Japan Association for Language Teaching

JALT
JapanTESOL

全国語学教育学会

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Japan Association for Language Teaching
A Nonprofit Organization

The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) is a nonprofit professional organization dedicated to the improvement of language teaching and learning in Japan. It provides a forum for the exchange of new ideas and techniques and a means of keeping informed about developments in the rapidly changing field of second and foreign language education. Established in 1976, JALT serves an international membership of more than 3,500 language teachers. There are 39 JALT chapters in Japan, one affiliate chapter, 13 Special Interest Groups (SIGs), three affiliate SIGs, and three forming SIGs. JALT is the Japan affiliate of International TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) and is a branch of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language).

JALT publishes JALT Journal, a semiannual research journal; The Language Teacher, a monthly magazine containing articles, teaching activities, reviews, and announcements about professional concerns; and JALT International Conference Proceedings.

The JALT International Conference on Language Teaching and Learning and Educational Materials Exposition attracts some 2,000 participants annually and offers over 300 papers, workshops, colloquia, and poster sessions. Local meetings are held by each JALT chapter and JALT's SIGs provide information on specific concerns. JALT also sponsors special events such as workshops and conferences on specific themes, and awards annual grants for research projects related to language teaching and learning.

Membership is open to those interested in language education and includes enrollment in the nearest chapter, copies of JALT publications, and reduced admission to JALT-sponsored events. JALT members can join as many SIGs as they wish for an annual fee of ¥1,500 per SIG. For information, contact the JALT Central Office.

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In this Issue

Articles
The main section of this issue contains three articles. Greta Gorsuch examines Japanese teachers of English and their attitudes towards team teaching with assistant English teachers (ALTs). The author also outlines patterns of ALT assignment to provide a more complete picture of the JET program. Naoto Yamamori takes a look at upper secondary school English language departments' organizational effectiveness and their commitment to Communicative Language Teaching. Reiko Mori investigates how teachers' beliefs are manifested in their application of corrective feedback in her case studies of two English teachers. Hiroaki Maeda focuses on Japanese high school students' note-taking strategies using a questionnaire providing insights into learner note-taking strategies, instruction, and mental processes.

Perspectives
Sexism in English textbooks used for a Japanese business English radio program is highlighted in a Perspectives article by Sumie Matsuno, who concludes that this problem still needs attention and that teachers should reexamine their textbooks with this in mind.

Reviews
Curriculum development is covered in a review by Terry Vanderveen.

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From the Editors

The editors would like to welcome David Beglar and Gordon Robson to the JALT Journal Editorial Advisory Board. We appreciate the generous contribution of their time to help ensure the continued high quality of our publication.

Conference News

The Third Symposium on Second Language Writing will be held on October 11-12, 2002 at Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana, USA. This year's Symposium, entitled "Constructing Knowledge: Approaches to Inquiry in Second Language Writing," will feature sixteen scholars who will explore various ways in which knowledge is constructed, transformed, disseminated, and negotiated in the field of second language writing. Presenters will include: Dwight Atkinson, Linda Lonon Blanton, Colleen Brice, Christine Pearson Casanave, Dana Ferris, John Flowerdew, Richard Haswell, Sarah Hudelson, Ken Hyland, Xiaoming Li, Rosa Manchon, Paul Kei Matsuda, Susan Parks, Miyuki Sasaki, Tony Silva, and Bob Weissberg. For more information, please visit: <http://icdweb.cc.purdue.edu/~silvat/symposium/2002/>.

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Articles

Assistant Foreign Language Teachers in Japanese High Schools: Focus on the Hosting of Japanese Teachers

Greta Gorsuch
Texas Tech University

For both political and social reasons, the learning of English as a Foreign Language in Japanese secondary schools has become the focus of a variety of new educational policies applied at a national level. The backdrop of this article is the JET program, which in 1998 employed 5,361 assistant language teachers (ALTs) from various countries for the purpose of team teaching in Japanese junior and senior high school foreign language classrooms. The article focuses on Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) and their responses to team teaching with ALTs, particularly in terms of JTEs' perceptions of their own English speaking skills and English language learning experiences. Drawing from the questionnaire responses of 884 JTEs in high schools in nine randomly selected prefectures, the author also outlines patterns in assignment of ALTs in both academic and vocational high schools, providing a more complete picture of the JET program.

　日本の高校における外国語としての英語教育は、政治的、社会的な理由により、全国規模で新たな教育政策の流れに組み込まれようとしている。本稿は、1998年に中学・高等学校の外国語クラスにティームティーチングの一員として様々な国から雇い入れられた5,361名のJETプログラムの語学助手（ALT）の扱いを取り上げ、日本人英語教師 (JTE) の、ALTとのティームティーチングにおける反応、特にJTEが自身の英語の話し方能力と英語学習経験についてどのように考えているのかを検証する。任意に選んだ９つの県の中・高校で教える884 人の JTE の質問用紙への回答から、進学校と商業高校の両方で、ALTがどのような仕事を割り当てられているのかを明らかにし、JETプログラムの全体像が解明できることを目指した。

For both political and social reasons, the learning of English as a Foreign Language in Japanese secondary schools has become the focus of a variety of new educational policies applied at a national level in Japan. Among these has been the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) program, started in 1987, which has brought native English speaking "assistant language teachers" (ALTs) into Japanese junior and senior high school English classes (McConnell, 1995; Wada & Cominos, 1994). The overt purpose of the JET program is to have the ALTs and Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) interact in English, raise JTEs' awareness of English as a communicative medium, and promote communicative English teaching in the classroom (Wada & Cominos, 1994, p. 1). As such, the JET program offers a powerful potential for instructional change among Japanese teachers of English. The JET program is well endowed, with an annual operating budget of US$222,000,000 (McConnell, 1995), and employs 5,361 ALTs from numerous countries ("JET program," 1998).

In 1989, the Ministry of Education issued a new set of curriculum guidelines and course descriptions for the instruction of English in high schools, called The Course of Study (Ministry of Education, Science, and Culture , 1992). The Course of Study was intended to promote development of students' communicative skills (Council on the School Curriculum, in Wada, 1994, p. 9). In high schools, the objectives of the two required mainstay four-skills English courses, English I and English II, were written to include guidelines to be used to promote students' listening and speaking abilities, and to instill a "positive attitude towards communicating in English" in high school students (Ministry of Education, Culture, & Science, 1992, p. 3). This was the first time, in the course of many periodically issued national curriculum guidelines for foreign languages, that "communication" was named as a goal of instruction. Explicit mention was made in The Course of Study that JTEs should use team teaching activities, which implies the presence and cooperation of ALTs.

Given the conservative leanings of the Japanese education sector (Lincicome, 1993), the JET program, along with the new Course of Study, represent radical policies applied on a national level. However, there are several obvious aspects of the Japanese high school educational culture that work against JTEs' acceptance of classroom activities designed to promote students' communicative abilities (McConnell, 1995; see also Gorsuch, 2001, who cites the prevalence of non-communicative pedagogies and university entrance exams, as well as inadequate teacher preparation and in-service programs). These aspects of Japanese education imply a mismatch between the official plan and the realities of Japanese high school EFL education.

As the local implementers of the JET program, JTEs are major stake-holders in this ambitious educational policy. Nevertheless, the potential effects of ALTs on JTEs, who are often entrusted with the supervision of ALTs and the team teaching process, do not seem to have been explored on a large scale. Specifically, this study focused on comparing teachers who taught English I or II regularly with ALTs with teachers who had zero or had limited ALT contact in their English I or II classes. Using a Japanese-language survey, 884 teachers from these three groups were asked to provide ratings on their own classroom English speaking ability, self-reports of early English learning experiences, and attitudes towards teaching activities associated with communicative language teaching, audiolingualism, and yakudoku (a traditional Japanese grammar-translation methodology).

Construction of the Survey

Accounting for Two Influences

Frameworks for investigating the effects of governance on teachers' instruction provided an important way of organizing the collection of data of the survey. In the literature, influences on classroom instruction are classified into what can best be termed formal influences and informal influences (Cohen & Spillane, 1992; Fuller, Snyder, Chapman, & Hua 1994; Montero-Sieburth, 1992; Stevenson & Baker, 1991). See Table 1 for a summary of formal and informal instructional guidance.

Two of the categories in Table 1 were used to create the survey items of interest in this report: teachers' foreign language proficiency and teachers' previous educational experiences. Items created from other categories in Table 1 were also included in the survey, but are beyond the scope of this report.

Teachers' English Proficiency

Historically, teachers have not needed to be proficient to teach English in Japanese high schools. After World War II, procedures for high school teacher certification were greatly liberalized. One of the reasons for this was an increased demand for English teachers after the end of the war (Henrichsen, 1989, p. 126). Another reason, according to Shimahara (1995), was to nullify rigid pre-war teacher education traditions, which were seen as a tool by militarists to gain control over schools and students. The idea was to open teacher certification to graduates of liberal arts universities who would be less swayed by authoritarian ideals. Thus, students getting degrees in English literature could get an English teacher's

certificate by simply completing the requirements. However, according to Henrichsen (1989, p. 126), this led to the hiring of teachers who were not particularly knowledgeable of English. In addition to English literature majors who had probably never had to speak English in their university courses, graduates who had majored "in some subject other than English but had received passing marks in their English classes…were put into English-teaching positions" (p. 162, emphasis in the original). This helped to create teachers who had studied English in the written mode and who then neglected oral/aural skills (Henrichsen, 1989). The implementation of the JET program may be changing that, at least for JTEs who have contact with ALTs. In the survey used to generate data for this report, teachers were asked to gauge their level of agreement to the statement: "My English speaking ability is good enough for me to use in class." A response of "1" meant strong disagreement, while a "5" meant strong agreement, and "3" meant "I don't know."

Table 1: Formal and Informal Influences on Teachers' Instruction

Formal Influences	Informal Influences
Instructional frameworks	Teachers' previous educational experiences
-curriculum guidelines	-teacher age, gender, hometown, ethnicity
Instructional materials	nationality, socioeconomic background
-textbooks	
Assessment of results	Intraschool influences
-external examinations	-principals' expectations, classroom structure, teacher sense of control
Monitoring instruction	over own work, school climate,
-official observation of teaching	collegial expectations, faculty
Teacher education collegiality	Consumer influences
-pre- and in-service teacher training	-business community, higher education, students' families, students'
expectations	Cultural influences
	-beliefs about authority, habits of deference, group orientation, tolerance of deviancy
	Academic influences
	-students' abilities, subject matter
	Teachers' abilities
	-teachers' length of experience, membership in professional associations, teachers' general knowledge of content being taught, teachers' foreign language proficiency
	Previous curriculum influence

Note: Categories adapted from Cohen and Spillane (1992); Fuller, Snyder, Chapman, and Hua (1994); Montero-Sieburth (1992); and Stevenson and Baker (1991).

Previous Educational Experiences

Cohen and Spillane (1992) suggested that of all the influences that can be accounted for, teachers' previous educational experiences have the greatest influence on teachers' eventual instructional practices, going so far as to name elementary and secondary schools as the "prime agencies of teacher education" (p. 26). MacDonald and Rogan (1990) noted that South African science teachers involved in a science education reform project tended to employ teacher-to-whole-class lecture style instruction because they themselves were taught that way. In the end, no matter what educational policies are handed down, teachers' own long "apprenticeship" into teaching (their own educational experiences) (Lortie, 1975, p. 61) will continue to have lasting influence on teachers' instruction (Freeman & Richards, 1993; Kennedy, 1989; Schmidt, Porter, Floden, Freeman, & Schwille, 1987).

For the purposes of this discussion it will be assumed that most high school teachers learned English through yakudoku, a non-oral approach to foreign language instruction, thought to be related to grammar/translation (Bryant, 1956; Henrichsen, 1989; Hino, 1988; Law, 1995). A 1983 survey conducted by the Research Group for College English Teaching in Japan (in Hino, 1988, p. 46) reported that among its 1,012 Japanese university and high school teacher respondents nationwide, 70 to 80 percent used yakudoku in their EFL reading classes. Given this indirect evidence, it is likely that many current Japanese high school English teachers learned English through yakudoku as students. Further, two yakudoku high school teachers, aged around 40, reported to Gorsuch (1998) that they had learned English as high school students using yakudoku.

A brief description of yakudoku instructional practices as reported in Gorsuch (1998) will be given here. In three yakudoku English II classes taught at a boys' high school, Gorsuch observed that the students were required to process English texts by translating them into Japanese. The majority of class time was spent on teachers asking individual students to read their Japanese translations of an English sentence, or phrase, out loud. The teachers would then correct the student's Japanese translation, and then comment on the student's apparent misunderstanding of the grammar of the English text. The teachers would write the English grammar point on the board, and complete a lengthy explanation of the structure, often giving students advice on translating the grammar point into appropriate Japanese. The classes were teacher-centered, and conducted in Japanese.

It is not difficult to see the potential problems an ALT might have

team teaching in such a classroom as described above. With the class being conducted almost entirely in Japanese by the JTE, a non-Japanese speaking ALT could not hope to contribute (ALTs hired by the JET program are either newcomers to Japan or may not have been residents in Japan for more than three years, so they may not achieve a high level of competence as Japanese speakers, according to Wada & Cominos, 1994, p. 5). In addition, the goals of such classes clearly do not include improving students' skills in communicating in English. If in fact most JTEs learned English themselves using yakudoku, it may be unlikely that many JTEs can accommodate, without a struggle, changes in their teaching implied by the presence of an ALT in the classroom. Yet over 5,000 ALTs are currently teaching in Japanese junior and senior high schools, and a struggle is occurring in many JTEs' working lives (see Yukawa, 1992, 1994 for compelling accounts of this phenomenon). In our survey, teachers were asked to assess their level of agreement with the statement: "As a student I studied English primarily through translating English stories, essays, or literary works into Japanese." A response of "1" meant strong disagreement, while a "5" meant strong agreement, and "3" meant "I don't know."

Attitudes towards CLT, ALM, and Yakudoku Activities

The survey used for the larger study of which this report is a part, used five-point Likert scale items which invited teachers to respond affectively to a series of items representing activities associated with three different approaches to language learning: communicative language teaching (CLT), the audiolingual method (ALM), and yakudoku. Over 30 activities were gathered from teaching methodology books and courses and from observations of a variety of Japanese EFL classrooms. The activities were then presented to a panel of eight language educators who had at least a master's degree in TESL. Two were female native speakers of English, two were female native speakers of Japanese, two were male native speakers of English, and two were male native speakers of Japanese. The panel members then categorized each activity as CLT, ALM, or yakudoku. Only those activities which panelists unanimously categorized as one of the three types were included in a pilot questionnaire. The activity items were further revised in response to factor analyses of the pilot questionnaire. On the main questionnaire, higher scores of "4" or "5" indicated teachers' approval of the activities, while lower scores of "1" or "2" indicated disapproval of the activities, and "3" meant "I don't know."

Research Questions

The overall purpose of this article is to report data from a survey of 884 Japanese high school EFL teachers in nine randomly selected prefectures. The first two research questions are:

1. According to the JTEs responding to the survey, what are the relative numbers of teachers who teach English I and II at least once a week with an ALT, less than once a week with an ALT, or not at all?
2. What are the patterns of distribution of ALTs team teaching in English I and II classes according to type of school?

These two questions have been included to address a lack of information in the literature concerning the number and distribution of ALTs in English I and II classes. There may be a mistaken perception on the part of researchers inside and outside Japan that ALTs are universally available to team teach with JTEs in Japanese EFL high school classrooms. The final three questions were raised in the literature review of this report. Do JTEs with different levels of ALT contact have different perceptions of themselves? Further, do they have different levels of approval for different kinds of activities, according to their level of ALT contact? Specifically:

3. Do JTEs' self-reports of English speaking ability differ according to their level of contact with ALTs in English I and II classes?
4. Do JTEs' self-reports of their own English learning experiences differ according to their level of contact with ALTs in English I and II classes?
5. Do JTEs' level of approval of communicative, ALM, and yakudoku activities differ according to level of contact with ALTs in English I and II classes?

Method

Participants: Creating a Generalizable Sample

The participants for this research were 884 Japanese senior high school EFL teachers currently employed full time at public academic, public vocational, and private academic senior high schools in Japan. Probability sampling procedures were followed (Fowler, 1993; Rea & Parker, 1992, p. 147). The prefectures sampled were: Fukui, Kanagawa, Nagano, Saga, Shizuoka, Tokushima, Toyama, Yamagata, and Yama-

guchi, all of which represent a variety of urban, rural, and geographic contexts.

Private high schools were included in the sample. Due to an exploding population from 1946 to 1980 and a restrictive national policy towards growth in public high school education, a substantial number of private high schools were established by 1980, comprising 28.1% of all high schools in Japan (James & Benjamin, 1988, p. 20). All primarily privately funded high schools were termed "private high schools." National, prefectural, and city-funded schools were termed "public high schools." There was no differentiation, for the purposes of this study, between all boys' and girls' schools, and coeducational schools.

Teachers at public vocational and night high schools were also included. While statistics for numbers of English teachers by type of school could not be found at the national level, combined teachers' lists for the nine prefectures surveyed in this study revealed that Japanese English teachers at public vocational and night high schools still constituted a sizable minority, 783 (13%) of 6,167 teachers at public and private academic and public vocational and night high schools.

Materials

The Japanese-language questionnaire was developed according to results of a pilot questionnaire project of 500 Japanese EFL teachers in Tokyo in 1997, from previous research, and from an extensive literature review (see Gorsuch, 1999a). The theoretical background of the items of interest in this report is discussed in the literature review above. For the English-language version of the questionnaire, see Appendix A. Data that answered research question No. 1 came from item B-3. For research question No. 2, the data came from item B-2. For research question No. 3, the data came from item C-1. To answer research question No. 4, data from item C-2 were examined. Finally, for research question No. 5, data from items A-1 through A-12 were examined.

The questionnaire was translated into Japanese by a highly English proficient Japanese female with teaching experience at the high school and university level. The Japanese version was then back-translated into English by a native English speaking professional translator who specializes in translating Japanese into English. Alpha reliability for items A-1 through A-12 was estimated at .71, which indicates moderate reliability. Reliability for items B-2, B-3, C-1, and C-2 was not estimated because they were designed to capture disparate constructs.

Analyses

The numerical responses on the returned questionnaires were hand coded and entered by the researcher into Statview 4.5. To answer research question No. 1, teachers' responses to questionnaire item B-3 (level of involvement with an ALT in English I and II classes) were tabulated. For research question No. 2, teachers' responses to item B-3 were split by type of school (B-2). To determine whether the distribution of ALTs to the three different types of schools was meaningful and not simply a pattern occurring by chance, a chi-square procedure was conducted at $p < .05$. To answer research question No. 3, descriptive statistics of teachers' responses to item C-1 (English speaking ability) were calculated, and were then split by the grouping variable B-3 (JTEs teaching English I and II with an ALT at least once a week, less than once a week, or not at all), resulting in three different mean scores. To determine whether the three resulting means were significantly different, an unbalanced one-way ANOVA procedure was conducted at $p < .05$. To determine whether the data met the assumptions of ANOVA, the data in each of the three cells were checked for normality and for equal variance (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). In the event that the three means were found to be significantly different, the Scheffe test and eta^2 strength of association were calculated to determine how much variance in the data could be attributed to the variable of interest (B-3, in this case). Eta^2 was used because the cells of the ANOVA were unbalanced (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991, p. 331).

To answer research question No. 4, descriptive statistics of teachers' responses to item C-2 (teachers' English learning experiences) were calculated and then split by the grouping variable B-3 (teachers' reported level of involvement with an ALT in English I and II classes), again resulting in three different mean scores. To determine whether the means for the three groups were significantly different, a one-way, unbalanced ANOVA procedure was conducted at $p < .05$. Normality and equivalence of variance for the three cells were checked, and the Scheffe test and eta^2 strength of association were calculated. Finally, to answer research question No. 5, descriptive statistics for items A-1 through A-12 (teachers' level of approval of communicative, ALM, and yakudoku activities) were calculated and then split by the grouping variable B-3. Items A-1 through A-12 were twelve dependent variables, and B-3 was the independent variable. To determine whether the means for the twelve items were significantly different, twelve separate one-way, unbalanced ANOVA procedures were conducted at $p < .0042$ (.05 divided by 12 for 12 comparisons; this was done to adjust for the multiple

comparisons and avoid Type I error assuming a significant difference in means, when in fact the difference is not significant, see Vogt, 1999, pp. 28-29). Normality and equivalence of variance for the three cells of each dependent variable were checked, and the Scheffe test and eta² strength of association were calculated.

Results

The numbers of JTEs responding to the survey who were categorized into three groups according to level of ALT contact in English I and II classes appear in Table 2.

Table 2: JTEs' Reported ALT Contact in English I and II Classes

Group	Number	Percent
Teaches at least once a week with an ALT.	179	20%
Teaches less than once a week with an ALT.	167	19%
Does not teach with an ALT.	538	61%
Total	884	100%

Note: Percentages have been rounded.

The largest group of JTEs responding to this survey (n = 538, or 61% of all respondents) reported that they did not teach English I and II with an ALT. The second largest group reported teaching with ALTs at least once a week (n = 179, or 20%), and the smallest group reported teaching with ALTs less than once a week (n = 167, or 19%).

The distribution of ALTs split by type of school (public academic, public vocational, and private academic) suggested that ALTs are not distributed equally. In Table 3, the observed (actual) frequencies are displayed along with expected frequencies (random frequencies that are predicted in chi square distributions, see Vogt, 1999, pp. 39-40). The chi-square statistic for the data was significant at p < .05 (chi square = 123.067, df = 4). This means that the patterns in the grouping of teachers in the actual data are significantly different from what a random pattern would suggest. For instance, private academic high school JTEs reported not teaching with ALTs in English I and II classes more than expected (229 compared with 159). Private academic high school JTEs also reported teaching with ALTs less than expected (26 compared with

Table 3: Observed and Expected Frequencies for Distribution of
ALTs in English I and II Classes by Type of School

| | Observed (Actual) Frequencies | | | |
	Teach with ALT at least once a week.	Teach with ALT less than once a week.	Do not teach with an ALT.	Total
Public Academic Teachers	72	91	179	342
Public Vocational Teachers	81	70	130	281
Private Academic Teachers	26	6	229	261
Total	179	167	538	884
	Expected Frequencies (frequencies which would occur by chance)			
	Teach with ALT at least once a week.	Teach with ALT less than once a week.	Do not teach with an ALT.	Total
Public Academic Teachers	69	65	208	342
Public Vocational Teachers	57	53	171	281
Private Academic Teachers	53	49	159	261
Total	179	167	538	884

Note: Numbers have been rounded.

53, and 6 compared with 49). ALTs are apparently not assigned to team teach with JTEs in English I and II classes in private academic high schools very often. JTEs at public academic high schools reported teaching with an ALT more than expected (72 compared with 69, and 91 compared with 65), and not teaching with ALTs less than expected (179 compared with 208). Public vocational JTEs reported teaching English I and II with ALTs more than expected (81 compared with 57, and 70 compared with 53). In addition, they reported not teaching with an ALT fewer times than expected (130 compared with 171). Public academic and vocational high schools apparently assign ALTs to team-teach English I and II classes more than random chance would suggest.

Table 4 shows the descriptive statistics for item C-1 (teachers' ratings of their English speaking ability) split by the grouping variable B-3 (level of involvement with an ALT in English I and II classes).

Table 4: JTEs' Self-Reports of English Speaking Ability

	M	SD	Min/Max	Skew	Kurtosis
Teaches English I or II with an ALT at least once a week	3.520	.887	1/5	-.300	-.271
Teaches English I or II with an ALT less than once a week	3.126	.856	1/5	.100	-.188
Does not teach English I or II with an ALT	3.102	.889	1/5	-.027	-.608
Total	3.191	.898	1/5	-.047	-.517

Note: A rating of "5" indicates strong agreement with the statement: "My English speaking ability is good enough for me to use in class," and "1" indicates strong disagreement.

Teachers who reported teaching with ALTs at least once a week had a higher mean score (3.520), indicating a higher self rating of their English ability as used in class. Teachers who reported teaching with ALTs less than once a week or not at all had lower mean scores (3.126 and 3.102, respectively). The difference in means was statistically significant at $p < .05$ ($F = 15.532$, $df = 2$). A post hoc Scheffe test indicated that the mean score of teachers teaching with ALTs at least once a week was significantly higher than the mean for teachers teaching less than a week with an ALT, or not teaching with an ALT. However, the eta^2 statistic indicated that only .046 (4.6%) of the variance in the three mean scores was due to the ALT contact variable. This may be due to the presence of other variables in the data, for example JTEs' type of school, length of career, or perhaps intra-school politics or collegial attitudes. Some respondents may have also been unwilling to answer the question, which may have resulted in systematically lower or higher self-estimates, depending on other personal variables not captured by the questionnaire (Gorsuch, 2000).

Table 5 shows the descriptive statistics for item C-2 (teachers' agreement that they had learned English through yakudoku) split by the grouping variable B-3 (level of involvement with an ALT in English I and II classes).

Table 5: JTEs' Self-Reports of English
Language Learning Experiences

	M	SD	Min/Max	Skew	Kurtosis
Teaches English I or II with an ALT at least once a week	3.291	1.106	1/5	-.368	-.678
Teaches English I or II with an ALT less than once a week	3.545	1.104	1/5	.608	-.362
Does not teach English I or II with an ALT	3.414	1.175	1/5	-.496	-.714
Total	3.414	1.151	1/5	-.489	-.657

Note: A rating of "5" indicates strong agreement with the statement: "As a student I studied English primarily through translating English stories, essays, or literary works into Japanese," and "1" indicates strong disagreement.

The results of the data suggested that JTEs with extensive contact with ALTs had a lower level of agreement with the notion that they had studied English through traditional grammar-translation methods (3.291) than JTEs with limited (3.545) or no ALT contact (3.414). However, a one-way ANOVA with the p value set at .05 indicated that the differences between the means were not statistically significant.

The descriptive statistics for items A-1 through A-12 (JTEs' approval of CLT, ALM, and yakudoku activities) split by the grouping variable B-3 (level of involvement with an ALT in English I and II classes) are in Table 6.

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics for Activities Items Split by
Level of Involvement with an ALT

Item	Activity type	Group	M	SD	Min/Max	Skew	Kurtosis
A-1	Yakudoku	Total	3.466	.955	1/5	-.593	-.141
		1	3.285	.976	1/5	-.414	-.491
		2	3.491	.934	1/5	-.723	.042
		3	3.519	.947	1/5	-.618	-.031
A-2	Communicative	Total	3.372	.907	1/5	-.501	.073
		1	3.425	1.067	1/5	-.548	-.170
		2	3.515	.757	1/5	-.423	.120
		3	3.310	.885	1/5	-.470	-.021
A-3	Communicative	Total	3.656	.903	1/5	-.613	.165
		1	3.883	.953	1/5	-.888	.598
		2	3.886	.738	2/5	-.354	-.023
		3	3.509	.903	1/5	-.558	-.018

Table 6 (Continued)

Item	Activity type	Group	M	SD	Min/Max	Skew	Kurtosis
A-4	Yakudoku	Total	3.084	1.068	1/5	-.295	-.735
		1	2.922	1.070	1/5	-.200	-.729
		2	3.072	1.012	1/5	-.109	-.718
		3	3.141	1.078	1/5	-.381	-.724
A-5	Audiolingual	Total	3.769	.849	1/5	-.807	.825
		1	3.726	.844	1/5	-.674	.730
		2	3.677	.857	1/5	-.643	.314
		3	3.812	.845	1/5	-.910	1.084
A-6	Audiolingual	Total	3.615	.807	1/5	-.578	-.008
		1	3.508	.912	1/5	-.379	-.598
		2	3.611	.749	2/5	-.595	-.014
		3	3.652	.783	1/5	-.628	.232
A-7	Communicative	Total	3.361	.890	1/5	-.386	-.271
		1	3.441	.928	1/5	-.479	-.265
		2	3.419	.891	1/5	-.365	-.445
		3	3.316	.873	1/5	-.374	-.206
A-8	Audiolingual	Total	3.572	.836	1/5	-.583	.274
		1	3.626	.852	1/5	-.774	.796
		2	3.623	.809	1/5	-.706	.557
		3	3.539	.838	1/5	-.484	.048
A-9	Communicative	Total	3.376	.945	1/5	-.351	-.329
		1	3.497	1.005	1/5	-.521	-.293
		2	3.383	.914	1/5	-.218	-.768
		3	3.333	.930	1/5	-.345	-.199
A-10	Yakudoku	Total	3.542	.829	1/5	-.824	.585
		1	3.508	.855	1/5	-.805	.656
		2	3.581	.776	1/5	-.654	.247
		3	3.541	.836	1/5	-.865	.587
A-11	Communicative	Total	3.888	.738	1/5	-1.034	2.404
		1	3.911	.757	1/5	-1.164	3.240
		2	3.964	.656	2/5	-.218	.045
		3	3.857	.754	1/5	-1.136	2.362
A-12	Communicative	Total	3.890	.766	1/5	-1.172	2.525
		1	3.872	.755	1/5	-1.107	2.209
		2	3.916	.669	2/5	-.501	.711
		3	3.888	.796	1/5	-1.299	2.750

Note: Group 1 = teachers teaching with ALTs at least once a week; Group 2 = teachers teaching with ALTs less than once a week; Group 3 = teachers not teaching with ALTs.

Twelve ANOVA procedures were carried out, each with the p value set at .0042. Only one item, A-3, a CLT information gap item calling on students to speak and listen, was significant at p < .0042 (F = 18.865, df = 2). A post hoc Scheffe test indicated that teachers teaching with an ALT at least once a week (3.883) and less than once a week (3.886) were more approving of the CLT activity than teachers with no ALT contact (3.509). Eta^2 was estimated at .057, which indicated that 5.7% of the variance between the three mean scores on A-3 were due to the ALT contact variable. As with the data displayed in Table 4, this may be due to the presence of other variables in the data.

Two other items, A-1 (a yakudoku activity, p = .0166) and A-2 (a CLT reading activity, p = .0267), approached significance, but did not exceed the predesignated p < .0042. On A-1, teachers with no ALT contact (3.519) were more approving of a yakudoku activity than JTEs teaching with an ALT at least once a week (3.285). On A-2, JTEs teaching with an ALT less than once a week (3.515) were more approving of a CLT reading activity than teachers with no ALT contact (3.310).

Discussion

To restate the first research question: According to the JTEs responding to the survey, what are the relative numbers of teachers who teach English I and II at least once a week with an ALT, less than once a week with an ALT, or not at all? A majority of JTEs reported not teaching English I or II with an ALT (Table 2). Employing ALTs is expensive, and not all EFL classrooms at the high school level can be supplied with them. However, there may be an additional reason why ALTs are not assigned to team-teach with the majority of JTEs. In the larger study that generated this report, at least ten teachers commented that ALTs in their school were used in oral communication classes, but not for English I or II classes. The impression gained from this is that English I and II were somehow the territory of JTEs. This may mean that these particular JTEs use English I or II courses to teach non-oral English skills for the purpose of preparing students for university exams.

According to Kawakami (1993), under the previous Monbusho Course of Study (1978 to 1993) JTEs had similar attitudes. The older Course of Study provided for English I and II courses ("four [language] skills" courses, p. 19), English IIA, a listening/speaking course; English IIB, a reading course; and English IIC, a writing course. Kawakami claimed that teachers in schools, assuming that English I and II courses were supposed to help students pass university entrance exams, were decoupling

speaking and listening instruction and simply relegating oral practice to the English IIA course. In current English I and II classrooms, ALTs may not be seen as particularly useful, particularly if ALTs are associated with eikaiwa (oral English used for conversation) and JTEs associate themselves with eigo (non-oral English language as learned from intensive reading) (Law, 1995, pp. 221-222). The distribution of ALTs revealed in this study, then, may be a result of current attitudes about how team teaching is best utilized in EFL education in Japan.

The second research question was: What are the patterns of distribution of ALTs team teaching in English I and II classes according to type of school? There were differences reported by JTEs in the distribution of ALTs according to type of school (public academic, public vocational, and private academic) (Table 3). Refreshingly, a healthy minority of both public academic and public vocational high school teachers reported having at least some ALT contact. This may suggest that there is some approval in these schools of the notion of having ALTs team teach in English I or II classes. It is possible that public high school JTEs (and their local level administrators) are sensitive to recent social trends and Monbusho policies that are arguably leaning towards instruction of English as communication. Because of this trend, JTEs themselves may want to change by developing their skills as teachers, or improving their own oral English skills, in order to meet the changing demands of society. The data also raise the intriguing question of how team teaching activities in vocational schools, schools that are thought to be free of university entrance exam preparation pressure, can be characterized. Clearly, research on EFL instruction in vocational schools should be conducted, something not often done on any topic concerning vocational high school education in Japan (James & Benjamin, 1988; Okano, 1993), even though fully 26% of all high school students in Japan attend vocational high schools (Statistics Bureau, 1997, p. 20).

Private academic high school JTEs reported a low level of ALT contact in English I and II classes. Given the data, it may be necessary to view private academic high schools as quite different from high schools in the public sector. The data may be reflecting the fact that private high schools do not participate in the nationally funded JET program. Either the private sector has its own program, or schools hire native English speaking teachers on their own. If ALTs are present in private high schools in any number, they may simply be used to teach courses intended to develop students' oral skills. Finally, private high school JTEs and administrators may feel less sensitivity towards the same social trends and educational policies named above than their public school

counterparts. For example, Gorsuch (1999a, p. 269) found that the same private academic high school JTEs sampled for this study were more approving of questionnaire item A-4 than public academic and vocational high school JTEs. Item A-4 depicts a yakudoku activity in which students recite their Japanese translations of English texts in English I and II class. The same teachers reported lower levels of approval of CLT activities in English I and II classes than public academic and vocational high school teachers (p. 294). Attitudes towards instruction in private academic high schools may be quite different from those in public high schools. Private academic high schools are likely concerned about attracting students by presenting a successful track record of helping students pass university entrance exams. Whatever the case, if ALTs are associated with CLT instruction, this may account for the pattern of ALT use in private academic high schools found in this study.

ALT Involvement

What is most remarkable, however, is that the data answering research questions 1 and 2 suggest that ALTs are engaged in team teaching in a surprising number of English I or II classrooms. In public academic and vocational high schools, slightly more than half of responding JTEs reported at least some ALT contact. If ALT involvement in English I and II classes was considered truly inappropriate by these teachers, there might not be so many ALTs teaching in these classes. Longitudinal research is needed to answer the question of whether ALT involvement in English I and II classes is on the rise, or is simply a stable phenomenon over time. Of more central concern is the question of causality: Is the presence of ALTs changing JTEs' attitudes about situations in which team teaching is appropriately used? Or are JTEs changing their attitudes on their own, perhaps through social trends, and then simply requesting ALTs in the English I and II classes as a result of their changing attitudes? This is a question worth investigating further, particularly through extensive interviews with JTEs.

Have ALTs Changed JTEs?

To restate the third and fourth research questions: Do JTEs' self-reports of English speaking ability differ according to their level of contact with ALTs in English I and II classes, and do JTEs' self reports of their own English learning experiences differ according to their level of contact with ALTs in English I and II classes? These questions deal with JTEs' perceptions of themselves. The third question in particular deals

with the question raised in the introduction of this report, which was, "Have ALTs changed JTEs?" In terms of JTEs' perceptions of their English speaking ability, I would argue "yes." JTEs who had contact with ALTs in English I and II classes reported their English speaking abilities, as used in class, as being significantly higher than JTEs with limited or no ALT contact (Table 4). I base my argument for causality partly on the observations of Yukawa (1992, 1994), who reported that a JTE, through team teaching a reading course with an ALT, progressively used more and more English in class. Through the JTE's contact with the ALT, it is possible that the JTE's confidence in his ability to use classroom English increased, even though Yukawa characterized the JTE as a good speaker of English before his contact with an ALT.

I also base my argument for causality on common sense. If ALTs are not proficient in Japanese, then JTEs and ALTs must communicate in English in order to plan classes and coordinate their instruction while in class. This interaction would necessarily entail the use of classroom-specific and general English, and would give JTEs exposure to the language presented in the lessons through the oral/aural mode, rather than through the written word. This surely would give participating JTEs a real sense of their English abilities. However, there is always the possibility that JTEs chose to work with ALTs because they were already confident in their ability to use English. Nevertheless, I believe previous research and common sense suggest that ALTs are causing positive changes in JTEs' professional abilities. I urge classroom teachers, both ALTs and JTEs, to conduct their own observations along the lines of Yukawa (1992, 1994), and to conduct self- and other-interviews to pin down the causality issue, as well as to characterize changes in the professional development of ALTs and JTEs.

The fourth research question addressed JTEs' perceptions of their own language learning experiences and whether contact with an ALT has an effect on those perceptions. The data resulting from this survey were inconclusive (Table 5). Teachers with high ALT contact tended to have lower levels of agreement with the notion that they had learned English through yakudoku than teachers with less or no ALT contact. However, the mean scores of the three groups were not significantly different.

Nonetheless, this intriguing question is still worth asking. It raises several issues. First, if the JTEs in this survey had indicated that their self-perceptions did significantly change with high ALT contact, would it mean that at some point in their teaching careers, those JTEs disassociated themselves from their own learning experiences? This is an

interesting possibility, and may indicate the direction for further inquiries into the mechanisms of teacher change. Did such teachers see ALT contact as an opportunity for important professional and personal growth? Were they already on the path of self-development, where team teaching with an ALT was simply an available way to meet those JTEs' goals? Most importantly, why did they want to change? Second, is there a group of JTEs who were self-directed enough to learn English through other means, above and beyond the yakudoku universe of their high school and university learning experiences? What would characterize this group? Early overseas experience? Age? There is the final possibility that through contact with ALTs, JTEs' perceptions of their own personal histories took a major shift, even if JTEs were not initially willing to do team teaching with an ALT. Working with an ALT may constitute a transformative event for such teachers. More research is needed.

JTEs and the Current Political Line

The fifth and final research question was: Does JTEs' level of approval of communicative, ALM, and yakudoku activities differ according to level of contact with ALTs in English I and II classes? JTEs with high ALT contact approved of a communicative information gap activity significantly more than JTEs with less or no ALT contact (Table 6). However, there were no other significant differences in approval of any other activities due to ALT contact. The lack of other significant differences may be for two reasons. First, the activities, as stated, may not have been expressed in ways that teachers can easily apply them to their own practice. That is to say, JTEs may not conceive of and plan their lessons as a series of activities tied to particular approaches to language learning. Instead, they may primarily plan their lessons around vocabulary or grammar structures presented in English I or II textbooks and simply let the lesson flow from that (see Gorsuch, 1999b for a review of English I and II textbooks). Second, JTEs may be feeling beleaguered by recent shifts in educational policy, and may feel reluctant to answer questions about what activities and methodologies they prefer. Therefore, questionnaires may not be the best method of investigating JTEs' approval of activities. Certainly, JTEs' responses to all the activities items in the questionnaire were centered at a rating of mild approval (Table 6), a conservative and cautious place in which to be.

This leaves us with the higher approval of a CLT activity by high-ALT-contact JTEs. There are several reasons why such teachers may approve of the information gap activity. First, teachers who have regular contact with ALTs may find it easier to model CLT pair work activities for stu-

dents with the help of an ALT. Second, it could be that when an ALT is in the classroom, students (and/or the ALT) expect to do something different from highly controlled ALM and yakudoku activities. Finally, there may be a link with teachers' self-perception of English speaking skill – recall that teachers teaching with ALTs at least once a week rated their English speaking skills higher than teachers who had less or no contact with ALTs (Table 6). Perhaps teachers who have more confidence in their ability to speak English are more likely to approve of A-3, the information gap activity.

Conclusion

I believe the data presented in this report generally point to the positive effects ALTs have on JTEs. I think we need to view the JET program and the presence of ALTs as a dynamic, if unevenly available, form of in-service teacher education. Whether a causal factor or not, the presence of an ALT is linked with higher JTE reports of classroom-centered English speaking ability and greater approval of a communicative information gap activity. Clearly, ALTs encourage professional and personal growth in JTEs by helping diversify their instructional practice, and stretching their abilities to communicate in English. I believe that ALTs are indeed changing the way English is taught in Japan, and that they are changing it for the good.

I have noted, however, that ALTs are unevenly distributed in English I and II classes in Japanese high schools, perhaps as a result of prevailing attitudes that ALTs should be used for "communication" and "games." I would like to argue here that ALTs, and CLT activities, belong in English I and II classes. English I and II are the most commonly taught classes in high schools, and if Monbusho wants Japanese students to be able to be the "cosmopolitan" and foreign-language-proficient citizens they dream of (Lincicome, 1993), using ALTS and CLT activities in English I and II classes is the best way to reach the greatest number of students. Further, English I and II courses are four-skills courses, and should not be de facto reading/university exam preparation courses. Finally, there is nothing in the course descriptions for English I and II courses that precludes the use of CLT activities. With a minimum of awareness and planning, CLT activities can promote all of the goals and objectives set out in the English I and II course description in The Course of Study (Ministry of Education, Science, and Culture , 1992).

Acknowledgements

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Appendix

This questionnaire is designed for teachers who are currently teaching English I and/or English II. If you are not teaching these courses this year, please give this questionnaire to a colleague who is teaching English I and/or English II this year. Thank you!

Please read the activity descriptions below and write a circle or check in the blank that best describes your level of agreement. Please consider each activity carefully, and let your response reflect your true impression about the appropriateness of the activities for your current English I or II classes. If you choose "5" for example, this means you would be strongly willing to use the activity in your class. If you choose "1", this means, you would not be at all willing to use the activity. Please choose only one response.

A-1.   The teacher asks students to translate English phrases or sentences into Japanese as preparation for class.
I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:
strongly agree___   agree___   don't know ___   disagree___   strongly disagree___

        5   4   3   2   1

A-2.   The teacher has students look at a page that has a "picture strip story." Students can uncover only one picture at a time. Before uncovering the next picture, the students predict, writing the prediction in English, what will happen in the next picture. Students can then look at the next picture to confirm or disconfirm their predictions.

I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:
strongly agree____   agree____   don't know ____   disagree____   strongly disagree__
—
          5   4   3   2   1

A-3.   The teacher has the students work face to face in pairs. One student sees a page
         that has some missing information. The other student sees a different page that
         has that information. The first student must ask questions in English to the other
         student to find the missing information.
I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:
strongly agree____   agree____   don't know ____   disagree____   strongly disagree__
—
          5   4   3   2   1

A-4.   The teacher asks students to translate English phrases or sentences into Japanese
         in preparation for class. Then in class, the teacher calls on individual students to
         read their Japanese translation of an English phrase or sentence, and the teacher
         corrects it if necessary and gives the whole class the correct translation with an
         explanation.
I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:
strongly agree____   agree____   don't know ____   disagree____   strongly disagree__
—
          5   4   3   2   1

A-5.   The teacher has students chorally repeat word pairs such as sheep/ship and
         leave/live.
I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:
strongly agree____   agree____   don't know ____   disagree____   strongly disagree__
—
          5   4   3   2   1

A-6.   The teacher has students memorize and practice a short English sentence pattern.
         The teacher then gives the students a one word English cue and has the students
         chorally say the sentence pattern using the new word.
I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:
strongly agree____   agree____   don't know ____   disagree____   strongly disagree__
—
          5   4   3   2   1

A-7.   The teacher pairs off students. Then the teacher asks the students to write a letter
         in English to their partner.
I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:
strongly agree____   agree____   don't know ____   disagree____   strongly disagree__
—
          5   4   3   2   1

A-8.   The teacher has students memorize an English dialog and then has the students
         practice the dialog together with a partner.
I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:
strongly agree____   agree____   don't know ____   disagree____   strongly disagree__
—
          5   4   3   2   1

A-9.   The teacher has pairs or small groups of students ask each other and then answer
          questions in English about their opinions.
I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:
strongly agree____   agree____   don't know ____   disagree____   strongly disagree__
—
          5   4   3   2   1

A-10.   Students read a sentence in Japanese, and then see an equivalent English sentence
          below where the words have been scrambled up. The students must then rewrite
          the English sentence in the correct order suggested by the Japanese sentence.
I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:
strongly agree____   agree____   don't know ____   disagree____   strongly disagree__
—
          5   4   3   2   1

A-11.   On one page students see a picture. Underneath the picture are several short
          English stories. Students have to choose which story they think best matches the
          picture.
I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:
strongly agree____   agree____   don't know ____   disagree____   strongly disagree__
—
          5   4   3   2   1

A-12.   On a page, students see an English paragraph in which the sentences have
been scrambled. The teacher then asks the students to put the sentences into order so
the paragraph makes sense.
I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:
strongly agree____   agree____   don't know ____   disagree____   strongly disagree__
—
          5   4   3   2   1

A-13. What activity do you feel is most effective for your students in your English I or II
          class? Please write a brief description here: (Optional)

Please answer the following questions by writing a check next to the most correct answer. Choose only one response.

B-1. How many years have you been teaching in high school?
_____   0-8 years
_____   9-16 years
_____   17+ years

B-2. What kind of high school are you currently teaching in?
_____ public academic high school
_____ public commercial or industrial high school
_____ public night high school
_____ private academic school

B-3. Are you currently teaching English I or English II with an ALT (Assistant Language
Teacher)?

_____   Yes, at least once a week.
_____   Yes, but less than once a week.
_____   No, I do not teach English I or English II with an ALT.

Please read the sentences below and write a check in the blank that best describes your level of agreement. Choose only once response.

C-1.   My English speaking ability is good enough for me to use in class.
strongly agree_____   agree_____   don't know _____   disagree_____   strongly disagree__
__
        5   4   3   2   1

C-2.   As a student I studied English primarily through translating English stories, essays,
        or literary works into Japanese.
strongly agree_____   agree_____   don't know _____   disagree_____   strongly disagree__
__
        5   4   3   2   1

C-3.   I think the pace we have to teach English at my high school is:
much too fast_____   fast_____   about right_____   slow_____   much too slow_____
        5   4   3   2   1

C-4.   The average size of my English I or English II classes is:
over 50_____   40-49_____   30-39_____   20-29_____   below 19_____
        5   4   3   2   1

Please read the sentences below concerning your current instruction in English I and II classes and write a check in the blank that best describes your level of agreement. Choose only one response.

D-1.   The Monbusho guidelines for English I and English II influences my classroom
        practice.
strongly agree_____   agree_____   don't know _____   disagree_____   strongly disagree__
__
        5   4   3   2   1

D-2.   College and university entrance exams influence my classroom practice.
strongly agree_____   agree_____   don't know _____   disagree_____   strongly disagree__
__
        5   4   3   2   1

D-3.   The textbook my students are using influences my classroom practice.
strongly agree_____   agree_____   don't know _____   disagree_____   strongly disagree__
__
        5   4   3   2   1

D-4.   The teaching license program I completed at university influences my current
        classroom practice.
strongly agree_____   agree_____   don't know _____   disagree_____   strongly disagree__
__
        5   4   3   2   1

D-5.   In-service teacher education specifically designed for English teaching offered
        by my prefectural or municipal board of education influences my classroom
        practice.
strongly agree_____   agree_____   don't know _____   disagree_____   strongly disagree__
_
        5   4   3   2   1

_____ In-service teacher education for English teaching is not available from the Board
of Education for me.

D-6.   The way I learned English as a student influences my current classroom prac-
tice.
strongly agree_____   agree_____   don't know _____   disagree_____   strongly disagree__
_
        5   4   3   2   1

D-7.   My English teaching colleagues influence my classroom practice.
strongly agree_____   agree_____   don't know _____   disagree_____   strongly disagree__
_
        5   4   3   2   1

D-8.   The principal at my school influences my classroom practice.
strongly agree_____   agree_____   don't know _____   disagree_____   strongly disagree__
_
        5   4   3   2   1

D-9.   Teaching courses I have taken privately influence my current classroom prac-
tice.
strongly agree_____   agree_____   don't know _____   disagree_____   strongly disagree__
_
        5   4   3   2   1

_____ I have not taken teaching courses privately.

D-10.   My membership in a private academic organization influences my
        classroom practice.
strongly agree_____   agree_____   don't know _____   disagree_____   strongly disagree__
_
        5   4   3   2   1

_____ I am not a member of an academic organization.

D-11.   The English I and English II syllabus used at my school influences my classroom
        practice.
strongly agree_____   agree_____   don't know _____   disagree_____   strongly disagree__
_
        5   4   3   2   1

D-12.   The number of students in my English I or II classes influences my classroom
        practice. (i.e., Would you teach differently if your classes had many students or
        few students?)

strongly agree____   agree____   don't know ____   disagree____   strongly disagree__
—

     5   4   3   2   1

D-13.   The ALT I teach English I or II with influences my classroom practice.
strongly agree____   agree____   don't know ____   disagree____   strongly disagree__
—

     5   4   3   2   1

_____ I do not currently teach English I or English II with an ALT.

D-14.   The expectations of my students' parents influences my classroom practice.
strongly agree____   agree____   don't know ____   disagree____   strongly disagree__
—

     5   4   3   2   1

D-15.   My students' expectations about how to study English influences my classroom practice.
strongly agree____   agree____   don't know ____   disagree____   strongly disagree__
—

     5   4   3   2   1

D-16.   My students' abilities in English influence my classroom practice.
strongly agree____   agree____   don't know ____   disagree____   strongly disagree__
—

     5   4   3   2   1

D-17.   My level of English speaking ability influences my classroom practice.
strongly agree____   agree____   don't know ____   disagree____   strongly disagree__
—

     5   4   3   2   1

D-18.   What is one influence not listed above that you feel strongly influences your instruction of English I or English II? (Optional)

Communicative Language Teaching の実現を促す英語科組織の経営特性－高等学校の英語科経営に関する質問紙調査を通して－
(Organizational Effectiveness of Upper Secondary School English Language Departments and Their Commitment toward Communicative Language Teaching)

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Since 1970, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has developed as a predominant trend in the world of second language teaching. CLT has had an enormous influence on theoretical aspects of second language teaching, but there has not been much evidence of change in its practical application. In the academic area of English language education research, the major focus has been on methods of instruction, teaching content, and political aspects. However, little attention has been paid to how English language education is carried out in an organized manner among the personnel of English language departments (EL departments) in Japanese schools. In order to understand the organizational characteristics appropriate to CLT practices, this study investigates (1) the realities of EL department members' commitment to CLT in public upper secondary schools in Japan, (2) the organizational characteristics of EL departments, and (3) the relationship between the organizational characteristics and the commitment to CLT

The framework to analyze organizational characteristics of the EL departments was constructed based on the theory of organizational science and research of effective schools, which consists of four criteria: adaptability, goal rationality, collegiality, and orientation. Adaptability is a criterion to assess the flexibility of EL departments in adapting to their external environments and their creativity in the face of a changing world. Goal-rationality is a criterion to assess levels of goal-attainment through the PDS cycle; setting department objectives and plans to attain them (Plan), carrying them out (Do), and evaluating them (See).

Collegiality refers to the assessment of the efficiency of the management, and collaboration among the members of EL departments. Orientation refers to the assessment of the maintenance of the value patterns shared among the members, levels of morale, and commitment to develop the quality of their English language education. The framework for CLT is based on Kumaravadivelu's (1994) macrostrategies.

To collect data about the realities of organizational characteristics of EL departments and CLT practices, a questionnaire was administered at 128 upper secondary schools in the Chugoku area. The data of 82 schools were finally used to analyze their relations.

As a result, the following conclusions were reached:

> (1) CLT can be divided into two types: activity-based CLT and form-based CLT. In most schools, both types are considered as ideal ways of teaching the language, but considering the relatively small proportion of schools where CLT is put into practice, it seems to be difficult to apply them under the present organizational conditions of EL departments.
>
> (2) The organizational characteristics of EL departments can be grasped from the four criteria: adaptability, goal-rationality, collegiality, and orientation, and they are different from school to school.
>
> (3) The four organizational characteristics were confirmed to promote CLT practices. Orientation and goal-rationality are especially crucial to realize CLT. In terms of CLT types, form-based CLT can be rationally put into practice through the PDS management cycle, but to realize activity-based CLT, which has been recently called for in the Japanese Course of Study, it is not enough to introduce such a rational approach, but it furthermore requires collaboration in which teachers exchange and share their trials and errors in these practices and conceptualize their own CLT.

高等学校の英語科組織の経営特性と、英語科教員のCommunicative Language Teaching(CLT)へのコミットメントの現状を質問紙調査を通して把握し、CLTの実現を促す英語科組織の経営のあり方を追求することを目的としている。調査票は教育経営学や組織研究などの知見をもとに作成され、英語科組織の4つの経営特性(適応性、目標合理性、連帯性、志向性)とその成員のCLTへのコミットメントに関する質問項目から構成された。分析の結果、1)CLTの実現には英語科教員の意識レベルのコミットメントを促すような職場環境が必要であること、2)4つの経営特性はCLTの実現に有効に働きかけること、3)特に活動重視型CLTの実現は合理的な運営方式のみでは不十分であり、英語科組織成員がお互いの経験や問題意識を共有することを通じて状況に応じたCLTを創っていくことが必要であること、などが明らかにされた。

近年の高等学校学習指導要領(外国語科)では、コミュニケーション能力の育成が志向されると同時に、現場教員による、状況に応じた柔軟な指導ができるように、指導上の様々な規制が緩和されてきた。その徴候は、英語の指導内容や方法、科目数など学習指導要領の様々な面に伺うことができる。その一方で、和田(1998)は、この「柔軟」を「自由」あるいは「自律」と受け止めるか、「混沌」と受け止

めるか、英語教員の自律性の問題を考える必要性があることを指摘している。しかし、これまでの英語教育研究では、指導方法や内容に焦点が当てられてきたが、同じ学校に属する英語科教員の集団であり現場の英語教育を裁量する主体である「英語科組織」が状況に応じた学校固有の問題にいかに対処して英語教育を経営していくのかということに関しては殆ど議論されてこなかった。このような現実を踏まえ、山森(2000b)では英語科組織の経営の必要性を説き、山森(2000a)ではそのあり方を考慮すべく英語科組織の有効性の指標を構築した。そこで本稿は、その有効性指標とコミュニケーション志向の英語教育(Communicative Language Teaching: 以下、CLTと略す)との関連を探ることを通して、英語科組織の経営のあり方を実証的に追求することを目的としている。

<div align="center">英語科組織の有効性</div>

　英語科組織はいかなる状態の時に「有効である」と言えるのであろうか。組織論や経営学では、組織の能力を包括的に呼ぶ言葉として「有効性(effectiveness)」という用語が使用されている。しかし、この有効性の概念を把握するための基準は多様でかつ同定するのは難しい(Cameron & Whetten, 1983)。例えば、Steers(1975)やCampbell(1977)は有効性に関する先行研究を概観し、それまで扱われていた多数の有効性指標を提示している(適応性・柔軟性、生産性、満足度など)。

　このような指標を整理するためにQuinn & Rohrbaugh (1983)は有効性に関する３つの価値次元を提示している。まず第１の次元「焦点」は、組織の関心が組織内部にあるのか、外部にあるのかを示している。組織関心が内部にある場合、組織は社会・技術的システムとみなされ、組織成員は、好き嫌いなどの独特の感情をもち、職場での語らい、適切な情報、そして安定性を要求する。一方、組織関心が外部にある場合は、組織はその使命の達成や組織資源を獲得するといった目標を果たすためにデザインされた道具とみなされる。次に第２の次元「構造」は、組織の柔軟性と安定性を両極にもつ。前者は革新と変化をその中心的な価値とし、多様性や個々人の直感、適応性が強調される。一方、後者は秩序と制御をその中心的な価値とし、権威や構造、調整などが強調される。そして第３の次元「目的か方法か」は、組織の有効性をその目的の到達度とみるか、到達過程とみるか、という次元である。以上の次元を組み合わせQuinn & Rohrbaugh (1983)は４つの有効性指標を提示している。山森(2000a)ではこの指標に基づき英語科組織の有効性の枠組みを構築した(図１)。

　「適応性」は、学校内外の環境、あるいは社会的状況や要望などに英語科組織や英語教育がどれだけ柔軟に適応しているかを示す経営特性、「目標合理性」は、目標を設定し、それを達成するための合理的な計画やその実行、結果の評価を通して、目標を達成しているかを示

す経営特性、「連帯性」は、英語科教員同士の協働的活動が組織・実践されているかを示す経営特性、「志向性」は、英語科教員の間に共有される、英語授業や経営のあり方に関する価値観や、英語教育の質を高めようとする士気が維持されているかを示す経営特性、である。以上を考慮すれば、これまで英語教育の経営的側面は目標合理性のみから捉えられてきたといえよう。しかし、同指標に基づけば、英語科組織の経営特性をより包括的に把握できると同時に、経営の方向性を多角的に示すことが可能である。

英語科組織の経営特性とCLTとの関連

　それでは、以上の４つの経営特性はコミュニケーション志向の英語教育(CLT)の実現に有効に働きかけるのであろうか。ここでは、高等学校における英語科組織の経営特性とCLTとの間にある関係を解明することを目的に実施した質問紙調査の結果を報告する。

調査課題

1)英語科教員のCLTへのコミットメントの現状の把握。
2)英語科組織の経営特性の現状の把握。
3)英語科組織の経営特性とCLTへのコミットメントとの関係の解明。

調査

調査手法

郵送法による質問紙調査。2000年7〜9月実施。

調査対象

中国地区(5県)に在する公立高等学校(全309校ー普通高校と専門高校の比率は74%と26%)の英語科教員を調査対象とした。最終的に128校(回収率41%)の419名分の回答を有効データとして扱った。同標本校数は信頼度が95%で誤差幅7%、普通高校と専門高校の比率はそれぞれ70%と30%であり、後述する因子分析ではこれらのデータを全て用いた。

分析枠組み
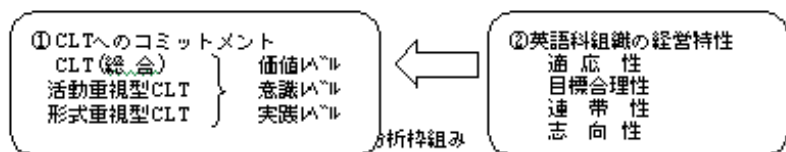
図2は本調査の分析枠組みを示している。まず①CLTへのコミットメントと②英語科組織の経営特性の現状を把握し、その後、両者の関係を分析する。①CLTへのコミットメントに関する質問項目は、Kumaravadivelu(1994)のマクロストラテジー(see 山森, 1999)を、学習指導要領などをもとに日本の英語教育の現状に合うように調整・項目化したものであり、各項目を価値レベル(重要だと思うか)、意識レベル(勤務校において意識しているか)、実践レベル(実際に実践しているか)の観点から尋ねている(表1)。また、②英語科組織の経営特性に関する質問項目は、図1、及び、Rosenholtz (1991)などの効果的学校研究の成果をもとに作成された(表6)。

分析手法

質問項目は、「全くそうである」から「全くそうでない」の7段階のリカート方式により回答が求められた。各回答に対し7点〜1点の点数を与え回答者の得点とし、この得点をもとに統計分析を施した。まず、図2の①と②それぞれの質問項目群ごとに因子分析を実施し

た。次に回答者が質問項目に与えた得点を抽出因子ごとに合計し、項目数で除すことにより算出した数値を回答者個人の得点とした。本調査では組織単位の実態把握を主眼としていることを踏まえ、回答者個人の得点をもとに英語科組織(学校)ごとの平均得点を算出し、対象校の代表値とした。ただし、代表値が対象校の現状を反映するにはある程度の人数が必要であることを考慮に入れ、英語科組織成員の半数以上から回答が得られた高校のみをその後の分析の対象とした。最終的に82校の英語科組織がこの基準を満たし、同標本は信頼度95%で誤差幅10%、普通高校と専門高校の比率は63%と37%となった。

結果と考察
CLTへのコミットメントの現状
　表1はCLTへのコミットメントに関する各質問項目である。

質　問　項　目	略　　称
教師と生徒が協同して英語授業を創り上げる。	学習機会最大化
英語で積極的にコミュニケーションを図ろうとする態度を育成する。	意思伝達態度
コミュニケーション活動を可能な限り実施する。	意味交渉促進
複数の技能を授業にできるだけ織り混ぜる。	4技能統合
言語の使用場面や働きを考慮に入れた活動を行う。	言語文脈化
生徒自らが文法規則を帰納的に推測・発見するような授業を行う。	帰納的文法指導
英語の文法規則に対する分析的な力を養うような文法指導を行う。	言語意識化
自主性を養う学習方法の指導や問題解決学習などの方策を施す。	自律性
様々な国の文化、日本文化に関する知識・意識・態度を育成する。	異文化理解
英語学習の意義を見きわめ、それを授業に反映させる。	社会認識
進学に十分な量の英語知識(文法・語彙など)を指導する。	英語知識

　まず、各質問項目に与えられた点数をレベル(価値、意識、実践)ごとに合計した[1]。この合計点はあらゆる要素を含んだCLTへのコミットメントの度合いを表し、以下では「CLT(総合)」と呼ぶ。そして、レベル間の平均値の差が統計的に有意か確認した(反復測定分散分析)。その結果、各レベルの効果は有意であり($F_{(2,1254)}$=228.29, p<.001)、多重比較によれば、価値>意識>実践の順であった(MSe=80.76, p<.05)。以上の結果は、英語科教員が理想としているCLT(価値レベル)と、現場の状況を踏まえて意識されるCLT(意識レベル)、実際に実践されるCLT(実践レベル)は異なること、及び、CLTに対するコミットメントは価値レベルでは高いが、意識レベル、実践レベルの順に低くなることを示唆している。
　次に、コミットメントのレベル間の相関関係を求めた結果、価値と意

識レベルには中程度の正の相関(r=.49, p<.001)、意識と実践レベルには強い正の相関(r=.85, p<.001)、価値と実践レベルには弱い正の相関(r=.27, p<.001)が確認された(表2)。この結果は、CLTの実践(実践レベル)は、教員の理想的なCLT像(価値レベル)というよりも現場状況に応じて意識されるCLT像(意識レベル)に強く規定されることを示唆している。

	意識レベル		実践レベル	
価値レベル	.49	***	.27	***
意識レベル			.85	***

***p<.001

さらに、CLTの実践を規定すると考えられる意識レベルの質問項目に与えられた得点をもとに因子分析を実施した。その結果、2つの因子が抽出された(表3)。

質　問　項　目	因子Ⅰ	因子Ⅱ
<活動重視型CLT>		
言語行為能度	.84	-.14
意味交渉促進	.70	.02
4技能統合	.57	.15
言語文脈化	.57	.18
<形式重視型CLT>		
言語意識化	-.06	.75
帰納的文法指導	.13	.60
英語知識	-.04	.54
自律性	.31	.44
固有値	.85	.81

プロマックス回転

各因子を構成する質問項目より、第Ⅰ因子は、意味ある場面における4技能を統合した言語活動を通して、コミュニケーションを図ろうとする態度を養うことを示しているため「活動重視型CLT」と名付けられた。この種のCLTは、生徒の言語「使用」に焦点があり、近年の学習指導要領において実現が強調されている指導法でもある。一方、第Ⅱ因子は、英語の知識(文法や語彙)の指導の中でも生徒の自発性を尊重し、生徒自身が主体的・帰納的に言語構造を構築する能力を養うことを示しているため「形式重視型CLT」と名付けられた。この種のCLTは、生徒の言語に対する意識や分析力を養うことに焦点があり、従来の機械的な知識詰め込み型の文法指導とは性格を異にする。以上、抽出された因子ごとに質問項目に与えられた点数を合計し、項目数で除すことにより得られた数値を回答者個人の得点とした。

コミットメントのレベル間の平均値の差が統計的に有意か確認した結果(反復測定分散分析)、各レベルの効果は有意であり(活動重視型

CLT: $F_{(2,1254)}$=234.66, p<.001, 形式重視型CLT: $F_{(2,1254)}$=130.75, p<.001)、多重比較によれば、両者ともに価値>意識>実践の順であった(活動重視型CLT: MSe=1.03, p<.05, 活動重視型CLT: MSe=1.02, p<.05)。ここでもコミットメントに３つのレベルが存在することが確認された。

　次に、活動重視型CLTと形式重視型CLTそれぞれにおけるコミットメントのレベル間の相関係数を算出した結果、価値と実践レベルの相関関係が前者では低い相関(r=.25)であった(表４)のに対し、後者では中程度の相関(r=.40)があった(表５)。これは、活動重視型CLTは理想として認識されていたとしても、形式重視型CLTに比べ、現実の指導方法として意識、あるいは実践され難いことを示唆している。

	意識レベル	実践レベル
価値レベル	.46 ***	.25 ***
意識レベル		.82 ***

***p<.001

	意識レベル	実践レベル
価値レベル	.52 ***	.40 ***
意識レベル		.89 ***

***p<.001

　最後に、CLT(総合)、活動重視型CLT、形式重視型CLTへのコミットメントそれぞれに対して回答者が与えた得点から学校ごと(82校)の平均得点を算出した。そして、各学校を高得点群、中間点群、低得点群に分類し、その割合を図式化した(図３～５)。

　CLT(総合)、活動重視型CLT、形式重視型CLTのいずれの意識レベルにおいても過半数(72%, 79%, 61%)の学校が高得点群に属していることから、CLTが学校現場に浸透してきていると言えよう。しかし、価値、意識、実践レベルという順で高得点群の割合が減少し、逆に中間点群と低得点群の割合が増加している。これは、各校の英語科教員が掲げる英語教育の理想像は高いが、それを現状では十分に実現できていないことを示唆している。その原因として、学校の環境的要因(教員の多忙さ、生徒の雰囲気など)やCLTの技術的困難さなどが考えられる。そのような要因を含め、CLTが実現されている学校ではどのような英語科経営がなされているのかを検証する必要がある。

英語科組織の経営特性の現状
　英語科組織の経営特性に関する質問項目について因子分析を実施し、予測された因子数や寄与率などから４つの因子が抽出された(表６)。各因子を構成している質問項目より、第Ⅰ因子は志向性、第Ⅱ因子は連帯
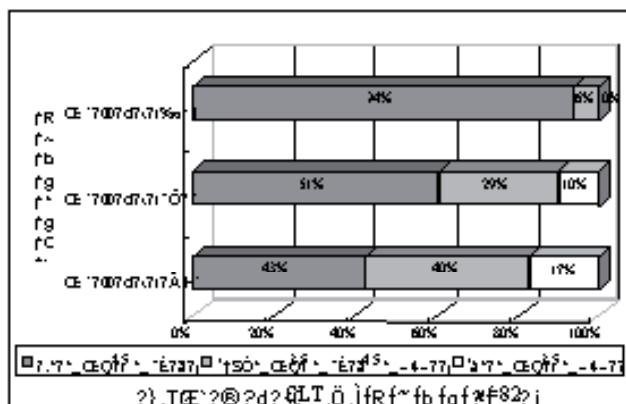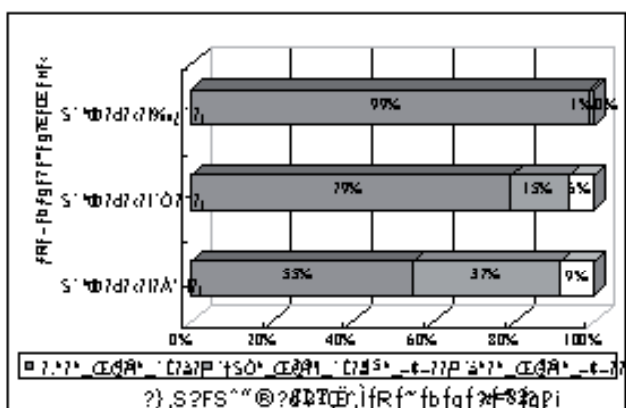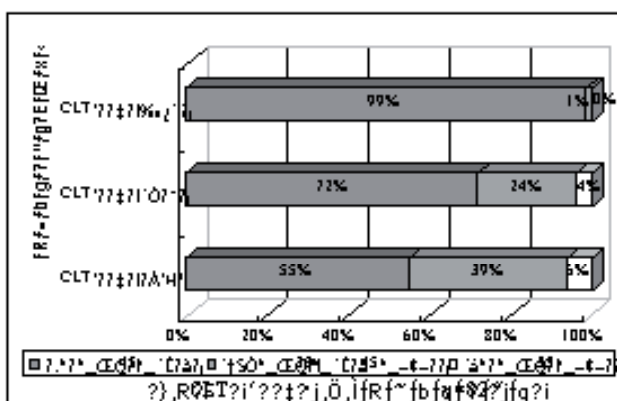
性、第Ⅲ因子は目標合理性、第Ⅳ因子は適応性、を示していることが分かる。また、各経営特性を構成する質問項目の内的一貫性をクロンバックのα係数により算出した結果、高い信頼性が確認された(表6)。

次に、各経営特性に対して回答者が与えた得点から学校ごと(82校)の平均値を算出し、対象校を高得点群、中間点群、低得点群に分類し、その割合を図式化した(図6)。

適応性と目標合理性に関しては、中間点群が過半数を占め(57%と51%)、残りは高得点群と低得点群に二分化し、連帯性と志向性は高得点群の割合が非常に高い(91%と72%)。多くの英語科組織では外部情報を獲得し、それに適応するために、英語教育の目標や計画を立て、実行、評価するという一般に考えられる経営が必ずしもなされていないことが伺える。その一方で、英語科教員同士の協力関係は高く、英語指導の質的向上に関して意欲的な学校が多いことが分かる。

	質 問 項 目	因子Ⅰ	因子Ⅱ	因子Ⅲ	因子Ⅳ
志向性	本校での英語指導に誇りを持っている。				
	英語集団は英語指導の向上的に意欲的である。				
	英語集団は英語を教えることを楽しんでいる。				
	英語教育に新しいアイデアを出す教員が多い。				
	英語授業や教材研究に熱心な英語教員が多い。				
	英語教育を向上させようとする雰囲気がある。				
連帯性	授業方法や生徒とのかかわり方の問題、意見を述べ合うことができる。				
	英語集団内で英語教育に関して協力的な雰囲気がある。				
	英語教育について話し合える雰囲気がある。				
	英語集団から適切な指導や助言を得ることができる。				
	アイデアや教材を共有し合える教員は英語科内に多い。				
	生徒の英語学習に対する悩みや悩みを把握するように取り組んでいる。				
目標合理性	指導内容が細かく規定されている。				
	英語力に関する評価が頻繁になされる。				
	大計・戦略や方針に関する基本的な運営が校内組織で行われている。				
	生徒の英語力を評価する機会は多い。				
	科内で吟味された指導方針や目標、重点項目がある。				
	明確な年間目標が設定されている。				
適応性	保健室・地方教育庁による英語教育に関する助言を聞く機会がある。				
	保護者の意見・要望を英語科指導に反映するように努力がなされている。				
	学校内・地域の教育方針や重点項目が生徒に明確に周知化されている。				
	現行学習指導要領を重視していると関連している。				
	他教科との連携が図られる機会やシステムがある。				
	現行学習指導要領を問題に認識している。				
	寄 与 率(%)	14	10	6	5
	α 係 数	.89	.82	.79	.73

プロマックス回転

英語科組織の経営特性とCLTへのコミットメントとの関係

英語科組織の経営特性とCLTへのコミットメントとの関係を明らかにするために相関分析を実施した。
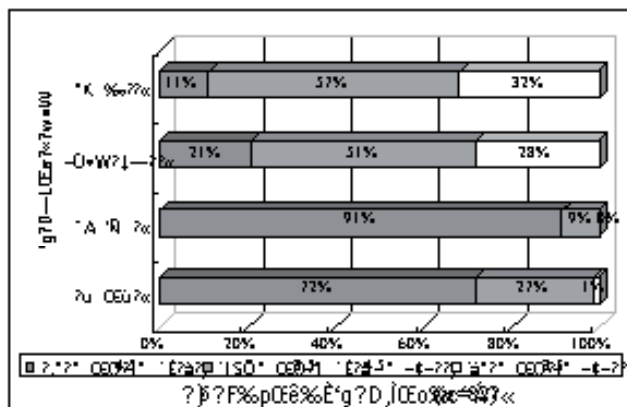
英語科組織の経営特性とCLT(総合)へのコミットメントとの関係

価値レベルに関しては、連帯性($r=.41, p<.001$)と志向性($r=.51, p<.001$)に比較的高い正の相関が確認された。また、意識と実践レベルに関しては、目標合理性($r=.44, r=.44$ともに$p<.001$)と志向性($r=.60, r=.53$ともに$p<.001$)に比較的高い正の相関が、適応性($r=.26, p<.05, r=.30, p<.01$)と連帯性($r=.34, r=.33$ともに$p<.01$)に低い正の相関が確認された(表7)。

以上の結果は、CLT(総合)が実施されている英語科組織は、適応性、目標合理性、連帯性、志向性が強いことを示しており、これらの経営特性を高めることで、CLT(総合)へのコミットメントが意識・実践レベルにおいて促されることを示唆している。特に、目標合理性と志向性はCLTの意識・実践レベルのコミットメントとの関係が強く、CLTの実現には英語指導の質を高めていこうとする英語科教員の士気と共に、それを、計画－実行－評価という合理的経営のなかで実現していく必要性が示唆された。

	Ｃ ｌ Ｔ (経 △)		
	価値レベル	意識レベル	実践レベル
適応性	.12 n.s.	.26 **	.30 ***
目標合理性	.14 n.s.	.44 ***	.44 ***
連帯性	.41 ***	.34 **	.33 **
志向性	.51 ***	.60 ***	.53 ***

† p<.10, * p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001 n.s. = not significant

英語科組織の経営特性（活動重視型と形式重視型）
へのコミットメントとの関係

　まず、志向性には、活動重視型CLTと形式重視型CLTの全レベルに対し、比較的高い正の相関(活動重視型CLT: r=.44, r=.56, r=.48, 形式重視型CLT: r=.44, r=.51, r=.49, いずれもp<.001)が確認された。次に、目標合理性には、活動重視型CLTの意識・実践レベルに低い正の相関(r=.33, r=.33, ともにp<.01)が、形式重視型CLTには比較的高い正の相関(r=.57, r=.61, ともにp<.001)が確認された。また、価値レベルにおいては、活動重視型CLTとに相関が認められなかったが、形式重視型CLTとには、低い正の相関(r=.23, p<.05)が確認された。適応性には、活動重視型CLTとの間に十分な相関が認められず、形式重視型CLTの意識・実践レベルとの間に低い正の相関(r=.36, p<.001, r=.34, p<.01)が確認された。最後に連帯性には、活動重視型CLTの全レベルに対し、低い正の相関(r=.37, r=.38, ともにp<.001, r=.30, p<.01)が確認され、形式重視型CLTとの間には価値レベルのみに低い正の相関(r=.29, p<.01)が確認された(表8)。

　以上をまとめるならば、英語科組織の志向性は活動重視型CLTと形式重視型CLTを同じように促すが、適応性は形式重視型CLTを、連帯性は活動重視型CLTを促す。また目標合理性は両者を促すが、その傾向は形式重視型CLTにおいて強い。これは、1)志向されるCLTの類型(活動重視型か形式重視型)に応じて英語科組織の４つの経営特性が果たす役割が異なること、2)形式重視型CLTは英語科組織の外部環境への適応活動を通じて生み出され、活動重視型CLTは英語科組織内部における教員同士の協働を通じて生み出されること、及び、3)形式重視型CLTに比べ、活動重視型CLTは、目標化あるいは評価し難いためか、計画－実行－評価

	活動重視型CLT			形式重視型CLT		
	価値レベル	意識レベル	実践レベル	価値レベル	意識レベル	実践レベル
適応性	.13 n.s.	.19 +	.21 +	.15 n.s.	.36 ***	.34 **
目標合理性	.07 n.s.	.33 **	.33 **	.23 *	.57 ***	.61 ***
連帯性	.37 ***	.38 ***	.30 **	.29 **	.19 +	.17 n.s.
志向性	.44 ***	.56 ***	.48 ***	.44 ***	.51 ***	.49 ***

† p<.10, * p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001 n.s. = not significant

といった経営方式にはなじみ難いこと、を示唆している。

英語科組織の経営特性とCLTの類型の対応関係

　経営特性と各校で志向されるCLTの類型との対応関係を一層明確に確認するために、活動重視型CLTと形式重視型CLTへのコミットメント(意識レベル)の平均値をもとに、対象校を、活動重視型CLTと形式重視型CLTの両者を志向する学校(統合型: 33校)、前者のみを志向する学校(活動重視型: 10校)、後者のみを志向する学校(形式重視型: 12校)、どちらも志向していない学校(不完全型: 27校)、の４つに類型化した。図７は各類型に属する英語科組織の経営特性の平均値(平均値0, 標準偏差1に標準化)を表している。

　類型別の主効果は、有意傾向を示した適応性($F_{(3,78)}$=2.50, p<.10)を除く、目標合理性($F_{(3,78)}$=6.53, p<.001)、連帯性($F_{(3,78)}$=4.58, p<.01)、志向性($F_{(3,78)}$=7.73, p<.001)において有意であった。多重比較より、目標合理性は、統合型≒形式重視型>活動重視型>不完全型(MSe=.83, p<.05)、連帯性は、活動重視型≒統合型>形式重視型≒不完全型(MSe=.88, p<.05)、志向性は、統合型>形式重視型≒不完全型、統合型≒活動重視型>不完全型(但し活動重視型≒形式重視型。MSe=.80, p<.05)であった。

　以上の結果に考察を加える。まず、適応性に関しては、志向されるCLTの類型による英語科組織間の統計的な相違はみられなかった。し

図7　各類型における英語科組織の経営特性の平均値の比較
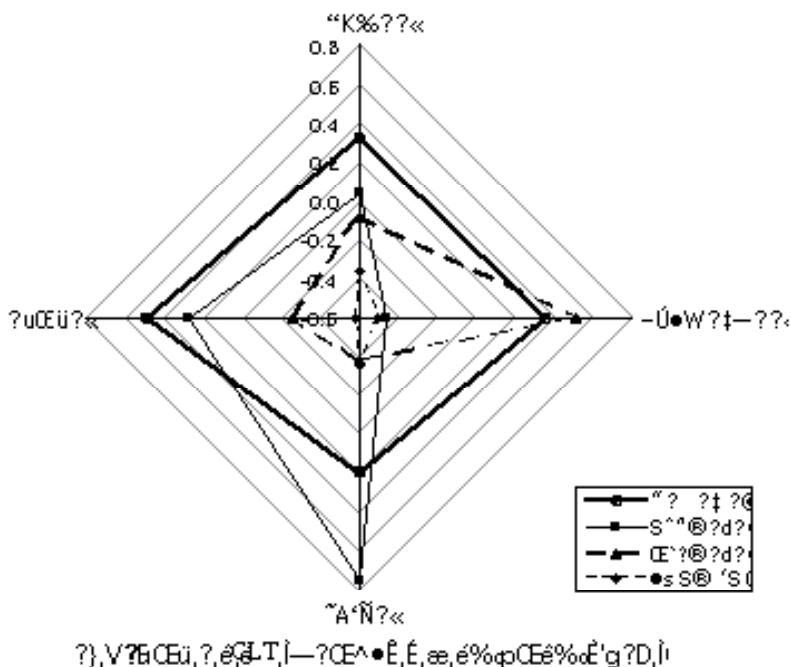
かし、表8の相関分析において形式重視型CLTと適応性に有意な相関
関係が確認されたことを踏まえれば、活動重視型CLTに比べ、形式重
視型CLTは外部情報として、英語科組織に吸収されやすく、具現化が
容易であることを示唆している。また形式重視型CLTのみが志向され
る英語科組織では連帯性が低く、目標合理性が高いのに対し、活動重
視型CLTのみが志向される英語科組織では連帯性が高く、目標合理性
が低い。これは、活動重視型CLTは形式重視型CLTに比べ、計画－実
行－評価という一連の流れにおいて具現化され難く、それを促すには
英語科教員同士がお互いの経験を共有し、自分たちのCLTを創造して
いくような協働関係が必要とされることを示唆している。

結　論

　本調査の結果から高等学校の英語科経営について次のような提案が
できる。
　高等学校におけるCLTの実践は、教員の理想的なCLT像というより
も現場状況に応じて意識されるCLT像に強く規定されることが示唆さ
れた。従って、CLTの実現には、英語科教員が教育現場を踏まえて
CLTをいかに解釈しているのかを解明すること、及び、その解釈のあ
り方がより適切な方向に促されるような現場環境、すなわち英語科組
織の経営特性を開発することが必要である。
　そのような英語科組織の経営特性として、適応性、目標合理性、連
帯性、志向性があり、これらの特性を育てることが必要である。
　より具体的には、英語の形式的側面の学習を中心に据えたCLTは、
英語科組織の合理的な経営によって、すなわち、学校を取り巻く環境
を踏まえた目標や指導計画を設定し、実行後、その結果を評価し、次
の指導に活かすことで、その質を高めることができる。これに対し、
近年とみに叫ばれるコミュニケーションを図る態度の育成や、コミュ
ニケーション活動の促進、4技能の統合など、活動を重視したCLTを
実現するには、そのような合理的な経営方式のみでは不十分であり、
英語科組織の成員同士が、その種の英語教育の実現のために、お互い
の経験を共有し試行錯誤を通じて、所属校の状況に合ったCLTを創り
上げていくことが必要である。
　これらの経営特性を高めることで、形式重視型CLTと活動重視型
CLTの実現が促され、相乗的にコミュニケーション志向の英語教育が
実現されると考えられる。

注

1) CLTの総合得点を構成する質問項目のα係数はいずれのレベルにおい
ても0.9以上であった。また、総合得点には「英語知識」の点数は含
まれていない。

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Teachers' Beliefs and Corrective Feedback

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Recent corrective feedback research has usually examined the effect of corrective feedback on students' linguistic outcomes. The present study proposes to expand the scope of this inquiry to include teachers as well as students. Using qualitative data, this paper examines the beliefs that appeared to be at work in two ESL teachers' corrective feedback behavior. By investigating how their beliefs are related to their corrective feedback behavior, this author contends that a more careful look at teacher corrective feedback that takes into consideration teachers' perspectives on how they utilize corrective feedback in their overall instructional scheme and what they hope to accomplish by it is warranted.

　最近の間違いの直し方に関する研究では、その直し方が学習者の言語学習にどのような影響を及ぼすかについて調査したものが多い。本稿は学習者だけではなく、教師もその研究に含めることを提案する。質的データ（授業観察、面接、手紙、ビデオテープなど）に基づいて、二人のESL教師の信念が、間違いの直し方にどのように関係しているかを考察し、信念がどのように間違いの直し方に結びついているかを明らかにすることにより、間違いの直し方を教え方全体に対してはどのように位置づけるか、あるいはそのような行為で何を成し遂げたいのかという教師の視点を研究に盛り込むことの重要性を説く。そのようにして初めて間違い直しの過程をより正確に理解できるようになるであろう。

Research in general education has substantiated the fact that what teachers bring into the classroom in the form of beliefs, principles, and assumptions is central to the comprehension of what happens in the classroom (e.g., Calderhead, 1988; Clandinin, 1985; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Elbaz, 1981). In recent years, this line of inquiry has also emerged in the field of TESOL, where researchers have investigated ESL teachers' beliefs regarding their practice in general (e.g., Almarza,

1996; Golombek, 1998; Johnson, 1994, 1999; Woods, 1996) and specific aspects of teaching such as grammar teaching (Borg, 1998; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000), literacy instruction (Johnson, 1992), and decision-making processes (Johnson, 1992; Smith, 1996). By exploring the teachers' side of the stories from the inside out, this line of inquiry has added richness and depth to the already existing research, in which teachers have tended to be left out as a variable.

Among many areas that have not yet been addressed in this growing research domain is the effect that teachers' beliefs exert on corrective feedback. This is an important area especially since the provision of corrective feedback is often considered to be "the primary role of language teachers" (Chaudron, 1988, p. 132). An examination of the cognitive foundations that inform teachers' practices may contribute to a more complete understanding of corrective feedback processes.

Corrective feedback research as initially conducted two decades ago primarily described how teachers provide feedback to students and what options are available to teachers when correcting errors (e.g., Allwright, 1975; Chaudron, 1977, 1986; Day, Chenoweth, Chun, & Luppescu, 1984; Fanselow, 1977; Gaskill, 1980; Long, 1977; Nystrom, 1983). The focus of exploration has shifted since then, and recent corrective feedback studies have usually examined the relationship between teachers' corrective feedback behavior and its effects on students' linguistic outcomes (e.g., Carroll & Swain, 1993; Carroll, Swain, & Roberge, 1992; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Lyster, 1998, 2001; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Spada & Lightbown, 1993; Tomasello & Herron, 1988, 1989).

Among the subsets of inquiry developed two decades ago was teachers' reasoning behind their corrective feedback behavior. Some of the above researchers suggested investigations into teachers' "reasons" (Chaudron, 1986) and "rationale" (Fanselow, 1977) for the priorities they have for corrective feedback, their "attitude" (Nystrom, 1983) towards corrective feedback, and their "awareness," "beliefs," and "perception" (Long, 1977) with regard to various factors involved in corrective feedback, such as the objectives of a lesson and program requirements and the likely outcome of corrective feedback. Especially notable were Chaudon's (1986) and Nystrom's (1983) efforts to gain insight into teachers' reasoning as to why they provide corrective feedback the way they do. These studies were carried out with the hope of enhancing student L2 development in immersion programs (Chaudron, 1986) and to illustrate the interplay among variables that teachers introduce into the classroom when they provide corrective feedback (Nystrom, 1983). Thus, earlier researchers anticipated teachers' beliefs to be a worthy area of inquiry in order to better understand teacher corrective feed-

back behavior and ultimately apply findings to teaching and learning. Unfortunately, however, this line of research has not been pursued.

The study reported here resumes the above research and examines the beliefs that appear to be at work behind two ESL teachers' corrective feedback. Specifically, it aims to examine what beliefs the teachers possess regarding classroom interaction and how they are reflected in their provision of corrective feedback. Thus, it examines not the effects of corrective feedback on students' linguistic outcomes, but the relationship between the teachers' beliefs and the corrective feedback that they provide. By investigating how teacher beliefs are related to corrective feedback, the author contends that a more careful look at teacher corrective feedback behavior is warranted, one that takes into consideration teachers' perspectives on how they utilize corrective feedback in their overall instructional scheme and what they hope to accomplish by it. The author will first delineate the method used in the data collection and analysis and then analyze the participating teachers' beliefs, their corrective feedback behavior, and the relationship between the two. Finally, I will discuss conclusions and future directions for corrective feedback and teacher belief research.

Method

The data come from a larger qualitative study conducted in the United States in which two ESL teachers' beliefs regarding classroom interaction were examined for two semesters. The present study is a secondary analysis of the above data. One lesson for each teacher was selected for detailed analysis. The selection was based on how well the lesson appeared to represent the teacher's beliefs (identified over the entire academic year) and how discernable the influence of these beliefs on corrective feedback seemed.

Participants

Jean (pseudonym) had been teaching ESL for almost 40 years, and Charles (pseudonym) had been teaching for about 10 years. The data collection was conducted at a two-year college with Jean and at a large university with Charles.

Procedures

The sources of data include: (a) nonparticipant observations of classroom instruction and field notes; (b) interviews; (c) letters from the researcher addressed to the teachers and follow-up interviews about

the letters; (d) a videotape of a lesson and a follow-up interview about it; and (e) documents such as handouts and ESL newspapers.

Observations and Field Notes

The author observed classes three times a week for Jean (43 observations over 17 weeks) and twice a week for Charles (27 observations over 16 weeks). During the observations, written notes were taken. Immediately upon completing each observation, more detailed field notes were constructed.

Interviews

Loosely structured interviews were conducted as soon as the teachers had free time for them. In order to gather as much information as possible concerning their beliefs about classroom interaction, all of the interviews were audiotaped and an "interview log" recommended by Merriam (1988) was constructed from the interviews. In the log, the propositional content of each interview was coded, and the corresponding tape positions were recorded.

Letter Interviews

At the end of each semester, the researcher sent an informal letter to each teacher with tentative interpretations of their beliefs about classroom interaction and of their teaching practice in general. After they had been given sufficient time to formulate their reactions to the letter, an open-ended interview was conducted in which each teacher's and my own interpretations about their teaching practice and beliefs about classroom interaction were discussed. This step was performed as a "member check" recommended by Lincoln and Guba (1985), in order to determine whether my interpretations actually reflected the two teachers' perspectives. This data collection procedure was adapted from Clandinin (1985). The entire interview was audiotaped and transcribed.

Videotape Interviews

Three lessons were videotaped for each teacher, once toward the end of the first semester and twice in the middle of the second semester with two-to-three-week intervals between videotapings. After each taping, an interview was conducted in which the teachers were asked to point out any segments in the videotape that they thought illustrated the beliefs that they had been discussing. The interviews were audiotaped

and a log was kept. The purpose of this procedure was to watch the interaction from the teachers' perspectives and to gain more access to what they considered to be good interaction.

Documents

Class handouts and an ESL newspaper were collected to complement other data.

The Lessons

For Jean, a lesson from a high-elementary reading and speaking class is examined in this paper, since the influence of her beliefs on her corrective feedback behavior seemed to be clearly manifested there. In this lesson, Jean gave a whole-class oral competence and reading comprehension test, which, in effect, was a discussion about the readings that the students had done. She took the following steps to prepare and administer the discussion/test. Prior to the discussion/test, Jean assigned the students to read three articles she had chosen from a four-page ESL newspaper. On the day of the discussion/test, 18 students attended the class. Jean first distributed question sheets, and the students formed groups and brainstormed answers to the questions with one another. The students then sat around a table on which a tape recorder was placed. The basic format of the discussion/test involved the following: Jean read the questions and the students raised their hands or simply spoke up. Jean called out the names of those who indicated their willingness to answer the questions so that their names would be recorded onto the audiotape. Then she nominated a student who then answered. When the discussion/test was completed, Jean graded the students based on the number of times their names were recorded.

For Charles, a lesson from an elementary class will be examined in detail here since his beliefs about corrective feedback seemed to be more clearly delineated in this lesson. While Charles had his 14 students carry out several tasks in this lesson, two tasks are particularly relevant for the current study in that they reflected some of his beliefs, and most of the corrective feedback occurred during these tasks. One is a whole-class corrective feedback based on sentences the students had previously produced. The other was a question formation review exercise. In this exercise, Charles had prepared a transparency on which answers were printed and the question portions were left blank. He formed groups of three or four students and gave a transparency to each group. He then explained that it was an interview, and that the students needed to provide the missing direct questions. During this activity, the

students were left alone with Charles occasionally making procedural announcements. At the end of the activity, he explicitly corrected errors as he showed each transparency to the class.

Classifying Corrective Feedback

In order to gain a general picture of their corrective feedback in the lessons, the participating teachers' feedback turns following the students' errors were classified into five types. Corrective feedback was defined as instances in which the teachers explicitly or implicitly provided pedagogical feedback as to the well-formedness of the students' utterances. In other words, corrective feedback was considered a "didactic" teaching strategy (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 41) rather than a communication strategy. Therefore, the teachers' feedback turns immediately after communication breakdowns were not counted as corrective feedback. This was because the teachers' focus appeared to be on the message the students were trying to convey, and the communicative function of these turns seemed to override the corrective function.

The five corrective feedback types were explicit correction, recasts, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and translation. All the teacher turns containing corrective feedback were classified according to their corrective functions defined in Table 1. When multiple corrective feedback types were identified in one turn, all the types were counted. The distribution of the corrective feedback types for each teacher is displayed in Table 2.

Table 1: Definitions of the Feedback Types

Feedback Types	Definitions
Explicit Correction	The teacher supplies the correct linguistic form.
Recast of a	The teacher implicitly reformulates all or part student's utterance, minus the error.
Metalinguistic Feedback the directions as to how to metalinguistic language such as "Take word off."	The teacher indicates that there is an error made in student's utterance and provides repair it using one
Elicitation provide the	The teacher attempts to have the student correct answer by

focusing on one specific problem.   Table 1 (Continued)

Feedback Types	Definitions
	and directly asking the student to answer.
Translation the	The teacher provides the English equivalent of student's L1.

Table 2: Distribution of Feedback Types

Feedback Types	Jean (n=41)	Charles (n=32)
Explicit Correction	0 (0%)	8 (25%)
Recast	29 (71%)	0 (0%)
Metalinguistic Feedback	1 (2%)	17 (53%)
Elicitation	7 (17%)	7 (22%)
Translation	4 (10%)	0 (0%)

Results

Some General Concerns About the Interview Data

In the process of data collection, the participating teachers would sometimes discuss other issues indirectly related to classroom interaction such as teaching approaches or individual students, which did not necessarily reveal what the teachers thought about their actual classroom interaction. Two different types of data thus emerged from the interviews: data that were directly related to classroom interaction and data that were indirectly related. In this study, both types were utilized for the following two reasons. Upon analyzing the data, it was hypothesized that the phenomenon of the teachers' discussing indirectly related issues had something to do with how their beliefs, thoughts, knowledge, and assumptions are stored in their memory. The teachers' beliefs appeared to have formed webs within webs and were interrelated with other beliefs in a complex manner.[1] When classroom interaction was under discussion, it seemed that other thoughts, beliefs, knowledge, or assumptions were triggered and found their way into the discussion. The other possible reason for the teachers' discussing indirectly related issues was that classroom interaction is the interface

where everything such as the curriculum, the teacher's decision making, the instruction, and the student learning converge, as Ellis (1994) points out. Classroom interaction, thus, touches many different issues to which the two teachers could easily digress.

It seemed, therefore, that discarding those parts of the data that were only indirectly related to classroom interaction would result in an incomplete way of representing the two teachers' beliefs and how these beliefs exist in their inner worlds. Thus, the decision was made to retain and analyze both types of data.

Jean's Beliefs and Her Feedback Behavior

Jean's Beliefs

Of all the topics Jean raised regarding her beliefs about classroom interaction, Aesthetic Realism, a philosophy that she had been studying for 35 years, was probably the most influential for her. It touched upon many of the issues Jean discussed in the interviews, as it gave coherence and a deep philosophical meaning to her existence. Some of the principles of Aesthetic Realism mentioned included "to like the world," "seeing the world as well-structured," "seeing the world in terms of opposites," and "good will, tolerance, and respect among people."

Among all the principles of Aesthetic Realism, "to like the world" was the most fundamental for Jean. It is epitomized in a key sentence derived from the originator of Aesthetic Realism, which she mentioned in her course description each semester: The purpose of education is to like the world through knowing it. Jean stated in the interviews that a way to like the world is to see the world as well-structured. She believed that the students would eventually become autonomous learners when they saw a structure in the English language. This was because English would seem more "friendly" if perceived as well-structured, and when it seems "friendly," the students would be more likely to embrace English as their own language (Interview #12).

One way to see the world as well-structured, according to Jean, was to see it in terms of opposites. When two opposites are in a dynamic relationship, it is most "pleasing" and ideal (Interview #30). In the interviews, Jean discussed how the world is structured in terms of opposites with examples from English grammar and phonology. She talked about tense and lax vowels, past and nonpast, and singular and plural. For Jean, singular and plural, for instance, were not "just grammar abstractions" but what the world is, because the world is one and many. Jean believed, as far as her writing classes were concerned, that every lesson should be carefully planned to teach that English grammar represents

what the world is. When that goal is achieved, the students will see that the outside world makes sense and looks friendlier.

Other Aesthetic Realism principles Jean referred to were good will, tolerance, and respect among students. These seemed to be related to the liking of the world in that they can contribute to the development of a congenial atmosphere among the students. Jean mentioned that the supportive relationship among the students made it easier for her to give more control to the students over their own learning, creating a more student-centered class.

In short, Jean's interpretation of these principles all pointed to one major educational belief she professed: student autonomy. Jean believed that every lesson should be student-centered, and that she was there to facilitate their learning as a resource person. Therefore, she welcomed it when the students took the initiative and asked her questions or voiced their opinions. In the following segment, reflecting on the part of the day's lesson where she had one student (Milton) write his short composition on the board, Jean observed:

Excerpt 1
I was happy, because I saw the students taking over more. People were busily correcting Milton, dictating to him, telling him how to spell. I thought that was good communication among them. I said, "This is where I want to be. This is what makes me happy." I'm leaning on the door, and they're communicating among themselves. That's where the class should be (Interview #4).

Jean's notion of student-centeredness appeared to refer to moments when the students transcended whatever structure she herself had superimposed on a task and started spontaneous interaction on their own. Therefore, she was always looking for ways to induce those situations. Inviting visitors or taking the students outside and letting them hold real conversations were some of the ways she chose to maintain student-centeredness. The whole-class oral competence and reading comprehension discussion/test, selected for a detailed analysis in the present study and described below, was another way. She believed that when the challenge was linguistically at the right level for the students, and especially when they could get intrinsically interesting information from native speakers, the interaction that was generated could be quite good.

In the interview about the discussion/test, Jean mentioned that the assessment of the students in this task did not depend on their language ability or recall of facts, but on how many times they volunteered to

speak. Therefore, how fluent, accurate, or elaborate their English was did not matter as far as this discussion/test was concerned.[2] Generally speaking, Jean's beliefs about a speaking class, of which the present class was an example, was that the focus of each lesson should not be on the form, but on the content of what the students say. In other words, although linguistic accuracy was valued in her overall classroom practice, the quality of the students' English did not matter as much as the message they conveyed and their willingness to participate in oral activities. Therefore, her criterion for issuing a grade for the discussion/test was consistent with her beliefs about a speaking class in general.

Jean stated in the interview that the lesson sounded "more like a conversation" as opposed to a lesson or a test. Watching a videotape of the discussion/test, she said:

Excerpt 2
The people are sitting around, talking, thinking, sometimes calling out. I'm not saying an American classroom is the ideal. No. On the contrary. But...there are many people in this class who want to be fully integrated into American classrooms. So if they feel this way in an American classroom, they're better off, where they can raise their hands, where they can call out, where they can say, "But, Jean, what do you think about...." I think that's great. And someone did ask me my opinion... But it is nice that they are treating me as a participant rather than the manager (Interview #31; italics added).

Here, Jean acknowledged that she wanted to be treated by the students as "a participant rather than the manager" of the discussion/test. She wanted to create real communication in her classroom by playing the role of a participant. The reason for that, Jean explained, was that she wanted the students to learn American classroom interaction strategies (i.e., rais[ing] their hands, call[ing] out, and ask[ing the teacher her] opinion) instead of waiting to be called upon by the teacher. Thus, playing the role of a participant appeared to be related to Jean's belief that students needed to learn American classroom behavior such as "volunteering" and "expressing opinions" if they wanted to be fully integrated into a mainstream classroom.

The way Jean structured the discussion/test is also indicative of some of her beliefs about classroom interaction. Her emphasis on the importance of student-initiated interaction is reflected in the way she structured the discussion as a test. She installed a mechanism in the discussion by which to train the students to move towards more autonomy with the hope that they would eventually volunteer to participate with-

out the pressure of a test. Jean also fostered a supportive atmosphere among the students instead of pitting them against each other. She not only structured the discussion/test in such a way that the students could assist one another, but she also articulated the importance of helping one another during the discussion/test.

Thus, some of Jean's beliefs were put into practice through the conceptualization and implementation of the discussion/test. She believed in student autonomy, student-centered and student-initiated classroom interaction and learning, emotionally charged interaction among the students, the focus placed on the students' messages in a speaking class, supportive relationships among the students, and the acquisition of American classroom behavior to an extent the students felt comfortable with.

Jean's Corrective Feedback Behavior

Table 2 demonstrates the overall corrective feedback pattern that she exhibited during the discussion/test. Although she occasionally gave fairly overt corrective feedback (i.e., elicitation) on grammatical, phonological, and lexical errors (17% of the feedback Jean gave in the lesson), the feedback she usually gave was recasts (71%). That is, the correction was covertly done without explicitly drawing the students' attention to the errors committed.

As for the purpose of recasts, it was often difficult to determine whether Jean was genuinely reacting to the students' utterances as a participant in the discussion, or whether she had pedagogical purposes beneath her friendly reactions. Therefore, it was decided to analyze recasts from both viewpoints. Excerpt 3 below demonstrates how the functions of recasts seemed to vary. Here, Beth was talking about her grandfather, who started smoking at a young age. Turns with corrective feedback are indicated with an asterisk.

	Excerpt 3		
	1	Beth:	He::s ((pause)) the he:: ((pause))
	2	Jean:	((pretends to smoke))
	3	Ss:	Hhh ((smile))
	4	Beth:	=he:: smoke=
*	5	Jean:	He smokes?
	6	Beth:	=from: you young.
*	7	Jean:	He smokes from from when he was young?
	8	Beth:	No, no, no, not young. A:: what is the

((pause))   maybe:: eighteen.
          9   Jean: That's young.
          10 S?:   Very young.
  *   11 Jean: He smokes from: he he he started smoking when
                                 he was young.
          12 Beth: He never stopped.

Three sentences (lines 5, 7, and 11) were identified as recasts. On the one hand, they appeared to be corrective feedback, especially if the gradual development of the sentences is taken into account. The third sentence (line 11) especially had a characteristic of corrective feedback. The prolongation of the final consonant of the word "from" indicated that Jean was possibly thinking about correcting the sentence. Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977) call this a repair "initiator" (p. 367), because it signals that a possible correction may follow immediately afterwards. Immediately after the repair "initiator," Jean reformulated the sentence and produced another sentence "he he he started smoking when he was young" (line 11), which was similar to the previous one but sounded more idiomatic to native speakers of English. Jean, therefore, appeared to provide Beth with grammatical sentences through recasts.

At the same time, these reactions looked very much like genuine responses, especially when the nonverbal cues were considered. By directing her posture and eye gaze exclusively towards Beth and providing ample nonverbal cues such as smiles, nods, eye movements, and a gesture mimicking smoking, Jean succeeded in portraying herself as an interlocutor who was genuinely interested in what Beth had to say.

To summarize, Jean seemed to play two roles in utilizing recasts. On the one hand, she provided the students with grammatical sentences through recasts in the discussion. On the other, these recasts looked very much like genuine responses, especially when the non-verbal cues that she often utilized were taken into account. She focused simultaneously on the form and the content of the students' utterances by playing the dual role of teacher and participant. She achieved this through recasts.

Jean's Purposes for Corrective Feedback

In the discussion/test, Jean wished to reinforce what she always taught: that students should take the initiative, volunteer, and express themselves. This was based on her overarching beliefs in student-centered lessons and students' proactive (as opposed to reactive or passive) learning and communication styles. Thus, Jean's primary purposes for

this particular activity were philosophical, and she assessed the outcome accordingly. Recasts as a form of corrective feedback enabled her to encourage and scaffold the students' willingness to participate in the discussion/test and voice their opinions, while concurrently correcting their errors.

Charles' Beliefs and His Feedback Behavior

Charles' Beliefs

Like Jean, Charles possessed various beliefs directly and indirectly connected to classroom interaction. One of the topics that Charles mentioned throughout the data collection process was the culture of his workplace. He frequently expressed reservations about certain practices within the program such as teaching from a theme-based syllabus. He agreed with the principles of theme-based teaching and with the program view that there should be a thematic flow between activities, and that in these activities, a lesson should move from "lower" to "higher-order" thinking. However, he was concerned about the fact that the teaching of grammar tended to be less valued in a theme-based syllabus.

Another work-related issue that Charles occasionally discussed was communicating with the students in a variety of ways. Since various ways of communication were encouraged at his workplace, and since this was discussed in postobservation conferences held as a part of staff development, Charles incorporated different ways of givingcorrective feedback and of conducting lessons involving teacher-fronted as well as student-centered lessons and individual seatwork as well as pair/group work. He also issued class newsletters, trying different ways of communicating procedural information. Furthermore, Charles had learned at graduate school to explore different ways of communicating and see what differences small changes make. This training also had an influence on his teaching practice.

Among various beliefs Charles discussed, one major issue emerged as particularly crucial to his teaching practice. On the one hand, it was important for him that the students use whatever grammar, vocabulary, or idiomatic expressions they learned as they interacted in class. On the other hand, what he aimed for in his class, and what gave him considerable satisfaction when it occurred, was to have an activity where the interaction was concurrently "structured" and "unstructured."

First, Charles' key word, "structuredness," should be explained in more detail. Early on in the interview process, Charles began using the word "structured." Since its meaning was not apparent, he was asked to define it.

Excerpt 4

Charles:	Part of structured for me is giving them a lot of freedom, but if they don't know where the boundaries are, I think I do.... It sometimes...gets too chatty for what I want it to be like, but they may be picking up these cards and looking at the pictures, saying "What is it used for?" "It's used for screwing screws." A lot of laughing. "Doesn't screwing also mean something else?" And I am like "Yeah."... It's still a structured activity. I am listening for gerunds and infinitives and passive voice...we are still doing vocabulary. There are also other things happening at the same time. That for me is still structured because I see an anchor in the activity.
RM:	What do you mean by anchor?
Charles:	Technically what the focus is even if just ( ) gerunds and infinitives, these pictures, the vocabulary, passive voice. So there are a few things I'm watching for, a few things they should be watching for (Interview #3).

Charles appeared to be using the term "structured" in two different senses. One meaning referred to the language that the students needed to learn. Language, in this sense, could be grammar, vocabulary, idiomatic expressions, or the sociolinguistic aspects of the language. This suggests that Charles had a concept of language form similar to that advocated by Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, and Thurrell (1997), which included not only sentence-bound rules, but also "higher level organizational principles or rules and normative patterns or conventions governing language use beyond the sentence level" (p. 147). The other meaning of "structured" referred to a framework that Charles himself gave to a language-learning task when he set it up. "Unstructured," on the other hand, was always used in only one sense. It meant completely spontaneous conversation that went beyond the framework set up by the task at hand. In other words, the teacher did not tell the students to conduct an unstructured conversation. It was unplanned, genuine interaction.

In the card activity that Charles briefly discussed in Excerpt 4, the interaction was structured because Charles, the teacher, had set up the whole activity. Besides, there were certain grammar structures or vocabulary items he wanted the students to practice. However, it was also unstructured because it provided opportunities for spontaneous interaction to take place.

Charles felt less successful when the students did not use the grammar

or vocabulary that he wanted them to use in the activities he had set up. For example, on April 2, he asked the students to provide possible reasons for not buying computers, which was a warm-up activity for a passage they were going to read later on. Reflecting on that part of the lesson, he observed:

Excerpt 5

Charles:	My impression was that it was a lot lighter than I wanted it to be. Originally I was intending it to be more structured. "He doesn't want to buy a computer because," and do a lot of "because" type of clauses. And that didn't happen at all, because they started offering their own answers. There weren't any "because" in it. It was "He wanted to do this."
RM:	What do you mean, "lighter"?
Charles:	Perhaps less structured on language, and getting them to be aware of getting it grammatical.
RM:	What was the kind of language you were expecting?
Charles:	On the surface level, I thought there were going to be "because" kind of reasons, causes.... In order to put some structure in there, I said, "Use the word 'by'." And I said, "Use the word 'help' in the sentence." Put those two together and they formed another sentence, using those two words. That is the kind of thing I would have liked to have continued to sort of play with multiple versions of the same answer and make it more of a language lesson (Interview #3).

Charles felt that the interaction was "less structured" than he expected it to be, because the students did not use the language he wanted them to practice. He wanted them to be aware of the grammar when they were doing the activity.

Charles believed that "unstructured" interaction was indispensable, because the students ultimately needed to achieve "real communication," and they needed to learn to draw on their own resources in order to communicate. However, he also thought that explicit focus on the language was essential, because the students might not know what they were practicing unless they consciously paid attention to language, and as a consequence, their second language acquisition might not be enhanced as much. Thus, Charles seemed to share with some SLA researchers the position that form-focused instruction within communicative contexts facilitates second language learning (e.g., Celce-Murcia et

al., 1997; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Spada & Lightbown, 1993). Charles' way of balancing these two contradicting elements was to create tasks which were fairly clearly defined in terms of the language he wanted the students to produce, but which provided some opportunities for disciplined but spontaneous interaction to occur.

Some of Charles' beliefs were thus put into practice in the tasks examined in this study. He believed in communication between the teacher and the students in various different modes and a focus on both communication and language.

Charles' Corrective Feedback Behavior

As for Charles' corrective feedback behavior, Table 2 demonstrates the overall corrective feedback pattern that he exhibited during the lesson. He performed explicit correction 25% of the time. He also provided metalinguistic feedback half of the time (53%) and showed elicitation moves 22% of the time. That is to say, in every feedback turn, Charles demonstrated a clear preference for overtly indicating that an error had been made.

As was mentioned above, Charles incorporated different ways of giving corrective feedback in deference to the program policy. This was observed in the current lesson also. The following are some of the examples of metalinguistic feedback Charles provided the most during the lesson. They are selected from the whole-class corrective feedback task. Each student had previously written a dialogue of an interview between a prospective employer looking for a nanny and a job candidate. Some of the erroneous sentences extracted from the interviews were printed on an OHP, and the class corrected them as Charles read them out loud.

Excerpt 6
	1	Charles:	((reads from the OHP)) Why do you find a
			job as a nanny?
*	2		A difficulty might be this word. ((points at
			"find"))

Excerpt 7
	1	Charles:	((reads a sentence on the OHP)) Number
			Four. How many times
*	2		does it take from your home to mine? I want
			something about time.
	3	S?:	How long does it take?

Excerpt 8
       1   Charles: Now Eight. ((reads from the OHP))
What kind   of household
       2   education do you use for your chil-
dren?
   *   3   There's, I think there's an important
verb   missing.

Excerpt 9
       1   Charles: ((reads from the OHP)) If I took care
of your   children, what would
       2   you want me to do something special?
There   are several ways to do
   *   3   it. Take one word off.

In Excerpt 6 (line 2), Charles pointed at the word posing a problem, but he did not locate problematic words in the other excerpts. In Excerpt 8 (line 3), he mentioned a missing part of speech, whereas he referred to the semantic nuance that the sentence should carry in Excerpt 7 (line 2). Moreover, he indicated that something should be added in Excerpt 8 (line 4), whereas he suggested that something should be discarded in Excerpt 9 (line 3). Charles thus seemed to consciously vary his approach to the provision of corrective feedback. He might have been able to do so with more ease, since he was dealing with written data as opposed to on-line oral communication.

Charles' Purposes for Corrective Feedback

Charles expressed the belief that a focus on both communication and language in the sense that Celce-Murcia, et al. (1997) used was central to second language learning. His reasoning for an explicit focus on language was that the students needed to be aware of what they were practicing. Such a belief was reflected in his overt corrective feedback.

Corrective Feedback with Different Purposes

The above two teachers' cases reveal that behind teaching behavior exist teachers' thoughts and beliefs, and that their teaching is influenced by these. Jean and Charles conducted their teaching, which included corrective feedback, taking into consideration their students'

linguistic, personal, and sociocultural development, the purposes of the class, and the program at large. Furthermore, the two teachers had their own firm beliefs with regard to second language acquisition and socialization. How they taught appeared to be determined through the interplay of all these factors.

Each teacher's corrective feedback was compatible with his or her beliefs. Charles' overt feedback was supported by his firm belief that the structure of the language plays a crucial role in second language acquisition. Thus, the purpose of his correction was largely linguistic. Conversely, Jean had philosophical objectives in mind; she did not seem to be always aiming at the enhancement of student linguistic outcome, as far as the lesson observed was concerned. Her covert corrective feedback (recasts) was supported by her beliefs, many of which were philosophical rather than linguistic. Instructional purposes may vary from linguistic to disciplinary to sociocultural, depending on students, classes, programs, and schools, to name just a few possible factors, and teachers' corrective feedback may well be influenced by such purposes. Each teacher's use of specific corrective feedback types seemed to be driven by instructional beliefs based on the interplay of all the above factors.

Conclusion

This investigation of two ESL teachers' beliefs and their influence on corrective feedback behavior suggests that a closer look at teacher corrective feedback behavior is called for, taking into consideration teachers' perspectives on how to best utilize corrective feedback in their overall instructional scheme and what they hope to accomplish by it. Furthermore, it implies that the definition of the effectiveness of corrective feedback should include attitudinal changes in students as well as linguistic changes. The outcome of corrective feedback should be judged based on the specific purposes that teachers have for their behavior; their corrective feedback and its success might be misinterpreted if researchers' preferred purposes and those of teachers are not identical.

SLA researchers have tended to provide teachers with research findings in the belief that teaching will be improved and learning enhanced if teachers act on those findings. Thus, the research approach has been essentially top-down. In addition to this type of research, however, this study implies that researchers also need to take a bottom-up approach, tapping into and codifying the epistemological and experiential reservoir that exists behind the teachers' teaching behavior (Freeman

& Johnson, 1998; Shulman, 1987). This reservoir, which contains their thoughts, ideals, and hopes about teaching, is not readily accessible from their surface teaching behavior. Therefore, researchers need to probe into the teachers' mental worlds without prematurely superimposing their own research agenda on it.

Corrective feedback is a perpetual and complex issue for many ESL/EFL teachers (Allwright, 1975; Long, 1977). The intricate decision-making processes that teachers go through when reacting to student errors have been delineated by various researchers (e.g., Allwright, 1975; Chaudron, 1977; Long, 1977). Preservice teachers would, therefore, particularly benefit from learning about experienced teachers' beliefs behind their corrective feedback behavior. Knowledge about corrective feedback thus acquired may be more holistic than quick-fix type corrective feedback techniques in that corrective feedback is embedded in the experienced teachers' uniquely amalgamated instructional base that informs practice. In this instructional base, which is similar to Freeman and Johnson's (1998) notion of "content" or Shulman's (1987) "pedagogical content knowledge," research findings, theories, teaching approaches, and the like are transformed through teachers' unique sensitivities, their particular educational backgrounds, teaching experience, and workplace culture, and assimilated into their practice as is evidenced in Jean and Charles' cases. Because theories and teaching approaches are already translated into practice to suit the urgent needs of daily classroom life, learning about corrective feedback within this instructional base may assist novice teachers to see how others make sense of theory and connect it to practice. Research into teachers' beliefs needs to be included in corrective feedback research, and efforts must be made to "map out" the reservoir that exists in the hinterland of teachers' mental worlds (Freeman & Johnson, 1998).

Since the present study is a secondary analysis of the data from a larger qualitative study in which the participating teachers' beliefs about classroom interaction in general were researched, it has examined how their overarching (as opposed to local) beliefs are related to their corrective feedback behavior. Future research should focus more on teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback. Moreover, teachers with a wider range of teaching experience and educational background should be studied. Through examining different cases, similarities and differences among various teachers would become more evident, which might contribute towards more holistic theory building. Finally, since teachers' beliefs can have a strong influence on how they conceptualize their daily teaching practice, not only corrective feedback, but also all aspects of teaching should be reexamined from the standpoint of teachers' beliefs. Only then could a more complete understanding of teaching processes be achieved.

Acknowledgments

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Notes

1. Pajares (1992) points out a similar phenomenon about beliefs.
2. Jean also graded her students in other, more traditional ways.

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Appendix

Transcript Conventions

[ ]	Overlapping utterances.
=	Used to link different parts of a single speaker's utterance.
a::	Extension of a sound.
((nods))	Non-verbal actions.
( )	Unintelligible utterances.

日本の高校生英語学習者によるノート・テーキング方略使用
(Japanese High School EFL Learners' Note-taking Strategies)

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In an English language classroom, learners often write items in a notebook, a textbook, and so on. Note-taking is reported as one of the most frequently used language learning strategies. Japanese high school teachers of English often give instruction in this area and sometimes use the products of the strategy use as material for evaluation. However, not much research has been conducted into the use of such strategies by Japanese high school EFL learners. In this study, behavioral activities and related mental states are included in the concept, "Note-Taking Strategy."

This study is focused on the following three aims:

1) To present a questionnaire to measure learners' Note-Taking Strategy use, in order to encourage teachers of English to apply it in their classrooms
2) To present the survey results, from which general tendencies can be assumed, in order to make it possible to compare the tendencies of strategy use by individual learners or by a certain group of learners with those of general Japanese high school EFL learners
3) To discuss the possibility of instructing learners to use a Note-Taking Strategy, with the focus on facilitating their English language learning

Firstly, question items used in previous research are revised in light of the tendencies of subjects' responses, face validities, validities of analysis with latent factor structures, and so on. As a result, the questionnaire consists of 30 items: 14 cover behavioral aspects, and 16 cover mental aspects.

Secondly, a large number (1,895) of Japanese high school EFL learners from 25 schools participated in the survey. As a result, it can be assumed to a certain extent that the results are reliable to describe general tendencies of Japanese high school EFL learners. A table of frequency distribution for all items is shown as the data for further research and to provide the criteria for comparison.

Finally, latent variables (factors) as well as observed ones (question

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items) are included in statistically sophisticated analyses: Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) with the Maximum Likelihood (ML) Method and Oblique Promax Rotation, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) with ML for estimation of solution and missing values, and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), likewise with ML. The EFAs are used to seek the most parsimonious solution such as number of assumed factors (latent variables) to explain observed variables. The CFAs are used for examining the validity of the solution obtained by the EFAs and to investigate correlation among factors. The function of SEM is to explain degrees of causal effect from mental aspects to behavioral ones and from behavioral aspects to learning achievement. The SEM solution shows the following characteristics:

1)   Behavioral aspects of Note-Taking Strategy can be divided into two categories. Firstly, there are rehearsal strategies, which help learners to repeat language materials. The second category covers structural strategies, which help learners make connections between learned language materials.

2)   Learners tend to be given instruction only about rehearsal strategies. Instructions will be more effective if they include ways to reorganize learned information.

3)   Mental aspects are divided into four categories. Two of them, "trying to select information" and "noticing the effects of writing itself and reviewing," can reasonably be said to facilitate learners' use of behavioral Note-Taking Strategies. The others, "strategy preference" and "attention to evaluation," hardly do so. In addition, learners' attention to evaluation has little correlation with any of the other categories.

4)   Though learners are sometimes required to submit their notebooks or other evidence of learning, such requirements seem to have little effect on learning English itself. Demonstrating to learners the functions of the strategies, and making them experience these functions, are necessary for further strategy use and achievement.

Finally, some issues for further research into the development of Note-Taking Strategies in Japanese high schools are presented.

学習者が学習内容をノートブックに書くという行動は、教室環境における言語学習において、非常によく観察される。本研究ではこの方略の行動的側面とそれに関連する心理的側面とに焦点を当て、ノート・テーキング方略という「学習者が学習に関連した事項を書く際の行動的または心理的な活動や状態」に関して日本の高校生英語学習者に対する調査が行われた。そして1)ノート・テーキング方略を測定するのに適した質問紙を作成して提示し、2)学習者の一般的な傾向を想定できるような資料を得て、3)分析結果から、英語学習をより促進させるようなノート・テーキング方略指導への可能性が議論される。その結果、行動的側面はリハーサル方略と体制化方略とに2分され、両面の指導が提案された。また、心理的側面に関しては、ノート・テーキング方略使用の機能を提示すること、実感させること、を意図した指導が提案された。

学習者が学習内容をノートブックに書くという行動は、教室環境における言語学習において、非常によく観察される（O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, & Russo, 1985; White, 1996）。また、

　近年は言語学習方略研究が盛んであるが、その一因と思われるOxford (1990)による質問紙やO'Malley& Chamot (1990)による言語学習方略の一覧表においてもこのような方略はとりあげられている。

　本研究ではこの行動を学習方略と捉え、ノート・テーキング方略として焦点が当てられる。この方略は学習者が自分自身のために行うものであるために、個人差や多様性を許容すべきである(達川, 1998)とする見方が一般的であると思われる。ただし、教室における指導の一環としてノートブックに記入する形式が指定されたりノートブックなどが評価材料とされたりする場合があることも報告されている(広島大学附属福山中・高等学校英語科, 1997)。また、ノート・テーキング方略は学習者が頻繁に教室で使用し、指導や評価にも関連する事項であるが、日本の学校における英語学習者を対象に研究された例は少ない。そのため、現状の調査や方略指導の可能性などを探索的に調査する必要性が感じられる。

　White (1996)はノート・テーキングに焦点を当て、学習者やノートブックの観察、学習者へのインタビューなどから、より詳細な分類を示している。行動的側面と心理的側面の双方からノート・テーキング方略を捉えており、行動的側面として5つに下位分類を施している。また心理的側面としては、学習に働きかける機能として3つの機能、学習者がさらされている言語材料に払う注意に関して2つの仮説を提示している。

　行動的側面に挙げられるものはNote-taking (概念を短縮して書く)、Writing Out (数回書写する)、Listing (語彙をリスト状にする)、Noting Down (キーワードを書く)、Highlighting/Underlining (キーワードや重要点を強調する)である(White, 1996)。これらはO'Malley& Chamot (1990)やOxford (1990)には含まれないものもあり、この5つの下位分類はより包括的なものであるといえよう。

　心理的側面に関しては、ノート・テーキング方略の使用が学習に働きかける機能として、Encoding (書くことが即時的な復習となり、学習を促進する)、External-Storage (書かれたものが記録として後の復習に有用となり、学習を促進する)、Generative (情報が既知か未知か判断したり取捨選択したりしてから書くことによって重要な情報が選択され、学習を促進する)が挙げられ、これら3つの点から学習を促進するものであるとされている。それぞれの機能によってもわかれているが、書くという行動の最中(Encoding)、以降(External-storage)、以前(Generative)というように、行動との時間関係によっても分類されるものであろう。そして、行動と学習内容に向ける注意との関係という観点からは、Attention (注意がさらに得られる)とDistraction (注意が削がれる)の2側面が提示された。また堀野・市川(1997)や久保(1999)に主張されるように、心理的側面が学習方略使用という行動的側面、そして学習達成に影響を与えるとするモデルは妥当なものと考えられる。

　そのため、前田(2000a)に続いて本研究においても、心理的側面を含めることとする。すなわち、本研究におけるノート・テーキング方略は「学習者が学習に関連した事項を書く際の行動的または心理的な活動や状態」とされる。

　Maeda (2000)、前田(2000a)の一連の研究においてはそれぞれ、ノート・テーキング方略の行動的側面、心理的側面、行動的側面と心理的側面の関係、という観点から質問紙による高校生を対象とした調査結果が分析され、学習達成への因果の強さが推論された。使用された質問紙は、White (1996)によるリストに含まれる行動的側面についてはそれを行うかどうか、心理的側面についてはそれを意識するかどうか、ということを尋ねるものであった。そして、調査対象となる学習者集団に授業者として関わる筆者によって、学習者の授業中の観察、および、ノートブックなどの観察などから、特徴的と思われる点がいくつか挙げられた。これらは質問紙作成の段階から、ある高等学校1校の生徒を対象として行われたものである。したがって調査も結果の解釈もその学校の背景に充分に留意して行われたものであるために、一般性に欠けるものとなっている。しかしながら、近年の思潮を加味した統計的手順を用いていることが特徴として挙げられよう。

　本研究においては、ノート・テーキング方略に関する本研究の目的が以下のように3点提示される。まず、1)日本人高校生英語学習者が使用するノート・テーキング方略を測定するための質問紙を作成し提示する。そして、2)様々な背景や習熟度を持つ学習者の調査結果を提示することにより、日本の高校生英語学習者の一般的な傾向を想定できるような資料を得る。最終的に、3)分析結果から、英語学習をより促進させるようなノート・テーキング方略指導への示唆を得る。本論を進めるにあたり、この3点の目的に沿って、学習者の現状を把握するための手段を提供し、一般的な傾向を示すことによって個々の場面との比較を可能にし、そして、教室における方略指導を模索することが、研究全体を通しての意義とされる。

調査
材料

　調査にあたって行動的側面に関する質問項目14問、心理的側面に関する質問項目16問の、計30問が準備された。これらはMaeda (2000)、前田(2000a)の一連の研究で用いられた質問文をもとにして、一部改訂が加えられたものである。回答は同様に5件法とし、「1. 全然、あるいはほとんどあてはまらない」「2. 通常あてはまらない」「3. いくらかあてはまる」「4. 通常あてはまる」「5. 常に、あるいはほとんどあてはまる」とした。項目について具体的には、まずWhite (1996)による行動的側面の5つの下位分類それぞれを行うかどうか、心理的側面に関してはそれらを意識するかどうか、ということを尋ねる質問項目

が含まれる。そして、教室で英語学習を行う高校生の学習過程や学習後のノートブックを観察することから作成された項目群についても同様に使用された。

　また、英語学習の達成を測定する指標としては、前田(2001)と同じC-test (see Appendix)が用いられた。さまざまな観点からの観測変数を準備することが望ましいが、採点容易性や被調査者にとっての答え易さという観点からC-testの形式が採用された。問題文に関しては、数名の高校生などに予備的に実施し、5分程度の制限時間として回答しやすさや時間が妥当であるような問題文が選ばれた。そして、全員が質問紙に回答を終えるのを待ってからテストにとりかかるように依頼が行われた。

被調査者

　様々な背景や習熟度を持つ学習者を対象とした調査を行うことが目的とされたが、実施容易性の観点から筆者の所属する広島大学英語教育学会において高等学校に勤務する会員に対して個人的に依頼が行われた。その結果、本調査に関しては主に中国、四国、九州地方の25高等学校の協力を得ることができた。合計1,895(男子1,027, 女子868)の有効回答を得ることができたことと、後述するようにC-test得点がほぼ正規分布とみなせるものであることから、かなりの程度で一般的な傾向を反映するものであると解釈されよう。

分析手順

　分析においては特に質問紙調査の分析手順と結果の提示について留意点を指摘した前田・大和(2000)や前田(2000b)を参考にした。質問紙の部分に関しては、各項目に対する回答を度数分布と分布の中心傾向によって示された後、探索的因子分析と検証的因子分析が行われた。すなわち、実際に測定された観測変数(質問項目)のみを直接的に数値として扱うのではなく、それらの背後に因子(潜在変数、構造変数)を仮定して、それら因子が観測変数に因果(影響)を及ぼしているという前提のもとで分析が行われた。

　探索的因子分析においては最尤法による推定とプロマックス回転による因子軸の回転が施された。そして、最もデータをうまく説明できていて、解釈することが可能であるような因子数が模索され、それぞれの因子から観測変数への因果の強さが推定された。また検証的因子分析においては、探索的因子分析において得られた解の妥当性が検証するとともに、探索的因子分析においては不安定な因子間相関が推定された。

　そして、C-test得点へのそれぞれの因子からの因果の強さを分析する際には、構造方程式モデリングが使用された。このことにより、因子間の因果関係を推定すると同時に、モデルのデータへのあてはまりの

よさについても検討できるものとなった。

<div align="center">結果と解釈</div>

　被調査者全体の、各質問項目への解答傾向は表1に示される。左の列より、項目番号、5件法の回答それぞれがその項目の総回答数に占める割合(%)、その項目の総回答数、5件法を1から5に得点化した場合の平均、標準偏差、歪度、尖度である。結果的にいくつかの項目において正規分布を逸脱していると思われる分布が得られたが、項目ごとの平均値は最小で2.2、最大で3.9と、極端に偏った分布を示すものではないと解釈された。そして、これら30観測変数をもとにして、後の分析が行われた。

　行動面に関する探索的因子分析(最尤法、プロマックス回転、欠損値はペア単位削除)結果は、表2にて示される。因子数を順次減らして再分析を行った結果、この2因子解を採用することに決定した。原則として因子パターンが絶対値で.20を超えるものについて、その因子からその観測変数への因果があるものと仮定した。その後、欠損値を最尤法で推定して検証的因子分析が行われた。適合度指標に関しては被調査者が多いことと欠損値の推定を行ったことにより、CFIとRMSEAに着目した。モデルのデータへの適合に関しては、値が.900以上で充分な適合とされるCFIが.990、値が.080を下回ればある程度充分な適合とされるRMSEAが.064であり良好であったために、このモデルが採用された。

　因子1は項目27、20、17などに強い負荷を与えており、概括すると情報の維持や精緻化を反復によって行う「リハーサル方略」として解釈される。また、因子2 (項目19, 02, 11など)は学習材料の各要素を全体として相互に関連をもつようにまとまりをつくる「体制化

<div align="center">表1: 各項目に対する回答と基本統計量</div>

Item	1	2	3	4	5	n	M	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
01	11.5	17.4	23.9	22.2	25.0	1895	3.3	1.3	-0.2	-1.1
02	20.0	27.1	28.8	15.2	8.9	1895	2.7	1.2	0.3	-0.8
03	18.8	24.0	29.8	16.9	10.4	1894	2.8	1.2	0.2	-0.9
04	14.2	19.9	29.7	19.3	16.6	1888	3.0	1.3	0.0	-1.0
05	17.6	20.4	25.5	16.2	20.2	1893	3.0	1.4	0.0	-1.2
06	6.6	9.6	28.9	28.6	26.2	1894	3.6	1.2	-0.5	-0.5
07	9.6	16.3	29.0	25.8	19.2	1893	3.3	1.2	-0.2	-0.8

Item	1	2	3	4	5	n	M	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
08	9.0	13.4	29.4	26.9	21.2	1894	3.4	1.2	-0.3	-0.7
09	8.7	13.6	28.2	28.0	21.6	1895	3.4	1.2	-0.4	-0.7
10	23.5	20.1	25.4	16.6	14.4	1895	2.8	1.4	0.2	-1.1
Item	1	2	3	4	5	n	M	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
11	30.0	28.3	23.7	11.7	6.2	1895	2.4	1.2	0.6	-0.6
12	22.9	25.4	28.6	14.8	8.3	1895	2.6	1.2	0.3	-0.8
13	9.8	14.1	31.2	26.2	18.7	1895	3.3	1.2	-0.3	-0.7
14	7.8	9.1	24.4	28.1	30.6	1895	3.6	1.2	-0.6	-0.5
15	19.1	27.8	32.6	13.3	7.2	1893	2.6	1.2	0.3	-0.6
16	14.6	19.8	29.8	20.8	15.0	1895	3.0	1.3	0.0	-1.0
17	4.7	7.6	17.2	29.6	40.9	1895	3.9	1.1	-1.0	0.1
18	10.2	17.4	33.7	23.8	14.9	1893	3.2	1.2	-0.1	-0.7
19	30.3	33.4	26.0	6.7	3.5	1895	2.2	1.1	0.7	-0.1
20	12.6	15.0	23.4	20.3	28.7	1895	3.4	1.4	-0.3	-1.1
21	11.4	18.4	35.7	19.5	14.9	1891	3.1	1.2	0.0	-0.8
22	30.7	33.4	20.4	10.7	4.9	1894	2.3	1.1	0.7	-0.3
23	21.8	25.7	32.5	14.4	5.5	1893	2.6	1.1	0.3	-0.7
24	22.4	26.9	28.9	12.6	9.3	1895	2.6	1.2	0.4	-0.7
25	24.4	32.8	25.5	11.7	5.4	1892	2.4	1.1	0.5	-0.5
26	29.1	37.6	23.0	6.6	3.6	1893	2.2	1.0	0.8	0.2
27	9.5	11.2	23.1	28.2	28.0	1895	3.5	1.3	-0.5	-0.7
28	14.7	24.3	33.6	17.8	9.4	1892	2.8	1.2	0.1	-0.7
29	11.8	20.3	35.7	22.0	10.2	1894	3.0	1.1	0.0	-0.7
30	28.6	27.1	27.5	11.6	5.0	1891	2.4	1.2	0.5	-0.6

方略(辰野, 1997)」とされた。そしてこれら2因子の特徴として、前者は教師による指導がよく行われているもの、後者はその頻度が少なく多分に自主的であるもの、というとらえ方もできることが挙げられよう。

　心理面の16観測変数に関しても同様に、5因子解を求めた後に因子数

を順次減らして探索的因子分析(最尤法、プロマックス回転、欠損値は
ペア単位削除)が行われ、4因子解が解釈可能性を基準に採用された(表
3)。行動面と同様に検証的因子分析を行い、モデルとデータはあまり
乖離していないという結論に達した(CFI=.990, RMSEA=.062)。

<div align="center">

表2: 行動面の探索的因子分析結果(パターン行列)
と検証的因子分析結果(因子間相関)

</div>

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Communalities
01. 覚えるために、何回か同じものを書く	**.50**	-.08	.21
02. 授業中に書いたノートをまとめなおして書いて勉強する	-.02	**.54**	.28
04. 自分でそうするようにしている、ノートの書き方がある	**.33**	**.33**	.33
05. 教科書にある英文を、ノートに写して書く	.27	.28	.24
08. キーワードとなる単語や表現などを書きとめる	**.45**	.27	.40
10. ノートに、教科書の勉強しているところのページや見出し、そのときの日付などを書く	.04	**.46**	.23
11. 単語や熟語、表現などとその意味を書いたリストや表を作る	.08	**.51**	.31
16. 新しく出た単語やわからない単語などの意味や発音をノートなどに書く	**.58**	.14	.44
17. 黒板に書いてあることをノートなどに書く	**.65**	-.12	.35
19. 勉強している内容を記号などを用いて短縮してノートなどに書く	-.17	**.64**	.32
20. 英文を日本語に訳したものをノートなどに書く	**.69**	-.04	.44
22. 他の人のノートを借りて比べてみる	-.17	**.57**	.25
23. 先生や他の人が口で説明していることなどを書きとめる	**.33**	**.28**	.28
27. 線を引いたり色を変えたり印をつけたりして強調する	**.76**	-.19	.46

Inter-Factor Correlations	Factor 1	Factor 2
Factor 1 「リハーサル方略」	1.00	.43
Factor 2 「体制化方略」	.43	1.00

表3: 心理面の探索的因子分析結果(パターン行列)と検証的因子分析
結果(因子間相関)

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Communalities
03. ノートを書くことが好きである	.15	**.30**	**.21**	-.12	.31
06. ノートなどに書くと勉強になると思う	-.15	**.62**	**.21**	-.01	.42
07. 勉強していることを、後で復習するときのために書く	.03	**.73**	-.12	-.06	.49
09. ノートなどに書くときには、復習するときに見やすいように書く	.09	**.55**	.11	-.04	.45
12. ノートなどに書く前に、それが自分にとって重要なことがらかどうか考える	**.58**	-.14	.16	-.06	.31
13. ノートなどに書いていると、勉強している気分になる	-.01	-.05	**.88**	.03	.73
14. ノートの見た目がきれいだとうれしく思う	-.02	.19	**.50**	.06	.38
15. ノートなどにはどのようなことを書けば勉強になるか知っている	**.51**	.19	-.09	.01	.40
18. ノートなどに書いていると、勉強している内容にもっと注意を向けることができ、深く理解できる	.31	**.46**	-.02	-.10	.49
21. 成績を良くするためにノートなどに書く	.08	**.44**	-.01	**.30**	.35
24. ノートに書くのは点検されたときに評価を良くするためだ	-.09	.08	.01	**.76**	.59
25. 覚えるために書くことと、復習するときのために書くことを分けて考えている	**.43**	.13	-.19	.11	.25
26. ノートなどを書くのは勉強しているように見せるためだ	.15	-.17	.06	**.60**	.37
28. ノートなどに書くときには、書こうとすることと自分が知っていることとを結び付けて考えて、重要だと思うものを選ぶ	**.74**	-.05	-.04	-.01	.49
29. 書くことによって内容をもっと深く理解することができる	.29	.29	.19	-.02	.40
30. 他の人がどのようなことをノートなどに書いているのかを気にかける	.35	.00	.09	.14	.17

Inter-Factor Correlations	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 1　「書く前の情報の取捨選択志向」	1.00	.75	.34	-.01
Factor 2　「書くこと自体と後の復習志向」	.75	1.00	.56	-.04
Factor 3　「書くことに対する好意的志向」	.34	.56	1.00	.15
Factor 4　「書くことがもたらす評価志向」	-.01	-.04	.15	1.00

　　因子1は項目28、12、15に大きく負荷を与え、情報の取捨選択を
意味する”Generative”を指すものと解釈できるため、便宜上「書く
前の情報の取捨選択志向」とされる。同様に因子2 (項目07, 06, 09な
ど)は”Encoding”と”External-storage”の2特徴を併せ持つことから「
書くこと自体と後の復習志向」、因子3 (項目13, 14)は気分的な好意を

暗示するため「書くことに対する好意的志向」、因子4 (項目24, 26)は「書くことがもたらす評価志向」とされる。

　これまでの結果をもとに、心理面の4因子についてはモデルを簡略にするため心理面全体としての高次因子(「心理面全体」)を仮定し、心理面から行動面、そしてC-test結果(Mean=30.5, S.D.=8.7, Skewness=-0.3, Kurtosis=0.3)による「英語学習の達成」へと因果が及ぼされるモデルについて、構造方程式モデリングが行われた(図1)。長方形は観測変数、楕円は潜在変数、直線の片方向矢印は仮定された因果、弧かとなった。このため、評価材料とすることでノート・テーキング方略使用

図1　構造方程式モデリング結果の簡略図(標準化解)
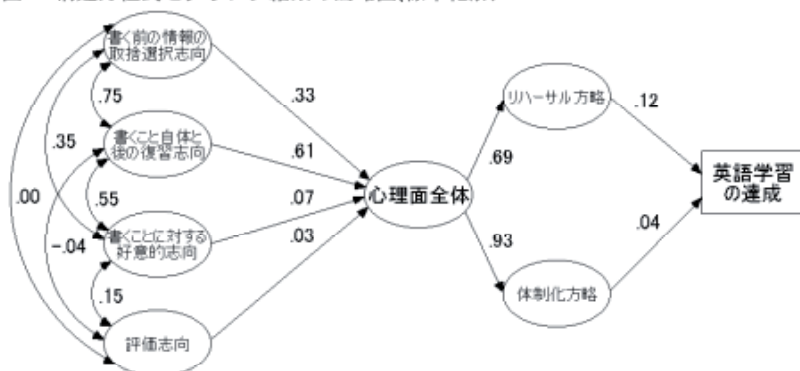
を促すのではなく、その機能を提示すること、実感させること、を意図した指導が望まれる。

　心理的側面の因子間相関は検証的因子分析の段階からほとんど変化はなく、「書くことがもたらす評価志向」が特に他の因子と無相関であると判断できることが明らかとなった。また、「英語学習の達成」への因果の方向性を持つものは、「書くこと自体と書いた後の復習志向」が.61、「書く前の情報の取捨選択」が.33であり、ある程度の影響が仮定される。一方、「書くことに対する好意的志向」は.07と、「書くことがもたらす評価志向」の-.04と並んで僅少な因果しか示していない。「心理面全体」からの因果は「リハーサル方略」に.69、「体制化方略」に.93と、特に後者に対して強い因果を示している。「英語学習の達成」への直接的な因果は「リハーサル方略」から.12、「体制化方略」から.04と、かなり低い係数が得られている。このことは、学習達成の指標としてC-testのみを用いたことから測定が充分な精度で行われず、測定誤差が大きくなってしまったためであると考えられる。

そのため、モデルには含まれているが、学習達成への効果については言及を保留する。

　これらの結果から、以下のことが解釈された。心理面に関しては、書くことに好意的であることは直接的に行動面や学習達成に影響を及ぼさないが、情報の取捨選択や書くこと自体、書いた後の復習などを志向することとある程度影響しあっている。その一方、評価を気にすることは、心理面とも行動面ともほとんど関連を持っていない。そして、情報を取捨選択することと、書くこと自体や書いた後の復習を志向することはともに行動面へ影響を与えるが、後者の方がその影響は強いことが特徴として挙げられる。また、行動面に関しては、リハーサル方略も体制化方略も心理面からの影響を大きく受けるが、後者の方が受ける影響は強いということが明らかとされた。

結論

　本研究では3点の目的に沿って調査、分析が行われた。その過程において、日本の高校生英語学習者を対象としてノート・テーキング方略使用を測定する質問紙が改良され、その結果が多くの被調査者からのデータをもとに提示された。

　分析結果から、先行研究によって示されたノート・テーキング方略の心理的側面が行動的側面に影響を与えている程度が推定された。また、行動的側面として挙げられた質問項目群が大きく、教師が指導することが多いリハーサル方略と、教師が指導することが少ないために自主的と思われる体制化方略に2分できることが明らかとなった。単なる反復に終わるのではなく、教師から体制化の方法を示す指導が望まれる。

　心理的側面に関しては、評価を意識することはほとんど他の要因から独立であること、書くことに対する好意は直接的にではないが間接的に他の心理的側面との相関というかたちで影響しあっていることが明らかとなった。このため、評価材料とすることでノート・テーキング方略使用を促すのではなく、その機能を提示すること、実感させること、を意図した指導が望まれる。

　また、本研究では精緻な標本抽出の手順を踏んでおらず、結果を一般化することには慎重にならなければならない。また、得られた観測変数の全てを使用したために、変数減少などによるモデルの洗練も行われていない。そして、英語学習の達成を測定するにあたって単一の基準で臨んだことにより、測定の妥当性の余地も存在する。学校教育現場での集合調査という限界は存在するが、これらの課題を克服する

ような更なる研究が期待される。

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Appendix

調査で使用されたC-test

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People are always wishing. But on_ce_[1] in Chi_na_[2] a ma_n_[3] got hi_s_[4] wish, whi_ch_[5] was t_o_[6] see th_e_[7] difference betw_een_[8] heaven an_d_[9] hell bef_ore_[10] he di_ed_[11].

When h_e_[12] visited he_ll_[13], he sa_w_[14] tables crow_ded_[15] with delic_ious_[16] food, bu_t_[17] everyone wa_s_[18] hungry an_d_[19] angry. Th_ey_[20] had fo_od_[21], but we_re_[22] forced t_o_[23] sit seve_ral_[24] feet fr_om_[25] the tab_le_[26] and us_e_[27] chops_ticks_[28] three fe_et_[29] long th_at_[30] made i_t_[31] impossible t_o_[32] get an_y_[33] food in_to_[34] their mou_ths_[35].

When th_e_[36] man sa_w_[37] heaven, h_e_[38] was ve_ry_[39] surprised fo_r_[40] it loo_ked_[41] the sa_me_[42]. Big tab_les_[43] of delic_ious_[44] food. Peo_ple_[45] forced t_o_[46] sit seve_ral_[47] feet fr_om_[48] the tab_le_[49] and us_e_[50] three-foot lo_ng_[51] chopsticks th_at_[52] made i_t_[53] impossible t_o_[54] get an_y_[55] food in_to_[56] their mou_ths_[57]. It wa_s_[58] exactly li_ke_[59] hell, bu_t_[60] in hea_ven_[61] the peo_ple_[62] were we_ll_[63] fed an_d_[64] happy.

Why?

In heaven they were feeding one another

Perspectives

Sexism in Japanese Radio Business English Program Textbooks

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In Japanese society, "sexism" is still pervasive and has crept into EFL (English as a Foreign Language) textbooks. The Easy Business English series of textbooks, utilized by a nation-wide radio program in Japan from October 2000 to March 2001, are examined for sexism. A brief analysis of the omission of females is followed by a discussion of occupational roles of males and females, and then a discussion of gendered identities. Finally, word choices are investigated. This paper concludes that sexism is still an issue to be dealt with and suggests that EFL teachers reexamine the textbooks used in their classrooms.

　日本の社会では現在もなお、性差別（sexism）が存在し、それが英語のテキストにも反映されている。本研究では全国ネットのラジオ局による語学プログラム「やさしいビジネス英語」で2000年10月から2001年3月まで使用されたテキストを取り上げ、性差別の観点から分析した。女性の過少評価の分析から始め、男女の役割、男女のアイデンティティ、言語差別等を調査した。その結果、性差別が存在することを明らかにし、英語教師が教室で使用するテキストに関しても、性差別の有無を再調査するよう提案している。

Sexism is "discrimination on the grounds of sex, based on assumptions that women are both different from and inferior to men" (Talbot, 1998, p. 215). In Japanese society, "sexism" is still widespread; the fact that women continue to have more difficulty in finding jobs than men, as well as the fact that a woman's average salary is about 60% of a man's salary in a comparable job, suggests the existence of sexism (Kojima, 2000).

The sexism that exists in Japanese society has crept into our EFL textbooks as well. Even though gendered identities might be transformed in the process of second language socialization (Pavlenko, 2001), and Japanese women may learn English to escape from the identities forced on them by national ideologies, when textbooks incorporate the notion of sexism, studying English may actually reinforce or create beliefs in gender inequality through textbooks. As Renner (1997) stated, "the textbooks used within an EFL setting are not just tools by which the English language is taught. A large dose of cultural content is also present within them" (p. 3). Texts can be sexist "if they omit the actions and achievements of women, if they demean women by using patronizing language, or if they show women only in stereotyped less capable roles" (Graci, 1989, p. 478). The purpose of this paper is to investigate sexism in a mainstream English as a foreign language (EFL) textbooks published in Japan.

Much ink has been devoted to sexism and textbook analyses over the past few decades (e.g., Coles, 1977; Graci, 1989; Gross, 1996; Hellinger, 1980; Holt, 1990; Hommes, 1978; Mannheim, 1995; Peterson & Kroner, 1992; Porreca, 1984; Potter & Rosser, 1992; Sadker & Sadker, 1980; Schmitz, 1975; Siegal & Okamoto, 1996; Sims, 1997; Stern, 1976; Talansky, 1986; Tietze & Davis, 1981; Walford, 1981); therefore great strides have been made. However, no research has been done on EFL textbooks published in Japan, where sexism still appears, particularly in those used by business organizations. My question is: Does sexism still exist in EFL textbooks published in Japan? Taking the textbooks of a business English program aired on national radio as examples, I will attempt to answer this question.

Sexism and Textbook Analysis

Various kinds of textbooks, including EFL textbooks, come within the scope of this literature review. Although some textbook analysts have advocated the use of a feminist perspective (Alvermann & Commeyras, 1996; Holt, 1990), abundant investigations have shown textbooks to be sexist in various areas. Scholars have found four main areas in which they have detected manifestations of sexism, three of which are related to content and one to language itself.

One manifestation of sexism appearing in textbooks is the omission of females; females do not appear as often as males in texts (Coles, 1977; Hommes, 1978; Sadker & Sadker, 1980; Schmitz, 1975; Stern, 1976). Porreca (1984), for example, found that the average ratio of females to males in the 15 most widely used ESL textbooks she surveyed, including

apparent masculine generic constructions, was 1:2.06, and the mean proportion of females to males in illustrations was 1:1.97.

A second type of sexism emerges in occupational roles of males and females in the texts in terms of both type and range of jobs. According to a study by the Mathematics Education Research group (1980), in six primary textbooks and 25 of 31 secondary textbooks of mathematics published in New Zealand, some of the roles traditionally allocated for males were assigned to females; however, those for females were not assigned to males. Hellinger (1980), in a study of 131 passages from English language textbooks, revealed that women were rarely engaged in any demanding, interesting, or successful activities, while male roles represented a broad range of occupational positions. Sims (1997), surveying test banks accompanying 17 management education texts, discovered that female managers were referred to significantly more often by their first names than male managers.

A third manifestation of sexism concerns stereotypical gendered identities for men and women. Four studies provide examples of this type of sexism: Walford's (1981) review of texts of recently published physics textbooks, which indicated that physics was a more male-oriented subject than a female-oriented one; Potter and Rosser's (1992) scrutiny of five seventh-grade life science textbooks that implied that the achievements of women scientists are relatively fewer or of lesser importance than those of men scientists; Peterson and Kroner's (1992) inspection of 27 current textbooks in introductory psychology and 12 for human development courses, which found that females were frequently portrayed in negative and gender-biased ways; and Siegal and Okamoto's (1996) study of five Japanese textbooks, which represented highly stereotypical social norms based on hegemonic ideologies of class, gender, and language.

A fourth category of sexism in textbooks is evident in linguistic analyses, such as the examination of lexical items. Porreca (1984), for example, found that masculine generic constructions were still used extensively in the 15 most widely used ESL textbooks, and attempts to avoid the masculine generic were often incomplete and confusing, even in passages or sentences where the masculine generic could be easily avoided.

Although many publishers, editors, teachers, and students worldwide object to sexist teaching and learning materials (Mannheim, 1995; Sunderland, 1995), this literature review reveals that many textbooks have been found to include some facets of sexism: omission of females, limited occupational roles for females, negative stereotypical identities for females, and preferential linguistic use of masculine generic con-

structions rather than gender-neutral ones. Moreover, up to the present time there has been no prominent research about possible sexism in EFL textbooks published in Japan. The purpose of this study, therefore, is to see if recent advances in women's rights in Japan have been reflected in EFL textbooks published in this country, especially those used in the business world.

Research Design

The Easy Business English series of textbooks, utilized by a nationwide radio program in Japan from October 2000 through March 2001 are examined for sexism. This program was selected because it has been broadcast widely for 14 years and therefore has had and continues to have a great influence on learners using this program and its texts.

Materials and Procedures

Easy Business English is published in Japan each month and written by eight Japanese authors and a number of native English speakers. Each week, eight regular characters discuss one topic. Every year, the contents in the textbooks from April to September are again utilized from October to March. In this study, all model dialogues that appeared in the textbooks are analyzed; the radio listeners encounter "Vignette" (named as "Today's Vignette" and "Short Dialogue" in the textbooks) from Monday to Friday, where the same eight characters converse in turn. In "Listening Challenge" on Friday, different characters, whose faces can be seen in pictures, appear each time. It is important to note that all of the dialogues are written in the book exactly as they are used in the radio program.

Considering types of manifestations of sexism explained above, I begin this study by briefly examining the omission of females. In this section, the numbers of female and male characters and their turn-takings in "Vignette" are counted; then, since these characters talk about some other individuals, the numbers of male and female individuals talked about by them are also calculated; and then in "Listening Challenge," the numbers of male and female characters who appeared in the pictures are calculated. (Since by just reading the transcripts it is sometimes difficult to decide whether a man or woman is talking, only the male or female characters who appeared in the pictures are counted.) This analysis is followed by a discussion of occupational roles of males and females. In this section, the roles of eight regular characters are first explained; after that, the roles of the female and male individuals talked about by

these eight characters are enumerated and discussed; and then the roles of female and male characters that appeared in "Listening Challenge" are listed and examined. Next, all gender-related identities found in the textbooks are discussed. Finally, word choices are investigated.

Results and Discussion

Omission of Females

In "Vignette" sections, four male and four female characters regularly appear. Two male characters and one female character also appear as guests; therefore the numbers of characters appearing in the texts from October to February are almost equal (6 males vs. 5 females). When tallying up the number of turns taken among the characters, it emerges that there were 348 male turn-takings versus 337 female turn-takings, which at first glance appears quite equitable. However, when counting the individuals that were mentioned in the dialogues produced by these characters, 22 male individuals and 15 female counterparts are found. In the "Listening Challenge" section, counting the numbers of male and female characters appearing in the pictures revealed that there are 39 male roles compared with 7 female roles, which suggests male dominance in the business organization.

Occupational Roles of Males and Females

Eight regular characters in "Vignette" are first considered. The main character is a Japanese businessman, Hiromi Araki. There are two male managers: Lou Cruise, aged 47, and Ben Leonard, aged 50. Lee Seymour, Gabby Mann, and Camille Renoir are female business-women. Sandy Liu is a male worker coming from the Hong Kong office. Mickey Ramirez, 27, is a female worker whose parents emigrated from Puerto Rico. Seymour, Mann, Renoir, and Liu are in their thirties. That is to say, the two managers and the main character are males and the four subordinates are female. This implies that males are more valuable than females.

These eight characters talk about other men and women whose occupational roles vary:

Table 1: Occupational Roles of Males and Females Appearing in the Dialogues of "Vignette"

Male	Female
Manager, new Nelson ABC Foods office Boss	
Section manager	Ramirez's cousin who has just
~~Gold Coast's HR manager~~	~~found a job~~
Doctor	
Young stock-brokerage hotshot	
Founder of ecotourism, called its godfather	
President	
Executive	
Millionaire	
Flight attendant	
New CEO	
Manager	
High school teacher	

Except for the flight attendant and the high school teacher, all the male roles represent powerful, high status, highly esteemed occupations. Furthermore, although women are mentioned 15 times in the dialogues, only two are mentioned in conjunction with an occupation. Women are often not described in terms of their occupations but rather in terms of their personal relationships, such as mother, cousin, wife, grandmother, and aunt. That esteemed occupational roles are occupied mostly by males and that women are often described in terms of their personal relationships fall under the second category of detecting sexism and gives support to the idea that sexism is present.

In some cases, women could possibly fill the occupational roles in the texts. Although "a doctor" or "doctors," for example, appear nine times in the texts, many of these instances are unclear about whether the person is male or female. Doctors are once referred to as "they" (emphasis added in bold in all examples):

> Renoir: Doctors are afraid of being sued if **they** give more than
>   minimal doses of drugs for pain relief. If **they** give as
>   much as a patient really needs, death may come faster
>   and then **the doctor** may be accused of malpractice.
>   (Jan., p. 36)

Cases such as this, in which the referents were inexplicit with regard to gender, were not included in this study.

On the other hand, on the two occasions when a doctor was referred to in the singular form, the doctor was referred to as male. There were no instances of explicitly female doctors. Consider the following ex-

cerpts.

> Mann: I'll let our doctor do the diagnosis. So far, Alissa
> says she hasn't got a problem, so why go to the doc-
> tor? But it's obvious that she needs professional help.
> I hope he convinces her there's no need to go to
> extremes. (Oct., p. 58)

> Mann: Thank heavens my mother saw the light in time.
> Her doctor also advised her to think about the right
> kind of nutrition beginning right now. He pointed out
> that food figures in cancer too. (Dec., p. 88)

These examples show how doctors are referred to as male.

As far as "Listening Challenge" is concerned, here is a list of the men's and women's occupational roles:

Table 2: Occupational Roles of Males and Females Appearing in "Listening Challenge"

Male	Female
Salesman	Interviewer
Presenter	Receptionist
Candidate for a business position	Secretary
Buyer	Airline employ-
ee	
Manufacturer	Businesswoman
Senior businessman	Sales depart-
ment agent	
Common clerk	Person in charge
of	
Person in charge of an exhibition	the exhibition
Manager in charge of advertising	
President	

Table 2 indicates that the two highest positions, the manager in charge of advertising and the president, are jobs for males, whereas among the lowest, receptionist and secretary are still solely "female" jobs.

Gendered Identities

The dialogues in the textbooks produce or reproduce five main gendered sexist identities, visible in the content. The first gendered sexist identity is related to the participants' family organizations. All of

the following sentences are observed from each participant's dialogue regarding their own family or partner.

Leonard (male):   Overall, I've been impressed by my boy's teachers. (Oct., p. 98)
My son spent a lot of time rapping with his favorites. (Oct., p. 98)
My wife gets an annual checkup. (Dec., p. 84)

Liu (male):   My wife and I are converts too. (Nov., p. 32)
My son told me that whole floors of his dormitory have monitors. (Dec., p. 24)

Araki (male):   Atsuko (his wife) is making money out of online ads. (Dec., p. 16)
... Atsuko gets a percentage of the purchase price. (Dec., p. 16)
Atsuko's gotten so many people involved... (Dec., p.20)
We visited Panama with the kids last year ... (Dec., p. 32)
The kids wanted to pick flowers to press for picture albums. (Dec., p. 44)
My mother said once she doesn't mind dying ... (Jan., p. 32)

Cruise (male):   My boys are into that too. (Oct., p. 16)
At first my boys were sending ads around as a duo. (Oct., p. 16)
Mrs. Cruise would do that too. (Feb., p. 108)
Our boys are a different story. (Feb., p. 108)

Mann (female):   It's my daughter. Alissa ...(Oct., p. 58)
My parents and Alissa agreed ... (Dec., p. 32)
Alissa was very nervous ... (Dec., p. 40)
He asked me out. I said O.K. It's not serious yet, but it feels so good to have a nice guy courting me. (Feb., p. 104)
Alissa gets e-mail valentine cards ... (Feb., p. 104)

Seymour (female): Barry (her husband) and I spent part of our honeymoon in Panama. (Dec., p. 32)

... in spite of some problems with Barry's grandmother. (Nov., p. 104)

Barry found a hotel ...(Nov., p. 104)

Barry took care of all that ... (Nov., p. 104)

Barry had to canvass hotels (Nov., p. 108)

Barry's mother got in touch with ...(Nov., p. 108)

I'll make a note of that and let Barry know. (Nov., p. 108)

I'll shoot a memo to Barry... (Nov., p. 112)

Barry and I might want to follow in your footsteps. (Dec., p. 36)

Barry won't book an ecotour. (Dec., p. 44)

Barry's father bought it as part of an investment. (Jan., p. 36)

Even Barry was flabbergasted, ... (Feb., p. 80)

Barry's father has a six-figure income, ... (Feb., p. 92)

Barry's family assets increase... (Feb., p. 92)

Ramirez (female): **Rodrigo** (her husband) and I value our time at home together. (Dec., p. 60)

Rodrigo calls it feeling the Christmas spirit every week of the year. (Nov., p. 68)

Renoir (female): Emile (her boyfriend) and I treat each other to ... (Feb., p. 108)

As seen in these statements, Araki, Cruise, Leonard, and Liu are married and have children (three with sons and one with gender-inexplicit "kids"). Seymour and Ramirez are married, but neither appears to have any children. Mann has a daughter but is either single or divorced, since she has a boyfriend (no mention of husband or father of the child). Renoir has a boyfriend. The basic pattern is that women in the business organization are often single or, if married, they have no children.

In addition, from the above sentences, we can note a curious feature: When Leonard and Liu refer to their wives, they utilize the word "wife,"

or on one occasion, Cruise says "Mrs. Cruise," all of which are translated as "tsuma" (wife) in Japanese; these words imply that women are in subordinate roles to men; whereas when the women mention their husbands, they always state their husbands' names and never refer to them as "my husband." Interestingly, when Araki refers to his wife, conversely, he utilizes her name. This may be related to the fact that Atsuko has her own job, which may represent her independence. In contrast, the other three men do not mention their wives' jobs in the texts; therefore it is not clear whether they have their own jobs or not.

The second gendered sexist identity concerns appearance as a women's issue. Consider the following extracts:

> Renoir: I thought you said she finished her computer-training course with flying colors.
> Ramirez: She did. I wasn't worried about her skills. I was concerned about her appearance. She didn't have the proper clothing to look good for a job interview. (Nov., p. 8)

Ramirez's comment conveys the importance of a female interviewee's appearance rather than her skills. This notion creates specific gendered identity, and may induce the radio listeners to accept this identity.

Furthermore, women are stereotypically represented as being concerned with appearance irrespective of their age, situation, or business position. A girl is anxious about her appearance.

> Mann: ...It's my daughter. Alissa is obsessed with her weight and shape. She eats little and doesn't keep it down. Her weight loss is obvious, but she still feels fat even though she's underweight. (Oct., p. 58)

Mentioning her daughter, Mann may have created an image of girls who care too much about their appearance. The text introduces the slogan "Don't Weigh Your Self-Esteem . . . It's What's Inside That Counts" (Oct., p. 77). This text can help to produce the image of women who consider their appearance more important than their talents, skills, or education. However, anorexia is in fact a problem that real women face and is taken very seriously by most feminists. This might therefore be seen as positive recognition of a women's issue.

The third gendered sexist identity concerns prioritizing family choices over business. Here is Wenz's case:

> Wenz (female): I left M & B to get married and came back this week

> after my divorce.
> Araki: I'm sorry things didn't work out for you. (Jan, p.
> 8)

This example reveals that for a woman, getting married often means giving up her career and choosing homemaking. Wenz's statement contributes to a negative image of women. Also, Araki's sympathetic response implies that the return to work might not be perceived as a positive outcome.

Moreover, Leonard talked about millionaires' wives:

> Leonard: I thought it was interesting that even these days half
>   the wives don't work outside the home. If they do,
>   they're usually teachers. (Feb., p. 80)

The above excerpt shows that a large number of millionaires' wives work outside the home as teachers; however, it also implies that if women are married to money and are not teachers, they do not work outside the home.

The fourth gendered sexist identity presents women as less valued than males (or wives as less than husbands).

> Seymour: Divorce alone is not a complete cure, though. More
>   than half of battered women feel they must have done
>   something deeply wrong to deserve such violence.
>   They blame themselves and often need counseling.
>   (Jan., p. 16)

Seymour's quote somehow describes divorce as something that occurs to women, especially women who are battered. Women need counseling but men are not presented as needing counseling.

That wives' are less valued than husbands also emerges in the following extracts from the dialogues:

> Leonard: Divorcing his wife to wed his secretary caused bad
>   vibes in the company's local community. That invited
>   a lot of boos and catcalls.
> Seymour: Other CEOs have done that and survived. (Jan., p.
>   80)

This suggests that husbands can have affairs; on the other hand, no wives' affairs are presented in the textbooks. The wives are portrayed as being divorced and being on the outside; if they had endured in silence then maybe they would still be married.

The fifth gendered sexist identity concerns the fact that disabled, sick, and elderly people, who are regarded as weaker than ordinary people, are almost always portrayed as women. This trend is illustrated in the following dialogue samples:

Seymour: We had a fine time, in spite of some problems with Barry's grandmother. She has Parkinson's disease and has to travel in a wheelchair. (Nov., p. 104)

Renoir: Once a wheelchair traveler told me she didn't want to be treated with kid gloves. (Nov., p. 112)

Mann: ...my mother hadn't seen a doctor for years. Her skin-care consultant, who makes a house call once a month, has been urging her for a long time to have a mammogram. Well, finally my mother did just that. She tested positive. She has breast cancer. (Dec., p. 80)

Leonard: Well, you all know my Aunt Etta. She collapsed at dinner last night and had to be hospitalized. We knew she had colon cancer... (Jan., p. 32)

Since no man appears sick or disabled in the texts, the effect is the creation of gendered images of weak, ill, or disabled elderly women.

Word Choice

Manifestations of sexism are also found in the word choices. Consider the following sexist use of language:

One man's meat is another man's poison.
Americans dip into their pockets and do something about it, whether we're talking victims of natural disasters or man-made atrocities.
Why are Mr. and Mrs. Average American still limping along from one paycheck to the next?

On the other hand, the texts also at times carefully use words in a gender-neutral fashion:

In most cases, there are warning signs that a coworker is going to blow his or her top.
The campaign's aimed mainly at homemakers...
The passenger sees this humongous furry spider right next to his or her face.

> If somebody goes too far, take him or her aside and talk it over
> quietly.

Though the word "homemakers" is translated into "shufu (house-wife)" in Japanese transcripts, the word choice of "homemakers" shows an attempt to eradicate sexism.

Overall, both sexist and nonsexist language in the texts can be seen. The usage of gender-neutral pronouns in some sections and male pronouns in other sections may be due to a schizophrenic pull among the eight different authors.

Conclusion

Learning English is a situation where learners are socialized into the target culture, and many Japanese women may learn English hoping to get rid of their gendered identities forced on them by national ideologies. A radio language program, an excellent device for learning a language, has the power to shape the listener's ideas. This paper cites examples of various aspects of sexism in the Easy Business English textbooks, demonstrating that sexism is still an issue to be dealt with.

More research is necessary to see if these examples of sexism are part of a broader trend in Japanese EFL textbooks. Furthermore, not only should textbook writers and publishers make great efforts to eliminate sexism when creating textbooks, but also we as EFL teachers should reexamine textbooks used in classrooms as well as those intended for private study before actually utilizing them as teaching materials in order to evaluate how gendered identities are treated in their contents, both on the surface and in substance.

Acknowledgements

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Reviews

Curriculum Development in Language Teaching. Jack
  C. Richards. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press,
  2001. xiv + 321 pp.

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Most readers of the JALT Journal are familiar with Jack Richards through one or more of his many publications, which range from methodology to textbooks for English learners. His co-authored Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching (2001) is in its second edition, and his New Interchange (1998) series is one of the biggest selling language textbook series in Japan.

Curriculum Development in Language Teaching is part of the Cambridge Language Education series edited by Richards. In this book, Richards has set out to provide in-service teachers with a resource and teachers in training with a review of language program planning, implementation, and evaluation approaches. Overall, he has achieved this goal and has accomplished the difficult task of writing a text that is informative and balanced in terms of scope and utility.

Richards gives a rather narrow definition of the term "syllabus," restricting it to the content of a course while the term "curriculum" is seen as encompassing syllabus and other elements such as needs analysis, teaching, and evaluation. His discussion of curriculum development deals predominantly with planning and implementing a language course rather than with the broader issues of planning and developing a set of related courses within a program.

The book is organized into nine chapters covering language teaching history, methods, needs analysis, situation analysis, goals and outcomes, course design, the teaching and learning process, materials design, and evaluation. Each chapter ends with discussion questions and activities, an appendix, and chapter references. The chapters follow a chronological sequence that matches the development of a typical curriculum, which progresses from an initial needs analysis ultimately to program evaluation. Aspects that receive the most attention are needs analysis,

learning outcomes, and syllabus frameworks. There are also short descriptions of the more common philosophies of teaching, learning, and language. The useful index of authors and subjects at the end of the book and the clarity and style of the layout, especially the table of contents and indices, make finding information quick and easy.

At more than eighty pages, the appendices form the largest portion of the book. Vocabulary, function and grammar lists, needs analyses, proficiency descriptors, evaluation forms, and samples from Richards' own texts are included. Some of the appendices could have been omitted, particularly the sample of a word frequency list and grammar list of personal and possessive pronouns. The appendix on question-naire design offers some useful tips but lacks any explanation of data analysis or interpretation, limiting its usefulness for those wanting to administer their own surveys. Two lengthy questionnaires (co-written by Richards) are given as samples in appendices, but there is little discus-sion of their design or effectiveness. The majority of the appendices, however, complement the text well. For example, the discussion of the pros and cons of skills-based, task-based, process, and product syllabi, among others, highlights the issues that Richards considers important in syllabus design. The different types of syllabi in the appendices in Chapter 8 should provoke thought and discussion among teachers in training or readers new to curriculum design. The proficiency descrip-tors and teacher evaluation forms that Richards has taken from a variety of sources may be useful for those interested in evaluation issues.

Most of the book is easy to understand and only rarely becomes overly simplistic, as in the description on p. 161 of a task-based syl-labus: "Tasks are activities that drive the second language acquisition process." While axiomatic definitions such as this are present, they are infrequent and do little to detract from Richards' efforts "to acquaint language teachers and teachers-in-training with fundamental issues" (p. xi). Curriculum Development in Language Teaching presents lists, forms, and brief descriptions that provides an understandable, albeit limited, background to the issues involved in course design, as well as offering some related resources.

References

Richards, J., & Rodgers, T. (2001). Approaches and methods in language teaching: A description and analysis (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. (1998). New interchange: English for international communication. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Information for Contributors

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