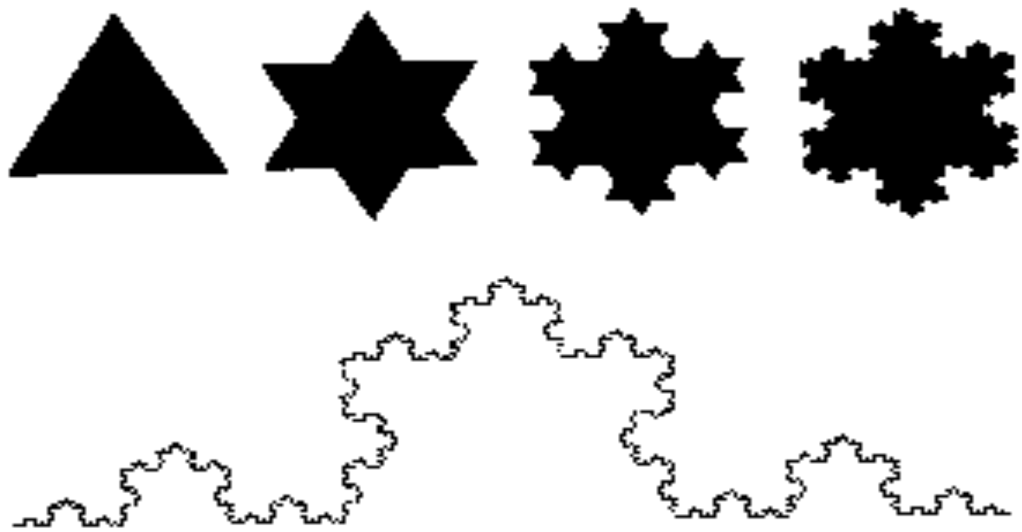
Another name in the development of chaos theory is the biologist Robert May, who worked on models for animal population predictions using equations of growth rate value changes. He observed that at low growth rate values the population would settle down to a single number, represented by a single steady curve, but that at higher values the curve bifurcated to give two possible populations that alternated from year to year (grae's blog, 2008). The bifurcation point represents a key factor, such as an alternating wet and dry climatic period, that might not affect animal populations with slow growth rates, but might dramatically influence population growth at a higher rate. At even higher values each curve would then bifurcate again to give four possible population values. Finally, at very high growth rate values, chaos would appear. However, even within the chaos, small mirror images of the patterns of the original and subsequently bifurcated population curves can be seen. (Figure 3 shows May's bifurcation diagram for his population equation, with the region of chaos represented by the gray region on the right.)

Figure 3: May's population equation bifurcation diagram (Wikipedia, 2011)



One final important name in chaos theory that should be mentioned is mathematician Helge von Koch, who created the so-called Koch curve. Koch set out to demonstrate that within a finite area, such as a circle, a line of infinite length can be drawn. He did this by beginning with a triangle, and then adding a triangle to the middle of each of the bases. Each time triangles were drawn atop existing bases, the circumference of the figure, represented by a line, would lengthen. This could theoretically continue ad infinitum (grae' blog, 2008), although the sizes of the triangles would quickly decrease to microscopic size. (Figure 4 shows some stages of the Koch curve.)

Figure 4: Koch curve (James Gleick, Chaos – Making a new science, p. 99)



The following properties summarize the main criteria of chaotic systems: 1) Sensitivity to initial conditions, 2) Non-linearity, 3) Attractor states, and 4) Recursiveness (self-similarity). The next section describes how these properties can be seen to exist in the field of language learning.

Main elements in language learning

According to Harshbarger (2007), language learning involves a number of elements. Although the following elements are explained in an apparent linear order, it must be remembered that all of the elements influence each other at different stages of language learning.

Engagement- feeling some desire or incentive to learn. Although this element is generally acknowledged to be of vital importance at the beginning of language learning, it is important to recognize that learners' interests and language learning needs change continually over time.

Noticing- detecting patterns based on feedback and other input. Noticing is influenced by the sensory and cognitive abilities of the learner, as well as variations in learning styles.

Making sense- trying to determine the significance or usefulness of the patterns to which the learner is exposed. This element is in perpetual flux; learners may feel that something makes sense or is correct at some point, and then proceed on that assumption until new information causes a re-evaluation of its correctness.

Organizing- sorting meaningful information into categories. This ability, which varies among individuals and even within one individual over time, may tend to facilitate memory.

Applying- using the information obtained for some purpose. This element may or may not involve output; it could also result from passive observation of the teacher or other learners.

Incorporating- making what has been learned a part of the learner's identity. This element relates to competence and automaticity of language production.

If these elements were truly linear, language instructors could teach aspects of language learning such as grammar and vocabulary in a sequential manner, moving from one step to the next until the incorporation element is achieved. (Figure 5 illustrates this learning tendency sequence in its linear form.)

However, a true understanding of language learning as a dynamic system that involves interactions between each element at different stages of the learning process would be better illustrated by the diagram in Figure 6.

Figure 5: A Linear Model of Language Learning (Harshbarger, 2007)

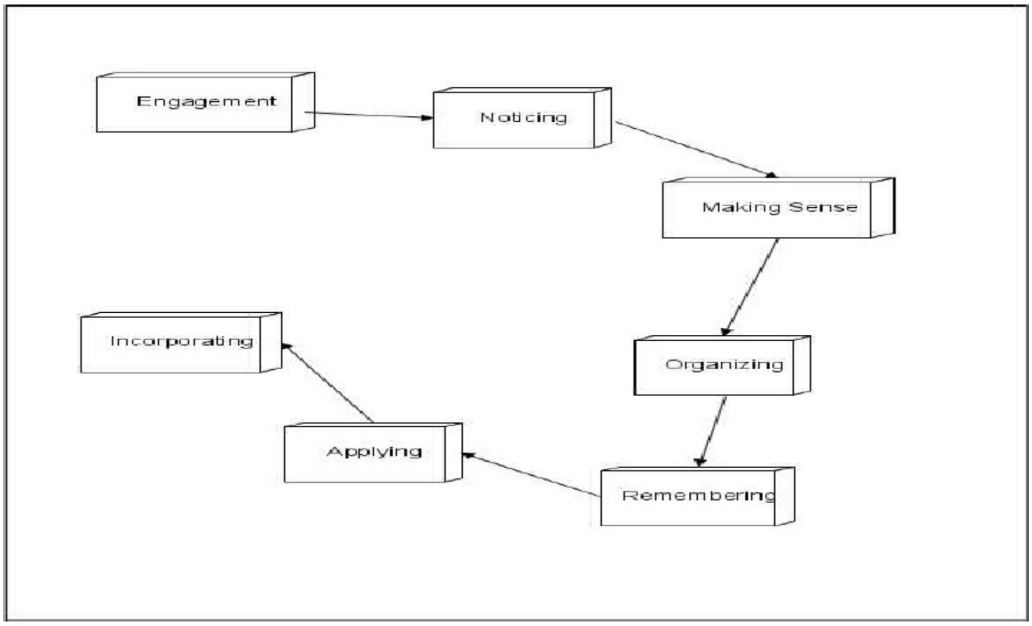
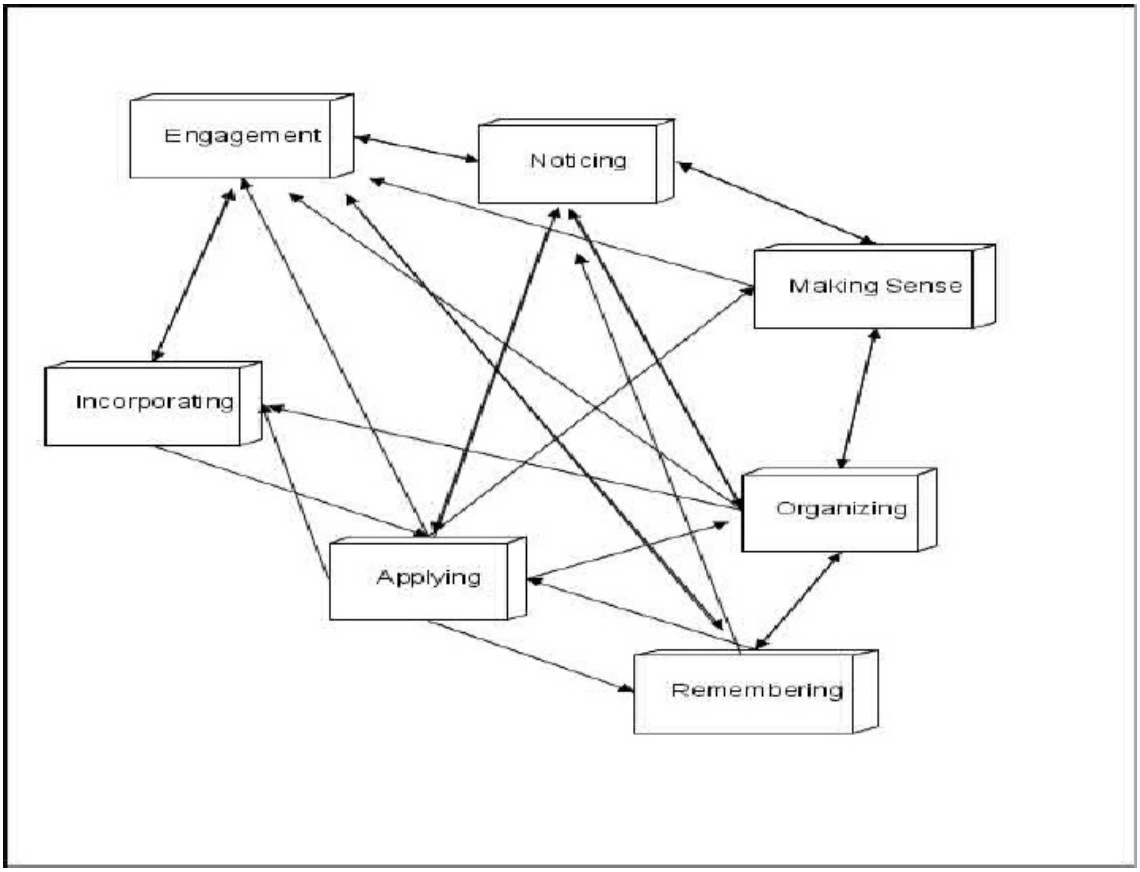


Figure 6: A Dynamic Model of Language Learning (Harshbarger, 2007)



Harshbarger goes on to summarize the following attributes of this model of language learning:

1. It is non-linear.
2. It has limited predictability and only general directionality.
3. It is subject to many variables that have complex interactions.
4. It is difficult to control.
5. It is susceptible to influences and contextual conditions.
6. It is unfathomable – teachers' insights into what is going on with each learner, including observed behaviors and test results, are at best indirect, partial, and temporary.

Chaos theory and second language acquisition

Regarding the similarities between chaotic systems and second language acquisition, Larsen-Freeman (1997) emphasizes that language learning is dynamic, self-organizing, and feedback sensitive, and that these attributes can be seen in the ever-changing character of learners' internal L2 grammars. She argues that second language acquisition reacts to external input, and its entire organization changes with the new input, constantly reorganizing to obtain equilibrium. In addition, the non-linearity of the process is shown by the way a student learns the grammatical tenses. The student learns the simple present, present progressive, and simple past, and may do very well in implementing those tenses accurately in conversation. Then the teacher introduces the past perfect, and the student may suddenly become less proficient in using the simple past due to this new distracting input. Hopefully at some point the student will be able to accommodate the new input into his/her awareness of how the system works. In other words, in second language acquisition there are orderly periods followed often by chaos, and then order is restored through interactions with others. Larsen-Freeman asserts that in addition to providing fresh light on second language acquisition phenomenon, chaos theory underscores the importance of details, discourages simple cause-and-effect –based theories, and reminds teachers to focus on a student's holistic understanding of a language rather than on atomistic learning of specific aspects of the language.

Personal teaching experiences with the non-linear element of language learning

Learning experience

An understanding of the dynamic aspect of language acquisition has helped me overcome personal disappointments that I have experienced in my personal study of languages. As an example, in my study of Japanese, I learned of the existence of two kinds of adjectives, so-called *-i* adjectives and *na* adjectives. I first learned the *-i* adjectives, and I learned that to express the idea of "I think that (noun) is …(adjective)", the adjective comes first, followed by the particle *to*, and then the verb *omoimasu* (think) is added. So taking an *-i* adjective such as *kawaii* (pretty, cute), to say something is pretty Japanese say "(subject + subject/topic particle) + *kawaii to omoimasu*." I was doing well for a while, making all kinds of sentences with different *-i* adjectives, and I received compliments from my Japanese friends about my good usage of the language. Then I learned the *na* adjectives, which require the addition of the copula *da* between the adjective and the particle *to*. So in a sentence using the *na* adjective such as *kirei* (pretty), to say something is pretty Japanese say "(subject + subject/topic particle) + *kirei da to omoimasu*." Again I became proficient at making sentences with various *na* adjectives for a while. However, this recently-learned grammar device of adding the copula *da* after the adjective became a distraction, and I felt myself wanting to consistently use this recently-learned grammar aspect with all adjectives, thereby making ungrammatical sentences like "(subject + subject/topic particle) + *kawaii* ***da*** *to omoimasu*." My Japanese friends were surprised at how "bad" my Japanese was becoming, saying that I had spoken so well before and asking me what had happened. I now realize that I had fallen into a period of chaos due to the influence of the new input. Fortunately, as Larsen-Freeman predicted, order was eventually restored in my Japanese study, and I now only very rarely confuse the two types of adjectives.

Teaching experience

I discovered a similar phenomenon in the beginners' French language class that I teach for first-year college students. One aspect of French grammar is that all nouns are either masculine or feminine, with corresponding masculine and feminine articles for singular nouns. Although my students have always had problems at the beginning of the course with trying to associate masculinity or femininity with inanimate objects, after intensive drilling and practice, most of the students could use nouns with their proper articles quickly and accurately. Then, assuming that they had understood the masculine and feminine aspects of nouns and had memorized the gender of a few common nouns, I went on to introduce another grammar feature such as a verb conjugation. I was surprised to find that the students, by concentrating so much on this new input, soon forgot which nouns were masculine and which were feminine, in spite of having "learnt" them thoroughly. This resulting period of chaos following one of order had frustrated both me as the teacher, who felt disappointed in the students as well as my own teaching ability, and the students themselves, who thought that they had been progressing in their acquisition of French, only to discover that they were regressing to an earlier phase of their study. However, now, with an appreciation of the complexity of learning and the inevitable presence of backtracking stages throughout the learning process, I feel less frustrated, as I now have an expectation that students will regress at certain points. I also do not fail to tell my students that they will not fail to progress in their study in the long term despite occasional lapses.

Implications of a complex systems model

It can be argued that if learning is so chaotic and unpredictable, teaching must therefore be pointless. However, Harshbarger (2007) argues that although "complex systems are difficult to control, they are subject to influences. The exact impact of these influences cannot be predicted, but general trends can be expected over time. Predictions of complex systems and ways to influence such systems' outcomes are also getting better as more is learned about complex systems behavior."

Regarding impacts on language instruction and teaching behavior, an explicit implementation of revolutionary and innovative methods of instruction may not necessarily be needed. Students still need to be encouraged, provided with input, given explanations, tasks, and feedback. Examinations and other assessments also will continue to be required by school administrators. However, an enlightened understanding of the complex, dynamic nature of learning should lead to a deeper understanding and lead to more effective learning over time. Some of the fundamental changes that Harshbarger sees happening with the adoption of a dynamic systems model of learning are:

Emphasis on individual learning processes. Instead of standardized materials, teachers will focus on providing an input-rich environment with varied, interesting activities that can increase the chances of triggering individual students' interests and meet their unique needs. This has already started to become evident with the appearance of student-centered education and the concepts of multiple intelligences and learning styles.

Use of teachers as resources and models. Rather than viewing teachers as transmitters of information, they will become models that encourage students, strengthen their learning abilities, and promote such learning that has as much meaning for the students as possible.

Holistic engagement levels and proficiency over time as the basis of program, teacher, and students' assessment. Measurement of learning outcomes will be based on long-term goals. Students will also be assessed by student-based motivational behaviors such as class participation, amount of reading accomplished, length of journal entries, and self-evaluations of personal attainments vis-à-vis their original goals.

Conclusion

It may take some time for the application of chaos/complex systems theory to become ingrained in the minds of social and cognitive science practitioners such as language teachers due to its seemingly pessimistic view that systems like language instruction are less linear and therefore less predictable than most educators feel comfortable with. After all, as educators we want to be able to control what our students learn, and we want to feel that we have had a hand in their success. However, I believe the greatest value of chaos theory is that it would help educators to understand why some teaching methods work for one student or class but not for another, or why an activity had worked well for a particular class at the beginning of a semester but failed completely with the same class toward the end of the semester. If language instructors become aware of the potentially significant influences that seemingly minor factors might exert on an individual student, class, or learning environment, they may be able to anticipate potential problems to a certain extent; and even if problems cannot be imagined, instructors will at least be better able to adapt to changing circumstances and have alternative methods or activities prepared just in case. They would also almost certainly feel less frustrated with themselves and their students with the knowledge that previously unnoticed and/or unpredictable factors might have been involved in the poor results of an examination or the failure of a particular class activity.

Biodata

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Transfer Appropriate Processing: Establishing a basis for application in the SLA classroom

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Abstract
Research in transfer appropriate processing (TAP) began in the field of cognitive psychology as a theory of memory retrieval in 1977, and has since been tested and proven multiple times. Although the idea of TAP has been heralded in multiple works of SLA since the 1980s, no attempt to date has been made to establish guidelines for its use in the SLA classroom. This presentation will therefore begin by covering important TAP literature in cognitive psychology and SLA, and will continue on into the development of guidelines to be used in the construction of TAP based classroom language learning activities. This presentation takes the stance that there are two rules of applying TAP in SLA: that learning must occur, and that the processes of the lesson must coincide with the processes of the learning objectives. These rules will then be exemplified in two TAP deficient domains of SLA.
Keywords: Pedagogy, TAP, SLA, classroom activities
Transfer appropriate processing (TAP) is an empirically proven theory of learning in which learner performance on a given examination is dependent on the closeness in relation between the processes involved in the learners' study and the processes required for the examination (Blaxton, 1989; Franks, Bilbrey, Lien, & McNamara, 2000; Morris, Bransford, & Franks , 1977). This theory has many possible applications in second language acquisition, and might potentially provide the theoretical background necessary to significantly improve both the efficiency of lessons created and the learning/automatization speed of second language students (Lightbown, 2008; Segalowitz, 1997; Segalowitz & Lightbown, 1999; Spada & Lightbown, 2008).

Although TAP is commonly mentioned in cognitive psychology literature, TAP does not have nearly the same representation in the literate of second language acquisition (SLA). This article will therefore proceed to outline research done with respect to TAP in cognitive psychology as well as highlight previous SLA literature which has made mention of TAP. It will continue on to provide insights into yet unrealized applications of TAP with regard to SLA.

TAP in Cognitive Psychology research

The original research conducted with regards to transfer appropriate processing was done by Morris, Bransford, & Franks (1977), and consisted of three separate experiments which tested the lexical memory performance of learners. In the first experiment, students were divided into different groups, with half of the groups assigned the learning of a target word's semantic appropriateness, and the other half assigned the learning of words which rhymed with the target words. The groups were then formed into new groups so that each group consisted of an equal number of students from the previous groups. Each new group was then tested by either the semantic or the rhyme based test. While Morris, Bransford, & Frank's original hypothesis was that the learning of a word's semantic orientation (deep processing) would outperform the learning of rhyme words (shallow processing) in both tests, it was concluded with 99% confidence that students who studied semantics did better on the semantic tests, and that students who studied rhymes did better on the rhyming tests. The remaining two studies were very similar to the first, and reconfirmed with 99% confidence that the processes involved in learning play a significant role in students' performance on tests.

Subsequent TAP research in cognitive psychology has been conducted by Blaxton (1989) and Franks, Bilbrey, Lien, & McNamara (2000). In order to fully understand Blaxton's research, one must first understand the reason why her research was conducted. Jacoby (1983) had previously found dissociation between recognition performance (memory performance involving studied data) and perception performance (memory performance involving cues or priming which leads to a change in reaction time). Jacoby's findings were significant because they showed that, instead of perception memory being more "general" and therefore less likely to preserve information, both perception memory and recognition memory were equally useful in storing information, but that the information recorded with respect to each type of memory was inherently different. In response to these findings, Blaxton (1989) conducted her research in search of the possible explanations for this dissociation. Blaxton hypothesized that there were two possible reasons for Jacoby's results, the first of which was that there are separate memory systems for different types of learning (such as the dichotomy between semantic and episodic memory, or between implicit and explicit memory) (Tulving, 1972; Graf & Schacter, 1985), and the second being TAP, which suggested that the dissociation was the result of the differing closeness of process between learning and testing. Blaxton concluded after three separate experiments that TAP was able to describe the differences in recognition and perception performance found as a result of different types of study. Furthermore, the separate memory systems hypothesis failed to explain the results as there were discrepancies found within the same memory system which, if correct in theory, should be affected in the same way. Moreover, Blaxton suggested that in addition to Jacoby's (1983) and her own study, TAP could also be applied to the other dissociations found in memory literature (Clarke & Morton, 1983; Hashtroudi, Ferguson, Rappold, & Chrosniak, 1988; Jacoby, 1983).

In the paper by Franks, Bilbrey, Lien, & McNamara (2000), the object of research focused primarily on the dichotomy between same-task conditions (activities in which the processes involved in acquisition and testing are the same) and cross-task conditions (activities in which the processes involved in acquisition and testing are different). In all thirteen experiments conducted, it was found that same-task conditions always lead to the greatest reduction in response time. As well, it was also found that cross-task conditions lead to significant, although smaller, reductions in all experiments except one, in which no significant reduction was measured. These research findings are significant because not only do they once more show the potential of utilizing TAP, but also because they show that cross-task conditions can still lead to an increase in performance even if the increase is not as large as the increase found with same-task conditions.

TAP in Second Language Acquisition literature

Of the literature that exists, the first article involving TAP to cross over into SLA was by Durgonuglu and Roediger (1987). This study was very similar to Jacoby's (1983) and Blaxton's (1989) research in that it measured the learning of vocabulary with respect to free recall and lexical priming, although it was the first paper to do so through the use of bilingual priming. After that, TAP was touched upon very briefly by one other bilingual priming article (Basden, Bonilla-Meeks, & Basden, 1994), but did not occur in other types of SLA literature until it started receiving brief mention of its potential benefits to language learning in a string of articles beginning in the mid to late 1990s (Segalowitz, 1997; Segalowitz & Lightbown, 1999; Spada & Lightbown, 2008).

To date, there is only one piece of literature in the SLA field which delves deeply into TAPs potential affect on SLA (Lightbown, 2008). While Lightbown's paper does not introduce research or show specific applications of TAP in SLA, it does cover many topics, and comments upon the apparent links between TAP and levels of processing, form-focused instruction, and form-meaning connections. One referenced article of note in Lightbown's paper is that of Trofimovich's (2005) study on bilingual priming. In this article, Trofimovich divided students into three groups, and had each group study a set of vocabulary words. The first group was instructed to just listen to the words, the second group was instructed to think about the word's pleasantness (and to therefore think more deeply about its meaning), and the third group was instructed to focus on the quality of the recordings. The students then listened to a recording, and were instructed to repeat the words prompted as quickly as possible. While all groups benefitted from priming in L1 situations, and were therefore able to repeat the studied words faster that non-studied words, only groups one and three benefitted from priming when studying L2 words. Trofimovich reasons that this finding is evidence for limitations in student processing capacity, as when the students' focus was drawn to the aspects of a word's meaning in their L2, it resulted in a statistically insignificant change in response time when students pronounced studied words versus non-studied words. If Trofimovich's theory proves to be true, then the reason for why cross-task conditions (activities in which the processes involved in acquisition and testing are different) do not lead to the same amount of learning that same-task conditions (activities in which the processes involved in acquisition and testing are the same) do can at least be partially explained by the insufficient processing capacity of learners.

Although the papers written on the topic of TAP in SLA literature up to this point have represented a large step for TAP into the field of SLA, there are many questions left unanswered. Among the most pressing of these questions are: what are the factors which determine whether an activity provides same-task conditions or not in an SLA learning situation? Additionally, how can TAP be applied to current activities in SLA to make them less cross-task and more same-task?

Guidelines for the creation of same-task conditions in SLA

There are two primary rules for the creation of same-task conditions in SLA. The first is that the processes involved in learning must match the processes of the desired learning objectives. If the processes do not match, or if there is no process overlap increase, then these activities will continue to be labeled as cross-task, and will not take full advantage of TAP. The second is that learning must occur. If learning doesn't occur, then there will be no knowledge gain to be transferred into the target learning objective.

The first rule

To clarify some of the possible ambiguity in the rules listed above, let us examine these rules with respect to language teaching in order to ascertain the depth of their implied meaning. Beginning with the first rule – that the processes involved in learning must match the processes of the desired learning objectives – one possible complication in interpreting this statement can come from the difficulties inherent to defining learning objectives. To simplify this issue, I will proceed to generalize objectives by the headword associated with the tasks involved. For example: *composing a letter* and *composing a thesis* will both be labeled "composing," and *editing a letter* and *editing a thesis* will both be labeled "editing."

Another problem is correctly defining the terms *same task activity* and *cross task activity*. To clarify, a *same task activity* is an activity in which students learn through the use of the same process as the process listed in the objectives of the lesson. This means that when the objective of learning is composing, students must learn through the act of composing. When the objective of learning is speaking students must learn through the act of speaking. In contrast, a cross task activity is an activity in which students learn through the use of a different, yet similar, process to the process listed in the objectives. An example of a cross task activity would be the use of editing to learn composing, or the use of repeating or modifying to learn speaking.

The second rule

As with the first rule, the second rule – which states that learning must occur – can be subject to interpretation ambiguity, so it must be clearly stated before further steps can be taken. The first issue requiring clarification involves checking to see if one's students are indeed learning. As there is no universal method of testing, one is confronted with the problem of deciding what platform should be used in order to correctly evaluate one's students' progress. Since the object of TAP is to promote learning through *same task-ness*, the platform to be used to evaluate students becomes obvious. Composing should be evaluated by having students compose literature, and speaking should be evaluated by having students speak. In addition, there is no implied necessity of an exam to evaluate students. Composing can be evaluated by reading a student's written output, and speaking can be evaluated by listening to a student's spoken output.

Another complication in interpreting the second rule involves the creation of lessons through which students learn. In response to this, let us look to hypothesis testing (Gass, 2003; Swain, 1995, 2005) which has shown that students develop hypotheses about the target language and then proceed to test and revise these hypotheses based on feedback provided by the instructor. As such, there is a necessity of giving feedback within the mantra of the second rule. Fortunately, since one is already evaluating students' learning as much as possible, giving feedback to students on the results of the evaluation is a very simple thing to do. Furthermore, giving feedback to learners can be done in a variety of ways, and depending on the lesson objectives, instructor feedback might not be necessary. If, for example, the objective of the class is to improve students' *communicating* (or *speaking* with disregard to pragmatics, word-choice, pronunciation, and grammar), then the simple act of the learners' peer speaking partner nodding in confirmation that meaning has been conveyed will suffice to fulfill both the evaluation and feedback requirements of rule two.

Using these rules together

Coupling these two rules together, it can be seen that one must first have students participate in a situation that allows for the use of a process corresponding to the objective process. After this activity, the teacher then evaluates the students and gives feedback. The teacher then has the students redo the entire activity from scratch so that learning is conducted within the target process and does not occur within the confines of another process. After this has been completed, the teacher will once again evaluate and give feedback, and then repeat this formula until he/she is satisfied with the student's progress.

Same-task activities in SLA

Grammar while writing

Many problems with the recent methods used to improve students' grammar while writing have been highlighted in Truscott's (1996) critique on grammar correction in L2 writing. Truscott states that the explicit correction or marking of students' mistakes, followed by the students' revision of their work, leads to little or no improvement in students' grammar usage in subsequent writing endeavors, citing Hendrickson (1978), Krashen (1992), Leki (1990), and Semke (1984) in support of his claim, and mentions order of acquisition and pseudo-learning as potential reasons for this phenomenon.

In response to Truscott's claims, some SLA researchers have since supported the theory that previous research on corrective feedback was too broad in its attempt to correct all of the students' errors, and have argued instead for the limitation of feedback given to specific grammatical patterns (Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008). To support this theory, there has been subsequent research which has shown that restricting the feedback given to specific grammatical forms can lead to significant improvement in students' grammar while writing (Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008). However, it has also been mentioned that, "L2 writing scholars, and especially teachers, would respond that written [corrective feedback] that focuses only on one or two specific errors will not address students' accuracy issues comprehensively enough because student writers tend to make a broad range of written errors" (Ferris, 2010, p. 192). It can therefore be concluded that the creation of a new approach to improve students grammar while writing – one that both leads to significant improvement in subsequent writing, as well as addresses a vast majority of a students' writing issues – is necessary.

It can be seen that while current methods of corrective writing feedback follow the second rule of same-task conditions (that feedback is given and learning occurs), they do not follow the first rule (that the processes involved in learning match those involved in the activity objective), i.e., editing or revising is not composing.

As a replacement to these cross-task activities, I recommend the following two same-task activities. Nation (2009) mentions a teaching activity called "blackboard composition" which is a writing activity with origins in Kenyan secondary school

English classrooms (Radford, 1969). Nation (2009) summarizes the activity as follows:

> To make a blackboard composition the whole class works together. The teacher of the learners suggests a subject and a rough plan for the composition. Members of the class raise their hands and suggest a sentence to put it the composition. If the sentence is correct it is written on the blackboard. If it is not correct, the class and the teacher correct it and then it is written on the board… When the whole composition is finished, the learners read it and then it is rubbed off the blackboard. The learners do not copy it in their books before this. Then the learners must rewrite it from their memory (pp. 99-100)

In this description it can be seen that both the teacher and the students partake in the revision of the blackboard composition as it is being composed. This highlights the need for teacher feedback, which in turn serves to fulfill the requirement of rule number two in same-task activity creation. Furthermore, it can be seen that instead of copying the composition into their books, the students rewrite the composition from memory. This step is very important, and is the key factor in having the students learn while engaging in composition.

The only downfall of blackboard composition is that while it might touch upon a number of grammatical problems shared between students, it will not necessarily help students with more abstract, individual grammatical problems. Therefore, once students are no longer benefitting from blackboard composition, it is recommend that teachers turn to a modified version of the stereotypical classroom composition session. First, the teacher would have the students compose 1-2 paragraph works as they would per a normal writing assignment. Afterward, the teacher would then mark and correct the grammatical mistakes of the students. However, instead of following these corrections with the students' revision of their work as normal, the students would read the teacher's notes, take notice of their mistakes, and then put their first draft out of sight before rewriting their composition from memory.

Segmental pronunciation while speaking

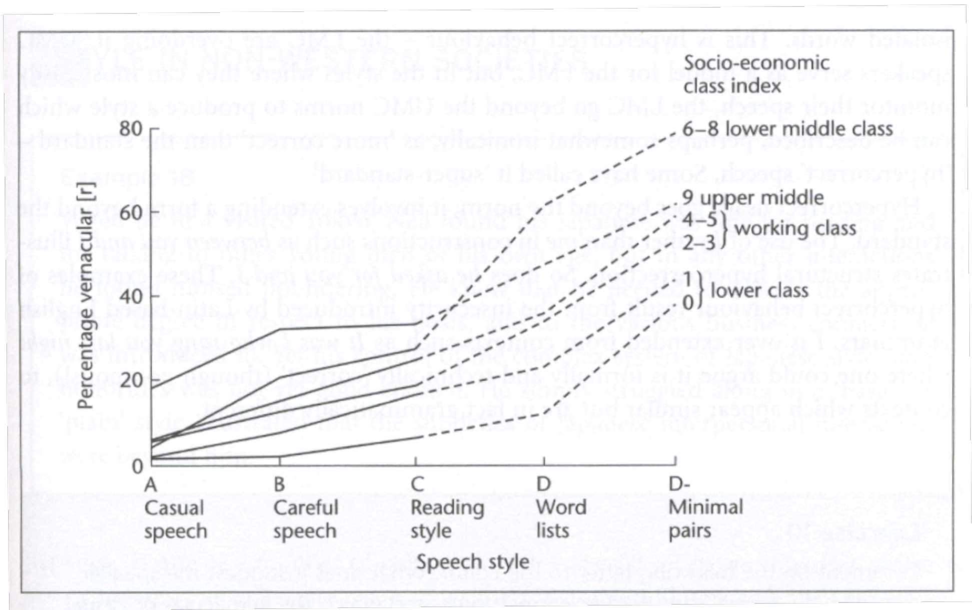
Research into the improvement of students' segmental pronunciation while speaking has run into many problems as current data suggests that learner aptitude, as opposed to many other factors including instruction or training, remains one of the primary determinates in the adult onset learners' acquisition of second language phonology (Ioup , 2008; Ioup, Boustagui, El Tigi & Moselle, 1994; Novoa, Fein, & Obler, 1988; Schneiderman & Desmarais, 1988). However, that is not to say that instruction does not help the improvement of pronunciation, as research into the instruction of contrastive drills (such as minimal pairs), word lists, and sentence level work combined with feedback leads to statistically significant increases in learner pronunciation ability (Bongaerts, Planken, & Schils, 1995; Elliott, 1995; Major, 1987; Moyer, 1999). Regardless, while evidence has shown that it is possible for adult learners to achieve native-like pronunciation (Ioup, Boustagui, El Tigi, & Moselle, 1994; Moyer, 1999; Bongaerts, Mennen, & Van der Slik, 2000), there is "no study documenting a link between pronunciation instruction and the elimination of a foreign accent" (Derwing & Munro, 2005, p.384).

One potential explanation for the deficiency in segmental pronunciation instruction is that while instruction in the areas of contrastive drills, word lists, and sentence level work combined with feedback satisfies the second rule of creating same-task activities, it does not satisfy the first rule, as these activities do not contain the same processes as free conversation. As a result, students have been limited to exclusively cross-task activities, which have not given them the scope of potential instances of phonology learning necessary to achieve native-like pronunciation. Unfortunately, Trofimovich's (2005) study on bilingual priming provides evidence that trying to have students focus on communicating meaning while simultaneously having them focus on the correct pronunciation of words might overload their working memory. Therefore, instead of recommending a purely same-task activity, I will introduce and argue for the utilization of an activity which is more similar in process to free speech than the previous methodology of contrastive drills, word lists, and sentence level work.

To begin this introduction, Dickerson and Dickerson (1977) provide data that Japanese second language learners of English make a measurable difference in the percentage of pronunciation mistakes of the phoneme /r/ when engaged in three different situations of output: word lists, dialogue reading, and free speech. Results showed that students made the most mistakes in free speech, a smaller amount of mistakes in dialogue reading, and the least amount of mistakes in word list readings. Complementary to these findings, Labov's (1966) research on the pronunciation of /r/ for native speakers of English in New York found that the frequency of a speaker's pronunciation of the /r/ phoneme was able to be separated by both social class and speech style. As seen in figure 1, reading style is once again closer than word list reading to free speech in terms of /r/ production across all social classes. Furthermore, Labov observed an occurrence of hypercorrect speech (an overuse of a prestige language feature when asked to focus on it) in the lower-middle class. While this increased the lower middle class's production of /r/ while reading word lists and minimal pairs, it did not increase their production when engaged in reading style, formal or casual speech. This then provides further evidence that the reading of dialogue or

Figure 1. Post Vocalic [r] for range of social groups and five styles in New York.
Source: Labov (1966, p. 160).

texts aloud is closer in process to free speech than the reading of word lists or minimal pairs. In light of this realization, it is rational to make the assumption that teaching of segmental pronunciation to students through the reading of dialogue or texts aloud will produce more transfer into correct pronunciation while speaking than the teaching of segmental pronunciation through word lists and minimal pairs.



Even though the evidence listed above suggests that the teaching of pronunciation through the reading of texts will lead to a greater improvement in phonology acquisition than previous pronunciation instruction, teachers must still be conscious of both same-task condition rules. While it is a given that feedback is a necessary component of this style of instruction, it is essential that teachers do not allow students to continue reading the next sentences in the text after problem words are said correctly, as the learning in this type of instruction takes place in single word utterances and not in the context of the text. Instead, once the student is able to say the word correctly, the teacher should guide the student to a place in the text one or two sentences before the problem word, and have the student re-read the section until the problem word is read correctly in running speech.

Conclusion

Although current research in TAP suggests that same-task activities are the most efficient method of study, the underlying trend of multiple instances of TAP research is that cross-task activities, although less potent, still result in the improvement of test scores in nearly all situations (Blaxton, 1989; Franks, et al., 2000). This is a crucial observation when discussing TAP, because it shows that same-task activities are not necessary for learning, but instead act as a way to increase learning speed and efficiency.

Although there are many different situations in which TAP can be applied in SLA, the three domains discussed in this article were only chosen because of their lack of TAP representation. In light of this, it is recommended that teachers take it upon themselves to create their own same-task activities, and as long as the two rules of same-task activity creation are followed, then the ability to apply TAP to situations in SLA is as limitless as the teacher's imagination.

In conclusion, TAP is just now beginning to be applied in the field of SLA, and as such it might experience many changes in the years to come as teachers experiment on its effects and report back their successes and failures. As such, I eagerly await the future research of TAP in SLA, and hope that the findings of these articles are well received.

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Biodata

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Challenging mainstream thinking of fluency: Its definition and assessment

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Abstract

There is no clear definition of fluency which everyone agrees upon. This paper challenges the way that the term is used because it has never been clearly differentiated from the concept of proficiency. The writer also challenges the assumption that proficiency and fluency are quantitative measures that *belong* to an individual. In fact, evaluation procedures fail to take into account the fact that speaking is a co-constructed activity. Leaving out the listener changes the assessment outcome profoundly. While teachers cannot control the way major testing companies operate, they can control how they assess their own students. The writer suggests using a group oral evaluation and explains the rationale for it. Teacher resistance to this idea is reported and counter arguments are given.

流暢についての主流な視座への挑戦：その定義と評価

すべての人が合意する流暢についての明確な定義は、現在のところ存在していない。本論文は流暢という文言の利用のされ方を考察するものである。なぜならば、それは、熟達という概念と明快に区別されたことが無いからである。報告者はまた、熟達と流暢とは個人に「属する」量的計量であるという仮定を、再考しようとするものである。実際のところ、評価の過程は、話すこととは相互に構築される活動であるという事実を考慮するということに、失敗している。聞く人を無視した場合、それは、評価の結果に甚大に影響するのである。教師が主流のテスト会社のやり方を操作することは不可能である反面、自身の生徒・学生の評価において操作を工夫することは可能である。報告者は、グループ活動における口頭の評価について提案し、その合理性を説明するものである。そして、この提案に対する教師側からの抵抗について報告し、反論を展開する。

Keywords: Group oral evaluation, fluency, proficiency, speakers and listeners

The term, *Fluency*

What do we mean by fluency? Fillmore (1979) notes that a fluent speaker a) can easily fill time with talk; b) has a quality of speech (more than quantity) that is coherent, complex and dense; c) knows the appropriate thing to say in a variety of contexts, i.e., has pragmatic and affective skills; and d) has control over the aesthetic functions of language, i.e., being creative and imaginative and able to use puns, jokes or metaphors (p. 358). However, for second language learners, perhaps it might be better to refer to the ability a) to speak smoothly and easily, b) to speak quickly and naturally, c) to *think* in the language, and d) to compensate for any lack in lexical or structural components.

In reviewing the research (see Campbell-Larsen, this volume), it is clear that there is no definition of fluency that everyone agrees upon, and this presents a problem for practitioners and researchers who want to work on improving and assessing student fluency. Without a clear definition, it is impossible to operationalize fluency, a necessary step in research and assessment. One of the reasons for this difficulty is the fact that proficiency and fluency are often conflated or used interchangeably (Schmidt, 1992). Yet an informal poll I conducted of language teachers at the conference showed that many claim there is a distinct difference, even though the two areas overlap considerably. Some teachers felt that proficiency demands accuracy while fluency does not always do so, i.e., a student can make a number of grammatical or lexical errors, but when it does not interfere with the flow or the meaning, then it would not lower the judgment of their fluency.

Questions about fluency

As a follow-up to this informal poll, I would like to pose the following questions for consideration: Is it safe for fluency and proficiency to be used interchangeably? Where does accuracy fit in? Do speed and lack of hesitation count more for fluency and less for proficiency? Is fluency more of a speaking performance while proficiency includes speaking and all the other skills? Does personality play a role more in fluency and less in proficiency? Could fluency be a subset of proficiency? Or is it the other way around? Can fluency affect proficiency? Should the two be treated separately or are they inherently overlapped? Should we assess fluency? If so, how?

Neither of the plenary speakers at the conference defined how they were using *fluency.* It is quite likely that participants were not even aware of the possible meanings of *fluency,* and, in general, many people were probably using *fluency* simply as a non-technical term (Schmidt, 1992). One purpose of this paper is to draw the reader's attention to the need for a clear definition of *fluency*—a technical term that can be operationalized so that, in the future, we can all be on the same page. As long as people are aware of which term they are using—the technical or the non-technical—it will not be a problem. What I object to is the case when people treat *fluency* as if it were already well-defined and well-documented.

Another misconception

There is yet another misconception that I believe was not addressed at any length at the conference. The constructs of fluency and proficiency were, by and large, viewed as a performance or competence measure belonging to an individual speaker. This is a faulty premise from which to work. We all know that when people speak, there is almost always a listener (or listeners) who at any moment can become the next speaker. The listener role is extremely important, and most people will agree that speaking is co-constructed and a joint action.

Looking back in our field, there have clearly been many influences that have led us to the understanding that social discourse is co-constructed. One major contributor was the shift in our field to communicative language teaching in the 1970s when it was realized that in order to learn and use a language, learners need to be able to interact meaningfully with others. Teaching methods, materials, and class activities changed significantly. Another significant shift was best articulated by Firth and Wagner (1997) who criticized the field of second language teaching and learning, complaining that it was too heavily biased towards a cognitive and mentalist view, and that the field should include social, contextual, and emic perspectives.

There were a number of research areas where many had been pursuing such work well before the 1990s. Most of these originated in the fields of anthropology, psychology, and sociology, and they include the work of language socialization (Ochs & Schieffelin, 1987; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986), sociocultural theory (Lantolf, 2000; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Vygotsky, 1962), and Conversation Analysis (CA) (Sacks, 1992; Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974; Schegloff, 1988). In the 1960s, Goffman (1964) made many astute observations about how behavior is socially organized and that there are rules that govern interaction which are not always through linguistic means.

It seems that despite all that we have learned, our underlying beliefs about testing still remain heavily individualistic and cognitive, reflecting the clear and strong influence of psychometrics. McNamara and Roever (2006) have done an admirable job of explaining the need for and challenges of including a social dimension to language testing. It remains to be seen if any headway can be made especially in an environment where language proficiency testing is such a big business.

However, as teachers we do have control over how we assess our own students. This is where awareness can be raised. First, if we conduct an interview, the relationship is clearly asymmetrical. There is not only a power-distance differential but also an unequal distribution of opportunities for turn taking, for making topic changes, and for asking questions. This does not reflect the real world, which is ultimately what we want to know as far as how our students will perform. In addition, this setup is inherently unfair and needlessly stressful to the students.

Research has shown that interviewers, no matter what strategy they use, cannot keep completely neutral. The examiner talk can have a significant effect upon the performance of the examinee. Brown (2003, 2005) investigated the role of the interviewer in oral proficiency interviews and found that participants who scored higher had interviewers who seemed generally supportive. These raters selected familiar and personal topics and mainly elicited descriptions. They structured the sequence of the topics beginning with one or two closed questions where the topic and background information were brought up, then followed with requests for elaboration. This approach tended to lower the challenge to the candidate. The interviewers gave regular feedback in the form of news markers, echoes, assessments, and reformulations, and these displayed interest and understanding. They also tended to use slower rates of speech, clearer enunciation, and more exaggerated pitch and intonation levels.

In contrast, the examiners who had lower scoring candidates brought up topics which were less personal and, in addition to eliciting description, also asked for speculation, argument, and opinion. The questioning was less explicit, involving closed questions and statements. They were less successful in eliciting further talk when they used minimal tokens, such as “yeah?” rather than asking directly for elaboration. Interestingly, when all the raters viewed the more facilitative style, they reacted negatively and felt that the other style was more appropriate. I believe this reaction displays an influence of positivist research and psychometric testing, where investigators must remain completely neutral. This is impossible. In the classroom, no teacher can be completely objective—and they do not need to be.

What classroom teachers can do

To get around the asymmetrical relationship, I suggest peer-to-peer or group oral assessments. I make it a regular practice to evaluate group discussions, and I use them as low-stakes testing. In other words, the activity is treated as a homework score rather than a final class score, and by increasing the frequency, students will be able to have different members in their groups. This gives them several chances to make improvements. By evaluating students speaking in a group, it also saves time both for class activities and teacher evaluation. Group oral assessment is fair, practical, and efficient.

Some may be skeptical upon hearing about this idea, and may criticize the fact that I give the whole group a score, meaning that every member gets the same score. When I do this, I can focus NOT on individuals, but on the quality of the group interaction. After all, it is a socially constructed activity and what students produce should be the target of the assessment. It is impossible to give a fair score to each individual, but it is possible to make a judgment of the discussion itself.

You might imagine a possible case in which one or more students might not say anything, and there may be strong objections to these students getting the same score as the others. I counter with the following: First, if you observe carefully, often the silent student is still *doing something*—s/he is engaged as can be seen by the gaze, nods, and facial expression. Second, if one or more of the students does not contribute, the score will reflect that. If in another group everyone spoke but the discussion was dominated by one speaker, then this group would not get high marks. The score indicates the actual group's *work* and it is not a reflection of separate individuals.

In my classes I have the other students evaluate the group discussions along with me, and the students being assessed get the average of their classmates' score and my score. Student-made scores are often very similar to mine, and sometimes even stricter than my own. Students take this work seriously. They have no problem focusing on the discussion, and they see nothing strange about assigning a group grade. It is true that some students are good at keeping a discussion lively and interesting, and their classmates may have an advantage by being placed in the same group. This happens, but to try to keep things balanced, the group discussion is scheduled more than once. By doing so, the students also become familiar with the task and, even though they are being evaluated, they begin to treat it as just as another class activity.

I can understand teacher resistance to evaluating in a completely different way. It has taken me several years to come to this particular approach. It was not something that I read about or was taught. Over time I came to many realizations about what the students were actually doing. These new insights came about through being immersed in the micro-analysis of small group discussions using CA. As Goffman (1964) noted, "Face to face interaction has its own regulations; it has its own processes and its own structure, and these don't seem to be intrinsically linguistic in character, however often expressed through a linguistic medium" (p. 136). Being a language teacher, I previously focused only on the language being produced, but by doing C.A research, I began to *see* the action and interaction taking place that Goffman was writing about. I began to see in minute detail the real work that the students were involved in—constructing a discussion together.

Conclusion

I am calling for a rethinking of the definition of fluency. In order to help our students improve, we need to specify what exactly fluency involves. I am also calling for a major shift in how classroom teachers assess their students. Teachers should not just examine the language produced, but should focus on both the speaker AND the listener. They should look at the *actions* of student *interaction*. This means taking into account the appropriacy of both what they say and what they do, and inevitably this widens our scope to include sociopragmatics as well.

Pondering the actual meaning of *fluency* has pushed me to challenge myself. It has made me think about how I have previously used *fluency*, so now I am more aware of when it is being used technically or not. I have welcomed the doubts and objections of fellow teachers to my call for a different kind of student assessment. It has forced me to think more deeply about classroom assessment. I hope that others will also think more deeply about what we do as teachers, to see and understand our students in a clearer and real way.

Biodata

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Testing—a boon or a bane on the path to fluency?

Andrew Joseph Lawson

LETS—Lawson English Teaching Solutions

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Abstract

So many Japanese learners of English focus their studies on preparing for a particular English language test. Is this an effective usage of their precious time and energy? This paper seeks to consider this issue, taking into account the differing long-term objectives of individual students. It also examines the growing role of so-called *ESP Tests* in guiding students down the path to fluency within a specific field of expertise relevant to the individual's needs.

This paper examines the concept of fluency, and considers the impact of testing on the development of learners' fluency. It specifically focuses on students' perceptions of some of the better-known tests, in terms of their awareness of the particular test, the perceived benefits of taking it, and the impact upon the learners' use of study time.

英語を勉強する日本人の多くは、ある特定の英語テストに重点を置いている。それは彼等の貴重な時間とエネルギーを費やすのに有効な方法と言えるのだろうか。この論文は、各生徒の長期的目標は異なっていることを考慮に入れながら問題を追求している。また、各ニーズに関連する専門分野で流暢に話せるようになる方法を示しながら、益々大きくなる'ESP'テストの役割を分析している。

この論文は、流暢さとは何かの概念を分析し、学習する者達の流暢さの成長の度合いがテストにどう影響するのか考察している。そして、あるテストの著名度、そのテストを受けることの利点、若者達の勉強時間に与える影響について、生徒達がどう考えているかに焦点を合わせている。

Keywords: Student objectives, ESP Tests, fluency, testing

In a discussion of how testing affects learner fluency in English, it seems pertinent to begin by considering the very notion of *fluency*, and what it actually means. Crystal (1987) provides a rather succinct definition: “smooth, rapid, effortless use of language” (p.421), while Brumfit (1984) describes fluency as “natural language use whether or not it results in native speaker-like language comprehension or production” (p.56).

But surely such definitions of fluency within our context are overly simplistic. Consider the 50 words comprising the entire text of *Green Eggs and Ham* (Dr. Seuss, 1960), arranged in alphabetical order:

> a, am, and, anywhere, are, be, boat, box, car, could, dark, do, eat, eggs, fox, goat, good, green, ham, here, house, I, if, in, let, like, may, me, mouse, not, on, or, rain, Sam, say, see, so, thank, that, the, them, there, they, train, tree, try, will, with, would, you

It is reasonable to assume that one could learn to recite them in a rapid, smooth manner, without a great deal of effort. But would it be *natural*? Can language use be considered natural if it fails to result in comprehension or production at a level which approximates that of a native speaker? It is doubtful whether the average listener would be engaged by lists of random words for a sustained period. Lennon (2000) states that: “a good touchstone of acceptable fluency is the degree to which listener attention is held” (p. 34). Some pillars of vocabulary, grammar, and pragmatic competence are required to build effective fluency.

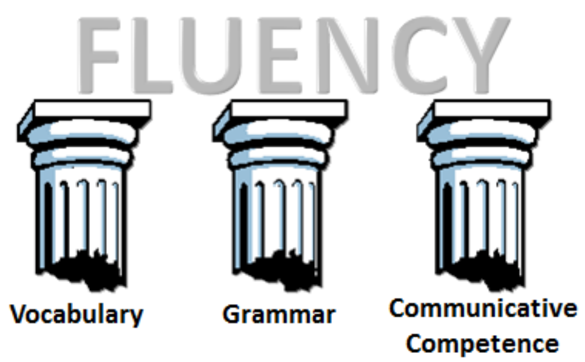

Diagram 1. The “pillars of fluency”

It must also be acknowledged that a speaker’s level of fluency varies according to the topic of the dialogue, and a combination of surrounding factors, not least one’s own knowledge of and enthusiasm for the topic, as well as the intended audience. Given the difficulties in defining fluency, there is no clear consensus on the manner in which it should be assessed. This makes the task of assessing the impact of testing on that fluency particularly problematic.

A Study of Student Awareness and Perceptions of English Assessment

A small-scale survey study (see Appendix) was conducted to examine student awareness and perceptions of five of the major English tests taken in Japan. It also asked for information on the tests taken, reasons for doing so, activities undertaken in preparation for the tests, and student impressions of how test preparation impacted on the development of English abilities. While no definitive conclusions can be drawn from the resulting data, it does highlight a few interesting issues.

Table 1. Attitude toward type of examination

How would you describe your attitude towards each of the following English examinations?

	Very favorable	Somewhat favorable	Neutral	Somewhat negative	Very negative	I don't know this exam
TOEIC	9	26	11	1	4	2
BULATS	-	1	3	-	-	49
IELTS	1	1	5	1	-	45
TOEFL	6	19	17	-	-	11
STEP EIKEN	8	15	16	9	3	2

Data collected from 53 members of English circles and conversation classes in Narita, Apr-May 2011. Student ability level ranged from False Beginner to Advanced.

The most obvious point is the glaring lack of recognition of two of the tests. The vast majority of participants in the study had never even heard of either the BULATS or IELTS exams. Despite the IELTS website's claim that it is the most commonly taken test for those wishing to gain an English qualification for the purposes of immigration or access to higher education, with 1.4 million candidates annually (http://www.ielts.org/), 45 out of 53 survey respondents were entirely unfamiliar with IELTS. The recognition of BULATS was even lower, with 49 of the 53 participants completely unaware of it. Cambridge University ESOL clearly still has some way to go in reaching all of its potential Japanese customers.

Among the 53 participants, there was a far higher recognition of the TOEIC, TOEFL, and Step EIKEN tests. Given the fact that the EIKEN was created at the behest of the Japanese Ministry of Education, and the TOEIC was conceived by a Japanese team (led by Kitaoka Yasuo), it is unsurprising that they are better-known in this country. TOEFL has been used as a benchmark for the English ability of Japanese students seeking entry to U.S. colleges and universities since the 1960s, and gains more exposure from its connection to the TOEIC (both tests being administered by ETS). 25 of the respondents recorded a favorable impression of the TOEFL, but only 1 of the 53 had actually taken it, and that was over 10 years ago. Thus, the students' experiences of language assessment are clearly dominated by the STEP, and to an even greater degree, TOEIC tests.

Cost is a significant factor in students' attitudes towards tests. The relatively high cost of taking the TOEFL was mentioned in responses (USD210, or about JPY16,000 at time of writing, according to http://www.cieej.or.jp/toefl/toefl/testfee.html). The only negative comment given about IELTS concerned the high cost of the test (currently JPY24,765, according to http://www.eiken.or.jp/ielts/english/fees-payment.html). Many respondents approved of the gradual incline in the cost of taking an EIKEN test, as one's level increased. Several positive remarks about the TOEIC commented on its affordability compared to other *international* tests. There were also two respondents who expressed a negative attitude towards the TOEIC on the grounds of its cost, but both appeared genuinely surprised to learn that taking the TOEIC is in fact now less expensive than either the EIKEN Level pre-1 (JPY6000) or Level 1 (JPY7500), the fee having been reduced to JPY5565 in September 2009.

Students appeared to be less concerned that the prime reason for the relative affordability of the TOEIC was that it was only an MCQ test of listening and reading, and that taking the separate TOEIC Speaking and Writing Tests (SW) would incur an additional JPY9,975 fee. Further enquiries into thoughts on the TOEIC SW revealed a substantial number were completely unaware of its existence. Among those who were actually familiar with it, reactions ranged from ambivalence to revulsion. Many felt that it was an unnecessary expense, as prospective employers were only interested in a TOEIC score in the form of the single 3-digit number. Others expressed a belief that it was a wonderful idea in theory, but it would be too traumatic for them. Paradoxically, several students commented that never having had to take a speaking test is what made them always enjoy English conversation far more than grammar, reading, or any of the other things they had been forced to study over the years. Thus, by omitting a speaking component, it could be argued that TOEIC was actually promoting fluency among this particular group! Indeed, respondents' attitudes towards the TOEIC were generally favourable. Comments included:

- "TOEIC can get me a job"
- "TOEIC is very important on my resume"
- "TOEIC is international"
- "TOEIC is most important score for Japanese to prove English skill"
- "If I can get good TOEIC score, I can enjoy speaking many countries' people"
- "A high TOEIC score is my dream!"

When asked to elaborate on her TOEIC dream, the student in question explained that having a 900+ TOEIC score would give her confidence in her own ability, and a belief that she was a good English speaker. Attitudes to the EIKEN were more mixed, as shown in Table 1.

Table 2. Attitudes to the EIKEN Test

Positive	Negative
● "It's very useful for students to challenge for EIKEN" ● "Students can do at their school" ● "It has different levels for higher or lower learners" ● "It's not so expensive for mothers to pay for" ● "Students must pass a speaking test too. That's very good" ● "The test gets more difficult as we get older"	● "EIKEN is for children" ● "It's kind of a kids' exam" ● "EIKEN is only in Japan" ● "EIKEN is not so serious" ● "EIKEN study was boring" ● "Big companies don't care so much about EIKEN. TOEIC score is better" ● "I don't trust EIKEN scores so much" ● "EIKEN is good, but not for adults" ● "If I want to go to another country, EIKEN score is not so useful"

Judging by the completed surveys, the EIKEN is often perceived as being a *children's test*. Several comments alluded to this. EIKEN is also considered by many to be a rather parochial test, of some value in Japan, but practically worthless overseas. This is perhaps an unfair or outdated way of thinking, as STEP have had considerable success in their efforts to attain more widespread recognition of EIKEN scores among overseas learning institutions. Nevertheless, follow-up discussions revealed a common consensus on an ideal English qualification path – take the EIKEN to Level 3 by high school, and then *graduate* to the more *adult* TOEIC. Take the TOEIC on a regular basis during one's college years and beyond, until reaching the desired score.

The ways that most students claimed to prepare for the TOEIC or EIKEN were remarkably similar. Test-preparation texts were used by every student in order to familiarize themselves as much as possible with the style of the test. The need to improve reading speed was a common theme, as was listening practice at *test* speed. Despite the existence of an EIKEN speaking test at the higher levels, every EIKEN candidate admitted that they only worried about preparing for that, if or when they passed the initial reading and listening component.

The question regarding the direct impact of these tests on one's language skill development proved very difficult for respondents to answer. Even when invited to express their thoughts in the L1 (Japanese), they fared little better. After directing students to consider their prime motives for studying English, and then how the tests helped them to realise their goals, coherent responses were STILL quite scarce.

Some student comments:

- Imposes an immediate incentive to study
- Provides a widely-recognised English language qualification
- Gives a sense of achievement
- Enhances confidence
- Develops vocabulary
- Provides opportunities to review grammar structures
- Improves reading speed
- Improves listening skills

Several of those surveyed were hoping to find work at, or related in some way to, the nearby Narita International Airport. Many of them seemed to see a TOEIC score as a key that would unlock the door to employment in an English-speaking environment where they would be able to then go on and further develop their language skills. In terms of test preparation actually having an impact, a large number of students said that simply having an upcoming test forced them to actually study, rather than procrastinating or doing all the other things that people would generally rather do. The prevalence of the final two comments listed here seems to imply a tacit acknowledgement by some students that the TOEIC does not actually assess one's speaking or writing abilities.

Confluence

Much of McCarthy's recent work is on the *English Profile* programme, seeking to incorporate empirical evidence of the spoken language into the increasingly influential Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). McCarthy refers to fluency as a key concern, and attacks the *monologic bias* of our current approach to spoken fluency. In addition to automaticity and a familiarity with a substantial number of *chunks*, he states that "fluency also involves the ability to create flow and smoothness across turn-boundaries" (2010, p.1). McCarthy also provides corpus evidence of what he calls *confluence*, the joint production of flow by more than one speaker.

So if we can accept the importance of confluence, it seems reasonable to assume that a test of one's oral language ability would include at least some element of two-way communication. Neither of ETS's flagship products do so. Of course, the standard TOEIC has no speaking component whatsoever, but even the TOEIC Speaking Test involves only one-way communication. The BULATS, IELTS and EIKEN all involve actual face-to-face dialogue, but they are far from being comprehensive tests of fluency. Indeed the examiner's ability to engage in the joint production of flow is severely restricted by the explicit instructions they are under, to *keep to the script*. Furthermore, BULATS now also offers an online speaking test which involves test takers making oral responses to standard, automated prompts. This significant new development appears to run contrary to McCarthy's views.

However, given the practicalities of testing, and the inherent difficulties involved in creating a
since their inception. There have been significant content revisions, including the introduction of a writing component to the TOEFL in 1986. A greater number of

validity studies are being conducted. *Can-do lists* have been created in attempts to translate respective scores and successes into checklists of what tasks examinees should be capable of doing in the target language. Attempts are being made to map scores to the CEFR, illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3. Approximate comparison of test scores

Approximate Comparison of Test Scores

<table>
<tr><th>TOEIC</th><th>TOEFL Paper</th><th>TOEFL IBT</th><th>IELTS</th><th>BULATS</th><th>Cambridge Exam</th><th>CEFR</th><th>EIKEN</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">0 - 250</td><td>0 - 310</td><td>0 - 8</td><td>0 - 1.0</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>310 - 343</td><td>9 - 18</td><td>1.0 - 1.5</td><td rowspan="2">0-19</td><td></td><td>A1</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">255 - 400</td><td>347 - 393</td><td>19 - 29</td><td>2.0 - 2.5</td><td></td><td>A1</td><td>3</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">397 - 433</td><td rowspan="2">30 - 40</td><td rowspan="2">3.0 - 3.5</td><td rowspan="2">20-39</td><td>KET
(IELTS 3.0)</td><td>A2</td><td rowspan="2">Pre-2</td></tr>
<tr><td>PET
(IELTS 3.5)</td><td>B1
(IELTS 3.5)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">405 - 600</td><td>437 - 473</td><td>41 - 52</td><td>4.0</td><td rowspan="2">40-59</td><td>PET</td><td>B1</td><td>2</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">477 - 510</td><td rowspan="2">53 - 64</td><td rowspan="2">4.5 - 5.0</td><td>PET
(IELTS 4.5)</td><td>B1
(IELTS 4.5)</td><td rowspan="2">2A*</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">60-74</td><td>FCE
(IELTS 5.0)</td><td>B2
(IELTS 5.0)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">605 - 780</td><td>513 - 547</td><td>65 - 78</td><td>5.5 - 6.0</td><td>FCE</td><td>B2</td><td>Pre-1</td></tr>
<tr><td>550 - 587</td><td>79 - 95</td><td>6.5 - 7.0</td><td>75-89</td><td>CAE</td><td>C1</td><td>1</td></tr>
<tr><td>785 - 990</td><td>590 - 677</td><td>96 - 120</td><td>7.5 - 9.0</td><td>90-100</td><td>CPE</td><td>C2</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Top Score</td><td>Top Score</td><td>Top Score</td><td>Top Score</td><td>Top Score</td><td>Top Score</td><td>Top Level</td><td>Top Score</td></tr>
<tr><td>990</td><td>677</td><td>120</td><td>9</td><td>100</td><td>CPE 100</td><td>C2</td><td>1 PASS</td></tr>
</table>

**EIKEN Grade 2A designates an examinee passing the first stage of Grade 2 with a minimum of approximately 75% of the total points possible, which places the examinee between Grades 2 and Pre-1 within the EIKEN framework of ability levels.*

Looking more specifically at the most commonly taken of the tests, the TOEIC has been developed significantly in recent years. The price has been reduced substantially. Steps have been taken to employ more realistic language in its reading and listening scripts, as well as a variety of different native English-speaker accents. The most fundamental changes occurred in 2006, with the introduction of a redesigned Listening and Reading Test, as well as the new optional Speaking and Writing Test. There are also a greater number of validity studies available to the public now (ETS, 2010).

So, given these changes, and the positive attitudes towards the TOEIC among survey respondents, are professionals in the Japan-based TEFL industry unjustly critical of a test which was taken by around six million people in 2010 (www.ets.org/toeic/institutions/listening_reading/about)? Is the notion of a large volume of learners with high TOEIC scores and a complete lack of communicative competence, no more than an outdated urban myth? The TOEIC Can-Do Guide (Chauncey Group International, 2000: Appendix B) does make some interesting, detailed conjectures regards the likely speaking and interactional capabilities of an examinee with a listening score in the 355-425 band.

Returning to McCarthy's notion of confluency, it is debatable whether it is possible to draw any worthwhile conclusions about an individual's interactional skills from a listening test. A series of professional encounters over the past 12 months provided some interesting case studies:

- A senior partner in a Tokyo law firm is frustrated by hiring young lawyers who graduated at the top of their class, who are then sent to study at one of the most prestigious law schools in the USA, at the company's expense. Despite each having a TOEIC score above 850, the vast majority are ill-equipped to deal with their overseas studies. Even those with a high TOEFL score fared little better.
- The human resources manager of a large hotel is responsible for hiring staff with English abilities which allow them to serve the large volume of guests from overseas. He considers the applicant's TOEIC score to be the primary factor in assessing English communicative competence, yet is often disappointed in their actual ability to perform in front-line positions such as bar, restaurant, gym, bell desk, front desk.

Both of the above professionals were aware of the EIKEN, but felt that it was more of a children's test, and considered even a high-level qualification to be of less value than a TOEIC score. Again, neither was familiar with BULATS or IELTS, nor with the TOEIC SW.

Despite the law and hospitality industries being so being different, these two professionals currently utilize the exact same assessment in order to grant or deny career opportunities. In doing so, they share a common problem. Each requires a method of assessment far more specific to the particular field of expertise. None of the aforementioned tests would provide accurate assessment of the skills required to participate fruitfully in classes at Harvard Law School, or to take care of a boisterous international crowd in a busy bar on a Saturday night. Yet, as a consequence of corporate politics, short-term planning, and current fiscal realities, neither is in a position to install a genuinely suitable program of instruction and assessment.

These examples are by no means isolated cases. Returning to the learners who responded to the initial survey, it is hardly surprising that most view the attainment of a higher TOEIC score to be a crucial step in furthering their career ambitions. It would be churlish for EFL educators to refuse to acknowledge this, and to fail to provide students with support in their attempts to prepare for such a test.

Assessment of English for Specific Purposes

But in the longer-term, there must be a continued growth in Assessment of English for Specific Purposes (AESP). While assessment could (and should) include more than a standard formal test, a lack of effective evaluation is likely to render an ESP program ineffective. Shohamy (1993) makes the salient point that in an educational system where formal tests have such a prominent role, it is only if something is tested that it is considered important. This appears to be particularly true of Japan, and reflects the current reality throughout the educational system, from the High School *Senta Shiken* (so important that it affects all prior learning), to the recently introduced English curriculum in elementary schools (no testing, therefore considered by a significant number of homeroom teachers to be a pointless *nuisance*, and a distraction from more fundamental issues, according to comments made to the author in informal discussions). Perhaps the changes which Ozaki (2010) and Murphey (2004) are calling for would have a wider impact on English assessment at all levels.

But the increasing need for more robust AESP is global, and according to Tratnik (2008), ESP examinations are "gaining more and more attention, and are becoming an indispensable tool in the modern educational society" (p.13). In addition to assessing a candidate's knowledge of the specialist vocabulary in the field, it is crucial that these also function as tests of pragmatic competence (i.e. the ability to implement one's knowledge in order to achieve effective communication). Perhaps then, testing will genuinely assist the learner on the path to fluency, in whatever particular context he or she seeks to attain it.

Biodata

Andy Lawson has been living and teaching in Chiba for 14 years. He has worked in a variety of contexts, with students ranging from 4 to 84 years old. Research interests include bilingualism, testing and pragmatics, and he continues to develop his unhealthy fascination in argumentation and disagreement strategies, preferably in the bar-room context.

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Appendix

How would you describe your attitude towards each of the following English examinations?

	Very favorable	Somewhat favorable	Neutral	Somewhat negative	Very negative	I don't know this exam
TOEIC						
BULATS						
IELTS						
TOEFL						
STEP Eiken						

Have you ever taken any of these tests? *(Enter the date taken e.g. "***July 2008***")*

TOEIC		**STEP Eiken** *1*		**STEP Eiken** *3*	
BULATS		*Pre 1*		*4*	
IELTS		*2*		*5*	
TOEFL		*Pre 2*			

Overall, did preparing for the test(s) have a positive or negative impact on the development of your English?

Positive		Neutral		Negative	

POSITIVE – In what way(s)?

____

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NEGATIVE – In what way(s)?

____

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____

____

Why did you take this (these) particular test(s)? (Tick all that apply)

I was compelled to by my employer		I felt that it would enhance my CV and employment prospects most	
I was compelled to by my parents		I wanted the best, quantifiable measurement of my English ability	
I was compelled to by my place of study		The price of this test encouraged me	
It is the test I was most familiar with		Other (Please specify)	

In preparation for this (these) test(s), which of the following activities did you partake in?

A class specifically for preparation for this test		Speaking English to fellow English learner	
A general English conversation class		Watching English movies or TV	
A general English grammar class		Watching or Listening to English language lessons on TV / radio	
Textbook specifically for preparation for this test		Reading English novels or comic books	
General English textbook		Reading English newspapers or magazines	
Speaking English to native English speaker		Listening to English music	

Optional details:

Name:____

Age:__________________ Gender:______________________

Employment:______________________________________

MANY THANKS FOR YOUR TIME! IT IS GREATLY APPRECIATED!

Language learning spaces: Creating a communicative classroom

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Abstract
Though learning can occur in any spatial situation, research on school environments suggests a strong relationship between learning and learning spaces. Yet, this relationship is often overlooked when designing a classroom. Conventional classrooms tend to support a teacher-centered approach, with an emphasis on teaching rather than learning, and do not encourage much student-to-student interaction. Using research from a myriad of academic disciplines, along with learner-centered models of classroom design, a *communicative classroom* was created for first-year senior high school oral communication classes. The purpose of this classroom was to provide a positive learning environment that promoted student-to-student interaction and communication. In addition to a research review on learning and the physical environment, this paper explains the design and implementation of this classroom and provides an analysis of student reflections on their time in it.
いかなる場においても学びはできるものであるが、学習と学習空間との強い関係性が学校教育環境に関する研究において述べられている。しかしながら、この関係性は教室配置を考える上でしばしば見落とされることがある。一般的な教室では教員が中心に位置し、学ぶことよりも教授することに重点を置き、生徒同士お互いに意見を出し合い学び合うということにはそれほど力を入れない傾向がある。多くの学問分野からの調査によると、高校一年生対象の意見交換を主とした授業において、学び手を教室の中心に置くことで活発に意見を出し合う雰囲気が生まれたという。この教室の目的は生徒間同士の意見交換やコミュニケーションを促し、積極的に学ぶ環境を与えることであった。
学びと物理的環境に関する研究に加え、このレポートでは教室配置とその実践方法についての説明、そしてそこに関わった生徒の感想を分析したものがまとめられている。

Keywords: Learning spaces, communicative approach, student-centered classes, classroom design

When you think of a traditional high school classroom space, what comes to mind? It is likely that many of us imagine students sitting in rows of desks, facing a chalkboard, and listening intently to the teacher's lecture. Yet, the way we think about learning spaces is evolving. Many researchers, academics, and teachers are questioning the notion that a traditional classroom is the best means of facilitating learning.

Prior to the creation of the communicative classroom discussed in this paper, the school's English oral communication (OC) classes were held in the traditional classrooms. These rooms were always laid out in standard rows, with students facing front and appearing ready to listen to the teacher's lecture. OC classes are not as frequent as other English classes (writing and reading, for example), and as the OC instructor, there was often a feeling of unfamiliarity with the environment. Upon walking into the classroom, there was a sense of entering borrowed space, in which its own rules and expectations prevailed. Trying to convince students that OC classes were different and that student-to-student interaction was valued meant challenging the students' prior beliefs about English learning, as well as their roles in the learning process.

As Marchese (1998) points out, "the existence of prior beliefs can be a major impediment to subsequent learning," and these beliefs "turn out to be especially impervious to classroom-based instruction" (p. 8). In order to provide an opportunity to reform learners' beliefs about classroom space, and to remove this personal sense of intrusion, a learning space for the sole purpose of oral communication was created. The intention was to provide a learning space situated outside the conventional classroom that used design and layout to encourage students to speak, provided a variety of readily available tools, and felt more comfortable than the traditional classroom.

The impact of the physical environment

Research on learning spaces suggests that classroom space is more than just a room in which to house students. In the field of education, Strange and Banning (2001) suggest "although features of the physical environment lend themselves theoretically to all possibilities, the layout, location, and arrangement of space and facilities render some behaviors much more likely, and thus more probable than others" (p. 15). Environmental psychologists also espouse the notion that space impacts behavior and can lead to feelings both positive and negative (Graetz & Goliber, 2002; Tanner, 2008). Barker and Wright (1951) observed children in specific environmental conditions and from this study, they concluded that behavior could be predicted more accurately from knowing the environmental setting than from knowing the characteristics of the individual.

As a result of their findings, Barker (1968) coined the term *behavior settings*, which are situations where the setting or environment results in particular patterns of behavior. Churches, museums, sports arenas, and classrooms are all examples of spaces where certain behaviors can be expected. Take, for example, the behaviors exhibited when inside a cathedral or a temple. We can expect a certain degree of conduct, such as hushed tones, slower movements, and pauses for reflection. Even if one had never been in such a place before, the patterns of behavior exhibited by others would serve as a powerful model. When we apply this principle to learning spaces, we can see that classrooms communicate as well. They are full of expectations that define the roles of those in them and lead to predictable patterns.

Space, therefore, is not neutral (Monahan, 2002; Strange & Banning, 2001). As Rapaport (1982) states, the environment "thus communicates, though a whole set of cues, the most appropriate choices to be made: the cues are meant to elicit appropriate emotions, interpretations, behaviors, and transactions by setting up the appropriate situations and contexts" (pp. 80-81). The cues themselves do not dictate behavior, but may make a particular behavior more probable. Consider a conventional high school classroom with rows of desks facing the front. The expectations are clear: when the teacher speaks, students are to be quiet and pay attention. Roles are also clearly defined: the teacher, standing at the front, is responsible for imparting knowledge while students are responsible for receiving the information, taking notes as necessary, and responding when prompted. Though one may argue that these are associated with good or high-level academic classrooms, the point remains that even in a class where students are not following the accepted rules of classroom behavior, the rules still exist.

The arrangement of such a classroom is said to be teacher-centered as teachers have control over the material presented, the questions posed, and the type of interaction (Makitalo-Siegl et al, 2010). From a learning perspective, teacher-centered classrooms are more likely to promote passive learning in that the learner's role is mostly to listen and remain quiet. Information moves in one-direction, from teacher to student, with limited (if any) student-to-student interaction.

Research on physical environments and learning

Research indicates that classroom design affects students' general behavior and attitudes (Horowitz & Otto, 1973; Sommer & Olsen, 1980; Weinstein, 1977). In her review of research of the physical environment of the school, Weinstein (1979) concludes that while "the physical environment of the conventional classroom has little impact on achievement…there is considerable evidence that the classroom environment can affect *nonachievement* behaviors and attitudes" (p. 598). Such behaviors include satisfaction, social interaction, attendance, participation, and positive attitudes. In a more recent study, Tanner (2008) concludes that design variables (movement and circulation, large group meeting places, day lighting and views, and instructional neighborhoods) do correlate with student achievement; however, these variables apply to the school facility at large, not only the classroom environment.

Studies on traditional classroom layouts have determined that the front and center of a classroom is the area where most verbal interaction occurs (Adams, 1969; Adams & Biddle, 1970; Koneya, 1976; Sommer, 1967). Adams & Biddle (1970) refers to this area as the "action zone" (see Figure 1). Though Weinstein (1979) determines that research on layout of desks (rows, horseshoe, circular—see Figure 2) show only minor differences with respect to verbal interaction, she also points out that little research on this specific issue has been done. Regardless, experience and observation would suggest that classroom layout is one of many factors that impact student-to-student interaction.

Figure 1 – *Action zone*

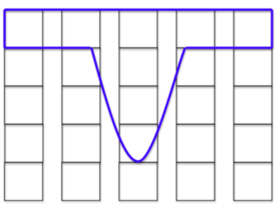


Figure 2 – *Desk arrangements*

Row layout *Cluster layout* *Horseshoe layout* *Circular layout*

It has been shown that a pleasant aesthetic has a positive effect on inhabitants of a room and that a “cheerful” setting helps students persist longer on tasks (Maslow & Mintz, 1956; Santrock, 1976). Though more research is needed, it is possible that positive attitudes may ultimately lead to greater achievement (Weinstein, 1979). Furthermore, educational goals beyond achievement, such as fostering positive feelings for learning, might be more attainable in comfortable, aesthetically pleasing classroom spaces (Weinstein, 1979). Consequently, Weinstein proposes that research on seating arrangements showing positive effects on students’ attitudes (Horowitz & Otto, 1973; Sommer & Olsen, 1980) might be a result of the “greater aesthetic appeal of the alternative classrooms rather than the different seating arrangements” (p 583). Essentially, classroom space matters.

Shifting paradigms

Teaching and learning

In the last ten years, many academics and researchers have written about the paradigmatic shift in the way learning and teaching is approached (Barr & Tagg, 1995; Gardner, 1983; Makitalo-Siegel et al, 2010; Van Note Chism, 2006; Wenger, 1999). The shift is from a teacher-centered, passive learning approach, to a student-centered, active-learning approach. Barr and Tagg (1995) define the former as the *Instructional Paradigm* where the intention is to “deliver instruction” and the focus is on “teaching” (p. 13). Conversely, the *Learning Paradigm* shifts the focus to student learning, in effect redefining the roles of students from passive knowledge receivers to active knowledge seekers and constructors. Cornell (2002) relates the shift in teaching and learning paradigms to the move from an “industrial economy” to a “knowledge economy” (p. 33).

The learning paradigm is rooted in social constructivism, and stems from the Dewey-based notion that one learns by interacting with the surrounding community and the world at large (Oxford, 1997). Vygotsky also acknowledged that learning is a social process, and that knowledge is constructed as a result of communication with others (Vygotsky, 1986).

Learning spaces

A new way of thinking about learning spaces emerged through "built pedagogy" or "architectural embodiments of educational philosophies" (Monahan, 2002). Built pedagogy suggests that space and pedagogy are interrelated. Graetz (2006) explains that physical environments can have strong emotional impacts on learners, affecting both cognition and behavior. He states,

> Environments that elicit positive emotional responses may lead not only to enhanced learning but also to a powerful, emotional attachment to that space. It may become a place where students love to learn, a place they seek out when they wish to learn, and a place they remember fondly when they reflect on their learning experiences. (Graetz, 2006, p. 6.2)

Moreover, Cornell (2002) states, "The environment should be a place people want to be, not a place they have to be. They should be motivated by fun and enjoyment as much as by a desire to learn" (p. 41).

Clearly researchers agree that new approaches to learning spaces are needed, yet, despite reviews of educational theories, shifts in teaching and learning paradigms, and different approaches to language teaching, classrooms have not really changed. McGregor (2004) states that even in a world of change and diversity, educational institutions as spaces for learning "exhibit physical, organizational, and social arrangements that have changed relatively little in the last 150 years" (p. 13). Further, Schratenstaller (2010) concludes, "all those endless discussions on education and all those numerous curriculum changes have not led to a substantial reform of the classroom" (p. 18). Compare, for example, a traditional classroom from the Meiji Era (Figure 2) with one from 2011 (Figure 3). The layout still supports a traditional learning and teaching paradigm – one whereby teachers posses and transmit knowledge, and students listen and learn.

Figure 2 – *Classroom of the Meiji Era (The Old Kaichi School House, Matsumoto, Japan), 1876*

Figure 3 – *Classroom of today (Nagano, Japan), 2011*

Applying new thinking to the conventional classroom

Changing the classroom environment allows the possibility of different rules. A learner-centered environment that provides for student-to-student interaction through classroom arrangement presents a different approach to language teaching. It's a more communicative approach where students are encouraged to cooperate and collaborate (for an overview of cooperative and collaborative language learning, see Oxford, 1997), and where the teacher's primary role is more of a facilitator. This change in environment can lead to a change in student and teacher expectations, as well as to a change in attitudes and feelings toward the subject. Of course, as Sommer and Olsen (1980) point out, "Introducing a new physical form requires people to change established patterns of behavior. Within an academic institution, it is easier to plan a city on the moon than to change a single classroom" (p. 3). The creation of a communicative classroom is an attempt to challenge the established patterns of behavior. The classroom implications of this shift in teaching and learning paradigms are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1 – *Comparing classrooms*

	Conventional Classroom	**Communicative Classroom**
Focus	Teacher-centered	Student-centered
Learning	Passive or surface learning	Active or deep learning
Interaction	Individual with some pair work	Collaborative, interactive & cooperative
Space	Functional	Emphasis on environment
Layout	Rows of desks facing the front	Flexible classroom arrangement
Learning Style	Auditory & visual learning styles	Variety of learning styles

Design and layout

Dittoe and Porter (2007) argue that learning theory (active and collaborative learning, interaction) should be the basis for design as new ideas on space as a means to enhance learning emerge. Classrooms should be both flexible and fluid, with moveable furniture and space for student movement. Flexible furniture allows for a variety of configurations to support different instructional endeavors. Hunley and Shaller (2009) also suggest that furniture should be flexible and portable, and that space should allow for rearrangement.

Hunley and Shaller's study (2009) of learning spaces on college campuses shows "that academic engagement was encouraged by learning spaces that were comfortable, open, flexible, and appealing to the emotions" (p. 30). Another interesting finding is that students' perception of the traditional and experimental rooms was based on their past experiences. Students who began classes in a traditional classroom considered it acceptable. However, students who began in the experimental room and then switched to the traditional room rated the latter negatively (Hunley & Shaller, 2009).

Vaughan (1991) describes a good classroom—"one that enhances the mysterious process called learning, in which one has a sense of well-being, in which easy interaction most frequently occurs" (p. 12). He describes how changing the teaching space also led to a change in teaching practice, and consequently a more effective and exciting classroom experience. In effect, "good rooms enable good teaching" (p. 12).

Creating a communicative classroom

Method

For the purpose of this paper, a *communicative classroom* is defined as a classroom that uses space, layout, and design to create a positive learning environment that promotes student-to-student interaction and communication. *Space* is the actual room where oral communication classes are held, *layout* refers to the arrangement of classroom furniture, and *design* refers to the aesthetic elements such as color, texture, shapes, furniture, and decorations (see Tables 2 & 3). An unused room (a former language learning lab) in an academic high school was transformed using principles of built pedagogy (Monahan, 2002), user-centered design (Cornell, 2002), and characteristics of ideal learning spaces (Creekmore, 1987; Dittoe & Porter, 2007; Krovetz, 1977; Montessori, 1912; Sommer & Becker, 1971; Van Note Chism & Bickford, 2002). The room was completed in time for the start of the 2011-2012 school year. All first year OC classes were held in this classroom for a total of eight sections (242 students).

Table 2 – *Design elements of a communicative classroom*

Room	Furniture
Comfortable	Comfortable
Safe	Safe
Flexible (adaptable & reconfigurable)	Adjustable
Appealing (aesthetically pleasing, engaging)	Attractive
Freedom of movement	Mobile
Variety of space (unobstructed free space, individual & small group learning spaces)	Functional (facilitate learning)

Density	Intuitive
Temperature	Technology capable
Lighting	User-centered
Noise	Compressible

Table 3 – *Design objectives of a communicative classroom*

Promote interaction
Support different teaching & learning configurations
Support different learning styles
Foster a sense of community
Allow space for individual & group learning
Allow space for formal and informal learning
Provide access to technology
Display student ideas & work

This paper serves as a reflection of classroom atmosphere from the perspective of the teacher and the students. It is autoethnographic in nature due to the fact that the teacher and researcher are one (for an overview of autoethnography, see Ellis & Bochner, 2000). Teacher reflections were recorded after each class. Student perspectives were drawn from student journals. The last five or ten minutes of each class were reserved for students to write in their journals. They were encouraged to write about the class, the activity, the room, the subject, or about themselves. They were not asked to explicitly compare classrooms. Since this paper is dealing with classroom space, comments about student lives and general activities ("I like rock music. How about you?") were not included in the analyses. Given the English level of the students, the journal entries range from a sentence ("Today's class was interesting.") to a short paragraph. Comments were compiled from four sections (each with four class periods for a total of 16 classes) chosen at random, and analyzed to get an overall student impression. No personal information was recorded, and even though initially the data was divided by class, the final results are a combined total. There is no way to trace which student made which comment due to the fact that so many of the student comments are written in a similar sentence structure using the same, limited vocabulary.

Also, the general comments have been condensed by category and scale, further diluting the actual comment and removing any possible trace of a particular student's writing or speaking style.

It is important to note that there are a number of components to consider in a classroom, such as the layout and design, the interaction of students and teachers, pedagogy, group dynamics, etc. As a result, it is difficult to point to one feature as the primary explanation for a particular phenomenon. To determine the role classroom space has in affecting communication and attitude in an English language class would require control for variables that are inextricably linked. To suggest that a cluster layout formation promotes student-to-student communication without taking into consideration group dynamics of the class at large and the group in question would ignore other potential variables. To determine that the cluster formation was truly the cause of increased communication, one would have to also show that factors such as the teacher, the activity, or the students' motivation to learn had no bearing on the increase. Consequently, this paper does not attempt to point to one variable as the cause of one particular phenomenon but to show that a number of factors working at the same time in the space of a classroom may contribute to increased interaction and communication, as well as to a positive environment.

The room

The standard classroom in this school contains an average of 38 desks (see Figures 4a & 4b). The average space between two desks side by side is 61.4cm, and front to back is 58cm. When arranged in the row format, the average space between a desk and the back wall is 81.2cm. There are two blackboards, one in the front of the room and one in the back, though the former is the one mainly used in instruction. The room is on average 7.4m wide and 7.6m long. There is about 6.8m wide and 2m high of window space. Classes have a wooden platform about 2.3m long and 78cm wide just under the blackboard, allowing the teacher to stand higher (24.5cm) than the students. Most classrooms also contain between one and three bookshelves, a locker, 2 extra desks and a podium, in addition to a variety of waste disposal bins.

Figure 4a– *A standard high school classroom*

Figure 4b – *A standard high school classroom*

The communicative classroom is a much bigger room at 9.25m wide and 11.15m long. There are 38 desks, though the average class size for OC is about 30 students. When arranged in the cluster or group format of 3 groups of 6 desks and 5 groups of 4 desks, the smallest space between any desk and a wall is 1.5m (see Figure 5). The closest any two desks are together is 63cm (though there is also a height difference of 15cm), but the range of closeness is between 70 and 140cm. Also included in the room are 6 desks (used to display materials), and a long teacher's control panel desk (which is bolted to the floor). One wall is covered entirely with windows (like the conventional classrooms). There is also 8.5m by 2.5m of unobstructed free floor space (see Figure 6).

Figure 5 – *Proximity to the wall in a communicative classroom*

Figure 6 – *Floor space in a communicative classroom*

Results

Upon analysis of student comments, four overarching categories have been catalogued: a) class comments, b) activity comments, c) subject comments, and d) teacher comments. There were 57 comments about other students (for example, "I learned about Jo today"), but such comments were not included in the main categories due to the fact that not all of them could not be ranked. For each category, four main scales were used: 1) *Very positive* (fun, exciting, very interesting, very good), 2) *positive* (good, OK), 3) *combination* (difficult but interesting), and 4) *negative* (difficult, hard). With the subject comments, however, a separate scale had to be employed to encompass the variety of comments made. This scale is as follows: 1) *Positive* (I like English), 2) *goal-oriented* (I want to study English more), 3) *combination* (I don't like English but…), and 4) *negative* (I don't like English). Also, it is important to note that a single student entry could contain a variety of categories and ranks. As a result, individual journal entries as whole units were not ranked.

The data shows student feelings toward the class, the activities, and the subject, and to some degree, toward the teacher and the students (see Figure 7). 82% of comments about the class were *very positive*, while another 10% were *positive* (see Figure 8). The combination comments were very interesting because even though some students expressed dislike for one category, they showed positive feelings toward another: "I don't like English but I could enjoy this class. I want to like English." Similar feelings were expressed toward the activities: "*Batsu* game is very hard. But it made me happy. I want to it again!" and "Today was a kuisu [quiz]. I could do many questions. It was very difficult, but very happy." In some student entries, a number of feelings were expressed: "Today's class learned how to interview. English is difficult but very fun. I think that learn English more." Though five class responses were ranked *negatively*, there was not a comment that explicitly expressed dislike for the class or activity categories. Rather, the comments included terms such as "difficult," "hard," or "so-so." For example, "'Guess Who was very difficult. Because question is difficult. But Harry [Potter] is cool.'"

Figure 7 – *Student responses by type and rank*

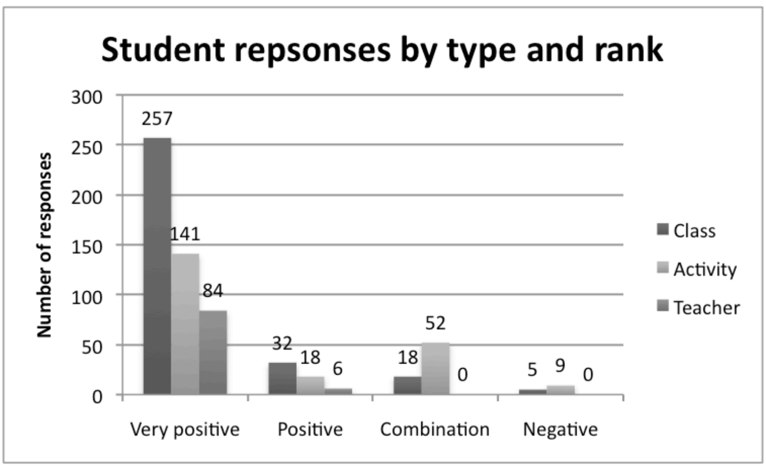
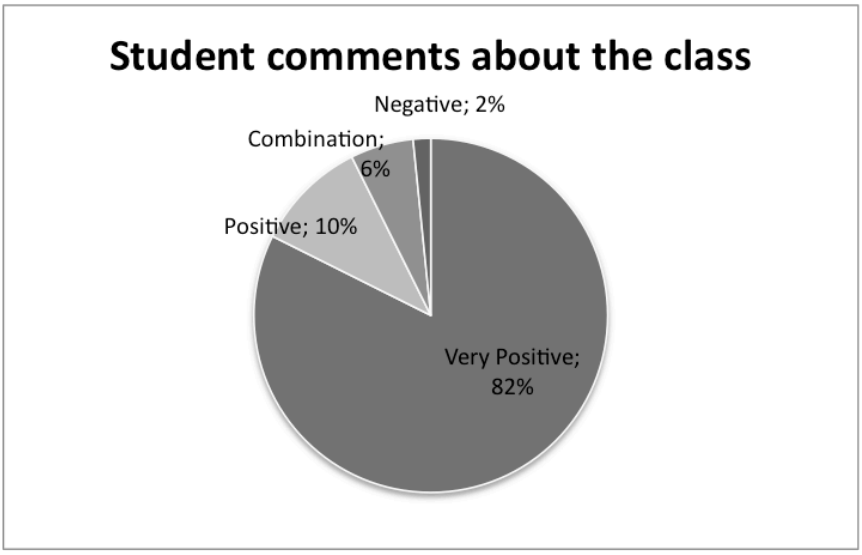


Figure 8 – *Class comments by percentage*



With respect to the subject, there were only eight negative responses, and out of those eight, only two explicitly stated, "I don't like English." Though there were responses that expressed dislike, they were positive about other aspects (see Figure 9). Some data also revealed student goals. Of the comments about English, 40% were goal-oriented (see Figure 10), which exhibits their desire to learn the subject. As one student wrote, "I don't like English, but I want to like English through Tonya's class." Many of the goal-oriented comments mentioned speaking: "I want to speak with my friends and you!" and "I want to talk in English more." Goals were not always student-focused, however, as one student expressed a goal for the teacher: "I feel difficult to speak and listen in English. I want you to speak English slowly."

Figure 9 – *English comments by rank*

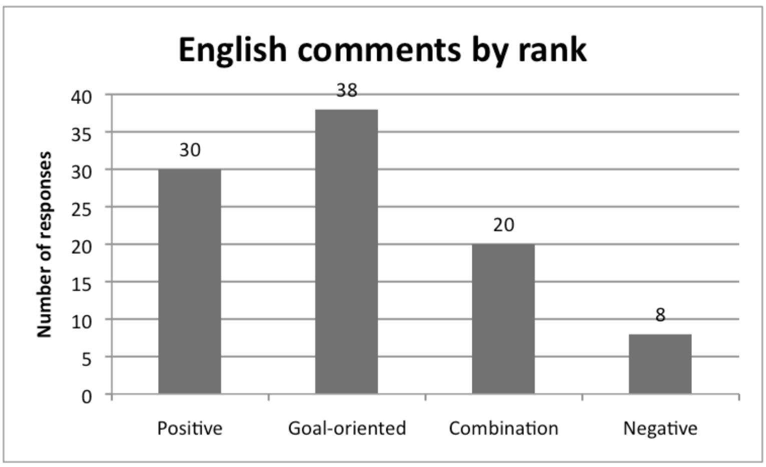
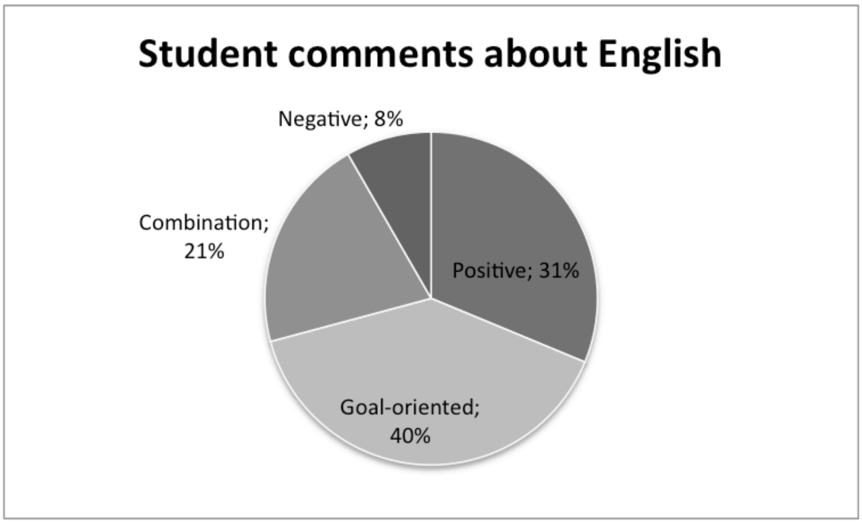


Figure 10 – *English comments by percentage*



Discussion

The results show that students had an overwhelmingly positive response to oral communication classes. Interestingly, most responses that expressed dislike for the subject still had a positive response to the class or activity. It is difficult to say with certainty that the room caused these positive feelings, but as previous research on classroom spaces shows, it is still an important factor. Moreover, the student comments demonstrate that with 92% of class comments being either *very positive* or *positive* the students' experience when in the communicative classroom is compellingly favorable. They enjoy coming to class and talking with their peers and teacher. They also enjoy the activities. However, it should be noted that there is no data to compare the students' feelings in a communicative classroom with feelings in a traditional classroom. It is possible that incorporating elements of a communicative classroom into the traditional classroom could yield similar student reactions.

From the perspective of the teacher, having a space just for English, with freedom to rearrange and decorate as necessary, provided a safe and pleasant teaching environment. In fact, one Japanese teacher of English stated, "This feels like your classroom! You seem very comfortable here." The communicative classroom was exempt from the rules that mandate other classrooms, specifically with respect to the layout and focal points. Desks could be moved, students could move around, and the class could be addressed from any place in the classroom. With the underlying assumption that space is not neutral, this classroom was designed to communicate its purpose as a place where interaction is encouraged. Though the space still functioned as a classroom, the furniture was used more flexibly, the room was much less dense, the rules were unconventional, and the aesthetic was more of a priority. Specific design principles were employed, such as the use of color, images, and posters; maintenance of free wall space; availability of open floor space; and proximity of student cluster groups, to create an environment that made both the students and teacher feel comfortable, safe, and part of a community.

Additionally, the activities worked in conjunction with the layout to increase student-to-student interaction and collaboration. The primary layout of the classes was often in cluster layout formation, and students were encouraged to work together. In fact, they often turned to other students with questions rather than to the teacher. This reinforced the notion that the teacher is not the sole proprietor of knowledge of the subject; the students are as much of a resource to each other as the teacher. Access to the language was provided in a variety of mediums that did not require teacher approval for use. Wall space was covered with useful expressions, dictionaries were readily available, and whiteboards, worksheets, or PowerPoint slides provided models should the students require them. The latter could also be used in a traditional classroom, but the conventional layout and the fact that teachers must carry all their materials with them from class to class makes such practices less likely.

This paper, though reflective, provides data and analysis of the perspectives of the teacher and her students when the classroom space is designed specifically to promote communication. It is an important first step in determining how the classroom affects both the student and the teacher experience. Even though this data on its own does not prove that the classroom was the influential factor, systematic research that includes a number of schools and teachers, as well as a comparison of feelings and attitudes in different rooms over a longer period of time could provide further insight. If more studies like this were done with similar results, it would provide further evidence that the classroom design and layout positively impacts the student experience.

Conclusion

The physical environment is an important part of both learning and teaching. The environment can have an impact on students with respect to motivation, learning styles, comfort, and anxiety. Moreover, space and pedagogy are connected as the classroom can affect teachers with respect to pedagogical choices and limitations.

As Taylor (2009) found in her study of how studio space affects teaching and learning, even the teacher who preferred lecture-based, teacher-centered traditional lessons found herself adapting to a non-conventional classroom space and using the resources available. This study does not suggest that all teachers will change their teaching style if the classroom space permits it, but it does suggest that teachers, even those who are comfortable maintaining the teacher-centered approach, can adapt. In addition, it is important to point out that just because the space supports a teacher-centered approach, does not mean that teachers cannot manipulate the space to serve their pedagogical needs. On the contrary, teachers can easily modify the space by changing the layout during class time. In most junior and senior high school classrooms in Japan, the desks are not bolted to the floor and as a result can be moved into any number of formations. Adapting whatever space one has to encourage more communication and student-to-student interaction may be the key to a more communicative classroom. In addition, it could make the classroom a better learning environment by promoting positive feelings toward English, thereby increasing student motivation. More importantly, it could give the students a real opportunity to use the language, making English more meaningful, rather than just another subject to study.

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Biodata

Tonya M. Kneff is currently an English language teacher in Nagano, Japan. Her research interests include learning spaces and peace education.

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Language policy in Japan: Shifting paradigms

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Abstract

Language policy in Japan is undergoing a major paradigm shift. Starting this April, fifth and sixth graders in public schools will begin taking compulsory English classes. By 2013, all secondary-level English courses are to be taught exclusively in English. The success of the new policy hinges on how prepared teachers are in incorporating its features into their classrooms. Unfortunately, many instructors lack sufficient knowledge of the policy changes; among more informed educators, there seems to be little confidence in effectively applying the guidelines to their teaching contexts.

This paper addresses these issues by raising awareness of the language policy revisions and exploring how they can be successfully implemented in classrooms. To this end, literature on historical and current perspectives of Japanese foreign language policy will be reviewed. Leading experts in ELT have been interviewed, and their insights on how educators can prepare for the imminent changes will also be examined.

日本における言語政策は、目下、大きなパラダイムシフトの下にある。今年 4 月からは、公立学校の 5 年生と 6 年生で英語教育が義務化される。また 2013 年までには、すべての中学校の英語の授業が、英語のみを用いて教授されることになっている。この新しい政策の成功は、教師たちがいかによく準備し、その特色を授業に取り入れうるかにかかっている。しかし残念ながら、多くの教師たちは、政策変化に関する十分な知識をもっていない。より情報を得ている教師たちのなかでも、ガイドラインを実際の授業に有効に適用しうるという自信を備えている者は、ほんのわずかしかいないようである。

このプレゼンテーションではこれらの問題点について外国語教育改訂に関する問題意識を喚起し、またこれらの改訂がクラスルームでの活動においてどのように効果

的に実行され得るかについて探るものである。この目的のために、日本における外国語教育方針を過去、そしてまた現在の観点から扱う文献を再考する。ELT の分野における主導的な立場の専門家にインタビューし, 現場の教育者達が目前に迫った改訂に対してどのように備えるべきかについての彼らの見識にも考察を加えるものである。
Keywords: Language policy in Japan, language policy revisions, course of study, elementary school, junior high school, senior high school

To maintain its competitive edge in the global marketplace, Japan has looked outward for solutions. The Japanese foreign language education system is in the midst of a major overhaul. With calls for change coming from every sector of society (Butler, 2007), the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has had the difficult task of elaborating an educational policy that brings internationalization to all levels of the educational spectrum in areas that have been historical mainstays.

This year marks the implementation of the new courses in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) that MEXT had revised in 2008 and 2009 (Yoshida, 2009). The new Course of Study (CoS) aims to provide Japanese school children with a more heightened sense of internationalization (Fujita-Round & Maher, 2008). From its onset, it is clear there are weaknesses with the implementation of the new CoS. These weaknesses add to and highlight the already existing difficulties within the foreign language teaching context in Japan. The improvements to be made will be left to educators on the front line to deal with. However, the problems are more institutional and community-based, and not so much related to the simple implementation of policy.

MEXT's lack of clarity in disseminating its educational goals needs careful examination. This critical point must be analytically illustrated and, as such, is the impetus for this collaborative research, as presented by five candidates in the Master of Arts (TESOL) at Teachers College Columbia University, Tokyo. This paper reviews the backdrop to the educational reforms, presents reactions to the changes, and offers recommendations from a variety of standpoints. Furthermore, it aims to create a dialogue amongst educators, administrators, policy makers, and learners to establish a community that promotes a positive culture of English language learning in Japan.

An overview of the Japanese teaching context: Four major factors regarding EFL education

The following section will review four major factors influencing English education in Japan: The heavy emphasis on the grammar translation method (*yakudoku*), the wash-back effects of university entrance examinations, the effects of existing workplace conditions on teachers, and pre- and in-service teacher training.

Yakudoku was the first method introduced to foreign language learning in Japan, and was originally used to translate Chinese characters into Japanese (Suzuki, 1975). It is a historically-entrenched method for learning to read languages by translating the target language word-for-word and then reordering the translation to match Japanese word order. With *yakudoku*, the teacher's main tasks are to explain the meanings of translations in Japanese, give examples of similar translation options, and correct students' translations (Kakita, 1978; Tajima, 1978). As an EFL instruction technique, *yakudoku* has not been without criticism. It is a technique that is not based in pedagogy (Richards & Rodgers, 2001), and *yakudoku's* use does not cultivate communicative language skills (Prator & Celcia-Murcia, 1979; Brown, 2007). Despite the emphasis of MEXT policies on developing communicative English curricula, the use of *yakudoku*, including the quantity of grammar and translation exercises taught in secondary school classes, is still prevalent.

It is speculated that the reason behind the heavy emphasis on *yakudoku* in EFL instruction is pressure to teach for the university entrance exams. University exam preparation, also called *juken*, has a major influence on teachers' practices (Gorsuch, 2000; Yoshida & Naganuma, 2003). Given that English is tested on these exams, English education at the secondary level has almost entirely focused on *juken* and, by extension, *yakudoku* (Kikuchi, 2006). *Juken* has a wash-back effect (Watanabe, 1997) in which teachers must drop their own educational beliefs in order to conform to teaching the accepted approach that *best* prepares students for success in the high-stake entrance examinations (Underwood, 2010). Consequently, despite longstanding criticism, *yakudoku* in EFL education in Japan remains the perceived best method or "key to success" in *juken* (O'Donnell, 2005, p. 302).

While teachers may believe that *yakudoku* is geared towards preparing students for entrance examinations, the reality may be different. A recent study comparing the English reading section of the National Center Test (NCT) with MEXT-published senior high school (SHS) textbooks reveals that the NCT is significantly more difficult than preparatory texts. Also, reading sections of the test demand that students be trained in a number of reading skills other than translation (Underwood, 2010). According to Browne (1998), students are spending too much time studying unnecessary lexico-grammar, rather than simply focusing on high frequency vocabulary necessary for reasonable comprehension of texts (Nation, 2001). In other words, such heavy emphasis on grammar-translation may in fact be hindering students from better success on the entrance examinations.

Workplace conditions also have an enormous impact on English educational practices. According to O'Donnell (2005) and Taira (1982), teachers are often saddled with heavy extra-curricular and administrative workloads, limiting the amount of time they can allot towards lesson planning and incorporation of communicative methodologies in their teaching. Other conditions which limit the integration of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) practices in instruction include: (1) large class sizes; (2) an increasing range of student language proficiency; (3) administrative pressure to keep pace with curricula and use MEXT-mandated materials; and (4) demands from students, parents, and school staff to prioritize *juken* over practical English instruction (Cook, 2009; O'Donnell, 2005). Finally, educators are often under tremendous peer pressure to conform to school norms and teaching practices (O'Donnell, 2005; Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004; Willis, 2011). These workplace conditions compound and create a school environment that reinforces current teaching practices and inhibits the introduction of new instructional methods into the classroom.

Also to be considered is the amount of pre- and in-service teacher training. Most English teachers in Japan major in English literature and receive minimal practical experience teaching communicative English (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008). Once they become teachers, they have little time to dedicate themselves to improving their teaching practices. While many teachers may take part in CLT courses and workshops, their working conditions and peer pressure often compel them to disregard any instructional innovations to their teaching practices (Fanselow, personal communication, April, 19, 2011). Some researchers even argue that such entrenchment of instruction is a result of a sociological condition that is resistant to change (Hino, 1988; Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004).

These problems in English education in Japan have led to calls for reform from the corporate sector, politicians and the general public (Butler, 2007). In order to deal with these issues, MEXT has implemented a new Foreign Language Course of Study (CoS), which will be reviewed in the following section.

The new foreign language Course of Study

Since April 2011, all public school fifth and sixth graders in Japan have begun taking mandatory foreign language lessons. These lessons are officially designated as *activities*, and are held once a week. During these activities, students learn English words and phrases by engaging in basic interaction, singing songs, and playing games. The purpose of these activities is not to help learners acquire structural and meta-linguistic knowledge; instead, it is to help them form a *foundation* for later acquisition of English, motivate learners, and help them become more aware of cultural, communicative, and linguistic differences between Japan and other nations (Yoshida, 2008; 2009).

Foreign language education at the secondary level will focus on acquisition of English basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) in junior high school (JHS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) in SHS. Curricular goals and objectives at the secondary level are unchanged from previous iterations of the CoS. An extra hour of language lessons will be added per week, and all English classes are expected to be conducted in English. Otherwise, the curriculum in JHSs will be unchanged when the new policy guidelines go into effect in 2013 (Yoshida, 2008; 2009).

On the other hand, the SHS national English curriculum has undergone revisions. Starting in 2013, the English I & II and Oral Communication I & II classes will be replaced. In their stead, learners will begin taking mandatory Communication English I-III classes aimed at fostering CALP integrated (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) English skills. Students will also be able to take English Expression I-II courses, optional CALP classes where they can improve their discussion, debate, and presentation skills. Also available are the optional Communication English Basic, a remedial *bridge* between JHS and SHS, and the BICS English Conversation course. According to Yoshida (2008), this last class is controversial because teachers may relegate English use solely to this class, therefore undermining the intended promotion of English as the language of instruction in all English classes.

The remainder of this paper will highlight recommendations on addressing the successful implementation of the new CoS guidelines according to literature and interviews compiled by the researchers.

Recommendations on successfully implementing the new language policy guidelines

Research for this paper has yielded many recommendations on how to successfully implement the new CoS guidelines. These recommendations can be categorized into seven broad groups: (1) developing competencies of Japanese teachers of English, (2) revising assistant language teacher standards and hiring practices, (3) improving communication between educators and administrators, (4) incorporating a World Englishes perspective, (5) creating agency and communities of practice among educators and learners, (6) revising university entrance exams, and (7) supporting more English-immersion education programs.

Developing competencies of Japanese teachers of English

Language proficiency is a critical asset for EFL instruction, where many instructors are non-native English teachers (Andrews, 2007; Kamhi-Stein, 2004). In order to obtain teaching certification, Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) are required to have a minimum TOEIC score of 550 (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology [MEXT], 2006), which is equivalent to the B2 level in the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) and is far below the score of 785 required by higher education and corporate institutions (Educational Testing Service [ETS], 2008). In other words, certified JTEs only need to have basic knowledge and comprehension of English and be able to use it in simple, everyday situations. However, less than 50% of secondary school teachers have met this requirement (MEXT, 2006). Mandating that all pre-service and in-service teachers meet a higher English proficiency standard, perhaps even having CALP in English, would greatly improve English education in Japan.

Several scholars have also discussed the critical importance of improving pre- and in-service training of JTEs (Amaki, 2008; Masataka, 2006; Sekiya, personal communication, April 17, 2011; Tanaka, personal communication, May 13, 1011; Willis, 2011). They recommend including training in CLT and integrated skills practices, as well as making clear connections between teacher theory and practice in training coursework. Suggestions from literature and interviews also include lengthening the period of English teaching practicum and emphasizing more self-reflection and action research during and after the training period.

Standardized benchmarks upon which the above recommendations could be based in practice have been put forth. Nakata (2010) suggests adapting the Classroom Language Assessment Benchmark (CLAB) in the Japanese foreign language instruction context to improve teacher training and classroom practices. The CLAB utilizes a battery of criterion-referenced writing and speaking tests to qualify potential teachers' linguistic abilities as well as observations to assess their use of classroom language. When used as a tool for professional development, Nakata found that the CLAB helped teachers-in-training improve their language proficiency, their ability to assess classroom English, and their self-awareness of strengths and weaknesses in teaching practices. Kiyota has also put forth a different set of standards for JTE training (Jimbo, Hisamura, & Yoffe, 2010; Kiyota, personal communication, May 11, 2011). In a 5-year study involving 35 Japanese university scholars conducting research in Europe and the United States, Kiyota and his colleagues developed 74 precise descriptors for both pre- and in-service teacher self-assessment and for integrating the CEFR European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (EPOSTL) into the Japanese foreign language education context (Jimbo, Hisamura, & Yoffe, 2010, pp. 89-94). Developing pre- and in-service training programs around these benchmarks could have a significant positive impact on preparing JTEs to meet the standards put forth in the most recent CoS.

Revising Assistant Language Teacher standards and hiring practices

Assistant language teachers (ALTs) are prevalent in Japanese secondary language classrooms, and play an integral role in the country's English education (Fujita-Round & Maher, 2008). However, according to Ohtani's (2010) study of the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Program, many native-speaker ALTs have minimum education and pedagogic qualifications and training when they begin teaching. On top of this, contracts are common for ALTs (usually one to three years for JET program ALTs), often resulting in high turnover rates for these types of instructors. These issues often saddle schools with a lack of consistency and professional and contextual experience in English instruction.

There are several possible solutions to the problems outlined above. One such solution is to mandate English-teaching certification (e.g. Certificate for English Language Teaching to Young Learners [CELTYL]) and a longer, more effective pre-service training period for ALT candidates. It may also be beneficial to lengthen the contract terms for ALTs in order to provide consistency in classrooms and retain teachers with experience. Another recommendation is to utilize more English-speaking Japanese ALTs trained by nonprofit organizations (NPOs) such as Japan-Shogakko Instructors of English (J-SHINE) (Sakai, 2011). This particular group of certified teachers can more easily communicate with Japanese classroom instructors, and may be more familiar with the learners and learning context than their native-speaker counterparts. Yet, English-speaking Japanese ALTs still appear to be underutilized in the current education system. Finally, Japanese Boards of Education in Japan could hire ALTs directly instead of relying on dispatch agencies to deploy teachers to their schools, as has been done in Saitama City (Semans, personal communication, June 19, 2011). This enables school districts to set their own standards for teacher hiring and training, and maintain open lines of communication between ALTs and school staff. Open communication is crucial, because it helps integrate ALTs more into their respective school communities and could aid in the retention of these teachers.

Improving communication between educators and administrators

Educators and scholars have noted that there is often limited communication exchanges between JTEs and ALTs (Amaki, 2008; Ohtani, 2010), amongst JTEs (Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004), and between teachers, administators and MEXT (Plaza, personal communication, May 1, 2011; Sakai, 2011; Schirmer, personal communication, March 10, 2011). Such a lack of communication can have a negative impact on dissemination of information regarding CoS guidelines, not to mention coordination of curricula standards and teaching practices. Thus, maintaining open communication between all stakeholders in the education network is imperative (Sakai, 2011; Semans, personal communication, June 19, 2011).

Open communication between JTE-ALT team-teachers is especially important. Nakai notes that the nature of ALT contracts poses a legal barrier that hinders direct communication between ALTs and Japanese school staff (Sakai, 2011). ALTs sometimes cannot talk to JTEs inside and outside of the classroom. As mentioned before, the Saitama City school board has circumvented this issue by hiring their ALTs directly. In their schools, unimpeded lines of communication exist between native-speaker ALTs and Japanese staff, which are further maintained by regular meetings between involved parties (Semans, personal communication, June 19, 2011).

Open communication can be further fostered by encouraging JTEs and ALTs to develop proficiency in English and Japanese respectively, as well as incorporating intercultural awareness and team-teaching modules in teacher training programs (Amaki, 2008; Carless, 2006; Ohtani, 2010). Scholars have also advocated providing more clarity on the individual classroom roles of JTEs and ALTs (Amaki, 2008; Ohtani, 2010; Sakai, 2011) as well as equal partnership and contribution in team-teaching practices (Fujimoto-Adamson, 2010).

Incorporating a World Englishes perspective

As highlighted earlier, many JTEs lack sufficient English proficiency in terms of practical application of the language. However, JTEs who are proficient in the language may still have low confidence in their English abilities because they harbor socio-psychological and cultural beliefs that they can never attain native-level facility in English. Thus, they believe that they cannot be effective language role models (Fukada, 2011). One possible solution to these issues of confidence is incorporation of a World Englishes perspective in English education in Japan (Brown, 1993; Brown & Peterson, 1997; Matsuda, 2003). Given the global proliferation of English and the rise to prominence of many different varieties of the language, this would result in a "world view...[that is] more consistent with the sociolinguistic realities of the spread of English as an international language" (Brown and Peterson, 1997, p. 44).

At the practical level, incorporating a World Englishes perspective could entail integrating World Englishes courses into JTE and ALT training programs (Brown, 1993; Matsuda, 2003). Jenkins (1998; 2002) also suggests basing English curricula on international intelligibility, i.e. an English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) core and accommodation strategies, which would be more universal, teachable and learnable than present curricular content. In terms of meta-theory, such a shift would involve revising notions of the L2 speaker as an inferior communicator, interlanguages, and errors. JTEs would also be encouraged to become exemplar negotiators of English as a mutually communicative medium, instead of striving to emulate a native-speaker model (Firth, 2009; Tanaka, personal communication, May 13, 2011). Yoshida has noted that the ideal model for Japanese L2 learners of English is the JTE communicator, not the native speaker (Sakai, 2011). Observing JTEs negotiate meaning in English with native-speaker ALTs could motivate learners and inspire them to participate more actively in English lessons.

Creating agency and communities of practice among educators and learners

One critical way of ensuring that educators embrace MEXT policies and take ownership of their own professional development is to create agency and Communities of Practice (CoP) (Tanaka, personal communication, May 13, 2011). Agency refers to an individual or group's capacity to act in a particular socio-cultural context, as well as regulate their actions vis-à-vis their environment (van Lier, 2008). In the foreign language teaching context in Japan, this entails instructors becoming active participants in their education communities and their own professional development. One way this can be done is by forming or joining a CoP, or a group of people who share an interest, a craft, and/or a profession and are dedicated to working together to collectively improve their knowledge and skills in that particular area (Wenger, 2006).

An example of a CoP formed by stakeholders with agency is the Meisei Summer School Project (MSSP) at Meisei University (Fukada, personal communication, May 4, 2011; Tanaka & Ogane, 2011). In the MSSP, Japanese university students collaborate with international NPO-sponsored volunteers to plan and teach language lessons to elementary and JHS learners. These transnational partnerships motivate the Japanese participants to actively utilize and negotiate their English skills in an authentic context as well as develop an identity as a member of a cooperative team. Agency is not always created individually but is fostered and strengthened by members working together in a group. These collaborative teams in the MSSP are examples of CoPs which connect classroom learning (internal) to real-world applications (external), and foster continuing interest in learning beyond the schooling period (Wenger, 2006).

The Institute for Research in Language Teaching (IRLT) is an example of a CoP dedicated to promoting successful classroom implementation of language policy guidelines. This Kanto-based organization of elementary, junior high, and senior high school JTEs, as well as pre-service teachers, holds monthly meetings where they view MEXT-circulated video recordings of model English lessons. Members constructively critique the lessons and freely engage in teaching practice discussion and idea sharing.

Encouraging the formation of similar CoPs nationwide at the local and regional level would aid teachers in implementing the new CoS guidelines into their classrooms, as well as provide instructors with a forum to freely share instructional practices with their peers.

Revising university entrance exams

In an effort to make university entrance exams more effective in assessing English communicative proficiency, MEXT's National Center for University Entrance Examinations (NCUEE) added a listening component to the NCT in 2006 (Murphey, 2006). Since then, more universities have begun incorporating listening sections in their individual entrance exams (Sekiya, personal communication, April 17, 2011) as well as oral interviews and/or presentations (Tanaka, personal communication, May 13, 2011). However, problems such as widespread lack of oral test components and invalid test quality analysis continue to draw criticism from scholars as well as impede effective implementation of new CoS guidelines.

One recommendation is that the government start a College Board of working professionals that will oversee validity and assess standards of entrance exams, working in tandem with *juku* (cram school) test specialists (Murphey, Kato, & Fukuda, 2010). Another suggestion is to remove non-practical subjects (e.g. Classical Chinese Poetry) from entrance exams to lighten the *juken* load on test-takers (Iino, personal communication, Feb 17, 2011). An interview to measure speaking ability could also be added to more tests (Watanabe, personal communication, March 27, 2011). Increasing the ratio of listening and extended-production writing items on more exams would make them more valid (Fukada, personal communication, May 04, 2011). Finally, Murphey et al. (2010) recommend encouraging universities to include high school records, extracurricular activities and other achievements in their admissions process, instead of relying solely on the exam results of applicants. These improvements would go a long way towards promoting the new CoS guidelines and making English education at the secondary level more effective.

Supporting more English-immersion education programs

One element of reform that has shown signs of success is the immersion education system. Gunma Kokusai Academy (GKA) is a private K-12 school in Ota, Gunma. Its creation stems from former Prime Minister Koizumi's educational reforms. Designated as a Special Zone School that allows it to deliver its curriculum primarily in a language other than Japanese, GKA is the first of its kind. The school is in its infancy stages, having only opened in 2006, but already results show that the English immersion system at the institution is successful. Not only is the immersion component helping students learn a new language, but the initial results are promising. In the 2007 National Achievement Test, GKA students obtained a mean of 80%, outperforming the national average by 17% (Gunma Kokusai Academy Elementary School Newsletter, July 22, 2011). According to Matsuzawa (2009), the school's first year junior high school students (grade 7) boasted average TOEIC scores of 477 points, higher than the average scores for university freshmen majoring in English or English literature. This is an exceptional feat considering that the main language of instruction at the school is English and the national tests are all in Japanese. This achievement mirrors findings made by Cummins (2009) in a study of French immersion education in Canada, where "students gain fluency and literacy in French at no apparent cost to their English academic skills" and "usually students require additional time to catch up in English spelling but by grade 5 there are normally no differences in English test performance between immersion students and comparison groups whose instruction has been totally through English" (p. 34). The research suggests that immersion education programs in Japan could produce fluent English-speaking Japanese with no adverse effects on their L1 Japanese language abilities. Thus, it may be beneficial for MEXT to increase the amount of English-immersion opportunities for future learners.

Conclusion

As a result of dissatisfaction with the current state of English education in Japan, the MEXT recently revised the Foreign Language Course of Study. Successful integration of the new CoS guidelines hinges on many factors. The continued success of the CoS and its directives lies in empowering stakeholders in English education, such as students, parents, educators, and administrators. MEXT language policy would be more effective if the seven recommendations offered in this paper are carefully considered and implemented in future reforms, thus creating a community that promotes a positive culture of English language learning.

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Encouraging fluency through poster presentations

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Abstract

Poster presentations are a popular task-based activity in EFL classrooms. They offer learners multiple opportunities for development over the four skills, and encourage deep engagement with content as students research information for their posters. Oral fluency can be specifically targeted when learners deliver repeated presentations under time pressure during poster carousels and the *4-3-2* speaking activity. Poster projects on global issues actively encourage students to acquire language and knowledge necessary to communicate their ideas and opinions about social issues, to think critically, and so develop as world citizens. A recent poster project had the author's sophomore students reporting on volunteer fieldwork and associated social/environmental problems. As a result of the project and the linked skills tasks therein (specifically the *4-3-2* speaking activity), students became not only more fluent speakers about their chosen topic, but hopefully more fluent *thinkers* about various important issues in their world today.

ポスタープレゼンテーションはＥＦＬの授業で人気のある作業ベースのアクティビティです。それは学習者に４つ以上のスキルの向上のための多様な機会を与え、またより深く研究内容について考えることを促します。会話の流暢さは学習者が Poster Carousel と the 4-3-2 speaking activity の最中に時間の制約のある中で発表する時に特に目標とされます。グローバルな問題を取り上げたポスタープロジェクトは、社会問題についての彼らの意見を伝えるために必要な言語と知識を身につけることを促し、批判的に考えることで国際人として彼らを成長させるのです。最近のポスタープロジェクトでは２年生の学生達がボランティア野外活動とそれに関連した社会問題および環境問題について取り組みました。そのプロジェクトと関連したスキル課題（特に the 4-3-2 speaking activity）の結果、学生は選んだ題材について流暢に話す人になっただけではなく、今日の彼らの世界における様々な大切な問題について、より流暢に「考える人」なりました。

Keywords: Poster presentations, task-based activities, four skills, 4-3-2 activities, global issues, fluency

Fluency development is undoubtedly one of the key goals for second language learners and teachers alike. Nation (1991, 2009) and others suggest that a well-balanced language course should dedicate about one quarter of the class time to fluency development across the four skills. Fluency goals need to be balanced with accuracy goals, and indeed ought to be considered as an *integrated component of language* (Kellem, 2009). In terms of developing oral fluency, classroom language tasks and activities should ideally incorporate several features including repetition, preparation, time pressure, and familiarity with language and content (Kellem, 2009; Nation, 1991).

Oral poster presentations, now commonplace in EFL classrooms (Bayne, 2005), along with the linked skills tasks that scaffold the target task, can neatly encompass the above oral fluency development criteria. Such speaking presentations can not only improve oral proficiency, but careful topic choice and timing of engaging themes within a classroom syllabus can also lead to knowledge fluency. When students are guided to research information or recycle language about familiar and interesting topics such as local/global issues, they must engage deeply with content, personalise their final product and so effectively expand their overall world knowledge.

This paper will describe a sophomore global issues poster project, its fluency goals, and a sample lesson sequence. Firstly, EFL speaking fluency will be defined with regard to the literature. Secondly, the rationale for poster presentations or projects will be discussed in terms of the author's teaching context and learning goals and the pedagogy underlying poster presentations. Finally, a sample lesson cycle, using a task-based approach, will illustrate how pre-task activities provide scaffolding, the *4-3-2 minute speech* activity (Maurice, 1983, Nation, 1991) pushes speaking fluency, and poster carousels offer increased oral output (Bayne, 2005). Post-task activities encourage reflection about content and skills learnt.

Oral fluency for language learners

With regard to defining oral fluency, or speaking skills, Brown (2003) and others suggest several defining characteristics of speaking fluency for second language (L2) learners. These include being able to speak at length, appropriately and coherently on a topic, and being able to be creative and imaginative with language use, similar to a native speaker (Fillimore, 1979, in Al-Sibai, 2004). Language learners who can speak with natural normal pauses, intonation, stress, and interruptions are arriving at L2 fluency (Richards, Platt, & Weber, 1985).

In addition, fluency ought to be seen as complementary to, rather than in contrast to accuracy (Brown, 2003). Traditionally, there may have been an emphasis on accuracy in grammar, vocabulary usage, and pronunciation (Richards et al, 1985), and in high-stakes testing contexts such as TOEFL and IELTS examinations, accuracy is essential. However, nowadays even in these contexts, *fluency* is also being assessed, not just the user's speech fluency but also their ability to use communicative strategies (Brown, 2003). How then can language teachers assist their learners to effectively develop their speaking fluency?

For classroom speaking tasks and activities to effectively assist fluency development, Nation (1991) outlines four essential criteria, and Kellem (2009) proposes a very similar checklist of seven principles for developing oral fluency in the classroom. For Japanese learners in the EFL context there may be limited exposure to, or opportunities available for, students to communicate in the target language. Moreover, when students only meet once a week for a 90-minute class, it is even more crucial for fluency building activities to be well-planned. Kellem's (2009, p.9) seven principles to consider when designing and carrying out fluency development activities are:

1. Incorporate repetition
2. Increase speaking time
3. Prepare before speaking
4. Use familiar and motivating topics
5. Ensure appropriate level
6. Impose time limits
7. Teach formulaic sequences

Nation (1991) reiterates the above by explaining that an effective fluency activity should be firstly, *meaning-focussed* where learners are trying to produce or understand a message. Secondly, learners are dealing with *easy, familiar material* **-** be it recycling known vocabulary, using familiar grammar structures, or talking about familiar information or topics. Thirdly, there also needs to be *pressure for the student to go faster*, such as activities where speakers are pushed to speak faster, in decreasing time frames. Finally, there needs to be opportunities for *repetition* of the activity, to allow a good quantity of speaking output.

During classroom poster presentations, the poster *carousel* format (Bayne, 2005; Nakamura, 2008), can be utilised, which neatly meets Kellem's (2009) and Nation's (1991) criteria for useful fluency building activities. As a variation, teachers could also introduce the *4-3-2 minute speech* activity (Maurice, 1983) which adds a decreasing time factor to push the presenter to speak faster (and make better communicative decisions) at each turn. For this activity, Nation (1989) instructs teachers to have pairs or two lines of students. One side "A" students speak on a known easy topic for four minutes, while "B" students simply listen actively, nod, and do not interrupt. The teacher calls stop, and the "A" line moves along one. There is now a new partner or listener, and the "A" students tell the same information again, but this time they have to try and do it in 3 minutes. The sequence is repeated a third time in 2 minutes. For lower level classes, it may be more effective to try *3-2-1.5 minute speeches* initially until students' language proficiency and speaking confidence increases.

Some research has shown that learners did indeed make improvements in fluency, accuracy and complexity during the *4-3-2* activity. Students increased their speed of words per minute; there was a decrease in hesitations, errors and repeated items; and there was an increase in sentence complexity (Arevart & Nation, 1990 in Nation, 1991).

Lynch and Maclean (2000, in Nakamura, 2007) found that students benefitted from the repetition of their speeches during the poster carousel. There was evidence of attention to both language and content in their self-corrections (accuracy) and overall linguistic improvements (fluency). Nakamura's own study (2007) showed student gains in fluency with regard to increased speech rates and a decrease in pauses and repetitions. Additionally, informal survey findings (Morgan, 2010) after both carousel sessions and the *4-3-2* activity reveal that students felt they could speak more fluently by the third turn. In the earlier turns, they were focussed more on remembering language and content (Kellem, 2009), but in the final turn they felt able to speak "more naturally", "not stopping and looking at my notes", "I could tell my information more quickly" (Morgan, 2010). It appears that after task repetition students were able to speak at length and without pauses, on a familiar topic, and could be creative and imaginative with their language use. So there were gains in fluency as defined by Brown (2003) and others as a result of task retrial and time pressure.

Poster presentations in language classrooms

Context and learning goals

The author's sophomore speaking and listening course meets only once a week for 90 minutes. At the start of the new academic year the students' levels ranged from high elementary to pre-intermediate level English. Most seemed to be fairly hesitant speakers, some were demotivated learners, and all tended to rely strongly on written notes when required to speak in class, whether it be a simple *report back* after an activity, or for a longer presentation project. Additionally, most students were simply unable to talk quickly or at length on many topics, particularly on common world issues topics (environment, poverty, war, racism, gender issues). Two of the learning goals for the speaking-listening course are "to develop learner's oral fluency… and to develop general knowledge of global issues" (Meisei University, Communication IId syllabus notes, 2009).

The author usually scaffolded productive activities with plenty of brainstorming time, mind-mapping, sentence writing, and rehearsal to allow students to generate and plan their ideas before leading up to oral productive tasks (Ellis, 2006). This has enabled students to ultimately produce something orally at the end of a session. However, a lot of time was needed to allow learners to retrieve vocabulary, generate content, and speak fluently about any topic at length. It seemed crucial to get students working faster, speaking faster, and basically making better use of the mere 90 minutes available each week.

In about Week 6 of the course, the textbook "*Impact Issues*" had a unit about environmental problems and the class seemed very interested in these themes. Additionally, a good proportion of the class had recently participated in volunteer fieldwork abroad during their holidays. It seemed a good opportunity to have those students report on their fieldwork experience with international non-profit volunteer organisations (NPOs) to their class mates. An assessment task was jointly agreed on, which was a poster project about an NPO or fieldwork program and a related global problem. The students would have opportunities to develop their speaking confidence and fluency in the context of a poster presentation project. The aim was to help students make the leap from their written material to fluent English speaking. The project would allow the class to recycle vocabulary, concepts, and content from the textbook unit. Moreover, the global issues theme encouraged these young adults to expand their world knowledge, increase their critical thinking and move towards active world citizenship (Cates, 1990). During the project, students taught their peers about real fieldwork experiences and English communication opportunities with NPOs in India, Zanzibar, and Mexico. The classroom became a collaborative learning environment, where both teacher and students became co-learners (Murphey & Jacobs, 2000). The project was 20% of their final grade.

What are poster presentations?

Similar to the use of posters in academic or business conferences, L2 poster sessions have learners presenting information on a large format poster, which includes keywords and pictures about a chosen topic (Shrosbree, 2010). L2 posters topics can be as simple and personalised as "My Hometown" or "Celebrations in my Country", or they can be more demanding research topics such as "Democracy and Human Rights". The poster itself provides a speaking prompt for students' oral presentations and a visual aid for the audience. Thus the poster scaffolds the authentic communicative activity for students of diverse levels. It provides for different learner styles—creative students often excel. It is a hands-on language activity, providing visual language reminders, both productively and receptively. Posters can be hand-made or computer-designed using PowerPoint. Students must complete some of the project work outside of class with the majority of preparation work carried out during class time to allow for monitoring group work and providing assistance, depending on learning goals and time constraints.

Styles of poster presentations

There are various styles of poster presentations with different learning purposes and benefits to fluency (Jost, 2005). Firstly, students can present to small, intimate groups with their tables/desks rearranged to suit. Early on in the year, this can be less threatening than presenting in front of the class. Later though, learners can be required to present in front of the class in pairs and groups. Sometimes the public forum of *front of class* presentations provides rigour and challenge to the speakers. In the NPO topic class, two of the Japanese fieldwork teachers were invited to attend the presentation sessions, which added support, prestige, and motivation for the students to perform well in English. Finally, there is a poster carousel session in which half the class act as speakers who are stationed by their posters which are displayed around the classroom walls. The other half of the class act as listeners who visit each poster station, and listen and interact in a more natural fashion to the various presenters within a given time frame. As students are *simultaneously* presenting or listening, carousels make great use of class-time and student-on-task time.

All styles of presenting can and should include repetition (2-4 times), with the teacher ideally assessing a student's best or final performance. The audience should also have a listening task to complete which can be part of their overall assessment grade for the project.

As outlined earlier, inclusion of the *4-3-2* activity aims to push learners' retrieval of language and content—they have to speak faster and more fluently to present their message in a shorter time frame each at each turn. The audience is also pushed to focus on the message and process information more quickly. Fluency can be targeted through careful choice and design of the presentation format.

A rationale for including poster presentations in a language syllabus

Poster presentations provide learners with rich opportunities for multiple skills development (Jost, 2005; Shrosbree, 2010). Firstly, the oral presentation or speech delivery is an authentic speaking activity. The speaker interacts with the audience throughout, responding to listener's questions, comments, eliciting a response to their information in real time. Secondly, the presentation is an authentic interactive listening activity where the interlocutor responds, clarifies, questions, and processes language and ideas in real time. Thirdly, there can be a strong writing component depending on your learning goals. Students can be required to write abstracts or write their speeches for you to edit and then assess. They can be required to write summary note-cards, and they must write keywords to summarise their information on their posters. Fourthly, students carry out research for their topic. They conduct a classroom survey, followed by Internet research to find key facts and pictures about their topic, guided by the teacher's worksheet. They must organise and prioritise this information.

Finally, in group work students develop skills related to social interactivity and learner autonomy (Murphey & Jacobs, 2000). They must negotiate with partners or group members to plan and assign project tasks. They have to collaborate about organising their topic information and pictures, and about poster design and creation. They need to practice their speeches outside of class, and commit to meetings and deadlines. Throughout this they have the chance to individualise their learning processes and the final product. Thus it can be said that poster presentations encompass multiple tasks before, during, and after the poster sessions. When learners repeat their oral presentations during poster carousels or *4-3-2* activity, there is plenty of opportunity for fluency development. Well-designed communicative tasks allow learners to develop multiple language skills, not just oral fluency, which reflect the class's syllabus goals and learning objectives.

A sample lesson sequence

The author takes a task-based approach (Ellis, 2006) to the poster project classes where linked skills activities are central to the task cycle. Even though the target task focuses on speaking, clearly the learners will get practise over the *four* skills during the following communicative tasks (Nation & Newton, 2009).

In the *pre-task phase* (Ellis, 2006) students variously work alone, in pairs, or groups planning for their posters. Firstly, they practise speaking, listening, and writing when carrying out a class survey about volunteering. Next they write notes as they collate their findings and brainstorm topic ideas in groups. Then they focus on reading when they do a matching task—they have to match well-known Japanese and international volunteer organisations with a global problem. After the survey and matching task learners choose their research topic—a specific NPO and related social/environmental problem. Lastly, they must read, paraphrase and write while collecting research information and preparing short speeches about their topic.

Students are helped to clearly understand the task goal by viewing learner samples or a teacher model of past posters. When students carry out the above communicative tasks, they review and recycle known language and ideas, and the more familiar the content, the more fluently they can talk about their topics. During these preparation lessons, groups are assigned, worksheets distributed to guide Internet research, and presentation guidelines (with assessment criteria, deadlines, homework tasks) are explained. Here also the posters themselves are constructed—a creative and collaborative process—another opportunity for languaging about content and so increasing familiarity with the topic.

Just before the *task performance* stage, the learners review *presentation language* (Shrosbree, 2010), rehearse their speeches with posters and cue cards, and any audience listening tasks are explained. Listeners might have to complete note-taking tables, or ask the speaker a question using question prompts on paper strips, depending on the class level and goals. Such tasks encourage active listening and authentic interaction between speaker and interlocutor, depending on the style of presentation. Furthermore, Bayne (2005) recommends preparing the class about "positive behaviours by presenters and audience" (p. 89).

The *during-task phase* needs to be managed well by the teacher in terms of time limits, classroom dynamics, and arrangement. Poster presentation sessions are usually a dynamic, energised, and even noisy, learner-centred communicative event where all participants are involved in meaning-making. Students therefore need to be clear about their roles and constraints during poster carousels or the *4-3-2* activity. The teacher too needs to be prepared with a user-friendly marking rubric as she moves about the classroom monitoring and evaluating multiple concurrent presentations.

In the *post-task phase*, learners are encouraged to reflect on the poster presentations through self-evaluation and peer-evaluation. Students could complete *best poster* votes, *post-it* positive comments on posters, short written reports about their topic, and self-evaluation forms. Reflection on the task process, task performance, and future improvements helps learners develop metacognitive strategies of planning, monitoring, and evaluation (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Peer evaluation encourages a more student-centred classroom, develops learner reflective skills, and hands some control for assessment back to the students. The teacher gives immediate general feedback on task performance (positive comments, tips for future improvement), which is followed up with individual written assessment in the next class.

Assessment

It can be claimed that poster presentations offer students a fair means of assessment of their language skills and work done. Teachers usually schedule poster projects at the end of a cycle- completing a textbook unit, or at midpoint or end of a term. Student posters sessions then provide summative evaluation of work done, content learnt, language skills acquired, and should reflect the textbook contents and syllabus objectives. Students are able to produce their best performance after they have had time and support to prepare information, practise skills, and give repeat presentations. The teacher evaluates their final performance; this is a fairer means of assessment than one-shot oral interviews or exams. Both teacher and peers can observe that best performance and offer comments and feedback to inform the student's final grade for the presentations. Features of both fluency and accuracy can be evaluated using a transparent speaking rubric, along with a grade for group participation, effort, and goal achievement. These should reflect the performance criteria outlined in the presentation guidelines.

Discussion

Referring back to Kellem's (2009) and Nation's (1991) features of useful fluency activities, it can be said that each of the tasks present in the entire poster presentation project contribute in some way to developing learners' speaking fluency or expanding their global knowledge. Firstly, there is *focus on meaning* in the pre-task survey, the matching task, and later during the presentations. Secondly, there is task repetition and therefore plenty of speaking output in the poster carousel format and *4-3-2* activity. Importantly, students choose their own specific topic in groups which is *motivating*, and there is ample time for *preparation* of content and language so they are dealing with *easy, familiar material* when they deliver the actual presentations. Task outcomes and assessment criteria are designed to suit the *class level*, so learning goals are achievable but challenging. *Time limits* are imposed whether semi-controlled for the carousel, or in controlled decreasing intervals for *4-3-2* minute speeches. Finally, learners practise the *formulaic sequences* for giving oral presentations and so are more able to take control of their audience, poster, and message.

After the presentations, students were asked to answer an informal questionnaire about how they felt about their poster projects. The aim was to get learners to reflect on and notice how or whether poster sessions were useful for language learning, and to gather feedback to inform future assessment tasks. Students were also asked to reflect and comment specifically on the *4-3-2* activity. Responses to the poster project were positive overall (Morgan, 2010):

- *"I think I feel more confident about speaking in front of class…keywords helped me remember my ideas"*

- *“Poster project was fun and benefited me because I could learn much information about my topic”.*
- *“I could learn about world’s problems… my partner taught me about child labour’s fieldwork”*
- *“I could organise my ideas in my head each time better… in the carousel”*
- *“I had to speak faster each time, I tried to relax and just say my ideas…not care the mistakes”*
- *“I felt more relaxed each time I gave my speech”*
- *“Actually, I could remember almost information at the final time…I could just look at my partner and speak”*

Learners enjoyed aspects of the project such as conducting research, planning information, group work, and developing confidence about speaking to an audience. They shared personally transformative experiences and improvement in English proficiency from their fieldwork abroad (see also Decker, 2010). A few were motivated to continue their research in their Japanese seminar class, and think more deeply than before about global issues and on-campus volunteer activities available to them. Students were challenged by the *4-3-2* activity, and certainly each time they do this activity (which is used regularly in this class) they seem to get better at it, developing speaking fluency, speed, clarity, and confidence all round.

Conclusion

Poster presentations are a useful inclusion in any language syllabus. Various styles of presentations are available and suit different learning purposes and contexts. Although speaking fluency is a significant goal in this activity, poster presentations also offer rich opportunities for development across the four skills while learners of all levels participate in task-based group work. Poster projects are student-centered, allowing for more meaningful communication, and often provide opportunities for practical extra-linguistic skill building.

During the pre-task planning lessons students prepare content and language for their posters and rehearse speeches which contribute to increased fluency when they carry out the target task, giving a presentation. In the poster carousel format and for the *4-3-2* activity, the features of task repetition, increased output, time pressure, and focus on the message are all present which enables learners to make measurable gains in oral fluency, language accuracy and sentence complexity.

When timetabled thoughtfully throughout a language syllabus, poster presentations can become a highlight in the classroom learning community. Students have opportunities to choose their own topics and personalize their learning process and final product, so they are often more motivated to prepare well, cooperate with group members, and perform to a higher standard than usual. With transparent performance criteria, the presentation is a tangible achievement goal in which students can showcase their linguistic, creative, and academic skills. Poster presentations in their various forms are an effective way for language learners to develop their speaking fluency as well as their ability to fluently engage with relevant global issues as active world citizens.

Biodata

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Multinational workshops on technical issues create fluent English global technical leaders (GTL)

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Reference Data:
Pak, K., Fukuchi, K., Takeshige, M., Shigihara, A., Takeuchi, M., Iida, K., Kubota, Y., Owada, M., Pushpalal D., & Wanner, P.J. (2012). Multinational workshops on technical issues create fluent English global technical leaders (GTL). In K. Bradford-Watts, R. Chartrand, & E. Skier (Eds.), *The 2011 Pan-SIG Conference Proceedings*. Matsumoto: JALT.

Abstract
This paper highlights the innovative English educational project of Japanese National Colleges of Technology (KOSEN) in which 45 selected students among Advanced Courses of Sendai KOSEN, through official English tests, aims to foster fluent English global technical leaders by maximizing global competitive advantages on the basis of a new academic-industrial cooperation network. This project also provides strong motivation in the students who have English discussions through setting up multinational workshops with interaction of foreign graduate students from the Graduate Schools of Tohoku University, and by giving tasks of English presentation or debate on global technical issues for 2 years. Through annual evaluations of project, some of the students get further advantages; 1) to participate in a global leadership training program, 2) to be a presenter in an international conference, and 3) to attend overseas field surveys.
本論文では日本の国立高等専門学校(KOSEN)で試みた革新的な英語教育プロジェクトを紹介する。本プロジェクトは公式英語テストで選ばれた 45 名の仙台高専専攻科生を国際競争力の高いグローバルテクニカルリーダーとして育成することを狙いとしている。多国籍のワークショップを形成し東北大学大学院に在学する多くの留学生と一緒に、グローバルなテクニカルイシューを論題とする英語プレゼンおよびディベートをトー

タル２年間行うことによって、学生に英語討論に積極的に参加するための強い動機づけを提供する。プロジェクトの年間総合評価を通して選抜されると、以下のような更なるチャンスを得られることも学生モティベーション向上に寄与する; 1) 国際的なリーダーシップトレーニングへの参加（2）国際会議での発表（3）海外フィールド調査に参加できる。

Keywords: global technical leader, academic-industrial cooperation, multinational workshop, English presentation, English debate, global competitive advantage
キーワード： グローバルテクニカルリーダー、産学連携、多国籍ワークショップ、英語プレゼンテーション、英語ディベート、国際競争力

In Japan, when students are in middle or high school, English education focuses on the testing of grammar and translation for popular high school or university entrance examinations. The aim then changes to the study of English to achieve higher scores on international English tests such as TOEIC or TOEFL. The kinds of educational methods employed by Japanese English teachers develop sufficient reading and translation skills, but students do not generally learn to communicate verbally. The results of this imbalance can be observed clearly in the case of topic discussions that require negotiation or debate over controversial issues.

On the other hand, National Colleges of Technology in Japan (KOSEN) have a very clear goal to nurture practical, well-trained engineers in from 5 years to a maximum of 7 years. It is therefore possible to work effectively in an industrial company right after graduation. Since their educational purposes are mainly set on technical knowledge, the students must study a special core curriculum very different from other high schools and universities (see Figure 1).

Many Japanese companies already know and trust how KOSEN students are technically well-trained for industrial workplaces, so they offer annual recruiting of employees directly related to KOSEN and, furthermore, KOSEN is proud of their nearly 100% students post-graduation employment rate. This rate includes the percentage of students who matriculate to higher-level schools, such as universities or national graduate schools, however, it is a remarkable rate in our modern economy which has problems of high youth unemployment. These successful results come from perfectly matching educational purpose and social needs.

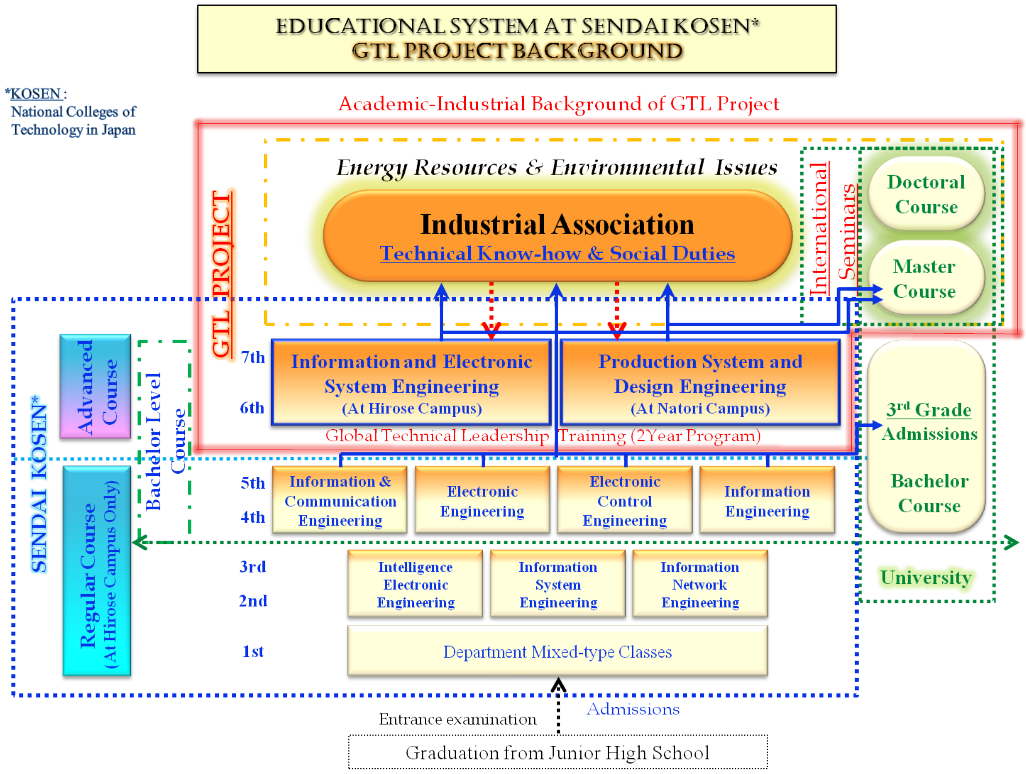

Figure 1. Educational system of Sendai KOSEN and GTL Project

The problem that KOSEN students encountered was a lack of practical English communicative abilities with respect to both speaking and writing in international workplaces, and they exhibited less interest in global issues because most of their previous English classes had focused on grammar and translation during the lower grades, and TOEIC or daily conversations in the higher grades. Listening skills could be developed through TOEIC or conversation classes, but most of the vocabulary they had encountered related not to technical issues, but to economics or concerns of their daily lives. Therefore, with this kind of educational background in KOSEN, the students face very high hurdles to communicating in practical English in their professional workplaces.

Until recently, KOSEN focused their educational goals upon nurturing not global leaders, but well-trained engineers for Japanese industrial companies. However, our modern society requires more internationally-minded human resources, discussed in more depth later in the paper.

New challenge of Global Technical Leader (GTL) Development Project by Sendai KOSEN

Educational Enrichment and Enhancement is provided through numerous experiences that challenge a student's mind. Providing a responsive environment through the form of communication of the educator as well as the materials and facilities that are available are key tools to enhancing higher educational values. Likewise, English Education is enhanced through providing a highly interactive and creative environment. Our challenge to solve those problems above, described in this paper, is possible as a way English teachers can enhance their English classrooms so that students will maintain a challenging and stimulating environment at all times.

Thus, we designed this totally different style of English program as an innovative educational challenge at KOSEN in order to foster both English communicative abilities and competitive advantages through deep understanding of global issues, because KOSEN must change the educational goal from nurturing regional engineers who work only in Japan to developing global technical leaders, since the Japanese Industrial Association already relies on a huge global network. Therefore, many Japanese engineers are in a position to teach their technical knowledge and know-how to other engineers in developing countries.

Also, we specially focused on KOSEN Advanced Course students, nurturing English presentation or debate skills for global competitive advantages and fostering a deep-understanding of global issues, specially designed for engineering students of national colleges of technology in Japan.

We called this challenge of fostering the Global Technical Leader (GTL) Development Project (see Figure 2). This program aims to develop each student's global competitive advantages, targeting initially the acquisition of applicable English communicative oral skills.

To stimulate student motivation for English communication, we employ as tutors multinational graduate foreign students studying at the nearby national graduate schools. These students are non-native English speakers, but are fairly fluent in English. They lead 3-6 member group discussions on various global controversial issues. For their final grades, students of the project gave English presentations using Power-Point slides to increase interest for both presenters and the audience. Through the whole process of this development project, the students developed their communicative skills at a remarkable pace, especially in preparing presentations and expressing opinions in English. One unique feature of this project is that in the development stages, students interact with international students from other countries, but they speak in English during their preparation time throughout the classes. Another unique feature is adding domestic field trips in English to various global companies located in Japan.

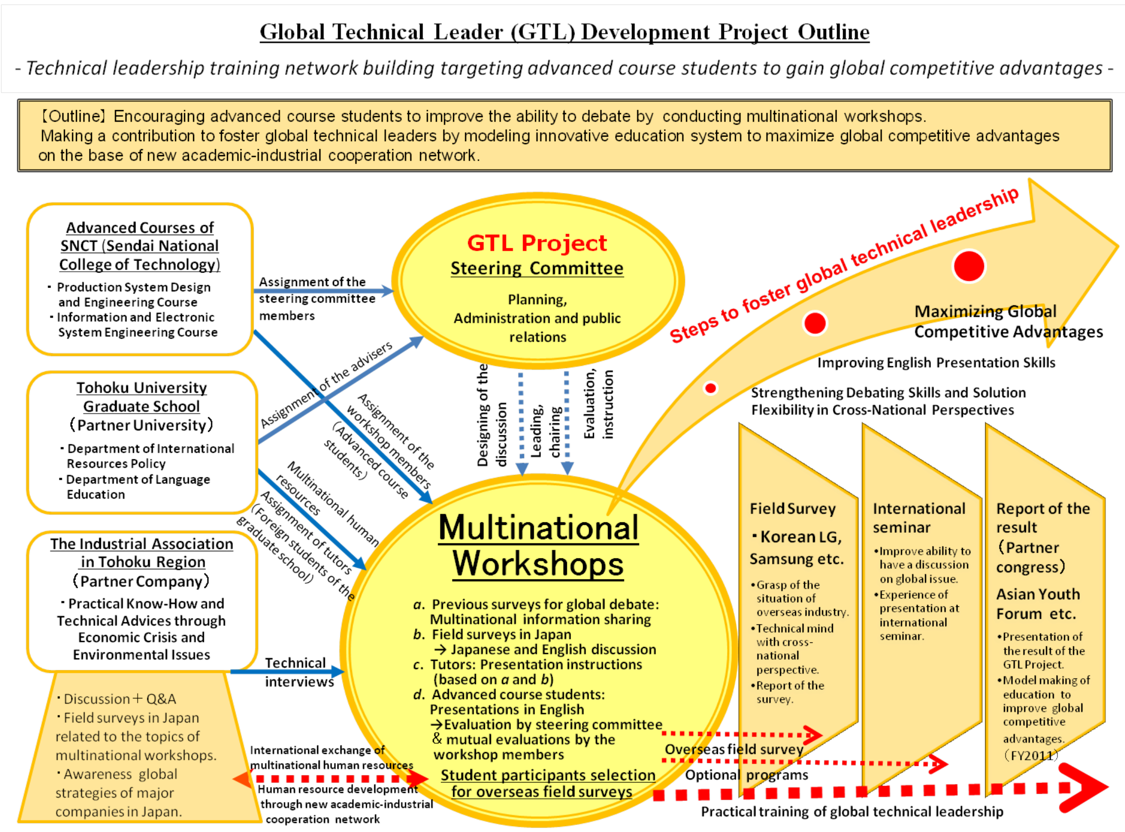

Figure 2. Global Technical Leader (GTL) Development Project Outline

Environmental crisis requires focusing global concerns on educational goals

Another aspect to bear in mind is that many Japanese companies, industrial product manufacturers especially, have grown to be remarkable global companies, so they have moved their branches or factories out of Japan. At the same time that industrial development supports our modern convenient lifestyle, we are facing an enormous environmental crisis including features such as climate change, desertification, acid rain, and resource exhaustion. We have to find a solution across national borders.

The blueprints for high-level educational goals of many countries are now changing their focus to international cooperation to find common solutions with better understanding about responsibilities. Therefore, developing both English communicative abilities and also a global mind is very important in order to find better solutions. This has become one of the top priorities of our educational responsibility to raise reliable social participants for sustainability, based on the three concepts: social values, environmental issues, and economic crisis. See Figure 3 below.

Furthermore, this urgent social requirement has resulted in higher recruiting standards for workplaces, including Japanese major industrial manufacturers, so that a higher demands have been placed on their employees to have strong English communicative abilities for presentations, and debates or negotiations, especially with respect to communicating their knowledge on global concerns.

Therefore, the English educational goal in KOSEN must change to develop human resources able to meet the strong social expectations above, applying them to KOSEN students, but it is nearly impossible to immediately change the teaching style and materials for classes taught by Japanese English teachers, especially since they are not used to professionally teaching global issue debating or presentations in English. So we formed the academic- industrial cooperation network.

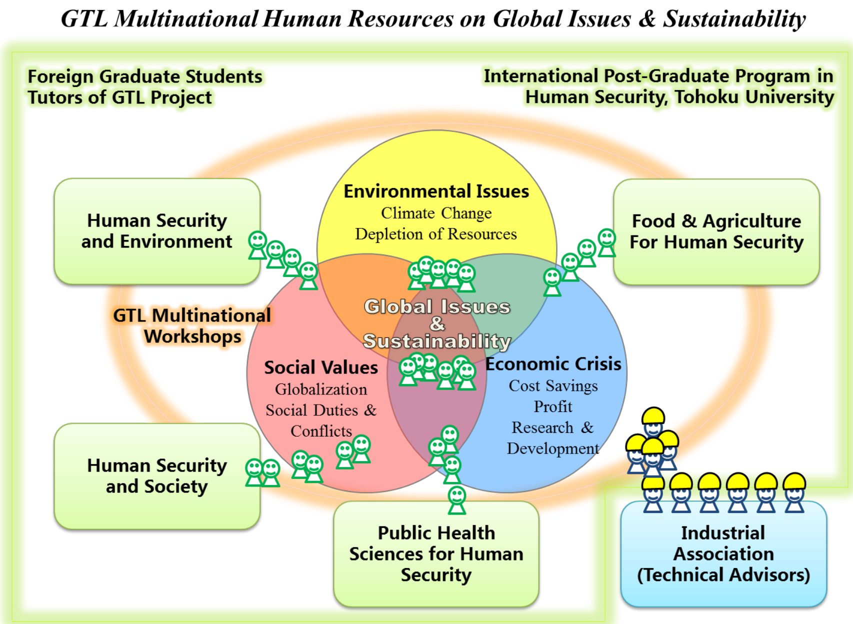

Figure 3. GTL multinational workshops on global issues

One of the most effective language teaching methods is building human relations in the target language, and students' motivation to learn becomes higher when they learn something interesting from their teachers and peers. We organized for tutors who are almost the same age as our students, but are professional foreign students who exchange opinions or give presentations in English. Moreover, these students are knowledgable about global sustainable issues since they all belong to the International Post-Graduate Program in Human Security, at Tohoku University, studying for a masters or doctorate-level degree. This is a recent program aiming towards sustainable societies and conducted by the 4 graduate schools teaching 4 major issues: human security and environment, human security and society, public health sciences for human security, and food and agriculture for human security. The diversity of tutors' nationalities and research areas ensure that GTL students are exposed to sufficient knowledge and develop a great interest through each multinational workshop with tutors as per the schedule illustrated in Table 1. Examples of discussion topics and students' opinions can be found in Appendix 1.

There are three types of Multinational workshops: English presentations, group discussions, and fieldwork. All topics of each activity are closely related to global issues and sustainability. Table 1 shows the annual GTL program details of the first business year, 2010 and will assist your understanding about the whole process of this project to develop the global competitive abilities of GTL students.

Conclusion

This paper describes the introduction of the GTL Project in 2010 and progress was described. There was evidence of highly remarkable improvement of the students' motivation and enhanced presentation abilities during the First GTL English Presentation Contest hosted by Sendai KOSEN, Hirose Campus in December 2010 to select participants for the overseas field survey. There was a sense of pleasure and surprise on the part of the students to become so interested in the multinational discussions on various global issues, and enjoyment of the strong trust built among GTL members, especially between the students and the foreign tutors.

When the multiple disasters unfolded on and after March 11, 2011, however, we faced the difficulty of handling an overseas survey that had been planned for March 22-26, 2011. The whole schedule was cancelled due to continuing strong aftershocks. We could at last start the new semester of 2011 in May and rushed into the second year of the GTL project program with much anxiety, but the students still showed a strong willingness to join the program and to exchange their opinions very seriously with tutors about nuclear power generation systems under the theme of energy issues. This paper maintains that the unique support system developed in the main school in Japan can be used while learning global leadership education in domestic universities, international universities, and technical colleges.

Table 1. The annual schedule of 2010 GTL programs

No.	Annual Programs	Venue of Multinational Workshops and Field Surveys
1	GTL Project 1st Steering Committee	Sendai National College of Technology, Hirose Campus
2	GTL Project 2nd Steering Committee	Sendai National College of Technology, Hirose Campus
3	Special lecture and level test (English presentation)	Sendai National College of Technology, Hirose Campus
4	Model presentations by tutors from Graduate School of International Cultural Studies	＜**Theme 1: *Environment and energy***＞ Sendai National College of Technology, Hirose Campus, Audio-visual Room
5	Visiting Japanese major companies and having discussions	Cooperated Company: Tohoku Electric Power Co., Inc. Thermal Power Station ＜Theme 1: *Environment and energy* ＞ (Minami Soma City, Fukushima Prefecture)
6	Practical training for English presentation Ⅰ	Sendai National College of Technology, Hirose Campus, Audio-visual Room
7	Presentation by studentsⅠ	＜Theme 1: *Environment and energy* ＞ Sendai National College of Technology, Hirose Campus, Audio-visual Room
8	International seminar	Tohoku University Graduate School Human Security Course ＜*Special Seminar*＞ Tohoku University, Multi-Media Building
9	Visiting Japanese major companies and having discussions	Cooperated Company: Sandvik Tooling Supply Japan KK ＜**Theme 2: *Global competition in the engineering industry*** ＞ (Kurihara City, Miyagi Prefecture)
10	Practical training for English presentation Ⅱ	Sendai National College of Technology, Hirose Campus , Audio-visual Room
11	Visiting Japanese major companies and having discussions	Cooperated Company: Toyota Motors Tohoku (Kurokawa County, Miyagi Prefecture) ＜**Theme 3: *The present conditions and challenges of Japanese global company***＞
12	Practical training for English presentation Ⅲ	Sendai National College of Technology, Hirose Campus, Audio-visual Room
13	Visiting Japanese major companies and having discussions	Cooperated Institute: Industrial Technology Institute, Miyagi Prefectural Government (Sendai City, Miyagi Prefecture) ＜**Theme 4: *What makes future global leaders?***＞
14	**Presentation Contest**	＜Theme 1: *Environment and energy*＞ (Original Opinions on Theme 2,3,4 Combination Available) Sendai National College of Technology, Hirose Campus, Audio-visual Room
17	Pre-survey and information exchange	Sendai National College of Technology, Hirose Campus, Audio-visual Room
18	Field survey in foreign country	Visiting factories and Research and Development Institute International conference with foreign students from various countries
19	GTL Project Interim evaluation Committee	Sendai National College of Technology, Hirose Campus

The global technical leadership development project, conscious of global issues and including the extension of English abilities, supports KOSEN education in developing richer human resources with global competitive advantages of benefit to international business and to academia over the coming generations and aspiring towards sustainable development.

Biodata

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Appendix 1. Discussion topics and students' opinions

Examples of student opinion on global issues (Nov.10th,2010)

Multinational Workshop Report (1)

* Share your opinions about the following four different global issues on environment, energy, resources and social responsibilities with multinational members.

1. Global Warming

In 1990, USA emitted 36.1% of world carbon dioxide emission. And other advanced countries followed USA such as EU 24.2%, Russia 17.4%, and Japan 8.5%. As the matter of fact, 70% of the CO2 emission was from U.S., EU and Japan at that time. That's why Conference of Parties(COP3) was held and Kyoto Protocol fixed numeral target on the reduction of CO2 emission In 1997, as much as Japan - 6%, USA - 7%, EU - 8%.

But after COP3, some developing countries such as China and India also joined those huge CO2 emission countries. Now, China emitted more CO2 than USA but they don't have any duty to cut their CO2 emission. What do you think about it? And what can we do for it as future global technical leaders?

OPINIONS ① "We, advanced countries have more responsibilities."

- I think this is the serious problem. But I think developing countries don't have to worry about the problem because it is caused by advanced countries. One of the solutions I think is that we provide the environmental technologies to developing countries. And as soon as possible, we can change developing countries to advanced countries. Next, every advanced country (the number will be larger than the past) gets along with each other. Then we all try to solve the problem with high technology. *(Shinsuke)*
- We should not avoid the responsibility from Kyoto Protocol. So we should cooperate with neighboring countries. I think this neighboring connection must be involved some developing countries and advanced countries. My idea suggests the neighboring countries develop the technology hand in hand. *(Yuki)*

- I think environmental problems often come with dynamic economic growth. We cannot simply blame China because we had been emitting huge amount of CO_2 before them. The best way is to provide some alternative ways other than emitting CO_2, something like nuclear power, a hybrid car and so on. *(Takumi)*

OPINIONS ② "Developing countries also have responsibilities."

- I think that China also should reduce their CO_2 emission. We should develop technology more environment-friendly than now (e.g. Energy which doesn't emit CO_2, electromobile vehicles, etc.) *(Shin)*
- The countries which have the great amount of carbon dioxide emission have responsibilities for trying to reduce it. And one of the things we can do is to use clean energy more and more. *(Motoki)*
- Of course, we (advanced countries) should reduce emission of CO_2. And I think developing countries should reduce, too. Especially, China and India are huge CO_2 emission countries. We should give developing countries our technology of reducing CO_2. *(Tatsuaki)*

OPINIONS ③ More interesting and distinguished comments

- I think that although they are developing countries, should reduce CO_2 emission. We should think our living standards down for environment on the earth. As the GTL project, we must understand the present situation on CO_2 emission and develop expression skills to appeal our understanding to other people. *(Takanori)*
- We should reduce CO_2 emission and developing countries should reduce, too. So we should develop CO_2 reduction technologies such as "Clean coal technology". And we should give developing countries CO_2 reduction technology.
  (Yuta, Takumi, Tatsuaki)
- I think that many countries are doing something wrong on their present national policies against carbon dioxide emission. Because they don't try to use the merit of a new technology. So, I think it is important that advanced countries support the technology related to CO_2 reduction to developing countries. *(Saki)*

2. Energy Supply in Japan and Middle East Countries

The self sufficient rate of energy supply in Japan is 4%. We import most of the power generation resources such as coal, oil and natural gas. That's why the concept of "best-mix approach of power sources" has been promoted in Japan. ("Best-mix of power sources" means balanced use of various kinds of power sources.)

In this approach, nuclear power generation is becoming a concern in Japan as one of the ideal and main future power sources from its stable fuel supply, low prices and environmental effect on CO2 emission reduction but it still has the big problem of endless radiation issues and waste disposal treatment process.

Do you think we need to increase nuclear power generation to decrease the use of fossil fuel because of its high CO2 emission?

OPINIONS ① "Yes, we need to promote nuclear energy."

- Yes, we do. Because nuclear power generation can generate huge energy, and doesn't emit CO_2. Of course, it has some problems about safety, the radiation waste or etc….

  But we still think nuclear energy is better than using fossil fuels. We should use nuclear power until finding new ways of power generation. *(Yuta, Takumi, Tatsuaki)*
- Yes, I do. Nuclear electric power generation tends to be thought dangerous but it is safe enough after passing some processes. And I think the government must explain about nuclear power generation more and get understanding and cooperation. *(Takanori)*
- I think we need to increase nuclear power generation. Because it generates more power and emits lower CO_2 emission than using fossil fuel. But it is dangerous leak of radioactivity. We should handle it carefully. *(Takaaki)*

OPINIONS ② "It is hard to answer."

- I partly agree with this idea because nuclear power generation is dangerous to use uranium. But, if an accident occurs, we might be exposed to radiation. On the other hand, it can produce very big energy. So, increasing nuclear power seems to be a good way for stable energy support. *(Yoshinobu)*

In contrast, Middle East countries such as Saudi Arabia are changing their fuel export from oil to solar energy. And Japanese major companies, SHARP and KYOSELA, are in the top place to produce and sell solar power generation equipment and also other Japanese construction companies joined to build their huge power plants. What do you think the cause of difficulty to change power sources in Japan is?

OPINIONS ③ More interesting and distinguished comments

- Middle East countries such as Saudi Arabia having much oil as fossil fuel resources are suitable for the development of clean energy because the daylight hours are long. Also, because the country is large, it can be concerned with the wind power development as one of plural clean energies.
- Japan depends on importing most of energy resources. In addition, the daylight hours are short, and clean energies such as the wind power or the solar power are not usable effectively because the country in not large. Therefore, we should use the energy such as terrestrial heat or wave force. *(Ryo)*
- Japan relies on nuclear and thermal power to generate most of domestic electric power: But these energies are limited. And nuclear power is very dangerous. Whereas clean energy like solar power is safe and it doesn't have limited. But I guess solar power is not enough to make up for domestic electric power. I propose to change clean energy for domestic electric power in a phased manner. *(Shuya)*
- I suggest three main reasons. First, Japanese daytime is too short. Second, Japanese amount of sunlight is not enough. Third, other power sources are more efficient compared with solar power in Japan. *(Masato)*
- We don't have enough land to build those solar power generation facilities. Solar power depends on the weather so much in Japan. It costs high to set up solar panels for our own houses. Many problems exist. I think it's difficult to change power sources. *(Yoshinobu)*

3. Food and Water

Japan imports a lot of food products from many other countries all around the world. To grow these agricultural products, a great amount of water is used in export countries. For example, one bowl of "gyu-don" needs two tons of water. On the other hand, in

export countries, water shortage and desertification became the most serious problems.
How can we live all together in peace and harmony?

OPINIONS：More interesting and distinguished comments

- Firstly, we should have a clear perception of the problem because many people don't know as the matter of fact. Second, Japan doesn't stop import a lot of food products from many other countries. But Japan considers a plan for volume of "importing food". In addition, Japanese country and company go round prevent desertification. *(Saki)*
- My idea has two points. First, we can get on the development of biotechnology. For example, the banana opened up a like the cactus that can grow without huge water in Philippines. Second, when Japan imports a lot of foods, products from many other countries, Japan can exports Japanese water. So, Japan has much water that is very safe to drink and to water the garden and farm goods. That is Japan trade imports for exporting water. *(Yuki)*
- I think that it is necessary to increase production in own country. We should carry out the work which reduces the number of food discarded. We need to develop the system which provides the country under water shortage. And it is also useful to develop food which withstands long. *(Shin)*
- We have two main suggestions. First, Japanese government should make a policy that supports farmer food production. Second, Japan should give the import countries the technique of making water and solution for serious problems. *(Yuta, Takumi, Tatsuaki)*

4. Corporate Social Responsibility

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) means each company's responsibility to society. All companies are required to make their final decisions with considering the requests by stakeholders (including customers, investors and society). Since ecological consciousness has been growing, CSR is now one of the important factors which affect the social reputation and responsibility. What kind of idea do you have on CRS for your future duty as global technical leaders?

<u>OPINIONS：Interesting and distinguished comments only</u>

- We need to be conscious of CSR. Sometimes companies ignore it to make more money. They think benefit and CSR are tradeoff. I partly agree it. But we have to break its concept by using our technologies as global technical leaders. *(Tomonori)*
- One important thing is not to product too much production. If people don't need those products, those are thrown away. We must reduce too much things. Otherwise, many resources became impaired. This is very dangerous for our future on existing limited resource on the earth. And too much products in advanced countries are needed by developing countries. For example, the used car in Japan is needed by some developing countries (India, Thai, etc.). We should make the cycle of the loop with each country to reduce products. *(Yuki)*
- This international cooperation is important to the world. And global technical leaders have to communicate with many foreigners in various companies around the world. So we need to inform them about ecological consciousness. *(Saki)*
- I think CSR is nothing but just usual thing that companies should be aware of. They exist for people after all, I believe. To talk with stakeholders is the crucial part of their responsibility. *(Takumi)*

Python in the Class – Tools to help you teach fluency

Malcolm Prentice
Kanagawa University

Reference Data:
Prentice, M. (2012). Python in the Class – Tools to help you teach fluency. In K. Bradford-Watts, R. Chartrand, & E. Skier (Eds.), *The 2011 Pan-SIG Conference Proceedings*. Matsumoto: JALT.

Abstract

This article describes two cross-platform computer scripts – one written to help simplify the vocabulary in a text for classroom use and one to extract information from a corpus of student writing – and outlines their relevance for fluency. The resources used to create these scripts – the programming language Python and the Natural Language Toolkit (NLTK) – are then introduced. Throughout, it is argued that teachers who deal with large amounts of text for materials design or needs analysis can benefit from learning how to use these or similar tools, for when there is no existing program or the existing program is not quite right. Everything described is free to download, use and adapt.

本研究は、まずＯＳに関係なく使えるパソコンのクロスプラットフォームのスクリプトを２つ作成した。１つはクラスで使うテキストのボキャブラリーを平易なものに書き換えるスクリプト、もう１つは筆者のライティングのクラスで生徒が実際に書いたエッセイの情報から作成したコーパスのスクリプトである。それらが fluency(流暢性)にどのように関連しているのか考察する。これらのスクリプトを作成するにあたり使用したリソースは、プログラミング言語の　っ Python と NLTK(Natural Language Toolkit)である。クラスで使う資料作成のために膨大な数の語彙を扱い、生徒のニーズを分析する教師にとって、これらのプログラミング言語やそれと似たプログラムの使い方を学ぶ事は利益になる。 どのプログラムを使用するかは問題ではない。上に挙げたプログラムは無料でダウンロードすることができる。それらのプログラムを自分で使いやすいように変更して使用することは有益である事を提案したい。

Keywords: **CALL, Corpus, Scripts**

Teachers, materials writers, and course designers sometimes need to use computer programs for processing text – to handle concordances, collocations, word lists, student corpora, and so on. However, as the needs of each teacher vary, existing programs can have small issues and gaps when applied to a specific task. When this happens, the user *could* contact the program's designer and hope for a future revision, but they are more likely just to tolerate the issues. For some things a teacher might want to do, an appropriate tool may not yet exist.

Compare this to textbooks, which can also have small issues and gaps when applied to a specific classroom, and which (for some ESP target contexts) may not exist. In this situation, rather than contacting the publisher or tolerating the problem, teachers can just start writing their own worksheets. This article aims to convince readers that knowing the basics of a programming language can give teachers the option of writing the computer version of a worksheet - a "script" - if none of the available programs are quite right, or if none can be found for the task.

The point is illustrated below using two example scripts, chosen for their relevance to the conference theme of fluency, which it is hoped readers find useful in and of themselves. The scripts are described in the following two sections, then the final section argues that learning to write a script is an approachable task which can give a clearer understanding of words like "collocation" or "sentence" while increasing transparency and control in research.

Instructions for downloading the scripts are given, and everything mentioned is free to use, modify, and share. To use these scripts, Windows users will need to install two other free resources: the programming language Python (http://www.python.org) and the Natural Language Toolkit (http://www.nltk.org). Mac and Linux users need only install the Natural Language Toolkit (NLTK), as their systems come with Python installed.

Example Script 1: Text Grader

Teachers and material writers sometimes need to write or adapt text to a certain reading level - for use in class, in entrance exams or in graded readers. The relevance of graded text for the conference theme (fluency) is its use in extensive reading or listening, as large amounts of level-appropriate message-focused practice are important for developing fluency (Nation, 2006; Dörnyei, 2009).

An important step in grading texts is limiting the vocabulary in some way, which is the purpose of this first script. I found, when co-editing graded texts with an experienced Japanese teacher of English, that a native speaker's intuitive sense of a word's frequency is not a particularly good measure of which words a Japanese student can be expected to know. Looking for a more systematic approach, three vocabulary-profiling tools were tried - *Range, LexTutor* and *AntWordProfiler* – but each had issues when applied to this task. The remainder of this section outlines the problems encountered and describes a script written to combine the advantages of the three tools while attempting to avoid the issues.

Each of the three existing tools can mark a text to indicate whether each word is or is not in a set of given word frequency lists. All three can be set to grade vocabulary according to whether it comes from the first or second thousand word families on the General Service List (West, 1953) or from the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000). Each tool draws on the same set of lists, originally created for the first of the tools - see <www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/staff/paul-nation.aspx> for details. While this four-level split (GSL1, GSL2, AWL, offlist) is not as fine-grained as that offered by commercial graded reading texts, highlighting words by level does give a better idea than instinct alone of which words need attention in editing. The split may not be especially useful for junior high school students still working their way through GSL1 level words, but it is appropriate for the target context—university English majors who tested well on the GSL level words but are still working on the AWL. Each tool also has an option or version that instead allows users to mark the text using lists taken by Nation (2006) from the British National Corpus.

The first tool tried was Range (<www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/staff/paul-nation.aspx>), as it is the best-known tool for grading vocabulary. Unfortunately it is designed for analysis rather than editing - it capitalizes the text and inserts the grades as numbers, making the results difficult to edit and use. There is no Mac version, and non-ANSI (non-Windows) text files have encoding problems—for example quotemarks (“”) are misread as strange character strings (¬Äì). However, one very useful feature of Range missing from the two programs described below is the filter list—the ability to define a list of tokens to be excluded from marking, a feature which makes the target (low frequency words to be considered for replacement) more visible. In Range, the provided list contains names, but it might also include technical vocabulary that has been taught in class and that students are expected to know.

The second tool tried was the website *Lextutor* (<www.lextutor.ca/>). A tool available on this site accepts text pasted into a box on the page, then highlights the words in various colors by GSL/AWL or BNC level. This *is* designed for editing (highlighting on the right, editing box on the left), and works quite well. However, the editing function has a stated limit of 2000 words and there is no filter list. The fact that it requires Internet access might itself be an issue for some, and using it for high-stakes exam texts would be unwise. Also, 21 different BNC lists are marked and the colors used can get confusing – for example BNC lists 5, 9, 12, and 16 are all marked in various shades of pink.

Finally, *AntWordProfiler* (<www.antlab.sci.waseda.ac.jp/software.html>) was tried. This tool was almost perfect, with clear highlighting and the ability to directly edit the marked text—in the end, this program was used under Windows to help grade the first text that needed to be simplified. However, there were still issues—no filter list, some encoding issues, and the Mac version (1.200m) kept crashing on longer texts.

The problems described above are not fatal, and most are only problems because of the author's choice of operating system. However, for regular use a tool should preferably do exactly what its user wants. In this case, the requirements were for a cross platform, encoding-safe, offline-available tool for inline editing of opened, pasted or typed-in texts of any length. The tool should ignore web addresses (some of the tools above count "com" and "http" as words), use a filter list and maybe later have a few extra features. In other words, it should ideally be a worksheet written for the purpose rather than someone else's textbook.

The solution is hosted at *<code.google.com/p/malc-text-grader/>* and is free to download. It does everything in the list of requirements above, and recent versions have added extra features such as readability indices, information on average sentence length, and collocation tools.

The program is still in development and there remain issues to solve. None of these prevent the program from working as intended, but users might want to make some changes. For example, as mentioned above, the lists used are appropriate for university English majors, but not if a more detailed split of the first thousand-word families is needed. The benefit of open-source software licensing is that everyone is free to use the script as a starting point, modify the functionality or change the lists used. The final section of this article will argue that doing so is not an impossible task, and go into more detail about the advantages of open-source software. The next section first gives one more example.

Example Script 2: First Five Words

A colleague wanted to know how students in his writing class were starting their sentences, and to compare their language choices with those of more advanced learners. He needed an alternative to hand-compiling a list of the first words of each sentence in 90 essays, and because no tool known could do this, the author offered to write one. It is available at *<code.google.com/p/first-five-words/>*

The script processes around 100 essays/second, producing three filtered CSV files for 3- 4- and 5-gram sentence starters (where "gram" is defined as any token including punctuation). The methodology and results are described in detail elsewhere (Prentice, 2012), but here briefly are the top five 3-gram and 5-gram sentence starters from two essay collections.

Top 3-grams	**Top 5-grams**
For example , In addition , However , I Of course , When I was	On the other hand , First of all , I Let freedom ring from the There are a lot of This summer , I went

Table 1: Top 3- and 5-gram sentence starters from 90 prize-winning Japanese university essays currently comprising the Near Peer Student Competition (NPSC) corpus (see Prentice, 2012)

Top Uppsala 3-grams	**Top Uppsala 5-grams**
I think that I do not	In this essay I will On the other hand ,

I believe that When it comes It is not	It was what they had As a matter of fact When it comes to reading

Table 2: Top 3- and 5-gram sentence starters from Uppsala Student English corpus (Axelsson & Berglund [Eds.], 2001)

The relevance to fluency is that sentence starters like "As a matter of fact" are a form of formulaic sequence. These re-usable chunks of language, retrieved as wholes without the overhead of processing individual words into utterances, are linked to increased speech fluency (Wray, 2002; Segalowitz, 2010), and while I can find no direct evidence it seems reasonable that the same applies to writing. Boers, et. al. (2006) found that formulaic language can be learned through enhanced exposure, but as Shin and Nation (2008) suggest in their study of collocations, the most common word combinations may be worth explicit learning and teaching. The top ten 3-grams from the essays above start one in twenty of the 3,500 Japanese student sentences and one in fifty of the 54,000 Uppsala student sentences (spread across a much wider variety of genres), and so may well be worth having attention drawn to them in a writing class.

Frequency alone is not a very good definition of formulaicity (Wray, 2002; Read & Nation, 2004) - for example combinations like *"According to NAME, the"* are overlooked because the name changes each time. Also, in small corpora like those above, some phrases can be pushed into a high rank by a whole class doing the same essay topic ("It was what they had") or repetition for emphasis in a single essay ("Let freedom ring from the"). However, frequency is a necessary start, and a definite improvement over analyzing hundreds of sentence fragments by hand.

There are three practical applications: comparing students' progress in using taught language by comparing essays from the beginning and end of a course, identifying target language in a native or advanced learner corpus, and comparing student with target corpora as part of a needs analysis.

There are a number of reasons why using a Python script to do this kind of task is a good idea—above all, flexibility for individual needs. Imagine a teacher who wants a class-specific list of target phrases—for example to include only essays tagged as formal in a target corpus, and filter out results that are on a list of phrases already taught.

Imagine this teacher wanted to repeat the process with 3-4 different genres per semester per writing class. By hand this would involve an impractical amount of file shuffling and list sorting, but adapting the "First Five Words" script to do it would take a few new lines of code and then about five minutes for each new search.

With the first script described above (*malc-text-grader.py)* the aim was to show that there is an alternative to simply tolerating the issues that come with using tools designed by others. Here the aim is to show that there is also an alternative when no tool exists.

"OK, maybe it *is* useful. But I'm not a programmer!"

All a beginner really needs to know is how to install a program and how to type - the rest is about learning a language. Who better to do that than the readers of this article, who are almost certainly experienced language teachers and learners?

Conclusion

If teachers need to analyze a large amount of text but no tool exists, or if a tool exists but is not quite what is wanted, then taking the time to learn the basics of Python and NLTK will pay off in terms of transparency, control, and a more explicit understanding of language. The tools created can help with research, material creation, course design, and needs analysis in a range of areas, including fluency.

Biodata

Malcolm Prentice is an Associate Professor in Kanagawa University, with research interests in CALL, Teacher Development, and the role of memory in language acquisition.

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Prepared presentations improve student sense of potential for progress

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Abstract

This paper examines the findings of an initial qualitative study into how students perceive their achievement and progress in learning English following the conclusion of a year long, once a week course focusing on writing and presentation. The findings presented examine students' self reported perceptions of changes in various aspects of their understanding of and ability to use English for classwork and communication in a more general sense. Though this is very much a preliminary study, the findings suggest that some lower level students may find the preparation of presentations helpful in getting beyond a reluctance to speak and their views of English being beyond their ability.

本論文は、通年の週 1 回のライティングやプレゼンテーションに重点を置いた授業の結果から、学生が英語学習における成果や進歩をいかに理解しているかについての初期の研究成果を述べている。この研究結果は授業での取組みのための英語を使用する能力と、より一般的な意味でのコミュニケーションにおける彼らの理解力の様々な側面での変化を学生が自らの認識を評価したものを示したものである。しかしこれは非常に準備段階の研究である。この研究結果は、英語を話すことにあまり乗り気でなかったり、英語は自らの能力を越えているという見解を持っていたりする低いレベルの学生たちに役立つプレゼンテーションの準備を見出せるであろうことを提案している。

Keywords: Presentations, writing, lower achieving students, student confidence, empowerment

That language learners may take very different paths to accomplishing their language learning goals or requirements is apparent when a student or teacher reflects on their classroom experiences. Different individuals in the same class often appear to progress at very different rates. Nonetheless, teachers and students often seem to behave as though this is some sort of anomaly reflecting a personal failing on the part of those falling behind and that actually all should progress together as a group along a path set by the materials and activities used in class. After having studied in even the most basic classes together for a year or so however, students begin to become arranged into a kind of achievement based hierarchy—some students move ahead of others while some fall behind. For whatever reason or reasons these different achievement levels have formed, the levels will likely stay in place for long periods if not their whole learning career (Holt, 1984; MacIntyre, Noels, & Clement, 1997; Plucker, et al., 2004; Trautwein, Ludtke, Marsh, Koller, & Baumert, 2006). By the time university level English language learners in Japan matriculate, they have become more or less set in their respective *tier* of learners likely based on their past performance, streaming and grading and other more personal issues (Dörnyei, 2005). They often seem to accept this as their proper *ability* level and are more or less resigned to staying in that artificial, often self-perpetuating, level. In order to counteract this acceptance of different achievement expectation tiers, instructors of those in the lower achieving tiers should endeavor to find a way to help the students progress to a level more in line with those on a higher achieving path.

Dörnyei (2005) shows that there are likely many causes of student achievement differences, but one point that seems apparent is that different levels of students appear to have different views of the language being studied. Higher level learners appear to have achieved a willingness to use the language more freely for communication. Whatever the reasons for the higher achievers' success, the lower level learners, by the time they reach the university level, seem to view the language learning environment differently. Higher level classes generally have been shown in initial studies to view communicative activities more positively than lower level classes who generally view more structured activities such as grammar study, more positively (See Brown, 2009; Horwitz, 1988; & Richardson, 2011). This suggests that getting students to a point where they feel more positive about using the target language in communicative based activities will certainly be desirable.

Getting students to the point where they feel more comfortable using the target language for communication has long been a key point for teachers though it is not always recognized as such (Liu & Littlewood, 1998). Teachers often complain of student reluctance to speak or participate in class activities. Informal discussions on the topic have offered many theories as to why Japanese students don't talk as much as the teacher feels is appropriate, including:

- the students are lazy or spoiled
- the school system prepares students for top-down instruction and therefore passive learning
- classes where few or no students fail cause complacency
- lack of recognizable value for young learners in a largely monolingual country

Though any, or in fact all, of these reasons may be the cause in particular cases, what seems to be less frequently suggested is that some lower achieving students are not accustomed to, or comfortable, speaking without a set pattern for practice. This may be less connected to student achievement or experience with discussion or conversation based activities than one might expect but is likely connected to the learners' perception of their own competence in the language in question being used and learned (MacIntyre, Noels, & Clement, 1997). Learner perception of their own competence appears to be, in at least some cases, a self-fulfilling notion, but may be overcome with the right combination of activities to help learners overcome their own self-limiting concepts.

Background

The classes that provided the data for this study were two sections in the second of two consecutive years of first year writing and presentation classes at a major private university in central Japan. The two classes were held third and fourth periods on Mondays during the 2009-2010 and 2010-2011 school years. The basic requirements for these classes were vaguely set by the College of Letters though the particular methods by which each class would meet the requirements were to be decided by the instructor. The streamed classes of roughly 32-35 students were the 16th and 17th of around 30 classes, with scores of roughly 350 to 380 on the institutional form of the TOEIC test administered to students upon entrance to the university.

The classes were required for each student within the department so the students were not necessarily eager to take part in the class, although a small number reported high motivation to improve their English, both in face to face discussions and in writing at different points during the class. Many others, however, reported a reluctance to speak and a low motivation to study English overall. Some also reported having a bad image of English, prior to the discovery of the positive results that led to the implementation of this study. Many of the students reported having such a negative image of English following high school that they had chosen a different primary language of study, such as Spanish, Chinese, Korean, French, or Italian.

In the classes themselves there was a rather aggressive curriculum planned according to the instructor's somewhat literal understanding of the course requirements. As these classes were described as *writing and presentation* classes, it was decided that students would prepare written scripts of presentations each week for homework and then give the presentations to small groups of students in class the following week. During the 15-week semester, students were required to prepare 10 presentations with the first given in class in the second week. The presentations for the first half of the semester had no assigned time or word requirements though the script was graded on the simple scale of 100% for satisfactory completing, 50% for limited effort, and 0% for little or no effort. In the giving of the presentations students worked generally in groups of 3 or 4 which resulted in approximately 8-10 presentations being given at any one time. The presentation scripts, the student essays essentially, themselves were collected each class and returned generally the next class, with corrections of mistakes suggested though students understood that English was not a part of the rather simple grading criteria mentioned above.

The final 3 classes of each semester were devoted to final presentations. In the first semester these presentations were PowerPoint or some other comparable computer software based presentations. Each student was required to give a 3-5 minute presentation based either on a re-write of one of the previous presentations they had given during the semester or an original presentation. Presentions were graded on such aspects as body language, voice, overall content, time requirement, and visual aids. In the second semester, students gave poster presentations 5-7 minutes in length. Up to 8 students presented at a time, with each presenter giving their presentation a minimum of four times.

In the final class each semester, the students were required to turn in a portfolio of their completed work. As a part of their portfolio they were required to re-write three of their presentations, one of which could also be used as their final presentation if they so chose. The re-written version was expected to show improvements in grammatical features and to have been lengthened, although grading was again based on the amount of work that was apparent, rather than on the correctness of the English used. Also included in the final portfolio was the student's response to an open-ended question requiring students to comment on how they felt they had improved, as well as how they felt they could and would like to improve in the future.

Data collection and summary

The data used for this initial study were taken from the student portfolios that were turned in at the end of the second year of these classes. The primary data point came in the form of the open-ended question for which students were to report on their feelings of their own progress. As this was not initially intended as research of any kind, the open-ended questions created a difficulty for systematic analysis of the data. When the portfolios were collected, they were divided into four groups, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Classification of comments in open-ended question about progress

Classification	Focus of comments
1	Not commenting adequately on own progress in any way
2	Talking about only their goals for the future
3	Focusing on their continuing problems
4	Discussing an improved sense of their ability to use English in a variety of ways

The fourth group was the largest, with 25 students.

The comments provided in the responses were again divided into 3 basic areas: overcoming difficulty, increased confidence, and personal empowerment. Brief examples of student comments, paraphrased or edited to correct mistakes or limit the ability to identify individual students, illustrate the discussion below. An example of a comment that reflects a sense of progress in overcoming difficulty is "When I started this class it was difficult to write my ideas... but after doing it each week I got a lot better." Other students indicated an increased level of confidence using English, such as the student who wrote "I was always shy speaking English, but I gained confidence after speaking each week." Some students report feelings that reflect changes in personal empowerment, as in this comment, "Being able to prepare my speech gave me a chance to speak my ideas more clearly," or another example from a student (which may indicate another concept but which was finally included in the personal empowerment category) being, "I didn't like English before but now I really think English is fun."

Discussion

At the outset of this discussion a few caveats indicating the limitations of the study should be brought forward. The study is too small to be viewed as in any way conclusive or broadly generalizable. Instead this initial study may be seen as something of a starting point for future research in this area. A causative relationship between the practices discussed here and the results of the student comment sheets could not be established at this level of research but the two factors do appear to correlate over the two years that the classes were taught. Other research factors such as control groups should be introduced, and more specific and stringent forms of questions or other investigative tools need to be included to strengthen the validity and reliability of the findings. Discussions and the initial analysis of similar classes suggest that such research may well support the initial results presented here.

Having acknowledged these caveats, it is likely that these results indicate a rather counterintuitive fact that may help teachers of students otherwise reluctant to speak in classes. Students gain confidence in their speaking by having time to prepare their presentations (Liu & Littlewood, 1998). Although this may be considered less than ideal because students spend a lot of time reading, especially early in the course, it is likely beneficial for students of lower to middle levels who may be more reluctant to speak as a result of their perception of themselves as being less competent in the target language (MacIntyre, Noels, & Clement, 1997). The presentation-essay assignments were creative works in that the written part of their presentation was in their own words, albeit at a much slower pace than a discussion might be. This type of assignment gave the learners numerous opportunities to organize and prepare their thoughts in the second language. This seems to have given the least confident among them a sense of security, one that many second language classes requiring them to speak simply don't provide. For example, students report taking time to check grammar and vocabulary while working on the written part of the assignment, and this made them more comfortable when speaking.

This type of class also likely increases in-class speaking time overall. As most teachers will likely attest, students are hesitant to speak when it is required that they use only the second language. Less confident students can be expected to speak even less than other students. Students having organized their thoughts ahead of time changes these lower-to-mid level classes from those likely to have at worst a smattering of English conversations to a situation in which many students are expressing their own thoughts for 3-5 minutes per student and listening to other students speak English each class as well. Other in-class speaking activities also appear to increase as the course goes on, although a more systematic study of this aspect of the class is necessary in order to confirm this observation.

Students find the activities beneficial and many view them positively in the end. By the end of the year, many, although certainly not all, students view the presentations and writing assignments positively, as indicated in their portfolio comments. Students recognize the fact that they are able to write much longer presentation scripts in much less time by the end of the year and the number of grammatical and lexical errors decreases. As students see this happening, partly due to the requirement for them to keep their homework assignments for the entire semester in order to complete the portfolio requirement, they frequently report a sense of accomplishment and progress which may be lacking in a discussion class. The requirement for each student to speak in every class exposes students to the activity of speaking, which they may have been able to more or less avoid in other classes. From repeated exposure to preparation for discussing their thoughts and feelings on topics, many students achieve a sense of comfort in speaking English which they report never before having felt in an English class.

Conclusion

This initial analysis provides an introductory look into the positive outcomes of a class that, on the surface, may not appear likely to be successful in improving student achievement in any extraordinary way. The results show, however, that a majority of students found the writing and presentation activities to be beneficial and empowering and even, in some cases, more fun than they had expected from an English class. This indicates that students can benefit from presentation classes in unexpected ways. Giving students the opportunity to prepare their thoughts in advance and to express these thoughts in presentation form may be a useful step in encouraging previously lower achieving students a chance to move to a more confident, more competent use of the target language. Getting students to the level where they converse in a second language often seems like a never ending struggle, but it may, perhaps, require only a new beginning, not focused on traditional activities, but on giving presentations.

Biodata

Ryan Richardson teaches at universities in Kansai. His current research includes comparing teacher and student views of effective language learning and cultural adjustment.

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The role of graphics in business English textbooks

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Abstract

An analysis was conducted of several business English textbooks produced by major ELT publishers to determine what possible role graphics, e.g. photographs and illustrations could play in the texts. The results show that most graphics are merely decorative and serve little if any substantial pedagogical role.

教科書における写真やイラストの果たす役割を究明するために、主要な ELT 出版会社が製作したビジネス英語の教科書数冊の分析が行われた。その結果、たいていの写真やイラストは単なる装飾に過ぎず、仮に教育的役割を果たしていたとしてもその度合いはとても低いということが判明した。

Keywords: Textbooks, Business English, graphics, pedagogy

Recently our department, the Centre for Foreign Language Education at Momoyama Gakuin University, has instituted a price limit on the cost of textbooks that can be assigned for undergraduate compulsory English as a foreign language classes. The rationale for this price limit is that as the cost of education continues to rise in Japan (Education and Family Income, 2010) students and their parents are seeking more value for their money. Therefore, the cost of texts for courses such as compulsory English needs to be cheaper. In our experience, often the most expensive course books also had a large number of full color graphics. Due to the issue of expense, we wondered what role these graphics played in learning, if they did – how, and how much students benefited from them.

Levin (1981) created an eight-point typology to describe the pedagogical functions of graphics in instructional texts. His purpose in creating this typology was to illustrate and further delineate the different instructional purposes for including graphics in educational texts and attempt to measure their effectiveness. It should be noted that his typology was not intended to be used exclusively for language learning texts. Levin's eight functions are: 1. decoration, 2. remuneration, 3. motivation, 4. reiteration, 5. representation, 6. organization, 7. interpretation, and 8. transformation. Levin felt that the first three functions (decoration, remuneration and motivation) had no pedagogical value and in a later paper, with Anglin and Carney (1987), he combined them into a single category and called them "text-irrelevant" (p. 53), meaning that the graphics were not related to the text and did not have a learning function. Misanchuk (1992) interpreted Levin's 1981 typology in a similar way and further reduced the functions to two general categories of decorative and instructional, with the first three (decoration, remuneration, motivation) being decorative and the last five (reiteration, representation, organization, interpretation, and transformation) being instructive.

With respect to ELT texts, Hill (2003) conducted a survey of images in British ELT texts. He sought to describe the current situation of images in ELT materials and was first only concerned with color vs. black and white images, illustrations vs. photographs, and the subject of the images, e.g. people, places, things, actions, etc. Through the course of his research, he decided to additionally focus on the function of images as either "use" or "decoration" (p. 176). He was able to determine that 45% of images in the two books he looked at were useful and 55% were decorative.

Levin's typology (especially as interpreted by Misanchuck) and Hill's research aligned with our, albeit anecdotal, observations that while some of the graphics found in textbooks have a learning function, many do not. Furthermore, in our experience we felt that business English (BE) textbooks seemed to have even more decorative graphics than useful ones. As one of the faculties at our university requires that teachers specifically use BE materials, we decided to conduct an investigation of graphics in BE textbooks to determine if they had a decorative or instructional function.

Methodology

Similar to Hill (2003) we were interested to see how many of the images being used in commercial business English (BE) textbooks available in Japan had an instructive purpose. Unlike Hill (2003) who only surveyed two course books, we decided to analyze as many BE textbooks that we could find in order to get as much data as possible. We went to the reference center in our department and accessed all of the business English titles available. This included multiple editions and multiple levels of difficulty for some titles and as these series texts seemed to be graphically similar we did not include more than one text of a series. We did, however, include both the course book (Johnson, 2006) and skills book (Barrall & Barrall, 2006) for the Intelligent Business series because these books are intended to be used together, so we counted them as one text. In total we were able to look at fifteen business English textbooks.

Like Hill (2003) we began by counting graphics in the texts. Winn (1987) made a distinction between pictorial representations, e.g. photographs and illustrations and figural representations, e.g. graphs and charts. As we were interested in graphics, we counted all of the pictorial representations: photographs, illustrations, and maps contained in the text. We did not count any figural representations: charts, graphs, logos, or any other visual that was primarily text based. Additionally, we did not count icons, as these are included in texts for organizational purposes, not instructional ones (Misanchuck, 1992); they are not part of the content of the text, but part of the access structure of the text (Waller, 1982). Building on Misanchuck's notion of icons as "sign-posts indicating the location of certain materials" (p.115), we defined an icon as a graphic used to indicate the type of activity, for example an image of a pair of headphones used to indicate a listening activity.

When counting the graphics, we assigned one of two possible categories to the image: it was either 1) decorative or 2) instructional. To determine the category we asked the following question: Are there written instructions in the text on how to use the graphic? If the answer was yes, then we determined that the image was instructive. If no, then we determined that the image was decorative. Misanchuk (1992), citing Levie and Lentz (1982) noted that, "while students may look at the pictures that accompany text, they ... don't actually use them to learn unless told to do so" (p. 249). This is further backed by Morrison, Ross, and Kemp (2006) who said, "simply placing an illustration in the instruction [text] does not guarantee that the learner will examine the illustration" (p. 182) and Sless (1981) felt that students, unless told otherwise, would treat images in the text as decorative. Therefore, the only way that we could determine to an absolute degree whether the graphic was instructional or not was by determining if the graphic had instructions for what the student was supposed to do.

Results

In total we ended up looking at 2265 graphics in 15 business English textbooks. (Please see the appendix for a complete list of the titles analyzed.) Of these, we determined that 610, or 27%, of the graphics were instructional and 1655, or 73%, of the graphics were decorative. The results are summarized in table 1 below.

Table 1

Instructional and decorative graphics totals

	Instructional	Decorative	Total
Images	610	1655	2265
Percent	27%	73%	100%

Of the fifteen books analyzed, only two, Business Venture (Barnard & Cady, 2009) and Business Start-up (Ibbotson & Stephens, 2005), had more instructional images than decorative ones. The remaining 13 texts contained mostly decorative images and one text, Quick Work (Howlett, 2001) had only one instructional image; all of the remaining 60 graphics were decorative. These results are summarized in the figure 1 below.

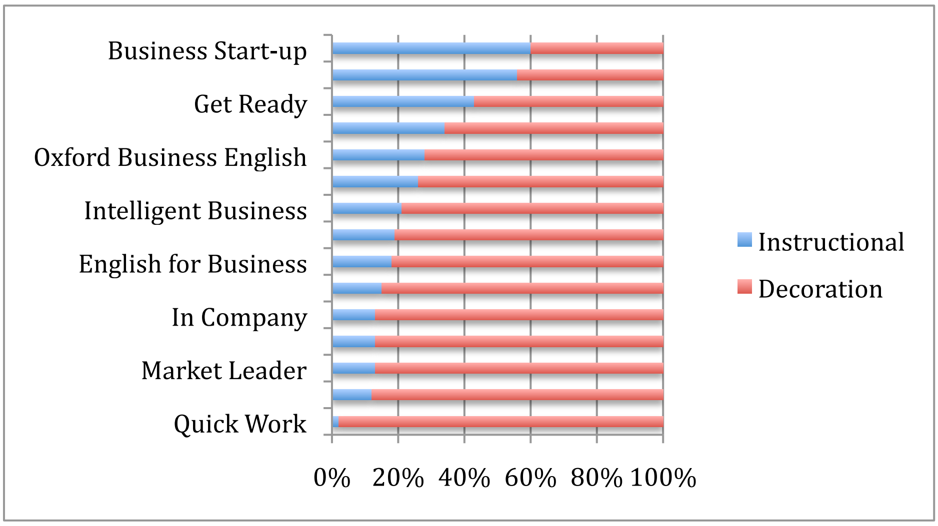

Figure 1. Data summary

When compared to Hill (2003), our study covered 89% more texts and 85% more graphics. Hill found 45% of the images were instructional and 55% were decorative. The results of our study showed a 27% to 73% ratio of instructional to decorative graphics. These results are summarized in table 2 below.

Table 2

Current study compared to Hill (2003)

	Texts	Total Images	Yes	No
Hill (2003)	2	411	185	226
Current Study	15	2265	610	1655
Hill (2003)	-89%	-85%	45%	55%
Current Study	89%	85%	27%	73%

Discussion

Although our goal in conducting this analysis was to describe the current situation of graphics in BE textbooks, upon collecting and reviewing the data we were left with a number of questions about what the data meant. Turning to these questions:

Is there a third category?

We noticed that some images we classified as decorative seemed to be more than just decorative. This left us wondering if there wasn't a third category that we should have considered, namely graphics that, while not having a concrete instructional purpose, directly correlated to the subject matter or functions being presented in the text. For example, in Business Venture 2 (Barnard & Cady, 2009) the students are asked to read about two British entrepreneurs and the text includes a photograph of these real life people.

Following Levin's (1981) typology, graphics such as these would most likely be assigned to category 5, representational. Levin, Anglin, and Carney (1987) define representational pictures as pictures that "reinforce the major narrative events" (p. 55) and Anglin, Vaez, and Cunningham (2004) clarify this as graphics which, "represent the actors, objects, and activities happening in the text" (p. 875). Certainly graphics of the people, places, objects, etc. that students are reading and talking about would have *learning* value as they made the language task more concrete by acting as what Smith (1997) calls a "virtual realia," even though they did not have an *instructional* value, i.e. the graphic did not include instructions for how the students were to use the graphic.

Does it really matter?

Most graphic design literature discusses the aesthetic functions of graphics to increase the visual appeal of documents, but not their communicative function or in the case of course books, their educational function (Misanchuk, 1992). Evans, Watson, and Willows (1987) note that the majority of decisions about graphics are not made by authors, but are left to the designers and that decisions about graphics are being made for aesthetic purposes not for educational purposes. In our investigation, we came across many small, unobtrusive images that may not have any effect on the way the teacher or student uses the text and in these cases it may not matter. However, we also, with surprising regularity, came across large graphics, some of which used more space on the page than the language task or teaching point. Often these images dominated the entire page, dwarfing the language being presented. We felt that these graphics do matter and this lead to an additional question.

Can these large dominating graphics be a distraction?

Often times these large decorative images left us wondering if the students might spend more time looking at the image than focusing on the task itself. Evans, Watson, and Willows (1987) had similar concerns and reported that graphics can be "too striking and too engaging" (p. 93) causing students to pay more attention to the images instead of the learning tasks. This concern was also raised by Clark and Lyons (2011), as well as Peeck (1987).

Why do publishers include so many decorative graphics?

Our final question leads us back to Levin's typology. His second reason for including images in instructional texts was for remuneration, i.e. to increase the sales of the book. This was also confirmed by Bell and Gower (1998) who stated, "...that they [publishers] gave more attention to first impressions the material would make (the 'flick' test) than its ... usability" (p. 125). Therefore, it can be assumed that publishers feel that including a large number of graphics will make the book more attractive and thereby increase sales. Evans, Watson, and Willows (1987), report that in interviews with publishers it was clear that, "in the minds of those interviewed that illustrations, particularly colored illustrations, increase sales" (p. 92).

Conclusion

Whether or not students and teachers are served by the large number of decorative graphics found in business English textbooks and whether or not they justify the expense is beyond the scope of this study. We only sought to capture data in order to describe the current situation as a first step in a larger conversation about the role, if not worth, of graphics in ELT materials, but it is an interesting question. Perhaps Prowse (1998) put it best:

> It would be interesting to compare the reactions of learners ... to today's highly designed full colour course books. Does the expenditure of so much time and money increase the effectiveness of learning, or merely ensure that one book is purchased rather than another? To what extent is a fashionable design a barrier rather than an aid to learning (p. 141).

We leave it to future researchers to tackle that question.

Biodata

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Johnson, C. (2006). *Intelligent business coursebook pre-intermediate*. Harlow, Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

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Appendix: List of Textbooks Analyzed

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Barnard, R., & Cady, J. (2009). *Business venture 2* (3rd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

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Dignen, B., Flinders, S., & Sweeney, S. (2004). F*or work and life English 365 students book 1.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hollet, V. (2001). *Quick Work*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Grant, D., & Hudson, J. (2009). *Business result intermediate*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ibbotson, M., & Stephens, B. (2005). *Business Start-up 1*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Johnson, C. (2006). *Intelligent business coursebook pre-intermediate*. Harlow, Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

Knight, G., & O'Neil, M. (2002). *Business explorer 2*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

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Developing institutional relationships through ER

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Ruzicka, D., & Brierley, M. (2012). Developing institutional relationships through ER. In K. Bradford-Watts, R. Chartrand, & E. Skier (Eds.), *The 2011 Pan-SIG Conference Proceedings*. Matsumoto: JALT.

Abstract
This paper will present an overview of some of the triumphs and set-backs that have punctuated the seven-year history of a project to promote extensive reading (ER) in a former national Japanese university. For several years, ER was an integral and compulsory part of the main general English course. We discuss the institutional framework supporting the ER programme and describe how we have developed other kinds of cross-institutional support for ER by building relationships horizontally, outside the hierarchy of the curriculum, with both the library services and with developers working in e-learning.
この論文は、ある地方の国立大学で７年にわたり多読（ER）プログラムを推進した際に経験した成功と挫折を概観したものである。最初の数年間、ER は総合英語コースの主要部分を占め、必修であった。先ず、ER を支えた制度的枠組みを論じ、次に、いかにして、カリキュラムの上下関係を超えて、図書館のサービスや e ラーニングを研究開発している人たちと、横のつながりを構築するにいたったかを説明する。

Keywords: Extensive Reading, institutional support, library services, e-learning

For the past seven years, since 2005, we have been involved in a project to promote extensive reading (ER) as a method of second language acquisition in a Japanese university. This paper is an attempt to tell the story of this project in terms of a set of relationships. More precisely, the aim is to explore how our interest in ER became a catalyst in the emergence of collaborative relationships between teachers and various other groups within the university. To some extent, the central theme of the analysis we present here focuses on the conflicts and the mutual interests which bind individuals to the institutional framework in which they have to work. Organizing the account into a linear progression is problematic because of the inevitably high degree of overlap. For example, our relationship with the library has developed as a result of the books we have been able to purchase with research funds obtained through our collaboration with the e-learning centre.

In essence, the challenges that we faced fall into two broad categories, one to do with the practical issues of managing the material resource constituted by the books, and the other to do with questions of human resource management.

The success of any extensive reading programme will depend, obviously, on having access to the requisite reading material, which in the SLA context, initially at least, means graded readers. Ideally, one should aim to create an environment as rich in resources as that proposed by Krashen (2004) where he conjures up the image of the *super-library*. The problems we encountered in trying to grow this forest of texts from a desert are doubtless typical, but here too we shall try to recount our experiences in a way that allows us to analyze how the institutional structures in which we found ourselves constrained and enabled the choices we made.

Relationship I: The University Bookshop

Students buying books and ownership

One of our most important institutional partners throughout the evolution of the ER programme has been the University Coop Bookshop. Like many former national universities in Japan, the on-campus bookstore belongs to the national Coop chain and as such is run according to a set of operating practices that are beyond the control of the individuals that we dealt with in our local branch. On the whole, the bookshop functions more as a warehouse than a retailer. Its principal task is to process the orders that it receives from teachers for the texts that they have decided their students will use each term. This means that for the most part the bookshop buys copies of books that it knows it is guaranteed to sell; and because it usually buys large numbers of the same title it expects to be able to return any unsold stock to the publisher.

Many of the problems we encountered in the first two years of working with the bookshop to supply our students with graded readers had to do with the fact that, rather than the teacher ordering, say, thirty copies of the same textbook, each student was ordering a different title. In the first instance, we faced two main issues, both extremely straightforward: how to find the funds to buy the books and then where to put them. We began with no institutional support and hence no funds. We had little choice, therefore, but to begin by asking the students themselves to buy graded readers. Students are invariably required to purchase textbooks for their English courses, and the cost of one graded reader was considerably less than that of the coursebooks that students are usually required to buy. What was different was that we wanted the students to share the books with each other and then at the end of the course to donate them to our nascent *library*. Neither of these goals were particularly difficult to achieve. Students were asked to read the books they had bought and then to give them to the teacher, who initially kept the books in a box, from which students could choose another book.

In our context there are two distinct groups who have chosen the books which have been purchased: students and the teachers running the project. The most immediate advantage of getting the students to choose and buy the books is that it gives them a sense of ownership of the whole project. After all, students rarely find themselves in the position of being able to choose their textbooks; these choices are invariably made by their teachers. At the same time, though, the students' choices were not entirely unconstrained. They were only permitted to choose titles from the levels at which the teachers had determined it was appropriate for them to be reading.

In 2007, and for the next two years, we persuaded the bookshop that it was easier than taking individual orders from hundreds of students to take one large, complex book order from us, then display the range of books on their shelves for students to choose from. While still allowing a great deal of choice for students, this increased our control of the books that students would buy, and that would end up in our pool of books.

Choosing levels

Our sense of which levels were appropriate for our students evolved over the course of the first couple of years of the programme. In the first instance, we simply guessed and steered the students towards the first and second levels of the series produced by the major publishing houses: Oxford Bookworms, Penguin Readers and Cambridge Readers. At a later stage, and especially after making use of the tests developed by the Edinburgh Project on Extensive Reading (EPER), we came to the conclusion that a lowering of expectations was in order and we began to build up our stocks of starter level books. Table 1 shows our students' results on the EPER Extensive Reading test (see Brierley, 2007). We were also influenced in this decision by the reaction of Professor Kunihide Sakai to the disproportionate numbers of what he pointed out were unrealistically high-level readers. This is just one instance of the invaluable advice we have received over the years from Professor Sakai, whose enthusiasm and wisdom have been a constant source of inspiration. (See, for example, Sakai & Kanda, 2005).

Table 1. Student Scores on the EPER Extensive Reading Test.

Score on Extensive Reading Tests	EPER Level	% A class students (131)	% B class students (81)	Equivalent Oxford / Cambridge Level
51 and over	Above D	13.7%	2.5%	Level 3
42-50	D	23.7%	3.7%	Level 2
28-41	E	38.9%	48.1%	Oxford level 1
27 and less	Below E	22.9%	43.2%	Penguin level 1

Relationship II: The English Department

Learner autonomy and task-based learning

If we had to point to just one pedagogical concept underlying our decision to incorporate ER into our syllabi it would be that of learner-centred teaching. Long before becoming interested in ER we had been experimenting with task-based group work and student-generated content. Our sense of the educational environment in which most students have been immersed in the period prior to university was of an institutional setting that afforded few opportunities for self-expression. Extensive reading, which generally entails leaving the choices about what books are read to the students rather than to the teacher, seemed to us to offer a ready-made framework through which to promote learner autonomy. At around the time that the ER programme was getting off the ground in 2004, we even hosted a two-day conference on learner-centred teaching.

In the first two years of the ER project, when the numbers of students were still relatively small, we experimented with ways to use the initial purchase of the books at the beginning of the term as a classroom activity in its own right with teaching goals that went beyond the immediate objective of augmenting our stock of graded readers. With the generous cooperation of the sales representatives of Oxford and Penguin we were able to obtain a supply of catalogues sufficient to allow every student in a class of thirty to select the book they wanted from a perusal of the catalogue. This in itself proved to be an interesting reading activity for the students, not least because, probably for the first time for most of them, they were being asked to read in English in order to make a choice that would reflect their own individual interests and that had as its goal the acquisition of a concrete object: the book. In short, it was not only a clearly defined task-based activity but a real task, one in which the students, albeit to the fairly modest tune of 600 yen, were investing their own financial resources.

We also organized the students into groups for this activity, which allowed them both to discuss their choices and learn together how to decode the information in the catalogues, and also to practice from an early stage in the development of the class's social dynamics how to take collective responsibility for completing tasks. This involved choosing a group leader charged with collecting money from the group members and submitting the order to the university bookshop. The core of the activity, however, involved intensive listening practice for the students as the teacher instructed them how to go about achieving the goal of the lesson. Some areas of the task were complex and involved the students in processes of negotiation with each other. They were told, for example, to make sure that no two people in the group chose the same book. In addition, they were also expected to come to grips rapidly with the terminology used to designate literary genres and to learn how to judge the contents of a book on the basis of the cover artwork and brief summary supplied by the catalogue. It would have been difficult to measure the motivational value of all this, but as far as giving the students a sense of *ownership* of the project this was clearly one of the high points of the last seven years.

One of the key transitional moments in the development of the programme occurred in 2005 with the start of a new 5-year cycle in the curriculum. The previous year, the University had taken the unprecedented step of creating a new position for an English specialist who would concentrate on developing a new curriculum. The result was a menu of new English courses from which the University's eight faculties would choose those they felt best met the needs of their students. The most popular course turned out to be the Comprehensive English course for which half of the faculties opted. This was to be a rigorously standardized course that entailed teachers all using the same material, created by a committee of teachers. We became deeply involved in the development of this course and were able to make extensive reading a central component.

The most immediate consequence of these developments was that there were now over a thousand students for whom ER was a mandatory part of their English curriculum. We also benefitted from funds available for curriculum development. Some of this money was used for buying graded readers for the Library and for the booktrucks; some was used for staff development projects, including two invitations to Professor Sakai to give talks to teachers on ER pedagogy.

To some extent, the inclusion of ER in this radical new curriculum was a poisoned chalice. While this launched ER into prominence at the beginning of the five-year cycle, ER was targeted in the inevitable criticism towards the end as the next five-year cycle loomed with its own radical changes.

Assessment

The most contentious area with regard to the teacher-student relationship clearly had to do with assessment. This is a subject on which we have already published several papers (see Brierley, Wakasugi, & Sato, 2009; Brierley, 2010; Brierley, Ruzicka, Sato, & Wakasugi, 2010; Brierley, Kubota, & Uchikawa, 2011).

Relationship III: The ERS Project

Around the same time that the Sogo Eigo course was being developed, the University began to invest in expanding its e-learning facilities and we started to collaborate with the e-learning support team in order to experiment with ways to use the BlackBoard learner management system (LMS) to provide teachers with an online spreadsheet through which grades for shared classes could be combined according to a standardized procedure.

As ER was a central pillar of the curriculum, it was decided to add an ER component to the standardized assessment. Initially, students were given points for each book report they submitted, with one point for each report and a further point depending on how convincingly the report demonstrated that they had read the book. This seemed to be unfair both within and between classes as different levels of books were of different lengths, and teachers' evaluation of books reports ranged from the awarding of full marks for every report from every student, to a strict grading of the quality of the student's writing (see Brierley & Ruzicka, 2008).

As a result, we changed from counting books to counting words. This presented a challenge to teachers, who were given lists of word-counts for books, and provided with forms on which students could keep a record of their reading. We also began to develop the ERS (Extensive Reading System), an online system with the immediate aim of adding up how many words each student read quickly, easily and, hopefully, accurately (Brierley, Wakasugi & Sato, 2009). Teachers were encouraged to use the online system, although some preferred to continue using the paper-based systems that they had invested a lot of time getting used to. Around this time, an institutional shift moved control of e-learning from the Centre of General Education to the IT department of the Engineering Faculty. The LMS was switched from Blackboard to Moodle, and teachers had to learn a new system, into which they were required to input an ever-changing set of assessment criteria.

As well as mechanically counting books, the online system also enabled us to keep track of which books students were borrowing, simplifying the elaborate class borrowing systems that had been developed. In addition to word counts, the system could record students' comments on books, and make these available not only to the teacher, but also to other students. We believed this would create a sense of community, allowing students to identify themselves with a large body of reading peers.

As far as the IT department were concerned, ERS provided a software development project for a team of graduate students that has gained and lost members each year. It also provided a basis for a successful *kakenhi* project that has brought further government funds into the IT Department and the Language Centre.

The ERS has been through three versions. The first included student book records and word counting, with student totals sent automatically to the relevant grade sheet in Moodle. Version 2 saw many improvements in terms of user interface and graphics, and the addition of community functions. A book recommendation system was added to show students what other people who had read the same books were reading. Version 3, currently in development, has attempted to move the system onto a Social Networking System (SNS) platform, so that built-in community functions may be used rather than built from scratch.

Although the relationship with the IT department and its graduate students provides mutual benefit by giving teachers a system that will help them, and giving the IT department a real-world project with a large body of users, the agendas of the teachers and technicians are quite different. Software development is inevitably a time-consuming process, punctuated by small steps forward and occasional lurches backwards, and beset by cures that will cause ills elsewhere. As far as users are concerned, close to 100% perfection is required (illustrated in figure 1). Teachers want the system to work when they log in, and they want their students to be able to use it without encountering problems. As far as developers are concerned, the most interesting part of the development cycle is at the beginning. Research papers are written about design and not debugging.

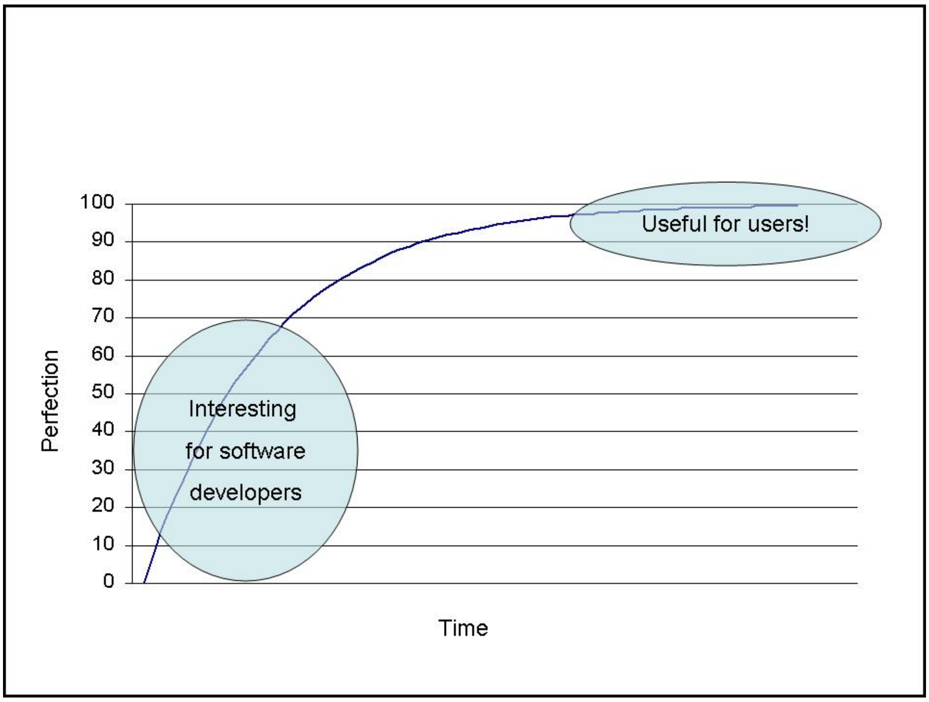

Figure 1. The perfection curve relating software development with desires of developers and desires of users.

As each version has been introduced, teachers have wanted many of the functions to remain the same, while the developers have wanted to add new functions. For the teachers, the notion of communities is one of groups of people, while for developers it suggests functions within software.

While the relationship with software engineers has been developing, the system failed to meet its full potential as many teachers preferred not to use computers, and instead opted to use paper-based systems that they had developed, customized and incorporated into their classroom management routines.

The ERS provided virtual solutions to many problems. However, books are real objects. While we believed the computer system would solve our problems with depleted stock, in fact we lost even more as it was being implemented. We suspect this was due to too much faith in the computer system's ability to solve our problems with book administration, and a failure to maintain the existing paper-based systems, and a lack of communication with the teachers who were expected to act as librarians.

Relationship IV: The library

In this section we first look at the development of our own library, and then show how we collaborated with the university library.

Booktrucks

If Professor Sakai was able to offer us an assessment of our "library" it was due in part to the fact that our books by this stage were no longer housed in cardboard boxes but on purpose-built "booktrucks" making it possible to see at a glance that there was a preponderance of level one and two books, and very few starters. By this point, we had a small fleet of these mobile delivery units, all thanks to the generous development funds intended to facilitate the introduction of the new five-year cycle in the curriculum.

In all we purchased some half a dozen booktrucks, not quite enough to enable every teacher to have their own truck at all times, but enough to raise our profile. There is nothing like a roomful of tastefully pastel-coloured new hardware to enhance your visibility and motivate your colleagues, who, instead of having to lug their CD-player and computer to the classroom, could now sail off down the corridor behind a resplendent mobile library with all their gear neatly stowed next to an appealingly colourful array of graded readers. We were also able to influence the administration to allocate classrooms in the same building as the room where the booktrucks were stored, which had an elevator, so that the books did not need to take journeys across campus.

Books in the classroom

In our eyes, the point of the booktrucks, besides boosting our image, was to provide a means of delivering books to the classroom. From the earliest stages of the programme, we had always felt that it was important that the students should be choosing the books they wanted to read in the classroom with the participation both of their peers and the teacher. To this end, we recommended that teachers take the books off the booktrucks and lay them out on the desks, grouped by publisher and level, so that students could browse and move among the books more easily, rather as if they were in a bookshop. Most teachers, we suspect, chose to ignore this advice and preferred to keep the books on the booktruck.

Those of us, however, who did allow the books to spill out from the containment of the booktruck found that there were a number of activities, besides that of simply allowing the students to browse, that could be constructed from the raw material of the books. Getting the students themselves to lay the books out, for example, gave them an opportunity to become more familiar with the range of titles and with the differences between the lists of the various publishers. Another ploy was to ask a group of students to arrange the stock according to genre, which taught them to think critically about what we mean by genre and to find ways of categorizing books which seemed to exhibit features of more than one genre.

The funds which accompanied the introduction of the new curriculum in 2005 also meant, as we have said, that we were able to spend university money on books. Nonetheless, it was not possible to supply over a thousand students with graded readers without also continuing to get the students themselves to buy and donate books to the programme. Initially, we continued to get students to choose the books themselves from catalogues during the orientation lessons. Later, as our relationship with the University bookshop developed, the catalogues became unnecessary and we no longer needed to devote a whole class to students choosing books.

The problem of attrition and the security of the library

There are some preliminary remarks that need to be made here concerning cultural attitudes to reading matter. Japan is a very print-rich nation with a high literacy rate. The circulation of national newspapers is enormous, with the Yomiuri Shimbun reckoned to have the largest circulation of any newspaper in the world (Wikipedia gives a circulation of over 14,000,000 in 2002 for the morning and evening editions combined). Books, magazines and newspapers are affordable and read in vast quantities. Indeed, printed matter is so readily available that the Japanese often appear to undervalue it, viewing reading matter as disposable. This has had two consequences for our project. In the first place, it has meant that whenever we have asked students to share the books they bought or to donate them to some communal store, they have done so apparently without complaint. They do not, it would seem, become particularly attached to the books we ask them to buy. On the other hand, though, this has also meant that they sometimes fail to value the books enough to be able to remember to return them to us after they have borrowed them.

During the booktruck phase of the programme, and indeed even before that, we experimented with various systems for keeping track of books. We designed and printed borrowing sheets and gave each teacher a file with sheets customized for each of their classes. The booktrucks were colour coded and teachers allocated a particular stock of books so that they would feel more responsible for making sure that their particular section of the library was well looked after.

Here again, some of us discovered that we could exploit the necessity of recording the students' borrowing as a pretext for group-oriented activities. Perhaps the most effective procedure entailed giving a different group of four students every week the task of laying out the books and ensuring that their peers signed their books out correctly.

All told, these measures proved relatively successful during the period in which ER was a mandatory component of the standardized curriculum. However, as resistance towards the imposition of a centrally planned programme grew and the various prescriptions began to be dismantled, teachers who were skeptical with regard to the value of ER were able to remove it from their syllabus. Where previously the fact that some thirty or so teachers were all doing roughly the same thing had bred a certain sense of community and shared responsibility, the erosion of this state of affairs and the emergence of a situation in which it was sometimes difficult to know who was doing ER and who wasn't, now made the task of monitoring the movement of the books less feasible. At the end of the year, we found that rather than maintaining a steadily growing library, we had lost hundreds of graded readers. This was the chief reason why we decided to deposit the bulk of our stock of books in the University Library.

By this stage, we had already developed a good relationship with the Library because we had been using university funds to buy graded readers to be deposited not only in the main Library on the central campus but also in the outlying campuses. Apart from the fact that, evidently, the acquisition of reading material suited to the students needs is a major part of the Library's remit, there are two specific factors that contributed to the success of our collaboration with this institution. Firstly, a part of the Library's acquisition policy entails the soliciting of recommendations from academic faculty. As far as we know, however, the lists of books received from teaching and research staff falls short of the budget that the Library needs to spend. As a result, the Library is always highly appreciative of any guidance that might help it to decide how to meet its expenditure targets. This might seem to have little bearing on the books that we have either donated to the Library or else purchased for them with the University funds we have received. In fact, though, simply demonstrating to the Library that there is a keen interest among both students and teachers in having access to as large a selection as possible of graded readers has meant that when we have recommended that the Library also employs some of its own funds to acquire ER texts, our recommendations have been welcomed.

The second factor here is that the Library is also strongly committed to finding ways to increase student uptake of their services. In recent years, there have been some dismal statistics in this regard, suggesting that the average first-year student was borrowing just one book a year. In these circumstances, it is hardly surprising that the Library looks favourably on our decision to deposit our graded readers on Library shelves and to encourage students to borrow them as often as they can. From the Library's point of view, low-level graded readers, produced to be read quickly and in large quantities, offer an affordable solution to the problem of how to improve their user statistics. And for us, having the graded readers in the Library, which is tireless and somewhat draconian in chasing up students who fail to return books, has meant that we need no longer fear that our laboriously accumulated treasury of reading matter is going to dissipate due to student negligence. It might also be that the ER programme has meant that students who would normally never have visited the library now do so regularly, and may also have begun to borrow other kinds of books.

The university has several campuses, although all first-year students are on the central campus and use the central library. Central library borrowing figures for the month of June 2010 show that of the ten most borrowed books from Economics students, who spend all their years in the central campus but are involved with the Extensive reading programme for just one semester in the second year, four were graded readers. For faculties where students move to a different campus from the second year, the central library borrowing figures are even more impressive: five of the top ten books borrowed by first-year Engineering students are graded readers, and ER books made up nine out of the top ten books for Education Faculty first years.

While most of the readers are now in the library, some starters have been kept on book trucks because some teachers continue to want to take books into their classrooms. These books are used by students who have no book for reading sessions, and for activities relating to reading, such as measuring reading speed.

During the last seven years, the supply of books has gradually been removed from the classroom, initially as student book orders gave way to teacher book orders, and then as the library of books moved from our book trucks to the university library. Along with a great sense of relief among teachers at the reduction of responsibility—they no longer needed to be booksellers or librarians—this change was accompanied by a sense of loss. In spite of the utilitarianism of the status quo, the processes of choosing books, whether from catalogues or book trucks, and the fact that these processes took place in the classroom, gave ER a sense of importance and meaning that we must now find new ways to create.

Conclusion

If there is a single thread that runs through the tangled skein of our narrative, it is that of the teacher's authority. From the outset, our interest in learner autonomy was always on some level a challenge to the value attached to the figure of the teacher in Japanese society. Our experience of trying to manage a standardized curriculum provided us with invaluable insights into teachers' deep-seated need for autonomy and their instinctive resistance to any infringement on their freedoms on the part of external authorities.

As a method of language acquisition, ER is in a sense the last word in learner autonomy. Taken to its logical conclusion, it ought to render the teacher obsolete. As Krashen (2004) observes:

> We don't need return business in the language education profession. Our goal in foreign language pedagogy is to bring students to the point where they are autonomous acquirers, prepared to continue to improve on their own. (p. 6)

It is all too easy to imagine how resistance to ER among teachers in Japan might arise simply because it is perceived, even in its earliest phases, as gesturing towards a situation in which the learner no longer depends on the teacher's authority.

Our ultimate goal is to create a comprehensive self-access, self-study package that will take the learner from zero to fluency entirely through a process of reading for pleasure. With this goal in mind, the important relationships for the future are with the library, which can provide books, and IT engineers who can deliver the tools that can connect readers to suitable reading materials, and enable them to engage with a community of readers.

Biodata

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Masculinity and the desire to acquire English

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Abstract
What is the relationship between gender and the acquisition of a second and foreign language? How does the acquisition of a foreign language relate to the learner's identity? Within mainstream L2 motivation research, these questions of gender and identity have yet to be adequately addressed. This is particularly troubling since in the past five years interest in identity and the L2 self have been the most highly written about topics in the field. The reason why researchers have avoided the topic of gender and motivation is due in large part to the restrictions of the privileged methodology, psychometrics. This paper introduces an alternative approach to gender and motivation based in psychoanalysis and Marxist theory. Data from a discussion between three men is introduced and discussed to highlight the ways in which they construct their masculinity in regard to the acquisition of English.
ジェンダーはどのように第二言語習得に関わっているか。その習得過程はどのように学習者のアイデンティティに影響があるか。第二言語学習におけるモチベーション研究は、主に社会心理学に基づいてきたが、この二つの問題は今まで明白にしていない。なぜなら、主流モチベーション研究方法は心理統計学が優先されているので、ジェンダーというのはただ男性か女性かその性的二形に限られている。本論文は、精神分析学やマルクス主義により人々が歴史的・社会的・経済的に構成されているかを考察する。ジェンダーも社会的に構成され、多様性があると論じる。英語習得する欲動と男らしさの密接な関わりが男のディスカッションで互いに構成されるデータを紹介して分析する。

Keywords: Language acquisition, masculinity, gender and identity

The decentered subject and desire

Gender: Not just another individual difference

While the influence of input and output on second and foreign language (L2) acquisition is to a certain extent easy to model and observe through experimental procedures, things such as the interrelationship between gender, class, and social status and their influence on the desire to acquire an L2 may better be approached by using tools from other disciplines (See, for example, Atkinson, 2011; Norton, 2000; Norton Peirce, 1995; Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2004; Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000; and Pavlenko et al., 2001). The ability of psychometrics to adequately explain the role of gender in motivation is particularly problematic, given that major studies which make claims about gender within the hypothetical construct of motivation tend to reduce gender to biological sex, and thus fall into the dual traps of simplifying gender as the possession of a certain genital configuration and reinforcing or repackaging stereotypes about men and women. (See, for example, Baker & McIntyre, 2000; Corbin & Chiachiere, 1997; Dornyei & Clement, 2001; Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Mori & Gobel, 2006; Oxford et al., 1993; Warden & Lin, 2000.)

This paper introduces the author's own approach to understanding the complex and interconnected relationship between gender, subjectivity, and the desire to acquire a foreign language (in particular English) as it is produced and maintained by individuals and groups through discourse. After briefly introducing the most relevant theoretical background that informs this approach, a section of conversational discourse will be introduced and analyzed.

The gendered subject of desire

For Lacan (2006), the psychical coexistence of the unconscious and the conscious highlights that the subject is decentered. Agency is animated by the unconscious. As such, it is the unconscious that is the motor energizing the individual in his/her desire, the primary function of which is what Lacan calls a "want-to-be" (*manque-à-être*). This feeling of incompleteness is formed in the Imaginary when the young child—who has to this point experienced his/her body as fragmented and lacking control—recognizes his/her independence from the Mother. Unfortunately, this epiphany also brings with it a realization of loss, and the pain of the separation from the mother provides the catalyst for action as the subject endeavors to fill this hole in his/her self.

What comes between the individual and his/her attempt to recapture this illusory image of wholeness is language. Within the Symbolic Order (the sign system of language) the individual becomes a socialized being by taking up a subject position. Language, Lacan argues, alienates us, but at the same time language is necessary for us to become subjects. While the accession to language bestows upon the individual a place in the world in relation to other individuals, these positions have no a priori relationship to us; rather we must fit ourselves into them in order to function as socialized beings. Thus, although we want to think of ourselves as unique and ahistorical beings, this is never possible because it is language that has already constituted us before our births and sets horizons upon the way that we can interact with other people.

Althusser (1972) reads the Lacanian subject within the framework of Marxist theories on the modes of reproduction. In particular, he argues that it is the function of ideology to reproduce the relations of production, and it is through ideology that social structures are reproduced thereby ensuring that there is a continuation of the relations between individuals that favor one group economically, politically, and socially over others. The process of submission of the individual to ideology is called *interpellation*, by which Althusser means that the main function of ideology is to create subjects; however, the real power of ideology is its ability to constitute the very organizations, institutions, and practices that permeate our daily lives, beginning with the family and extending to legal, cultural, and educational institutions. Since ideology so completely pervades all aspects of our public and private lives, it invisibly influences the ways in which we interact with others and reflect upon our own actions and desires. Thus, ideology has two opposing functions: it is the signifying system that allows us to articulate our subjectivity, but in doing so we become complicit in maintaining the power of privileged classes and the status quo.

For Lorber (1994), gender is also a social institution that neither originates in biological differences between two sexes nor is it based upon sexual reproduction. Instead, she argues that gender is a social structure that traces its genesis back to the development of human culture. Being an institution, gender “establishes patterns of expectations for individuals, orders the social processes of everyday life, is built into the major social organizations of society” (p. 1); and as such, gendered subjectivities are closely entwined with ideology in the apparatuses and practices associated with them.

Thus, doing gender entails two important points for us. The first of these is that individuals are born into a gendered world in which his/her horizons of subjectivity are delimited. A child's world is gendered from the outset, and he/she is raised in culturally specific gendered ways. Second, as he/she becomes an adult he/she may (or may not) behave, speak, consume in a manner that reproduces existing gendered subjectivities that are created by institutions and their associated ideologies that ensure the perpetuation of inequalities between groups in society.

Thus, gender ought to be seen as an ongoing process that is grounded in the material world, encompassing both the physical (biological sex, the body, and sexuality) and the social (how gender roles are constructed, regulated, and maintained by society, groups, and individuals) (Connell, 2009). For Lacan, subjectivity is gendered in both the Imaginary and Symbolic orders. In the Imaginary, the subject sees itself as lacking something that will make it complete, and that object of desire is seen as being part of the Other (prototypically the mother). Masculine structure, the one with which this paper is concerned, is defined simply by the "*non*/*nom du pere*," or the "no/name of the Father" by which he enters the Symbolic. The homophony in French tethers two meanings, both of which are essential aspects of the subject's accession to the realm of language and ideology. This Lacan explains in a rereading of Freud's Oedipus complex. What comes between the subject and his desired object is the symbolic Father. This "'no' of the Father" is the prohibition against taking the mother as his sexual object. The Symbolic is also where the individual takes his place as an always-already made subject, and the "name of the Father" refers to how the child takes the name that was waiting for him before birth, giving a place for him in society but also setting limits on his desires and actions for fulfilling those desires.

In Lacanian psychoanalysis, sexual difference is defined by the relationship of the subject to the Other and the symbolic and this difference is psychical rather than biological (Ragland, 2004). For Lacan the two neuroses, obsession and hysteria, represent the prototypical masculine and feminine structures respectively. In the most extreme form of the masculine structure, the obsessive-compulsive, Fink (1997) argues, "[*d*]*esire is impossible in obsession*, because the closer the obsessive gets to realizing his desire…the more the Other begins to take precedence over him, eclipsing him as a subject. The presence of the Other threatens the obsessive with what Lacan calls *aphanisis*,[i] his fading or disappearing as a subject" (p. 124). For the obsessive-compulsive, the urge is to remove or annihilate the Other thereby removing the Other as an impediment to taking the object. Although when taken to excess obsession will be come debilitating to the individual, even for the *normal* individual there will always be the tension between the underlying structure of desire and societal rules and norms setting limits upon behavior.

Summary

By recognizing that gender is not a closed set of two complementary biological sexes but rather a complex psychical and social phenomenon, we can overcome the limitations of the view that gender is a strict biological dimorphism to which mainstream L2 motivation research is bound because of its intractable devotion to cognitive science and psychometrics. Seen from this position, we must on the one hand acknowledge that the desire to acquire English is no different from any other type of desire since all desires originate in the same place with the same underlying structure, while on the other hand English has socioeconomic and cultural meanings that impinge directly upon subjectivity in the way that it permeates society at various levels.

Co-constructing a masculine desire to acquire English

Background and research procedures

The data presented here is drawn from a guided discussion between three men in a pre-departure EAP program in Osaka. The group was given a set of questions to guide their discussion. The discussions (approximately 45 minutes in length) were in Japanese. The audiotaped discussions were later transcribed for close analysis.

Data

In the section of the discussion under consideration here, the three participants are responding to a question that asked them about their future goals with regard to their study of English. Takayuki takes the first turn and talks about his goal of working in the visual arts.

> […] They have a great impression, posters that you gaze at, like that, and movies, the trailers for movies, the trailers, there are movies that you feel, "Wow! I really want to see it," aren't there? That kind of movie, I want to make them and communicate with people. […]

Making the trailers for movies, Takayuki explains, has the ability to make people feel, "Wow! I really want to see that." English will be useful for studying abroad, since he sees America as being more technically advanced, and to get the same skills in Japan he would have to study at a technical school (which usually do not include English in the curriculum). Takayuki sums up his desire to acquire English as being able to "make the things I want with Japanese sensibility to make foreigners say, 'Wow!'"

Yasunari takes the second turn and begins by speaking at length about his bad relationship with his family, a situation that increasingly worsened as his performance in high school deteriorated. Even now in the EAP program, he says that his family and others mock him for not being able to speak English.

> […] My goal is to show them." My father said repeatedly, "Quit school!" Really, he did, because I didn't study. So there were rather a lot of times that we fought. About the future, recently with my father [we've fought about] the future. "What will become of you in the future?" Like that, he's started to talk like that. […] It's just that he started [to learn English] two or three years ago, but…
>
> Hiroyuki: Your father
>
> Yasunari: Yeah, two or three years [ago] he started, somehow, for his job. It's that he uses English. But it's not that his English is good. Like Indians, somehow, and Arabs. Normally, he's speaking in Japanese, Japanese, "*ai amu a suchuudento*," like that. It's like that. You can't understand it. If you only hear that kind of English, you can't come to understand it. It's not perfect, and as he speaks like that I'm laughing at it. He's thinking, "I'm really cool," like that. Well, my father has gotten a bit older and well, it's not easy for him. Like that.

Yasunari's goal of acquiring English is for people who have had a bad opinion of him to look at him as being cool, and by doing so he will be able to show them that their assessment of him was wrong. Foremost among his detractors is his father who has predicted that Yasunari will probably quit the program because he is not studying hard. At this point Yasunari begins to talk about his father who began studying English a few years earlier. In Yasunari's estimation, his father speaks with stereotypical Japanese pronunciation and no one could learn English listening to that kind of English. Yasunari's father seems to think that his own speaking skill is cool. In the end, Yasunari comes around by admitting that he wants to make something of himself and show filial piety toward his father perhaps out of pity that his father at such an age is just now fumbling about with English.

The final response to this discussion question is given by Hiroyuki. Hiroyuki begins to answer the question directly by saying that he just wants to go to university abroad and graduate without any difficulties. At this point, Hiroyuki abruptly begins to talk about his childhood dream of becoming a policeman.

> Hiroyuki: […] As for me, as for English, in the future, uh, English, somehow, anyway, as for my objective now, my objective now is to, anyway, uhh, university, be able to go to a university […] Of course, since long ago my dream was to become a police officer, a police officer, somehow, a normal, not like the *koban* over there, that type of police officer, somehow, but a position that is involved with international crime. Even in Japan, really. I want to get that kind of position and somehow, I want to confront evil, like that. […] For the time being, somehow, somehow, I aspire to be a police officer, since long ago, since I was in elementary school I've longed to be one, of course, I want to be one, a police officer that is, a police officer.

Sensing that Hiroyuki is straying from the point, Yasunari nudges him back by asking him how being a policeman relates to acquiring English, and through an interesting exchange the two are able flesh out a way in which being a policeman would require the use of English, namely working in the international office. Hiroyuki then relates a news story about an arrest of members of a Korean gang in Tokyo and muses that he, too, would like to be in on the arrest of criminals who upset peaceful neighborhoods. Yasunari comments that working in such circumstances could be difficult, if not life-threatening.

> Hiroyuki: It probably is, right? I want to try to shoot a gun. If you're a man, if you're a man, if you're a man one time, well, even if you don't become a police officer, you can shoot one in Korea, when I went there recently, well there was a place where you could shoot a gun. I didn't shoot one, but it was that there were places where you could shoot them. Shooting ranges, anyone, if you are over 18. That too, anyway, guns, well, I have an interest in them. It's not that, but one time I want to shoot one, like that. I think in my life, you see, America, well, if I go to university [there], of course and I graduate from

the university, a big, somehow, I think it will be a big plus for me, I…

Yasunari: It will, it will.

In the several lines that follow, Hiroyuki talks about acquiring English as a opportunity to improve himself and then maybe even taking time off from being a policeman to join the Overseas Youth Cooperative. Hiroyuki laments the current state of Japan and the fact that even though Japan is a peaceful nation, he himself has not experienced a "rich" (*yutaka*) life. After Takayuki agrees with this, Hiroyuki talks at length about his current study habits expressing that he often wastes time, ends up watching TV instead of buckling down to his studies and procrastinates with his homework assignments, contrasting himself with other, hardworking students. In the end, Hiroyuki sums up that he wants to be able to really speak English and experience other cultures abroad. In other words, as Hiroyuki concludes, he wants to be able use English to study international relations. As he and the other two men come to agreement, they all want to "make use of it" or "become alive" (*ikashitai*).[ii]

Analysis

As developed in their discussion, the object of desire, English, the idea of using English as a tool to achieve other objectives is pronounced and reminds us that one of the key findings of mainstream L2 motivation research suggests that male learners tend to exhibit more instrumental orientations in contrast to their female counterparts. Thus, the data here seem to support this conclusion, however, interpreting the reasons why this should be the case is beyond the scope of psychometrics. Here, the interpretation will suggest that while multiple masculinities exist in Japanese society, the hegemonic version of masculinity continues to be a powerful force for institutionalizing gender construction.

In post-bubble Japan, much ado has been made of establishing equality between the sexes, primarily by enacting laws that make it easier for women to join and remain in the labor force. Likewise, laws and company practices have allowed men to spend more time at home to participate in the raising of children. In consequence, increasingly liberal attitudes toward gender roles are held by more and more men. At the same time, however, the core of what may be called a hegemonic masculinity remains relatively unchanged. To be recognized as a "man" in society entails two things: having a steady, full-time job and being married with children. Thus, man is associated with work, and woman is associated with the home. (Tanaka, 2009). This gender division of labor is part and parcel to patriarchal societies produced under capitalism, wherein man's own productivity by the mediation of tools is contrasted to that of women, and it is used to dominate women's less superior, and thus, less valued productivity (Mies, 1998).

In the foregoing discussion between the three men, each appropriates aspects of hegemonic masculinity in describing how they would like to change in the future. For Takayuki, his primary goal is his work and being recognized by others (particularly foreigners). English, though the initial object of desire, is only important insofar as it part of a larger desire to gain recognition. While Takayuki echoes the conventional masculine ideal of work as being one's reason for living (*ikigai)*, his expressed desire to grab the attention or control the gaze of others is a striking reminder that within Lacan's psychoanalytic theory the subject's desire is to be the desire of the Other (*le désir de l'Autre*); it is the subjects attempt to fill the lack in it's own being by becoming what the Other desires. The other two men in the discussion also speak to the importance of work in becoming men and the role that English acquisition plays in facilitating that. Within the hegemonic version of masculinity, masculine desire is to make use of English to prop up or actualize elements of what is still widely thought essential to becoming and being a man in Japanese society. Yet, in the discussion we witness that the object of desire is continually slipping behind or under other objects. This is accomplished most dramatically by Hiroyuki when he draws upon perhaps the most stereotypically masculine occupation, the policeman, which seems to hold ultimate power over life and death as symbolized in the gun. As Hiroyuki emphasizes, "If you're a man…" you have to shoot a gun at least once, although he himself had yet to do so.

In his follow-up interview, however, Hiroyuki confessed that his expressed dream of becoming a policeman had no direct relevance to his current career goals, and in fact after he left the EAP program he went to the United States and studied to get a pilot's license, his actual long-held dream. How canonical images of masculinities become wound up in the co-construction of masculinity through conversation reveals how true desire become displaced and frustrated when subjects take upon the task of creating public selves with objects of desire that are legitimated by dominant ideologies and the subject positions that are created by them. I would argue that what Lacan (1998) calls the fundamental fantasy is what is at the core of each of the man's desire. For

Lacan, the subject is plagued by anxiety that his pleasure or enjoyment (*jouissance*) is never enough; there is always tension between satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Just when we think we possess our object of desire we feel that we are still dissatisfied. Masculine structure of desire consists of turning the Other into an object (*objet a*) and mistakenly thinking that it can fully satisfy our desires.

In the discussion, Hiroyuki sums up what this desire is, namely to "add something" (*purasu ni naru*) to their lives. This idea of something missing returns repeatedly throughout the conversation. Takayuki reveals that what he desires is to have his work recognized by foreigners. In other words, not only does he want to be desired by the Other in possessing something which the Other desires and will grab their attention, but he also yearns for that to complete him and make him into his imaginary image. Yasunari echoes this desire in a mutated way. Clearly Yasunari harbors a lot of aggression toward his father whom he figures as directing his behavior. Recall, that Yasunari sees his father as both pushing him to study as well as at the same time as commenting that Yasunari will give up. This object of desire, English, is then appropriated by Yasunari as a way of taking power away from his father. They both want the same object of desire, but the father's attempt at getting it is portrayed by Yasunari as incomplete: his father will only ever be able to speak English as if it were Japanese (i.e. with stereotypical Japanese pronunciation). Thus, Yasunari is caught in a bind between desiring what his father wants (assuming the desires of the Other is an inevitable aspect of the formation of desire) and denying that object to his father. The unresolved rivalry between Yasunari and his father and Yasunari's inability to separate from his father's desire led Yasunari into a cycle of failure (conflict with father figures such as his bosses at part-time jobs and his teachers) and violence. Eventually, Yasunari left the school and never went to study abroad. Finally, Takayuki's desire became summed up in this dream he pulled out from the lexicon of hegemonic masculinity.

Conclusion

Obviously in an era when higher education is becoming increasingly accessible due to the declining birth rate, educators will have to deal with increasingly diverse populations of students. Moreover, as English is tied closely into the discourse of globalization and overall improvement of tertiary education, it will be important to better understand the complex interrelationship of gender and the desire to acquire

English. At the present, English and the particularly gendered desire to acquire English is inextricably linked to the patriarchal society as it is reproduced within institutions, advertising and the media, and hegemonic masculinity is an integral part of the ideological fabric of the culture and its reiteration through private discourse and lived experience helps to ensure the reproduction of gender and class inequalities.

Biodata

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Endnotes:

[1] In psychoanalysis, aphanisis is the disappearance of sexual desire. Recall that in Lacan's theory the subject is constituted in the Imaginary Order precisely because she/he realizes that he/she has a lack that prevents him/her from being a whole. Thus, without desire there can be no subject.

[2] In the original Japanese, this verb could also mean "look cool" or "look great," both of which echo various opinions that all three men have expressed throughout the discussion.

小学校英語：教科とコラボレート！
～やさしい英語で教科をテーマに～

Elementary school English: Collaborate English lessons with subject area themes

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Abstract

Since the beginning of 2011, the implementation of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) mandate for extensive, in-depth, elementary school English Education in Japan's public schools has been taking place, the goals of which are "to foster communication ability" and, in a larger sense, "to foster the attitude and capability required in a global society." Actually, many elementary schools started their own communication-oriented, English curricula, based on topics derived from everyday experience familiar to students before 2011. However, much pedagogical research has revealed that these programs are often perceived by students as being too easy, boring, and irrelevant. As one respondent to a questionnaire said, "it's boring when we do nothing but play games." These studies also indicate that the tendency for students not to take communicative English classes seriously increases as they progress through their education.

As an answer to this problem, we suggest that "content" is the culprit, and should be changed to keep pace with the cognitive development of the student. The underlining concept of these lesson plans is Content-Based Instruction (hereafter CBI) within the framework of foreign

and second language teaching pedagogy. CBI is an instruction of teaching and learning content through a foreign/second language in school settings. Pedagogically speaking, CBI can be categorized as a subordinate pedagogy of Communicative Language Teaching (hereafter CLT), both of which share a common concept: a language is most successfully learned when a learner commits to understanding and communicating within a meaningful context. A focus of CLT is on interaction in communicative settings through a target language. For example, asking "Do you like apples?" when a topic is *favorite fruit* or stating "I want to be a scientist," in response to the question, "What do you want to be when you grow up?" The purpose here is to enhance student communicative competence and to familiarize them with those target sentences. On the other hand, a focus of CBI is on learning content through the target language rather than learning the language (English, in this case).

Considering the situation, however, it does not sound realistic to directly introduce CBI into the Japanese public elementary school context. Needless to say, CBI instruction requires particular teacher training and techniques in addition to the standard instructional knowledge of teaching English as a foreign or second language. This means that it would be difficult to find teachers who can teach using a CBI approach. Thus, we created simplified content-related lesson plans to extract some of the features of CBI so that any homeroom teacher would consider them easy to do, and at the same time, students would learn subject matter through English. For example, students will not just learn expressions regarding their favorite fruit, but will also learn what type of nutrients their favorite food has and what ingredients the food contains, or in what country the food is produced, etc. All of these topics and themes are either selected from the elementary school 5th and 6th grade level textbooks, or chosen from relevant themes to match their cognitive/grade levels. In this chapter, three lesson plans are introduced as exemplars.

公立小学校の５・６年生の授業に、2011年度から正式に英語の授業が加わった。実際にはそれ以前からすでに英語活動を始めている小学校も多くあり、それらの多くでは日常的場面を想定したコミュニケーション重視の英語活動が主に行われている。筆者らは、学校の英語は簡単すぎる、ゲームや歌ばかりでつまらない、学年が上がるにつれて英語活動の質を変えていく必要がある、という現場からの声を聞き、高学年の英語の授業では、児童の知的なレベルに合った内容を盛り込まないと英語への興味を維持させることは難しいのではないかと考える。そこで、Content-Based Instructionにヒントを得て、シンプルな英語表現を学びながら、同時に高学年の教科内容についても理解を深めることが出来る指導案を作成した。これらは教科内容と英語活動をコラボレーションさせるこ

とによって、高学年で学ぶべきレベルの内容に設定されている。本稿ではその具体例を紹介し、３つのサンプル指導案を示す。

Keywords: Elementary school, content-based instruction, materials development

１．はじめに

日本の公立小学校では 2011 年度から、５・６年生のカリキュラムに正式に英語の授業が加わった。文部科学省の指針によれば、「コミュニケーションの素地を養う」こと、また「国際社会で求められる態度・能力の育成」がその大きな目標とされている（文部科学省、2008)。英語を教えるのは基本的に担任であるという方針であるため、高学年の担任教師からは、何をどうやって教えればこの目標にあった英語の授業ができるのか、といった困惑の声も聞こえている（ベネッセ教育研究開発センター、2010)。実際には 2011 年度以前からすでに英語活動を始めている小学校も数多くあり、そのような小学校ではほぼ共通して児童の日常的場面を想定したコミュニケーション重視の英語活動が行われているようである（バトラー・後藤、2005)。しかし、原（2010）の報告によると、学校の英語活動は簡単すぎるとか、ゲームや歌ばかりでつまらないと感じている児童もいて、特に一年から英語活動を行っているような学校では、高学年においてそれが顕著である。これを改善するためには、学年が上がるにつれて授業の「質」を変えていく必要があるのではないか、つまり、高学年の英語の授業ではより児童の知的なレベルに合った内容を盛り込まないと、児童の英語への興味を維持させることは難しいのではないかと考えられる。研究者らによると（例えば、Genesee, 1994；Grabe & Stoller, 1997；渡辺＆池田＆和泉，2011)、英語は学習者にとって「意味のある文脈」で使われるときに最も身につくとされるが、小学校で英語を教える際には、児童の認知的な発達が著しいという点を考慮に入れ、高学年にとっての「意味のある文脈」とは何かを考えることが必須となる。

そこで、筆者らは、内容重視教授法 Content-Based Instruction (CBI)にヒントを得て、日本の小学校高学年レベルに合わせた指導案と教材を作成した。本稿では、どのようにして CBI を日本の小学校英語に組み入れることが可能かを考察し、具体的に 20 個の指導案の例を示す。続いて、その 20 個の中から 3 つの指導案をサンプルとして紹介する。

２．内容重視教授法をどう取り入れるか

内容重視教授法 Content-Based Instruction (CBI)とは、広義には、学習者が教科などの内容を外国語・第二言語で学ぶことにより、その教科や内容について理解すると同時

にその外国語・第二言語をも学習する指導法である（Briton, Snow & Wesche, 2003, Met, 1999）。CBI には、内容と言語のどちらに比重を置くかによって様々な形態があり、例えば、Total/partial immersion のような内容中心型(Content-Driven)では、言語より教科内容の学習の方が優先され、Content-related FLES (Foreign Language in Elementary Schools) programs のような言語中心型(Language-Driven)では、教科内容より言語学習が優先される(Met, 1999)。CBI は、現行の小学校英語が多く取り入れているコミュニカティブ ランゲージ ティーチング Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)の枠組み内にあり、意味のある内容を理解したり伝達したりするときに最も外国語が習得されるという考え方に基づいている点では共通している（和泉, 2009；Wesche & Skehan, 2002）。CLT の特徴は、コミュニケーションの場面での言語使用を重視することで、例えば食べ物をテーマに "Do you like apples?" といった質問をしたり、将来の夢をテーマに "I want to be a teacher." などと言う活動をする。ここでねらいとしているのは、会話能力をつけること、および、会話表現の習得である。これに対して、CBI では、教科の内容とその教科に関連した言語表現をコミュニケーションを通して同時に習得することに焦点があてられる。「英語を学ぶ」というより、「英語で学ぶ」という考え方である。従って、小学校で学ぶ児童にとっては、数字や計算式を使う算数、実験や観察から学ぶ理科、デモンストレーションやサンプルを見ながら習得する実技教科（家庭科、図工、体育等）は特にわかりやすく、最適な材料となり得る。

ただ、CBI をそのまま現在の公立小学校の英語活動に取り入れ、教科内容を英語で教えることは現実的にはなかなか難しい。第一に内容学習の指導を英語でできる教師の確保が困難である。第二に、教科内容（例えば小数の掛け算）を日本語でも理解していない児童になぜわざわざ英語で学ばせるのか、難しすぎるのではないか、という疑問が教師や保護者の間から出ることは必至である。実際、我々が小学校教師に CBI の導入を持ちかけるとまず投げかけられるのがこの疑問である。このような日本の小学校現場の現状を踏まえ我々は、シンプルな英語表現を学びながら、同時に高学年の教科内容についても理解を深めることが出来るような、CBI のエッセンスを取り入れた指導案を作成した。例えば、"Do you like apples?"と好きな食べ物について質問する表現を学んだ後に、その食べ物がどの食品群に属し、どんな栄養価があるのかという家庭科の内容とコラボレーションさせたり、その食べ物が日本のどの地方の農産物か、あるいはどんな国から輸入している食品かという社会科の内容とコラボレーションさせることによって、高学年で学ぶべきレベルの内容に設定した。現在 20 個の指導案を作成済みで、その目次を参考資料１に示す。

３．指導案サンプル

指導案はすべて、3 時限または４時限（１時限は 45 分）で完結するように構成されているが、進み具合や各クラスの状況等によって時限数を増やしたり、減らしたりすることも可能である。また、授業始まりの挨拶やハローソング、前回の復習、質問タイムや終わりの挨拶など、毎回行う活動はそれぞれの教師のやり方に任せて、この指導案では割愛してある。本稿では、20 個の指導案の中から、「1 インチって何センチ？」、「聖徳太子はいつの時代の人？」、「これは誰の曲？」の 3 つをサンプルとして、簡略に以下に紹介する。実際の指導案には、児童の発話・教師の発話・準備すべき教材が示された上、参考資料・指導上の注意点・難易度の調整例・練習のためのゲーム方法・ワークシート・絵シート・フラッシュカードなどが添付されている。

3-1「１インチって何センチ？」(6 年生向け)

日本ではメートル法が使われてるが、身の回りには、ＴＶ画面や自転車や車のタイヤなど、インチで測られているものがある。この授業では児童が自分たちの腕の長さや手の大きさといった体の部位を測りながら、インチとセンチの関係を把握し、インチという長さの単位に馴染むことがねらいである。また、センチからインチに換算をするための小数の掛け算を英語で行い、英語での少数の言い方、掛け算式の言い方を学ぶ。目標表現は、“My arm is twenty inches / fifty centimeters.”（私の腕は 20 インチです/50 センチです。）“Two point five times two is five.” (2.5×2=5)で、目標語彙は、小数（zero point one [0.1]から ninety-nine point nine [99.9]まで）である。

授業の流れは、1 時限目に zero(0)から ninety-nine(99)までの整数を復習した後、少数の言い方 zero point one から ninety-nine point nine までを練習する。慣れてきたら、ワークシートを使って少数の掛け算を解き、“Two point five times two is five.”などと答え合わせをしながら、教師の後に続いて目標表現をリピートする。2 時限目は、インチで示される身近な品目例を見て日本でもインチが使用されていることを認識した後、周りの様々な物をインチとセンチで実際に測る活動をする。その際、インチとセンチの定規をそれぞれの児童が作成する。3 時限目は、2 時限目に作成したインチとセンチの定規を使って、自分たちの体の部位を測り、“My arm is twenty inches / fifty centimeters.”と言いながらワークシート（参考資料２参照）を埋める。４時限目は、まとめとして、少数の掛け算を英語で言いながら解く練習をし目標表現を定着させる。

3-2「聖徳太子はいつの時代の人？」(6 年生向け)

日本の歴史を英語で説明できるようになることは、グローバル社会に生きる子供たち

にとって大切なことだと考える。日本の歴史上の重要人物がどの時代に活躍したのかを知ることを内容学習のねらいとし、それを英語で言えるようになることと、He（彼）とShe（彼女）の意味を理解し使うことが出来るようになることが言語学習のねらいである。目標表現は、“This is Murasaki Shikibu. She lived in the Heian period.” (これは紫式部です。平安時代の人です。)で、目標語彙は、時代名（the Asuka period [飛鳥時代], the Edo period [江戸時代] など）である。

授業の流れは、1 時限目に英語で時代名の言い方を練習する。絵カードを見ながら、例えば “This is Horyu-ji. What period is this?” (これは法隆寺です。何時代ですか？)という質問に、“The Asuka period.” (飛鳥時代です。)と答える。2 時限目は、歴史上の人物のカードを見ながら、“This is Tokugawa Ieyasu. Did he live in the Heian period or the Edo period?” (これは徳川家康です。平安時代の人ですか、江戸時代の人ですか。)というやり取りで目標表現を練習する。3 時限目は、教師が“This is Himiko. She lived in the Yoyoi period.” (これは卑弥呼です。弥生時代の人です。)と言って卑弥呼のカードを黒板の右側に貼り、“This is Shotoku Taishi. He lived in the Asuka period.” (これは聖徳太子です。飛鳥時代の人です。)と言って聖徳太子のカードを黒板の左側に貼る。他にも、女性のカードを右に男性のカードを左に貼って、He と She の違いに気付かせる。4 時限目は、インフォメーションギャップゲーム（参考資料３参照）などを行いながら、目標表現を定着させる。

3-3「これは誰の曲？」（5・6 年生向け）

音楽鑑賞をしながら、世界で有名な歴代の作曲家の名前と代表作を学ぶ。また、クラシック音楽以外にも、児童に人気のある流行曲や、教師の思い出の曲なども加えながら楽しく音楽鑑賞を行うことが内容学習のねらいである。同時に、音楽ジャンルについて認識し、それを英語で言えるようになることと、make (作る)の過去形 made (作った) と do (する)の過去形 did (した)が使えるようになることが言語学習のねらいである。目標表現は、“Who made this?“ (これは誰が作りましたか。)という質問文と、それに対する答え“Taro did.“ (太郎君です。)で、目標語彙は、音楽ジャンル（classical music [クラシック音楽], rock'n roll music[ロックンロール]など）である。

授業の流れは（参考資料４参照）、1 時限目に“I made this. Taro made this. Who made this? Jiro did?” (これは私が作りました。これは太郎君が作りました。これは誰が作りましたか。次郎君ですか。)という教師とのやり取りから目標表現を理解する。続いて、最近人気の音楽を聴き、誰の曲かをあてる。例えば、「Home」を聴いて、“Who made this?” という質問に“Angela Aki did.”(アンジェラ・アキです。) と答える。2 時限目は、ベー

トーベン、シューベルトなどの歴代作曲家とその代表作「運命」「Ave Maria」などを一致させた後、イントロゲーム（例えば、「ジャジャジャジャーン」と歌って“Who made this?”ときき “Beethoven did.”と答える）で目標表現を定着させる。3 時限目は、2 時限目に学んだクラシック音楽を聴き目標表現の復習をした後 classical music、次に「ハリーポッターと謎のプリンス」のテーマ曲や「もののけ姫」等人気アニメのサントラ等を聴き sound track music と、目標語彙を練習する。時間的に余裕がある場合には 4 時限目として、世界の民族音楽を聴いてどこの国の音楽かを当てる活動を加えても楽しい。また目標表現を“Who composed this music?”(これは誰が作曲しましたか。)に置き換えたりして、目標表現の難易度を調整することも可能である。

４．おわりに

以上、教科内容と英語活動をコラボレーションさせた指導案を紹介した。これらの指導案は多くの小学校現場で試し、改善し、より効果的で使いやすいものにしていく必要がある。具体的な課題としては、以下が挙げられる。(a)内容を充実させようとすると語彙の難易度が上がり過ぎたり、日常語からかけ離れたものが混ざってしまうことがある、(b)英語表現を教科内容に合わせると複雑な文になってしまったり、逆に単純な英語表現を使うと不自然なものとなってしまうことがある、そして(c)教科についての知識が浅い教師が授業を行うと、活動が一般的なコミュニケーション重視の英語活動と変わらなくなってしまうことがある。今後これらの問題を様々な角度から考察し、出来るだけ平易な英語表現を用いて、内容についての知識を得たり思考したりできるような指導案にしていくことを目標とする。また、我々が作成したこれらの指導案を参考に、現場の教師自身が独自の環境に合ったオリジナルの指導案を作成できるよう、ティーチャートレーニングにも力をいれていきたい。

Biodata

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参考資料１

（参考資料 1－4 では、ターゲットとする英語の日本語訳は省略する）

１． 国語「漢字の部首は何？」 目標表現：“Can you make a word?” →“Yes, I can. / No, I can’t.” 目標語彙：person, hand, tree, car, shell など漢字の部首

２． 算数「計算ピラミッド、できるかな？」 目標表現：“What’s nine plus eight?” →“It’s seventeen.” 目標語彙：99 までの整数

３． 算数「1 インチって何センチ？」 目標表現：“My hand is five inches / thirteen centimeters.” “Two point five times two is five.” 目標語彙：99. 9 までの少数

４． 算数「展開図を探せ！」 目標表現：“Is this a cube, too?” →“Yes, it is. / No, it isn’t.” 目標語彙：立体、身の回りの物

５． 理科「どっちが重い？」 目標表現：“Which is heavier, the pen or the pencil?” →“The pen is heavier.” 目標語彙：文房具

６． 理科「月を観察してみよう！」 目標表現：“What moon phase is this?” →“It’s a full moon.” 目標語彙：月の形

７． 理科「火星に月は何個あるかな？」 目標表現：“How many moons are there?” →“There are two moons.” 目標語彙：惑星

８． 理科「卵を産むの？」 目標表現 : “Frogs lay eggs. True or false?” →“It’s true.” 目標語彙：動物

９． 社会「北海道では何ができるかな？」 目標表現：“What does Hokkaido produce?” →“Onions.” 目標語彙：野菜・果物

１０．社会「すしネタはどこから来るの？」 目標表現 : “Where is this from?” →“From Croatia.” 目標語彙：魚介類名

１１．社会「地球規模で住んでいるところを見てみよう！」 目標表現 : “Asakusa is in Tokyo. Tokyo is in Japan. Japan is in Asia.” 目標語彙：大陸名

１２．社会「世界遺産をたずねよう！」 目標表現：“Where do you want to go?” →“I want to go to the Taj Mahal in lndia.” 目標語彙：世界遺産と国名

１３．社会「聖徳太子はいつの時代の人？」 目標表現 : “He lived in the Asuka period.” 目標語彙：時代名

１４．社会「日本の地形を知ろう！」 目標表現：“Have you been to the Lake Biwa?” →“Yes, I have./No, I haven’t.” 目標語彙：地形

１５．家庭科「どんなものを食べているんだろう？」 目標表現：“Do you like tofu?” →“Yes, I do./No, I don’t./So-so.” “Which group is tofu?” →“Yellow group.”目

標語彙：食品

１６．家庭科「お掃除、やってみよう！」　目標表現 : “Let’s sweep the floor.” →“OK!”　目標語彙：教室の備品

１７．図工「色を組み合わせて飾りを作ろう！」　目標表現：“What is the color if you mix red and yellow?” →“It’s orange.”　目標語彙：色

１８．図工「絵の感想を言ってみよう！」　目標表現 : “What do you think of this picture?” →“I think it’s beautiful.”　目標語彙：感情を表す形容詞

１９．体育「ボールゲームを楽しもう！」　目標表現 : “Nice batting! Good job! Catch! Stop!”　目標語彙：スポーツの動詞

２０．音楽「これは誰の曲？」　目標表現：“Who made this?” →“Taro did.”　目標語彙：音楽のジャンル

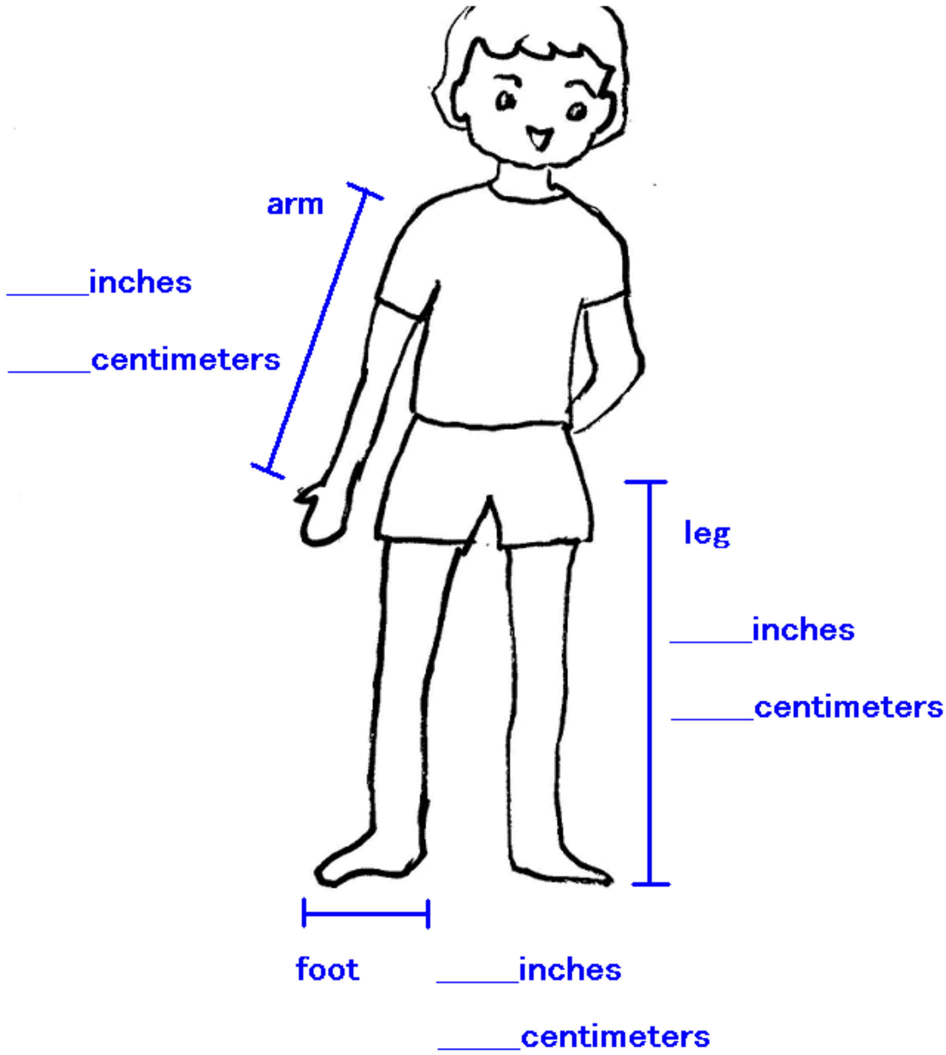
参考資料２

<u>How many inches?　How many centimeters?　Let’s measure!</u>

<u>体の部分をインチとセンチではかってみよう！</u>

Name（　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　）

友達と体の部分の長さをはかりっこしてみよう！はかったら、インチとセンチで記入しましょう。　（手や足以外にも、首 neck、頭 head、髪の毛 hair、ウエスト waist など、色々な部分の長さや幅をはかってみよう！）



My arm is _______ inches / _______centimeters.

参考資料３

<u>聖徳太子はいつの時代の人？</u>

Name　（　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　）

友達に質問して、歴史上の<u>人物名</u>とその人が<u>生きた時代名</u>をうめましょう。

　　聞き方：　“Who is this?”

　　答え方：　“This is Himiko. She lived in the Yoyoi period.”

		
人物名： Himiko	人物名：	人物名： Ganjin
生きた時代： The Yayoi period	生きた時代：	生きた時代： The Nara period
		
人物名：	人物名： Minamoto Yoritomo	人物名：
生きた時代：	生きた時代： The Kamakura period	生きた時代：

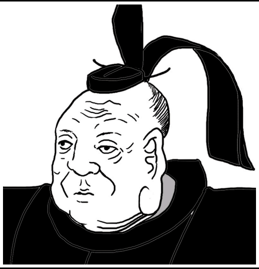
		
人物名： Oda Nobunaga	人物名：	人物名：
生きた時代： The Azuchi-Momoyama period	生きた時代：	生きた時代：

イラスト　蒲原青子

参考資料４

指導案サンプル（抜粋）

「これは誰の曲？」

$\boxed{\text{対象}}$　５年生、６年生　　　$\boxed{\text{関連教科}}$　音楽　　　$\boxed{\text{時限数}}$　４５分×３回

$\boxed{\text{ねらい}}$

１．有名な作曲家の名前と代表作を一致させることができる。

２．音楽ジャンルの種類を知り、英語で言える。

３. Made と did を使って、“Who made this?” “Taro did.”のようなやり取りができる。

$\boxed{\text{目標語彙}}$

音楽ジャンル：classical music（クラシック音楽）, rock'n roll music（ロックンロール）, soundtrack music（映画音楽）, POP music（ポピュラー音楽）

$\boxed{\text{目標表現}}$

“Who made this?”（これは誰が作りましたか。）→　“Taro did.”（太郎君です。）

$\boxed{\text{授業の流れ}}$

1 時限目：目標表現の意味を理解し、質問に答えられる。音楽鑑賞をする。

児童	教師	準備する物
目標表現を練習する。 “Jiro?” と答える。 次郎：“Yes.” と答える。	目標表現を導入する。 自分の手作りの物を見せ、”I made this.”と言う。 太郎の作った工作を見せ、”Taro made this.”と言う。 次郎の作った工作を見せ、”Who made this?”ときく。 “Oh, Jiro did?”と次郎に確認する。 “OK. Jiro made this.”と言う。 同様に他の児童が作った工作を見せ、誰の物かをきく。	手作りの物、図工の作品など
音楽を聴く。 “SMAP!” と答える。 “Makihara?” と	スマップの「世界に一つだけの花」をかけ、“Do you know this song? Who is singing?”ときく。 “Yes. Who made this?”ときく。	CD&CD ﾌﾟﾚｰﾔｰ、又は PC&Youtube 作家のﾎﾟｽﾀｰや CD ｶﾊﾞｰな

答える。 “Angela Aki?”と答える。 “Angela Aki did.”とリピートする。 “Harry Potter!” “John Williams did.” とリピートする。	“Yes. Makihara did.”と答える。 アンジェラ・アキの「Home」をかけ、“Who made this?”ときく。 “Yes, Angela Aki did.”と did を強調して did を付けることに気付かせ、リピートさせる。 ハリー・ポッターの映画音楽をかけ、“Who made this?”ときく。 ジョンウイリアムズの写真をみせながら“Yes. John Williams did.”と言う。 同様にして、児童に人気のある曲を使って練習する。	ど

２時限目：目標表現を使える。クラシック音楽家とその代表作を一致させられる。

児童	教師	準備する物
作曲家名と肖像画の顔を一致させる。	ﾍﾞｰﾄｰﾍﾞﾝ、ｼｭｰﾍﾞﾙﾄ、ﾓｰﾂｧﾙﾄ、ﾁｬｲｺﾌｽｷｰの肖像画を見せ、作曲家の名前を導入する。（作曲家名の発音には重点をおかない）	作曲家の肖像画・写真 ﾌﾗｯｼｭｶｰﾄﾞ
作曲家名と代表作品を知る。 “Beethoven did.”と答える。 “Schubert did.”と答える。 “Tchaikovsky did.”と答える。 “Mozart did.”と答える。	「運命」の頭の部分をかける。その後、“ｼﾞｬｼﾞｬｼﾞｬｼﾞｬｰﾝ”と歌って、“Who made this?”と質問する。（答えが出てこなければﾍﾞｰﾄｰﾍﾞﾝの肖像画を見せてヒントを与える。） 「Ave Maria」の最後の部分をかける。"ｱｰﾍﾞﾏﾘｰｰｱ”と歌って、“Who made this?”ときく。 「白鳥の湖」の頭の部分をかける。"ﾀｰﾗﾗﾗﾗﾗｰﾗﾗｰ“と歌って、“Who made this?”ときく。 「トルコ行進曲」の頭の部分をかける。”ﾀﾗﾗﾗﾗﾝ　ﾀﾗﾗﾗﾗﾗﾝ　ﾀﾗﾗﾗ　ﾗﾗﾗﾗﾗﾗﾗﾗﾗﾗﾝ”と	CD&CD ﾌﾟﾚｰﾔｰ、又は PC&Youtube

	歌って、“Who made this?”ときく。	
目標表現を練習する。 “ｼﾞｬｼﾞｬｼﾞｬｼﾞｬｰﾝ”とリピートする。 “Beethoven made this.”とリピートする。 "ｱｰﾍﾞﾏﾘｰｰｱ”とリピートする。 “Schubert made this.”とリピートする。	“ｼﾞｬｼﾞｬｼﾞｬｼﾞｬｰﾝ.”と歌う。 “Beethoven made this.”と言う。 “ｱｰﾍﾞﾏﾘｰｰｱ”と歌う。 “Schubert made this.”と言う。 同様に、「白鳥の湖」とﾁｬｲｺﾌｽｷｰ、「トルコ行進曲」とﾓｰﾂｱﾙﾄも行う。	
イントロゲームをする。 “Beethoven did!”と答える。	“Who made this?ｼﾞｬｼﾞｬｼﾞｬｼﾞｬｰﾝ.”ときく。 同様に他の曲もメロディーを歌って行う。	
グループでイントロゲームをする。 ﾘｰﾀﾞｰ：“Who made this? ｼﾞｬｼﾞｬｼﾞｬｼﾞｬｰﾝ” ｸﾞﾙｰﾌﾟ：“Beethoven did.” 同様にして他の曲も行う。	4人位のグループを作る。 リーダー役を途中で交代させる。	

Speaking fluency across performances of the 3/2/1 activity

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Reference data

Wright, A. (2012). Speaking fluency across performances of the 3/2/1 activity. In K. Bradford-Watts, R. Chartrand, & E. Skier (Eds.), *The 2011 Pan-SIG Conference Proceedings*. Matsumoto: JALT.

Abstract

There has been to date insufficient research on improving fluency in terms of learning a new language. Studies have been undertaken to examine whether reading fluency can be improved with instruction but despite the success of these experiments no similar studies have been performed with regard to improving spoken fluency. The following study measured the improvement in fluency of one learner in terms of words per minute spoken and number of filled pauses over 10 performances of a 3/2/1 repeated talk task. All of the talks were recorded and then transcribed for later analysis. The result was that the student's number of words spoken increased substantially and the number of filled pauses decreased substantially. These findings indicate that oral fluency can be improved with appropriate instruction and are consistent with similar studies on reading fluency.

新たに言語を学んでいく上での流暢さについての研究はまだまだ不足している。指導を受けることによって、外国語を読解力が向上するということについての調査は為されているが、話す能力についての同様の調査は為されていない。下記の調査では、一人の外国語学習者を取り上げて、十回に渡り、３、２、１の会話タスクを行った。一分間に話す言葉の数と、フィラー（言葉と言葉の間に入る沈黙）の数について改善が見られうるかを示している。調査中の会話はすべて後で分析できるように録音し、話された言葉はすべて記録した。結果として、被験者の話す単語の数は劇的に向上し、沈黙の数は劇的に減少した。この結果は口語での流暢さは、読解力の向上の調査結果と同様に、適切な指導のもとでは改善されるということを示している。

Keywords: Vocabulary, fluency, Extensive Reading

Fluency is a little understood phenomenon in second language acquisition. It can be defined as the “ability to fill time with talk” (Fillmore, 1979). It can be said that learners demonstrate fluency when they speak with ease and without holding up the flow of talk (Nation & Newton, 2009). A study by Rossiter (2009) into the nature of listener’s perception of fluency indicates that these may be fair definitions. Her study found that ¾ of raters’ negative ratings of speaker’s fluency were owing to hesitations and slow rate of speech. Many hesitations indicate that a speaker has difficulty in formulating their message, and a slow rate of speech holds up the flow of communication. Rossiter’s study also indicates that although aspects such as speed and number of hesitations are most important to ratings of fluency, there are other factors involved, including accuracy and, most importantly, pronunciation. Although fluency is not limited to speech rate and pauses, increasing rate of speech and reducing pauses can greatly contribute to perceptions of fluency.

There are several reasons why learners and teachers should care about fluency. One obvious reason to care about fluency is that a fluent speaker will be able to communicate their message faster. Fluency skill may also reduce stress in delivery as well as create positive feelings of mastery. Lee (1999) suggests that one reason students may not participate in class may be because, rather than lacking motivation, they lack fluency in English and feel insecure about speaking. In addition to these factors spoken fluency can help keep listeners engaged (Rossiter, 2009) and may direct listener attention away from deficiencies in other areas (Lennon, 1990). Fluency may be key to listener perception of the speaker’s language skill as well as important for maintaining social relationships by maintaining the interest of the listener. For all these reasons the writer believes that the development of fluency is a vital aspect of foreign language instruction.

If fluency is important than how do students achieve it? There are three factors that are believed important for an activity in order to develop a learner’s fluency. The first is that the activity should be meaning focused, that is to say, the learner’s interest is in the communication of a message. The second qualification is that the language items and ideas involved in the activity are all within the learner’s previous experience. The final qualification is that the activity pushes learners to perform at a higher than normal level of performance (Nation & Newton, 2009). A study of reading fluency demonstrated that it is possible to improve learner’s reading fluency over time.

Learners participated in reading, which fulfilled the above criteria, and improved their reading speed by an average of 52% (Chung & Nation, 2006). These gains were steady over a period of weeks and made with less than 3 hours of time spent on the actual activity of speed-reading. It seems likely, based on this study, that improvement in fluency is possible for the other skills of speaking, listening, and writing if appropriate training is applied.

This study investigates the 3/2/1 activity, which is a variant of the 4/3/2 activity first developed by Maurice (1983). In performing the activity students are assigned a topic to speak about and then given a few minutes to organize their thoughts without taking notes. The students must then speak about the given topic for 4 minutes. The learners then repeat their talk to someone else in only 3 minutes, and finally repeat it in 2 minutes. This activity is designed to promote speaking fluency and meets the criteria for fluency development as described above. The activity is meaning focused because the speaker is trying to communicate a message to the listener. The language is within the learner's previous experience because they know about the topic and have had time to prepare prior to speaking. The fact that each delivery must be done with increasing speed pushes the learners to higher levels of performance.

Research on he 4/3/2 activity has shown that this activity has a lot of potential to improve fluency. In a study of 6 learners, increases in rate of speech were recorded from the first telling to the third telling (Nation, 1989). The increases in speed ranged from 4 to 77 percent. The study also found modest increases in accuracy from the first delivery to the third delivery. A larger study of 20 subjects showed similar findings. Rate of speech from the first delivery to the last delivery increased by an average of 21.5% and the number of hesitations per 100 words decreased by 22% (Arevart & Nation, 1991). The 4/3/2 activity is clearly effective in increasing fluency from delivery to delivery of the same material. What remains to be seen is if this activity produces gains over time, extending beyond the single activity. This study aims to discover if gains in fluency from activities like the 4/3/2 activity can carry over between separate performances of the activity.

Method

The participant in the study was a 24-year-old Japanese woman. She currently lives with her boyfriend who is British and uses English to communicate with him but not for anything else. She has not undertaken any formal assessment of her English in the last 5 years but she completed a fashion course at a university in England. Although she completed the coursework for her course in English, she did not receive any formal English language training at university. In talking with the participant it is clear that she cannot speak with a high degree of fluency and grammatical accuracy but is fully capable of communicating what she is thinking. A holistic evaluation of her language ability based on speaking to her would put her in the upper intermediate range.

The activity chosen in order to improve the participant's fluency was the 3/2/1 activity. The 3/2/1 activity is the same as the 4/3/2 activity except that instead of 4 minutes then 3 minutes then 2 minutes, the learner has 3 minutes then 2 minutes then 1 minute to deliver their talk. The 3/2/1 activity was selected for this study because it was considered an excellent activity for improving fluency. In evaluating a task for fluency, 3 criteria must be considered (Nation 2009). The first is that the activity must be meaning focused, and the 3/2/1 activity is meaning focused because the learner is communicating a story to a listener. The second criterion is that the activity involves language items known to the learner. In the case of this experiment, the difficulty of the language required was well within the learner's knowledge. The third criterion is that there is pressure for the learner to go faster. The 3/2/1 activity provides pressure for the learner to tell their story faster and faster, so it meets this criterion.

The 3/2/1 activity was chosen over the 4/3/2 activity because it was felt that 4 minutes was too long to talk about the material provided. The 3/2/1 activity was also selected because completion of the story was not relevant to the evaluation of the learner's performance in this study and so it was not a problem if the learner ran out of time.

The texts used for this experiment were the first 10 of the 25 speed-reading texts designed to improve student reading speeds (Quinn, Nation, & Millet 2007). These texts were chosen because they were written within the first 1000 most common words of the English language and so were well within the language ability of the participant. The texts were also chosen because they were of the same length—550 words. The uniformity of length and difficulty were thought to be important to the design of this study. If the participant delivered a talk on a text significantly harder or longer than another, their fluency might vary because of the nature of the text rather than their ability.

The experiment was administered over 3 sessions over the course of 3 weeks. The first 2 sessions were 1 hour in length and covered 4 texts each. The final follow up session was 30 minutes long and covered 2 texts. In administering the experiment the participant was given a text to read and was instructed that they would be asked to summarize the text 3 times in decreasing time intervals. The participant was given 8 minutes to read the text and prepare to speak about the text. The participant was allowed to take notes and was provided with scratch paper, but was not allowed to look at their notes during the actual summary of the story to ensure that it was being composed in real time. The participant summarized each text 3 times: first for 3 minutes, next for 2 minutes, and finally for 1 minute. The participant was not stopped at any time during the delivery of their summary and no interaction took place between the participant and the instructor during the summary. All summaries were recorded on a high quality digital recorder.

All of the texts were transcribed, including filled pauses. The texts were then measured according to 2 criteria. The first criterion for analysis was the number of words spoken. This was then used to calculate number of words spoken per minute. False starts, where the learner said one or several words and then started over, were also taken into account. Words which were part of a false start were not included in the number of words spoken. The second criterion for analysis was number of filled pauses. Whenever the student said something like "um" or "uh," it was counted as a filled pause.

Results

The following are the results of the analysis of the transcripts. Information on the average number of words per minute for each telling of the summary is included as well as information on the number of words per minute spoken as well as filled pauses for each delivery of the summary.

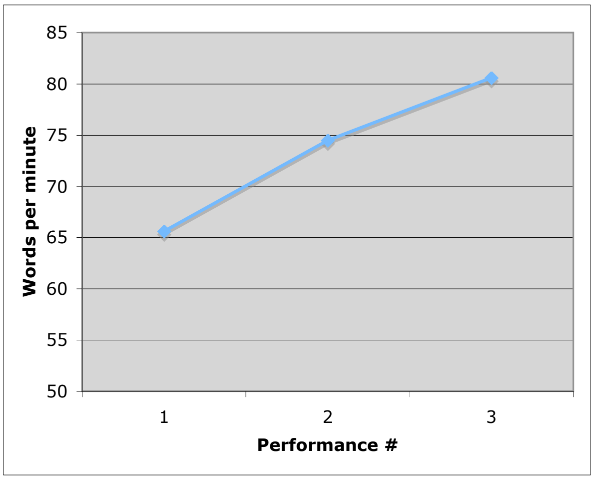

Figure 1.1 *Average words per minute for each telling of the summary*

As we can see from the graph the average number of words per minute increased greatly for later performances of the summary of the text. In the one minute telling of the text the participant spoke an average of 80.6 words per minute compared to the first telling where the participant spoke an average of 65.62 words per minute. That is an improvement of nearly 23% in speed.

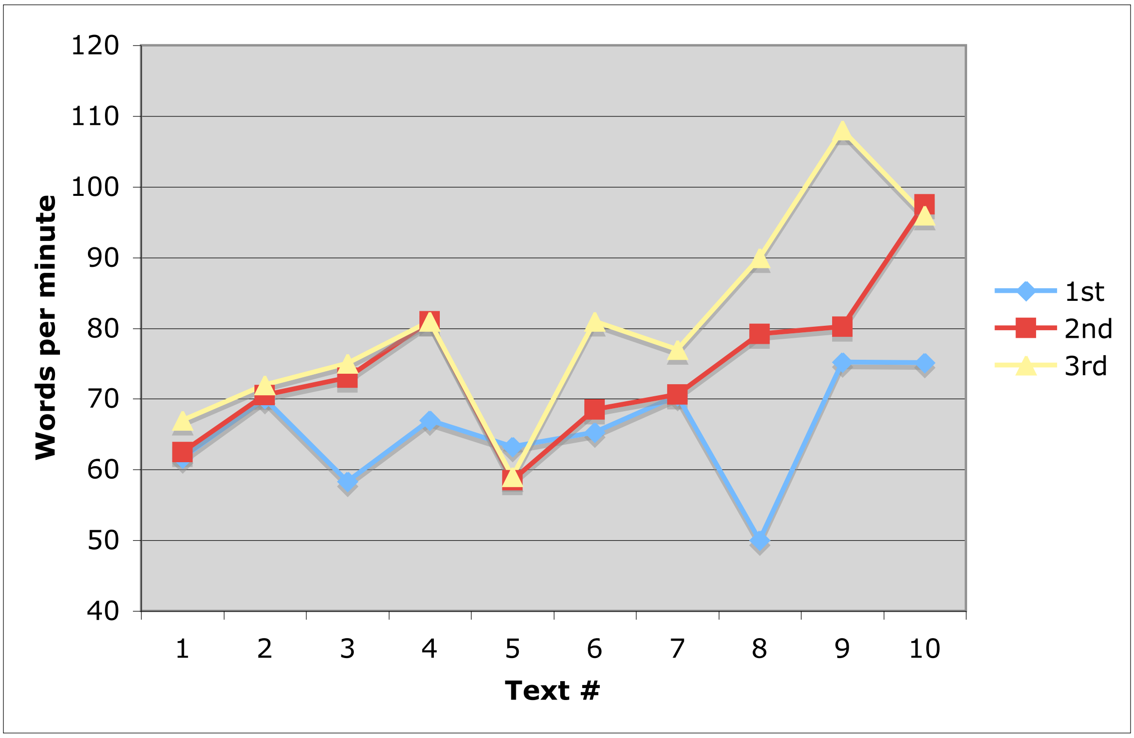

Figure 1.2 *Words per minute spoken on 1*st*, 2*nd*, and 3*rd *delivery of each text summary*

The chart above shows that for each delivery of the summary, the learner's scores improved from the first to the final text. The graph shows that although the trend is for improvement overall, there are some deliveries varying greatly from the trend. From the first to the last text for the first performance, rate of speech increased from 61.67 words per minute to 75.1 words per minute, which is an improvement of about 22%. From the first to the last text for the second performance, rate of speech increased from 62.5 words per minute to 97.5 words per minute, an improvement of 56%. From the first to the final text for the third performance, rate of speech increased from 67 words per minute to 96 words per minute, an improvement of 43%.

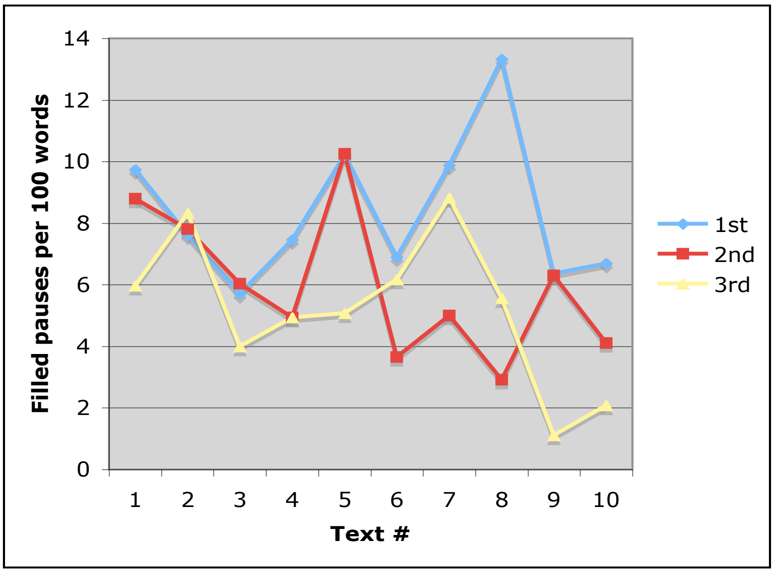

Figure 1.3 *Number of filled pauses per 100 words on 1st, 2nd, and 3rd delivery of each text summary*

Figure 1.3 shows that the number of filled pauses per 100 words spoken decreased from the first to the final text. Although the trend shown by the graph is toward fewer pauses, the number of pauses per 100 words is erratic from the first to the final text, with sudden increases and drops. From the first to the last text for the first performance, the number of filled pauses/100 words decreased from 9.73 to 6.7, a decrease of about 31%. From the first to the last text for the second performance, the number of filled pauses/100 words decreased from 8.8 to 4.1, a decrease of about 53%. From the first to the last text for the third performance the number of filled pauses/100 words decreased from 5.97 to 2.08, a decrease of about 65%.

Discussion

The results of this study confirm that fluency improves upon repeated delivery of the same talk. The results of a previous study indicate that words per minute increase by 21.5% after repeated deliveries (Arevart and Nation 1991). This study found that words per minute increased by an average of 23% after a third telling, which is similar to the speed increase described by Arevart and Nation. This indicates that students will likely improve their speaking speed by around 20 percent by the time they retell a story twice. When learners retell a story, they have become familiar with the ideas they are going to express, so they only have to deal with the language in order to express their ideas. It is more difficult to speak fluently when you must think about what you are going to say in addition to how you are going to say it.

The research question was "Can fluency gains from a repeated telling activity like 4/3/2 within an activity carry over to future activities?" The results indicate that the answer is yes. Both indicators of fluency, words per minute and filled pauses, showed improved performance by the final text. Although the participant improved on performance in delivering a summary of a text for the 3/2/1 activity, it does not seem likely that the participant could improve her actual speaking fluency so drastically over such a short period of instruction. The increases in fluency may have been a result of either increased confidence with the task, or increased familiarity with the task. The student may have improved her strategies for organizing her ideas before she spoke, which would lead to improved fluency. Summary of a text is a specific task, and the language required to summarize a text is, consequently, not representative of all language. Summarizing a text may involve somewhat limited grammatical forms and expressions compared to the general use of English. It is possible that the learner was able to improve her fluency of the use of the forms required to summarize a text, leading to improved fluency.

The improvements the student made were not smooth increases but were somewhat erratic. There are two possibilities for this. One is that performance variables like concentration and confidence varied between deliveries. The other is that the nature of the task was more demanding for some deliveries and less demanding for others. If the second possibility were true, it would mean that some texts were more difficult than others, or that the student had more background knowledge of some texts. However, this does not seem very likely, because there is a large variability of performance within the same text. Sometimes one performance of a text spikes down when the other performances of the same text remain high. If some texts were indeed more difficult, or the student had less background knowledge of them, we would expect scores for all performances to be decreased. The fact that spiking improvements or decreases in fluency were not constant for all performances of a text indicates that performance variables like concentration varied between deliveries.

This study has limited generalizability because of the scope of the study. The study did not collect enough data points to be statistically significant. In order for the results of this study to be generalizable more participants would be necessary. If this study were repeated with more participants it would be helpful if the participants were measured over a longer period of time. Due to the strong variability of performance from delivery to delivery, it would be necessary to collect data from many different times in order to ensure that improvements were not a result of other variables not relevant to the experiment.

A further limitation of this study is that the participant delivered the same talk to the same audience member three times. In an ideal situation, the participant would deliver the same talk to three different audience members in order to improve the incentive of the speaker to focus on communicating their message. Future studies should take this into account where possible.

Further research is necessary to improve our understanding of fluency. The nature of fluency and how it develops has not been well researched up to now. A larger study is needed to confirm that fluency gains from one activity can carry over to other similar activities. It would be also interesting to see whether fluency focused training can improve a student's fluency in a wide variety of situations, or whether fluency gains tend to remain only in the type of activity in which the students are trained. It has been suggested that fluency development activities should meet the criterion proposed by Nation (2009). Further research is imperative to determine if activities meeting these qualifications can improve fluency across a range of situations better than activities that do not meet these qualifications.

Conclusion

Fluency is still a poorly understood phenomenon. Previous studies have shown that fluency can be reliably improved for reading speed (Chung & Nation, 2006) but no studies have shown if speaking fluency can be reliably improved over time. The results of this study indicate that the participant improved her performance in terms of words per minute and number of filled pauses from the first to the final text.

Possible factors contributing to these results include: increased confidence, improved planning strategies, increased familiarity with the activity, or improved access to the necessary vocabulary and grammatical structures. It is not possible to rule out the possibility that any improvements in fluency observed over the course of this study were the result of variables, such as amount of rest or the ability to concentrate, irrelevant to actual improvements in language ability.

Further research into fluency is necessary in order to properly understand how it develops. The results of research into reading fluency and the results of this study suggest that fluency gains in speaking in one activity can transfer to future performances of a similar activity, but without further research, it is impossible to know.

Biodata

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Appendix 1: Sample transcriptions, 2 of 10 parts

Part 1, Performance 1, 3 minutes

It was a one of one of um..village story uh in pacific ocean in somewhere island in pacific ocean um the first para paragraph talking about um the climate and weather is quite warm place and from april to November no no less rain and and sometimes cold wa cold wind but still warm warm place and al um so many islands in the pacific ocean but uh the uh al almost people come from asia because of them uh them similarity of them la language and the second from second paragraph they focus on a day of one of village, we don't know bacific uh ba specific place but and the they talking about view first like um it um began in the morning and sun go up and sun go up and in and uh mans goes fishing and babies lay down in the in the shade and womens washing clothes and uh and talking about food sometimes uh going to fishing means they are eating fish and they have got have got lots of garden making vegetables and in uh in house ah old… old ladies talking with baby and talking and the babies lady lay down next of them and on 12 oclock in the sun is really high and temperature gets highest point and people people escape to shade in the house and fisherman comes comes back from sea and put down all um fishes they got, and they going to finish

Performance 2, 2 minutes

its its about life in pacifics ocean, one of one of pacific ocean village the uh that village located in uh pacific ocean. Pacific ocean have got so many um so many island but they used to belong in asia because of their language is have got ssss… some similarity. An.. that Paragraph focus in one of village. That village is warm huh less rain some time cold wind but still warm place and um in the morning in the morning guys going to fishing and ba babies laying down in in uh in shady house and ga… woman going to wash clothes in the sea and old woman sitting down in the in in shade under the under the tree maybe and then babies lay down next of them. And suns going up to suns going up to up highest point, and uh people escape from sun because of too hot and uh mans coming back from see and uh put all

Performance 3, 1 minute

this is uh this is uh story about one of one of island in pacific sea. That village is located in warm and less rain. Ha ha located in pacific sea that climate is less rain really warm and not and sometimes cold water but still warm. The day started fish mans going to fishing and baby laying down woman go to washing clothes to the sea and old uh old ladies sitting down under the under the trea and baby lay laying down

Part 2, Performance 1, 3 minutes

its about jaism Jainism, I say jaism anyway and its this is uh religion and its in India and compare with budhism Jaism isn't famous but its quite one of very important aspects of Indian religion and I don't remember when they started but there is uh guy called mo…ok I say mobidin mobidin he born in quite rich family he's he from when he was 3 years old he traveled around the world uh he left ho left house when he was 30 years old and then traveled around the world 30 years and bit being as as teacher and there are lots of followers at that time and he died 72 years old and that place is quite important for followers and at the time uh jaism isn't uh famous but one of quite famous um king foll.. followed jaism and after that they they split to parts of to parts and one one is one is go to one is s ah one is move to north india because of people… people don't have enough eat and people are hunger and one of one of parts follows him and to to there is difference between them but and so many similarity wearing white clothes and uh so many same way they they believe same thing and they think jaism think every life every thing have got life bees and bees plants stone everything have life so you cant hurt themselves and that’s uh for example if you see bees you cant hurt because of they have got heart and its crime   if you if you hurt them

Performance 2, 2 minutes

its about jaism jaism is one of the um religion in India and uh compare with uh compare with budhism jaism isn’t huge but its quite its still one of important aspects of Indian religion, and uh in mobidins   he… mobidin started this religion he he he born in one of quite rich quite rich family in India and he when he was 30 years old he left home and he traveled around with a teacher and over 20 years he traveled around all over India and he when he died uh he died 72 years old and that place is quite important for followers and after he died one of famous king follows followed jaism and and um after that um jaism became quite famous quite big and separated 2 parts and one part going to north north side of India and about still between two parts they still have got similarity a lot they wearing white clothes and believing in same thing and they they believe the believe uh all life all everything have got life bees ground water air

Performance 3, 1 minute

this is uh one one of religion from jaism in India jaism is quite famous ah uh and quite big aspect of English ah no Indian Indian religion. Mobidin started this religion he he and he um 30 years old 30 years he was he was traveling around all India as teacher and so many followers and when he was 72 years old he he dead that place he dead is quite important for followers and after that king, quite famous king um followed him and jaism separated 2 parts inbetween one part