

Japan Association for Language Teaching

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Japan Association for Language Teaching

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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 2,500 language teachers. There are 34 JALT chapters and 17 special interest groups (SIGs) in Japan. JALT is one of the founders of the PAC (Pacific Asian Consortium), which is an association of language teacher organizations in Pacific Asia. PAC holds regional conferences and exchanges information among its member organizations. JALT is the Japan affiliate of International TESOL (Teachers of 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 research journal; *The Language Teacher*, a monthly periodical 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 approximately 1,600 participants annually and offers over 300 papers, workshops, colloquia, and poster sessions. Each JALT chapter holds local meetings and JALT's Special-Interest Groups (SIGs) provide information on specific areas of interest. 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 desired 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 or visit the JALT website at <www.jalt.org>.

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In this Issue

Articles

The main section of this issue contains four articles. First, **David Aline** and **Yuri Hosoda** present research on homeroom teachers' participation patterns in the new English classes being implemented in Japanese elementary schools. Next, **Neil Cowie** challenges our thinking as he uses sports and Japanese language classes to examine his teaching through the lens of social-cultural learning theories. In our third article, **Hirofumi Asada** examines the effect informal language has on L2 acquisition over time. Finally, **Nobuko Yamanaka** evaluates textbooks' representation of other cultures using Kachru's framework of inner, outer, and expanding circles.

Perspectives

Keita Kikuchi examines the current state of English entrance exams as a follow-up to a study that appeared in this journal over ten years ago (Brown & Yamashita, 1995).

Reviews

In this issue we have four book reviews. In the first one, **Debra Simms** reviews an edited volume on how knowledge about language is used in language classrooms. Next, **Christian Perry** examines a book that will be of interest to readers who teach writing as it addresses some of the controversies surrounding second language writing. Our third review, by **Omar Karlin** and **Jay Veenstra**, looks at a book on task-based instruction in language education. Finally, **Mark Jones** reviews a book that takes a sociological approach to looking at language and society in Japan.

References

Brown, J. D., & Yamashita, S. O. (1995). English language tests at Japanese universities: What do we know about them? *JALT Journal*, 17 (1), 7-30.

From the Editors

We hope that you are enjoying a new school year with all that it entails: new classes, new students, and for some even new colleagues. Here at the *JALT Journal* we want to welcome some “old” colleagues who are helping JALT in a new way! We welcome **Eton Churchill**, **Yuri Hosoda**, and **Cynthia Quinn** to the editorial advisory board and look forward to working with them as they join the numerous other volunteers—editorial board members, proofreaders, additional readers, editors—who all help make the *JALT Journal* (and all of JALT Publications) what it is. We cannot thank our volunteers enough. And we can always use extra volunteers. If you have experience conducting research and/or writing and publishing academically, you might consider becoming an additional reader. Additional readers usually read one to four articles a year in their areas of expertise and interest. We find that is a manageable workload compared to the up-to-one-article a month that editorial advisory board members read. If you are interested, or just have questions about the positions, please contact us at <jj-editor@jalt-publications.org>.

Articles

Team Teaching Participation Patterns of Homeroom Teachers in English Activities Classes in Japanese Public Elementary Schools

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Since *Monbukagakusho* (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT)) introduced its new course of study guidelines, most public elementary schools now offer English Activities classes, mostly classes team-taught by the homeroom teacher (HRT) and an assistant language teacher (ALT). Although team teaching has received a lot of attention in Japan, there are few studies on team teaching at elementary schools. This observational study examines the interaction among HRT, ALT, and students, with a focus on HRTs' participation patterns in the interaction. The data come from six team-teaching English Activities classes in five randomly selected public elementary schools. The data revealed four observable ways HRTs participated: by being (a) a "bystander," (b) a "translator," (c) a "co-learner" of English, or (d) a "co-teacher." The various participation patterns exhibited by the HRTs affected the classroom interaction in distinct ways. Teaching implications for both experienced and novice teachers are discussed.

「総合的な学習の時間」が本格的に開始されて以来多くの公立小学校で英語活動が導入されてきた。多くの学校では学級担任と外国人指導助手のチームティーチングによる授業を行っている。日本ではチームティーチングという言葉をよく耳にするが、小学校

におけるティームティーチングの研究はまだ進んでいない。本稿では、学級担任、外国人指導助手、児童の英語活動授業における相互行為を検証し、学級担任の相互行為への参加パターンについて考察する。本研究では公立小学校5校6教室における英語活動を分析した。分析の結果、学級担任は(a)傍観者、(b)通訳、(c)生徒 (d) 教師、として授業に参加していたことがわかった。また、学級担任のそれぞれの授業参加パターンは教室内相互行為に様々な影響を与えていることがわかった。学級担任と外国人指導助手は今後どのようにティームティーチングを進めていくべきなのかについて示唆する。

Since Mombukagakusho (MEXT) introduced a new curriculum offering public elementary schools the option of conducting English activities, the majority of schools have started holding what have become known as English Activities classes. Most of these schools offer classes in the form of team teaching by the homeroom teacher (HRT) and an assistant language teacher (ALT). Although team teaching has received a great deal of attention in Japan, the main focus has been on team teaching in high schools and junior high schools (Browne & Wada, 1998; Tajino & Walker, 1998; Wada & Cominos, 1994); little research as of yet has been completed on team teaching in elementary schools. Moreover, most of what is written on teaching English in elementary schools is based on opinion (J-Shine, 2004; Mitsuya, 2003; Murphey, Asaoka, & Sekiguchi, 2004; Otsu & Torigai, 2002), and although it is opinion based on experience and knowledge, it still lacks an objective research approach.

Method

Design

The data for this study were collected as part of a larger research project on public elementary schools throughout Japan (MEXT Grant No. 16520359). The project is an observational study of what is actually occurring in the English Activities classes in public elementary schools. This research is designed to supplement, rather than replace, other research using different data collection techniques such as questionnaires.

The schools visited were randomly selected from each of the major geographic areas of Japan. At each school the two researchers observed the classes; video- and audio-recorded the classes with two cameras and two audio-recorders; interviewed the main instructors teaching the classes (e.g., ALTs or HRTs), the homeroom teachers, the curriculum designers, and the principal; and collected curriculum and classroom materials used for the English Activities classes. A total of six classes from five schools

were used to develop the database. The detailed information of each school is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Elementary School English Activities Database

	Tokyo	Tochigi	Fukushima	Nagano 3	Nagano 5	Kagoshima
Grade	4	6	6	3	5	2
Classes per year ^{*1}	20	20	30	5	6	3
Years of English classes	4	3	4	1	3	2
Students per class	32	19	28	30	35	12
Data collection ^{*2}	Jan. 2004	Jan. 2004	Sept. 2004	Feb. 2005	Feb. 2005	Feb. 2005
Main language of instruction	English	English	English	English/Japanese	English/Japanese	English

*1: The number of classes per year varies depending on the grade level.

*2: The school year in Japan begins in April.

One school we visited for our larger research project was excluded from this study as there was no team teaching for that class since the HRT taught alone. (See Aline & Hosoda, 2004, 2005; Hosoda & Aline, 2005 for further details and data from the overall project.) For the purposes of this study, we define team teaching as teaching that includes more than one teacher in the classroom even when only one teacher is in charge of the main interaction. That is to say, team teaching does not require that both, or all, teachers be at the front of the room at all times instructing together all of the classroom activities.¹

Materials

Close transcripts that include the details of interaction (e.g., loudness, stress, lengthened speech, overlap, etc.) were prepared from the class recordings using the Jefferson transcription system (Jefferson, 1984) as used in Conversation Analysis (CA) (see Appendix for transcription conventions). Conversation Analysis originally began in the field of sociology (e.g., Sacks, 1963, 1972; Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974; Schegloff, 1968), but has been applied as a research technique in many other fields, including recently in second language acquisition for examining classroom interaction (e.g., He, 2004; Markee, 2000, 2004a, 2004b, 2004c; Mori, 2002; Seedhouse, 2001, 2004). Conversation Analysis looks at the interaction between the participants rather than at the language itself, and requires use of the actual transcription data as evidence for any research findings. This helps to ensure reliability as the readers can independently assess the consistency and interpretation of the analysis.

Analysis

Analysis of the data revealed four ways HRTs participated in the classes: by being (a) a “bystander,” (b) a “translator,” (c) a “co-learner” of English, or (d) a “co-teacher.”

The bystander participation pattern is indicated by both physical and interactional features. In this pattern, the HRT moves out of the main interactional space at the front of the classroom to a position at the side of the room or to the back of the classroom. The HRT tends to refrain from participating in the main sequence of classroom interaction between the ALT and students. However, the HRT may occasionally enter the interaction when there is some interactional difficulty between the ALT and students.

The translator pattern manifests itself through verbatim translation by the HRT of what the ALT says in the course of using display language or using English for classroom management.

HRTs exhibit a co-learner participation pattern when they are demonstrating to their students through their actions how to be good language learners (Murphey et al., 2004) by, for example, volunteering to give answers to the teacher’s questions and modeling the correct form of the answer.

Participation by the HRTs as a co-teacher can be seen when both teachers are in the main sequence of interaction, and directly instructing students as opposed to one teacher repeating through translation what the other teacher has said.

Although we have given titles to these general categories as they emerged from the analysis of the data, the categories are not discrete but form somewhat of a continuum from little to greater participation in the main interaction by the HRT, or from greater sharing of teaching responsibilities with the ALT to less sharing. However, as will be seen from the analyses, the HRT cannot be placed at one point on the continuum for the entire class as the participation pattern manifests itself on a moment-by-moment basis throughout the class session. That is to say, the HRTs did not stick to the same participation pattern during the whole class time. Even in one classroom period, an HRT displayed one participation pattern at one moment of interaction and another pattern at another moment. We will present below some examples of the four patterns with a discussion of some interactional effects.

Teacher as Bystander

As noted above, the bystander participation pattern is indicated by both physical and interactional features. The HRT moves out of the main interactional space at the front of the classroom to a position at the side of the room or to the back of the classroom. The HRT was performing the role of a “bystander” in the sense that they refrained from participating in the main sequence of classroom interaction between the ALT and students and tended to just observe the interaction. However, the HRT may occasionally participate in the interaction and add a side sequence to the classroom interaction when there is some interactional difficulty between the ALT and students (i.e., an off-the-track sequence such as a repair sequence that helps the interactants to get back to the main sequence of the interaction). For example, in the extract below, the HRT joins in when the class becomes too noisy for the ALT to continue the class.

Extract (1) [Nagano 5: 22]

((The class is playing a card game. One group of students just gave the correct answer.))

- 01 ALT: oka:y.
 02 (9.0) ((Students are chatting with their friends. The ALT is looking at the students and remaining silent))
 03 HRT: TSUGI SUGU IKU KARA.
 “The next one is coming.”
 04 (13.0) ((HRT produces “sh:::::” several

times while the ALT remains silent.
 Gradually the students become quiet.)
 05 ALT: Ready? It's (.) pink. It's sweet.

In Extract (1), the class is playing a card game. The students have put their desks together in groups of four and placed a number of picture cards of different types of food face up on their grouped desks. The ALT has given hints in the form of descriptors (e.g., red, sweet) and the students have been competing for selection of the correct picture card. After one group of students gives the correct answer for one card and the ALT accepts the answer in line 1, the class becomes very noisy. The ALT stands quietly in front of the class and simply looks at the students for a while. Then the HRT, who has been silently observing the class from the back of the room, tells the whole class in a loud voice that the next question will be coming soon. However, the students continue chatting and the HRT produces "sh:::" several times. Finally, the students become silent and the ALT is able to continue the game.

In Extract (1) the HRT entered the classroom interaction to solve an interactional difficulty for the whole class. As shown in Extract (2) below, the bystander HRT may also come into the interaction to solve an interactional difficulty between individual students.

Extract (2) [Tochigi: 8]

((Student 1 (S1) and Student 2 (S2) are practicing a dialog.))

01 S1: What- what day is this. ((points to a card))
 02 (1.0)
 03 S1: *mannaka mannaka.*
 "middle, middle"
 04 HRT: *mannaka [datte.*
 "{He} says it's middle."
 05 S2: [()]
 06 HRT: *mannaka*
 "middle"
 07 S2: °*wakan nai*°
 "I don't know."
 08 HRT: Monday.
 09 S2: MONDAY.

In Extract (2), the students are asking each other for the names of the days of the week. The HRT, who is standing at the side of the classroom next to Student 1 and Student 2, sees that there is a problem in the students' interaction as indicated by their one-second pause in line 2. The HRT first offers help by repeating twice what S1 said in line 3, "*mannaka*" (middle). However, as S2 explicitly expresses his nonunderstanding in line 7, the HRT offers the correct answer, "Monday," in line 8. S2 then repeats the correct answer. As demonstrated here, by performing with a bystander participation pattern and positioning himself at the side of the classroom, the HRT was able to deal constructively with problems that individual students were facing.

In sum, being a bystander and positioning him/herself at the side or back of the classroom makes it possible for the HRT to see problems that occur for the class as a whole as well as problems encountered by individual students.

Being a Translator

The translator pattern manifests itself through verbatim translation by the HRT of what the ALT says in the course of using display language or using English for classroom management. The HRTs in the data often employed this interactional pattern when the students displayed difficulty in understanding what the ALT had said, as shown in Extract 3 below.

Extract (3) [Fukushima: 11]

- 01 ALT: Oka::y. Sankumi:, no:w some practice.
 02 some practice. Takano sensei will
 03 choose one card.
 04 HRT: ((chooses a card and passes it to the ALT))
 05 ALT: \$aa\$ uhhhuhuhuhuh now, I will say this
 06 card. Are you uhn uhn. Everyone please
 07 repeat after me. Are you uhn uhn? Are you
 08 uhn uhn? And then (.) please stand up.
 09 Yes I am.
 10 HRT: *wakatta?*
 "Do you understand?"
 11 S: *yoku imi ga wakan nai.*
 "I don't understand the meaning well."
 12 HRT: *wakaru desho. jibun ga yobare tara sakki*
 13 *no kaado no namae dattara tatte. Mike*

- 14 *sensei to onaji koto o minna repeat shite*
 15 *kurikaeshite iki masu.*
 "You understand it, don't you? If you are
 called, if it was the name of the card you
 had before, stand up. Everyone repeats what
 Mike sensei says and then we keep going."
 16 ALT: *oka:y. First one. Are you Jackie Chan?*

In lines 1 to 9, the ALT introduces a new activity in English. Following the HRT's comprehension check (line 10), one student expresses his lack of understanding (line 11). Then in line 12, the HRT starts translating into Japanese what the ALT said. After the translation, the ALT starts the activity. As shown in this example, the HRT's translation helped the students to understand what the ALT said in English and also helped the ALT to move forward with the classroom activities. Therefore the translation played a facilitating role in the classroom.

However, at another place in the data the HRT's translation also occurred when it did not appear to be necessary. Consider Extract (4).

Extract (4) [Fukushima:7]

- 01 ALT: did you write fi:ve? (.) okay?
 02 Ss: okay.
 03 JT: *gonin kakemashita ka?*
 "Did you write five people?"
 04 (2.0)

In line 1, the ALT asks the students if they have finished writing the names of five famous people on their papers. In response to the ALT's inquiry, in line 2, the students respond with "okay." This "okay" evidences the students' completion of the task as well as the students' understanding of the ALT's question in English. In line 3, however, the HRT translates into Japanese what the ALT said in line 1. This translated utterance receives no response from the students. Here, the HRT's translation is treated as "unnecessary" by the students.

Translation by the HRT often aided the students and the ALT in that it helped the students' comprehension and enabled the ALT to maintain the momentum of the lesson. Conversely, in some cases, translation occurred at times when it did not appear to be necessary.

1, the ALT asks the students a display question about the weather. In response, S1 provides the answer with normal turn-taking timing in line 2. By doing so, S1 shows her comprehension of the question as well as demonstrating her ability to use normal turn-taking timing for answering questions in English. On the other hand, the other students wait for the HRT's inbreath, marked in the transcript in line 3 with ".hhh," which indicates she is about to speak, and then answer the ALT's question in chorus with the HRT in line 4. During this question and answer activity, which was repeated many times in this class, all of the students except S1 waited for the HRT's visible and audible inbreath before starting to answer the ALT's question in chorus. Considering that these second-grade students have just started to learn English, the HRT's lead in answering the questions may be beneficial for them in becoming accustomed to speaking English. However, if the HRT continues to control the timing of the answers, the students may become too dependent on her; they may learn more about choral answering in the classroom than about answering questions in normal conversation. It has been reported in the language socialization literature (e.g., Ochs, 1996; Ochs & Schieffelin, 1984, 1989; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986)² that children learn to be competent members of a society through daily routines, and by taking part in daily routines children implicitly receive cultural knowledge through language forms and practices. Thus, by taking part in routines of answering questions in chorus with the HRT, the students may be implicitly receiving the knowledge of language classroom culture. As English is a mandatory subject in Japan and most students will continue to participate in language classrooms for at least the next 10 years, receiving knowledge of language classroom culture may be beneficial. However, it appears that the HRT is more likely socializing the students to the educational technique of language classroom choral repetition than helping them to learn proper turn-taking timing in English. This could have both positive and negative effects in that the students may learn how to participate with others in the learning process, but may also learn to ignore the turn-taking timing and meaning of the language produced.

In short, the HRT's participation in class as co-learner helps students to observe and imitate model responses in English, but at the same time it may alter the timing of the interaction and make the students too dependent on the HRT as part of educational socialization to group learning.

Being a Co-teacher

In participation by the HRTs as a “co-teacher” of the class, both the ALT and HRT are in the main sequence of interaction and directly instructing the students. The HRTs most often manifested this pattern on occasions of classroom management (e.g., opening and closing the class session). More pertinently, in some cases, the HRTs co-taught the English activities with the ALT from the front of the class as part of the main interaction. Consider Extract (7) below.

Extract (7) [Tokyo:5:20-6:04]

((S5, “Yuki,” was called on to answer the ALT’s question. Ss are sitting in a circle. The HRT is showing a picture card that describes the answer.))

- 01 HRT: Yuki plea:se
 02 ALT: Where: i:s the do:g?
 03 (2.5) ((S5 stands up and slowly walks
 to the front.))
 04 S1: °Under the [chair. da yo°
 05 HRT: [()
 06 S5: [(°eh?°)
 07 S1: [°°under the cha[ir°°
 08 S5: ((facing HRT)) [under the chair.
 09 S1: [°°under the chair°°
 10 HRT: [(looks at card to check the answer.)]
 11 ALT: Goo:[::::d.
 12 HRT: [Go::::d under the chair:.

In this extract, both the HRT and ALT are positioning themselves directly in front of the class. In line 1, the HRT summons S5 (Yuki). As the HRT of the class, she knows the names of all the students and it was always the HRT, not the ALT, who called on the students. In response to the HRT’s summons and the ALT’s question, S5 stands up and slowly walks to the front of the class, where the HRT is holding up a large card with the answers on it; he stops and hesitates. Seeing S5’s hesitation, S1 whispers “under the chair” in line 4 and the HRT also whispers something to S5. In line 8, S5 takes a half step forward and finally produces the answer to the ALT’s question. However, when S5 answers the question, his gaze and body orientation are on the HRT, not on the ALT, who actually asked the question. By directing his answer to the HRT even though the question came from the ALT, S5 displays his understanding that the HRT is the

one in the classroom who holds the power to judge the appropriateness of his answer. In fact, during this activity, most of the students who were called on to answer the ALT's questions looked at the HRT when they produced their answers. After S5 answered the question, both the HRT and ALT provided positive feedback. Thus, when HRTs co-teach the class with an ALT—the basic question-answer interactional mechanism, that the one who answers the question should provide an answer to the one who asked the question—is likely to be altered.

Discussion

As demonstrated above, four types of HRT participation patterns were observed and each participation pattern had some discernible interactional effects. The implications of these effects are discussed in the next section. While these are not the only participation patterns possible for HRTs in the English Activities classes, they are the only patterns that emerged from the data we analyzed. Further observations and analyses may reveal other participation patterns of importance.

Taking the role of a bystander enabled the HRT to deal with the interactional difficulties of the whole class as well as those of individual students, and to help the ALT and students stay on track with the main classroom activities. While the role of bystander may at first appear to be passive, it can serve an important function in the management of classroom interaction. The multitude of functions performed in this role has for the most part been overlooked in research. From our observations and analyses it is apparent that the bystander role, although perhaps misnamed here, serves a significant function in the classroom deserving of further research to look beyond the purely managerial role in order to understand how it may function to further language learning and interaction between the ALT and students.

By translating the ALT's English utterances into Japanese, the HRT helped the students' comprehension and enabled the ALT to continue the lesson. From the viewpoint of increasing comprehensible input, the translation both increases the students' comprehension of the immediate input and increases the overall comprehensible input as it maintains the flow of the lesson. Conversely, the HRT's translation can occur at times when it is not helpful or necessary. When students have already acknowledged their comprehension of the ALT's utterance in English, any translation by the HRT becomes nothing more than a hindrance to the interaction between the ALT and students.

Through participation in the class as a co-learner, the HRT enabled the students to observe and imitate a good language learner's behavior. Moreover, by repeatedly leading the students in answering the ALT's questions, the HRT was implicitly socializing the students to the language classroom culture. Nevertheless, this practice may result in the students' learning more about choral answering in the classroom than proper turn taking in English. As a co-learner, the HRT must remember that the students do not always view them in that co-learner role. That is, the students will still see the HRT as a teacher and orient to the HRT's role as a teacher in that they will wait for the teacher to lead them in responding to the ALT. Therefore, the HRT, rather than leading and modeling often, needs to also allow the students to take the initiative on their own in responding to the ALT's questions or in other interactions with the ALT.

Finally, when the HRT co-taught the class, the HRT was able to address specific questions to each student on an individual basis. In addition, the HRT was able to maintain the power relationship between students and teacher in the classroom. However, the HRT's participation in the main classroom interaction with the ALT altered the basic question-answer interactional mechanism in which the person who is asked a question is supposed to address the answer to the person who asked the question. Often in our data, the students do not address their answers to the ALT, who asked the question, but to the HRT as the person with institutional power in the classroom. The consequences of this question-answer interactional mechanism for language learning and learning of social interaction needs to become the focus of future research before any conclusions or suggestions for language learning pedagogy can be contemplated.

Implications

It is difficult and almost dangerous to make suggestions about what teachers should do based on opinion or even based on descriptive observational research. However, there are some suggestions that come out of these analyses that are applicable to teaching, teacher training, and syllabus design.

Teachers, both HRT and ALT, should be aware of the interactional patterns HRTs use in the classroom and the implications of those patterns. Awareness is the first step toward making changes that may lead to improvements in teaching. We do not recommend that teachers video-tape their own classes, transcribe the interaction, and then analyze it for participation patterns—that is simply too time-consuming. But if

teachers can be made aware of the patterns they and other teachers use and the positive and negative effects associated with those patterns, they can begin to make decisions about their classroom behavior based on the changing interaction on a moment-by-moment basis. Rather than always translating or never translating, they can see that translation is useful when it aids comprehension, but is not useful or may have a negative effect when applied to interactions in which the students have already processed the target language. And they can see that if they participate as bystanders, they are simply turning over the main interaction to the other teacher while continuing to participate as a teacher in terms of classroom management or in the important role of helping individual students.

Students in teacher training programs could watch the video and analyze the transcripts so that they can see how teachers manage the interaction moment by moment as opposed to applying blanket terminology for teaching methods to an entire class session. They could also learn that there are positive and negative aspects to the choices they make as teachers, and therefore learn to balance the possible outcomes of their decisions.

Conclusion

We have looked at HRTs' interactional patterns in English Activity classes in public elementary schools in Japan. We found that there were basically four interactional patterns and each pattern had both positive and negative effects on the interaction. Those patterns were displayed on a moment-by-moment basis in the classroom interaction.

In this study we limited our observations to analysis of the interaction at the local level, that is, directly between the HRT and ALT or students. Future research should look at how external variables such as school policy, Japanese proficiency levels of ALTs, English proficiency levels of HRTs, years and type of teaching experience, the frequency of English Activities classes, and other variables affect team-taught classes.

Notes

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1. Furthermore, from analysis of the transcripts it is clear that team teaching in public elementary schools, for the most part, places the ALT at the front of the room managing and instructing the main interaction. This occurs because the HRT is not an English teacher but

an elementary school teacher who teaches most of the other subjects. The HRT, however, does not turn the entire class session over to the visiting teacher, as the HRT is required as a state licensed teacher to remain in the classroom. Therefore, with the ALT instructing the main interaction, the question remains as to the role of the HRT.

2. The authors argued that language socialization works in two ways: *socialization through language* and *socialization to use the language*. What the authors refer to as socialization through language is a process in which novices learn to be competent members of a society through participation in daily routines. By taking part in daily routines, novices implicitly receive cultural knowledge through language forms and practices. On the other hand socialization to use the language is more explicit and it takes place when experts clearly direct novices to use the language according to the social norms.

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Appendix

Transcription Conventions

[]	overlapping talk
=	latched utterances
(0.0)	timed pause (in seconds)
(.)	a short pause
co:lon	extension of the sound or syllable
.	fall in intonation (final)
,	continuing intonation (non-final)
?	rising intonation (final)
CAPITAL	loud talk
<u>underline</u>	emphasis
↑	sharp rise
↓	sharp fall
◦ ◦	passage of talk that is quieter than surrounding talk
\$ \$	smiley voice
hh	audible aspirations
.hh	audible inhalations
(())	comment by the transcriber
()	problematic hearing that the transcriber is not certain about
“ ”	idiomatic translation of Japanese utterances

What Do Sports, Learning Japanese, and Teaching English Have in Common? Social-Cultural Learning Theories, That's What

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An analogy is drawn between how sports in Japan are practiced, and how Japanese as a second language is taught. These two areas are examined through the frameworks of sociocultural and cultural learning theories which have led the author to reflect on and adjust his own English language teaching beliefs. These theories are then linked with Bourdieu's concept of "cultural capital" in which students are socialized into certain educational practices and perceptions in order to succeed in a society. It is argued that when students move from the familiar practices and perceptions of school to the different ones of a university foreign language classroom, both they and their teachers, need to be given time and the means to adapt to new forms of cultural capital.

本論文は日本におけるスポーツ・トレーニングと日本語を外国人に教える方法との間の類似性を指摘する。この二つの分野の教授法を社会文化学習理論及び文化学習理論の枠組みから考察し、これまでの著者自身の英語教育に関するビリーフを見直し調整する。さらに社会文化学習理論をBourdieuの提唱するcultural capital概念—学習者は社会で成功するために特定の教育実践や認識に順応していくという考え方—の観点から考察する。学習者が従来慣れ親しんできた学習法や認識を改め大学の外国語授業へと移行できるまでには、学習者が、そしてまた教師が、新しい形のcultural capitalに適合できるだけの時間と手段が必要であることを提唱する。

In this article I wish first to draw an analogy between Japanese cultural learning theories about how sports are introduced and practiced and how Japanese as a second language is taught. I will then go on to describe how an examination of these two areas has led me to reflect on my own language learning, and particularly language teaching beliefs and to describe ways in which I could change. Finally, I link sociocultural theory with Bourdieu's (1973) concept of "cultural capital" in which students are socialized into certain educational practices and perceptions in order to succeed in a society. I argue that when the same students move from the kinds of practices and perceptions they are used to at school to the different ones of a university foreign language classroom, both they and their teachers need to adjust to the new social and cultural context.

Traditional school-based cognitive theories of teaching and learning have been augmented in recent years by an examination of a society's set of "cultural learning theories" (Singleton, 1989, 1998b); that is, that society's own beliefs and values concerning how something should be taught or learnt. Such theories are based in turn on those of "situated learning" (Lave & Wenger, 1991), in which education is treated as an identity- and community-making process that takes place within communities of practitioners rather than within schools. One seminal anthropological book edited by John Singleton (1998b) has brought together studies of a variety of these communities in Japan. These include forms of traditional apprenticeship in folk art and crafts such as pottery (Haase, 1998) and weaving (Creighton, 1998), as well as the employment practices of diverse groups such as garage mechanics (Madon, 1998) and shellfish divers (Hill & Plath, 1998). These apprenticeships take place in an educative process in which the skills of established practitioners are learnt as Lave and Wenger put it through "legitimate peripheral participation." Such participation can be summed up as learning by doing rather than learning by being taught.

A second related theoretical perspective that has drawn recent attention from EFL and ESL researchers and teachers is that of sociocultural theory. This approach takes up similar ideas as cultural learning theory does, drawing on the work of Bourdieu (1973), Vygotsky (1978), and various critical discourse theorists including Fairclough (1992) and Gee (1996). These scholars have inspired a variety of work with special reference to language teaching including the recent edited collections of Lantolf (2000) and Hawkins (2004). The theoretical stance of this approach is that language learning is not just the concern of individual learners (or teachers) but extends to overlapping and deeply embedded issues of

culture, context, and identity. Hawkins (2004) explains what the practical ramifications of such an approach are for language teachers:

...the work of teachers is framed as establishing and supporting classroom communities in which learners collaboratively engage in situated (socially sanctioned) activities (with guidance and facilitation) to come to new understandings and take on new practices (learning). This diverges from traditional and well documented practices of teaching as rote learning and memorization... For teachers, then, this is a huge shift. (pp. 5-6)

The methods of study that I describe in this article are slightly different in each section in order to take advantage of my different role within each community I look at. All come under the umbrella of qualitative inquiry in general and ethnography in particular. When telling of Japanese sports I am assuming the role of a somewhat detached “nonparticipant observer” (Crotty, 1998): I live in Japan and am a keen sports person, but I am not a member of any of the sports communities that I briefly describe. When describing my experiences in Japanese class I take on the role of an emic “participant observer” (Davis, 1995, p. 433) who is not only taking part in lessons but also collecting data about them. Finally, when examining and describing my own teaching I am looking inward at my own teaching context and practice as a form of “autoethnography” (Ellis & Bochner, 2000), or “personal narrative” (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). I do not claim that my results can be generalized to other contexts but I aim to provide a picture that will resonate with the reader’s own experiences and frames of reference, and this, I hope, will provide insights that will be of use in each reader’s situation.

Sports Practice

In this section I will describe two types of learning and teaching activities that can be seen in many communities of amateur sports players in Japan: the practicing of isolated skills and time spent watching other players. My evidence is based on many years of informally observing Japanese sport and is illustrated with some specific recent examples that have set me thinking about how Japanese people are socialized into sport (for a further example see Chapman, 2004).

In Japan, in many sports that I have watched, I have seen relatively little playing of a proper game or at least a “game-like” practice. I have

seen many individual competitions and matches between teams take place, but my overall impression is that, aside from these competitive opportunities, sports mainly consist of the practice of a discrete series of isolated skills or moves often under the control of a coach or fellow senior player. I would like to illustrate with examples from rugby, football (soccer), and tennis.

From my office at Okayama University I have a perfect view of the sports field below. It is used by a number of groups, but in early April 2004 when I first started to look down out of my window, it was mainly the rugby team who would be there first thing in the morning and who, seemingly, stayed all day long. The players would spend a lot of time warming up and stretching, and would then practice a variety of simple drills. These were often small group based and orchestrated by one or two player-coaches; for example, a couple of players would kick balls high in the air whilst the other team members lined up and then caught them. For each catching player there would be a flurry of activity for a couple of seconds and then a wait of a few minutes until it was one's turn again. The two people kicking the ball of course got lots of practice.

A second example of isolated skills practice comes from football. In my local park I can often see lots of boys aged about seven or eight playing football. There are always a number of older people in charge, possibly students or young parents. One pattern that I can regularly see is when the children line up patiently and then practice a fairly complex passing move in pairs ending in a shot on goal. It seems that this is beyond the skills of most of the players, who cannot really pass or shoot very well, but still they struggle on. As with the rugby practice there are a few seconds of activity for each of the young participants and then some minutes waiting and watching their teammates until the next practice. The coach, although not practicing kicking the football, is heavily involved in directing and managing what is going on. As soon as the formal practice ends, the children break away from their highly coordinated groups to run around passing the footballs in a much less inhibited way, and in a way in which they get a lot of running and kicking practice in a short space of time.

Japanese sports participants appear to spend a lot of time waiting in line for their next opportunity to practice—this time is often spent observing other players as they take their turn to practice that day's skill. In the same park where I watch the footballers, I have often seen a group of university students playing tennis. Many players, both men and women, stand outside the courts watching the players inside, who are practicing particular shots—a smash, a volley, or a serve. The coaches or senior play-

ers are centrally involved in feeding balls to the participant players who hit it once or twice and then go to the back of the line to wait and watch their fellows. On many occasions, I have seen the same groups practicing, but I have not once seen a full game take place. This could be explained by the fact that there are far more players than there is room on the court for all to play a game; however, many players are standing around for such a long time without taking part that I do not think such practice has developed necessarily to deal with a large number of people. Instead, I believe that observation of one's peers and the coach is a deeply rooted cultural learning belief within Japanese sport.

Most sports are composed of discrete skills, and it is important that players be introduced to these skills in a controlled and limited way—there is much to be said for getting a good grounding in the basics of any sport. Yet at the same time, sports are also about playing and being involved in a game, and not just in the practicing of a subskill. Of course there are good reasons why sports people do not want to play a full game or to train at a peak level—for one, the chances of injury are much higher—but it does seem somewhat odd to me that there appears, within the communities of practice I have observed in Japan, to be so little time spent on playing the “real thing” except in the confines of a serious competition. Instead there is much more time spent either doing isolated drills or observing other players and coaches practicing the same drills.

Japanese Lessons

As well as observing sports, in 2004 I also attended lessons in Japanese as a second language. The lessons were graded at “intermediate two” level and were attended by a small group of international university students (from Australia, Burma, China, and South Korea) who were either participating in short-term exchanges or were aiming to go on to further study at a Japanese university. I took part in one lesson per week in each of the two semesters of the academic year (from two different teachers). The lessons were, of course, different each time, but I could perceive many common features which I would like to try to illustrate by describing a prototypical reading lesson based on field notes taken during the classes.

The Language Classroom: Field Notes

The classroom was a small pleasant room with individual desks and chairs arranged in a semicircle centered on the teacher's desk and chair,

behind which was a whiteboard. The teacher would greet each student as they entered the room and students would acknowledge one another. There might be a very short period of phatic talk about the weather or recent news before the lesson begins. Each week, the teacher assigned a text for students to prepare at home which was then used throughout the following lesson. The teacher would usually begin by getting the class of five or six students to chorally pronounce some of the vocabulary items in the reading. The number of items varied from 10 to 70. After this, the teacher would typically elicit a short discussion between herself and nominated individual students on the topic of the reading. The vocabulary pronunciation and discussion might last from 10 to 30 minutes. The teacher would then read aloud the whole text whilst the class followed silently; then she would read small sections of the text which the class would repeat aloud as a group. Finally, the class would read the whole text aloud with each individual going at their own pace. The teacher would time this section of the lesson and encourage students to go faster each week—she would also walk around monitoring each student and might occasionally point out an error in pronunciation.

In the next phase of the lesson, the teacher would spend about 40 to 50 minutes explaining almost every word or phrase in the set reading passage. This explanation was done orally for most items and was occasionally backed up with a few examples written on the whiteboard. There was much explanation by the teacher in Japanese about Japanese language with students spending a lot of time listening and observing the teacher and making notes. Students sometimes did ask the teacher for clarification or further examples. Student utterances were often used as a way to highlight an error and to prompt further information about the language item from the teacher. This information was often in the form of a comparison of two similar but subtly different grammatical points.

Lessons often finished after the exhaustive explanation of the text but if there was any time left over, the teacher would hand out a further reading passage which was much easier to read compared to the homework. Students had to read it, silently or aloud, within a 3-minute time limit and answer true-or-false comprehension questions. The teacher would then elicit answers, and, if time allowed, there might be a very short discussion on the topic of the reading before the teacher assigned the following lesson's homework.

In writing this description, I have deliberately tried not to judge the lessons in terms of my own teaching and learning beliefs. However, I must admit I was incredibly frustrated at first. This frustration came from

the fact that my personal goals of wanting to practice speaking and to learn some useful phrases and *kanji* were not being met. There were few speaking opportunities, and I certainly did not want to be lectured about what I perceived were minor points of Japanese grammar without any apparent relevance to my life. I also found reading aloud was an activity I just could not do comfortably in the class.

But I gradually began to try to look at the lessons differently, especially as I felt that what I was experiencing in the classroom had parallel features within sport: the isolated focus on one skill such as reading aloud and the emphasis on observation and explanation rather than taking part in a whole game (or conversation). I felt that there was a strong link between the “situated learning” of the sports field and the classroom and I wanted to see where these links might have come from in cultural and social terms rather than from an individual or psychological perspective.

Sociocultural and Cultural Learning Theory

The literature on cultural learning theory and sociocultural theory states that each society develops its own set of beliefs and assumptions about how education can take place in social and cultural contexts. Such an approach in cultural learning theory was specifically developed away from the classroom with an “aim to de-school our conceptions of education” (Singleton, 1998b, p. 6). However, I would like to suggest that teachers in schools, and by extension universities, are just as liable to adapt the beliefs of Japanese cultural learning theory because such beliefs appear to be so common. These beliefs can take on an almost mythical status and are adhered to even if more “modern” processes are discovered and promulgated.

One effect of teacher beliefs about practice being so deeply embedded is that it is notoriously difficult to encourage teachers to change what they do (Williams & Burden, 1997). Teachers have often spent many years learning how to be proficient in one set of techniques and methods and are understandably extremely reluctant to invest in others. In addition, cultural learning beliefs, or “cultural models” as Gee (2004, p. 20) terms them, are ultimately derived from what society sees as valuable, and so teachers may find that, even though they want to change their practice, there may be demands, directly or indirectly, put on them to stay with the status quo. To give a subjective example, English teachers in Japanese senior high schools may want to teach more “communicatively” (Sakui, 2004), but there is so much pressure on them, not least from their students,

to pass on their knowledge about grammar so that these students can be successful in university entrance tests—this, incidentally, is even with the knowledge that those tests, formerly infamous for being dominated by obscure and pedantic questions, may actually now be quite communicative in their content (Mulvey, 1999, 2001).

So, what are the cultural learning theories that my Japanese teachers, and perhaps some of my classmates, hold? There are probably as many as there are teachers and students, but I would like to suggest two that may be common: one about the nature of language knowledge and the other having to do with the nature of practical language teaching.

The first theory is that students are in the classroom to learn *about* the Japanese language rather than to actually practice it—of course, I am certain that all these teachers want their students to develop and improve, but their belief is that the best way to do that is not necessarily through the provision of extensive practice opportunities. It is not through the “playing of a full game,” but it is through an exposure to a deep knowledge about the language; a knowledge that is in fact the preserve of elite knowers (like the teacher) who have gone through a long learning process themselves to find out about the language and believe that the learner too should go through something similar. The teacher’s job is to transmit this knowledge, and the students need to largely listen and learn. I think this goes beyond a distinction between “Japanese as a foreign language” where it might be anticipated that there will be a focus on form, and “Japanese as a second language” where teachers might be more concerned with fluency. It seems to me that the cultural practices of many Japanese teachers are so deeply embedded that this distinction is largely irrelevant, and certainly my experience of studying Japanese outside of Japan has been very similar to that within.

A second belief is that the art and craft of teaching itself is not something that requires long and rigorous training—that there is no need to think particularly carefully about structuring a lesson, about grading language, or providing a variety and sequence of learning opportunities within a set time. This may be reflected in the general perception in Japan that “practical conversation” classes, at least in university settings, are not taken so seriously and do not need a lot of thought to be carried out (Escandon, 2004; McVeigh, 2002). What appears to be more important is to provide a great deal of linguistic input and knowledge about language which is the responsibility of the students to deal with. This may also reflect the belief in *gambari*—that is, a belief in an ideology which champions “the meritocratic doctrine that every Japanese has an equal chance of

achieving high status through persistent effort" (Sugimoto, 1997, p. 256). Several studies point out that this respect for persistence can be seen both in formal schooling and in many different learning or teaching settings such as traditional Noh play practices (Rimer, 1998), pottery apprenticeship (Singleton, 1998a), and the Suzuki violin teaching method (Hersh & Peak, 1998). And I would argue that respect for persistence also seems to exist in sports and Japanese language classes too.

Altered Perceptions of My Own Teaching and Learning Theories

In sum, my observations of various sports and attendance at Japanese lessons have made me think about the social and cultural theories behind seemingly common practices, but in thinking about these theories and practices, I also started to reflect on my own teaching and learning beliefs (Ellis & Bochner, 2000). I was, as I pointed out, very frustrated by the Japanese lessons, but this frustration pushed me to think beyond the lesson, beyond "mere" language learning to other concerns about myself and the society I am in. Three of these concerns are: raising expectations, adjusting lessons to reassure students, and becoming aware of the ideological aspect of social and cultural learning theories.

Coming back to my own teaching practices and beliefs, I can now see more clearly that I have tended to try to make learning "easy" for my students by trying to shortcut the long process that learning a language involves. I feel that this is a major part of my job, but I am also coming round to thinking that "frustration" and making things difficult are not necessarily a bad part of a learning experience as both difficulty and frustration make us look at things afresh and may energize us to learn something new (Dadds, 1993; Stanley, 1999). I am not suggesting that I have now decided to look for lots of ways to frustrate my students, but just that I am aware that frustration may have its advantages sometimes. For example, I do try to give my students a lot of homework—this is in the belief that they need a lot of preparation time and review outside the lesson. I am always happily surprised when most of them actually do it but perhaps I should not be. If my students share a belief in hard work and persistence, then it is natural for them to believe that getting lots of homework is going to help them improve. What I should perhaps be thinking of is raising their expectations even higher—that to take part in my lessons is not an easy option, but one in which they will need to work very hard, persevere, and occasionally suffer. I certainly do not want to make lessons a joyless, moribund enterprise, but I do want to take advan-

tage of that cultural willingness for students to take things seriously and try to perform things well. I will try to show how I can do this practically as a result of my next concern.

A second insight for me is that I have become aware of how my own learning and teaching beliefs may be wholly alien to my university students (Burden, 2002; Horwitz, 1988). I feel that in many ways I just foist my classroom methodology upon students with the blind faith that it will do some good and expect them to go along. Such methodology includes the expectation that the students should do a lot of talking (in English as much as possible) and that the teacher be relatively quiet. I am not saying that I have suddenly realized that part of my teaching approach is wrong but just that my methods may appear very different, very strange and very disconcerting to a lot of students. I have lost count of how many times students have had to confirm that they should try to speak in English when doing classroom tasks. What seems very obvious to me—that to get better at speaking in English, you need to speak in English—is not always that obvious to a lot of students. On reflection, then, part of my changed approach might be to reassure students, at least in their early lessons, by not straying too far from the cultural learning theories and social practices that they are used to. There are many practical classroom techniques that may reassure students and give them confidence to take part more effectively: methods such as group reading aloud, specific error correction on language form, elicitation of student response by teacher nomination, blackboard-based work about rules and form, and many chances to copy language down. At the very least, as their teacher I may very well need to keep explaining and justifying why it is that they should be asked to take on a whole new way of doing things within the classroom. I should not just trust that the students will understand my own bias as regards to ways of learning and of situated language classroom practice.

One final theoretical point I would like to make concerns the idea that students are socialized into certain ways of learning which are ideological in nature. The university students that I teach in classes of 30 to 40 are very successful in Japanese terms—they have made it along the difficult and time-consuming path to university entrance. Japan is a so-called *gakureki shakai* (Sugimoto, 1997, p. 34), a society in which educational attainment is highly valued and in which a young person's life path is strongly determined by the schools she or he attends and the examinations she or he can pass. In order to be successful in this system, students must possess the right kind of "cultural capital" (Bourdieu, 1973): that is, the "language use, skills, and orientations, dispositions, attitudes, and

schemes of perception that children are endowed with by virtue of socialization in their families and communities" (Lin, 1999, p. 394).

In terms of Japanese cultural capital, foreign languages are not taught primarily as a means of communication, but as a series of discrete and fragmented forms to be learnt correctly in order to pass examinations (McVeigh, 2002, p. 157). This, furthermore, is thought to be best done by teacher-controlled drilling and constant error-focused repetition. Children who are socialized into going to university, and teachers of Japanese learn this very early on. It is thus extremely difficult for them to escape this notion unless they are made aware of these educational patterns, which are essentially ideological in nature—examinations are one "technology of power" (Foucault, 1979, quoted in Fairclough, 1992, p. 52) by which the Japanese state has decided to rank, and thereby control, its citizens. However, these educational patterns are not immediately useful to many of the students who take my language class. They are used to, and have been rewarded for, learning language in a particular way, but when they start lessons with me they revert to being "authentic beginners" (Gee, 2004, p. 14) who do not know how to adapt and may perceive themselves as failing due to my "very foreign ways of talking and acting" (Ballenger, 1997, quoted in Miller, 2004, p. 120).

One important aspect of a teacher's role as I see it is, therefore, to try and help transform students' cultural capital by taking advantage of those dispositions and attitudes that students bring with them when learning a language in a new way. Or, as Nix (2002) points out, it is "to help learners become aware of culture *as* ideology ...and to provide a growing awareness of alternatives to choose from" (p. 47). For Japanese students this means using such practices as their familiarity with form-focused and accuracy activities as a springboard to more open-ended and communicative challenges, but without assuming that they can make that switch immediately, or that they should abandon their previous learning culture either. And for myself, as a Japanese-as-a-second-language student, I need to adapt to the new classroom culture I find myself in and exploit the teaching practices that I currently find so disconcerting. I need to reframe how I see extensive reading aloud practice and the long periods of observation of classmates and the teacher.

Conclusion

In this paper I have tried to link my observation of practices in sports and Japanese language lessons through cultural and sociocultural theo-

ries of learning. Such theories include an emphasis on coach or teacher-centered practice, relatively little opportunity to practice a full game (or take part in an unstructured conversation) without having previously mastered lots of subskills, and an emphasis on observation of fellow players (or the teacher and classmates). At first I was puzzled and frustrated by these learning theories, but I have recognized that they are not inferior to my own beliefs—just different—and it is useful to adopt and adapt them in my own teaching and learning when necessary. I have also recognized that such theories are not particularly matters of individual psychology or personality—they are so deeply embedded in society and so taken for granted that they are essentially ideological in nature. One individual teacher cannot of course change that, but, by being aware of that fact and by acknowledging students' familiarity with such theories, a teacher can take advantage of them to help students move from one form of cultural capital to another. This is probably even more important in circumstances where one is teaching students that do not have the "right" cultural capital to succeed. This is often the situation that some students find themselves in when they are suddenly pitched into a classroom environment that their previous experience has not prepared them to deal with.

In the course of writing this paper I wanted to make explicit Japanese teachers' and learners' preferences for ways of learning. I realized that in doing this I could uncover, and I hope make clear to the reader, my own (at times) hidden ways of learning. It has also become clear to me that specific cultural practices are necessary for the attainment of certain goals, but that it is difficult to mix such practices with inappropriate goals. For example, to promote, as the Japanese Education and Culture Ministry is, "Japanese who can use English," but persist with *gambari* methods would seem to be like trying to make apple pie with peaches.

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Longitudinal Effects of Informal Language in Formal L2 Instruction

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This study investigates the longitudinal effects of informal language contact on formally instructed L2 learners through multiple approaches which include quantitative and qualitative data sources. It focuses on the use of the aspect markers *-te iru* and *-te ru* (the reduced form of *-te iru*) in Japanese oral discourse by Chinese exchange students (NNSs). The quantitative data for conversational tasks was transcribed and analyzed using the Child Language Data Exchange System (CHILDES), and the frequency of occurrence and variation of aspect markers were compared with those of Japanese university students (NSs). Qualitative data from follow-up interviews and pre- and postsurveys was also analyzed. The findings were that: a) NSs used *-te ru* far more frequently and with more variation than *-te iru*; and b) NNSs used *-te ru* less than *-te iru* over a period of one year. However, the use of *-te ru* steadily increased with longer stays in Japan. The implications of the results for sociolinguistic theories are also discussed.

本研究は、言語接触の観点から、本国でのフォーマルな日本語学習から日本でのインフォーマルな言語環境に接触した外国人留学生の使用するアスペクトの変化について縦断的に調査したものである。具体的には、談話資料、フォローアップ・インタビュー、アンケートで得たデータを複合アプローチを用いて分析した。談話分析に関しては、CHILDESを使用し、同世代の日本人大学生と比較した。その結果、母語話者の発話では、頻度および領域の両面において、「テル」が「テイル」を凌駕していること、非母語話者の発話では、「テル」より「テイル」が多用されているが、滞日期間が長くなるにつれて「テル」の使用が増える傾向にあることがわかった。

There are growing numbers of exchange students studying a second language (L2). Taking Japan as an example, of the nearly 173,000 international students who came in 2004 (Immigration Bureau, 2005), a significant number participated in exchange programs which promoted linguistic and cultural learning. In the field of second language acquisition (SLA), however, much of the research has focused on either foreign language learning in the learner's home country, formal classroom learning in the target language setting, or acquisition in a natural environment. Such distinctions do not cover exchange students who have received formal language instruction in their home country and are then, upon arrival in their host country, immersed totally or with some degree of tutoring in the target speech community. These variations of learning contexts are termed *study abroad* and must be considered as another salient issue in SLA research (see Freed, 1995).

Much of the empirical research to date has been conducted to explore the linguistic benefits of a study-abroad context from different perspectives. Dyson (1988) found that British students who had spent a year studying in France, Germany, or Spain gained considerable growth in L2 proficiency. Lapkin, Hart, and Swain (1995) investigated Canadian English-speaking students who participated in a 3-month bilingual exchange program in Quebec, a French-speaking community. They observed that students with lower French language proficiency were likely to make greater gains as a result of immersion in a French environment. The findings of both studies above derive from pre- and posttest scores. In contrast, using the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI), Lafford (1995) compares communicative strategies by Anglo students of Spanish who spent a semester studying abroad with those of a control group in a formal classroom context in their home country. The findings suggest that in-country experience broadens the repertoire of communicative strategies available to students and helps them become better conversationalists. Barron (2003) discusses the development of L2 pragmatic competence focusing on Irish students of German who spent 10 months in Germany. The primary findings of the study indicate that exposure to L2 input in the target culture triggers development of pragmatic competence in the investigated areas of discourse structure, pragmatic routines, and internal modification.

There also exists a significant amount of research in relation to Japanese as a second language (JSL) in a study-abroad context. Marriott (1993, 1995) addresses the acquisition of sociolinguistic competence by Australian secondary level exchange students who spent a year in Japan. Both

studies explored the acquisition of different sociolinguistic variables through analysis of pre- and/or postinterview data. The results of these studies suggest that there is great variation in the acquisition of sociolinguistic competence among students, with considerable deviation from the target norm. Marriott (1997) also explored language learning experiences and the types of strategies adopted by Australians who spent a year as exchange students at the secondary level. The study revealed that the development of interaction networks, wherein the students were engaged with host families at home and peers at school, was an important factor in the acquisition of Japanese. Similarly, Hashimoto (1993) investigated how the host family was a source of input in the acquisition of communicative competence by an Australian secondary student in a yearlong exchange program. The case study found that the student developed some awareness of features of communicative language behaviors while in Japan. Following her return to Australia, her Japanese speech style began to incorporate more formal and politer variables. Moreover, Siegal (1994, 1995, 1996) describes the acquisition of pragmatic and stylistic competence with a focus on white Western middle-class women over a period of 18 months in Japan. The overall findings from these studies indicate that the female learners of Japanese created their own linguistic system based upon their perceptions of Japanese women, awareness of women's language, and their social position while in Japan, as well as the maintenance or construction of their own sense of identity within Japanese society.

It is important to note that many of the studies reviewed above have investigated the development of L2 proficiency or acquisition of L2 competence. However, the results are derived from the overseas experiences of L2 learners, particularly in communities with English or European languages as the native languages. Also, many of the studies in JSL contexts are concerned with secondary level exchange students as subjects. This younger age group invariably stays with host families and attends regular classes in high school; thus, as Hashimoto (1993) and Marriott (1995) point out, in their learning environment in their host country they may differ from other types of L2 learners such as tertiary level students. Furthermore, Freed (1995) argued that there has been little research to date concerning changes in syntactic features as a result of studying abroad.

In response to the limited research concerning structural changes in the L2, Regan (1995) addresses the effects of studying abroad on sociolinguistic variations, the changes in structural features in terms of the deletion of *ne*, the first particle of the negative in French. The general findings

indicated that after a year of studying in France, consistent with native speaker usage, dramatic reductions of *ne* usage appeared in the speech of advanced Irish students of French.

The Study

Taking the limited number of studies discussed above into consideration, this study investigates the longitudinal effects of informal language contact on the Japanese oral discourse of Chinese university exchange students who had received formal JSL instruction in China. Language contact is often defined as how different languages influence each other when the languages are spoken in the same or adjoining areas. Sanada, Shibuya, Jinnouchi, and Sugito (1992) expand this definition so as to deal with contact between geographical or social varieties within a language and address changes in discourse or linguistic behavior as well as in phonologic, morphologic, and syntactic features.

The focus of this study is on linguistic changes of JSL learners, specifically the use of the aspect markers *-te iru* and *-te ru* (the reduced form of *-te iru*). The Japanese aspectual system has two major functions, action in progress and resultative state:

1) Progressive

Ann ga hashit-TE I-RU

Ann-Nom run-Progressive-Nonpast

"Ann is running."

2) Resultative

ringo ga kusat-TE I-RU

apple-Nom rot-Resultative-Nonpast

"The apple is rotten."

There have been numerous studies in relation to the acquisition of the *-te iru* form in JSL (Kuroono, 1995; Sheu, 1997, 2000, 2002; Shibata, 1998; Shirai & Kuroono, 1998). These studies are largely concerned with the developmental process of different functions, including the two major functions illustrated above, in which data collection, however, is based on grammaticality judgment tests, storytelling with pictures, or inter-

views with a native Japanese speaker. Furthermore, much of the previous research does not clearly show the extent to which the subjects received JSL instruction in either their home country or target culture.

Apart from the acquisition studies of the aspect marker *-te iru* described above, Sugaya (2003) reports that the predominant use of *-te ru* appeared in the longitudinal interview corpus of one NNS in a natural environment whose formal JSL instruction was limited before and during her stay in Japan. By contrast, extensive use of *-te iru*, which is normally introduced in formal JSL classrooms and textbooks, occurred in the speech of another NNS whose JSL instruction was initiated after her arrival in Japan. Moreover, Nishi and Shirai (2004) report that the reduced form *-te ru* is extensively used in the native speech of Japanese. In addition, Lee (2002) and Hashimoto (2002) explore the code switching of *-te iru* and *-te ru* by native Korean and native English JSL learners, respectively, according to the degree of intimacy with their interlocutors. The results of these studies, however, present conflicting evidence. The former study revealed more use of *-te ru* in informal settings while the latter did not find any differences in *-te iru* and *-te ru* code switching. Moreover, Minegishi (1999) investigated native Japanese attitudes towards the use of contracted forms, including *-te ru*, in experimental designs. She found that the use of these forms was positively evaluated in informal settings.

With the groundwork in place from earlier investigations, this study addresses the following research questions:

- 1) How is the use of the aspect marker *-te iru* by JSL learners affected in the context of studying abroad?
- 2) How does the use of *-te iru* by JSL learners compare with that of native Japanese speaker controls?
- 3) What is implied by any changes or lack of changes in the use of *-te iru* by JSL learners?

Method

This study employs longitudinal and multiple approaches (Brewer & Hunter, 1989; Gass & Selinker, 1994; Hawkins, 1998; Krathwohl, 1998) which include quantitative and qualitative data sources (i.e., conversational tasks, follow-up interviews and pre- and postsurveys) in order to explore language shift by formally instructed JSL learners over a period of one year in a study-abroad context.

Participants

Two groups participated in this study: four native speakers of Chinese (abbreviated as C1, C2, C3, and C4 hereinafter) and four native speakers of Japanese (abbreviated as J1, J2, J3, and J4 hereinafter). Both groups of participants were female students at the same university in Fukuoka, Japan. The four NNSs were exchange students who had majored in Japanese and had received formal JSL classroom instruction at a Chinese university for 1 year 7 months prior to their stay in Japan. All had been taught by native Chinese instructors and one native Japanese instructor. With the exception of their native Japanese instructor, the NNSs had had little contact with other native Japanese speakers outside the JSL classroom in China. They had never been to Japan prior to their arrival for this exchange program. A JSL proficiency test showed that the NNSs were at an intermediate level¹. The ages of the NNSs ranged from 19 to 21. They attended regular lectures along with a few JSL courses at a Japanese university from April 2002 to March 2003. The control group consisted of four NSs, all aged 19. All grew up in Fukuoka and had command of two varieties of Japanese, a local dialect and standard Japanese. The NNSs and NSs were paired as follows: C1/J1, C2/J2, C3/J3, C4/J4.

Procedure

Data collection began a few weeks after the NNSs arrived in Japan, and before they had met their NS counterparts. First, the NNSs completed a survey asking them to describe their personal details such as age, major, experiences with learning Japanese and interacting with Japanese native speakers in China, and travel experience outside of China. After this survey they took a language proficiency test to measure their knowledge of Japanese.

The conversational data and follow-up interviews were collected longitudinally at five points over a period of one year at their private university in Fukuoka from April 2002 to March 2003. First of all, the four pairs of NNS and NS participated in audio- and videotaped conversational tasks. The tasks involved discussing current university experiences or daily life for 30 minutes. The topics were chosen for their familiarity for facilitating interaction (cf. Asada & Harrington, 1998; Marriott, 1993).

Within one week after each recording session, the researcher interviewed each participant individually in Japanese. These sessions were also recorded on audio- and videotape. During each interview the original videotapes were replayed to help the researcher ascertain the stu-

dent's awareness of the processes that occurred at the time of interaction or "detect all significant deviations [from the norms to see] whether they have surfaced or not" (Neustupny, 1990, p. 31). Similarly, Enomoto and Marriott (1994) argue that "this method can provide data on processes which are not visible in surface linguistic forms" (p. 136). Furthermore, Fairbrother (2000) claims that "whereas most interview techniques require informants to give an often overgeneralized account of their experiences, the follow-up interview requires informants to be specific about particular events" (p. 35). The interviews followed the five stages suggested by Neustupny (1990, 1994a):

1. The interviewer explains the aim of the original study to be investigated and asks participants to give general comments on the original recording session. The interviewer also explains the procedure for follow-up interviews.
2. The interviewer asks participants to establish what expectations or knowledge they had before the original recording session in terms of the character of the session, and their own roles or those of other participants in the session.
3. The interviewer asks questions in relation to any particular events during the original recording session noted by the participants. Neustupny (1990) argues that "such questions normally elicit, apart from actually noted features, stereotype attitudes to the use of language in general and to particular problems of the recording session" (p. 32). It is important to remind the participants at this stage, however, that the researcher is focusing on "what happened at the moment of the interview rather than what the views of the subject are at the moment of the follow-up interview" (p. 33).
4. The interviewer asks a general question concerning awareness after the original recording session which "reinforces the subject's understanding that you wish to distinguish systematically between the time of the session and the time of the interview, while giving the subjects an opportunity to voice their observations on each point" (p. 33).
5. The interviewer asks the participant to give comments on the conclusions reached from the original recording session to test his/her hypotheses.

Following the longitudinal data collection, the NNSs were asked to describe their activities in and out of university, their personal network, and their learning strategies and attitudes towards Japanese during their stay in Japan. This information was collected as additional data to supplement the base findings derived from the conversational tasks and follow-up interviews. Throughout the study, NNSs had little contact with their NSs on or off campus.

Data Analysis

The conversational data at three points² were transcribed (following the coding rules of *wakachi 2002* in Japanese Codes for Human Analysis of Transcripts (JCHAT)) and analyzed by using the Child Language Data Exchange System (CHILDES) (MacWhinney, 2000a, 2000b; Oshima-Takane & MacWhinney, 1995). CHILDES consists of three separate but integrated tools: the CHAT transcription and coding format, the CLAN analysis program, and the actual database. The CLAN program is particularly useful in the analysis of speech data (e.g., counting word frequency or the type-token ratio, searching for specified combinations of words, or describing specified words in context).

The program calculated the frequency of occurrence of the aspect markers (*-te iru* and *-te ru*) in different linguistic contexts, the total word types (i.e., the total number of unique words), and the total word tokens (i.e., the total number of words) used by each NNS participant. Then, the frequency of the aspect markers was divided by the total number of word types and word tokens in order to examine changes in the use of the NNSs' aspect markers in relation to overall vocabulary development and speech production (cf. Sawyer, 1992). The results of the NNSs' conversational data (see Table 1) were compared with those of their NS counterparts (see Table 2; cf. Johnstone, 2000).

The qualitative data for follow-up interviews were transcribed and then intergrated with the pre- and postsurveys before being interpreted along with the quantitative data for conversational tasks (Silverman, 2000). In this respect, the researcher carefully read the texts consisting of quantitative and qualitative data so as to categorize and synthesize the issues raised in the use of the aspect marker by formally instructed Chinese JSL learners as seen in Glesne (1999) and McDonough and McDonough (1997).

Results and discussion

Concerning Research Question 1 about the longitudinal effects of informal language contact on the aspect marker *-te iru* used by formally instructed JSL learners, Table 1 shows that the NNSs used *-te ru* fewer times and with less variation than *-te iru* over a period of one year. However, the use of *-te ru* steadily increased as the stay of the NNSs in Japan lengthened. In particular, whereas all participants used *-te iru* from the beginning to Time 5 in conversational tasks, the overall use of *-te ru* occurred from Time 3 to Time 5. These results indicate a shift from *-te iru* to *-te ru* in the context of studying abroad for JSL learners who were formally instructed in their home country; while, as Sugaya (2003) mentions earlier, a NNS with little JSL instruction used *-te ru* far more frequently than *-te iru*.

Table 2 shows that NSs used *-te ru* far more frequently and with more variation than *-te iru*. There were only 3 inflections of *-te iru* but 13 of *-te ru*, although J1 and J4 varied greatly in their use of *-te iru* and *-te ru* respectively. These findings support the extensive use of *-te ru* in the native speech of Japanese (Nishi & Shirai, 2004) and, in relation to Research Question 2, demonstrate a contrast to the results of NNSs in Table 1.

With respect to Research Question 3, change in the use of *-te iru* by JSL learners, that is, the dropping of the *i* seems to be affected by the quality and quantity of JSL input before and during their stay in Japan. The NNSs report in both the presurvey and follow-up interviews that they had received formal JSL instruction using textbooks which focused on one of the honorific styles, the polite style referred to as the *desu/masu* style (Marriott, 1995). This honorific style promotes the use of the original aspect marker *-te iru* (Sugaya, 2003). This polite or formal speech style was also consistently employed in interactions with a native Japanese instructor in the classroom and, even if only a little, with other native Japanese speakers outside of the classroom. Thus, with little knowledge about the colloquial reduction form *-te ru*, the JSL participants used *-te iru* more frequently in their speech at the beginning of data collection. On the other hand, as Nishi and Shirai (2004) point out, *-te ru* is extensively used in native speech of Japanese; therefore, it is expected that the JSL participants would be exposed to the reduced form quite often during their stay in Japan.

However, the mere exposure to the *-te ru* form while in Japan may not necessarily facilitate actual use of the form by JSL learners. It is of particular importance to uncover the participants' awareness of socio-linguistic norms for its use in the target speech community. Neustupny

Table 1. Production of *-te iru* and *-te ru* for JSL learners

	C1	C1	C1	C2	C2	C2	C2	C3	C3	C3	C3	C4	C4	C4	
	Time 1	Time 3	Time 5	Time 1	Time 3	Time 5	Time 1	Time 3	Time 5	Time 1	Time 3	Time 5	Time 1	Time 3	Time 5
<i>-te iru</i>															
<i>imasu</i>	4			3	2		3						9	2	
<i>imashita</i>	1														
<i>imasen</i>	1			2											
<i>iru</i>	2	1		1		1		1	8	4	12				7
<i>ite</i>					2	1			1						
<i>ita</i>			3		1			1	3						
<i>inai</i>				1		1		1	1						
<i>inakatta</i>					1										
<i>itara</i>									1						
total	8	1	3	7	6	3	3	3	14	13	14	7	13	14	7
word types %	2.84	0.30	0.91	1.75	1.47	0.72	1.16	0.99	3.61	3.71	3.35	1.88	3.71	3.35	1.88
word tokens %	0.80	0.06	0.19	0.40	0.35	0.15	0.34	0.30	0.86	0.82	0.90	0.50	0.82	0.90	0.50
<i>-te ru</i>															
<i>(i)ru</i>		1	1			1		1	1	1	1	8	1	1	8
<i>(i)te</i>												2		1	2
<i>(i)ta</i>					1				1		3	1		3	1
<i>(i)nai</i>					2	3		1	2	1	4	3		4	3
<i>(i)nakatta</i>					2	2					3			3	
total	0	1	1	0	5	6	0	2	4	2	12	14	2	12	14
word types %	0	0.30	0.30	0	1.23	1.43	0	0.66	1.03	0.57	2.87	3.76	0.57	2.87	3.76
word tokens %	0	0.06	0.06	0	0.29	0.31	0	0.20	0.25	0.13	0.77	1.00	0.13	0.77	1.00

Table 2. Production of *-te iru* and *-te ru* for native Japanese speakers

	J1	J1	J1	J2	J2	J2	J3	J3	J3	J4	J4	J4	J4	J5	J5
<i>-te iru</i>	Time 1	Time 3	Time 5	Time 1	Time 3	Time 5	Time 1	Time 3	Time 5	Time 1	Time 3	Time 5	Time 1	Time 3	Time 5
<i>iru</i>	6						2	1		1	1				
<i>ite</i>	3														
<i>ita</i>	1														
total	10	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0
word types %	2.37	0	0	0	0	0	0.37	0.16	0	0.19	0.16	0	0.19	0.16	0
word tokens %	0.46	0	0	0	0	0	0.08	0.04	0	0.04	0.03	0	0.04	0.03	0
<i>-te ru</i>	Time 1	Time 3	Time 5	Time 1	Time 3	Time 5	Time 1	Time 3	Time 5	Time 1	Time 3	Time 5	Time 1	Time 3	Time 5
<i>(i)masu</i>	3			1	3										
<i>(i)mashita</i>					1										
<i>(i)ru</i>	12	9	12	6	9	10	10	5	5	5	14	16			
<i>(i)te</i>	4		1	3	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	4			
<i>(i)ta</i>	2	5	8		5	1	3	1	2		19	9			
<i>(i)nai</i>	5	2			3	1	1	7	4	4	5	8			
<i>(i)nakatta</i>	1	1	1		5	1	1		1		3	1			
<i>(i)nakute</i>			1									1			
<i>(i)naku</i>							1								
<i>(i)nakattara</i>						1									
<i>(i)bara</i>			4				1								4
<i>(i)hari</i>			1						1						
<i>(i)soo</i>														1	
total	27	17	28	10	30	15	18	13	14	10	43	43			
word types %	6.40	3.74	5.83	2.71	6.49	3.90	3.35	2.07	2.37	1.86	6.68	6.68			
word tokens %	1.23	0.85	1.22	0.79	1.81	0.96	0.75	0.50	0.56	0.39	1.41	1.57			

(1985b) proposes the concept of language management which defines norms as rules judged by participants to be correct for particular communicative situations. According to his model of language management (1985a, 1985b, 1994b, 1997a, 1997b), when deviations from norms occur in contact situations, these deviations may be noted or remain unnoted. If noted, they may be disregarded or often evaluated in a negative way, or occasionally result in positive evaluations. Then, plans for suitable action may be set to remove the deviations, and these plans may be subsequently implemented.

Why did the removal of the deviations (i.e. the use of *-te iru*) from the norms (i.e. the use of *-te ru*), that is, the shift from *-te iru* to *-te ru* occur in the speech of the NNSs while in Japan? An analysis of this study can be further discussed within two theoretical frameworks in sociolinguistics: speech accommodation and social network. The theory of speech accommodation addresses *convergence* and *divergence*, which are concerned, respectively, with shifting one person's language variety towards or away from another's (Giles, 2001). Giles and Powesland (1997) suggest that the process of speech accommodation is a reflection of one's desire for social approval and such behavior can be initiated only if potential rewards for the addresser are available.

This argument is confirmed in C4's (the most frequent user of *-te ru* among the four JSL participants) comments in follow-up interviews. She stated, "*I just follow what native Japanese say.*" Although C4 did not necessarily show strong positive attitudes towards Japanese in the postsurvey, it may be beneficial for her to employ native speech norms for informal interactions. She also commented, "*It is more natural and easier to say*" (*-te ru* than *-te iru*). As Crystal (1997) points out, ease of articulation is one of the social factors which affect language change. This may be a factor in C4's desire to have a better command of her Japanese and make it sound more native like.

Another sociolinguistic framework, which is relevant to this study, pertains to social network. This concept can be used to explain language variation in which individuals directly or indirectly interact with each other in or through social communities. In this model, as Holmes (1992) points out, an individual's speech is influenced by whether or not members of one's network interact with each other, and the range of different types of transactions in which one is involved.

During their stay in Japan, all of the NNS participants were involved in several types of part-time work in the service industry. As described in follow-up interviews, they wished to integrate into a community of

native Japanese speakers outside of the university to have far more opportunities to talk with people whose age or gender were different from theirs. They felt this would not only improve their Japanese ability but broaden their view of contemporary Japanese society since they had limited teacher-student interaction or peer interaction in JSL courses or regular lectures and only a few close Japanese friends on campus. The participants reported that such part-time work indeed helped them to be exposed, albeit to a limited degree, to a variety of Japanese by interacting with native Japanese speakers such as customers, managers, or employees and promoted a deeper understanding of Japanese social life. The post-survey also revealed that TV programs which included male and female interactions in natural settings or novels written in a conversational style were also helpful for their study of Japanese. These personal networks in which the participants were involved on and off campus affected their use of Japanese aspect markers.

Conclusion

This study has provided empirical evidence that during a year of study in Japan a linguistic shift occurred at the structural level in relation to the Japanese aspectual system in the speech of four Chinese university exchange students who had received formal JSL instruction in China. Although this study is limited in some ways, such as by the small number of participants and individual variations among the participants, the findings revealed that: a) NSs used *-te ru* far more frequently and with more variation than *-te iru*, and b) NNSs used *-te ru* less than *-te iru* over a period of one year. However, the use of *-te ru* steadily increased with a longer stay in Japan. Some implications for the language shift were also discussed within a few notable sociolinguistic theoretical frameworks.

As for future directions, larger-scale studies with more qualitatively empirical substantiation are clearly needed to confirm the findings of this preliminary case study. Furthermore, it would be valuable to investigate whether JSL learners acquire pragmatic knowledge about using *-te iru* or *-te ru* differently according to their social relationship with their interlocutors as a result of their experience studying abroad (Hashimoto, 2002; Lee, 2002). Also, it may be necessary to explore the attitudes of native Japanese speakers with more of a focus on the use of *-te iru* and *-te ru* among contracted forms by JSL learners (cf. Minegishi, 1999).

Building upon the previous investigations mentioned above, further research is obviously needed to examine whether JSL learners appro-

priately use *-te iru* or *-te ru* in different contexts, particularly in actual interactions with native Japanese speakers, and how native speakers simultaneously evaluate the different uses of *-te iru* and *-te ru*. Answers to these questions will contribute to a better understanding of the linguistic contexts in which these aspect markers should be used appropriately and thus, set a priority in JSL pedagogy in the home country as well as in the target community. Although this study sheds some light on how these aspect markers are used over time in a study-abroad context, it also shows the need for future research.

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Notes

1. The 1999 Japanese Language Proficiency Test (second level) was used to measure the L2 knowledge of the NNSs when this study began in April 2002. All of the participants subsequently passed the first level of the Japanese Language Proficiency Test conducted in December 2002, jointly administered by the Association of International Education, Japan and the Japan Foundation.
2. For this study, three time spans (first, third, and fifth) were considered to be enough to reveal the changes in the aspect marker.

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An Evaluation of English Textbooks in Japan from the Viewpoint of Nations in the Inner, Outer, and Expanding Circles

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English is used as an international language in communicating with people across many cultures in the modern world. Kachru has investigated this phenomenon and created the “three concentric circles” model to portray the global diffusion of English. His findings show that the “cultural dimensions” of English usage have been expanding; as a result, it is important for Japanese English learners to understand as wide a variety of cultures as possible for effective intercultural interactions. In Japan, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology maintains that “the understanding of cultures” should be regarded as one of the main objectives in teaching English at the secondary school level. However, as there are few specific instructions provided in terms of the teaching of culture, it is difficult to understand which nations should be included in the teaching of English. This paper, therefore, aims to help us understand which countries are currently included in junior high and senior high school English textbooks based on Kachru’s three-concentric-circles model.

英語は現在、異文化間で行われるコミュニケーションのさまざまな場面で国際語として機能している。Kachru (1989)は調査結果に基づき、このような英語の世界的な広まりを説明するために Three Concentric Circles モデルを提唱した。このモデルが示しているのは、英語が広く使われるようになるということはすなわち文化の次元の広がりの意味することである。その結果、英語で効果的なコミュニケーションを行うために英語学習者は英語圏の文化のみならず、異文化に関する幅広い知識を持つことが重要になるのである。異文化理解は日本の中学校、高等学校英語教育において最も重要な目標の1つに挙げられている。しかしながら、指導の場面でどの文化を含めるべきか、また実際に含めているのかを具体的に把握するのは難しい。こうした現状をふまえ、本論は中学校、高等学校の英語教科書を一定の枠組みで分析し、さらに Three Concentric Circles モデルに基づいて、the Inner Circle、the Outer Circle、Expanding Circle の3つのカテゴリーに分類した。結果をもとに日本の英語教育における異文化理解を考察した。

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“Originally English was only a small dialect brought to Britain by Anglo-Saxons in the 5th century, but now it has attained the status of the world’s most common language” (Horibe, 2000, p. 327).

As the global *lingua franca*, English functions as an international language between people across a wide variety of cultures. In investigating this phenomenon, Kachru (1989) has created a model of “three concentric circles” of English which can be illustrated as follows:

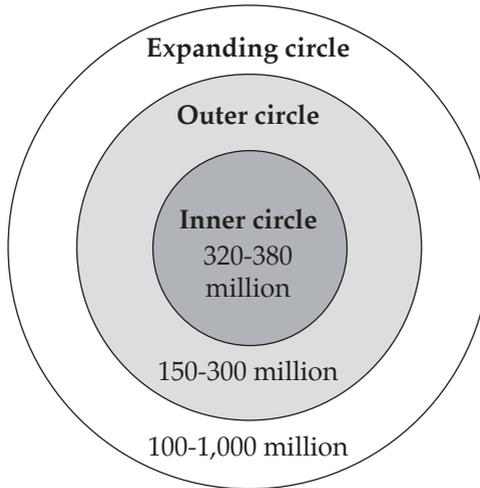


Figure 1. The Three Circles of English
Adapted from *English as a Global Language* (Crystal, 1997)

Kachru (1989, p. 16) states, “these circles represent the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition, and the functional allocation of English in diverse cultural contexts.” In his framework, English speakers are classified into three groups: the Inner Circle for “the traditional cultural and linguistic bases of English” (Kachru, 1989), the Outer Circle for “the institutionalized usage of English” (Kachru, 1989), and the Expanding Circle for users of “English as an international language” (Crystal, 1997, p. 54). The population figures in this model are an estimate of the number of English speakers in each grouping. As can be seen, the total number of English speakers in the Outer and Expanding Circles is far greater than that in the Inner Circle. In other words, a large number of people in many different countries throughout the world use English for communication, and

although there is still a great deal of debate on this matter, it is becoming clear that the “cultural dimensions” of English use and usage have been expanding globally. As a consequence, there is a need to include as wide a variety of cultural elements as possible in teaching and learning English in order for Japanese students to communicate effectively with people from other countries.

The Ministry of Education¹ also provides guidelines for the teaching of cultural elements in secondary schools, stating that the understanding of cultures is one of the main objectives for both Japanese junior high and senior high school students. The Ministry requires that junior high school teachers “take up a variety of suitable topics in accordance with the level of students’ mental and physical development, as well as their interests and concerns, covering topics...of Japanese people and the peoples of the world, focusing on countries that use English” (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2003, pp. 5-6). Since English is not compulsory at senior high schools, the word “English” is replaced with “foreign languages” (2003, p. 14), although most senior high schools offering foreign language education choose English as the language for students.

However, this statement is rather ambiguous in two respects. Firstly, according to the guidelines above, teachers have to consider “the level of students’ mental and physical development” in choosing among many cultural topics pertaining to various nations, despite the fact that there are no specific instructions for the evaluation of their students’ physical and mental maturity which they can refer to in selecting their teaching items. It would be useful if detailed directives were supplied to teachers according to the developmental stages of junior high and senior high school students. Secondly, although the Ministry requires that teachers focus on “countries that use English,” from a practical standpoint, it is difficult to determine which individual nations should be included in teaching materials as an appropriate source of culture related to English in Japanese curricula. Should the requirement to “focus on countries that use English” be fulfilled by concentrating on nations of the Inner, Outer, or Expanding Circles?

Thus, the information contained in the Ministry’s guidelines is lacking in specificity; nevertheless, some regard the inclusion of cultural topics or items alluding to nations of the world as significant in cultivating students’ understanding of cultures through the medium of English. Indeed, Ashikaga, Fujita, and Ikuta (2001) advocate that “textbooks used for teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) can be primary sources for students to obtain cultural knowledge” (p. 2), pointing out that “the

teaching of cultural content is extensively influenced by textbook content" (p. 8). Browne and Wada also conducted an exploratory survey on English teachers in Japan in terms of primary elements that can affect their classroom performance. The results show that "teachers feel compelled to teach the...[English] textbooks" and that teaching the contents of the textbooks is considered the "largest pressure on classroom teaching" (1998, p. 105). Hence, not only do English textbooks have a great influence on students' understanding of cultures, they also influence teachers' classroom performance.

Therefore, a detailed analysis of these textbooks can provide valuable insights into the current teaching of culture from the standpoint of which countries are considered important in Japanese education. A number of textbook assessments have been conducted from various viewpoints. For instance, Kitao evaluated Japanese senior high school English textbooks from the perspective of American culture and based his evaluation on cultural items suggested by the Ministry of Education (Kitao, 1979, p. 93) such as "daily life, manners and customs, geography and history." He also outlined cultural elements found in English textbooks for junior high school students on the basis of previous studies. Ashikaga et al. (2001) examined English textbooks for senior high school students, creating four categories² for analysis. Sochi (2001) investigated dialogues appearing in English textbooks for junior high school students from the standpoint of nations, focusing in particular on the nature of the characters (i.e., the people) and the topics they discuss.

The results of these studies offer important information for contemporary researchers, but there are some shortcomings. Firstly, since most investigators have examined English textbooks only for junior high school *or* only for senior high school students, each from a specific point of view, it is not possible to integrate these results into a single analytical framework which takes into account students' levels of maturity throughout secondary school. On the basis of these fragmented data, therefore, it is quite difficult to determine what Japanese students are supposed to learn in terms of culture as it is related to various nations by examining the English textbooks used during the entire six years of the secondary school period. Although Kitao (1979) investigated English textbooks for both levels of students, his methodology employed two types of analysis: secondary research and primary research. The secondary research included an investigation of one previous study analyzing English textbooks for senior high schools as well as four previous studies of junior high school English textbooks, all from the standpoint of culture.

The primary research, on the other hand, is in the form of an analysis of English textbooks for senior high school students, but only in terms of American culture. Secondly, most of these studies have not utilized the three concentric circles concept (Kachru, 1989) which was created to portray the diffusion of English speakers throughout the world. These two shortcomings make it difficult to evaluate the teaching of culture on the basis of a single analytical framework.

However, one study by Kiryu, Shibata, Tagatani, and Wada (1999) did make use of Kachru's model in creating two categories³ for textbook analysis, emphasizing the perspective of English as an international language. The results of their study were tabulated from the standpoint of individual countries, regions, and the three concentric circles proposed by Kachru. Although the findings of Kiryu et al. have provided useful information, their model for textbook analysis does not allow us to understand the teaching of culture in terms of individual countries according to students' developmental progress through junior high school into senior high school because they only examined English textbooks for senior high school students, stating that "in most previous research, since English textbooks for junior high school have been chosen as the target materials, there is little research on English textbooks for senior high school; therefore, it would be significant to examine which nonnative countries of English have been found in English textbooks at the senior high school level" (Kiryu et al., 1999, p. 21; my translation).

In order to reach an understanding of which countries are considered important in Japanese English education, it is necessary to evaluate teaching materials used throughout secondary school on the basis of a single analytical framework. The purpose of this paper, therefore, is to provide such an understanding by analyzing English textbooks for both junior high and senior high school based on one framework—Kachru's three-concentric-circles model.

Method

Materials

Nineteen English textbooks were selected for this study and evaluated at the lesson or unit level. All of them have been approved by the Ministry of Education and are used at secondary schools in Japan. For junior high schools, three English textbooks used for all grades were chosen: *New Crown* (21%), *New Horizon* (41.0%), and *Sunshine English Course* (data unavailable). The percentages in parentheses were reported by each

publishing company. Although the exact percentage of use for *Sunshine English Course* is not available at present, approximately 85% of schools at this level in Japan have chosen these three textbooks. As for senior high schools, the following ten English textbooks for *Eigo I* (English I) were selected out of thirty-five volumes listed in *Eigo I*, as a representative sample of the teaching of culture for this study: *Crown English Series I* (9.8%), *All Aboard! English I* (7.4%), *Vista English Series I* (6.9%), *Unicorn English Course I* (6.2%), *Power on English I* (5.1%), *Milestone English Course I* (4.1%), *Vivid English Course I* (3.9%), *Pro-vision English Course I* (3.9%), *Exceed English Series I* (3.7%), and *English Now I* (3.6%). The percentages in parentheses describe the ratios of textbook use by senior high school students in Japan, as published by *Naigai Kyouiku* (2002, p. 12). Although these ten textbooks only comprise approximately 50% of the total, they were chosen because they are representative of the most frequently used textbooks in Japanese senior high schools, and should thus provide a clear indication of the nations of which various aspects of culture are being taught at senior high schools.⁴

Procedures

Since the purpose of this study is to analyze the teaching of culture in terms of various nations from junior high school through senior high school, the focus should be placed on information found in the textbooks as related to individual countries. Therefore, the frequencies of cultural items were examined in all of these English textbooks on the basis of the nations from which various aspects of culture were found. Two criteria were established for analysis at the lesson or unit level: (a) the identification of nouns and adjectives for nations, such as Japan or Japanese; and (b) the identification of other alternative words related to nations, such as expressions indicating certain products and cities or other geographical regions in particular countries (for example, kimono or Tokyo would belong to the category of Japan). When problems arose in making a decision, dictionaries or other sources were consulted in order to distinguish whether a certain item belonged to a particular nation or not. Two full-time junior high school teachers served as raters. They were also required to undergo preliminary practice sessions using this approach to textbook assessment, as well as to discuss any potential problems in advance. An interrater reliability study was conducted using two external raters and the interrater reliability scores were $r_1=1.00$ and $r_2= 1.00$, respectively, reflecting unanimous agreement.

Results

In order to understand tendencies found in English textbooks in the teaching of culture at secondary schools in terms of nations of the world, the results have been tabulated at each grade level according to the “three concentric circles” model proposed by Kachru. Firstly, the nations of each circle have been analyzed individually. Secondly, these results have been evaluated in a variety of ways, highlighting comparisons among the three circles, particularly in relation to Japan.

Nations: Three Circles

Nations of the Inner Circle

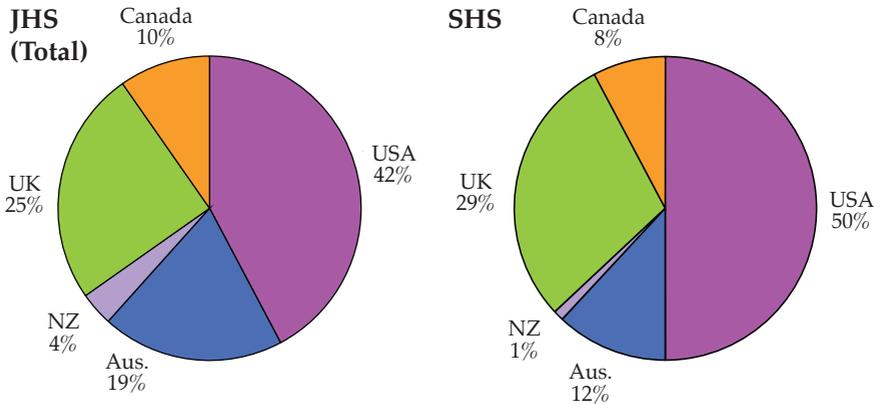


Figure 2. Nations of the Inner Circle

According to Crystal (1997, p. 53), “the *inner circle* refers to the traditional bases of English, where it is the primary language: it includes the USA, UK, Ireland, Canada, Australia and New Zealand.” Table 1 shows the frequencies of these nations for which cultural topics are found in English textbooks in Japan. As can be seen, firstly, the dominant emphasis is on America for all grades of JHS and SHS. Indeed, as Figure 2 illustrates, the USA percentage stands at nearly 42% for JHS in total and goes up to 50% in SHS. Secondly, in terms of the other nations, the distributive proportions of the countries of Oceania and the UK are similar for JHS in total, whereas these two regions differ in SHS. Thirdly, in examining English from the standpoint of geographic distributions, Crystal (1997, p. 63) developed “a family tree representation of the way English has spread around the world,

showing the influence of the two main branches of American and British English." Thus, this tree shows Australian and New Zealand English to have roots in the UK, while Canadian English has been influenced largely by the USA. In evaluating the results in the Inner Circle from the perspective of these two main branches of English, American English stands at 52% in JHS, then rises slightly to 58% in SHS. In terms of British English these percentages are 48% and 42%, respectively.

**Table 1. Nations in which Various Aspects of Culture are Found:
The Inner Circle**

	1st year JHS ⁵	2nd year JHS	3rd year JHS	Total JHS	SHS
USA	9	5	8	22	38
Australia	6	3	1	10	9
Canada	4		1	5	6
England	1	2	1	4	11
Scotland	1	1		2	3
Britian/UK ⁶		3	1	4	6
Wales		1	1	2	1
New Zealand		1	1	2	1
Northern Ireland		1		1	1

Nations of the Outer Circle

The Outer Circle, which is sometimes referred to as the Extended Circle, "involves the earlier phases of the spread of English in nonnative settings, where the language has become part of a country's chief institutions, and plays an important 'second language' role in a multilingual setting: it includes Singapore, India, Malawi, and over fifty other territories" (Crystal, 1997, pp. 53-54). Table 2 presents the nations of the Outer Circle whose cultural items have been identified in the textbooks. As can be seen in Table 2, these nations seldom appear in JHS, while they are sometimes found in SHS. Unfortunately, although many of these nations are important trading partners for Japan in the modern world (for exam-

ple, Singapore was the first country to conclude a free-trade agreement with Japan in 2002 (First Step, 2004)), little information on these countries is available to students through English textbooks.

**Table 2. Nations in which Various Aspects of Culture are Found:
The Outer Circle**

	1st year JHS ⁵	2nd year JHS	3rd year JHS	Total JHS	SHS
India	1	1		2	6
Singapore		1		1	2
Bangladesh			1	1	
Jamaica	1			1	1
Kenya	1	1		2	2
South Africa					3
Philippines					2
Sri Lanka					2

Note: In addition to the countries listed above, Malaysia, Nigeria, Pakistan, Rwanda, Zimbabwe, and the Dominican Republic were each found once in SHS material.

Nations of the Expanding Circle

As Crystal states, the Expanding Circle includes countries that recognize “English as an international language.” In addition, “they do not have a history of colonization by members of the Inner Circle, nor have they given English any special administrative status” (1997, p. 54). For example, “it includes China, Japan, Greece, Poland, and (as the name of this circle suggests) a steadily increasing number of other states” where “English is taught as a foreign language” (p. 54). Table 3 lists all the nations in the Expanding Circle from which cultural items have been identified in textbooks. As can be seen, firstly, although there are many nations in this category, including many lesser-known countries, Japan strongly dominates the Expanding Circle. As Figure 3 shows, Japanese cultural items stand at approximately 64% in JHS. Although this figure goes down

to 44% in SHS, it still occupies nearly half the total of this circle. Secondly, in terms of the other nations, Asian countries predominate. For example, China and Korea, which are considered the primary neighbors of Japan, increase in frequency in SHS although the percentages are still not large.

**Table 3. Nations in which Various Aspects of Culture are Found:
The Expanding Circle**

1st Year JHS		2nd Year JHS		3rd Year JHS		Total JHS		SHS			
Japan	15	Japan	13	Japan	18	Japan	46	Japan	66	Sweden	2
China	4	Korea	2	Korea	2	China	6	China	10	Switzerland	2
Mexico	1	China	1	China	1	Korea	4	Korea	1	Taiwan	2
Brazil	1	Mongolia	1	Turkey	1	France	2	Brazil	5	Turkey	2
France	1	Cambodia	1	Sudan	1	Italy	2	France	5	Vietnam	2
Italy	1	Guatemala	1	France	1	Turkey	1	Spain	5	Angola	1
Finland	1	Germany	1	Russia	1	Cambodia	1	Germany	4	Bosnia	1
Yugoslavia	1	Sweden	1			Mongolia	1	Thailand	4	Bulgaria	1
		Italy	1			Mexico	1	Tibet	4	Colombia	1
						Brazil	1	Cambodia	3	Costa Rica	1
						Sweden	1	Mozambique	3	Holland	1
						Germany	1	Nepal	3	Hong Kong	1
						Russia	1	Egypt	2	Iceland	1
						Sudan	1	Indonesia	2	Iran	1
						Guatemala	1	Italy	1	Myanmar	1
						Finland	1	Norway	1	Saudi Arabia	1
						Yugoslavia	1	Russia	2		

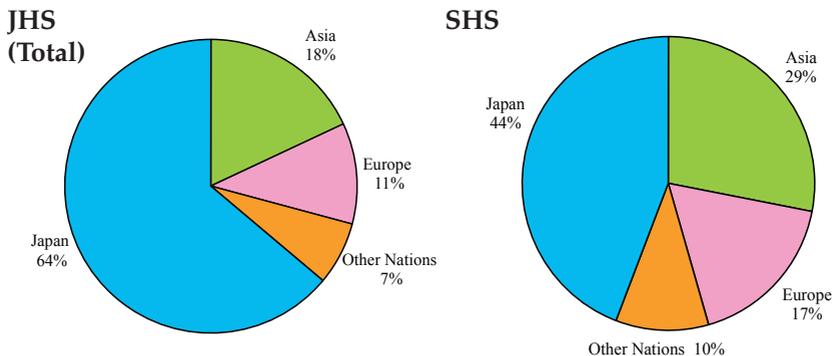


Figure 3. Nations Identified in the Expanding Circle Classified into Regions

Nations: Comparison between the Three Circles and Japan

So far, the results of this investigation have been presented at the level of individual nations in the three Circles. However, in order to understand the teaching of culture from a broader perspective, the circles themselves are compared in this section. In addition, since the 2003 Ministry of Education guidelines claim that it is important for Japanese students to deepen their understanding of their own culture for effective intercultural interactions, the Expanding Circle has been further subdivided into two categories: Japan and the other Expanding Circle countries.

Two significant facts emerge from these results. As can be seen in Table 4, first, the number of nations found in English textbooks for SHS is higher than in JHS. This suggests that there may be more cultural elements covered in SHS than in JHS. In fact, the average number of topics per unit for SHS is 2.10, compared with 1.36 for JHS. Secondly, as can be seen in Figure 4, the distributive percentages in terms of Japan and the Inner Circle decline by approximately 10% in SHS. In other words, in JHS, units on Japan amount to 36%, while those dealing with the Inner Circle stand at 38%. In contrast, in SHS these figures are 26% and 30%, respectively. These declines imply an increased focus on the Expanding Circle (not including Japan) in SHS, suggesting that the teaching of culture may have a more global emphasis as students mature.

**Table 4. Nations in which Various Aspects of Culture are Found:
The Three Circles and Japan**

Circles	1st Year JHS (33)	2nd Year JHS (31)	3rd Year JHS (29)	Total JHS (93)	SHS (151)
Inner	21	17	14	52	76
Outer	3	3	1	7	24
Expanding **Not including Japan	10	9	7	26	85
Japan	15	13	18	46	66
Total	49	42	40	131	251

Note: Numbers in parentheses are total chapters.

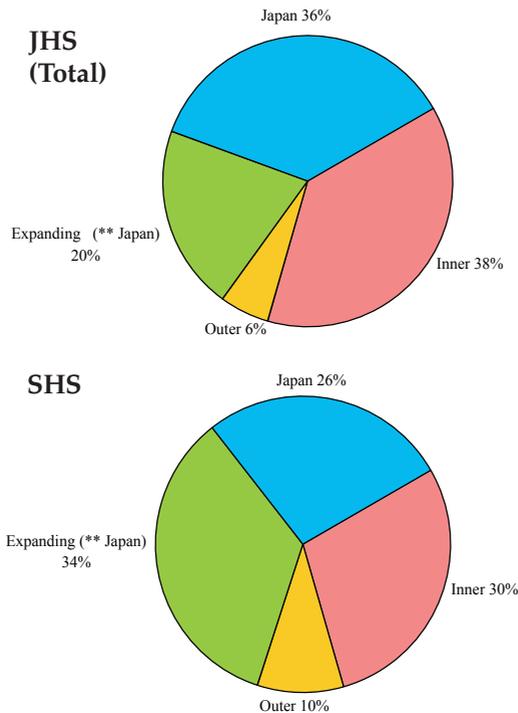
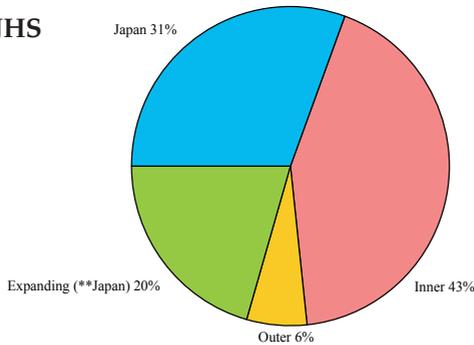


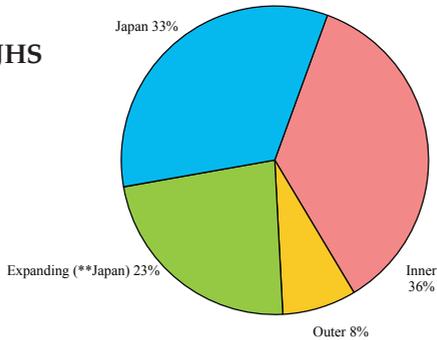
Figure 4. Table 4 in Graphic Form

In classifying the total results of JHS into grades, one clear tendency is that the focus in teaching culture is on Japan when students reach an advanced level. By contrast, the Inner Circle is emphasized when students are at an entry level. As Figure 5 shows, units on Japan stand at 31% in the 1st year of JHS, rise slightly to 33% in the 2nd year, and go up to 46% in the 3rd year. In terms of the Inner Circle, these percentages are 43%, 36%, and 33%, respectively.

1st year JHS



2nd year JHS



3rd year JHS

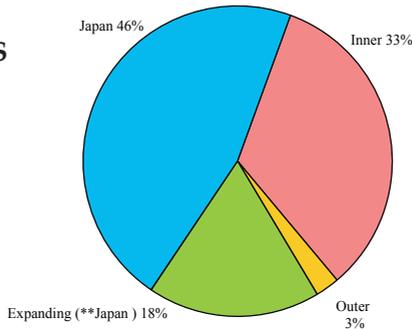


Figure 5. Table 4 in Graphic Form (All Grades of JHS)

Taking the above information into consideration, the focus on the teaching of culture appears to involve three steps in secondary schools. Firstly, the Inner Circle and its relation to native speakers of English is introduced, then topics related to Japan are taught, and finally starting in SHS, the Expanding Circle (not including Japan) is presented.

Discussion

Regarding the nations in which English is used, there are four observations that can be made. As can be seen in Table 1, *Nations of the Inner Circle*, the USA appears most frequently in English textbooks for both JHS and SHS. In a previous study, Kitao (1979) maintained that it is commonly believed that "American culture has been emphasized in English instruction in Japan" (p. 90). However, his research strongly focused on culture related to America and showed a contradiction between this belief and the reality of English textbooks used in the classroom. He concluded that "Japanese students were taught very little about American culture in English courses of any level, so their understanding of American culture was quite limited" (p. 91). Approximately 20 years after Kitao's investigation, however, Kiryu et al. found different results, maintaining that at present "the focus is on America and Japan, although a relatively wider range of regions in the world are referred to" in English textbooks for SHS (1999, p. 23; my translation). Nevertheless, in evaluating textbooks from the standpoint of American or British English, the percentages of cultural items seem to be almost equally distributed. Thus, the results of this investigation partially agree with the study conducted by Kiryu et al. (1999). However, the findings also show that the distribution is much more equally divided than previously thought.

Secondly, as Table 2, *Nations of the Outer Circle*, demonstrates, the frequencies of nations involved are quite low, even though Japan has close relations with a number of these countries economically and politically (e.g., Singapore, Malaysia, India). The 2003 Ministry's guidelines do not address political issues, however. They simply state that "it is important to understand not only the nations involved but also the people who live in these nations with other languages and cultures" (1999, p. 133; my translation). Nevertheless, it is imperative for young Japanese to learn about the nations of the Outer Circle because they are close neighbors of Japan. Concerning this issue, it would be better if more information on these Outer Circle countries were provided in the textbooks.

Thirdly, as Table 3, *Nations of the Expanding Circle*, shows, as would be expected, that Japan dominates this particular circle in English textbooks for both JHS and SHS. Nevertheless, it is gratifying to see cultural information from Japan's closest neighbors included as well. China and South Korea are also present in this circle, although the percentages are not very high. One of the reasons for the inclusion of these countries can perhaps be explained by examining statistics released by *The Japan Times* (Matsubara, 2003, p. 6) which show that the population of overseas students from China residing in Japan totals 58,533, the highest number from any nation, with South Korea second. In addition, when Japanese students study abroad, the USA still seems to be the preferred destination followed by China, England, South Korea, and Australia in descending order (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2001, p. 39).

Fourthly, the percentage of nations belonging to the Expanding Circle goes up substantially in SHS in comparison with JHS. At the same time, in terms of cultural items related to Japan, the frequency declines in SHS. Thus, the emphasis on students' learning about their own culture in JHS seems to shift to an emphasis on greater understanding of other cultures in SHS.

Conclusion

Parmenter and Tomita (2001) point out that "the textbook authorization system [in Japan] means that publishers have to follow [the Ministry's] guidelines closely in order to have their books authorized for use in schools" (p. 134). Nonetheless, in the 2003 Ministry guidelines, there are no detailed instructions about which nations should be included in the textbooks; the only directions to be found are expressions such as "cultures of Japan and the rest of the world" or "countries that use the foreign languages" (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2003, p. 14). Consequently, it is not clear on what grounds the writers of these textbooks have made judgments on the inclusion, or lack of inclusion, of specific nations appearing in English textbooks.

Parmenter and Tomita (2001) also state that "although there is no systematic inclusion of cultural content in the curriculum, analysis of textbooks reveals that there is a bias towards the USA, both in terms of language (US idioms, spelling, accent, etc.) and in terms of cultural information included." However, the results of this study partially disagree with these claims, since the percentages of cultural items related to

American and British spheres seem to be almost equally distributed in the Inner Circle.

On the other hand, the results from the standpoint of the three concentric circles suggested by Kachru reveal that there are still biases and misconceptions. Firstly, there is a marked lack of emphasis on nations in the Outer Circle in comparison with countries in the Inner Circle. The countries in the Outer Circle appear the least frequently in English textbooks (6% in JHS, with a slight rise to 10% in SHS), even though Japan is currently attempting to create closer ties with these nations. Secondly, in addition to nations in the Outer Circle, while Japan dominates cultural items in English textbooks for both JHS and SHS, the frequency of countries (except for Japan) in the Expanding Circle is rather low. Since Japan and other nations in the Expanding Circle have important ties as political allies and trading partners, it would have been better if the nations of the Expanding Circle (in addition to the Outer Circle) had received a stronger focus.

In fact, demands for further understanding of the nations in both the Outer Circle and the Expanding Circle have arisen because Japan has experienced a transition in terms of its English needs in the last few decades. Twenty-seven years ago, Kenji Kitao (1979) stated that "more Japanese people are encountering more American people, products, information, and culture on a daily basis than ever before" (p. 90), adding that "thus, better understanding and communication between the citizens of the two cultures is necessary" (p. 90). Hence, in the past, cultural issues related to native speakers of English were the main focus because English was regarded as a language for communicating with people from Western countries. At present, however, as English has become a global language which is used for interacting with people all over the world, it would be beneficial for young Japanese people to learn about a variety of cultures, not just those related to Inner Circle countries. Thus, a better balance in terms of the nations that are included in the textbooks would certainly enhance their content.

Suggestions for Further Research

In conclusion, this study has attempted to analyze English textbooks used in Japanese secondary schools from the perspective of the three concentric circles suggested by Kachru. However, there are many issues that were beyond the scope of this investigation and deserve further attention. First, it would certainly be useful to interview Japanese English teachers

themselves on the effectiveness of the Ministry's ambiguous guidelines as well as their views on the value of the way current English textbooks "teach" culture. In addition, although these guidelines are the basis upon which teachers conduct their lessons in Japan, according to Parmenter and Tomita (2001), "there are *no teaching guidelines* [emphasis added] concerning cultural content or the development of intercultural competence" (p. 134). In other words, coherent directives in terms of guidance on the teaching of culture are lacking and thus it is hoped that interviewing classroom teachers will provide a variety of perspectives on this matter. Second, as Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) from other countries often participate in lessons these days, and play an important role in teaching culture, it may well be valuable to solicit their opinions and ideas. Finally, since "textbooks form the central part of foreign language classes, and this system ensures that Ministry of Education guidelines reach individual students directly" (2001, p.134), it may also be necessary to investigate the students' point of view to determine which countries are of interest to them and whether or not their preferences agree with those of their instructors. Therefore, understanding a variety of perspectives on the teaching of culture through English, particularly those provided by teachers and students, would be beneficial in making progress in designing textbooks that can enhance intercultural understanding in Japan in the future.

Acknowledgments

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Notes

1. The Japanese Ministry of Education was called *Mombusho* (the Ministry of Education) until 1999. Thereafter, the name was changed to *Mombukagakusho* (the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology). For the purpose of this study we will simply refer to the Ministry of Education.

2. According to Ashikaga et al. (2001, p. 3), the four categories are as follows:
 - (1) Target Culture (T), which represents cultures where English is spoken as a first language, (2) Source Culture (S), which represents Japanese culture, (3) Target and Source Culture (T&S), which represents a comparison of T and S, and (4) International Culture (I) which represents the culture of countries other than T and S, or comparisons of other countries with either T or S. Global issues are also included in this type.
3. *Nation specific* indicates “a situation in which a nation becomes not only a background but also a main topic in a unit.” *Nation nonspecific*, by contrast, “describes a situation in which topics not only center on individuals but also do not refer to nations, such as in biographies and novels. These topics are also common throughout the world, ... and include environmental issues, world peace, ethics, morals, and science” (Kiryu et al., 1999, pp. 21-22; my translation).
4. Although English courses in junior high schools are obligatory, at the high school level only the subjects English I and Oral Communication I are compulsory subjects. Thereafter, there are divergent options in terms of students’ choices. Regarding textbook selection for senior high school, this author decided to choose one of the compulsory subjects as a representative sample of the teaching of culture for this investigation. According to Watanabe in *Naigai Kyouiku* (2002), English textbooks for English I have been used more than those for Oral Communication I; therefore, English textbooks for English I were chosen. In this way, an equivalent sample of compulsory textbooks was evaluated across junior high and senior high school levels.
5. In the following sections, terminology such as “1st year JHS” or “SHS” has been used in place of “the first year of junior high school” or “senior high school” for the sake of brevity.
6. Great Britain does not include Northern Ireland. In reality, however, as the terms “the UK” and “Britain” are often used interchangeably, they were considered to be synonymous in this investigation.

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Perspectives

Revisiting English Entrance Examinations at Japanese Universities after a Decade

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Since Brown and Yamashita (1995a, 1995b) criticized the high difficulty of reading passages and the discrete-point, passive nature of the university English language entrance examinations at 10 private and 10 prestigious public universities and one nationwide examination in 1994, no studies have been conducted to monitor changes in such exams. A decade later, the present study replicates Brown and Yamashita, and seeks to identify differences in entrance examinations at the same universities in 2004. Although some changes were found, the types of items, their variety, and the skills measured did not look substantially different. Reading passages still seemed very difficult and translation tasks were still often used in 2004. The present study calls for future studies to analyze entrance examinations at different universities or to be given to students of different major fields.

Brown and Yamashita (1995a, 1995b)は1993・1994年に日本で実施された有名私立・国公立大学それぞれ10校の入学試験、およびセンター試験の詳細な分析である。その結果の示すところによれば、英文の難易度は非常に高く、内容は語彙文法に傾き、読解などの受信的な能力に重点が置かれているのであり、著者はこれを批判している。しかしその後このような調査はほとんど行われていない。本調査は同じ大学の入学試験およびセンター試験の分析を行い差異を検証したものである。その結果、わずかな変化は見られたものの、項目の型、種類、測定対象となっている技能などについてはほとんど違いがなかった。読解問題が大半を占めており、英文の難易度は高く、また英文和訳問題の量も多かった。将来さらに多くの入学試験問題を分析する必要があることを指摘した。

In 1995, two articles were published that analyzed 21 English language entrance examinations: 10 private, 10 public, and the national Center exam (Brown & Yamashita, 1995a, 1995b). These articles had a great impact on the field of second language assessment in Japan, although some criticism was leveled that the results of these articles were not very useful for teachers who need to prepare their pupils for entrance exams (O'Sullivan, 1995). In addition, the authors' recommendations for changes to the entrance exams were criticized as being fundamentally unaware of the Japanese situation (Stapleton, 1996; Yoshida, 1996a, 1996b). Nevertheless, these articles were credited with providing "a valuable and solid first step in the process of evaluating Japanese university entrance exams" (O'Sullivan, 1995, p. 257).

As Brown and Yamashita (1995a) observed, there was, at the time of their writing, a phenomenon "known as *shiken jigoku*, or examination hell, which describes the months and years that Japanese young people spend preparing for entrance examinations" (p. 8). However, in the ten years since the publication of their studies, the situation surrounding the entrance examinations has changed. The number of universities grew from 552 in 1994 to 702 in 2003, while the number of upper secondary students declined in the same period (Mombukagakusho, 2004a). It is also reported that new entrants to universities or junior colleges as a percentage of 18-year-olds nationwide surged to 49.9% in 2004 from 43.3% in 1994 (Mombukagakusho, 2004b). Furthermore, in recent newspaper articles ("Universities fear," 2004; "Birthrate benefits," 2004), it was reported that all applicants may be able to enter university within three years if they are not particular about which institution they attend. According to a recent estimate by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, the number of applicants for admission to colleges and universities will shrink to equal the number of available spaces by 2007. With this change in demographics, the hold that *shiken jigoku* has traditionally had on university applicants will likely diminish.

How have entrance examinations at the most prestigious universities been affected by changes to Japanese society over the last ten years? In the interest of seeking the answer to this question, this study serves as a replication of Brown and Yamashita's (1995b) second study for the purpose of generating data on this subject for the first time in ten years. As in their original work, this study attempts to establish "a baseline of information so that change or lack of change in the testing practices of such universities can be monitored in future years" (Brown & Yamashita, 1995a, p. 11).

This study was guided by five research questions adapted from Brown and Yamashita (1995b).

1. How difficult are the various reading passages used in the 2004 university English language entrance examinations?
2. Are there differences in the level of difficulty in reading passages between private and public university examinations in 1994 and 2004?
3. What types of items are used on the 2004 English language entrance examinations, and how varied are they?
4. Are there differences in the types of items found in private and public university examinations in 1994 and 2004?
5. What skills were measured on the 1994 and 2004 English language entrance examinations?

Method

Materials

The CD-ROM, *Xam 2004 English* (JC Educational Institute, 2004), was the primary source of analysis for this study. It contains English entrance examinations from 329 universities. This CD-ROM does not include the listening section for examinations at a number of private universities. In these cases, the *Zenkoku Nyushi Mondai Seikai* (2004), a compilation of entrance exams from 188 universities, was consulted. The same private and public universities used in Brown and Yamashita (1995a, 1995b) were chosen for this study. Although the names of each university were clearly written in the original article, it was not clear which exams for which department were selected for analysis. In order to clarify this list, one of the authors of the original study was contacted. In Table 1 below, the list of 20 universities chosen in Brown and Yamashita (1995a, 1995b) is provided, using the same system of abbreviation. Since most private universities gave different entrance exams for applicants to different disciplines, all details regarding departmental exams are included. In contrast, most public universities continue to give the same entrance exams for applicants to different disciplines, although Nagoya University and Yokohama City University are notable exceptions. In these two cases, a detailed description of each departmental exam is given. Most

public universities set two different exam dates for the convenience of applicants. Based on the advice from one of the researchers of the original article, analysis was focused on those exams that were intended to be administered to a majority of students. For instance, most of the national universities use two different tests (*zenki* and *koki*). In this study, the *zenki* (earlier) test, which was used for more applicants than the *koki* (later) test, was used for the analysis. In addition to these 20 university exams, the 2004 *Daigaku Nyuushi Sentaa* exam, or Center exam, which is administered nationwide and serves as an initial screening for many schools, was included in this study.

Table 1. List of 20 universities in Brown and Yamashita (1995a, 1995b)

Private		Public	
1.	Aoyama Gakuin, Dept. of English	11.	Hitotsubashi University (Hitotsu)
2.	Doshisha University, Dept. of English	12.	Hokkaido University
3.	Keio University, Dept. of English	13.	Kyoto University
4.	Kansai Gaidai (Gaidai), Dept. of English (Kangai)	14.	Kyushu University
5.	Kansai University, Dept. of English	15.	Nagoya University, School of Letters
6.	Kyoto University of Foreign studies, Dept. of English (Kyoto UFS)	16.	Osaka University
7.	Rikkyo University, Dept. of English	17.	Tokyo University
8.	Sophia University, Dept. of English Language and Studies	18.	Tokyo University of Foreign Studies (TyoUFS)
9.	Tsuda University, Dept. of English	19.	Tokyo Municipal University (Toritsu)
10.	Waseda University, Dept. of English, School of Education	20.	Yokohama City University, Dept. of International Relations

Procedures

All examinations selected were analyzed using the following procedures. First, each item was coded for item type and saved in an Excel spreadsheet program. According to Brown (1996, p. 49), a test item is “the smallest unit that produces distinctive and meaningful information on a test or rating scale.” All items were coded based on item types used in Brown and Yamashita (1995a, 1995b). Second, all of the reading passages were obtained from the CD-ROM, Xam 2004 English (JC Educational Institute, 2004) in Microsoft (MS) Word 2000 format. However, for a few exams, this CD-ROM did not include MS Word files. In this case, PDF files were obtained from this CD-ROM and typed into an MS Word document file.

Analyses

All of the English reading passages on the entrance examinations were analyzed using the RightWriter program (Que Software, 1990), which lists the number of words, number of unique words, percentage of unique words (type-token ratio), syllables per word, number of sentences, and words per sentence in the passage. In addition, the readability of the passages was calculated by this program using the Flesch, Flesch-Kincaid, and Fog indexes. The number of words, syllables per word, number of sentences, and words per sentence are self-explanatory statistics. The *number of unique words* is the number of different words used in a passage, and *type-token ratio* is the percentage of unique words in the passage. The Flesch, Flesch-Kincaid and Fog readability indexes estimate the reading level of passages. The Flesch scale ranges from 0 to 100. Higher numbers in this range indicate easier to read passages. The Flesch-Kincaid and Fog readability indices are often used to establish “the grade level of students for which the reading passages should be appropriate” (Brown & Yamashita, 1995a, p. 13) in U.S. secondary schools. Although these readability indexes have been criticized by many researchers who recommend alternative instruments for use in EFL contexts (e.g., Brown, 1998; Greenfield, 2004), the present study used these readability indexes to replicate the original study. (For more on these readability indexes, see Brown and Yamashita, 1995a, and Taylor, 2004.)

Results

1. *How difficult are the various reading passages used in the 2004 university English language entrance examinations?*

Tables 2 and 3 reveal the statistical data for the reading passages of the examinations at private and public universities, respectively. Table 2 (Private) and Table 3 (Public) indicate that all universities, except Keio, used two or more than two reading passages in their entrance examinations. One private university, Sophia, and one public university, Tokyo, used as many as four passages. Looking at the average number of words in a passage, one notices that Keio and Tokyo University of Foreign Studies (Tokyo UFS) used relatively long passages. On the contrary, two public universities, Kyoto and Yokohama, used shorter passages, with fewer than 310 words per passage on average.

The number of sentences per passage is relatively straightforward to interpret. As Brown and Yamashita (1995b, p. 89) observed, average sentence length by examining words per sentence can be considered "a rough indication of the syntactic complexity of a passage." It indicates that the words/sentence ratio on the Kansai exam was the shortest, while that of Nagoya was the longest.

The Flesch readability index yielded a range in the reading level of passages in the exams from "fairly easy" (70.98) at Kansai to "difficult" (30.12) at Nagoya. Taylor (2004) observes that the range of the Flesch readability index of standard English documents for native speakers of English should be from approximately 60 to 70 on average. Notice that the Flesch readability indexes of the passages from seven private universities, except for Kansai, Rikkyo, and Sophia, as well as eight public universities except for Hokkaido and Toritsu, average less than 60.00. This suggests that these passages are fairly difficult to comprehend. The Fog index shows that those reading passages may be appropriate for native speakers ranging from the 9th grade (Kansai) to 16th grade (Nagoya). In the case of Nagoya, the difficulty of the selected reading passages seems to be at the college level or even the graduate-school level for native English speakers. Taylor (2004), however, observes that if the Fog index level is above 12, it indicates that the reading passage is too hard for most native speakers to read. Of the examinations administered at 20 universities, the average Fog index for all passages was above 12.00 at eleven. Brown and Yamashita observed, "The Fog index generally appears to agree with the Flesch-Kincaid one, but is consistently about two grades higher" (1995b, p. 89). This tendency occurred throughout most of this study. Judging by Flesch-Kincaid, many of the universities, ex-

cept for Doshisha, Nagoya, Osaka, and Tokyo UFS, appeared to use reading passages easier than 12th grade, the final year of high school.

Table 2. Reading Passage Statistics for Private Universities, 2004

	Aoyama	Doshisha	Keio	Kangai	Kansai	Kyoto UFS	Rikkyo	Sophia	Tsuda	Waseda
No. of passages	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	4	2	4
Words	560.50	775.50	1070.00	373.50	719.00	539.50	753.00	601.80	502.00	399.00
Unique Words	293.50	357.50	472.00	206.00	349.50	283.50	379.00	301.80	244.00	219.50
Type-Token Ratio	0.52	0.46	0.44	0.55	0.49	0.53	0.50	0.50	0.49	0.55
Syllables/ Word	1.67	1.67	1.59	1.55	1.44	1.62	1.47	1.48	1.55	1.59
Sentences	29.00	35.00	59.00	21.00	52.00	33.50	43.00	43.00	26.00	21.00
Words/ Sentence	18.36	20.51	18.09	18.69	13.86	16.16	16.75	13.97	16.68	19.54
Flesch	47.02	44.58	53.59	56.89	70.98	53.81	65.61	67.64	59.03	51.04
Flesch -Kincaid	11.26	12.14	10.28	9.97	6.80	9.77	8.27	7.30	9.17	11.20
Fog	13.03	13.85	12.33	12.48	9.08	11.74	9.82	9.24	11.80	13.38

Note: All statistics for Private and Public universities as well as totals are averages.

2. *Are there differences in the levels of reading passage difficulty in private and public university examinations between 1994 and 2004?*

In Table 4, a statistical summary of the reading passages on the exams is presented which shows the overall mean differences between 1994 and 2004 among private and public universities as well as the Center exam. The 1994 data were obtained from Brown and Yamashita (1995b, p. 90).

In both years, public universities were found to have more reading passages, and shorter passages were used more often at public than at private universities. Furthermore, the mean for words per passage in all categories, except center exams, is higher in 2004 than in 1994, reflecting a tendency for reading passages on the exam to become longer.

Table 3. Reading Passage Statistics for Public Universities, 2004

	Hitotsu	Hokkaido	Kyoto	Kyushu	Nagoya	Osaka	Tokyo	Toritsu	Tokyo UFS	Yokohama
No. of passages	2	3	3	3	2	3	4	2	3	3
Words	640.00	409.67	305.67	454.67	535.50	314.33	585.00	545.00	845.00	265.00
Unique Words	313.50	220.67	173.67	261.00	265.50	156.00	275.75	266.00	413.67	147.33
Type-Token Ratio	0.49	0.54	0.57	0.57	0.50	0.50	0.47	0.49	0.49	0.56
Syllables/Word	1.55	1.48	1.55	1.58	1.79	1.58	1.59	1.41	1.75	1.52
Sentences	32.00	21.33	17.33	23.00	21.00	11.67	28.00	27.50	40.67	12.33
Words/Sentence	19.63	17.73	16.08	19.68	29.13	25.95	20.49	18.44	18.92	20.99
Flesch	56.04	63.47	59.03	53.16	30.12	46.82	51.61	68.90	39.79	56.57
Flesch-Kincaid	10.32	8.81	9.02	10.73	15.32	13.18	11.15	8.23	12.41	10.59
Fog	11.62	11.21	11.41	12.88	16.03	15.75	13.16	10.82	14.80	12.42

Note: All statistics for Private and Public universities as well as totals are averages.

From other statistics in this table, an overall difference between private and public universities is also apparent. The statistics on the Center exam tend to fall somewhere between these groups. However, there do not seem to be any considerable differences in the pattern between 1994 exams and 2004 exams.

3. *What types of items are used on the 2004 English language entrance examinations and how varied are they?*

Item types. Based on Brown and Yamashita (1995b, p. 91) and incorporating original data from this study, Tables 5 (private) and 6 (public) present a summary of different item types on the 2004 examinations. In the original study, the names of universities appear horizontally across the top of the table, while the question types, both in terms of frequency and as a percentage, appear vertically along the left side under the heading of "skill."

Table 4. Reading Passage Statistics Summarized by University Type

Statistics	1994 Exams*				2004 Exams			
	Private	Public	Center	Total	Private	Public	Center	Total
No. of universities	10	10	1	21	10	10	1	21
No. of passages	2.70	3.20	3.00	2.97	2.30	2.80	5.00	3.37
Words	547.05	417.63	368.00	444.23	623.26	481.79	295.80	466.95
Unique Words	264.82	222.32	189.67	225.60	310.63	249.31	151.20	237.05
Type-Token Ratio	0.49	0.54	0.52	0.52	0.49	0.51	0.50	0.50
Syllables/ Word	1.51	1.50	1.49	1.50	1.46	1.48	1.40	1.45
Sentences	28.79	25.18	24.67	26.21	33.45	21.98	19.40	24.94
Words/ Sentence	19.51	17.92	18.77	18.73	19.04	22.86	17.00	19.63
Flesch	59.35	61.63	61.91	60.96	63.63	58.20	71.38	64.40
Flesch -Kincaid	9.83	9.11	9.29	9.41	9.62	10.98	8.79	9.79
Fog	12.05	11.28	10.83	11.39	12.16	14.03	10.46	12.22

* The 1994 data were obtained from Brown and Yamashita (1995b, p. 90)

Note: All statistics for Private and Public universities as well as totals are averages.

The method of categorization used by Brown and Yamashita (1995b, p. 91) in “reading/writing” is also used in this study. Under “translation” skills, two new categories, summarizing English sentences in Japanese (E>J) and Japanese sentences in English (J>E) have been added, since they were not question types on the 1994 examinations. Likewise, summarizing “listening” passages also appears as a new question type in this analysis.

Item variety. As Brown and Yamashita observed a decade ago, it seems that “the nature of the item types on the various university entrance examinations varies tremendously” (1995b, p. 91). This observation still applies as detailed in Tables 5 and 6. For instance, some private universities such as Kangai, Doshisha, Sophia, and Waseda place heavy emphasis on multiple-choice items, whereas some public universities such as Kyoto, Toritsu, and Tokyo UFS do not use multiple-choice items in terms of assessing reading/writing skills. In addition, while private universities such

Table 6. Item Types on Public University Examinations, 2004

Skill: Item type	Hitotsu	Hokkaido	Kyoto	Kyushu	Nagoya	Osaka	Tokyo	Toritsu	Tokyo UFS	Yokohama
Frequencies										
<i>Reading/writing:</i>										
Multiple-choice	11	11	0	4	2	6	11	0	0	1
True-false	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	0
Rephrase/reorder	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	1	0
Fill-in	5	4	0	0	3	0	3	4	1	9
Short-answer/essay	1	2	0	0	6	1	1	1	2	1
<i>Translation:</i>										
Translate (E->J)	5	5	7	11	6	6	5	10	4	1
Translate (J->E)	0	0	2	4	3	1	0	6	0	1
Summary (E->J)*	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
Summary (J->E)*	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
<i>Listening:</i>										
True-false	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Multiple-choice	5	12	0	0	0	0	14	0	0	0
Fill-in	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	0
Dictation	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Short-answer	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	0
Summary *	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total Number of Items	29	34	9	19	20	14	48	21	26	14
Percentages										
<i>Reading/writing:</i>										
Multiple-choice	37.9	32.4	0.0	21.1	10.0	42.9	22.9	0.0	0.0	7.1
True-false	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	38.5	0.0
Rephrase/reorder	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	12.5	0.0	3.8	0.0
Fill-in	17.2	11.8	0.0	0.0	15.0	0.0	6.3	19.0	3.8	64.3
Short-answer/essay	3.4	5.9	0.0	0.0	30.0	7.1	2.1	4.8	7.7	7.1
<i>Translation:</i>										
Translate (E->J)	17.2	14.7	77.8	57.9	30.0	42.9	10.4	47.6	15.4	7.1
Translate (J->E)	0.0	0.0	22.2	21.1	15.0	7.1	0.0	28.6	0.0	7.1
Summary (E->J)*	3.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.1	0.0	3.8	7.1
Summary (J->E)*	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.1	0.0	3.8	0.0
<i>Listening:</i>										
True-false	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Multiple-choice	17.2	35.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	29.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
Fill-in	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	12.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
Dictation	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Short-answer	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	23.1	0.0
Summary *	3.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total % of Items	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

*New item types on the 2004 examinations not found on the 1994 examinations.

as Kansai Gaidai (Kangai), Rikkyo, Sophia, and Waseda do not include any translation tasks, Kyoto, Kyushu, Osaka, and Toritsu use translation items either from English to Japanese or Japanese to English in more than 50% of their test items.

4. *Are there differences in the types of items found in private and public university examinations in 1994 and 2004?*

Table 7 summarizes the variety of item types on entrance examinations in 1994 and 2004 among private universities, public universities, and Center exams. Data from the 1994 exam in this table was obtained from Brown and Yamashita (1995b, p. 93).

For the most part, the same item types were used in 1994 and 2004; however, there were some interesting differences. Notably, fewer short-answer/essay items were used in 2004 than in 1994. This finding applies particularly to public universities, where short-answer/essay question response items accounted for just 6.82% of question types in 2004, down from 17.50% in 1994. On the contrary, listening items using multiple-choice were used by public universities more in 2004 (8.17%) than in 1994 (1.25%). As observed in the original study, public and private universities tend to weigh item types differently in 2004. For instance, while private universities used predominantly multiple-choice items (71.69%), public universities used this item type far less (17.43%). Translation items were used more frequently at public universities than private ones.

In addition, three new items, translating a summary from English to Japanese, translating a summary from Japanese to English, and the creation of a summary based on listening passages, appeared. None of these item types were used on the 1994 exams.

5. *What skills were measured on the 1994 and 2004 English language entrance examinations?*

In Tables 8 and 9, three kinds of comparisons are shown for the entrance examinations of private and public universities respectively. Based on Brown and Yamashita (1995a, 1995b), test items were categorized as a) discrete-point or integrative in nature, b) used to examine receptive or productive skills of English or translation skills, and c) dependent on passages or not. For a complete explanation of these descriptions, see Brown and Yamashita (1995a, pp. 9-11).

Table 7. Item Type Variety Summarized by University Type

Skill:	1994 Exams*				2004 Exams			
	Private	Public	Center	Total	Private	Public	Center	Total
<i>Item type</i>								
Frequencies								
<i>Reading/writing:</i>								
Multiple-choice	33.7	7.4	55	32.03	31.8	4.6	45	26.13
True-false	0.5	0	0	0.17	0	1	0	0.33
Rephrase/reorder	0.3	0.1	4	1.47	2	0.7	5	2.57
Fill-in	6.5	1.8	0	2.77	1.2	2.9	0	2.37
Short-answer/ essay	1.1	4	0	1.70	0.5	1.5	0	0.67
<i>Translation:</i>								
Translate (E->J)	1.2	5.1	0	2.10	0.8	6	0	2.27
Translate (J->E)	0.9	2.7	0	1.20	0.8	1.7	0	0.83
Summary (E->J)*	0	0	0	0.00	0	0.4	0	0.13
Summary (J->E)*	0	0	0	0.00	0	0.2	0	0.07
<i>Listening:</i>								
True-false	0	0	0	0.00	0	0	0	0.00
Multiple-choice	1	0.5	0	0.50	2	3.1	0	1.70
Fill-in	0	1.2	0	0.40	0	0.6	0	0.20
Dictation	0.1	0	0	0.03	0.1	0	0	0.03
Short-answer	0	1	0	0.33	0	0.6	0	0.20
Summary *	0	0	0	0.00	0	0.1	0	0.03
Total Number of Items	45.3	23.8	59	42.70	39.2	23.4	50	37.53
Percentages								
<i>Reading/writing:</i>								
Multiple-choice	62.31	26.89	93.22	60.81	71.69	17.43	90.00	57.70
True-false	1.02	0	0	0.34	0.00	3.85	0.00	1.28
Rephrase/reorder	0.67	0.25	6.78	2.57	5.62	1.63	10.00	5.75
Fill-in	15.62	6.12	0.00	7.25	3.87	13.74	0.00	7.87
Short-answer/ essay	6.80	17.50	0.00	8.10	4.84	6.82	0.00	3.89
<i>Translation:</i>								
Translate (E->J)	6.06	28.28	0	11.45	4.85	32.10	0.00	12.32
Translate (J->E)	3.31	13.14	0	5.48	3.04	10.11	0.00	4.39
Summary (E->J)*	0.00	0.00	0	0.00	0.00	1.65	0.00	0.55
Summary (J->E)*	0.00	0.00	0	0.00	0.00	0.59	0.00	0.20
<i>Listening:</i>								
True-false	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Multiple-choice	4	1.25	0	1.75	5.79	8.17	0.00	4.65
Fill-in	0	3	0	1.00	0.00	1.25	0.00	0.42
Dictation	0.20	0	0	0.07	0.29	0.00	0.00	0.10
Short-answer	0	3.57	0	1.19	0.00	2.31	0.00	0.77
Summary *	0	0	0	0.00	0.00	0.34	0.00	0.11
Total % of Items	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Note: All statistics for Private and Public universities as well as the total are averages.

Among the comparisons in terms of discrete-point, integrative, and translation in Table 8 for private universities, discrete-point items predominated except for Keio which put a heavy emphasis on translation (88.9%). On the contrary, as seen in Table 9, at public universities translation occurred more frequently whereas fewer discrete-point items were used. As many as five public universities, Kyoto, Kyushu, Nagoya, Osaka, and Toritsu, used translation on 50% or more of their test items. Keio was the only private university that used translation as frequently as public universities. Eight of ten private universities used discrete-point items for more than 90% of their test items whereas only two public universities used discrete-point items 80% or more of the time.

Next, the comparison of receptive, productive, and translation items is dealt with in Tables 8 and 9. Rikkyo was the only private university which used productive items in more than 30% of its test items, while three public universities, Tokyo, Tokyo UFS, and Yokohama, used upwards of 30%.

Furthermore, most of the private and public universities made frequent use of passage-dependent items. Four private universities, Kangai, Kyoto UFS, Rikkyo and Sophia, and one public university, Yokohama, were exceptions: more than 30% of their test items were found to be passage-independent.

A comparison of 1994 and 2004 item type categories for both private and public universities as well as the Center exam is presented in Table 10. Many of the same patterns that display a contrasting tendency between private and public universities found in Tables 8 and 9 were also observed in both 1994 and 2004. Although there were a few exceptions, such as a decrease in the use of integrative, productive, and passage-independent items, a similar pattern emerged for the categories of item types used in both 1994 and 2004.

Discussion and Conclusion

The level of difficulty in terms of the Flesch, Flesch-Kincaid, and Fog readability indexes in reading passages between 1994 and 2004 entrance examinations has remained essentially unchanged. Likewise, although a few new item types, such as summarizing reading passages or listening passages, have been added since 1994, the skills being measured are fundamentally the same. Most of the test items tested receptive skills or translation skills. How can these findings be interpreted? First, as observed in the original study, many of the 2004 items were based on read-

Table 10. Categories of Item Types Summarized by University Type

<i>Frequencies</i>	1994 Exams				2004 Exams			
	Private	Public	Center	Total	Private	Public	Center	Total
Discrete-point	42.00	11.00	59.00	37.33	37.00	12.50	50.00	33.17
Integrative	1.20	5.00	0.00	2.07	0.20	2.30	0.00	0.83
Translation	2.10	7.80	0.00	3.30	2.00	8.60	0.00	3.53
Number of Items	45.30	23.80	59.00	42.70	39.20	23.40	50.00	37.53
Receptive	35.50	8.00	59.00	34.17	35.70	9.10	50.00	31.60
Productive	7.70	8.00	0.00	5.23	1.50	5.70	0.00	2.40
Translation	2.10	7.80	0.00	3.30	2.00	8.60	0.00	3.53
Number of Items	45.30	23.80	59.00	42.70	39.20	23.40	50.00	37.53
Passage-dependent	25.80	15.20	14.00	18.33	29.50	20.10	21.00	23.53
Passage-independent	19.50	8.60	45.00	24.37	9.70	3.30	29.00	14.00
Number of Items	45.30	23.80	59.00	42.70	39.20	23.40	50.00	37.53
<i>Percentages</i>								
Discrete-point	83.63	37.51	100.00	73.71	86.97	43.02	100.00	76.66
Integrative	7.00	21.07	0.00	9.36	0.69	10.30	0.00	3.67
Translation	9.37	41.42	0.00	16.93	12.34	46.68	0.00	19.67
Total % of Items	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Receptive	68.00	28.39	100.00	65.46	82.88	31.01	100.00	71.30
Productive	22.63	30.19	0.00	17.61	4.79	22.31	0.00	9.03
Translation	9.37	41.42	0.00	16.93	12.34	46.68	0.00	19.67
Total % of Items	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Passage-dependent	60.48	68.39	23.73	50.87	76.96	83.78	42.00	67.58
Passage-independent	39.52	31.61	76.27	49.13	23.04	16.22	58.00	32.42
Total % of Items	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

* Data of 1994 exams are obtained from Brown and Yamashita (1995b, p. 96)

Note: All statistics for Private and Public universities as well as total are averages.

ing passages, most of which were very difficult even for native speakers of English, according to the readability indexes used in this study. As Brown and Yamashita (1995b, p. 97) state, "the ability of a given student to answer these questions will depend to some degree on high level language that is perhaps above the level of the simplified texts that are often used for pedagogical purposes in Japan." Requiring such high reading abilities for students who are just graduating from high school seems not to be ideal and probably should be avoided.

Second, given the item variety on the exams, "test-wiseness, or the ability to take tests in general, may be as important, or even more important, than the student's actual proficiency in English" (Brown & Yamashita, 1995b, p. 97). This observation remains true for this study. For instance, in many translation tasks, I have observed that students need to translate English to Japanese using a passage of a certain length in Japanese to be successful in answering. To meet the test-makers' expectations, students probably need to know certain translation skills to construct carefully crafted pieces in Japanese. This may lead to problems of validity in that test-taking ability, rather than English proficiency, is being measured.

Third, while translation items were still abundant in the twenty 2004 examinations, only three private universities (Aoyama, Kyoto UFS, and Tsuda) and four public universities (Hitotsubashi, Hokkaido, Tokyo, and Tokyo UFS) included listening items. Since *Mombukagakusho* guidelines (2003) heavily promote aural/oral communication skills, more universities probably need to consider incorporating more listening items into their examinations. However, the situation is slowly changing. In 2006, the Center examination began to include listening comprehension items (National Center for University Entrance Examinations, 2004). Out of 329 the CD-ROM included, 70 examinations (approximately 21%) included listening components.

Why haven't the entrance examinations for some prestigious universities changed very much in the last ten years? First, English departments, most of which are actually in larger literature divisions at private universities, may want to use test items such as translation more than other departments. Second, because the universities chosen for inclusion in this study are prestigious, they probably have not considered changing the format because of little perceived need to attract more applicants. They may still feel immune to the changes in the college-student demographic that universities of lower status are already facing head-on. Nevertheless, as in the case of the listening components now used at many universities, it seems that we can expect a slow pace of change in other areas of en-

trance examinations. Ideally, the tests will also include more productive items not based on difficult reading passages.

Both the current study and Brown and Yamashita (1995a, 1995b) focused exclusively on examinations given to applicants planning to major in English at prestigious universities. It may be that major changes are underway regarding examinations for non-English majors at these and other universities. For example, it may be worthwhile to examine tests for applicants to majors related to international studies at different universities. Several areas suggest themselves for further research in the near future: (a) examining entrance examinations for different majors and/or at different universities, possibly a larger number thereof; (b) assessing vocabulary levels used in the reading passages; (c) examining the topics used; and (d) considering the valid categorization of test items, which could produce an analysis of the variety of test items along different dimensions. Readability indexes do not analyze the level of difficulty for vocabulary items or qualities such as abstractness that make reading passages complicated. Although the readability indexes used in this study did not reveal major differences, future studies using different approaches may uncover substantial differences between entrance examinations. In addition, it would be worthwhile to use a different system of categorizing items in order to investigate their complexity.

While examining numerous books published to prepare students for competitive entrance examinations, I found that cram schools (*jukus*) label reading passages in terms of difficulty, for instance, "easy," "fairly easy," "difficult," or "very difficult." Furthermore, I often found that they even comment to students that the tests are getting easier or more difficult each year, although I could not find any explanation of how they analyze them. They also comment on the vocabulary levels or categorization of test items. Consulting experts in the test-preparation field would provide greater insight.

Finally, I hope that this study, as well as Brown and Yamashita's (1995a, 1995b), can become a catalyst for studies on the changes in university entrance examinations in Japan. While this study serves simply to replicate Brown and Yamashita (1995a, 1995b), I hope that future studies can develop alternative approaches to analyzing entrance examinations from different perspectives.

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Reviews

Applied Linguistics and Language Teacher Education. Nat Bartels (Ed). New York: Springer Science and Business Media, Inc. 2005. xii + 430 pp.

Reviewed by

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Applied Linguistics and Language Teacher Education, edited by Nat Bartels, is the fourth volume in the innovative new Educational Linguistics series from Springer Science and Business Media, Inc. Bartels presents 21 studies along with his own introductory and summarizing chapters. The studies examine language teachers' classroom use of knowledge about language, or KAL, in a variety of contexts. Applied linguists, language teacher educators, and MA TESOL program administrators will be particularly interested.

Among the issues that the book raises is the familiar question of how much technical knowledge of grammar a language teacher needs—and whether explicit grammatical explanations are more useful to second language learners than a more communicative approach. While the authors of the studies do not agree on this issue, the studies overwhelmingly show that teacher education programs must make obvious and direct connections between theoretical concepts about language and concrete lesson planning and teaching. A closer look at two of the articles will illustrate this point.

The study in chapter 9, "Relevance of knowledge of second language acquisition: An in-depth case study of a nonnative EFL teacher," is written by Yi-Hsuan Gloria Lo of the National Penghu Institute of Technology in Taiwan. Noting that approximately 40% of students enrolled in MA TESOL programs in North America, Britain, and Australia are nonnative English speakers, Lo investigates how these nonnative EFL teachers approach second language acquisition (SLA) courses. She further asks what the knowledge of SLA means to nonnative EFL teachers when they return to their home countries to teach.

Lo interviewed a Taiwanese EFL teacher enrolled in an American MA TESOL program and her SLA instructor. Briefly, Lo found that the theoretical orientations between the EFL teacher and her instructor were significantly mismatched. The nonnative EFL teacher felt alienated and resisted her teacher's way of thinking. The EFL teacher wanted to improve her ability to help her students communicate in English. Studying SLA, an expensive and time-consuming endeavor, however, helped her teaching very little when she returned to Taiwan. For the instructor, SLA courses were not about teaching. She saw her job as sharing the results of laboratory-based SLA research. The philosophical discrepancy between the EFL teacher and her instructor should be of concern to all those who take SLA courses and all those who teach them.

Another exemplary study in this collection is found in chapter 19, "Experience, knowledge about language, and classroom experience in teaching grammar," by Simon Borg of the University of Leeds in the United Kingdom. Borg looked closely at the KAL of two EFL teachers to determine its development and its impact on the teachers' grammar teaching practices. Among Borg's key findings is the crucial point that teachers do need KAL to facilitate their teaching. Even if teachers opt for a subtle, nonexplicit, "grammar-lite" communicative style in their classrooms, their teaching will still benefit from a more enriched sense of how language works. Borg underscores the point made by the EFL teacher in Lo's study—that KAL must be made more pedagogically relevant in teacher education.

The overall impression these studies make is that MA TESOL faculty and administrators must make their applied linguistics courses relevant to the daily classroom context. Some applied linguists may maintain that the "language laboratory" and the classroom are distinct arenas serving different enterprises. Yet, if applied linguistics material is to describe, explain, or predict what is happening in language classrooms, greater effort must be made to make SLA research meaningful and contextualized. Finally, it appears that this volume was rushed to press as there are a surprising number of typographical and editorial errors throughout. Despite this flaw, *Applied Linguistics and Language Teacher Education* is an interesting and important collection of studies. It deserves the attention of MA TESOL faculty and administrators.

***Controversies in Second Language Writing.* Christine Pearson Casanave. Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press, 2004. xi + 245 pp.**

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As the title implies, this volume is not a cookbook full of classroom recipes: it covers perennial areas of contention in the field of L2 writing instruction. The book provides readers a lens through which to bring their beliefs into sharper focus so that they can better define their personal philosophy of teaching writing. The author's approach is grounded in the idea that no two teachers face identical challenges, and therefore no one prescription can be applied universally. Only teachers can determine what works best for their teaching context.

A more apt title might be "An Introduction to Controversies in Second Language Writing." Experienced researchers will probably find little new, but practitioners with some background in writing instruction will discover the work a useful starting point for developing an informed approach to writing pedagogy. Casanave's presentation of arguments and counterarguments will prompt thoughtful readers to question their own assumptions and reexamine day-to-day classroom routine. For instance, though most teachers presume error correction to be indispensable, the author points out that scant evidence exists that correction effects improvement in student writing.

Its claims to the contrary notwithstanding, the book may not be suitable for teachers about to venture into the writing classroom for the first time. The author devotes more time to raising questions than answering them and offers little guidance for handling a first writing course. While veteran writing teachers can reflect on their own practices and choices as they read *Controversies*, novices, with no context or experience, can only speculate about how the issues apply to the writing classroom.

Except for a slight departure in chapter 1, each of the six chapters follows the same format. It opens with quotations from prominent voices representative of the positions in the controversy or controversies to be discussed. A short set of "Leading Questions" tells readers what to keep in mind as they go through the chapter and to answer for themselves when they have finished. The section "Introduction to the Issues" pro-

vides just that. Next, "Discussions in the Literature" refines the debate with arguments linked to research findings. "Classroom Perspectives" considers the issues within a more practical framework. The "Ongoing Questions" section recapitulates the salient issues in the chapter and includes questions that may never have satisfactory final answers. "Beliefs and Practices" invites readers to ponder the controversies in terms of their own teaching contexts. Each chapter ends with several pages of "References and Relevant Readings" for those wishing to investigate the issue further.

Chapter 1, "Beliefs and Realities: A Framework for Decision Making," conveys the importance of developing a philosophy of writing pedagogy, the challenges of formulating an approach, and a brief history of the author's personal struggles as a writing teacher. Chapter 2, "Contrastive Rhetoric," (CR) centers on the seminal Kaplan (1966) article that proclaimed that each culture has a unique structure for its written discourse and that these disparities are a source of difficulty for L2 writers. It summarizes the arguments offered by proponents of CR, as well as the criticism that has been leveled at Kaplan's claims. Chapter 3, "Paths to Improvement," investigates the tug-of-war between fluency and accuracy, the product versus process debate, and the value (and validity) of error correction. Chapter 4, "Assessment," covers the matters of grading writing work consistently and accurately, a task fraught with the problems of rater subjectivity and the elusiveness of a precise definition of good writing. Chapter 5, "Interaction," addresses issues of audience and plagiarism, the latter a growing concern as electronic sources become more available to students. This chapter also discusses the underlying cultural biases of the concept of plagiarism. Chapter 6, "Politics and Ideology," considers the social ramifications of writing classes and teachers, the needs of students, and the role of technology in writing pedagogy.

The prose is lucid, and is obviously written by someone engaged by the subject matter and attentive to the needs of the nonacademic reader. The author provides an abundance of references, an indication that her views are thoroughly predicated on academic evidence, but eschews the dry style typical of this subject matter. She brings concepts to life by injecting anecdotes, some autobiographical, of how challenges in the writing classroom have been addressed (but not resolved).

The author labels problems that writing teachers face "dilemmas," to which there are no perfect solutions, but only "'good enough' compromises." No book is perfect for all teachers, but Casanave has made judicious choices in hers.

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***Task-based Instruction in Foreign Language Education: Practices and Programs.* Betty Lou Leaver & Jane R. Willis (Eds.). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press, 2004. vi + 336 pp.**

Reviewed by,

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In the preface to *Task-Based Instruction in Foreign Language Education: Practices and Programs*, the editors state that it is hoped that this book will serve “as a practical resource of real-life TBI [Task-Based Instruction] experience for language teachers who want to add more task-based instruction to their own classrooms.” This book is divided into four parts: an overview of TBI, TBI in the classroom, Internet tasks, and assessing tasks and teacher development. Part 1 focuses on explaining the principles of TBI, classifying different types of tasks, and concludes with Willis’ framework for TBI. Part 2 (the largest in the book), TBI in classroom instruction, offers several glimpses of TBI implemented in a variety of classroom contexts. Each glimpse focuses on a school (ranging from government-sponsored language programs to universities to private language schools) that is trying to initiate systemic change through the adoption of a new teaching methodology (in this case, TBI). Part 3 describes web-based applications of TBI, including chatting, designing a website, and using language software. Finally, part 4 includes a detailed account on how to assess tasks, and offers an example of a teacher development program.

One encouraging element of this book is the overview given to tasks in the first chapter. Willis provides the theoretical background of TBI and

then sketches a broad outline of the many dimensions of tasks. Areas such as the roles of input and output, defining a task, classifying tasks, assessing tasks, creating a syllabus, and recommendations on best practices give the reader both a theoretical and practical footing in task discourse. Perhaps the one drawback is that Willis' own framework for TBI methodology receives little attention in the various language program case studies (in part 2).

Another useful feature of this book is the depth with which the various case studies examine language programs. The scope of detail regarding each language program's history, student needs, and theoretical orientation is extensive. For administrators and department heads (or even regular teachers hoping to initiate change), this book provides the details needed to develop an accurate course of action. Even more valuable than these blueprints for success is the inspiring tone behind these accounts. Reading account after account of successfully implemented change, will move you to consider modifying your own methodology and practices. Inspiring and catalyzing change was one of the stated goals of the editors in the preface, and in this regard, the book succeeds.

Finally, also praiseworthy is the focus in the final two parts on the Internet and teacher development. Resources that examine the Internet's effect upon TBI are limited, so this book should be commended for offering a rare and important perspective. Furthermore, too often it seems that teacher motivation is taken for granted as enduring. The book's final chapter rightly acknowledges that this is sometimes not the case. This chapter offers some good insights that all teachers (not just practitioners of TBI) can use to keep performance strong and motivation high (particularly the suggestion for classroom observations).

While the book succeeds in providing accounts of successful language programs at various universities, English schools, and government programs, its depth as a practical resource for TBI is lacking. One reason is a lack of focus. From the outset, there appears to be a lack of depth in examining both tasks and task-based methodology. While there are many interesting tasks mentioned, it is difficult to envisage exactly how they were implemented; pretasks are rarely explained, tasks are not contextualized within a lesson, and specifics about time, teacher assistance, and student problem areas are ignored. Moreover, a majority of the tasks cited have been designed for high-intermediate (or advanced) learners. Further, many of the schools examined in the case studies seem to enjoy teaching environments unavailable to most language teachers in Japan. Instances of students going to the supermarket and airport, having guest

native speakers visit class to do an extensive assessment every three weeks, and immersion in the target culture are not options available to many teachers in an EFL setting. In the preface, it is claimed that this book aims to serve as a practical real-life resource with examples of TBI in a wide range of settings, however this is a bit of a misrepresentation. The examples, while varied in some respects (like geography or age of students), are very narrow in their view of student proficiency. As a result, the book fails as a practical real-life resource for any teacher with less than high-intermediate/advanced students.

Another underexplored element to this book was its examination of task-based teaching methodologies, particularly since Willis has proposed a fairly well-known TBI framework (1996). In the opening part of the book, Willis mentions her framework (pretask; a task-cycle of task, planning, and report; and a language focus of analysis and practice) and claims that many contributors to the book follow a similar framework: "most contributors to this volume appear to use a three-phase task cycle" (p. 37). However, of the seven chronicled schools, only one uses a TBI framework that resembles Willis' (the school described in Chapter 4). Many of the others openly refer to practice activities conducted before the main task. As such, these schools seem more aligned with that often maligned rival of TBI, Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP). One teacher went so far as to claim that TBI allowed for an amalgam of methodologies that she had encountered in nearly 40 years of teaching (including audiolingualism!). Suffice it to say, there is not much adherence in this text to Willis' framework (or any other purely task-based methodology). In fairness, one aim of the book is "to illustrate a range of foreign language teaching contexts and TBI methods" (p. 40). However, to admonish methodologies that "predispose learners to a display of language" (p. 18) but then to include so many examples in which practices lead up to a task (or production) seems a bit contradictory. Anyone still not convinced that Willis' task-based methodology is superior to PPP will likely be left feeling as if Willis has sidestepped an honest evaluation of her proposed methodology and co-opted some of the principles of PPP.

This book excels in certain areas, most of which deal with general teaching principles (language program overviews, implementing change, teacher development), yet misses the mark on TBI, its intended focus. Tasks are only referred to superficially, and a detailed examination of TBI methodologies is almost entirely lacking. If you're interested in initiating change in your school's language program, this book may be worth read-

ing, but if you're looking for insights on TBI or validation of Willis' TBI framework, you'd be better served by picking up Willis' *A Framework for Task-Based learning* (1996).

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Willis, J. (1996). *A framework for task-based learning*. Harlow, U.K.: Pearson Education.

***Language and Society in Japan*. Nanette Gottlieb.
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005. ix +169 pp.**

Reviewed by
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To say Nanette Gottlieb's *Language and Society in Japan* fills a gap in the literature would be an understatement. The field of Japanese studies has long been waiting for a book that takes a more sociological, rather than a purely linguistic, look at the Japanese language. Gottlieb deals with the issues affecting language in Japanese society: nationalism, identity, multilingualism, technology, and globalization; and by doing so brings the reader closer to an understanding of the roles and functions of language in Japan today.

In the first of its seven chapters, Gottlieb begins by describing what the Japanese language *is*, based on who speaks it (men, women, migrants, foreign learners) and what kind of Japanese they speak (standard, dialectal, honorific, gender specific). This is distinct from the usual descriptions that begin with formalistic explanations of Japanese's grammatical structure, often suggesting that the population of Japanese language speakers is completely unified in the way they use Japanese. The book is also nontraditional in its inclusion of *nihongo* (Japanese as a foreign language, as opposed to *kokugo*, the "native" Japanese used by the Japanese) and subcultural variants of Japanese such as the speech used by high school girls as bona fide Japanese language.

In the second chapter, the theme of language diversity in Japan is addressed. Again Gottlieb opposes the oft-quoted *nihonjinron* maxim about

the homogeneity of Japanese society and language and looks at the use and influence of minority languages such as Chinese, Korean, and even Okinawan and Ainu. She also looks at the ever-increasing influence of English as a foreign language in Japan, emphasizing its hegemonic power in the sphere of foreign language learning policy.

The third and fourth chapters examine the connections between language and national and cultural identity. Gottlieb explains how Japanese people past and present have related the Japanese language to what it means to be Japanese. She then goes on to show how these notions of language and identity have contributed to the construction of the government's language policy. Gottlieb contends that Japan is in a state of transition, moving from having a strong connection between nationalism and language to having a greater recognition of foreign and minority languages that are functioning within the Japanese society. Her claims that Japan is on the cusp of a "substantial shift in mindset" towards foreign languages, and that we will very soon see a "surge of language awareness and capability unlike any ever seen before" are sure to stir debate among the foreign language teaching and policy-making fraternity in Japan.

In chapter 5, the riddle of the "inordinately complex" Japanese writing system is unraveled. Its structure is broken down and issues relating to its use are discussed: how it is learnt, what people read, what are the perceptions of language use related to reading and writing. Chapter 6 is a description of the discriminatory language that has been directed towards minority groups in Japan, while chapter 7 illustrates how the development of word-processing software has transformed the reading and writing habits of a society in which, up until about twenty years ago, "most office documents and all personal documents were still written by hand."

The book concludes with a prediction of how the Japanese language may evolve in the future, particularly in relation to its potential for becoming a "global language." Gottlieb introduces some interesting points for the reader to ponder. Considering the major changes in the language that have occurred over the last century, the one sure point the author leaves us with is that this period of linguistic evolution is far from over. Japanese will surely continue its metamorphosis as it adapts to the changes in global language use over the ensuing decades.

In *Language and Society in Japan* Gottlieb drags Japanese sociolinguistics out of the seventies and into the new millennium, at last bringing ideas

that have already gained credence in the society at large into this most conservative of research fields. What Gottlieb has put to page is both eloquently reasoned and well written. However, the relative weight she gives to some themes discussed in the book is sometimes confounding. The chapter on discriminatory language mostly examines the social discrimination against various minority groups in Japan. In a book dealing with language, this focusing on a social issue seemed out of place. A summary of the information from this chapter may have best been included in chapters 3 and 4, relating to language and identity. On the other hand, while acknowledging the importance of the influence of English on language use in Japan, she denies the topic its own chapter. In other chapters, Gottlieb discusses English-language learning policy but does not go into much detail as to how the English language is affecting Japanese society. In a globalizing era marked by English pervading every facet of all major language groups, this seemed amiss.

While academic in its writing style, *Language and Society in Japan* is, at the same time, very readable and easy to understand for the layperson, making it accessible to anyone who has an interest in the book's topic material. The thorough referencing, as well as the inclusion of a list of useful websites and journals, also makes this a great book for anyone embarking on further research into the study of language use in Japan.

Information for Contributors

All submissions must conform to *JALT Journal* Editorial Policy and Guidelines.

Editorial Policy

JALT Journal, the refereed research journal of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (*Zenkoku Gogaku Kyoiku Gakkai*), invites practical and theoretical articles and research reports on second and foreign language teaching and learning in Japanese and Asian contexts. Submissions from other international contexts are accepted if applicable to language teaching in Japan. Areas of particular interest are:

1. Curriculum design and teaching methods
2. Classroom-centered research
3. Cross-cultural studies
4. Testing and evaluation
5. Teacher training
6. Language learning and acquisition
7. Overviews of research and practice in related fields

The editors encourage submissions in five categories: (1) full-length articles, (2) short research reports (*Research Forum*), (3) essays on language education or reports of pedagogical techniques which are framed in theory and supported by descriptive or empirical data (*Perspectives*), (4) book and media reviews (*Reviews*), and (5) comments on previously published *JALT Journal* articles (*Point to Point*). Articles should be written for a general audience of language educators; therefore statistical techniques and specialized terms must be clearly explained.

Guidelines

Style

The *JALT Journal* follows the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 5th edition (available from APA Order Department, P.O. Box 2710, Hyattsville, MD 20784, USA; by e-mail: <order@apa.org>; from the website: <<http://www.apa.org/books.ordering.html>>). Consult recent copies of *JALT Journal* or *TESOL Quarterly* for examples of documentation and references. A downloadable copy of the *JALT Journal* style sheet is also available on our website at <<http://www.jalt-publications.org/jj/>>.

Format

Full-length articles must not be more than 20 pages in length (6,000 words), including references, notes, tables, and figures. *Research Forum* submissions should be not more than 10 pages in length. *Perspectives* submissions should not be more than 15 pages in length. *Point to Point* comments on previously published articles should not be more than 675 words in length, and *Reviews* should generally range from 500 to 750 words. All submissions must be typed and double-spaced on A4 or 8.5" x 11" paper with line spacing set at 1.5 lines. The author's name and identifying references should appear only on the cover sheet. Authors are responsible for the accuracy of references and reference citations.

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Materials should be sent as an e-mail attachment in Rich Text Format (preferred) or post. Postal submissions must include a clearly labeled floppy disk or CD-ROM and one printed copy. Please submit materials to the appropriate editor indicated below.

Materials to be submitted— all of this can be sent by e-mail in one attached RTF file (preferred) or by post. If by post, be sure to include all of the material on a floppy disk.

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3. Contact information sheet, including one author's full address and, where available, a fax number and e-mail address.
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Papers submitted to *JALT Journal* must not have been previously published, nor should they be under consideration for publication elsewhere. *JALT Journal* has First World Publication Rights, as defined by International Copyright Conventions, for all manuscripts published. We regret that manuscripts or computer disks cannot be returned. In the interest of facilitating clarity, the editors reserve the right to make editorial changes to accepted manuscripts.

Full-Length Submissions, Research Forum, and Point to Point Submissions

Please send submissions in these categories or general inquiries to:

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jj-editor2@jalt-publications.org

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Reviews

The editors invite reviews of books, tests, teaching systems, and other publications in the field of language education. A list of publications that have been sent to JALT for review is published monthly in *The Language Teacher*. Please send submissions, queries, or requests for books, materials, and review guidelines to:

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日本語論文投稿要領

JALT Journalでは日本語で執筆された論文、研究報告、実践報告、書評等を募集しています。文体:一般的な学術論文のスタイルを用い、章立ての仕方や参考文献のデータの書き方などは、*Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (5th ed.)*の定める方式に合わせて下さい。不明の場合は、JALT Journalの英語論文を参考に するか、日本語編集者までお問い合わせ下さい。なお、JALT Journalの読者は現場の 教師が主なので、特殊な専門用語や統計的手法は、わかりやすく定義するか説明を加えるなどして下さい。原稿: 長さは、参考文献リストも含め18,000字(書評の場合は 1,500字)以内です。A4の用紙に横書きで、1行40字、1ページ30行で印刷して下さい。手書きの原稿は受け付けません。図表をいれる場合は、JALT Journalのページの サイズに合わせて作成して下さい(縮小コピー可)。執筆者の名前や所属機関名は、原稿には書かないで下さい。

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- 400字以内の和文要旨
- 英文のタイトルと、500~750語の英文要旨(書評の場合は100語程度の英文要旨)
- 100字以内の執筆者略歴
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