

Japan Association for Language Teaching

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Japan Association for Language Teaching

A Nonprofit Organization

The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) is a nonprofit professional organization dedicated to the improvement of language teaching and learning in Japan. It provides a forum for the exchange of new ideas and techniques and a means of keeping informed about developments in the rapidly changing field of second and foreign language education. Established in 1976, JALT serves an international membership of approximately 3,000 language teachers. There are 34 JALT chapters in Japan, along with 17 special interest groups (SIGs), and one forming chapter. 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 some 1,600 participants annually and offers over 300 papers, workshops, colloquia, and poster sessions. Each JALT chapter holds local meetings and JALT's 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 automatic assignment to the nearest chapter or the chapter you prefer to join, 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 five articles, each of which addresses issues of attitude, perception, and belief, though of course focusing on quite different topics. The three feature articles in English emphasize teacher experience in preuniversity instructional settings, while the two Japanese-language articles explore aspects of student motivation and attitude. First, **Yuko Goto Butler** considers the widespread—if theoretically dubious—practice of preferring, and hiring, native speakers as the best people to teach language, regardless of their training, expertise, or professional experience. Next, **Keiko Sakui**'s study looks at obstacles to classroom management that stem from the mandated introduction of communicative language activities into the traditional Japanese classroom. Third, **Tanaka Hiroaki** and **Hiromori Tomohito** explore the question of how intrinsic motivation can be enhanced among Japanese language learners. In the next article, drawing on JSL e-mails, **Fujita Yuuko** discusses an approach to understanding language learners through attitude constructs. Finally, **Yuka Kurihara** and **Keiko Samimy** report on how teachers' beliefs and practices are influenced by participation in overseas training programs.

Interview

Deryn P. Verity interviews James P. Lantolf, a leading sociocultural theorist and Vygotskian scholar.

Reviews

In this issue we have seven book reviews. In the first one, **Justin Charlebois** reports on a book that examines the challenges female Japanese professors face in U.S. university classrooms. Next, **Michael Thomas** reports on a timely edited volume on language learning and study abroad programs. The third review, by **Gregory P. Glasgow**, is on another edited volume that reports on interlanguage pragmatics research conducted in institutional settings. Next, **Christian Perry** reports on an addition to the Michigan Series on Teaching Multilingual Writers which addresses the complementary nature of reading and writing in language learning. In our fifth review, **Nicolas A. Gromik** examines an edited volume on

CALL research methods. Next, **Stella Yamazaki** and **Tatsuroh Yamazaki** report on a book on Graeco–Latin roots and their influence on English. Finally, **Jesús García Laborda** reports on an introductory text in the field of Psycholinguistics.

From the Editors

This issue of the *JALT Journal* sees some long-term volunteers leaving. We must say goodbye to Carolyn Ashizawa, a long-time proofreader and Deryn Verity, Associate Editor. Speaking for JALT, I want to thank you both for the time and energy you have so faithfully donated. I have asked Deryn to write the rest of this issue's *From the Editors*:

—Steve Cornwell

The world of print journalism is changing everywhere, as the Web and telecommunications reduce the news cycle to a matter of minutes. People today hardly read books, much less newspapers. Blogs, websites, RSS feeds, and podcasts have become the norm; ink on paper seems almost quaint. But even as the ivory tower must come to grips with the choices and challenges of electronic publication, it may be good to recognize the benefits of the slower, more ruminative world of the academic journal. Working on the *JALT Journal* gives us the invaluable chance to get to know, one by one and text by text, people in the research community all over Japan. We are repeatedly impressed both by the quality of the articles that are submitted to the Journal, and the dedication and diligence shown by our reviewers. Good writing takes time, and here at the *JJ* we have the luxury of not having to keep up with the breakneck speed of the outside world. Our work demands patience rather than haste, accuracy rather than action. To the occasional frustration of our authors, our publication cycle is relatively long, as *JJ* reviewers invest a lot of time into every manuscript they look at. The mentoring that we can thus provide to aspiring, and experienced, writers is impressive. There is true dialogue among writers, editors, reviewers, and readers.

As a Vygotskian, I am committed to seeing development as inherently dialogical. As an editor, I am grateful for being included in this dialogue over the past three years. My understanding of language-related research in Japan has grown enormously, thanks to insights of colleagues from all over the country—writers, reviewers, fellow editors, proofreaders, and, especially, my Editor-in-Chief, Steve Cornwell. It has been a true pleasure to make this small contribution to language teaching, research, profes-

sional development, teacher education, and the maintenance of a truly collegial community.

We will close by offering a special thanks to all the editorial board members, additional readers, proofreaders, and other volunteers who help make the *JALT Journal* what it is. We cannot thank you enough.

—Deryn P. Verity

Upcoming Conferences

A more complete listing is available on the JALT Forums' conference board at: <forums.jalt.org/index.php?board=3.0>

The 6th Annual JALT Pan-SIG Conference 2007: Second Language Acquisition: Theory and Pedagogy

Tohoku Bunka Gakuen University, Sendai

May 12-13, 2007

If you read this in time and hurry, you still may have time to make time to attend this conference.

College and University Educators SIG Mini-Conference: Promoting Life-long Learning

Sugiyama Jogakuen University

June 23-24, 2007

Symposium on Second Language Writing: Second Language Writing in the Pacific Rim

Nagoya Gakuin University, Nagoya

September 15-17, 2007

This is a great opportunity to attend this biennial conference, which is usually held at Purdue University in the U.S.

The Independent Learning Association 2007 Japan Conference: Exploring Theory, Enhancing Practice: Autonomy across the Disciplines

Kanda University of International Studies

October 5-9, 2007

For an introduction to the ideas of one of the keynote speakers at this conference, see the interview with James P. Lantolf in this issue.

**The 33rd International JALT Conference: Challenging Assumptions:
Looking In, Looking Out**

National Olympics Memorial Youth Center, Tokyo

November 22-25, 2007

If you are interested in professional development, networking, and/or just having a good time interacting with other teachers, you will not want to miss this conference.

Articles

Factors associated with the notion that native speakers are the ideal language teachers: An examination of elementary school teachers in Japan

Yuko Goto Butler
University of Pennsylvania

Recently, there have been a number of studies focusing on the qualifications of native and nonnative language teachers. The notion that native speakers constitute the ideal language teachers appears to be widespread among teachers and students. This concept has been particularly influential in English teaching, although its validity has been questioned. This study aims to identify perceptual factors that are most likely to be associated with the notion held among many nonnative English-speaking teachers in East Asia that native English speakers are the ideal language teachers. This study focuses on Japanese elementary school teachers who have been asked to introduce English activities in their classes. Based on a detailed questionnaire, completed by 112 Japanese elementary school teachers, a number of perceptual factors were identified. These include: (a) their self-assessed English proficiency levels, (b) their attitudes towards nonstandard forms of English, and (c) their sense of pride in their own language and cultural heritage.

近頃、ネイティブ、ノン・ネイティブの教師の資質に関する議論が多くなされている。ネイティブ・スピーカーが理想の語学教師であるという考えは、教師や学生の間で広く浸透しているようだ。この考えは、英語指導に影響を及ぼしてきたといわれるが、その妥当性は疑問視されている。本研究は、英語を教える東アジアのノン・ネイティブ教師の間で、どのような認知要因が、ネイティブ・スピーカーが理想の語学教師であるとする考えに結びついているのかを見極めることを目的としている。本研究では、最近英語活動を行

うことになった日本の小学校教師をケースとしてとりあげた。112名の小学校教師に記入してもらったアンケート調査の結果より (1) 自己評価による英語力のレベル、(2) スタンダードではない英語に対する態度、(3) 自らの言語 (日本語) や伝統文化に対するプライドの3つの要因が、ネイティブ・スピーカーが理想の語学教師であるという考えに結びついていることがわかった。

Through English activities, what we need to teach to our students is how much fun communication is. ALTs (*Assistant Language Teachers, namely native English speakers in this context*) are so much better at explaining things to our students than we are. They are good at talking. Because they are masters of dialogue under the Socrates tradition. . . they are good at talking, communicating. . . unlike us Japanese. That's why students can learn that communication is fun through communicating with ALTs. (A male 6th grade teacher, Japan, July 2003, original in Japanese, italics added by author)

There has been a heated debate over the relative qualifications of native speakers (NS) and nonnative speakers (NNS) as language teachers. Many observers feel that the notion that NSs are ideal as language teachers has had a substantial influence on English teaching pedagogy and the recruitment of teachers (Braine, 1999; Cook, 1999). At the same time, as we will see below, the validity of this notion, both linguistically and pedagogically, has been questioned in recent studies. Phillipson (1992) sees the notion that NSs are "ideal teachers" or "better qualified" than nonnative teachers as false, and has labeled this notion the "native speaker fallacy" (pp. 193-194). The present study aims to examine if this notion exists among elementary school teachers in an English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) context and to identify what perceptual factors are most likely to be associated with these notions.

The idea that native speakers are ideal language teachers

The validity of the idea that NSs are the ideal language teachers has been challenged in applied linguistics literature. Linguistically, it is not clear what constitutes a "native speaker" in the first place. Chomsky's (1965) notion of a native speaker, namely, an "ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly" (p. 3), is considered as being at "the heart of the discourse that promotes the superiority of the native speaker teachers" (Canagarajah, 1999, p. 78). However, such an idealized abstraction does not reflect reality (Braine, 2004). Davies (2003) defines NSs as those who acquire a

given language in childhood, have intuitive knowledge about the language, have control over the language, and have a special ability to use the language creatively. But he considers the identification of NSs as essentially a matter of self-description. Kachru and Nelson (1996) see the labeling of individuals as NSs and NNSs as problematic in and of itself, because such labeling is inevitably value laden and subject to individual attitudes towards what these concepts mean. According to Brutt-Griffler and Samimy (2002), the construct of nativeness itself is "a non-elective socially constructed identity rather than a linguistic category" (p. 100).

While Medgyes (2001) considers NSs and NNSs to be mutually exclusive entities ("two different species" according to Medgyes [p. 434]), the dichotomy of NSs and NNSs also has been the subject of criticism. Cook (1999, 2005), for example, indicates that L2 users are qualitatively different from monolingual L1 users in their knowledge and processing of L1 and L2, and that they should be considered as multicompetent language users in their own right "rather than as deficient native speakers" (1999, p. 185). Rampton (1990) argues that nativeness is neither static nor inherited, and suggests that one should focus on understanding the concepts of language expertise and language loyalty instead of nativeness. Recent studies on NS-NNS interaction also have indicated that expertise is context dependent and is subject to change at any minute during the course of interaction (Hosoda, 2006; Kurhila, 2001, 2004).

The notion that NSs are the ideal language teachers has also been questioned from a pedagogical point of view. Widdowson (1994) argues that NS teachers have an advantage in the "context of language use" but not necessarily in the "context of language learning" (p. 387). Medgyes (1992), while maintaining that NS teachers have an advantage because of their high proficiency in the target language, argues that NNS teachers also have an advantage in serving as a good learning model. He also argues that NNS teachers, in addition to speaking the learners' L1, are able to share the difficulties they experienced and their learning strategies with learners. Liu (1999) finds that the advantages and disadvantages of NS and NNS teachers are complex and context dependent. Furthermore, Astor (2000) argues that there are no scientific grounds to distinguish NS and NNS language teachers; instead he argues that differences among language teachers exist in their levels of professionalism (defined as the possession of knowledge of pedagogy, methodology, and psycho-/applied linguistics), but not in their nativeness.

Despite the lack of linguistic and pedagogic evidence needed to validate the notion that NSs are the ideal language teachers, the native model

has “remained firmly entrenched in language teaching and SLA research” (Cook, 1999, p. 188). The term *native speakers*, despite the ambiguities in its meaning, as discussed in the literature, is widely used in daily discourse in relation to teachers’ qualifications. We often find references to native speakers in media, advertisements (such as for conversational English schools), job descriptions, and various other types of documents in many regions (Cook, 2005). And indeed, a number of reports have indicated cases where teachers and learners themselves are beholden to the notion that NSs are ideal language teachers (e.g., Amin, 1997; Tang, 1997). This also has been found to be the case among learners’ parents (Takada, 2000) and administrators of English language programs (Mahboob, Uhrig, Newman, & Hartford, 2004).

However, support for the notion that native speakers possess an advantage as language teachers appears to differ among students and teachers depending on the learning/teaching context. Mahboob (2004), for example, did not find a strong preference for NS teachers among college-level ESL students. Mahboob suggests that students’ preferences towards NS teachers may possibly differ depending on instructional settings (ESL vs. EFL). Llurda and Huguet (2003) compared teachers’ perceptions at the elementary school and secondary school levels in Spain. They found different preferences among teachers within the EFL setting they examined. Elementary school teachers showed a stronger preference towards having NSs rather than NNSs as language teachers when compared with secondary school teachers. Such dissimilarities in preferences may be due to differences in program goals, teachers’ own proficiency levels, the level of proficiency needed to teach in a given context, and a number of other attitudinal factors towards the target language and language teaching.

The present study, therefore, aims to identify those perceptual variables that are related to the belief held among many teachers that NSs are the ideal language teachers. The study will examine the impact of variables such as the perceived goals of instruction, perceived proficiency, and various attitudinal factors. The present study focuses on a specific case in an EFL instructional setting; namely, the case of Japanese elementary school teachers who have recently been asked to introduce English activities in their classrooms.

English Teaching as a foreign language at the elementary school level

A growing number of countries, including East Asian countries such as China, South Korea, Japan, and Taiwan, have recently begun intro-

ducing English at the elementary school level in various forms. Such East Asian nations have been teaching English as a foreign language for a number of years (at the secondary level and beyond), but historically English has never been a major means of communication within their societies. As English has continued to grow in importance as a language of international communication, governments in East Asia have come to see English language education as an important factor in meeting their political, economic, and societal goals. This recognition recently led various East Asian states to introduce English at the elementary school level in order to improve the English proficiency of their citizens in general and their oral communication skills in particular.

In 2002 the government of Japan began to allow local governments and individual schools to introduce “Foreign Language Activities” at their discretion as part of the broader goal of developing international understanding. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science, and Technology (referred to as MEXT hereafter) indicated that as of 2004, 92% of elementary schools had already introduced some form of foreign language activities and that these had been conducted almost exclusively in English (MEXT, 2005). However, the type of English instruction and the number of hours varies significantly from school to school. The Japanese government currently does not offer standardized curricula, approved textbooks or materials, or comprehensive in-service teacher training to those teachers who are supposed to be responsible for conducting English activities.¹ Elementary school teachers are overwhelmingly homeroom teachers; they have been teaching multiple subjects and although they were asked to conduct English activities, they are not English language teachers by training. At some schools, Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) assist in teaching English activities. Japanese teachers of English include individuals who hold a teaching certificate in English at the secondary school level as well as individuals who have simply expressed an interest in teaching English at elementary schools and who are hired by local governments or individual schools to serve in various capacities. Many of the JTEs are novices when it comes to teaching English to elementary school students, and the number of qualified teachers still remains very low (Butler, 2005).

Native English speakers in English education in Japan

In order to assist elementary school teachers who are new to the English teaching profession, East Asian governments, including Japan,

have made plans to invite or are currently inviting a large number of native speakers to assist with teaching in elementary school classrooms. However, the purpose of hiring NSs and the benefits they might bring to English language education at the elementary school level in East Asian countries have yet to be clearly delineated. The qualifications that NSs must possess in order to be hired as English teachers also have yet to be clearly specified (Butler, 2005, in press-a).

Despite the lack of clear understanding regarding the role of NSs in English education at the elementary school level, the Japanese government plans to dramatically increase the number of NS teachers in classrooms in Japan. The Minister of Education stated in a July 2002 speech that his goal was to have one out of three English activities and lessons at the elementary school level taught by NSs of English, among schools that include English in the curriculum (MEXT, 2002a). According to a questionnaire about NSs that was distributed by MEXT to 350 elementary school vice principals in 2001, 84.5% of the respondents said they wished to increase the number of NSs at the elementary school level (MEXT, 2001a).

Japanese elementary schools that have chosen to introduce English into their curricula are aggressively recruiting NSs. It is estimated that as of 2004, 60% to 70% of such elementary schools were working with NSs in various capacities (MEXT, 2005). NSs are recruited at both the local government level as well as the national level. In addition, there are many private agencies that specialize in the placement of NSs, and such agencies also send NSs to schools upon request from local governments and/or individual schools. English-speaking individuals from local communities also may be invited to conduct English activities at certain schools. At the national level, the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) program is a government-organized program that has been recruiting foreign personnel to work in Japan as Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) since 1987 (McConnell, 2000). The JET program has an annual budget of approximately U.S. \$500 million and has begun sending some of its participants to elementary schools as well as to secondary schools.

The qualifications that such NSs hold, however, appear to vary greatly with respect to their education, teaching experience, and motivation for becoming teachers. Even among the ALTs in the JET program, which may well incorporate the most systematic recruitment of NSs in Japan, only 3% to 10% of the participants in the past few years were reported to have teaching certificates of any sort, not to mention TESOL certificates (Benoit, 2003). The demand for NSs has been increasing faster than the availability of qualified candidates, leading one selector for the JET program to

express his concern that the program ends up “getting some people with no talent for teaching and little real interest in Japan” (Stoffman, 1997).

Japanese elementary school teachers in general wish to work with NSs and MEXT encourages elementary school teachers to team teach English with NSs (MEXT, 2001b). However, it has also been reported that NSs’ lack of pedagogical qualifications and limited knowledge of the host culture and educational system could be a source of misunderstanding between NSs and local NNS teachers, thereby creating difficulties in working together (Kan, 2002). Homeroom teachers that work with NSs have often been observed to be either marginalized in the classroom or overly dependent on NSs during English activities (Butler, 2005; Matsukawa, 2001).

In observing six team teaching classes with Japanese homeroom teachers and NSs, Aline and Hosoda (2006) identified four roles that homeroom teachers play during team teaching. These are: (a) “bystander,” (b) “translator,” (c) “co-learners of English,” and (d) “co-teacher” (Aline & Hosoda, 2006, p. 5). While the patterns of interaction between homeroom teachers and NSs appear to be nonstatic and complicated, more attention needs to be paid to the ways in which Japanese homeroom teachers interact with NSs while conducting team teaching with NSs in order to improve their teaching, as the authors have suggested.

Not only Japanese teachers but also NSs themselves have reported some difficulties in effectively teaching English in Japan under the current system. This has been said to be partially due to their limited Japanese proficiency as well as Japanese teachers’ limited English proficiency. Another factor that has been mentioned is insufficient cultural training and social guidance for NSs working in Japan. Some former JET participants have requested that the government change the program to recruit only those who have relevant teaching certificates or to ensure that participants receive sufficient training in English teaching methodology along with Japanese language lessons upon arrival in Japan (CLAIR, 2005).

Given these circumstances, concern has been expressed over the extent to which NSs should be invited to teach in elementary school classrooms in Japan as well as over how best to utilize the resources they provide. Concerns also have been voiced regarding whether NNS elementary school teachers in Japan have sufficient English proficiency and knowledge of English teaching pedagogy to conduct English activities (Butler, 2004).

Research Questions

The research questions addressed in the present study are as follows: (Q1) Do Japanese elementary school teachers who conduct English activities believe that English is best taught by NSs?, and (Q2) What are the perceptual factors that are related to such beliefs (or lack thereof)?

One could expect Japanese elementary school teachers may be beholden to some degree to the notion that NSs are the ideal language teachers, even though the research community has questioned the validity of such a notion. In Japan, as in many other parts of the world, the term *native speaker* often appears in daily discourse in relation to teachers' qualifications. For example, a document sent by MEXT to elementary school teachers stated, "The ALT, *as a native speaker*, is a source of authentic English" (MEXT, 2001b, p. 137; italics added by the author). This is but one example of the messages that Japanese teachers receive in the course of their professional communications as well as through the broader media's use of such terms.

Since the notion of NSs is often associated with "ownership of the language" (Amin, 1997; Higgins, 2003; Norton, 1997), one may hypothesize that teachers' proficiency levels in the target language and their attitudes towards the target language and culture (as well as their attitudes towards their own language and culture) may be associated with the notion that English is best taught by NSs. One may also hypothesize that the role of NSs may vary depending on how high teachers set their goals for English language education in a particular context.

In previous research, questions concerning the notion that "native speakers are ideal teachers" have been operationalized differently: Although they may carry slightly different connotations, "NSs are better qualified as language teachers," "NSs are better language teachers," and "NSs had better be hired as language teachers rather than NNSs" have been utilized. Phillipson (1993) also used "NSs are the ideal teachers" and "NSs are better qualified than NNSs" interchangeably. The present study framed its questions around the notion of "At elementary schools, English is best taught by NSs" because this way of addressing the NS/NNS issue has more direct relevance to current English education policy at the elementary school level in Japan.

Method

Participants

Three questionnaires were distributed to elementary school teachers at two teacher training programs organized by private institutions in Tokyo and at a conference on elementary school English in Japan. All of these events were held in the summer of 2002. Since Japan had not yet officially introduced English as a required academic subject at the elementary school level, the data were collected from teachers who are working at schools that had chosen on their own to introduce English activities on a regular basis under the current system. In other words, the present data should not be assumed to be representative of all elementary school teachers in Japan. Rather, the sample consists of Japanese teachers who already have conducted English activities in various forms at their schools in urban areas.

Out of the 160 questionnaires distributed, 112 were returned, yielding a response rate of 65.9%. The majority of the participants were homeroom teachers, though responses from Japanese teachers of English (11.6% of the participants) were also included in the data. The majority of the teachers were female (77.7%) and 45.5% were in their 40s (with the rest being in their 20s and 30s). The frequency with which they taught English or conducted other English classroom activities was as follows: 28.6% of them taught a 40-minute lesson once per week or a 20-minute lesson twice per week; 20.5% taught a 40-minute lesson or an equivalent amount twice per week; 15.2% taught a 40-minute lesson twice per month; and the rest taught a 40-minute lesson either once a month or less. Reflecting the growing trend of inviting NSs to work with elementary school teachers in Japan, the overwhelming majority of teachers (80% in the present study) had worked with NSs, although the frequency and the ways in which they worked with NSs varied.

Instruments

The teachers were asked to respond anonymously to three questionnaires: (a) a self-evaluation of their own English proficiency levels; (b) a questionnaire on the perceived short-term and long-term goals of English education in Japan; and (c) a questionnaire on their attitudes towards English language and culture, Japanese language and culture, and English education. All of the items on all of the questionnaires were written in Japanese (see Appendix A). The translation from English to Japanese

was conducted by the researcher, and back-translation was conducted by a Japanese-speaking research assistant in order to ensure the accuracy of the original translation.

(Questionnaire 1) Self-evaluation of English proficiency

The first questionnaire employed items from the Stanford Foreign Language Oral Skills Evaluation Matrix (FLOSEM) (Padilla, Sung, & Aninao, 1997) in order to obtain information on the teachers' self-rated English proficiency levels. Using FLOSEM, the teachers were asked to rate their own oral proficiency in five domains (listening comprehension, oral fluency, vocabulary in speech, pronunciation, and grammar in speech) by responding to prompts based on a scale from 1 to 6,² with 1 indicating a very low level of proficiency and 6 indicating the highest level. The teachers who participated in this study were given the full rubric for FLOSEM. For more detailed information about FLOSEM, please see Padilla, et al., (1997) and Butler (2004).

Since FLOSEM was designed to measure oral proficiency only, items for reading and writing were added by the author, using scales equivalent to those employed in FLOSEM. The teachers were also asked to indicate the minimum levels that they thought were necessary in order to conduct English activities in their schools, again using FLOSEM. Three variables used in the present study were taken from this questionnaire: namely, the teachers' self-rated current English proficiency levels (*Perceived Current Proficiency*); the perceived minimum levels of proficiency that the teachers thought were necessary in order to conduct English activities (*Desired Proficiency*); and the gaps between the two proficiencies (*Perceived Gap*).

(Questionnaire 2) The goals of English education

The second questionnaire examined the teachers' attitudes toward the perceived goals of English language education, namely, the degree of importance teachers attached to achieving different goals established in local curricula in English language education in Japan. Two types of goals were examined: the questionnaire-solicited responses on 12 potential goals of English activities at the elementary school level (*Short-term Goals*) and 9 potential goals related to English attainment among Japanese high school graduates (*Long-term Goals*).

A number of elementary school reports were referred to when constructing the items for the *Short-term Goals* and the goals set by MEXT in its "Strategic Plan to cultivate 'Japanese with English abilities'" (MEXT,

2002b) were considered when constructing the items for the *Long-term Goals*. The goals of the Strategic Plan are that average high school graduates should reach the 2nd or pre-2nd level of the STEP (Society for Testing English Proficiency) test. The first item (to acquire native-like pronunciation) was not indicated in any of the school reports nor in the MEXT plan, but since Japanese learners tend to place very high value on studying certain types of native speakers' English (Tanabe, 2003), this item was included in the present study.

The teachers were asked to respond to each item using a 7-point scale (where 1 indicated "not appropriate," 4 indicated "50% of the students should achieve this goal," and 7 indicated "all students should achieve this goal." The items in this questionnaire on goals can be found in Appendix B.

(Questionnaire 3) Attitudes toward English/Japanese language and culture

The third and final questionnaire consisted of 18 items that were designed to investigate teachers' attitudes towards English and Japanese language and culture, as well as towards English education in general. Although there are a number of studies which have investigated *learners'* attitudes towards language learning and motivation, including LoCastro's (2001) study of Japanese college students, do not appear to be in any other formal assessments of attitudes among foreign language teachers at the elementary school level. Therefore, while the author reviewed items that were designed to assess learners' attitudes in previous studies, the items used in the present study were constructed specifically for this study in order to be more relevant to elementary school teachers.

Two items were based on the items included in LoCastro (2001), though the wording was changed for clarity. One of the two items referred to a native speaker and the other referred to English education at elementary schools. The first item, "If it were possible, I would prefer to have been born an English speaker" (the original form in LoCastro), was changed to "If I were born again, I would rather have English as my first language," in order to make the item better imply that the responders do not have English as their first language while keeping the question as close to the original as possible. The second item, "It will cause problems if English is introduced into primary schools," was changed to "It is good to introduce English at the elementary school level."

Again, the teachers were asked to indicate the degree to which they agreed with each statement using a 7-point scale (where 1 indicated “strongly disagree,” 4 indicated “neither disagree nor agree,” and 7 indicated “strongly agree”). In addition to these 18 attitudinal questions, the teachers were asked to indicate the degree to which they agreed with the statement that English (or English Activities) at the elementary school level is best taught by a native speaker of English, using the same 7-point scale. The items in the questionnaire on attitudes can be found in Table 5 in the Results section as well as in Appendix C.

Results

Q1: Teachers' responses to the idea that English is best taught by NSs

The teachers were asked to indicate the degree to which they agreed with the idea that English is best taught by NSs at elementary schools (this item is referred to as the “NS Item” hereinafter). The results are indicated in Table 1 below. In the group of Japanese elementary school teachers tested herein, approximately 60% supported this statement to some extent, while 13% of them somewhat disagreed. One in four teachers indicated that they “neither agreed nor disagreed” with this statement.

Table 1. Frequencies of responses to the idea that English is best taught by native speakers at elementary schools (N = 111).

	Strongly disagree		Neither agree nor disagree			Strongly agree	
Scale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Frequency	1 (.9%)	5 (4.5%)	9 (8.0%)	30 (26.8%)	23 (20.5%)	25 (22.3%)	18 (16.1%)

Note. Missing = 1 (.9%); Mean = 4.95; SD = 1.43

Q2: Perceptual factors related to the notion that English is best taught by NSs

Perceptual factors that were likely to be related to the notion that English is best taught by NSs were investigated in four steps. First, descriptive statistics were examined based on the results of questionnaire 1 (*Self-evaluation of English proficiency*) and questionnaire 2 (*The goals of English education*). The results are shown in Tables 2 and 3 respectively.

Part of the data shown was reported in Butler (2004).

**Table 2. Teachers' self-evaluated English proficiencies
(on a 6-point scale)**

	Current proficiency	Desired proficiency	Gaps (Current –Desired)
Average	2.67 (1.07)	3.76 (.82)	-1.10 (1.19)
Listening	3.14 (1.26)	4.22 (1.01)	-1.07 (1.41)
Oral fluency	2.53 (1.18)	3.66 (.93)	-1.12 (1.33)
Oral vocabulary	2.27 (1.15)	3.47 (.96)	-1.19 (1.27)
Pronunciation	2.65 (1.36)	3.86 (1.04)	-1.20 (1.50)
Oral grammar	2.50 (1.09)	3.92 (.96)	-1.40 (1.23)
Reading	3.12 (1.08)	3.85 (.86)	-.72 (1.18)
Writing	2.51 (1.08)	3.34 (.94)	-.82 (1.22)

Note. The standard deviations are indicated in parentheses.

**Table 3. Short-term and long-term goals of English education
perceived by the teachers**

SHORT-TERM GOALS	M	SD	Skewness
11) To become interested in English-speaking cultures and people	5.44	1.44	-0.11
2) To be able to listen to and understand greetings and standard expressions in English	5.31	1.41	-0.83
12) To increase interest in foreigners in the community and in world affairs in general	5.31	1.52	-0.93
4) To be able to greet and say some standard expressions	4.98	1.5	-0.46
3) To be able to listen to and understand simple stories	4.36	1.55	-0.26
5) To be able to carry on a simple conversation in English	3.53	1.79	0.19
6) To sound out English words accurately (i.e., acquire basic decoding skills in English)	2.96	1.76	0.48

7) To be able to read and comprehend some words and phrases	2.87	1.64	0.52
8) To be able to read and comprehend simple short stories	2.37	1.5	0.95
1) To be able to acquire native-like pronunciation	2.05	1.66	1.39
9) To be able to spell some words and phrases	1.98	1.25	1.1
10) To be able to write simple short stories	1.62	1.03	1.54
LONG-TERM GOALS			
2) To listen to and comprehend basic daily conversation	4.86	1.26	-0.59
3) To carry on basic daily conversations	4.53	1.19	-0.37
5) To read and comprehend simple/informal email messages	4.14	1.36	-0.11
6) To chat on the Internet or to exchange simple/informal email messages	3.82	1.3	0.07
7) To read English newspapers and comprehend much of them	2.84	1.29	0.29
4) To acquire sufficient oral communicative skills in order to conduct business and other professional meetings without much difficulty	2.72	1.2	0.17
1) To acquire native-like pronunciation	2.6	1.39	0.38
8) To negotiate competitively in business or other professional matters by email	2.51	1.25	0.38
9) To acquire sufficient writing skills to write opinion letters to English newspapers or magazines	2.12	1.11	0.72

Note. Teachers were asked to rate the goals above on a scale from 1 to 7, where:

- 1 = Not appropriate
- 2 = Approximately 10–15 % of students should achieve this goal
- 3 = 30–35% of students should achieve this goal
- 4 = 50% of students should achieve this goal
- 5 = 65–70% of students should achieve this goal
- 6 = 80–85% of students should achieve this goal
- 7 = 100% of students should achieve this goal

The coefficient-alpha reliability for *Perceived Current Proficiency*, *Desired Proficiency*, and *Perceived Gaps* was .97, .94, and .96, respectively. Aggregated scores (i.e., mean scores) were computed for each variable. As Table

2 indicates, the average scores for *Current Proficiency* ranged from 3.1 to 2.5. These roughly correspond to the intermediate levels in productive skills (speaking and writing) and the advanced levels in receptive skills (listening and reading) as set forth by the ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) guidelines, which describe five levels in listening and reading (novice, intermediate, advanced, superior, and distinguished) and four levels in speaking and writing (novice, intermediate, advanced, and superior) (ACTFL, n.d.). Approximately 85 percent (85.3%) of the teachers indicated that they felt their current proficiency level did not reach the minimum level needed to conduct English activities. Accordingly, the average *Perceived Gap* between *Current* and *Desired Proficiency* was negative 1.20 in the oral domain.

In questionnaire 2, the coefficient-alpha reliability for *Short-term Goals* and *Long-term Goals* was .91 and .91, respectively. Again, aggregated scores were computed for each of the potential goals and were used in the analyses below. As can be seen in Table 3, the teachers thought that enhancing cultural understanding (items 11 and 12) and basic oral skills (items 2, 3, and 4) are important *Short-term Goals*. For *Long-term Goals*, they saw basic conversational skills (items 2 and 3) as well as basic reading skills (item 5) as being important goals to achieve.

Second, a factor analysis was performed on the responses to the 18 attitudinal questions in questionnaire 3 in order to identify the underlying dimensions of the ratings. Before conducting the factor analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure for sampling adequacy was employed. This measure is a statistic which indicates the proportion of variance in the variables that might be caused by underlying factors. The measure ranges from 0 to 1, with higher values indicating the variables have a greater proportion of shared variance. In the present study, KMO was .60, suggesting adequate commonality to conduct a factor analysis (Sharma, 1996).

Principal Axis Factoring (PAF), followed by Varimax rotation, yielded seven factors, which accounted for 68% of the variance. The rotated factor patterns are indicated in Table 4. Table 5 categorizes each item according to the seven factors: Factor 1, Admiration towards English language and English speakers; Factor 2, Support for the early introduction of English; Factor 3, Merit of learning English for Japanese students; Factor 4, Pride in their own language and culture; Factor 5, Concerns regarding the spread of English; Factor 6, Negative attitudes towards nonstandard English; and Factor 7, Support for instruction through the medium of English only. Aggregated scores for factors 1 to 7 were used to perform additional analyses.

Table 4. Rotated Factor Matrix

Item #	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
14	.74	.10	-.01	-.03	.10	.18	-.10
13	.73	-.02	.17	-.12	-.03	-.11	.28
5	.71	.01	.12	.17	-.15	.06	-.17
6	.59	.12	.24	.19	.21	-.14	.17
2	.12	.88	.16	.00	-.07	-.05	.17
1	.08	.88	.13	.06	-.10	-.02	-.10
8	.12	-.56	.06	.27	.56	-.15	.08
17	.03	.17	.73	.02	-.25	.02	.04
10	.18	.02	.72	.07	.21	-.15	.02
11	.37	.16	.65	.15	.09	.20	-.22
9	-.04	.01	-.13	.83	.19	-.04	.10
7	.33	-.17	.25	.66	-.09	-.14	-.08
12	-.01	.13	.21	.63	-.13	.31	-.12
16	.00	-.07	-.03	-.05	.80	-.10	-.05
15	.01	-.08	.02	.03	.65	.31	-.06
4	-.06	-.19	.15	-.06	.03	.75	.10
3	.16	.21	-.27	.14	.06	.73	.10
18	.02	.03	-.05	-.01	-.09	.17	.92

Table 5. Factor analysis on items tested in the attitudinal section of the questionnaire

Factors	M	SD	Skewness
<i>Factor 1: Admiration towards English language and English speakers</i>	3.74	.91	-.56
If I were born again, I would rather have English as my first language	3.88	1.45	-.16
I like the sounds of the English language better than those of the Japanese language	3.62	1.05	-.57
The English language is more logical and analytical than the Japanese language	4.06	1.34	-.47
English speakers are more logical and analytical than Japanese speakers	3.45	1.35	-.47
<i>Factor 2: Support for the early introduction of English</i>	5.26	.93	-.36
It is good to introduce English at the elementary school level	5.17	1.38	-.60

We should increase the number of hours for English at the elementary school level	5.93	1.10	-1.66
Early introduction of English may lower a student's Japanese identity (negatively correlated)	2.91	1.34	.21
<i>Factor 3: Merit of learning English for Japanese students</i>	4.51	.92	-1.27
By learning English, students can become more aware of their own language and culture	4.95	1.31	-.88
English can be a better tool for Japanese students to develop logical/ analytical thinking than Japanese	3.67	1.12	-.43
The structure and writing system of the English language is more suitable for IT (information technology) communication than Japanese	4.92	1.22	-.87
<i>Factor 4: Pride in their own language and culture</i>	4.77	.79	-.52
The Japanese language is the most beautiful language in the world	4.54	1.26	-.21
More people outside of Japan should learn the Japanese language	3.49	.98	-.16
Japanese students should be more proud of their language and culture	5.82	.99	-.94
<i>Factor 5: Concerns regarding the spread of English</i>	2.84	1.14	.38
The early introduction of English may negatively affect students' Japanese learning (including reading and writing)	2.96	1.36	.31
I'm afraid that English will eventually take over the Japanese language in Japan	2.72	1.37	.59
<i>Factor 6: Negative attitudes towards nonstandard English</i>	4.68	.98	-.07
Once students have a certain accent in English, it is almost impossible to correct/ change it	4.04	1.29	.04
At the elementary school level, schools should strictly teach students so-called "standard English" ("standard English" is defined as a certain type of English that is spoken by educated native speakers of English, such as that spoken by BBC and ABC news anchors)	5.32	1.17	-.71
<i>Factor 7: Support for instruction through the medium of English only</i>	4.16	1.37	-.28
English language instruction should be conducted only through English	4.16	1.37	-.28

Note. Factor loading: > .4

The third step in the analysis performed herein entailed using Pearson Correlation Coefficients to examine the relationship between the teachers' responses to the NS Item and the following measures: the three variables related to the teachers' English proficiency levels from questionnaire 1; the two variables related to the teachers' perceived goals of English education from questionnaire 2; and the seven factors identified in questionnaire 3 above. The correlations are shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Correlations of variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. NS Item												
2. CP	-.45**											
3. DP	-.06	.21*										
4. Gaps	-.35**	.76**	-.48**									
5. Factor 1	-.06	.10	.11	.04								
6. Factor 2	-.26**	.20*	.03	.16	.13							
7. Factor 3	-.13	.14	.08	.09	.37**	.41**						
8. Factor 4	.22*	-.05	.08	-.11	.16	-.05	.24*					
9. Factor 5	.12	-.19	.07	-.21*	-.06	-.33**	-.03	.09				
10. Factor 6	.48**	-.16	.16	-.24*	.05	-.07	.05	.14	.13			
11. Factor 7	.12	.19	.25*	.01	.01	.09	-.07	-.02	-.07	.19		
12. Short-term Goals	-.10	.16	.33**	-.19	.18	.14	.17	.31**	-.05	-.05	.03	
13. Long-term Goals	.02	.12	.41**	-.10	.21*	.02	.12	.20*	-.07	.03	.07	.48**

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ CP=Current Proficiency; DP=Desired Proficiency

Negative correlations with the NS Item were found between *Perceived Current Proficiency*, *Perceived Gaps*, and Factor 2 (*Support for the early introduction of English*). Positive correlations were found between Factor 4 (*Pride in their own language and culture*) and Factor 6 (*Negative attitudes towards nonstandard English*). Namely, teachers who perceived their current English proficiency to be lower, and teachers who perceived wider gaps between their current English proficiency level and the minimum level needed, tended to support the NS Item more. In addition, teachers who showed less support for the early introduction of English tended to think that English was best taught by NSs. In addition, teachers who took greater pride in Japanese language and culture tended to show stronger support for the NS Item. Finally, teachers who indicated stronger nega-

tive attitudes towards nonstandard forms of English tended to believe that English is best taught by NSs. Other perceptual factors such as "admiration towards English," "the merit of learning English for Japanese students," "concerns regarding the spread of English," and "support for monolingual instructional policy" did not show significant relationships with the NS Item. Neither the *Short-term Goals* nor the *Long-term Goals* showed significant correlations with the NS Item.

In the fourth and final step of the analysis, a multiple regression was employed to examine the extent to which the independent variables (Perceived and Desired Proficiencies, the 7 factors discussed above, and *Short-term* and *Long-term Goals*) predicted belief in the idea that English is best taught by NSs, when correlations among the variables are taken into account. Prior to employing the multiple regression analysis, assumptions of independency, normality, homoscedasticity, and linearity were examined; scatterplots of residuals against predicted values were drawn in order to test the first three assumptions, and these were met. The possibility of multicollinearity among the independent variables was also a concern and was therefore evaluated. Not surprisingly, when all of the independent variables were entered into an equation, a collinearity diagnostic test (Variance Inflation Factor, or VIF) showed high values for *Current Proficiency* and *Perceived Gap*. The Variance Inflation Factor is a means of detecting the existence of multicollinearity. VIFs "measure how much the variances of the estimated regression coefficients are inflated as compared to when the independent variables are not linearly related" (Neter, Wasserman, & Kutner, 1990, p. 408). Typically, if a computed VIF value exceeds 10, it is considered as being a sign of severe multicollinearity. Therefore, *Perceived Gap* (the highest VIF) was eliminated and the rest of the variables were reentered into the equation. The VIF values became reasonably low. The results are shown in Table 7. Factor 6 (Negative attitudes towards nonstandard English) showed the highest degree of predictive value (positive), followed by *Perceived Current Proficiency* (negative) and Factor 4 (Pride in their own language and culture).

Discussion and Conclusion

Approximately 60% of the Japanese elementary school teachers who were conducting English activities in the present study somewhat agreed with the idea that English is best taught by NSs at the elementary school level. This study suggests that this belief was associated with (a) the teachers' perceived English proficiency levels, (b) their attitudes towards

Table 7. Summary of simultaneous regression analysis for variables predicting teachers' responses to the NS Item

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Perceived Current Proficiency	-.46	.13	-.33**
Desired Proficiency	-.11	.18	-.06
Factor 1 (Admiration towards the English language and English speakers)	-.06	.14	-.04
Factor 2 (Support for the early introduction of English)	-.21	.16	-.13
Factor 3 (Merit of learning English for Japanese students)	-.09	.17	-.06
Factor 4 (Pride in their own language and culture)	.50	.18	.25**
Factor 5 (Concerns regarding the spread of English)	-.03	.11	-.03
Factor 6 (Negative attitudes towards nonstandard English)	.53	.13	.36**
Factor 7 (Support for instruction through the medium of English only)	.12	.09	.11
Short-term Goals	-.13	.14	-.09
Long-term Goals	.01	.15	.01

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. $R^2 = .42$ *B* indicates raw (nonstandardized) regression coefficients and β indicates standardized regression coefficients

nonstandard forms of English, and (c) their own sense of pride in their language and cultural heritage.

The teachers who rated their English proficiency lower tended to support the idea that English is best taught by NSs at the elementary school level. The ACTFL Guidelines suggest that foreign language teachers (referring primarily to teachers at the secondary and college levels) need to have the "advanced plus" level in listening, speaking, and reading and the "advanced" level in writing (ACTFL, 1988). Since a self-evaluation measure was employed in the present study, it is difficult to obtain an objective sense of what the teachers' proficiency levels actually are. Moreover, it remains unclear as to what the minimum proficiency level needed for teaching a foreign language at the elementary school level is. However, the average perceived levels of English proficiency among the elementary school teachers who participated in the present study appear to be far from sufficient for teaching English (or conducting English

activities). The teachers themselves identified gaps between their current proficiency and the minimum level of proficiency needed to conduct English activities. Such perceived gaps may in turn lead to feelings of insecurity or lack of confidence in teaching.

The current English language education policy in Japan strongly emphasizes oral communication in English language instruction. A strategic plan (the “Action Plan to Cultivate Japanese with English abilities”) was proposed by MEXT in 2003 and contains a number of strategies for improving Japanese citizens’ English abilities in general and their oral communication abilities in particular. The introduction of English activities at the elementary school level is one such strategy (MEXT, 2003). Although MEXT has stated that the primary purpose of English activities at the elementary school level is to enhance children’s international understanding through English conversation, the current policy essentially asks English teachers to have “sufficient” oral communicative proficiency and pedagogical skills to conduct oral communicative activities in English. In fact, MEXT (2003) has indicated its support for a number of plans designed to ensure a high level of proficiency among individuals who conduct English activities in Japan. These plans include placing ALTs and secondary school English teachers in elementary schools, placing local residents with high English proficiency in elementary schools as resources, and providing select elementary school teachers with intensive teacher training.

In such a policy climate, as Seidlhofer (1999) has pointed out, communicative competency is often considered to be one of the leading qualifications for teaching language. Elementary school teachers who feel they lack proficiency may not be confident in teaching English to young learners. They therefore may believe that NSs’ communicative competency can compensate for their own lack of proficiency, and may believe that NSs are better suited for the job.

There is no doubt that Japanese elementary school teachers urgently need help to improve their English proficiency and/or develop more confidence in their proficiency. This is particularly true given the fact that a growing number of local governments have been granted status as “Special Zones for Structural Reforms” as part of the central government’s structural deregulation policy and have begun teaching English as an academic subject at the elementary school level. One has to remember that the overwhelming majority of elementary school teachers in Japan currently are not English teaching specialists by training. Moreover, comprehensive in-service training has not yet been available for these

teachers. The current policy encourages elementary school teachers to incorporate team-teaching with NSs to some extent in their instruction. However, conducting team-teaching itself may not compensate for elementary school teachers' lack of sufficient proficiency and/or confidence, and it is increasingly apparent that teachers need systematic assistance in order to improve their English proficiency.

It is also important to identify the minimum level of proficiency that is necessary to teach English at elementary schools. As Nunan (2003) suggests, native-like proficiency may not be necessary for elementary school teachers. Importantly, while helping teachers improve their proficiency, teacher training also should increase awareness of the fact that competency in the language is only one of many important qualifications for successful language teaching.

With regards to the second factor noted above, teachers' negative attitudes towards nonstandard English were also found to be associated with the notion that English is best taught by NSs. In the present study, in order to try to control the teachers' notion of what exactly standard English refers to, *standard English* was defined as the type of English that is spoken by educated native speakers of English, such as that spoken by BBC and ABC news anchors. Although this definition is common among the general public, one may argue that it offers a narrow view of standard English.

There is a substantial amount of discussion regarding standard English, and what it refers to is still unclear. Some researchers, such as Lippi-Green (1997), go so far as to argue that standard English is a myth. Regardless of whether standard English refers to certain types of existing varieties of English or is merely a myth, Japanese English language education essentially promoted British English before World War II and has promoted American English as the standard to be learned since after World War II. Professors specializing in British and American literature have often wielded influence over decisions regarding English language education policies. English teachers at the secondary school level and up typically have majored in either British or American literature at college in Japan (Suzuki, 1999). According to Suzuki (1999), these English teachers have been advocates of certain varieties of English (what Suzuki calls "native English") as the model to be emulated at school; namely, they have argued for teaching the types of English that emanate from "the Centre" (Phillipson, 1992) or "the Inner Circle" (Kachru & Nelson, 1996). Many Japanese also have developed subjective criteria to judge their own and others' fluency (or *disfluency*) in English as well to judge

the deviation of pronunciation from what they perceive to be standard English (Tanabe, 2003).

The Japanese government's preference towards certain varieties of English from Centre regions can be seen in the JET Program. In 2001, 5,676 new ALTs were recruited; 2,526 of them were from the USA, 1,233 from the UK, 95 from Canada, 364 were from Australia, and 368 from New Zealand, collectively comprising 96% of the new ALTs (MEXT, 2002c). The remaining 4% includes individuals who teach foreign languages other than English such as Korean, Chinese, French, and German, as well as individuals who teach English. More recently, there have been some efforts to invite more individuals from non-Centre regions to work as English teachers (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communication, 2004); however, the number of such individuals remains very small.

At the elementary school level, native speakers with more diverse English backgrounds appear to have been hired by some local governments and schools, though no statistics are available to confirm this observation (Butler, in press-b). At this point, it also is not clear how Japanese elementary school teachers define *native English speakers*. An important topic for further research would be to investigate more thoroughly what teachers actually perceive to constitute a native speaker. In any case, as long as teachers are beholden to the idea that the English their students are exposed to should sound a certain way, it will be difficult for them to gain confidence in their own English, and they may be inclined to depend on native speakers.

Lastly, teachers' sense of pride in their own language and cultural heritage was also found to be associated with the idea that English is best taught by NSs. This seems in some ways to be counterintuitive at first glance. However, it may be the case that teachers who demonstrated greater pride in Japanese language and culture in this study also felt that native speakers "own" not only their language but also their culture; this in turn could lead them to believe that native speakers are better teachers for their own languages, including English.

The present study was designed to serve as a first step in understanding the perceptual factors that are related to the notion that English is best taught by NSs. Although this study sheds some light on the factors associated with this notion, it is limited in that it takes a largely unitary approach in terms of defining and examining the notion. A number of important issues remain to be investigated. For example, as we have seen it is not clear how English NSs are defined by the NNS elementary school

teachers. How might such definitions affect NNS teachers' perceptions towards NS/NNS teacher qualifications? How do teachers' perceptions influence their teaching practices in various settings, including in team-teaching contexts? How do local NNS teachers perceive other NNS teachers who are teaching in Japan (e.g., Chinese teachers of English who teach in Japan)? The role of non-Japanese NNS teachers as well as NS teachers might be of particular interest in light of the current goals of English activities at elementary schools in Japan, namely, enhancing international understanding through English conversation. Another question that remains is how teachers' perceptions might influence students' learning. While the present study employed only quantitative methods, integrating both quantitative analyses with in-depth qualitative analyses based on interviews and classroom observations could greatly enhance our understanding of these questions. As it focused on a relatively specific object of study, namely, NNS elementary school teachers in Japan who already teach English or conduct English activities, it is unclear to what extent the present study's findings can be applied to other teaching contexts. Although the limitations of this study and its applicability must be kept in mind, it is hoped that the present study will encourage further investigation of NS/NNS teachers' qualifications in various teaching contexts in order to develop our understanding of this topic and to ultimately foster a better educational environment for students and teachers alike.

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Notes

1. On March 27, 2006, the Subpanel on Foreign Languages within MEXT's Central Council for Education (CCE) recommended that English be mandatory for upper grade students (MEXT, 2006), though the CCE did not specify any timeline for implementing this policy recommendation. In the meantime, as part of the current administration's "localization" policy, a growing number of local governments have received permission from the central government to become "Special Zones for Structural Reform in Education." As such, more and more local elementary schools have started offering English instruction as a subject, deviating from the National Curriculum as set forth in the National Course of Study.
2. For example, the descriptions of Level 1 and Level 6 in the Listening Comprehension domain are as follows: "I can understand a limited number of high frequency words and common conversational, fixed expressions such as 'How are you?' or 'My name is. . .'" (Level 1) and "I can understand everything at normal speed like a native speaker" (Level 7).

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Appendix A

Questionnaires in Japanese

日本での小学校での英語学習の目的

以下のそれぞれの項目について(現実的な目標として)、あなたの教えているクラスの小学生は小学校卒業までにどの程度英語ができるようになっていくべきだと思いますか？ 1 から 7 までの数字で答えてください。

1. 該当せず。(目標として適切でない)
2. クラスの10-15%程度がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
3. クラスの30-35%程度がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
4. クラスの50%程度がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
5. クラスの65-70%程度がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
6. クラスの80-85%程度がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
7. クラスのすべて(100%)の児童がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う

該当する数字をそれぞれ丸で囲んでください

1. 英語のネイティブ・スピーカーにほぼ匹敵するほどの発音を身につける	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 英語の短い挨拶や決まり文句を聞き、理解できる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 短くて簡単なお話を英語で聞き、理解できる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 短い挨拶や決まり文句を英語で言うことができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 簡単な日常会話を英語で行うことができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 英語の単語をみて、声にだして読むことができる(基本的な英語の綴りと発音との関係を理解する)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 簡単な単語や句を読み、意味を理解することができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 短くて簡単なお話を英語で読み、理解することができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 簡単な単語や句を英語で綴ることができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 短くて簡単なお話を英語で書くことができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 英語圏の人々や文化に興味を持つ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. 地域に住む外国人や世界の出来事一般に興味を持つようになる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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日本での英語学習の最終目的

高校を卒業するまでに、以下のそれぞれの項目について(現実的な目標として)、日本人全体としてどれ位英語ができるようになっていくべきだと思いますか？ 1から7までの数字で教えてください。

1. 該当せず。(目標として適切でない)
2. 10-15%程度の日本人がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
3. 30-35%程度の日本人がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
4. 50%程度の日本人がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
5. 65-70%程度の日本人がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
6. 80-85%程度の日本人がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
7. すべての日本人(100%)がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う

該当する数字をそれぞれ丸で囲んでください

1. 英語のネイティブ・スピーカーにほぼ匹敵するほどの発音を身につける	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 基本的な日常会話を聞き、理解できる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 基本的な日常会話程度の英語を話すことができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. ビジネスや学会などの交渉・会議をこなせるだけのオーラル・スキル（聞く話す力）を身につけることができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 友人から英語で送られてくる簡単な電子メールを読み、内容を理解することができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 友人とインターネット上でチャットができたり、簡単な電子メールを英語で交換できる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 英字新聞を読み、内容がほとんど理解できる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. ビジネスなどの交渉を英語で電子メールで行うことができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 英字新聞や英字雑誌などに政治・社会・経済事情について自分の意見を投稿できるほどの英語を書く力がある	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

英語と日本語、英語教育に関する以下の記述にどれくらい賛成か反対か、1から7の数字で教えてください。

- 1 強く反対
- 2 反対
- 3 少し反対（どちらかというと反対）
- 4 反対でも賛成でもない

- 5 少し賛成（どちらかというと賛成）
 6 賛成
 7 強く賛成

該当する数字をそれぞれ丸で囲んでください

1. 英語は日本語より論理的・分析的な言語である	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 英語を学習することで、子供たちは日本語や日本の文化に対する認識を深めることができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 日本以外にいる人たちのもっと多くが日本語を学習すべきである	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 日本でも徐々に日本語が英語にのっとられてしまうのではないかと思う	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. ひとたび英語になまり（アクセント）が身についてしまうと、もうほとんど直すことができない。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 小学校では、いわゆる「標準英語」（「標準英語」とはBBCやABCニュースのキャスターが話すような英米の教養あるネイティブスピーカーの話すある種の英語と定義する）だけを教えるべきである	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 私にとって日本語は世界で最も美しい言語である	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 英語の表記システムは英語よりもITコミュニケーション(コンピューターをはじめとした情報化時代のコミュニケーション)を行うのに日本語より優れている	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 早期に英語を教えると子供の日本語の学習（読み・書きを含む）に悪影響が及ぶと思う	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 早期に英語を教えると子供の日本人としてのアイデンティティーが脅かされる恐れがある	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 日本人の学生は日本の文化や言語に対し、もっと誇りを持つべきである	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. 英語を話す人は、日本語を話す人よりも論理的・分析的な思考ができる。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. 日本人の学生にとって論理的・分析的思考を高める訓練を行うには日本語より英語のほうが適している	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 日本語の音より英語の音のほうが好きだ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. もし生まれかわることができるなら、今度は英語を母語（第一言語）に持って生まれたたい	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. 英語の授業は英語のみで行われるべきである	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. 英語を小学校で導入することは良いことだと思う	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. 小学校での英語の時間数をふやすべきである	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix B

Short-term and Long-term Goals of English Education Questionnaire

Short-term goals

1. To be able to acquire native-like pronunciation
2. To be able to listen to and understand greetings and standard expressions in English
3. To be able to listen to and understand simple stories
4. To be able to greet and say some standard expressions
5. To be able to carry on a simple conversation in English
6. To sound out English words accurately (i.e., acquiring basic decoding skills in English)
7. To be able to read and comprehend some words and phrases
8. To be able to read and comprehend simple short stories
9. To be able to spell some words and phrases
10. To be able to write simple short stories
11. To become interested in English-speaking cultures and people
12. To increase interest in foreigners in the community and world affairs in general

Long-term goals

1. To acquire native-like pronunciation
2. To listen to and comprehend basic daily conversation
3. To carry on basic daily conversations

4. To acquire sufficient oral communicative skills in order to conduct business and other professional meetings without much difficulty
5. To read and comprehend simple/informal email messages
6. To chat on the Internet or to exchange simple/informal email messages
7. To read English newspapers and comprehend much of them
8. To negotiate competitively in business or other professional matters by email
9. To acquire sufficient writing skills to write opinion letters to English newspapers or magazines

Appendix C

The Goals of English Education

1. We should increase the number of hours for English at the elementary school level.
2. It is good to introduce English at the elementary school level.
3. At the elementary school level, schools should strictly teach students so-called “standard English” (“standard English” is defined as a certain type of English that is spoken by educated native speakers of English, such as that spoken by BBC and ABC news anchors).
4. Once students have a certain accent in English, it is almost impossible to correct/change it.
5. The English language is more logical and analytical than the Japanese language.
6. English speakers are more logical and analytical than Japanese speakers.
7. More people outside of Japan should learn the Japanese language.
8. Early introduction of English may lower a student’s Japanese identity (negatively correlated).
9. The Japanese language is the most beautiful language in the world.
10. English can be a better tool for Japanese students to develop logical/analytical thinking than Japanese.

11. The structure and writing system of the English language is more suitable for IT (information technology) communication than Japanese.
12. Japanese students should be more proud of their language and culture.
13. I like the sounds of the English language better than those of the Japanese language.
14. If I were born again, I would rather have English as my first language.
15. I'm afraid that English will eventually take over the Japanese language in Japan.
16. The early introduction of English may negatively affect students' Japanese learning (including reading and writing).
17. By learning English, students can become more aware of their own language and culture.
18. English language instruction should be conducted only through English.

Classroom management in Japanese EFL classrooms

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The problems of classroom management in many academic subjects are an important area of research in general education in many countries (Doyle, 1990; Jones, 1996; Kagan, 1992; Tauber, 1999). Compared to the level of interest in the field of general education, not enough attention is paid to classroom management issues in language classrooms, and in particular there is little empirical research on classroom management in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in Japan. To fill the gap, this study will report on: a) classroom management difficulties that arise in Japanese EFL classrooms when teachers try to teach English communicatively, b) how teachers conceptualize and attempt to deal with these problems, and c) what strategies can be offered to alleviate these problems.

教室における指導運営はどの国においても重要な課題である。このテーマについてこれまで多くの研究が行われてきたが (Doyle, 1990; Jones, 1996; Kagan, 1992; Tauber, 1999)、言語教育の分野では実証研究がほとんど行われていないと言ってもよく、日本の英語教育界ではさらに関心が低いように思われる。本論文は、a) 英語をコミュニケーションの手段として指導しようとする場合には特に運営指導が難しくなること、b) 教員はこのような困難に直面した場合どのように対処しているのか、c) 効果的な対象方略とはどのようなものか、これら3点について実地調査の報告を行った。

Classroom Management

Classroom management has been an important area of discussion and research in general education for quite some time. Researchers claim that, in order to achieve effective instruction, teachers need to possess two types

of knowledge: knowledge of subject matter and knowledge of classroom management (Kagan, 1992). Doyle (1986) uses the term *hidden curriculum* to portray the importance of classroom management, arguing that the school curriculum consists not only of an academic curriculum but also of a hidden agenda of classroom management. Classroom management tends not to be foregrounded in discussions of curricular issues, but it plays a significant role in ensuring learning, because the classroom is a setting for complex interactions and negotiations among teacher and students. It is also where different factors, such as learner motivation, student interests, or different levels of competence, are at work. It is this complexity that makes smooth classroom management so challenging (Doyle, 1986).

Basing his conclusions on the results of a meta-analysis of education research, Jones (1996) claims that teachers see classroom management as one of the most important aspects of their work. Research based on teachers' interviews further suggests that when classroom management becomes difficult, it can be a cause of teacher burnout and loss of self-esteem (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000). Classroom management might be considered to pertain only to disciplinary issues, but most researchers define it in broader terms, including the planning of instruction, the management of learners, the process of decision-making by teachers, and the construction and maintenance of teacher-student relationships (Doyle, 1986; Fenwick, 1998; Jones & Vesilind, 1995). Doyle (1990) argues that classroom management is a means to ensure "order" in classrooms:

To say a classroom is orderly, then, means that students are cooperating in the program of action defined by the activity a teacher is attempting to use. Misbehaviour, in turn, is any action by students that threatens to disrupt the activity flow or pull the class toward an alternative program of action. (p. 115)

Following this broad definition of classroom management, the focus of this paper will not rest solely upon what constitutes *bad* behaviour, but will rather expand to include teacher reactions to, and understanding of, such behaviour.

Classroom Management and English Education in Japan

Classroom management issues are recognized as a serious educational and societal problem in Japan; however, there is very little empirical research available that addresses these issues. This section will report on

one of the few studies available on this topic in general education. The focus will then be narrowed to examine the current state of EFL education in Japan. Japanese teachers of English have to satisfy two academic goals: preparing students for grammar-skewed entrance examinations and fostering communicative skills. How they struggle to carry out and balance these two goals will be described.

Classroom Management Problems in Japan

In spite of society's awareness of classroom management problems, and the fact that books on "how to solve management issues" are available to teachers (Kawamura, 1999; 2000), few empirical studies have been conducted in Japanese contexts (Kato, 2001; Ran, 2001). One of the few is a survey study that collected data from 203 primary school teachers, 109 middle school teachers, and 54 high school teachers across all subjects exploring the teachers' perceptions of classroom management (Wakazono, 2001). Overall 25% of the respondents experienced some type of classroom management problem, with the middle school teachers reporting the highest rate (32.1%).

The participants were allowed to choose multiple responses and the results listed several phenomena that characterise classroom management difficulties. They include: a) students walking in and out of the classroom (74%), b) students not stopping talking (62.2%), c) students not listening to the teacher's instruction(s) or advice (59%), d) students suddenly screaming or throwing things (55.7%), and, e) students not sitting down when the class begins (28.7%).

The results also reveal teachers' perceptions of possible causes of management problems. These are a) an increase in the number of children who are not disciplined by their parents at home (77%), b) a decline in the quality of education at home (71.9%), c) a decline in the quality of teachers (51.1%), and d) children's psychological problems and stress (45.1%). The study reveals that teachers are confused and do not have clear ideas as to how to improve the situation. When asked for possible remedial procedures, the need for smaller class sizes was the only suggestion mentioned by a considerable number of teachers (24.6%).

English Education System in Japan

A large proportion of English teaching at the secondary school level is done through grammar-translation methods (Gorsuch, 1998). However,

as a result of the influence of recent language acquisition theories that have been developed mainly in Western countries, and also as a result of an increasing interest in Japan of encouraging children to communicate in English, teaching styles which incorporate some principles of communicative language teaching (CLT) have gradually gained entry into Japanese secondary English classrooms (Sakui, 2004).

Attempts to alter English education in Japan towards a more communicative approach began about twenty years ago. In 1986, the government started the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Program, in which Japanese secondary school students receive occasional lessons with a native speaker English teacher who team teaches with a Japanese teacher. The exposure to these native speaker teachers is, however, still minimal and the system is not free from criticism (McConnell, 2000), especially concerning the lack of training for the native speaker English teachers and the lack of collaboration between them and the Japanese teachers. More recently the Japanese national level curriculum guide issued by the government states that fostering communicative abilities in English is the primary goal of English education (Monbukagakusho, 1999).

Given this background it is easy to see why Japanese teachers of English feel they are caught in a dilemma to try to ensure two separate types of instruction (Mulvey, 1999; Sakui, 2004). The teachers feel responsible for preparing students for grammar-skewed entrance examinations, and at the same time they feel pressured to teach English communicatively in order to satisfy the new guidelines. While the teachers face the challenge of meeting two separate instructional goals, they also have to deal with an increasing number of classroom management problems.

The Study

In order to investigate teachers in a specific cultural context, all the participants chosen for this research were members of a self-study group consisting of 30 Japanese teachers of English. The organization usually met on weekends and was run by the teachers themselves, with senior members giving training to younger members of the organization. Occasionally they invited outside speakers to talk about further education for teachers, with a concentration on knowledge about language education and second language acquisition. Sato (1994) and Shimahara (1998) point out that there are many such self-initiated study groups among Japanese teachers. Indeed, Sato claims that more than 53% of Japanese teachers belong to one or another of these types of groups in order to receive further

training from their peers. Sato herself participated in such a group, which met once a month on weekends from 2 p.m. to 9 p.m. This is very similar to the group that I observed. The main data for this report comes from a year-long ethnographic study of three metropolitan-area teachers who participated in my study group: Ms. Kase, Ms. Hamada, and Ms. Tsuda. (All the names of people and institutions in this study are pseudonyms to protect the teachers' and students' privacy.)

At the time of the study, Ms. Kase was in her early 40s and had been a public junior high school teacher for 19 years. She was single and lived at home with her family. Her school was located in a blue-collar, low-income neighbourhood. Ms. Tsuda was in her late 30s and had been a high school English teacher for 15 years. She was also single, and had recently entered a Master's program in TESOL at a satellite school of an American university. Ms. Hamada had turned 30 years old, and had just married another school teacher. She had been teaching English at the junior high school level for eight years.

Starting in April 2001, I conducted participant observations and interviews with Ms. Kase and Ms. Tsuda for one academic year, and with Ms. Hamada for 6 months. (Since Ms. Hamada had some difficulty in managing her class during that time, she terminated participation after 6 months.) I visited each school once a week, and usually observed two to three 50-minute class periods per day. In addition, between August 2000 and March 2002, I conducted interviews (lasting two hours on average) with 15 other teachers in this self-study group, whose classes I could not observe. These teachers were selected following "purposeful sampling" principles (Patton, 1990, p. 169), meaning that types of participants were selected to include as wide a range of factors as possible that could influence teachers' beliefs and practices. The three main participants were all female and did not have any children. For the 15 additional selected interviewees, I included male participants, teachers with shorter or longer teaching experience, and teachers who had children.

All the interviews were conducted in Japanese, audiotaped, transcribed, and translated into English. In order to preserve the nuance of these teachers' voices, I translated their utterances as closely as possible, which at times did not necessarily meet standard English language rules. I collected and analysed data by adopting an inductive process, following the procedures commonly employed in "grounded theory" studies (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Adopting a "funnel" approach typical of qualitative research, I initially went into the research field with a very broad research interest: teachers' beliefs and practices. At the beginning of the

study I did not have specific research topics in mind. Therefore, my initial observation notes were filled with whatever I could see and hear in the schools, and my interview questions were about the teachers' experiences and teaching beliefs in general. Over time, by reviewing these notes and interview excerpts, I narrowed down my research interest to three topics that I decided to investigate further, one of which was classroom management. The later stages of my observation focus and interview questions were more specifically related to these topics. Since the research adopted a qualitative methodology, the findings are not meant to be generalized, but readers are encouraged to find resonance in what is described and claimed.

Results

This section reports two main findings: a) the teachers' struggle to balance communicative language teaching and classroom management, and b) a summary of how the teachers conceptualize and tackle the classroom management problems that they face.

Balancing Communicative Language Teaching and Classroom Management

Conducting communicative language teaching (CLT) whilst managing their classroom was a challenging task for the teachers at times. During the observations, many factors were identified as making classroom management difficult, but CLT activities in particular seemed to make classroom management more challenging than teacher-fronted instruction. The main reasons for this were: a) the spatial arrangement of classrooms, b) changes in students' and teachers' expected roles, and c) increased cognitive demands on students. Each factor is explained in detail below.

Spatial Arrangement of Classrooms

Many CLT activities require a change in the physical positioning of students and teachers. In teacher-fronted grammar instruction, students are expected to sit in rows facing the front of the classroom, which enables the teacher to supervise the whole class as one group. In contrast, CLT often made the spatial organisation of a classroom very complex. Students were encouraged to walk around the classroom and in order to carry out a task often left their seats to talk to their classmates. Obviously, these tasks gave students far greater mobility and much more freedom

in their choices of behaviours, which made classroom management more challenging for the teacher. Even in the activities in which students remained seated, they were often instructed to rearrange the desks and chairs in order to form pairs and small groups. The difficulties inherent in these seating patterns contrasted strongly with the ease of managing the entire class as a whole group. In these pair and group work settings, six to eight groups were formed with the students facing each other rather than the teacher. The teacher was expected to manage these different groups simultaneously. Based on my observations, the teachers sometimes had difficulty in managing many groups at the same time. For example, if two or three groups were not on task, the teacher needed to move around the classroom and attend to these groups so that they could get back on track. The teacher's attention often seemed to be consumed in managing these problematic groups and was not focused on academic matters, whereas groups that were on task tended to be left alone and did not receive any encouragement or monitoring of their performance.

Students' and Teachers' Expected Roles

Students' expected roles and behaviours also changed during CLT activities. In teacher-fronted grammar classes, a student's ideal role was as a silent and attentive listener, but in CLT students' expected roles changed dramatically: they were expected to not only be attentive listeners but also active speakers. In grammar lessons students were trained to be quiet; however, when the activities became more communicative, the students were expected to be more active and to demonstrate their knowledge and opinions vocally.

In CLT, students were held accountable for their performance to a far greater extent than in traditional teacher-fronted grammar teaching. In teacher-fronted teaching, instruction could proceed smoothly even though there were some students who did not fully participate or complete tasks. But in CLT, group or pair work formats heightened the necessity for each student's participation, so a small number of students who were unwilling to participate could potentially halt or jeopardise the instructional process. Teachers often need to reestablish and negotiate students' new roles and expectations of CLT instruction. As teachers can only now and then adopt communicatively oriented activities because of curriculum and entrance examination pressures, the requirement to incorporate CLT techniques into language classes has increased the difficulty of teaching in a Japanese EFL classroom. The sporadic use of CLT

activities did not provide adequate time and training for the students to learn new roles and behaviours. Furthermore, teachers often did not effectively communicate the nature and expectations of these new roles and behaviours. In other words, the students were expected to change their roles and behaviours accordingly without any explicit training or explanation from the teachers.

Cognitive Complexity of Activities

Another change that CLT often imposed was to increase the complexity of activity procedures and their goals. In less cognitively demanding activities, such as reading texts aloud, copying texts, and writing translated sentences in their notebooks, there was very little room for students to misinterpret the instructional procedures. However, CLT activities placed greater demands on the students to interpret the activity goals and procedures. The following summary of a lesson from Ms. Kase’s class illustrates how the instructional procedures during a CLT activity increased the cognitive demands placed on students. The linguistic goal of this lesson was the production and comprehension of the following exchange (field note, November 6, 2001):

Q: Can you play soccer?
A: Yes, I can / No I can’t.

Students received the handout depicted in Figure 1:

	play soccer	play the guitar	speak English	run fast
Bruce	o	o	x	x
Kumi	x	x	o	x
Ken	x	x	o	o
Tom	x	x	o	x

Figure 1. Handout from Ms. Kase’s class.

The teacher instructed students to form groups of four by moving their desks. Within each group, each student was expected to assume a role (that is, one student becomes Bruce, one plays Kumi, and so on),

which took some time for the students to understand. After each student chose their role, one student from each group went to another group and asked questions such as, “Can you play soccer?” and “Can you speak English?” The purpose of this segment was for the students to match the information on the handout with the responses from their classmates in order to identify which role the respondent was playing. This added further cognitive complexity because not only did the student have to select a role from the four names on the handout, but she also had to guess the role of her respondent from the exact same name list. In this example the cognitive demands on the students to understand the activity procedure seemed to exceed the complexity of the target language structure. The class became chaotic because many students were very confused by the procedures. Some students soon started complaining that they did not know what to do and that they did not want to perform the task. In the end, many students stopped participating in the activity altogether.

The three aspects of CLT described in this section—changing spatial arrangements, different expected roles, and increased cognitive demands—can come into conflict with the traditional organisational strategies that teachers employ to ensure order. While teachers were aware that establishing routines while using familiar activities and artefacts was critical in managing a class successfully, teachers needed to depart from these routines and institute new expectations and rules. Since CLT activities were not carried out uniformly in every lesson, and because each CLT activity required slightly different role expectations, this placed demands on both students and teachers to establish a new set of classroom norms. One consequence of the difficulties of classroom management of CLT activities is that, although some teachers said that they believe in the educational outcomes of CLT, in order to ensure classroom order they tended to avoid these types of instructional activities and opted for grammar teaching lessons instead.

Teachers' Perceptions of Classroom Management Difficulties

All the teachers studied reported that they had either experienced classroom management difficulties or that they knew some other teachers who have had problems. They all agreed that classroom management was not only a problem during CLT lessons, but that it was, in fact, becoming more difficult for several reasons. This section reports on the reasons the teachers give as to why classroom management is becoming more difficult and what strategies they use to tackle problems.

When I asked why classroom management is becoming increasingly difficult the teachers reported that they could not identify any one single cause. They expressed the belief that it is a complex societal issue that involves teachers and parents, community members, and students. One of the teachers said that the problem was a complex one because it could happen even to an experienced teacher who had not had any previous difficulties. While puzzled, the teachers offered several reasons why they believed classroom management problems are becoming increasingly serious. First, many teachers complained about class size, saying that 40 students in one class is too large a number to manage, and they had strong opinions about the need for smaller classes. The teachers also mentioned that large classes consist of many different types of problem students who tend to cause management difficulties anyway. Teachers reported that some students have trouble at home, making them emotionally and psychologically unstable. Several teachers mentioned that this type of diversity among the student population was reflected in differences among the communities where the students live. Teachers said students in some school districts were easier to teach than others, reflecting the students' and their parents' socioeconomic status. For example, some students come to school with the concept that no matter how boring schoolwork might be, they need to sit and listen to the teacher, whereas other students do not have this mindset. Some teachers clearly felt that there is very little they can do to influence this factor.

In addition to the diversity of students' backgrounds, some teachers reported that students' values and experiences outside schools have changed in recent years. Ms. Kase reported that some students did not have adequate perseverance and were easily discouraged. Ms. Tsuda claimed that the traditional value of respect for schools and teachers was quickly disappearing. She expressed this sentiment by saying that a teacher used to be far more respected in a community and he or she had more authority. However, nowadays parents express more contempt for teachers, saying, "They are *only* schoolteachers." Mrs. Tanaka also mentioned that she perceived a gap between what students wanted and what schools could offer. She claimed that there is an abundance of information and resources about English language and foreign culture from stimulating sources outside of school, such as recent movies, CDs, and DVDs, while, in contrast, students receive fairly old-fashioned instruction in school, which usually relies on audiotapes.

Another aspect that some teachers reported was the intricacy of power relations between a teacher and her students. Out of the 18 teachers I

interviewed, 5 reported that they need to demonstrate their power and, when they do so, they need to be persistent. Ms. Fukami said:

Students are aware that if they misbehave, the teacher will point it out or scold them. We, teachers, need to have power to make them feel that way. (Interview, March 26, 2002)

Similarly, Ms. Nagase reported the importance of teachers being firm with students:

We should not compromise. When students ask, "Is it okay to use Japanese?" we need to be persistent and say, "No. Not now." We need to be strong to say that. (Interview, March 20, 2002)

Some teachers also referred to the possibility of taking advantage of peer pressure. Some teachers resorted to asking students for help in classroom management. Ms. Kase said that there was a limit to what a teacher alone could do to influence students and to prevent or eliminate their misbehaviours. She said that the students' power was sometimes greater than the teacher's:

If students do not agree with what we say, classroom management becomes difficult. The influential children in the class have more power than teachers. If 10 students in the class said, "Let's skip this class" and leave the classroom, a teacher can do nothing about it. . . I ask for and try to win their sympathy and empathy. . . If they start to think that if they did this and that, the teacher would feel bad, so they should better stop. We need to win that kind of empathy sometimes. (Interview, December 11, 2001)

As Ms. Kase mentioned, the distribution of power among children clearly influences classroom dynamics. Ms. Sakamoto reported on the importance of the individual student with whom she tries to negotiate power:

I do not try to negotiate power with every student. If there is one student who has power among students, the rest of the students follow him or her in spite of their feelings. So I need to establish a power relationship with this particular student. (Interview, March 19, 2002)

Ms. Sakamoto further mentioned that avoiding emotional conflicts with students was important. She considered that building trust between a teacher and students was one of the most important aspects of ensuring effective classroom management. A teacher's emotional outbursts risk damaging the students' trust in their teacher.

Discussion

The purpose of this paper is to describe the challenges of classroom management that Japanese teachers of English experience in their work. This study reveals that these teachers are teaching in a complicated system where students are not necessarily always well behaved. I should note that in the Japanese school system, I observed that regular classroom teachers sometimes needed to attend to their students' psychological and emotional problems during breaks and after school. Also, Japanese schools do not usually have recourse to administrative support, such as sending problematic students to an administrator's office, or implementing punitive measures such as detention. Instead classroom teachers are expected to handle most problems by themselves.

Similarly to the teachers surveyed by Wakazono (2001), the participants in this study made observations about classroom management issues from a wide variety of perspectives. They analysed classroom management issues in terms of students' socioeconomic backgrounds, communities' changing values towards teachers and schools, and discrepancies in available English materials both in and outside classrooms. The teachers further showed a sophisticated understanding of the power negotiations between teachers and students. Many existing studies suggest that the negotiation of power between teachers and students is an important aspect of ensuring successful classroom management (Allen, 1986; Cothran & Ennis, 1997; Doyle, 1986; Tauber, 1999; Winograd, 2002). Some of the participants in this study understand that power lies not only in the hands of the seemingly powerful (the teacher), but also with the seemingly powerless (the students). The teachers accepted the intricacy of power relations in their classrooms and tried to adopt different strategies to cope with them. However, the teachers in this study appeared to have difficulties in objectively analyzing their own classroom teaching practices from a classroom management perspective. Specifically, they were less articulate in describing exactly in what ways CLT makes classroom management challenging and what they could do to alleviate any problems.

Reconciling CLT and ensuring successful classroom management is not only a problem for the participants in this study. Previous research in education actually shows that cooperative and progressive teaching styles, which CLT principles are based on, are not used frequently in classrooms across different subjects. Wertsch (1998) argues that studies investigating classroom discourse in different subjects at all levels show that teacher talk takes about two thirds of the classroom time, and sometimes a large portion of this talk is concerned with classroom management. Because language education is geared towards communicatively-oriented teaching, we could argue that language teachers are pressured to make their instruction more communicative and more interactive than other subject teachers, and this poses a greater challenge to them as they attempt to balance this demand with the demands of managing a class.

Communicative forms of teaching might excel in fostering communicative abilities, but they tend to make classroom management more difficult. Lefstein (2002) argues that management issues are incorporated within traditional teacher-fronted teaching. Doyle (1990) argues that the looser the structure of a lesson and the more mobile the students are, the more possibility there is for students' "miseducative" behaviours to occur. Doyle writes, "When students are required to interpret situations and make decisions to accomplish tasks (such as during word problems or essays), activity flow is frequently slow and bumpy. Managing higher-order tasks requires exceptional management skills" (p. 116).

While advocating more progressive communicative language methods, classroom researchers into language teaching seem to have overlooked the reality that this form of instruction makes classroom management inherently difficult. Previous studies in language education also make some reference to the fact that CLT makes classroom management difficult in some teaching contexts (Lee, 1996; Lewis, 2002; Li, 1998; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; Williams & Burden, 1997), yet there is little research available dealing with classroom management as the central theme of the investigation.

Implications of the Study and Recommendations to Help Improve the Situation

Although it is impossible to offer quick remedies for this complex issue, the present study identifies a number of areas in teacher education in Japan that need to be addressed. It suggests the strong necessity to establish better quality teacher education, which will provide a sound

background in teaching methodology and classroom management knowledge and strategies. The lack of such training in Japan is well documented (Lamie, 2000; Okano & Tsuchiya, 1999). Future teacher training programmes urgently need to promote the view that classroom management is an important part of teacher training, rather than the current belief and practice that these are skills and strategies that teachers tend to develop on their own throughout their professional careers (Winograd, 2005). The participants in this study are mostly experienced language teachers who hold a deep understanding that teaching cannot be separated from various societal factors. This type of knowledge would, no doubt, serve as valuable information to preservice teachers.

The present study further points out that in addition to the need to understand teaching from sociopolitical and cultural contexts, teachers need to train themselves to reflect on their lessons from classroom management perspectives, examining carefully the link between classroom management and the meeting of academic goals. In order to help teachers develop the process of reflection, it would be useful for teachers, both in preservice and inservice training, to have the opportunity to share different aspects of classroom management issues (Kawamura, 1999). One way to pursue this is for teachers to read and listen to each other's stories and experiences and to reflect on their own teaching experiences (Schön, 1983). Through these reflective processes, teachers can personalize their knowledge and acquire an awareness that some teaching methods require higher management skills and techniques than others. Classroom management issues, however, cannot just be solved by acquiring a set of skills and techniques; teachers need to understand the academic as well as the social and cultural backgrounds of their students, and plan activity types with both academic and classroom management goals in mind. The participants in this study belong to a self-study group, in which they work to improve their own pronunciation and teaching methods. This type of self-study group is common amongst Japanese teachers to further develop their teaching skills. It is suggested that this type of safe and trusting environment is well suited to the sharing and exploring of classroom management issues.

In order to further facilitate this type of reflection, it would be useful if teachers had some frameworks with which to conceptualize classroom management so that they can analyze their own teaching practices. There is some literature available which could provide valuable practical advice for Japanese EFL teachers (for example, Brown, 1994; Lewis, 2002; Ur, 1996; Wright, 2005). Lewis (2002) is one author who recognizes that CLT

poses classroom management difficulties and offers a useful framework for analysis. She argues that a classroom has to be managed from three perspectives: student motivation, external constraints, and a teacher's roles. By student motivation, she means student behaviours which reflect motivation, or lack thereof, to engage in language learning activity. The constraints include large class sizes, exam pressures, and ability differences among students. The teacher's roles include overseeing multiple groups instead of the whole class. In addition to Lewis's three perspectives, the current study proposes three slightly different, yet overlapping, ways to examine classroom management: spatial arrangements, teacher-student roles, and the cognitive complexity of an activity. Teachers should be encouraged to find their own useful frameworks and apply them to their own teaching contexts. These types of conceptualizations can help teachers effectively examine the relationship between their own teaching styles, pedagogical outcomes, and classroom management.

Conclusion

The present study has described various experiences of classroom management among EFL teachers in Japan. The field of language teaching in Japan has emphasized and stressed academic goals and curriculum, but has failed to take into account one key educational issue: managing classes. The problem of classroom management becomes particularly difficult when teachers are encouraged to incorporate CLT activities into traditional teacher-fronted lessons. Culture-specific teacher training in which teachers can share their experiences with other teachers and engage in reflective process should be included in teacher training curricula. The present study also points out that much more research is needed to examine classroom management in language classrooms in the Japanese context. These research studies should further explore the relationship between classroom management and language teaching methodologies in order to help the many teachers who are struggling to teach English in changing circumstances.

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Note

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英語学習者の内発的動機づけを高める教育実践的 介入とその効果の検証

The effects of educational intervention that enhances intrinsic motivation of L2 students

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Although motivation in the area of L2 studies has attracted the interest of numerous researchers, there have been very few studies conducted regarding factors involved in bringing about motivation, or in other words, strategies that enhance motivation. To address this gap, Noels and her coresearchers have used *Self-Determination Theory* (SDT), a well-developed motivation theory in psychology, to examine factors behind the intrinsic motivation of L2 students (e.g., Noels, 2001; Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000).

SDT focuses on the source of human motivation and deals with the manner in which the inclination and physiological/psychological needs toward growth innately possessed by human beings evolve or are attenuated as people interact with surrounding sociocultural factors. In addition, this theory assumes the existence of three *psychological needs* (i.e., for autonomy, competence, and relatedness) as prerequisites for enhancing student motivation. SDT hypothesizes that if these psychological needs are met, intrinsic motivation will be enhanced; whereas, if they are not met, intrinsic motivation will be undermined.

The studies conducted by Noels et al., which examined factors behind L2 students' motivation, demonstrate to a certain extent the significance and potential for invoking SDT in L2 motivation studies. However, their studies are limited to an examination of the correlation between motivating factors (i.e., the three psychological needs) and intrinsic motivation. Furthermore, the causal relationship between these factors and motivation has not been established. In other words, is intrinsic motivation really enhanced if psychological needs are satisfied?

Thus this study investigates whether or not it is possible to enhance intrinsic motivation in Japanese EFL university students by introducing an educational intervention that stimulates the three psychological needs put forth in SDT. We decided to use the "Group Presentation Activity" (GP Activity; Tanaka, 2005) for this purpose because this activity has the potential to stimulate the three needs simultaneously. Therefore, the purposes of this study are as follows: (a) to examine whether the GP Activity enhances intrinsic motivation in Japanese EFL university students, and (b) to examine which psychological need (the need for autonomy, competence, or relatedness) plays the most significant role in students' motivational development.

Seventy-eight university students (58 males and 20 females) who were enrolled in a second-year English language course participated in this study. The students met once a week in a 90-minute class. The GP Activity was used with them for five weeks. Prior to the beginning of the intervention, students were given questionnaires about language learning motivation and the three psychological needs. The same questionnaires were administered at the end of the intervention. Changes in scores (i.e., the difference between pretest and posttest scores) served as the measures of development of students' motivation. In addition, to investigate in detail the manner in which the three psychological needs act in terms of enhancing motivation among students, we examined the data from the perspectives of general tendency and individual differences.

The results showed that: (a) GP Activity had a significant positive effect on students' intrinsic motivation; and (b) from the perspective of general tendency, satisfaction of the need for autonomy had a strong relationship with students' motivational development. These two findings corresponded to previous studies based on the SDT. On the other hand, a more detailed analysis focusing on individual differences revealed that (c) the facilitating role of the three psychological needs varied according to students' motivational profiles. In short, while less motivated students seemed to benefit the most from the satisfaction of the need for competence, students with a medium level of motivation required that both the need for autonomy and competence be met for their motivational development. This suggested that teachers who intend to enhance students' motivation should differentiate their teaching strategies depending on the motivational profiles of their students.

本研究では、日本人大学生の英語学習に対する内発的動機づけを高める上で、グループでのプレゼンテーション活動（以下、GP活動）が効果的かどうかを検討した。GP活動は動機づけ理論の1つである自己決定理論に依拠しており、動機づけ要因として想定され

る3つの心理的欲求を満たすように作成・実施された。調査に当たっては、教育実践的介入の前後で質問紙調査を行い、全体傾向と個人差の観点から分析を行った。研究の結果から、(1) GP活動は、調査協力者の内発的動機づけを高める上で効果的だったこと、(2) 全体的な傾向としては、自律性の欲求の充足が内発的動機づけの上昇と関連が強かったこと、(3) 個人差の観点からは、動機づけ傾向の違いによって、効果的な働きかけが異なる可能性があること、が示唆された。本研究の結果から、学習者の動機づけ段階に応じた働きかけを行う必要があることが示された。

今日、学習者の動機づけは大きな教育問題となっている。中・高等学校の教育現場では、学習に対する動機づけが低い生徒への教科指導上の問題があり、生涯学習の観点からは、動機づけの覚醒の問題など、その論点は多岐に渡っている。英語教育の研究文脈においては、英語学習に対する動機づけの喚起や維持・発達について、数多くの研究が行われている(Dörnyei, 2001a)。ただし、従来の英語学習における動機づけ研究は、(1) 動機づけの分類、(2) 動機づけと学習成果との関連の分析、(3) 動機づけに影響を与える諸要因(性差、学習環境、他の学習者要因など)とその影響力の検討、を扱ったものがほとんどであり、どのように英語学習者を動機づけたらよいのかという「動機づけを高める方略」に関する研究はほとんど行われていない。そのような現状を鑑み、本研究では、大学生英語学習者の内発的動機づけを高める教育実践的介入を行い、その効果を検証する。より具体的には、先行研究から得られた理論実証的知見を参考とし、英語学習者の動機づけを効果的に高める方略について検討する。もし、英語学習者の動機づけが高まる授業の特徴が明らかになれば、教室における学習指導を進める上で貴重な情報源となるはずである。また、理論的枠組みから想定される仮説を実際の教室場面で検証することは、研究で示唆された知見が本当に学習の場で起きうるのか調べることを可能にする。したがって、本研究は、教育現場への具体的な提案を可能にする教育的意義、ならびに、より精緻な動機づけ理論の構築の基礎となる学術的意義の双方を併せ持つ研究である。

背景

問題の所在

学習者の動機づけを高めるには、日々の授業が重要な役割を果たす(Ames, 1992; Deci & Ryan, 1985)。例えば、教師が授業で用いる特定の教授法は、学習者の授業に対する取り組みに大きな影響を与える。より具体的には、倉八(1998)によって、文法中心の教授法よりもコミュニケーション中心の教授法の方が学習者の英語学習への動機づけを高め、積極的な授業参加を促すことが示されている。

また、授業を構成する主な要素には、「タスク」(task)、「権威」(authority)、「報酬・承認」(reward/recognize)、「グループ」(grouping)、「評価」(evaluation)、「時間」(time)などがあり(Epstein, 1988)、教師は授業の中でこれらの要素をうまく操作することによって、学習者の動機づけを高めることができる(Maehr & Midgley, 1991)。タスクを例に取ると、教師がタスクの難易度を学習者にとって適切なレベルに設定したり、学習者にとって興味ある話題を取り入れたり、学

習者が主体的に活動できるように工夫することで、学習者の興味や関心を引くことができる (Malone & Lepper, 1987)。

以上のように、授業の多様な側面が学習者の動機づけに影響を与えている。このように授業の中で学習者の動機づけを高め、維持する方法やテクニックは「動機づけを高める方略」(*motivational strategies*)と呼ばれ、研究成果を教育実践へ還元することを強く意識した動機づけ研究で多くの関心を集めている (Dörnyei, 2001b; Williams & Burden, 1997)。しかし、現状において、このような方略の効果を実証的に検証した研究は極めて少ない (Dörnyei, 1998, 2001b)。そこで、本研究では、心理学における動機づけ理論を基盤とし、学習者の英語学習に対する動機づけを高める方略を提案する。そして、そのような方略を取り入れた教育実践の介入を一定期間にわたって行い、対象となった学習者全体と個人差を視野に入れた群ごとという2つの観点から、動機づけを高める方略の効果を検討する。

自己決定理論と英語学習

動機づけに関する理論はこれまでに数多く提案されてきたが、英語学習への動機づけを高める方略を検討する場合、自己決定理論 (Self-Determination Theory; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2002) と呼ばれる心理学の理論がとりわけ参考になる。以下では、この理論の概略と英語学習における動機づけ研究に本理論を援用することの利点、さらに、本理論を基盤とした代表的な先行研究について、順に述べる。

自己決定理論とは、人間の動機づけの根源に焦点を当てた動機づけ理論であり、そこでは人間が生得的に持っている成長への性向や生理的/心理的欲求が、まわりの社会文化的要因とどのように相互作用しながら発達、あるいは衰退するのかといった問題を取り扱う (Reeve, Deci, & Ryan, 2004)。この理論では、人間の動機づけが高まる前提条件として、3つの「心理的欲求」(psychological needs; 以下、3欲求)の充足を想定している。それらは、(1)「自律性の欲求」(the need for autonomy): 自身の行動がより自己決定的であり、自己責任性を持ちたいという欲求、(2)「有能性の欲求」(the need for competence): 行動をやり遂げる自信や自己の能力を顕示する機会を持ちたいという欲求、(3)「関係性の欲求」(the need for relatedness): 周りの人や社会と密接な関係を持ち、他者と友好的な連帯感を持ちたいという欲求、である。自己決定理論では、これら3欲求が満たされた結果、人は内発的に動機づけられ、課題に対して自ら積極的に取り組むようになるとしている。

Dörnyei (1998) は、英語学習における動機づけ研究に自己決定理論を援用することの利点について、次の3点を挙げている。それらは、(1) 包括的な理論であるため、多様な動機づけ概念を検討できる、(2) 自律性の程度に伴い動機づけを細分化しているため、動機づけの発達の変化を検討できる、(3) 実証的な手法によって、理論の妥当性を検証できる、である。これらの利点から、近年では、本理論を英語学習における動機づけ研究に適用した研究例も徐々に報告されている。

例えば、Noelsらの研究 (Noels, 2001; Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000) では、外国語学習に対してより高い有能感を持っている、あるいは自己決定的な風土が与えられていると認知している学習者は、より内発的に動機づ

けられる傾向にあることが指摘されている。言い換えれば、自己決定理論において動機づけを高める要因として想定されている有能性や自律性の欲求は、外国語学習者を動機づける要因としても、重要な役割を果たしている可能性があると言える。このことは、外国語学習における動機づけ研究に自己決定理論を援用することの意義や可能性をある程度、実証するものと言える。

ただし、Noelsらの研究は、有能感や自己決定感と動機づけとの相関を議論するに留まっている。つまり、上記の研究はあくまで両者の関連を検討しただけであり、これらの要因と動機づけの因果関係、言い換えれば、有能感や自己決定感を満たすことによって、本当に動機づけを高めることができるのかどうかは定かではない。そこで、本研究では、自己決定理論の枠組みから、英語学習に対する動機づけを高める方略を提案し、その効果について検討する。

英語学習に対する動機づけを高める方略

自己決定理論では、学習者の3欲求（自律性、有能性、関係性）を満たすことによって、彼らの内発的動機づけを高めることができるとしている。そこで本論では、3欲求を同時に満たす可能性を持つ英語学習活動の一例として、「グループでのプレゼンテーション活動」（田中，2005；以下，GP活動）を提案する。GP活動とは、学習者がグループで協力し合いながら英語でプレゼンテーションを行う活動である。学習者は、授業時間内に発表テーマを決め、そのテーマに関して自ら情報収集を行い、英語の発表原稿を作成し、最後にプレゼンテーションを行う。以下では、GP活動と各欲求との関連について、順に述べる。

第1に、自律性の欲求を満たすキーワードとしては、自らの学習行動に対する責任や選択が挙げられる（Ryan, 1993）。そこで、GP活動では、発表テーマの設定、グループでの役割分担の決定、学習計画の作成などを学習者自身が行うことで、学習者に自らの英語学習に対する責任や選択を付与する。教師の役割は、学習事項や解答を学習者に提示することではなく、学習者が自ら考え行動することを支援し、彼らの責任や選択を尊重することにある。

第2に、有能性の欲求を満たすキーワードとしては、肯定的なフィードバックが挙げられる（Blanch, Reis, & Jackson, 1984）。そこで、GP活動では、教師からのフィードバックによって、学習者の有能感や自己効力感を高めるような働きかけを行う。具体的には、学習者のつまづきに対して、タイミング良くヒントを与える、あるいはタスクの難易度を適切に調整するなどして、彼らが自らの学習成果に満足し、学習がうまく進んでいると感じることができるよう介入を行う。

第3に、関係性の欲求を満たすキーワードとしては、他者や集団との連帯感が挙げられる（Baumeister & Leary, 1995）。ただし、教室での教師主導型の授業では、学習者同士が連帯感を持ち、互いの学習を助け合うことは必ずしも容易ではない。そこで、GP活動では、教師主導ではなく、グループで協力する学習形態を取ることによって、関係性の欲求の充足を目指す。例えば、学習者は互いに協力して英語でのプレゼンテーションを成功させるという共通目標に向かって努力する。このように学習者がグループで目標を共有する活動は、グループの連帯感を生み易いとされている（Dörnyei, 2001b）。

以上のことから、GP活動は学習者の3欲求を満たし、結果として、彼らの英語学習への内発的動機づけを高める可能性を持つ学習活動であると考えられる。

目的

本調査では、日本人大学生の英語学習に対する内発的動機づけを高める上で、GP活動は効果的かどうかを検討する。より具体的には、次の2点について明らかにする。

- 1) GP活動は、大学生英語学習者の内発的動機づけを高めるのか。
- 2) GP活動が大学生英語学習者の内発的動機づけを高めるとすれば、どの欲求（自律性、有能性、関係性）がより重要な役割を果たすのか。

調査

調査協力者

調査協力者は、私立大学に所属する大学2年生78名（男子58名、女子20名）で、英語力はTOEIC IPで概ね、280点から450点（平均370点）程度であった。また、調査協力者の中に、英語圏に長期留学した経験のあるものはいなかった。

調査手続き

GP活動を取り入れた英語授業を、全12週の実質授業数のうち最後の5週間を使って実施した。授業計画として、調査期間5週の内、はじめの3週をグループ活動中心のプレゼンテーション準備の期間、4週目と5週目をプレゼンテーションとした。GP活動を取り入れる前後で、質問紙による動機づけ、ならびに3欲求の測定を行った¹⁾。調査はすべて、当該授業を担当している教師によって行われた。

指導内容

GP活動における発表準備には、はじめの3週間を割り当てた。第1週目では、GP活動を行うグループ、各グループの代表者、発表テーマ、発表日時を決定した。グループ決定の際は、教師が各学習者に対して所属するグループを指定するのではなく、学習者自身でグループを作るように指示された。また、各グループの代表者が自分のグループの取りまとめを行うことで、教師が学習者の学習活動をコントロールするのではなく、学習者自身がグループで意思決定を行いやすい環境を作るように配慮された。

第2週目では、学習者は発表概要を日本語でまとめた原稿を作成した。教師は学習者に、事前に概要作成のために必要な参考資料を集めるように指示していた。授業中は、集めた資料をもとに、発表概要をわかりやすくまとめるように指示した。具体的には、パラグラフ・ライティングの要領を念頭におき、簡潔にまとめるように指導した。また、図表などを用いた方がわかりやすい場合には、それらを積極的に利用するように指示した。さらに、グループ活動中は、教師は机間巡視を行い、適宜学習者にヒントを与えるようにした。

第3週目では、英語による発表原稿を作成した。原稿の作成に当たっては、上記で示したパラグラフ・ライティングの考えを参考にすること、また、プレゼンテーションの導入や結論でよく用いられる表現例（導入では、「Ladies and gentlemen, …」, 「I would like to make a speech about (talk about)」, 「Have you ever thought about (heard of)」などが、結論では、「My (Our) conclusion is that」,

「I would like to conclude by saying ~」, 「The point I wanted to make is ~」など）が紹介された。どのグループも授業時間内に作業を終えることはできなかったため、残りの作業については授業時間外に時間を設け取り組むように指示した。さらに、発表原稿は1度回収し、各グループに対して個別にフィードバックを行い、それらを踏まえて本番のプレゼンテーションに臨むよう指示した。

第4週目、第5週目では、学習者が実際にプレゼンテーションを行った。各グループが発表終了後、教師は発表に関するフィードバックを与えた。その際、各発表の良い点を取り上げること、発表がより良くなるようなコメントをすることに留意し、学習者が「やればできる」、「次も頑張ろう」という気持ちを持てるように配慮した。

測定

動機づけに関しては、Academic Motivation Scale (Vallerand, Pelletier, Blais, Briere, Senecal, & Vallieres, 1992) を参考とし、各質問項目が対象となる調査協力者の実態を反映しているかどうか留意しながら、内発的動機づけ ($\alpha = .91$) と3つの外発的動機づけ (外的調整 ($\alpha = .76$), 取入調整 ($\alpha = .88$), 同一視調整 ($\alpha = .95$)) 2からなる計20項目 (各5項目, 7件法) の尺度を作成した。また、3欲求に関しては、Basic Psychological Needs Scale (Deci & Ryan, 2000) を参考とし、調査協力者の実態を反映した質問項目を作成した。自律性 ($\alpha = .72$), 有能性 ($\alpha = .86$), 関係性 ($\alpha = .83$) について、計12項目 (各4項目, 7件法) から得られたデータを分析に用いた (詳細な質問項目はAppendixを参照)。

結果

調査協力者全体でのGP活動の効果検証

動機づけ及び3欲求の記述統計量 (表1参照) を検討した結果、内発的動機づけと取入調整に上昇が見られた。特に、内発的動機づけがプレ測定 ($M = 4.45$) からポスト測定 ($M = 5.08$) にかけて、最も顕著に上昇していた ($M_{\text{diff}} = 0.63$)。有意水準5%で対応のあるt検定を行った結果、内発的動機づけの上昇は有意であった ($t(77) = -4.28, p = .000$)。

よって、調査協力者全体でみると、GP活動は大学生の英語学習に対する内発的動機づけを高める可能性を持つと考えられる。

表1. 動機づけの記述統計量と対応のあるt検定の結果

	M (SD)		変化量	t (77)	
	プレ	ポスト		t	p
外的	4.11 (1.03)	4.22 (1.14)	0.11 (1.08)	-3.15	.339
取入	4.54 (1.29)	4.81 (1.33)	0.27 (1.08)	-0.96	.035
同一視	4.98 (1.50)	5.14 (1.41)	0.16 (1.22)	-2.14	.235
内発	4.45 (1.42)	5.08 (1.06)	0.63 (1.30)	-4.28	.000

注：有意水準5%とした両側検定

グループごとのGP活動の効果検証

GP活動の効果をより詳細に捉えるために、プレ測定の内発的動機づけ、3つの外発的動機づけ、3欲求の合計7変数を用いて、調査協力者のグループ分けを行った。平方ユークリッド距離を用いたウォード法によるクラスター分析を行い、図1のデンドログラムを基に、結合距離の変化と得られるクラスターに所属する学習者の特徴を吟味した。その結果、図1の3クラスターモデルを採択した。各グループにおける学習者の動機づけ特性をまとめた図2をもとに、第1クラスターは動機づけの平均値が7件法尺度のほぼ4から5の間の値であるため「中間動機群」、第2クラスターは自己決定性の程度が高い内発的動機づけや同一視調整が高い値を示しているため「高動機群」、第3クラスターはどの動機づけも低い値を示しているため「低動機群」とした。

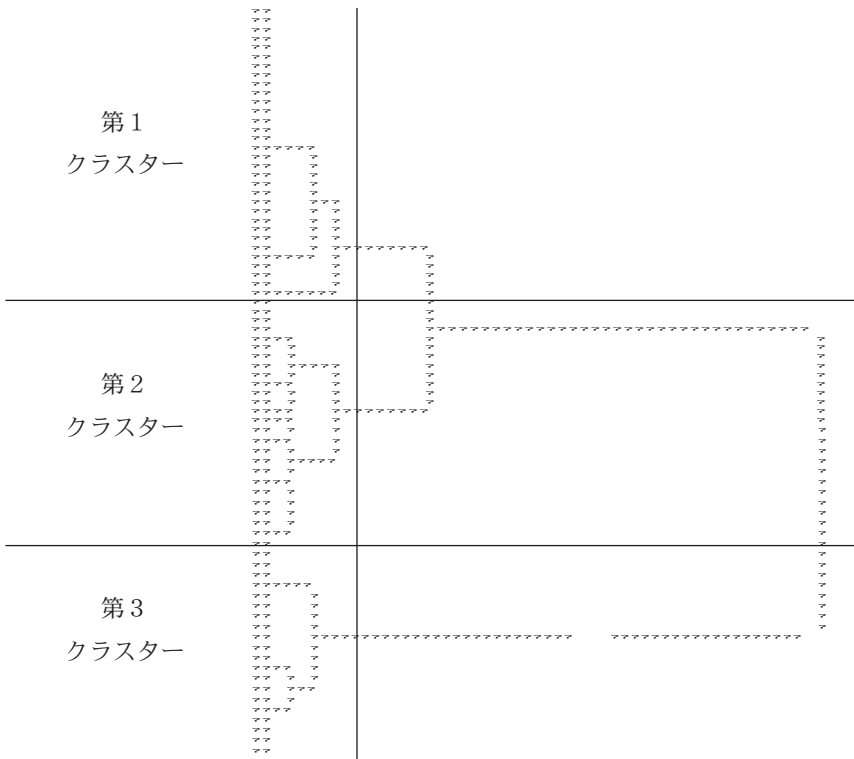


図1. クラスター分析の結果

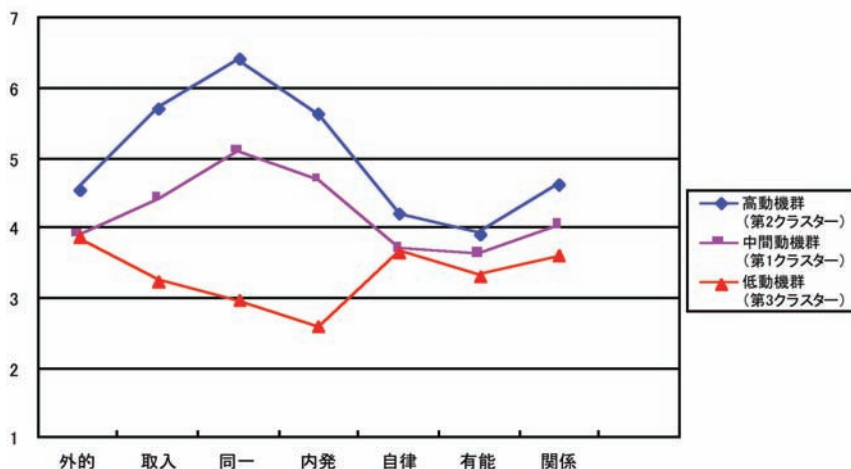


図2. クラスタ分析の結果による学習者プロフィール

次に、各グループの動機づけの変動を表2に示す。記述統計量を検討した結果、図3で示されているように、最も顕著な内発的動機づけの変動が見られたのは低動機群であった ($M_{\text{diff}} = 1.85$)。

また、中間動機群においても、小さいながら内発的動機づけの上昇が確認された ($M_{\text{diff}} = 0.36$)。

一方、高動機群では、内発的動機づけはGP活動の後もほぼ無変化であった ($M_{\text{diff}} = 0.02$)。

群（高動機群・中間動機群・低動機群）を被験者間要因、測定時点（プレ測定とポスト測定）を被験者内要因とする2要因分散分析を行った結果、群×測定時点の交互作用が有意であった ($F(2, 75) = 17.608, p = .000$)。そこで単純主効果の分析を行ったところ、低動機群においてプレ測定からポスト測定にかけての内発的動機づけの上昇が有意であることが確認された ($F(1, 75) = 57.888, p = .000$)。

以上の結果から、調査協力者全体では、GP活動は内発的動機づけの促進に効果があったこと、また、群ごとにその詳細を検討すると、GP活動の効果は、特に低動機群に顕著に見られたことが明らかとなった。ただし、高動機群に関しては、プレ測定の時点から高い内発的動機づけを示していたため ($M = 5.62$)、GP活動によって内発的動機づけが高められたというよりは、GP活動によって高いレベルの内発的動機づけが維持されたと考えられる。

調査協力者全体での促進要因の検討

本研究の第2の目的（GP活動が大学生英語学習者の内発的動機づけを高めるとすれば、どの欲求（自律性、有能性、関係性）がより重要な役割を果たすのか）を検討するために、GP活動の実施前と実施後で3欲求の変動を検討した

表2. 各群における動機づけの平均値と標準偏差の変動

	高動機群 (n = 25)			中間動機群 (n = 33)			低動機群 (n = 20)		
	ブレ	ポスト	変化量	ブレ	ポスト	変化量	ブレ	ポスト	変化量
外的	4.57 (1.15)	4.62 (1.22)	0.05 (1.13)	3.90 (0.85)	4.22 (1.09)	0.32 (0.80)	3.87 (0.99)	3.74 (0.98)	0.13 (1.37)
取入	5.73 (0.80)	5.70 (1.25)	-0.03 (1.12)	4.43 (0.76)	4.84 (0.74)	0.41 (0.79)	3.25 (1.16)	3.63 (1.31)	0.38 (1.29)
同一	6.42 (0.61)	6.06 (1.18)	-0.36 (1.20)	5.10 (0.61)	5.18 (0.89)	0.08 (.14)	2.96 (0.97)	3.93 (1.52)	1.03 (1.43)
内発	5.62 (0.99)	5.64 (1.09)	0.02 (1.32)	4.68 (0.72)	5.04 (0.79)	0.36 (0.81)	2.60 (0.78)	4.45 (1.10)	1.85 (1.15)
自律	4.28 (1.06)	5.35 (1.20)	1.07 (1.24)	3.68 (1.02)	4.98 (0.94)	1.30 (1.29)	3.50 (0.87)	4.83 (0.91)	1.33 (1.13)
有能	4.01 (1.19)	5.04 (0.95)	1.03 (1.29)	3.58 (0.79)	4.65 (0.71)	1.07 (1.23)	3.04 (0.90)	4.45 (0.94)	1.41 (1.25)
関係	4.69 (0.72)	5.45 (0.93)	0.76 (1.11)	4.02 (0.65)	5.18 (0.82)	1.16 (1.52)	3.35 (0.77)	4.89 (0.73)	1.54 (1.23)

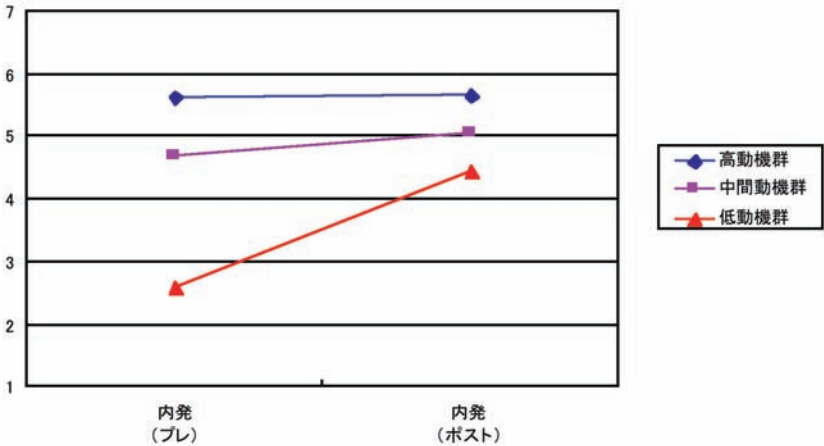


図3. 群ごとの内発的動機づけの変動

(表3参照)。記述統計量を検討した結果、3欲求すべてにおいて上昇が確認された。自律性は $M_{\text{diff}} = 1.23$ ($t(77) = -8.84, p = .000$)、有能性は $M_{\text{diff}} = 1.14$ ($t(77) = -8.08, p = .000$)、関係性は $M_{\text{diff}} = 1.13$ ($t(77) = -8.41, p = .000$)の上昇が見られた。本研究における内発的動機づけと3欲求の変動は、3欲求すべてが満たされることで内発的動機づけが促進されるという自己決定理論の主張と一致する傾向を示している。

表3. 3欲求の記述統計量と対応のあるt検定の結果

	M (SD)		t (77)		
	プレ	ポスト	変化量	t	p
自律性	3.83 (1.04)	5.06 (1.03)	1.23 (1.22)	-8.84	.000
有能性	3.58 (1.02)	4.72 (0.87)	1.14 (1.25)	-8.08	.000
関係性	4.06 (0.86)	5.19 (0.85)	1.13 (1.18)	-8.41	.000

表4. 内発的動機づけの変動と3欲求の相関係数

	内発動機の変動	自律性の変動	有能性の変動	関係性の変動
内発動機の変動	-			
自律性の変動	.41*	-		
有能性の変動	.14	.24*	-	
関係性の変動	.28*	.37*	.33*	-

Note. *は5%水準で有意

次に、内発的動機づけの上昇に最も影響を与えた要因を特定するために、内発的動機づけの変動と3欲求の変動の間の相関係数を算出した(表4参照)。その結果、有能性($r = .14$)や関係性($r = .28$)に比べて、自律性($r = .41$)が最も内発的動機づけの上昇と関連が強いことが示された。このことから、調査協力者全体で考えた場合、内発的動機づけを促進する上では自律性が最も重要な役割を果たしていた可能性があると考えられる。

グループごとでの促進要因の検討

3欲求がいかに内発的動機づけを高めるかをより詳細に捉えるため、グループごとの3欲求の平均値の変動を検討した(表2参照)。その結果、図4、5、6から明らかなように、どの群の学習者も、GP活動の前後で3欲求に対する認知を高めていた。具体的には、低動機群では、自律性($M_{\text{diff}} = 1.13$)、有能性($M_{\text{diff}} = 1.41$)、関係性($M_{\text{diff}} = 1.54$)、中間動機群では、自律性($M_{\text{diff}} = 1.30$)、有能性($M_{\text{diff}} = 1.07$)、関係性($M_{\text{diff}} = 1.16$)、さらに、高動機群においても、自律性($M_{\text{diff}} = 1.07$)、有能性($M_{\text{diff}} = 1.03$)、関係性($M_{\text{diff}} = 0.76$)の上昇が確認さ

れた。群（高動機群・中間動機群・低動機群）を被験者間要因、測定時点（プレ測定とポスト測定）を被験者内要因とする2要因分散分析を行った結果、自律性（ $F(1, 75) = 73.586, p = .000$ ）、有能性（ $F(1, 75) = 64.774, p = .000$ ）、関係性（ $F(1, 75) = 73.425, p = .000$ ）において、測定時点の主効果のみが有意であった。したがって、GP活動は、各グループにおける学習者の3欲求に対する認知を概ね満たしていたと考えられる。

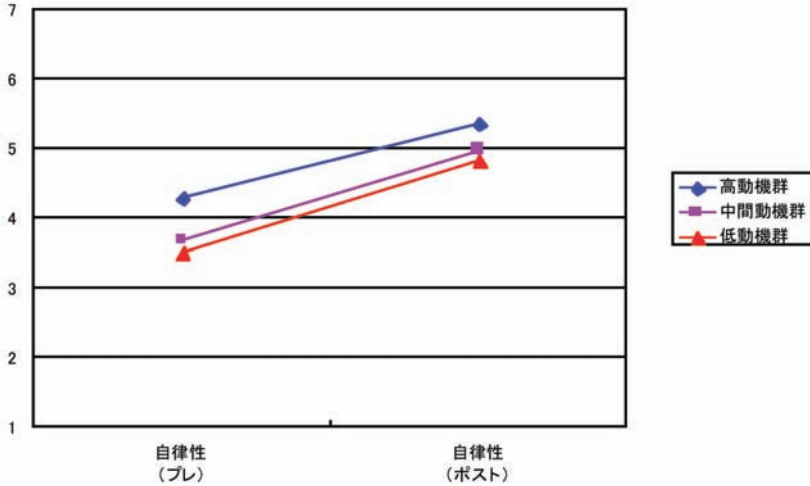


図4. 群ごとの自律性の欲求の変動

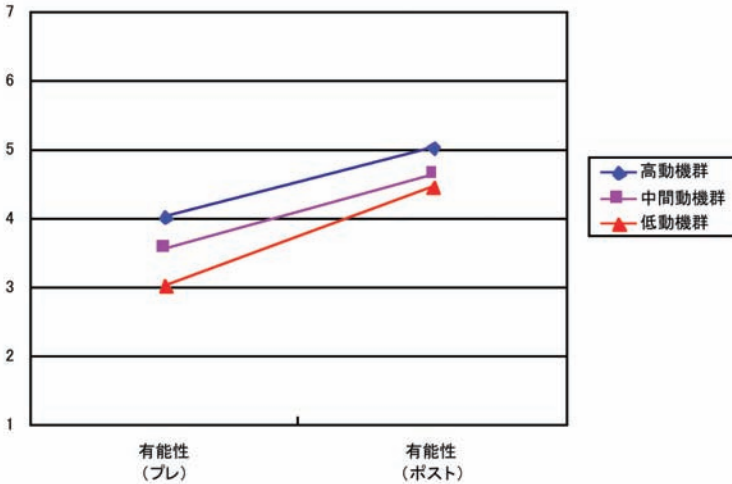


図5. 群ごとの有能性の欲求の変動

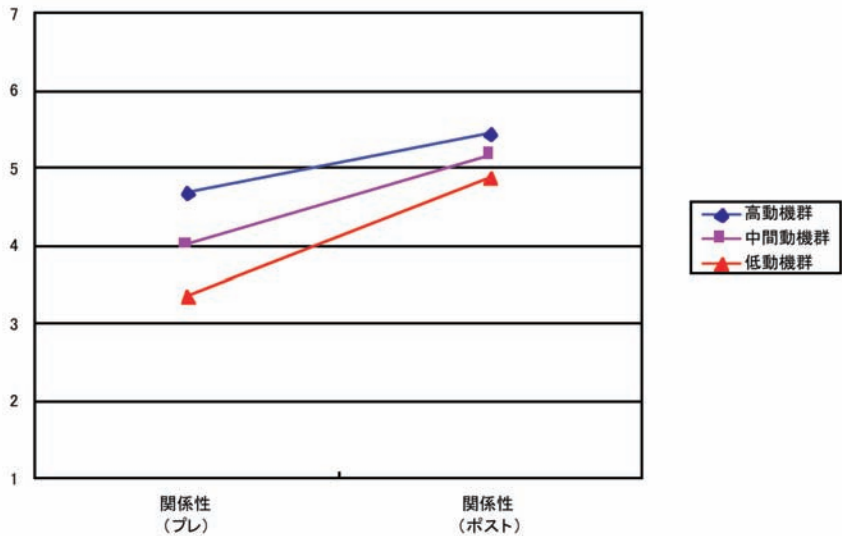


図6. 群ごとの関係性の欲求の変動

次に、内発的動機づけの平均値の変動と3欲求の平均値の変動の相関係数を検討する。表5から明らかなように、3欲求の上昇と内発的動機づけの上昇の関連性は、学習者の動機づけ段階に応じて異なっていることが分かる。つまり、自律性の上昇が内発的動機づけの上昇と顕著に関連しているのは、高動機群 ($r = .58$) と低動機群 ($r = .56$) である。有能性の上昇に関しては、低動機群 ($r = .68$) の内発的動機づけの上昇と密接に関連している。関係性の上昇は、どの群においても内発的動機づけの上昇と顕著な関連性を示していない。ただし、相関係数自体はそれほど大きくないが、関係性の上昇は、高動機群 ($r = .19$) や中間動機群 ($r = .08$) と比較して、低動機群の内発的動機づけの上昇 ($r = .31$) と最も強く関連していたことがわかる。

表5. 各群における内発的動機づけの変動と3欲求の相関係数

	内発動機の変動	自律性の変動	有能性の変動	関係性の変動
内発の変動	-			
自律の変動	.58* / .26 / .56*	-		
有能の変動	-.51* / .32 / .68*	-.24 / .57* / .27	-	
関係の変動	.19 / .08 / .31	.25 / .45* / .34	.14 / .63* / .04	-

Note. 高群 / 中群 / 低群。*は5%水準で有意

以上の相関係数の検討から、高動機群の内発的動機づけの上昇には、自律性の認知に対する変化が重要な働きをしていると考えられる。ただし、有能性の

変動と内発的動機づけの変動には、負の相関 ($r = -.51$) も見られた。中間動機群に関しては、内発的動機づけの上昇と顕著に関連した3欲求は特定されなかったが、相関係数の群内比較からは、自律性 ($r = .26$) と有能性 ($r = .32$) の上昇が内発的動機づけを高める上での鍵になると推察される。さらに、低動機群においては、程度差はあるものの、3欲求のいずれもが内発的動機づけの上昇と関連を持っていると考えられる。

考察

本論では、GP活動が英語学習に対する内発的動機づけを高めるのかどうかを、調査協力者の全体傾向と個人差を視野に入れた群ごとという2つの観点から検討した。

第1の全体傾向という観点から、調査協力者全体でGP活動実施後の内発的動機づけの変動を検討した。その結果、GP活動は学習者の3欲求を満たし、彼らの内発的動機づけを高めた。ただ、内発的動機づけの変化量 ($M_{\text{diff}} = .63$) の有意差は確認されたものの、この変化量に対して実質科学的にどの程度の重要性を見出すかは議論があるかもしれない。その際、動機づけの変化を1年間の縦断研究で捉えようとした山森 (2004) が参考になる。山森 (2004) は、教師が動機づけを高めるための特別な介入を行わなければ、動機づけは4月の新学期から翌年3月の学年末までの1年間で低下する傾向を報告している。このように通常は低下傾向が見られる動機づけを、5週間の教育実践的介入によって上昇傾向に変化させた点から、本論で用いたGP活動が動機づけを高める方略として有効であったと判断されよう。また、GP活動による内発的動機づけ促進の原因を探るため、3欲求の充足度と内発的動機づけの上昇との関連を検討した結果、調査協力者全体では自律性の欲求の充足が内発的動機づけの上昇に最も重要であることが示された。

次に、個人差を視野に入れた群ごとという観点から、動機づけ状態に応じて調査協力者を複数のグループに分け、グループごとにGP活動の効果を検証した。その結果、GP活動によって最も内発的動機づけが高まったグループは内発的動機づけの低い調査協力者群 (低動機群) で、GP活動によって $M_{\text{diff}} = 1.85$ の上昇が確認された。調査協力者全体での内発的動機づけの上昇が $M_{\text{diff}} = .63$ であったことを鑑みると、これはかなり顕著な上昇と言えよう。外国映画のリスニング活動を取り入れた授業によって中学生の動機づけを高めることに成功した菊池・中山 (2006) では、リスニング意欲を5件法で測定し、介入後に男子で $M_{\text{diff}} = .63$ 、女子で $M_{\text{diff}} = .54$ の上昇を報告している³。本論では7件法を採用しているが、それでも $M_{\text{diff}} = 1.85$ という上昇量はかなり大きな変化と言えよう。ただし、このグループに属する調査協力者は低動機群とされているように、プレ測定の時点での動機づけが極めて低かった。そのためにGP活動後の動機づけの変動が大きくなりやすい傾向があった点は指摘されよう。しかし、授業の中にGP活動を取り入れることで、動機づけが低く、授業に対しても消極的であった学習者の内発的動機づけを高めることができたという点は、動機づけを高める授業実践という観点からは注目し値するだろう。このような動機づけの低い学習者の内発的動機づけを高める効果は、高校生を対象にした調査でも確認されていることから (田中, 2005)、GP活動は動機づけが低く、授業に対する取り組みが消極的な学習者を授業活動に取り込むことができる可能性を持つ活動と

言えよう。

では、このような動機づけの低い調査協力者にとって、GP活動のどのような側面が内発的動機づけの促進に影響を与えたのだろうか。群ごとの3欲求の充足度と内発的動機づけの上昇との関連に着目したところ、低動機群の学習者にとっては、3欲求のすべてが内発的動機づけの上昇に関連しており、特に、自律性と有能性の欲求の充足が内発的動機づけの上昇と密接に関連していた。このような自律性と有能性の優位性は、内発的動機づけが高すぎず、また低すぎもしない調査協力者（中間動機群）にも見受けられた。ただし、この2つの群においては、関係性の欲求の充足の役割に違いが見られる。動機づけが低い学習者にとって、他者との友好な連帯感を持つことはある程度重要であった。一方、中間動機群においては、そのような連帯感は内発的動機づけの上昇とほとんど関連が見られなかった。同様に、高動機群においても、関係性の欲求の充足と内発的動機づけの上昇にはほとんど関連が見られなかった。この結果は、関係性は内発的動機づけの上昇において、中心的ではなく、副次的な役割を果たすものであるとする自己決定理論の見解と一致するものである（例えば、Deci & Ryan, 2002）。

これらの結果をまとめると、以下の3点になる。第1に、GP活動は調査協力者の3欲求を満たし、内発的動機づけを高める働きがあった。第2に、調査協力者全体で見ると、3欲求の中でも特に自律性の欲求を満たすことで、彼らの内発的動機づけを高めることができた。第3に、調査協力者の動機づけ状態に応じて、内発的動機づけを高める3欲求の働きは異なっていた。つまり、低動機群にとっては、3欲求のすべてが内発的動機づけの上昇に重要であり、特に、自律性と有能性の欲求が重要である。中間動機群にとっては関係性の欲求はほとんど内発的動機づけの上昇と関連がなく、自律性と有能性の欲求が重要であった。一方、高動機群にとっては自律性が重要であり、関係性はほとんど関連がなく、有能性に至っては負の関連にあることが示された。

本研究の結果に基づく理論的示唆については、以下の2点が挙げられる。まず自己決定理論では内発的動機づけが高まる上で自律性の欲求が最も重要な役割を果たすとしているが、本研究ではそれを支持する結果が得られた。ただし、本研究では、内発的動機づけの促進に影響を与える要因に関して、少なからぬ個人差も見られた。このことから、第2の理論的示唆として、教育実践に焦点を当てた研究では自己決定理論による知見をトップダウン式に学習者に当てはめるのではなく、彼らの個人差特性を十分に加味しながら、状況に応じて理論を柔軟に解釈する必要性も指摘される。

最後に、上記の点と関連して、教育実践に関する示唆を述べる。それは、学習者の動機づけ段階と、そこで必要とされる教育的な働きかけの関係についてである。速水（1998）は、動機づけの喚起を考える上で、学習者がどの動機づけ段階にあるときに、どのような働きかけが最も有効に機能するかは必ずしも明らかではないとしている。そのような指摘に対して、本研究の結果は2つの可能性を示すことができる。

第1に、動機づけが低い学習者の内発的動機づけを高めるためには、授業の中で3欲求をバランスよく満たす配慮が求められる。つまり、学習者に「やればできる」という気持ちを持たせることで、彼らの有能感を育むような働きかけを行うこと、教師によって勉強をさせられているのではなく、自分から学習に主体的に関わっているという気持ちを持たせること、そして、クラスメイト

と共に学びあう雰囲気を作ることが、内発的動機づけを高めるためには重要である。ただし、動機づけが低い学習者に、学習に対する責任をはじめからすべて持たせることには困難も伴う。そのような際には、まず他者との友好的な連帯感を十分に育てた後、個人の学習に対する責任や選択を徐々に与えるという段階的なアプローチを採用すると良いだろう。

第2に、動機づけが中程度の段階にある学習者には、他者との協力や連帯感よりは、「やればできる」という気持ちや、自らが主体的に英語学習に取り組んでいるという認識を持たせることが重要だと考えられる。GP活動において、調査協力者はプレゼンテーションのテーマ設定から、準備の進め方、発表の方法など、自身の英語学習のプロセスにある程度の選択権や責任が与えられた。また、GP活動は難易度が高い活動であり、そのような学習を成功させることで、学習者は「やればできる」という気持ちを有するようになったと考えられる。

第3に、動機づけが高い学習者にとっては、自分のペースで学習を行えることが最も重要だと考えられる。教師は動機づけが高い学習者には、彼らが自主的に取り組める課題やタスクを積極的に与え、学習に対する責任感や自主性を尊重する必要がある。

以上のように、学習者の動機づけ段階に応じた働きかけを行うということは、彼らがより望ましい動機づけを発達させるのを支援するという点において、非常に重要だと考えられる。学習者の英語学習への内発的動機づけが極端に低い場合には、他者の支援が必要となる。しかし、そのような学習者の動機づけがある程度、高まってきたなら、他者依存的から自己決定的行動を促す働きかけがより有効であろう。個々の学習者が徐々に学ぶ意欲を育て、将来的に英語学習に対する内発的動機づけを高める指導を行う上で、このような視点は欠かせないものと考えられる。

限界点

最後に、本論の限界点として、以下の3点を指摘しておく。

第1は、高動機群における有能性の欲求と内発的動機づけの負の相関関係である。学習者が有能感を得ると動機づけが下がるという矛盾した結果が生じた背景として、本調査での有能性の欲求という概念に、学習者の有能性判断の基準を設定していなかった点が指摘される。つまり、学習者が何を基準に有能感を感じたかが定かではない。Elliot, McGregor, and Thrash (2002) によると、有能性の判断基準として、「タスクの難易度基準」(*task-referential*)、「過去の自分基準」(*past-referential*)、「他者基準」(*other-referential*)の3点を挙げている。特に、「過去の自分基準」とは、個人内・絶対基準による有能性の判断であり、「他者基準」とは相対基準である。これらの有能性判断の基準が重要なのは、有能性の判断基準によって学習者の目標志向性が異なり、有能感の獲得と内発的動機づけの関係が変化し得るからである。

例えば、Elliotらの目標理論の研究(例えば、Elliot & McGregor, 2001)によると、個人内・絶対基準による有能性の判断は「学習接近目標」(*learning-approach goal*)を導く。この目標を持つ学習者は、当該課題に対する理解を基に、自己の成長や進歩を目指す傾向がある。一方、相対基準による有能性の判断は、「遂行接近目標」(*performance-approach goal*)を導く。遂行接近目標を

持つ学習者は、自分自身の学力を伸ばすためというより、当該課題を無事にクリアすることを目指し、特に他者よりもよくできることを目標とする。あるいは、この相対基準による有能性の判断が、他者よりも自分の英語力が劣っているという状態を避けるために学習に取り組んだり、他者から否定的な評価を回避するために学習に取り組む「遂行回避目標」(performance-avoidance goal)をもたらすこともある。

この3つの目標の中で、内発的動機づけに対して肯定的な影響を与えるのは、学習接近目標のみであり、遂行接近目標は内発的動機づけに影響をほとんど与えず、遂行回避目標に至っては内発的動機づけに否定的な影響を与える(Elliot & Church, 1997)。このようなことから、本論で内発的動機づけと有能性が負の相関にあった背景には、高動機群の学習者が相対基準による有能性の判断を行い、遂行回避目標を有してGP活動に取り組んでいた可能性が考えられる。GP活動において、学習者は、クラスメイトや教師の前で自分達が調べた内容を英語で発表しなければならない。そのため、自分の英語の発音に自信がない学習者、あるいは自分の英作文力に不安を持っている学習者は、発表時に他者から否定的な評価を受けることを避けたいという気持ちが働いた可能性がある。今後は、本論で用いた有能性に関する質問項目に、有能性の判断基準の視点を取り入れて、さらに詳細に検討する必要性が指摘される。

第2に、本調査は調査協力者の数が極めて限られた実践研究である。今後更なる調査を重ねることで、GP活動の内発的動機づけ促進効果の裏づけを行い、結果の一般化可能性を深めていく必要がある。

第3に、本調査からは、GP活動が3欲求を満たすことで調査協力者の内発的動機づけを促進するという関係は示されたが、具体的にGP活動のどのような部分が3欲求の充足に影響を与えたのかは明らかではない。このことをより詳細に検討するには、学習者に自由記述形式の質問紙調査やインタビューを行い、そのデータを質的な側面から分析・解釈する必要がある。

注

1. 本調査では、動機づけと3欲求の変化を被験者内比較によって捉える。このような介入の効果を検証する場合、通常は介入を行わない統制群を設定した被験者間比較を行うことが一般的である。本調査では、既存のクラスを利用したサンプリングであること、また、日常の教育改善という目的が第1義にあるため、クラス間で授業内容を変えることはできないことから、統制群を置かない被験者内比較を実施した。
2. 自己決定理論では、行動における自己決定性の程度に基づいて、外発的動機づけを外発的調整(external regulation)、取入調整(introjected regulation)、同一視調整(identified regulation)のように細分化し、連続体を成すものとして想定している(Deci & Ryan, 1985)。なお、本調査の目的は内発的動機づけの変動を調べることであり、外発的動機づけに関する情報は学習者のプロファイリングに用いる。
3. 菊池・中山(2006)では、リスニング意欲の測定を5件法の5項目で行い、リスニング意欲得点を合計得点(得点範囲5から25)で算出している。本論では動機づけ得点を平均値で算出していることから、比較のために菊池・中山(2006)で報告されている合計得点を項目数(5)で割るこ

とで、平均値として本論で記述した。菊池・中山（2006）では、介入後に合計得点で男子で3.16、女子で2.71の変化量を報告している。

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Appendix 調査で用いられた質問項目

「英語学習の取り組み」に関するアンケート

I あなたの英語学習に対する動機や理由に関して、教えてください。以下の基準で、該当する数字を○で囲んでください。

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
まったく ちがう	ちがう	ややちがう	どちらでも ない	ややその とおり	そのとおり	まったくそ のとおり

- | | | |
|----|--|-----------------|
| 1 | 英語を勉強している時に、「あっそうか」や「なるほど」と思うような発見がある。 | (1・2・3・4・5・6・7) |
| 2 | 英語を勉強することで、初めて気づくことがあると嬉しい。 | (1・2・3・4・5・6・7) |
| 3 | 英語圏の人々や、彼らの生活様式について知るの楽しい。 | (1・2・3・4・5・6・7) |
| 4 | 英語ができるようになると、今までとは違う自分の新しい一面を見ることができる。 | (1・2・3・4・5・6・7) |
| 5 | 英語を勉強し続けていると、今まで聞き取れなかった単語や言葉がわかるようになるのが嬉しい。 | (1・2・3・4・5・6・7) |
| 6 | 授業や進学で必要だから、英語を勉強している。 | (1・2・3・4・5・6・7) |
| 7 | 将来、良い仕事に就きたいから、英語を勉強している。 | (1・2・3・4・5・6・7) |
| 8 | 仕事に就いた後も、給料などで良い待遇を得たいから、英語を勉強している。 | (1・2・3・4・5・6・7) |
| 9 | テスト（試験・定期考査・入試など）で、英語があるから勉強している。 | (1・2・3・4・5・6・7) |
| 10 | 英検やTOEICなどの英語の資格試験に必要なから、英語を勉強している。 | (1・2・3・4・5・6・7) |
| 11 | 英語を使えないと、将来困りそうだから勉強している。 | (1・2・3・4・5・6・7) |
| 12 | 英語で会話ができると、なんとなく格好良い。 | (1・2・3・4・5・6・7) |
| 13 | 英語をスラスラ書けると、なんとなく格好良い。 | (1・2・3・4・5・6・7) |

14 英語ができないと、なんとなく不安を感じる ことがある。	(1・2・3・4・5・6・7)
15 英語ができないと、恥ずかしい気分になる ことがある。	(1・2・3・4・5・6・7)
16 自分の将来のためには、英語は大切である。	(1・2・3・4・5・6・7)
17 英語を勉強すると、自分自身の訓練になる。	(1・2・3・4・5・6・7)
18 英語を使える人になりたいから勉強している。	(1・2・3・4・5・6・7)
19 英語の会話や書く技能を身につけることは、自 分にとって必要だと思うから勉強している。	(1・2・3・4・5・6・7)
20 英語を学ぶことは、自分の成長に役立つと思 う。	(1・2・3・4・5・6・7)

Ⅱ この授業に対する、皆さんの印象や取り組みについて教えてください。以下の基準で、該当数字に○をつけてください。

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	まったく ちがう	ちがう	ややちがう	どちらでも ない	ややその とおり	そのとおり	まったくそ のとおり
1 この英語の授業では、教材・授業の進め方・学 習内容に関して、私たちにある程度の選択の自 由が、与えられていると思う。	(1・2・3・4・5・6・7)						
2 この英語の授業では、先生は私たちの授業に 関する意見を尊重してくれていると思う。	(1・2・3・4・5・6・7)						
3 この英語の授業では、授業の進め方の希望な どを、先生に伝える機会が与えられていると思 う。	(1・2・3・4・5・6・7)						
4 この英語の授業では、プレッシャーを感じず に勉強をすることができると思う。	(1・2・3・4・5・6・7)						
5 この英語の授業では、「できた」という達成 感が得られると思う。	(1・2・3・4・5・6・7)						
6 この英語の授業では、先生やクラスメイトか ら「よくできた」と誉められるなど、良い評 価をしてもらえと思う。	(1・2・3・4・5・6・7)						

7 この英語の授業では、「よくがんばった」という満足感が得られると思う。	(1・2・3・4・5・6・7)
8 この英語の授業では、自分の努力の成果が実ったという充実感が得られることがあると思う。	(1・2・3・4・5・6・7)
9 この英語の授業では、同じ教室の仲間と仲良くやっていると思う。	(1・2・3・4・5・6・7)
10 この英語の授業でのグループ活動・ペアワークでは、協力し合う雰囲気があると思う。	(1・2・3・4・5・6・7)
11 この英語の授業では、和気あいあいとした雰囲気があると思う。	(1・2・3・4・5・6・7)
12 この英語の授業では、同じ教室の仲間同士で学びあう雰囲気があると思う。	(1・2・3・4・5・6・7)

* ご協力，ありがとうございました。皆さんの貴重な意見を，これからの授業の改善に生かせるように努力します。

日本人学生とのやり取りを通した作文授業の影響 —PAC分析による学習者理解

Influence of a writing course with interpersonal interaction in L2: Understanding learners' attitudes through Personal Attitude Construct (PAC) analysis

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This study documents attitude changes with respect to writing in Japanese as a second language (L2) by using Personal Attitude Construct (PAC) analysis. The study specifically focuses on attitude changes observed in an L2 writing course, which included interpersonal interaction in the L2 via **email and oral communication** in person.

The participants in the study were three male learners of Japanese as an L2 from the United States enrolled in a short-term study abroad program at a university in Tokyo. None of the participants had prior experience of study abroad or extensive writing in Japanese. The L1 of the participants was English and their L2 proficiency level was assessed as intermediate-low according to the placement procedures at the given university.

The writing course in which the study was conducted had 11 students from diverse L1 backgrounds from which three participants were recruited for the purpose of the study. The class was 90 minutes long and met once a week (14 times per semester). Volunteer Japanese assistants, who were recruited from Japanese students at the same university, participated in the course to provide intercultural and interpersonal interaction in the L2. The responsibilities of the volunteer Japanese assistants included exchanging email as assigned in the course on a one-

to-one basis and assisting the learners as they completed a small-group course project.

The data were collected twice, during the first class meeting of the course and right after the course ended. The Personal Attitude Construct (PAC) method proposed by Naito (1993, 2002) was employed as the method of data collection. The participants' specific tasks included handwriting words or phrases that they associated with "writing in Japanese," rank ordering the associated items, and comparing the subjective distance between two of the associated items. The data were analyzed following the PAC analysis method (Naito, 1993; 2002) in order to examine the influence that the writing course and the interactive activities with L2 native speakers in the L2, had on participants' attitudes toward writing in the L2.

The results indicated a variety of changes in the participants' attitudes toward writing in Japanese. For example, one participant who had anxieties about writing in Japanese gained a positive attitude and confidence. On the contrary, another participant who was a very persistent student in the course and stated that he was ready for the challenges of L2 writing at the beginning of the course developed emotional distance toward writing in the L2. It can be speculated that the involvement of the Japanese volunteer assistant in his learning processes negatively affected his attitude toward his learning. The results also indicated discrepancies between the PAC analysis results and the impressions and observations of the instructor regarding the participants' attitudes. Other sources of data such as the students' course evaluations or the participants' course performance did not signal such discrepancies.

These findings indicate that PAC analysis can provide unique and constructive information on learners' attitudes and attitude change which is not available from conventional sources, such as instructors' impressions, learners' course performance, and course evaluations. Thus, it is advisable that language educators employ various sources of information on learners' psychological constructs and changes in order for writing courses to be better tailored to individual learners.

本研究では、日本人学生とのEメールや授業での直接的なやり取りを通した1学期の作文授業の前後にPAC(Personal Attitude Construct:個人別態度構造)分析を行い、日本語で書くことに対する学習者のイメージの変化を追究し、授業の学習者個人々人への影響を明らかにした。調査協力者(日本語中級前半レベルの留学生3名)は、学期前は日本語で書くことに対して葛藤状態にあったものの肯定的イメージが若干勝っていたが、学期後は授業での経験によりそれぞれ異なる変容を示した。留学生Aは幸せな感情を持ち、肯定的イメージが強くなった。留学生Bは自信をつけ、身近で楽しいイメージを持つようになった。これに対し、書く能力の向上が著しかった留学生Cは心理的距離を持つようになった。PAC分析を学期の前後に行ったことにより、授業中の教師の観察や質問紙による一斉調査では気づき得ない学習者の内面が明らかになった。

昨今のITの発達、インターネットの普及により、世界中から情報を得、コミュニケーションを行うことが可能となっている。この情報の受信・発信に必要な能力とは「読む能力」と「書く能力」である。

しかし、外国語で文章を書く能力を向上させることは難しく、苦手意識を持つ学習者は多いと思われる。読解や文法等と異なり、練習問題をこなせば力がつくというのではなく、一人では適切な言葉や表現を学習することが困難なためである。能力向上のためには伝えたいことを書き、フィードバックを得るのがよいであろうが、相手の負担が大きいため気軽に練習することが難しい。さらに日本語の場合、ひらがな・カタカナ・漢字の3種類の文字があり、漢字の多さ・複雑さに加え、多様な読み方・送り仮名があり、学習者の負担が大きい。

一方、書く能力をつけさせるための作文授業は一定時間内での一斉授業が行いにくく、教師にとっても負担の大きいものの1つである。その理由として、学習者によって必要とされる語彙・文型等が異なり、提出される作品においても内容・誤用等と同じものがないため個別性が高いこと、添削の際、誤用の判定（語彙・文型・構成等のいずれに問題があるのか）が困難な場合が多く、要する時間とエネルギーが多々であることが挙げられる。

以上のような問題を解決するための試みの1つに、日本人の協力者に授業に参加してもらう方法がある。形式としては日本語のEメールを交換するもの（板倉・中島, 2001; 才田, 1999; Torii-Williams, 2004; 吉村・宮副ウォン, 2005）、日本人が支援者として実際に授業に参加するもの（吉本他, 2004）、授業中に日本人と日本語学習者が作文を交換するもの（得丸, 2000）等がある。その効果として、教室活動の活性化・新しい言葉や表現の獲得・授業時間を超えた日本語使用・学習者の日本へのステレオタイプの修正・日本語で書くことへの意欲や自信の高まり・新たな自己の発見等が報告されている。しかし、これらの報告は授業後に調査を行い、授業に対するクラス全体の感想を研究者がまとめるか、研究者が作成した質問紙による一斉調査のデータを分析したものである。このような方法では研究者が予め設定した質問に回答する形式を取るため、その質問には反映されない学習者の内面を知ることは難しい。また、作文授業は個別性の高いものであるにもかかわらず、学習者個々に焦点が当てられていない。

そこで本研究では、授業の学習者個々人への影響を明らかにするため、内藤（1993, 2002）が開発したPAC（Personal Attitude Construct: 個人別態度構造）分析を用いる。PAC分析とは、分析者の理論的視点や主観が関与しやすい従来の事例研究法の欠点を補うべく開発された方法で、当該テーマに関する自由連想、連想項目間の類似度評定、類似度距離行列によるクラスター分析、当人によるクラスター構造のイメージや解釈の報告、研究者による総合的解釈を通じ、個人別にイメージ構造を分析する方法である。内藤（2002）によると、技法としてのPAC分析の最大の特徴は、自由連想・多変量解析（クラスター分析）・現象学的データ解釈技法（調査協力者によるクラスター構造のイメージや解釈の報告）の3つを組み合わせたことである。自由連想は、研究者のスキーマ（ものの見方）ではなく調査協力者自身のスキーマに沿った変数を取り出すことを可能とし、クラスター分析は、統計データを見慣れていない調査協力者にとっては項目群から喚起されるイメージやまとまった理由を探索しやすく、研究者にとっては要因（クラスター）間の関係についての解釈を得やすくする。現象学的データ解釈技法は、調査協力者の独自性が反映された連想項目やクラスター

構造についての解釈を、研究者が単独で推測するのではなく、研究者と調査協力者が協働して調査協力者の現象世界を理解する技法である。

PAC分析を用いて外国語学習者のイメージの変化を調査した研究はいくつか行われている。井上 (2001) は日本への不適応を起こした学習者の文化受容態度の変化と適応過程の変化との関連を明らかにし、文化受容態度に即した援助活動の必要性を示した。渡辺・関・才田他 (1994)、藤田・佐藤 (1996) は約1ヶ月間の教育実習生の授業を研究対象とし、実習生と学習者の授業観・教師観の変化を調査したが、実習生と異なり、学習者の授業観・教師観にはあまり変化が見られなかった。その理由として、学習者にとっては期間が短く、平常の授業と大差がなかったことが挙げられている。しかし、1学期間にわたって日本人学生が参加する初めての形式の授業を経験した場合、学習者の日本語に関するイメージに認知的変容が生じる可能性がある。さらにその変容を分析することにより、授業の有効性が判断でき、改善につなげられる可能性もある。

以上のことから本研究では、日本人学生とのやり取りを通した作文授業 (1学期間) において、学習者の日本語で書くことに対するイメージにどのような認知的変容が生じるかを明らかにすることを目的とする。

調査方法

対象授業

本研究が対象とする授業は東京の私立大学における短期留学生対象の日本語プログラムの選択科目の1つであり、中級前半から後半レベルの学習者が対象である。目標は自分の考えや気持ちが相手にきちんと伝わる作文が書けるようになることであり、主な内容は表1の通りであった。授業は週1回の90分授業が14回行われた。

表1 授業内容

回	内容
1	オリエンテーション
2	はがき・Eメールの書き方
3	手紙1・Eメールで使う基本的な表現
4	手紙2
5	作文の書き方の基本 (1) 目的・理由の述べ方
6	作文の書き方の基本 (2) 共通点・類似点・相違点の述べ方
7	作文の書き方の基本 (3) 意見・感想の述べ方
8	作文の書き方の基本 (4) 「である体」
9	最終課題準備
10	最終課題準備
11	中間発表
12	最終課題準備
13	発表会1
14	発表会2

対象授業を履修したのは中級前半レベルの学習者6名と中級後半レベルの学習者5名であり、国籍はアメリカが8名、中国・フランス・フィリピンが各1名である。この授業では日本人学部生のボランティアである「クラスゲスト」を日本人の協力者として活用した。

クラスゲストは第2回目の授業後から学習者と1対1で課題に従ったEメールの交換を通して学習者を支援した。第9回目の授業からはクラスゲスト5名が授業に直接参加し、学習者2名ないし3名とクラスゲスト1名の固定したグループで各学習者の最終課題の作文の内容について話し合い、論旨を明確にする作業を行った。教師は作業を各グループに任せ、授業中は各グループを回り、学習者の作文の内容を深めるための質問をしたり、学習者とクラスゲストだけでは解決が困難な問題の相談にのったりしていた。

調査協力者

学期前後の調査すべてに協力が得られた中級前半レベルの学習者3名を本研究の調査協力者とした。3名(留学生A、B、C)はいずれも男性で大学の学部生であり、年齢は20代前半である。アメリカ国籍で来日直後であり、以前に日本留学経験はなく、日本語で長い文章を書いた経験もなかった。留学生Aは専門が世界の言語と文化であり、話すことが好きな明るい学習者である。留学生Bは専門が東アジアの言語と文化であり、読書が好きなおとなしい学習者である。留学生Cは専門がコンピューターであり、1つずつ積み上げていくタイプのまじめな学習者である。留学生Cのみ中国系であるが、英語で教育を受けてきており、中国語話者と中国語でコミュニケーションを図ることは困難であると述べていた。

PAC分析の手続き

PAC分析は初回の授業直後と学期終了直後の2回行った(以下学期前、学期後とする)。

1. 「日本語で書く」という言葉から連想される項目を1枚のカードに1つずつ自由に書かせた。項目は日本語でも英語でも、単語でも文でも構わないとし、項目数も自由とした。
2. 連想が終わったところで、内容の肯定・否定に関わらず、調査協力者にとって重要であると感じられる順にカードを並べ替えさせ、その順位をカードに記入させた。
3. 項目相互を比較し、2つの項目が直感的イメージでどの程度近いかを7段階で評定させ、その結果を縦・横軸に重要度が書かれている表に記入させた。これをすべてのカード間で行った(表2)。
4. カード間の評定結果をクラスター分析(ワード法)で処理し、分析結果として得たデンドログラム(樹状図、図1から図6参照)に、調査協力者が書いた項目を記入した。
5. デンドログラムに基づき、調査協力者に面接調査を実施し、1)デンドログラムの分け方(以下分けられた項目の固まりを「クラスター」とする)、2)各クラスターから浮かぶイメージ、3)クラスター間の関係、4)全体のイメージ、5)各項

目の意味とイメージ (+／－／0で評価)¹⁾の5点について尋ねた。図1を例にすると、留学生Aはデンドログラムを5つのクラスターに分け、各クラスターのイメージを【チャレンジ】、【練習】、【思い出すこと】、【楽しい】、【簡単なこと】とした。図1から図6の縦軸は項目の重要順位と項目のイメージ、横軸は項目間の距離²⁾を表す。なお、面接調査は3.までを終えてから1週間以内に実施した。使用言語は日本語でも英語でもよいとしたが、調査協力者は表現が難しい場合を除き、日本語を使用した。

表2 連想項目間の類似度距離行列の例
(行列の○内の番号は各項目の重要順位)

	①	②	③	④	⑤
①	0	3	4	6	2
②		0	3	5	1
③			0	2	7
④				0	2
⑤					0

分析結果と考察
留学生Aの結果
学期前

図1は留学生Aの学期前の調査結果である。

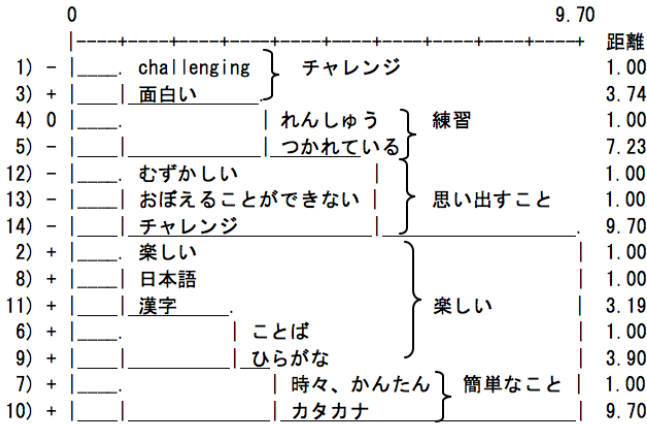


図1 留学生A 「日本語で書く」に対するイメージ (学期前)

1つ目のクラスターは「challenging」と「面白い」から成る。留学生Aは日本語を書くことはチャレンジングで面白いためとまとまったと解釈し、このクラスターを【チャレンジ】と名づけた。2つ目のクラスターは「練習」と「つかれている」から成る。留学生Aは日本語を書く練習をしていると疲れると述べ、このクラスターを【練習】とした。3つ目は「むずかしい」、「おぼえることができない」、「チャレンジ」で構成される。日本語を書くことが難しいのは単語や動詞の活用等を覚えることが難しいためであるが、それがチャレンジにつながるかと説明した。イメージは【思い出すこと】である。ここで、留学生Aに「challenging」と「チャレンジ」を書いた理由を尋ねると、言語学習はとてもチャレンジングなことであるため2回書いたと述べ、両者は同じ意味であるとした。しかしながら、両者の重要度が1位と最下位の14位であること、異なるクラスターに分かれたことを指摘すると、「challenging」と他の単語との距離を考えているうちにイメージが広がり、「チャレンジ」のイメージが多少変わったかもしれないと述べた。4つ目のクラスターは「楽しい」から「ひらがな」の5項目から成り、すべて楽しいイメージであるため、【楽しい】と命名された。留学生Aは「カタカナ」もこのクラスターに入ると述べたが、「時々、かんたん」と「カタカナ」で構成される5つ目のクラスターについて考えた後、カタカナが自分にとって最も簡単な文字であると解釈し、このクラスターを【簡単なこと】と名づけた。

留学生Aは、図1の全体的イメージを【おもしろくてチャレンジング】とした。日本語は難しいがおもしろいというのがその理由である。

各項目のイメージと意味を尋ねたところ、「challenging」と「チャレンジ」が「-」であるのはチャレンジすることを好まないためではなく、チャレンジすることはその時点で自分にできないことがあることを意味するためであると述べた。

学期後

留学生Aは、学期後の調査によって得られたデンドログラム(図2)を4つに分けた。

1つ目のクラスターは「文法」から「チャレンジ」までの5項目から成る。留学生Aは「文法」、「会話」、「楽しい」(「+」)と「宿題」、「チャレンジ」(「-」)がまとまった理由について、クラスゲストと円滑にやり取りを行うための文法の勉強や宿題が自分にとってチャレンジであったこと、授業後半のクラスゲストとの会話が非常に楽しく有意義であったことを挙げた。このクラスターのイメージは【日本語の勉強】である。2つ目は「発音」と「口」で構成される。作文を書きつつ口も動かしていること、授業でクラスゲストと話しながら作文を書いていることから、このクラスターを【話す】と名づけた。3つ目のクラスターは「ことば」から「シャープペン」の5項目から成る。シャープペンで紙に言葉・漢字・かなを書くためとまとまったとし、イメージを【書く】とした。最後のクラスターは「日本人」から「食べ物」の7項目で構成され、イメージは【日本的なもの】である。留学生Aは自国と比較して日本に歴史があることをすばらしいと感じており、日本語を書く際には【日本的なもの】を思い浮かべると述べた。

留学生Aは、図2の全体的イメージを【日本の国の形】とした。漢字や食べ物等、日本的なものは日本にしかないと説明し、このイメージはとても幸せな感じであると述べた。

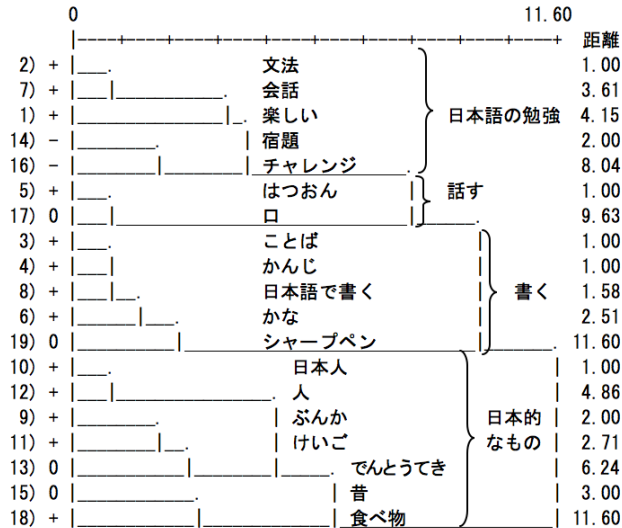


図2 留学生A「日本語で書く」に対するイメージ(学期後)

考察

留学生Aの学期前の結果を見ると、[+]と[-]の割合は8:5であるが、重ねて書いた「challenging」と「チャレンジ」は共に[-]であり、前者は重要度1位でもあるため、「日本語で書くこと」に対して葛藤状態にあることが分かる。初回の授業で自分より実力が上の中級後半レベルのクラスメートと一緒に、最終課題がそれまでに経験したことのない長さ(1600字程度)の作文とその発表であると知ったことから、不安を抱きつつも挑戦しようとする気持ちを持ったのではないかと推測される。特徴的であるのは「ひらがな」、「カタカナ」、「漢字」と日本語の3種類の文字が[+]であることであり、これらを魅力的なものと感じていたようである。

一方、学期後の結果では[-]が2つとなり、重要度も14位、16位と低い。「0」が4つあるがすべて重要度が低く、全体的に[+]が勝っている(+: - = 13: 2)。「日本人」や「人」という項目があるのは、留学生Aの最終課題のテーマが「親切的日本人」であることや、クラスゲストや他の日本人の支援を受け、いくつもの課題を達成したことに関係すると考えられる。

学期前後を比較すると、イメージする項目数は14から19となり多くなっているが、クラスター数は5つから4つへと減少している。学期前の【チャレンジ】と【思い出すこと】が学期後の【日本語の勉強】に、学期前の【楽しい】と【簡単なこと】が学期後の【書く】に対応し、学期前の【練習】が消滅して学期後に【話す】と【日本的なもの】が現れたと考えられる。つまり、学期後にはイメージが整理され、新たなイメージが加わっており、イメージ構造に変化が見られる。また、学期後に「会話」や【話す】が

現れ、双方にクラスゲストが関わることから、クラスゲストの存在の大きさが窺える。さらに、学期前の否定的項目である「むずかしい」、「おぼえることができない」、「つかれている」がなくなったこと、学期後も見られる「チャレンジ」も重要度が下がっていることから、留学生Aの日本語で書くことに対するイメージは、学期前の葛藤状態から肯定的状態に変化したと言える。留学生Aはクラスゲストの支援を受け、日本語で書くことへの緊張感を減少させたと考えられる。

留学生Bの結果

学期前

図3は留学生Bの学期前の調査結果である。留学生Bはこれを3項目ずつ4つに分けた。

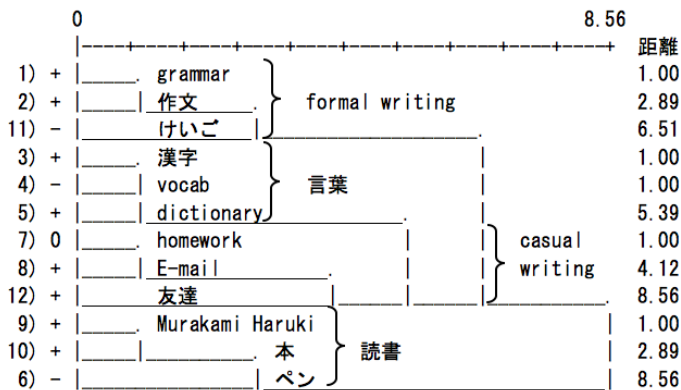


図3 留学生B 「日本語で書く」に対するイメージ (学期前)

1つ目のクラスターは「grammar」、「作文」、「けいご」で構成される。留学生Bは、完璧な作文は完璧な文法で書かれており、敬語を正しく使うには文法が必要であるためとまったく解釈し、このクラスターを【formal writing】とした。2つ目のクラスターは「漢字」、「vocab」、「dictionary」から成る。周りの多くの者は漢字が苦手であるが、留学生Bは語彙を漢字で増やそうと考えており、辞書でよく調べているという。さらに自国ではテキストにある振り仮名付きの漢字しか目にすることがなかったのに対し、日本では町中に振り仮名がない漢字があふれているため、難しいがチャレンジングで面白いと述べた。このクラスターのイメージは【言葉】である。3つ目のクラスターを構成するのは「homework」、「E-mail」、「友だち」である。Eメールは授業の宿題であり、宿題は日本語のできる友人と行うことが多いため、このクラスターを【casual writing】とした。4つ目は「Murakami Haruki」、「本」、「ペン」から成る。村上春樹のファンであると述べた留学生Bは、村上は原稿をペンで書く古いタイプの作家のような気がすると説明し、イメージを【読書】とした。

留学生Bの図3の全体的イメージは【神様】である。高校時代に日本語を学習して天照大神を知ったが、そのイメージが非常に印象的なため、「日本語で書く」というと天照大神を思い浮かべると説明した。

各項目のイメージを尋ねたところ、「vocab」に関して留学生Bは、文章を書く際英語では単語を辞書の形で並べればよいが、日本語では活用がある単語があり、繰り返して覚えなければならないため「-」であると述べた。

学期後

留学生Bは学期後の調査結果(図4)を3つに分けた。

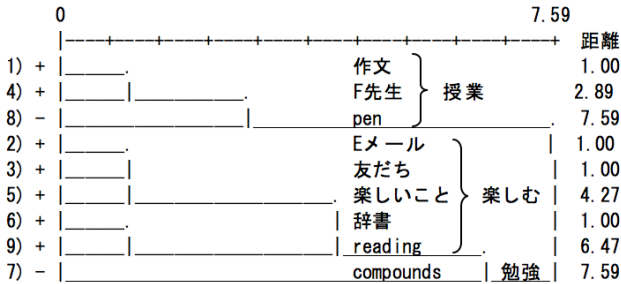


図4 留学生B 「日本語で書く」に対するイメージ(学期後)

1つ目のクラスターは「作文」、「F先生」、「pen」で構成される。F先生の授業で提出する作文はペンで書くと言明し、このクラスターを【授業】と名づけた。2つ目のクラスターは「Eメール」から「reading」までの5項目から成る。留学生Bは楽しいことがまとまったとしてこのクラスターを【楽しむ】と命名した。最後のクラスターは「compounds」のみである。留学生Bは、重文がうまく使えるとより自然な日本語の文章になると思い、重文の使用を心がけたと言明した。そしてこのクラスターのイメージを【勉強】とした。

留学生Bは、図4の全体的イメージを【楽しい】とし、作文の授業は難しかったが勉強のしがいがあり、様々なことがはっきり説明できるようになったためよかったと述べた。また、以前は日本語で書くことが難しすぎると感じていてあまり好きではなかったが、現在は好きになったと述べた。

各項目の意味とイメージについて説明の必要なもののみ記載する。「友だち」とは作文を書く際にいつも助けてくれたクラスゲストや日本人の友だちを指す。「reading」があるのは作文を書く際に好きな作家のことを考えるためであるという。「compounds」が「-」であるのは重要であるが少し難しいためである。

考察

留学生Bの学期前の結果を見ると、[+]と[-]の割合は8:3であるが、【formal writing】において重要度が高い「grammar」、「作文」(+)が「けいご」(-)と結びついており、さらに留学生B自身が完璧という言葉を用いてこのクラスターを説明していたことから、日本語で書くことを多少窮屈に感じていると推測できる。【casual writing】では重要度3位の「漢字」が[+]であるのに対し、重要度4位の「vocab」が[-]である。どちらも「dictionary」に関連すると思われるが、1つの漢字は組み合わせを変えることにより言葉が増えるのに対し、1つの語彙は活用がある場合活用を覚えなければならないことから、創造性という点で評価が逆になったと考えられる。全体的イメージが【神様】であること、項目に好きな作家の名があることから、日本語で書くことに対して畏怖の念や憧れを抱いていることが読み取れる。

一方、学期後は「pen」と「compounds」が[-]であるが重要度は8位、7位と低く、全体的に肯定的イメージが強い(+:-=7:2)。留学生Bは最終課題のテーマを自分の好きな「渋谷系」というジャンルの音楽とした。しかし当初教師を始め、クラスメートやクラスゲストにも理解されなかった。そこで中間発表の際、スピーカーとCD、資料を持ち込み、自分の好みの音楽を披露した。その結果クラス全員の理解が得られ、クラスゲストから有益な支援が受けられるようになり、最終課題の発表で成功が収められた。この経験から肯定的イメージが形成されたと推察できる。

学期前後を比較すると、クラスターが4つから3つに減少している。対応しているのは学期前の【casual writing】と学期後の【楽しむ】であり、学期前の【formal writing】の「grammar」と【言葉】の「漢字」、「vocab」（どの単語を使うか）が、学期後の【勉強】の「compounds」（どのように伝えるか）に変化したと見られ、留学生Bの作文を書く際の焦点の変化が認められる。さらに学期前の【読書】が学期後の【楽しむ】に吸収され、新たに【授業】が加わったことから、留学生Bにもイメージ構造に変化があったと言える。学期前は全体的イメージが【神様】、留学生Bの好きな作家のイメージが【読書】であるが、学期後には全体的イメージが【楽しい】、作家のイメージが「reading」にのみ反映され小さくなっていること、学期前は好きな作家のイメージに付随していた「ペン」が学期後は自分が書く作文のイメージに付随していること、さらに【授業】が現れたことから、漠然とした畏怖の念や憧れが実感を伴う身近な感情に変わったと言える。また、学期前後で見られる「友達」が、学期前は授業内容が分からない時や宿題をする際に助けてくれる中級後半レベルの友人であったのに対し、学期後は日本語で書く際に助けてくれるクラスゲストや日本人の友人となっている。つまり、頼る存在ではなく積極的に働きかけて日本語を引き出す存在へと変化している。留学生Bは、伝えたいことをどのように伝えるかということを考え、行動し、成功した経験から、日本語で書くことに対して自信を持ったと考えられる。

留学生Cの結果

学期前

図5は留学生Cの学期前の調査結果である。

1つ目のクラスターは「ひつよう」、「心」、「straightforward」から成る。留学生Cは、日本語で書く際、書くべき重要事項は心から浮かび上がってくるとし、このクラスターを【honesty】と名づけた。2つ目は「むずかしい」か

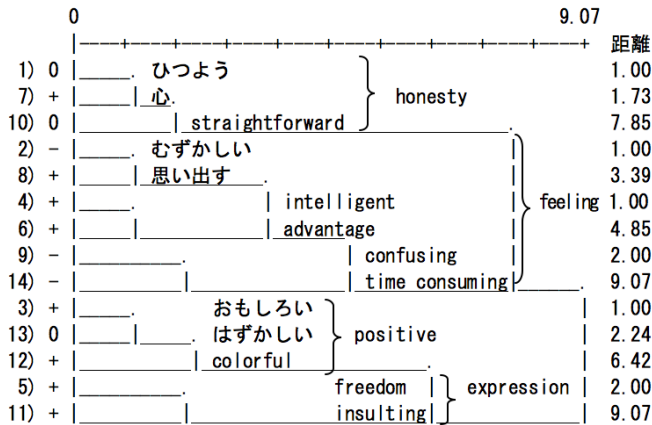


図5 留学生C「日本語で書く」に対するイメージ(学期前)

ら「time consuming」までの6項目である。留学生Cは人は精神で考え感じると説明し、このクラスターを【feeling】とした。「おもしろい」、「はずかしい」、「colorful」から成る3つ目のクラスターはすべて感情に関係があり、【positive】と命名された。4つ目のクラスターは「freedom」と「insulting」から成り、【expression】に関係するという。留学生Cは、書くことは他人を侮辱することになる可能性があるが、書く自由があれば人は自分が表現したいことが表現できると述べた。

図5の全体的イメージは【自己表現】である。人は様々なことを考えるが、書くことはその思考を表現することであるという意味である。

各項目の意味は以下の通りである。「ひつよう」は自分が言いたいことを表現することは重要で必要であることを意味し、「心」は書くという行為が自分の心にある内容を表現することを意味する。「straightforward」が[0]であるのは、率直に書くことはよい面と悪い面があるためである。「むずかしい」は伝える内容の順番や伝え方を考えるのが難しいことを指す。「intelligent」とは書くことはその人がいかに知的であることを示すことであり、それは「advantage」につながるため、両者共[+]である。「confusing」は何をどのような順番で書くかを考えている状態で、書くことは「time consuming」であるため[-]である。「おもしろい」は、書く内容がおもしろければ読み手が飽きないため、おもしろい内容がよいことを意味する。「はずかしい」とは日本語で書く際、漢字や適当な言葉が思い浮かばずうまく書けないことを意味するが、「はずかしい」ことを認識し乗り越えてしまえば、それは「はずかしい」ことではなくなるため[-]ではなく[0]であるという。「colorful」とは文章には様々な内容があることと、いろいろな見方で書けることを表現しており、留学生Cは日本語でcolorfulに書けるようになりたいと述べた。「freedom」とは言いたいことが書け、制限がないことを示し、「freedom」には「insulting」なことも含まれると説明した。なお「insulting」に関しては、人を侮辱するようなことを書くことも表現の自由であり、それも人の思想の一部であるため[+]であると説明した。

学期後

留学生Cは学期後の調査結果(図6)を4つに分けた。

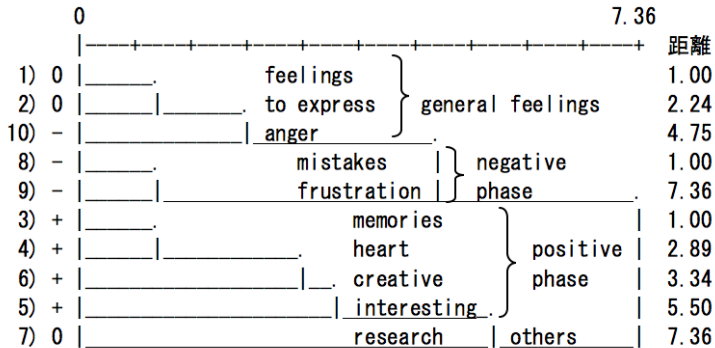


図6 留学生C「日本語で書く」に対するイメージ(学期後)

1つ目のクラスターは「feelings」、「to express」、「anger」から成る。留学生Cは日本語で書く際、自分の本当の感情を書こうとしていると説明した。「anger」は感情の1例であり、ここに“happiness”があるとバランスが取れると述べた後、このクラスターを【general feelings】とした。「mistakes」と「frustration」で構成される2つ目のクラスターのイメージは【negative phase】であり、行き詰まった状態を表す。3つ目のクラスターは「memories」から「interesting」の4項目から成る。こちらは【positive phase】であり、非常に書きやすい状態であるという。最後のクラスターは「research」のみである。留学生Cは、「research」を【general feelings】と全く反対であると述べ、【general feelings】は自分の感情であるのに対し、「research」は他人の真実を見出すことであると説明した。イメージは【others】である。その他のクラスター間の関係について、【negative phase】と【positive phase】が【general feelings】を決定すること、どのように「research」するかが分かっている場合が【positive phase】であり、分からない場合が【negative phase】であると述べた。

留学生Cは全体のイメージを【art】とし、日本語で書くことは英語で書くよりも難しく、自分にとって新しい表現方法であるため創造的・芸術的であると述べた。また、内容が同じでも日本語で書く場合と英語で書く場合とではスタイルが異なってくると付け加えた。

考察

留学生Cの学期前の結果を見ると、【honesty】は率直に正直に書くことがまとまっており、それが【positive】の作品の多様性や【expression】の表現の自由につながると考えられる。これらは【+】が多い。【feeling】のみ【+】と【-】が拮抗しているが、これは日本語で書いて自分の知識を示すのは有利なことであり優越感に浸れるが、難しく時間がかかる作業であるという葛藤状態を表していると考えられる。日本語

学習の過程で「はずかしい」ことを経験するが、それを乗り越えてしまえばよいと考えているところにも、羞恥心とそれを乗り越える意志という相反する感情が垣間見える。全体を見ると、留学生Cは内容や視点が多様であることに価値を置き、自分の思考や感情を誰にも制限されずに自由に表現できることを重視していることが分かる。

一方、学期後の結果からは、[+]と[-]が拮抗していること(+:-=4:3)、連想項目をすべて英語で記述していることから、日本語で書くことに対して心理的な距離があると推測される。【general feelings】と【others】、【negative phase】と【positive phase】がそれぞれきれいな反対概念となっているのは、心理的な距離があるが故にイメージが整理されたためではないかと考えられる。ただし、【general feelings】の感情を表す項目が“happiness”ではなく「anger」であることから、日本語で書くことに対する留学生Cの感情が窺える。

学期前後を比較すると、クラスター数は同じであるが項目数が減少し、[+]の割合も57%から40%に減少している。対応関係を見ると、自分が感じていることを表現するという意味で、学期前の【honesty】と【expression】が学期後の【general feelings】に対応すると言える。また、学期前の【feeling】の否定的項目である「むずかしい」、「confusing」、「time consuming」が学期後の【negative phase】に、肯定的項目である「思い出す」、「intelligent」、「advantage」と【positive】が学期後の【positive phase】になっていると考えられる。一方、学期後には【others】が現れ、イメージ構造に変化が見られる。留学生Cは学期前に日本語でcolorfulに書けるようになりたいと述べ、学期前後を通して表現の自由を主張している。これは内容や視点の多様性、感情の自由な表現を重視した留学生Cの希望であり信念であると言える。しかし、最終課題は留学生Cの思うようにはなかった。留学生Cは日本とアメリカの公共の場における安全性について、実体験を交えて感じたことを書こうとしていたが、クラスゲストに論理的に書くことを強く勧められ、結果的に事実を客観的に比較して書かざるを得なくなったためである。留学生Cは「research」のイメージを【others】とし、他人の真実を見出すことであると説明している。これは自分の感情（【general feelings】）ではなく、資料を用いて他人にとっての真実を書くことになった最終課題のイメージであると推察される。留学生Cははじめであるだけに「mistakes」に悩まされ、感情を自由に表現できなかったため「frustration」や「anger」を感じており、その結果日本語で書くことに対して心理的距離が生まれたのではないかと考えられる。

総合的考察

学期前は3名とも「日本語で書く」ことに対して肯定的イメージが若干勝っているものの葛藤状態にあった。留学生Aは自分の実力に不安を感じつつも挑戦しようという気持ちがあり、留学生Bは畏怖の念や憧れを抱いていた。留学生Cは他人への優越感とうまく書けない場合の羞恥心、その羞恥心を乗り越える意志を併せ持っていた。肯定的イメージが若干勝っていたのは、この授業が選択科目であるため日本語で書くことに強い拒否感がある者がいなかったためであり、これには日本語の文字に対して留学生A、Bが肯定的であったこと、留学生Cが中国系であったことも関わると考えられる。

一方、学期後は授業での経験により3名に異なる認知的変容が見られた。留学生Aはクラスゲストとよい関係を築くことができ、日本語で書くことへの緊張感が減少したため、幸せな感情を持ち、肯定的イメージが強くなった。留学生Bは中間発表でクラス全員の理解を得、クラスゲストから有益な支援を受けて最終課題を成功させた自信から、身近で楽しいイメージを持つようになった。これに対し留学生Cは連想項目がすべて英語となり、日本語で書くことに対して心理的距離を持つようになった。これは内容や視点の多様性、感情の自由な表現といった留学生Cの希望が実現しなかったためであると推測され、クラスゲストの支援が逆に留学生Cの不満を高めたのではないかと考えられる。

授業中の教師の観察では留学生Bの変化が見えやすかった。留学生Bは学期当初は中級後半レベルの友人に頼っていることが多い目立たない存在であったが、最終課題の中間発表から表情に変化が表れた。一方、留学生Aは常に明るくクラスのムードメーカー的な存在であったため、教師は留学生Aが日本語で書くことに対して「むずかしい」、「おぼえることができない」、「つかれている」というイメージを持っていると思わなかった。留学生Cは授業態度がよく課題もきちんと提出しており、1学期間での能力の向上が著しく、最終発表でもクラスメートから高い評価を得た。しかし留学生Cにとってこの授業は満足のいくものではなかった。

大学が行った学期末の質問紙による一斉調査では、この授業は4段階評価で平均3.8と非常に高い評価を得ていた。そのため、教師は自分の観察とこの結果だけでは学習者の不安や不満に気づかず、授業を反省することなくそのまま継続していた可能性が高い。PAC分析を学期の前後に行ったことにより、授業中の教師の観察や質問紙による一斉調査では窺い知れない学習者の内面が浮き彫りになった。

なお、PAC分析を外国語学習者に用いた研究(藤田・佐藤, 1996; 井上, 2001; 渡辺・関・才田他, 1994)では面接調査時に調査協力者の母語または英語を使用していた。本研究の調査協力者は日本語中級レベルであったが、主に日本語で自己の内面を説明していた。PAC分析では調査協力者自身の言葉が視覚的に提示されるため、調査協力者は自己の内面を説明しやすく、内面について語ることへの抵抗感もあまり感じないようである。このことから、PAC分析が外国語教育の現場で、学習者の目標言語の能力が高くない場合や教師が学習者の母語や得意な言語に堪能でない場合でも使用可能であることが示された。

まとめ

本研究では、日本人学生が参加する1学期間の作文授業の前後にPAC (Personal Attitude Construct: 個人別態度構造) 分析を行い、日本語で書くことに対する学習者のイメージの変化を追究し、授業の学習者個人々人への影響を明らかにした。

日本語中級レベルの3名の学習者は、日本語で書くことに対し、学期前は肯定的イメージが若干勝っているものの葛藤状態にあったが、学期後は授業での経験によりそれぞれ異なる認知的変容を示した。留学生Aは幸せな感情を持ち、肯定的イメージが強くなった。留学生Bは自信をつけ、身近で楽しいイメージを持つようになった。これに対し、書く能力の向上が著しかった留学生Cは心理的距離を持つようになった。日本人学生とのやり取りを通した作文授業は留学生AやBには正の影響を与えていたが、留学生Cには負の影響を与えていた可能性がある。このような学習者の

内面は、授業中の教師の観察や質問紙による一斉調査では明らかにすることは難しい。PAC分析を行ったことにより、学習者個人への理解が深まった。今後は学期途中の学習者の内面の理解にも努め、授業の質の向上を目指したい。

執筆者略歴

藤田裕子 (FUJITA Yuko) 東北大学大学院にて修士号取得後、国内外で日本語を教える。2006年に同大学院にて博士号取得。現桜美林大学基盤教育院非常勤講師。専門は外国語習得における学習者要因。

注

- 1 内藤 (2002) は、各クラスター内、また全体としての+と-の比率は葛藤度ないしは両価感情度の指標となり、+と-が拮抗するほど葛藤状態が強いことを示すとしている。また、0の比率が高い場合には情緒が喚起して苦痛が生じるのを避ける「解離」や「自己疎隔感」の強さとして読み取れることが多いとしている。
- 2 内藤 (2002) は距離について、絶対距離よりも相対距離の方が解釈に貢献するとしている。項目間の類似度を1から7で判定する際、尺度の端 (1や7) につけるか中央 (4) につけるかの傾向には個人差があるが、他人と比較するわけではなく、同一人物内での相対距離が意味を持つためである。

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The Impact of a U.S. teacher training program on teaching beliefs and practices: A case study of secondary school level Japanese teachers of English

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This study examines the impact of a U. S. teacher training program on eight Japanese English professionals' teaching beliefs and practices after the completion of the program. It also investigates the teachers' perspectives on how they resolve tensions, if any, between their teaching beliefs, Japanese teaching contexts, and new knowledge learned in the program. The data were collected mainly through qualitative methods such as multiple interviews with teachers and through document analysis. The results suggest that while the teachers considered the training experiences to be positive, they faced difficulties in applying their new knowledge in their own teaching contexts due to school, social, and cross-cultural factors. Despite the challenges, the data also revealed that the teachers attempted to negotiate the gap between expectations in these contexts and their teaching beliefs. We conclude that in order to understand the impact of teacher education programs, it is important to explore teachers' perspectives on their learning to teach.

本論文では、アメリカにおける英語教員研修が、研修後日本人英語教員の信念や授業にどのような効果をもたらすかについて8名の参加者を対象として考察する。さらに、帰国後、彼らが英語教員としての信念、日本の教育環境、研修で学んだ知識、これらの狭間で何らかの困難を経験しているかどうか、経験しているならばそれをどのように解決しよ

うとしているかについてもあわせて調査する。本研究はインタビューと資料分析 (content analysis) により主に質的データを収集分析した。その結果、教師は研修を肯定的に捉えているが、学校や社会環境、国境を越えた文化的な違いなどから、研修で得た知識を応用するのが困難であると感じていることが分かった。しかし一方では、多様な英語教育への期待と本人の英語教員としての信念とに折り合いをつけながら授業を進めていこうと努力していることも分かった。教員研修の効果を理解するには、参加者が指導技能習得のために学ぶということを、どのように捉えているのかを知ることが重要であると結論づけた。

In recent years, there has been a growing number of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers who participate in teacher education programs in an English speaking environment for their professional growth and who intend to return to their native countries to teach (Liu, 1999; Nunan, 2003). In Japan, for example, to fulfill the goal of educational innovation in English curriculum at the secondary school level, which is communicative-based teaching and learning, the Japanese Ministry of Education (MEXT) has provided Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs) with a professional development opportunity to attend extended overseas teacher training programs since 1988 (initially for six months and then later for one year) (Lamie, 2001). In 2002, for example, 102 JTEs participated in programs in Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the U.K., and the U.S. (Council on International Educational Exchange [CIEE], 2003). Currently, new 2-month overseas training programs are expected to begin and serve approximately 200 JTEs (CIEE, 2003).

Many second language (L2) educators assume that overseas teacher education experiences offer EFL teachers great benefits by developing professional expertise, for example, in their overall communicative competence and understanding of innovative teaching methods (McKay, 2000). However, few studies have examined what contributions overseas programs actually make to teachers' professional development. In addition, although a limited number of studies investigated the impact of the overseas programs on teachers (e.g., Lamie, 2001; Pacek, 1996), studies exploring EFL teachers' teaching beliefs through their own voices are scarce. To examine teacher beliefs is critical, as beliefs underlie decision-making processes in both education programs and classroom practices (e.g., Almarza, 1996; Richards, 1996). Furthermore, fewer studies explore teachers' perspectives on how they appropriate the pedagogical knowledge learned and adapt it to their teaching settings in Japan. Upon their return to the Japanese teaching context, teachers probably need to rethink how to respond to the expectations of the local school culture and national educational policy.

In this study, by highlighting teachers' perspectives, we examined how overseas teacher training experiences influence Japanese EFL teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to the social contexts of their teaching practices.

Theoretical Background

L2 Teachers' Learning to Teach

A body of research in L2 teacher education discusses a shift of view on how teachers learn to teach (e.g., Crandall, 2000; Freeman, 2002; Johnson, 2006; Roberts, 1998). The prescriptive view, which has long been influential in the field, considers teachers to be passive recipients of transmitted knowledge rather than active participants in meaning construction (Crandall, 2000). The goal of this view is for teachers to understand the best practices and imitate them in their own teaching. Recently, however, there has been a growing recognition that we need to learn more about what teachers do and believe, since practitioners are the ultimate decision makers in classroom lessons (Freeman & Johnson, 1998).

This view, which we will refer to as the constructivist view of teaching, represents a shift away from seeing teachers as part of an "input-output system" (Roberts, 1998, p. 13). L2 scholars have started to conduct research on teacher beliefs, cognitions, attitudes, and decision making processes (e.g., Freeman & Richards, 1996; Woods, 1996). In addition, recently, drawing on sociocultural perspectives on learning, researchers have discussed the complexity involved in teachers' classroom practices and their learning to teach and revealed the influential impact of social settings on their professional activities and beliefs (e.g., Freeman and Johnson, 1998; Richards, 1998, Sato, 2002). Broadly, the sociocultural perspective, which grows out of the original work of Vygotsky and his colleagues, emphasizes the social construction of learning and aims to understand human cognitive development as embedded in social, cultural, and historical conditions (Cole, 1985; Lantolf, 2000). The settings involved in teachers' learning to teach are, for example, classrooms, schools, teacher education programs, and any learning experiences as language learners. By focusing on school contexts, Freeman and Johnson (1998) emphasize that teacher education needs to take into consideration teachers' understanding of the activity of teaching and how teachers learn to find a satisfactory way of addressing the conflicting expectations placed on them and embedded in such social contexts. In addition, sociocultural perspectives on learning do not assume that individual teachers passively immerse themselves in

the given environment because of their goal-oriented actions (Lantolf, 2000). A sociocultural approach explores the process of appropriation—how teachers apply the pedagogical tools and other resources available to use in their specific teaching settings. This process is grounded in the social contexts of training with and prior beliefs about EFL teaching and learning, work, and interaction with which the teacher engages.

L2 Teacher Beliefs

Richards (1998) defines teacher beliefs as a primary source of teachers' classroom practices, including "the information, attitudes, expectations, theories, and assumptions about teaching and learning," which they develop over time (p. 66). Studies of teachers' beliefs and cognitions reveal the powerful role that prior knowledge and beliefs play in their profession.

For example, through interviews with ESL teachers in Hong Kong, Richards (1996) found that teachers' personal principles play a powerful role in their decision making processes. Those principles derived from the teachers' professional and learning experiences include "learners' involvement with their interests," "teaching planning and attempt[ing] to follow it," and "maintenance of order and discipline" (pp. 287-291).

Almarza (1996) describes how foreign language student teachers' pre-training experience affects their learning in a teacher education program and their teaching practices. In a longitudinal case study, Almarza documents four teachers' different degrees of acceptance of a teaching method presented in the program. Depending upon their beliefs and assumptions about language teaching and learning acquired through the "apprenticeship of observation" which refers to early school experiences (Lortie, 1975, p. 61), each trainee reacted to the method in a different way as they reconstructed it. For example, some teachers incorporated their pretraining knowledge into what they were learning and practicing, while others implemented their new knowledge without much modification.

Similarly, Smith (1996) describes the pedagogical decisions made by nine experienced ESL teachers working in Canadian institutions. Her study focuses on the role that L2 theory, individual teacher beliefs, and contextual factors play in teachers' decision making in classes. The findings reveal that teachers choose and adapt L2 theoretical ideas in ways that are consistent with their personal beliefs about L2 teaching and learning and their practical knowledge of the instructional context (e.g., course guidelines).

These studies show the influential role that teachers' existing knowledge and beliefs play in their decision making processes in practice and in their learning to teach in teacher education programs. In addition, they argue for the need to recognize, examine, and challenge teacher beliefs in the teacher education programs in order to better understand what and how teacher education courses contribute to professional development (Almarza, 1996).

In the following section, we will focus on studies which explore the impact of overseas teacher training programs on Japanese EFL teachers. Drawing on the constructionist and sociocultural theories discussed above, we will discuss the areas to be further examined in the field.

Impact of Overseas Programs on Japanese Teachers of English

Studies examining teachers' post-teacher-education experiences are scarce (McKay, 2000; Samimy & Kurihara, 2006). However, a limited number of studies do explore the impact of overseas teacher training programs on EFL teachers, in particular, on their teaching beliefs and practices.

Pacek (1996), for example, examined JTEs' perceptions of their one-year Japanese government-sponsored in-service teacher education programs in the U.K. The study placed special emphasis on the effects of the program on their teaching practices in Japan. To evaluate the practicality of the program, Pacek found via a questionnaire that 56 secondary school teachers who had previously participated in the program generally perceived the program to be beneficial. However, they also reported challenges in being able to apply the communicative-based teaching presented in the program because of peer, student, and parental resistance, and also difficulties related to the use of prescribed textbooks as the teaching approach was inconsistent with the textbooks (p. 339). Pacek concluded that trainers' understanding and consideration of the participants' culture and prior education in terms of teaching and learning are crucial to making the program more compatible with JTEs' expectations and educational traditions.

Similarly, Lamie (2001) examined the impact of a MEXT program in the U. K. on JTEs' teaching beliefs and practices. Unlike Pacek, who relied on questionnaire data, Lamie employed multiple data methods including questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations. The study investigated four teachers' perceptions of change in their a) Eng-

lish teaching methodology, b) teaching attitudes, and c) actual teaching practices before and after the program. The findings suggest that in all three areas participants' teaching practices and attitudes shifted toward more communicative-oriented teaching, even though the constraints they faced (e.g., the pressure of university entrance examinations, large class size) remained the same. More specifically, the observation data reveals that teachers whose lessons had until then been grammar focused with a high level of teacher control introduced more student-focused and meaning-based practices (e.g., interactions between students, open-questions, authentic materials, more English use).

These studies offer valuable information about teachers' post-overseas-training experiences and expand our understanding of the application of teacher knowledge to their native contexts. What seems to be missing in these studies, however, is extensive examples of teachers' own voices and perspectives on their experiences of learning to teach: in particular, their teaching beliefs. As discussed before, research indicates that teacher beliefs play a powerful role in their decision-making processes. In addition, although the studies addressed several challenges that teachers faced in the appropriation process, they have not explored how teachers attempt to deal with such problems in relation to various social contexts. We believe that to gain a better understanding of the impact of teacher education programs, it is critical to examine not only their teaching practices and beliefs, but also how they reconcile those teaching beliefs with the social expectations placed on them. In the present study, therefore, we explored teachers' perspectives on these issues by analyzing qualitative data gathered through e-mail and telephone interviews.

Research Questions

The following were the guiding research questions of this study:

1. What are the understandings of Japanese English teachers regarding the impact of overseas teacher education programs on their teaching beliefs and practices?
2. How do the teachers attempt to resolve tensions, if any, between their teaching beliefs, their native teaching contexts, and the pedagogical knowledge gained in an overseas training program?

The Study

Settings

MEXT considers professional development of language teachers necessary in order to achieve the level of student communication skills proposed in the 1989 and 1999 *Courses of Study* guidelines (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology, [MEXT], 1989, 1999, 2002). As a result, MEXT has recently provided six- and 12-month government-sponsored overseas teacher-training programs for JTEs. These programs especially aim at improving JTEs' English language abilities and developing their teaching skills (Lamie, 2001; Wada, 2002).

This study focuses on a two-phase program held in the United States. After a two-month intensive English language program at one university, participants moved to a second university to attend a four-month training program in teaching methodology. The objectives of the four-month program were a) to deepen the participants' understanding of ESL/EFL methodology, b) to continue to develop their English language skills, c) to raise their awareness of U.S. culture and society, and d) to assist them in exploring research interests in the field (Holschuh & Romstedt, 2001).

Participants

All participants in the study had taken part in a teacher training program in the U.S. and were full-time EFL public school teachers at either junior or senior high schools in Japan. To participate, they were either chosen by the Board of Education in the prefecture where they were working or applied for the program on their own. The main goals of the program were to develop communication skills in English, to develop an understanding of U.S. cultural and social customs, and to acquire ELT methodological skills which they could use upon their return to Japan. We invited this group of teachers to participate in the study because of our familiarity with both them and the 4-month training program. We had participated in study group meetings with them and had been guest lecturers in one of the program courses.

The eight participants (six men, two women) came from all over Japan and all but two taught at moderately to highly competitive university preparatory high schools. Regarding their professional roles, three teachers (whom we shall call Mr. Abe, Mr. Tanaka, and Mr. Mori—all names used in this study are pseudonyms) were English department heads at their respective schools. Other participants had various professional responsibilities such as being English test developers at the prefectural

and national levels (Ms. Kato and Mr. Mori) and/or researchers and presenters at the prefectural level (Mr. Ota and Mr. Mori). During the time the study lasted, two participants (Mr. Fujita and Mr. Ota) were each transferred to new schools within their prefectures. According to them, their new schools were even more competitive than their previous ones. Table 1 provides a summary of the professional background of all eight participants.

Table 1. Background of Participants

Participant (pseudo- nym)	Gender	Teaching experience (Years)	Area of school	Level of school	Participation determined by
Mr. Abe	M	18	Urban	Senior high	Board of Education
Mr. Fujita	M	5	Urban	Senior high	Self
Ms. Kato	F	11	Rural	Senior high	Board of Education
Ms. Kudo	F	13	Rural	Junior high	Board of Education
Mr. Mori	M	15	Urban	Junior high	Self
Mr. Ota	M	15	Rural	Senior high	Self
Mr. Seki	M	21	Rural	Senior high	Board of Education
Mr. Tanaka	M	9	Rural	Junior high	Board of Education

Note. M=Male; F=Female

Data Collection and Analysis

Data collection lasted from February through September, 2002. In February, eight JTEs who had attended the teacher training program were invited to participate in the study; all accepted. Since all participants had already returned home and resumed teaching, this study relied on e-mail as the primary means of communication. Data collection and analysis consisted of a questionnaire, interviews, and an analysis of written documents (e.g., teachers' research projects, final reports written by the program coordinators). The questionnaire and the interview questions were based in part upon similar studies in the literature of L2 teacher education (e.g. Pacek, 1996).

In March, we sent a questionnaire to all participants via e-mail attachment. The questionnaire examined three areas: the participants' professional background, the impact of the program on their teaching beliefs and practices, and its impact on their professional settings (e.g., *Do you consider yourself to have effectively used the new expertise you gained in the program?*). After receiving their questionnaire responses, we conducted two semistructured interviews and then additional less-structured interviews (2 to 5) with each participant. These interviews allowed us to better understand the responses to the questionnaires and to hear teachers' perspectives expressed in their own words. All interactions were conducted in their first language, Japanese.

Data analysis in this study involved both inductive and deductive reasoning processes. Questionnaire data was analyzed by using descriptive statistics such as frequency and percentage. For qualitative data (interviews and open-ended questions in the questionnaire), we looked for salient patterns and themes through the constant comparative method of comparing the participants' responses multiple times (Merriam, 1998). More specifically, we first refined the codes, constructed tentative categories (e.g., purposes for teaching EFL, effects of social factors on teachers' practices, the pedagogical knowledge gained during the program), and attempted to interpret each case with reference to our research questions (e.g., whether a teacher's confidence gained in the program has helped him or her continue to develop their English teaching). By repeating this process of analysis, we were able to summarize general themes, supporting the summaries with relevant quotes from the teachers, while at the same time we searched for any disconfirming evidence.

Results

Perceptions of the Impact of the Program on Teacher Beliefs

In this section, we will discuss the findings of the study by examining the questionnaire results and interview data. We first examined whether or not the teachers thought that the program had helped them reshape their beliefs about EFL teaching. A majority of participants responded that the program had provided opportunities to reshape their teaching beliefs. Specifically, they pointed out their raised awareness of the importance of "teaching English as a tool for communication" and the "need to develop communication skills" to fulfill their own or local community's expectations of the English education (see Appendix A). A few participants also stated that the program helped them "gain confidence" in improving and conducting their English teaching practices.

Follow-up interviews offered a more in-depth exploration of these results. Mr. Seki, for example, used to focus on vocabulary and grammar in his reading class, but then an instructor in the training program pointed out that there were too few content-related questions in his lessons and worksheets. This discussion with the instructor allowed him to reflect on his EFL teaching approach which he had developed over 20 years, and eventually reshape it. As he expressed his new perspective on the goal of teaching English:

I realized that teaching English is not to teach English linguistics but to help students develop linguistic skills and use them as a tool to communicate. (Mr. Seki, Interview: 2/26/2002)

This excerpt reveals that he had an opportunity to consider the nature of reading as a result of participating in the program. In his current reading class, he claimed that he was placing more emphasis on what messages a textbook sends to readers by utilizing a variety of teaching strategies learned in the program. Those strategies include paragraph reading, use of discourse markers, and true-false questions in English (Mr. Seki, Interview: 9/17/2002). He was also exploring how he could incorporate not only reading comprehension but also students' opinions about the issues described in the textbook.

As for the teachers' English abilities, Mr. Abe, Mr. Mori, Mr. Seki, and Mr. Tanaka expressed the need to develop additional skills in order to be able to implement their ideal teaching practices and/or perform administrative work. Mr. Abe, for example, noted that to develop his own English abilities was "an absolute requirement" to improve his classroom teaching (Interview: 3/10/2002). Mr. Mori also emphasized the need to further develop his four skills in English language to respond to various expectations the local Board of Education had for him (Interview: 8/18/2002).

Another theme that emerged was the development of the participants' confidence as EFL teachers. Mr. Abe, for example, reported that at the time the questionnaire data were collected, he had not been able to receive enough support for English teaching innovation from his colleagues or school because of the demands on time and curriculum associated with university entrance examinations. However, he stated that, just the same, the confidence that he gained during the program helped him continue to attempt to improve his teaching. As he noted:

My students seem to consider me to be a reliable English teacher so far...When I have some complaints which are difficult to deal with, it may be due to my lack of effort. To be able to achieve my ideal goals, even a little further, I want to make an effort. I think it is the U.S. teacher education program that has allowed me to have this positive attitude toward English teaching. (Mr. Abe, Interview: 8/31/2002)

With the confidence developed through participation in the MEXT program, he encouraged his students to actively interact with peers and himself in both first and second languages in order for them to develop a positive attitude toward communication. Mr. Ota also responded that having opportunities to “theoretically validate his regular teaching practices developed over the past years” led him to have more confidence in what he had done in the past and in his ability to do what he needs to do in the future (Interview: 8/25/2002). Drawing on theories related to (L2) teaching and learning (e.g., communicative competence, schema theory, reading process) and also the *Course of Study* emphasizing the development of students’ communicative ability, he continued to teach the four skills by connecting the goals of his various EFL courses while using a prescribed textbook and team teaching with a native assistant language teacher.

Overall, as can be seen above, the program influenced teachers’ teaching beliefs in a way they perceived to be positive. It should be noted, however, that Mr. Seki and Mr. Abe voiced concerns regarding the difficulties in actually changing teachers’ teaching philosophy and activities. Mr. Seki, for example, added the following comments:

Although teachers tend to attribute the present problematic English teaching situation to university entrance exams, many teachers feel afraid of abandoning their own teaching style. (Mr. Seki, Questionnaire: 2/26/2002)

This excerpt suggests that there are different perspectives on what the goals of teaching English should be among colleagues in his school, where some feel they should be “to teach English as a means of communication” and others feel they should be “to teach English knowledge as an object” (Mr. Seki, Interview: 5/12/2002). Both Mr. Seki and Mr. Abe were concerned about this discrepancy, which seemed to affect their own teaching practices.

Perceptions of the Impact of the Program on Teaching Practices

To explore what pedagogical tools (including techniques, theories, and insights) teachers adapted to their native settings, we examined what they had to say about their use of the tools in class (see Appendix B). A majority of the participants found the tools acquired during the program beneficial in helping them deepen students' understanding of the target culture. Mr. Tanaka, for example, elaborated on this point in the interview as follows:

I talk to my students as much as possible about the experiences [in the U.S.], experiences which I cannot imagine happening in [Japan]. . . . My students seem to have lots of interest in them. I think that to provide students with these various stories helps them raise their interest in the U.S., and also heightens their motivation to learn English. (Mr. Tanaka, Interview: 6/2/2002)

In addition, half of the participants replied that they use the teaching tools presented in the program in their classroom practices. For example, Ms. Kato described that in her writing class she: a) encourages students to write journals, b) tries not to put too much emphasis on grammatical mistakes in students' compositions while giving them feedback on the content of their writing, c) utilizes pair work and the Internet, and d) integrates listening and reading components into her writing class.

Moreover, four teachers stated that they place more emphasis on developing students' communication skills. Three participants also responded that they use more English in class. In the interviews, Mr. Mori specifically explained his efforts to expose his students to English language and also make his classroom more communicative:

I post notes written in English on the bulletin boards, hoping that the students learn English out of them. In addition, when I give instructions and explanations to them in class, I try to use English on the level that students can understand. I also create at least one opportunity for students to interact among themselves in English. (Mr. Mori, Interview: 4/15/2002)

Overall, the participants seem to believe that the program had a positive impact on their daily teaching practices. In particular, the findings suggest that the teachers felt that their teaching practices had become more communicative.

Difficulties in the Application of the Overseas Training Experiences

Despite the positive results that the teachers reported above, all the participants noted obstacles which kept them from applying the pedagogical tools learned in the program. The constraints that the majority of teachers pointed out were related to issues at the institutional and broader societal level rather than at the personal and classroom levels (see Appendix C).

The interview data also revealed the dilemmas that the teachers encountered. The most frequently mentioned constraint was the need to prepare students for high school and university entrance examinations, even though all participants admitted in the interviews that there has been a gradual change in the content of the examinations to include communicative components. The following comment offered by one of the teachers is representative of their voices on the issue:

Most of the students in my school have to deal with exams which require only the memorization of English language knowledge and which students simply having luck can pass. Therefore, we naturally adjust the subject matter for the preparation of the exams, particularly before my students take them...We as practitioners need to raise our voices that such exams are pointless. (Mr. Fujita, Interview: 3/17/2002)

The above excerpt suggests that the influence of entrance examinations may be too great to allow the teachers to apply the knowledge learned in the program to their practices. This seems to be especially true for junior and senior high school third-year students, who take the examinations in the last term of the school year.

Another major constraint reported by the teachers was large class size. According to them, the average number of students in class was usually between 36 and 42. In an interview, Mr. Tanaka, who taught 40 first-year students in his class, explained the problem:

I often use pair work as the smallest unit to create interaction in my class, but it is very inefficient. Students have more opportunities to speak and listen to English than with a teacher-centered style, but I have difficulties in checking and following my students' activities. (Mr. Tanaka, Interview: 6/2/2002)

Furthermore, many teachers considered “the differences in English learning environments between the U.S. and Japan” to be another major issue. This issue turned out to be a key theme to emerge from the interview data and seemed to reflect the teachers’ uncertainty on how to best use what they had learned overseas in their classrooms in Japan. Mr. Fujita, for example, commented on the different expectations of “what good learning is.” His students believe good learning is “to understand and to record what the teacher explains,” but Mr. Fujita believes it is “to learn through interaction with others,” a concept he learned in the program. As he noted in the interview:

When I think whether my participation in the program can be made use of for my future teaching, I need to deeply consider the difference in teaching and learning [between the U.S. and Japan] and to make a good balance between what I want to teach and what students need. (Mr. Fujita, Interview: 8/19/2002)

This excerpt reveals the challenge he encountered when attempting to combine students’ expectations and his ideal teaching approach in his classroom practices. Reflecting on her learning in the program and the realities she faces, Ms. Kato also expressed struggles:

If there are more students who want to study English for preparing for entrance exams than those who want to learn it as a foreign language in a real sense, what sorts of teaching should I provide them? That has puzzled me. (Ms. Kato, Interview: 8/1/2002)

In the interviews, Mr. Seki also frequently pointed out the difference in teaching situations between the two countries (e.g., numbers of students in class and teachers with high English proficiency) and expressed his opinion that there is “a need to make efforts to create something new within the local environment” rather than to directly transfer the pedagogical tools presented in the program into his teaching situation (Interview: 9/17/2002).

Half of the participants also mentioned that “strong control over the teaching content of English lessons and keeping pace with other classes” made it hard for them to utilize their new knowledge. Mr. Seki, for example, reported the difficulties individual teachers face in his school when trying to teach something different from their colleagues:

We are all required to use supplementary books with a prescribed textbook to all grade-level students [to prepare students for entrance examinations].... [If they change them,] such innovators need to prepare themselves to meet with opposition from other English teachers. (Mr. Seki, Questionnaire: 2/22/2002)

This excerpt suggests how greatly individual teachers' decision making could be affected by colleagues when working in an institution that has the goal of preparing students for examinations.

Teachers' Negotiations of Professional Demands

The interviews highlight the teachers' perspectives on how they attempt to deal with the various professional demands and expectations described above. Two main themes which emerged are teachers as mediators who negotiate the gaps between the expectations of school, society, self, and profession that arise (Seidlhofer, 1999) and teachers as "agents of change" who improve English education inside and outside schools (Brutte-Griffler & Samimy, 1999).

JTE's Perspectives on Being Mediators

As suggested above, all participants described some degree of difficulty in applying their new expertise to their own teaching contexts. Factors which influence their decision making include students' expectations and needs, colleagues' demands, national policy, personal goals, and individual professional experiences. The challenges that the teachers faced, therefore, were not easy to solve on their own. However, four teachers (Mr. Seki, Mr. Ota, Mr. Tanaka, and Ms. Kato) described how they attempted to reconcile the conflicting realities they were dealing with.

Mr. Seki, for example, tried to combine what he learned about the nature of communication in the U.S. training program with the rather different approach to it emphasized in current English education in Japan. While not giving up on his responsibility to prepare students for entrance exams, he tried to include more interactive components of language learning in his classes as well. As he explained:

Communication [emphasized in the Course of Study] involves not just being able to communicate daily conversation but developing academic reading and writing skills

necessary for university education by using speaking and listening components as a stimulus. Students should be able to exchange information, their ideas, and opinions with one another rather than say and listen to something simple. I want to make efforts to make it happen. (Mr. Seki, Interview: 9/17/2002)

This excerpt illustrates how Mr. Seki attempted to meet both society's demand that language classes prepare students for social communication, and institutional expectations that classes focus on exam preparation by using the pedagogical tools available to him.

Mr. Ota, who was actively engaged in team teaching with ALTs, also explained his perspective on an ideal teaching approach that deals with both local and social demands:

So far there have been no specific teaching methodologies which can inclusively and systematically prepare students for university exams and also promote their positive attitudes toward communication. To deal with this, we need to focus on four skills within a [prescribed] text and to make good use of team teaching to promote cross-cultural understanding and to get [students] familiar with the English language. (Mr. Ota, Interview: 5/2/2002)

These teachers saw that integrating and developing students' four skills throughout their three years at senior high school is necessary to reconcile the need to improve students' oral communication skills with the need to respond to local expectations of preparing students for university examinations.

JTEs' Sense of Responsibility for Improvement

Another theme which frequently emerged was the teachers' sense of responsibility to contribute to the English education at the classroom, local, and institutional levels. The comments from three teachers, in particular, indicated their desire to and/or duty to play a role as "agents of change" (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999). Mr. Ota, for example, after being transferred to a high-ranked university preparatory school (Shingakko), shared his hopes regarding the improvement of the English teaching in his new school. As he noted:

This is one of the best university preparatory high schools in my prefecture, but every school could improve the English teaching. If the teaching system in this school changes, all schools in my prefecture would be affected to some extent. With this great responsibility, I cannot help but be nervous. I want to make progress little by little. (Mr. Ota, Interview: 8/25/2002)

To help with the process of change, he published a research project conducted in the program and presented it to other JTEs both inside and outside his school.

Mr. Abe also attempted to improve English teaching not only at the classroom level, but also at the prefectural level. In the early through middle stages of the study, Mr. Abe often described a lack of support at his school for improving English teaching practices. At a later stage, however, he appeared more positive. As he commented:

In my prefecture, if you try out more Communicative Language Teaching at Shingakko, you need to be mentally tough. However, the little confidence that I gained through the program helps sustain my efforts to do that. (Mr. Abe, Interview: 8/3/2002)

His efforts included organizing an annual conference for JTEs in his prefecture. One way in which he showed his commitment to what he had been taught overseas was by inviting one of his own trainers from the U.S. to be a guest speaker at the conference in 2002.

Furthermore, Mr. Mori also expressed his sense of responsibility for not only improving English education at his school but also "leading [his] city and prefecture" (Interview: 8/11/2002). He explained that, after the completion of the program, he inevitably started to feel a greater responsibility because of requests by the local Board of Education to share his expertise. These requests included conducting open classes and preparing publications and presentations of his research. One of the topics he presented on was "how to develop and assess students' communicative abilities."

Although all of these teachers expressed some difficulties in meeting various demands, the data suggests that they developed a sense of responsibility for improving English education at various levels.

Discussion

The results of the study indicate that participants generally perceived the overseas teacher training experiences to be beneficial to their teaching beliefs and practices. The participants reported that the overseas training program had particularly strengthened their belief that English is fundamentally a means of communication. This result is consistent with the results reported by Lamie (2000). Our study, however, identified teachers' desire to develop their own communication skills in order to support their ideal English teaching approach. It also documented the confidence they gained as ELT professionals as a result of participating in the program. The findings suggest that exploring teacher beliefs is critical to investigating what contributions training programs actually make (Almarza, 1996; Smith, 1996; Freeman, 1996).

The findings of the study also suggest that the teachers perceived some improvement in their ability to teach English more communicatively. In the interviews, participants specifically reported how they applied pedagogical tools learned in the overseas training program to their own teaching contexts (e.g., incorporating their cultural experiences in class, seeking more interaction among students.). These findings were consistent with those of Lamie (2001) and Pacek (1996). In addition, the difficulties that the teachers addressed in our study (e.g. social factors) were also similar to the ones mentioned by both Lamie and Pacek. What seems to be different between Lamie's conclusions and those in our study is that, where Lamie argues that the program's impact on the teachers "potentially outweighs the practical constraints [e.g., class size, university entrance examinations] and, to an extent, the external influence [national and school culture]" (p. 213), our interview data revealed teachers' uncertainty or concerns about their teaching practices, that make it difficult to agree conclusively with Lamie. Our study confirms that there still are institutional, national, and cross-cultural influences when it comes to the process of applying locally the knowledge and insights gained. Those include forces acting collectively on teachers at school for university entrance examinations, communicative-based teaching promoted by the government in relation to students' needs, and socially and culturally established expectations of what "good learning" is.

One unique aspect of this study is that the interview data revealed how the teachers were dealing with various expectations such as student, institutional, national, and social demands in relation to their own goals for EFL teaching. Two major themes that emerged were teachers' attempts

to be “mediators” (Seidlhofer, 1999) and their development of a sense of responsibility for being “agents of change” (Brutte-Griffler & Samimy, 1999). For example, they attempted to incorporate the English knowledge necessary for entrance examinations into the nationally promoted communicative-oriented curriculum by making use of knowledge gained during the program. The findings suggest that the process of trying to incorporate new information and attitudes gained from overseas training into the home classroom is one that involves many kind of obstacles and challenges. The ways the participants overcame these obstacles, or at least faced them, indicate that each individual teacher’s choices involved a “dialectical relationship” (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 258). On one hand, a teacher’s practices were profoundly shaped by external social, cultural, institutional, and interpersonal factors. On the other hand, his or her personal beliefs and goals also shaped the teaching setting. It is through this dialectical relationship that teachers modified and reconstructed their knowledge about ELT.

Conclusion

In this study, we explored the impact of an overseas teacher education program on Japanese EFL teachers after they returned to Japan. In particular, the study examined the teachers’ perceptions of their teaching beliefs and practices, the difficulty in applying pedagogical tools gained during the program, and the way teachers dealt with the difficulty.

One important point emerging from the study is that teachers’ beliefs need to be a part of any investigation into the contributions teacher education programs make to their professional development. Our findings suggest that teachers’ experiences of learning to teach are inextricably interwoven with various social settings and that their teaching beliefs are (re)shaped by professional, social, and cultural factors. Therefore, for future research in teacher education, teacher beliefs need to be fully explored in relation to the various social contexts in which “learning to teach” occurs. To do so, teachers’ EFL teaching and learning histories developed over time must be examined to better understand the issue. In addition, teachers’ voices need to be fully incorporated into the discussion, since they have the potential to provide the most insight into beliefs about EFL teaching and learning.

Another important point is that in the process of applying what they learned, the teachers did not just passively teach in the way the local culture and the program expected. Rather, they worked to balance compet-

ing demands such as the new national policy for communicative English education, students' and schools' expectations regarding preparation for entrance examinations, their desire to apply what they learned in the MEXT program, and their own developing teaching beliefs. To accommodate these expectations, some teachers developed a sense of being "mediators" (Seidlhofer, 1999) and "agents of change" (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999). In order to construct effective teacher education programs, it is critical to acknowledge the processes of accommodation, adaptation, and negotiation that teachers go through. It is also critical to study how they negotiate "the dynamics of these powerful environments" (Freeman and Johnson, 1998, p. 409). How teacher education programs address these issues and how programs can cultivate an EFL teacher's role as mediator need to be further investigated. To answer these questions, we need to examine through classroom observations how teachers appropriate their new pedagogical tools in their own teaching settings.

Finally, while this study suggests some implications for the research on EFL teachers' learning to teach, the small sample size and the program's focus on Japanese teachers of English prevent the generalization of the study's findings. Therefore, we hope that this study will stimulate further discussion and research on the contributions of overseas teacher education programs on EFL professionals.

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Appendix A

JTEs' Perceptions of the Effects of the Program on Their Teaching Beliefs

Teaching beliefs	Frequency	Percent
Teaching English as a tool for communication	4	50.0
Need to develop teachers' own communication skills	3	37.5
Gaining confidence in teachers' own practices	2	25.0
Need to develop students' confidence in communicative ability	1	12.5
Need to take students' needs into more consideration	1	12.5
Better understanding students' attitude toward learning English	1	12.5
Need to have professional development opportunities with colleagues	1	12.5
Importance to make effective use of ALTs	1	12.5
Difficulties to change teachers' teaching behaviors and beliefs	1	12.5
Importance of English education in Japan	1	12.5

Appendix B

JTEs' Perceptions of the Use of Their Pedagogical Tools

Pedagogical Tools	Frequency	Percent
Development of students' understanding of the target culture	6	75.0
More emphasis on students' communication skills	4	50.0
Use of teaching methodology and skills learned in the program	4	50.0
More opportunities to use English in the classroom	3	37.5
More effective use of ALTs in the classroom	1	12.5

Appendix C

JTEs' Perceptions of Their Challenges

Source of Challenges	Frequency	Percent
High school/university entrance examinations	7	87.5
Large class size	6	75.0
Differences in language learning environments between the U.S. and Japan	5	62.5
Strong control over teaching content and pace	4	50.0
Teachers' lack of confidence in communication skills	3	37.5
Students' limited English proficiency	2	25.0
Few discussions with colleagues	1	12.5
Ineffective use of ALTs	1	12.5
Contents of prescribed textbooks	1	12.5
Heavy workload	1	12.5
Lack of support from school	1	12.5
Gap(s) between goals of teaching English among colleagues	1	12.5
Difficulties in showing the originality of individual teachers	1	12.5
Teachers' own teaching styles developed over years	1	12.5

Interview

Exploring the Dialectic: An Interview with James P. Lantolf

Deryn P. Verity

Associate Editor, JALT Journal

James Lantolf has become identified with the sociocultural approach to second language acquisition, as developed from the original ideas of Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934) and others. His introductory essays in Lantolf and Appel (1994) and Lantolf (2000) are widely cited essential digests of the basic principles and concepts of this theoretical paradigm. Professor Lantolf is Greer Professor in Language Acquisition and Applied Linguistics; Director of the Center for Language Acquisition; and Co-Director of CALPER (Center for Advanced Language Proficiency Education and Research) at Pennsylvania State University. Dr. Lantolf is also the founder of the Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning Research Group, which began to meet in 1993. His dozens of publications include three seminal volumes on sociocultural theory: the two collections of articles mentioned above, and a new book, *Sociocultural Theory and the Genesis of Second Language Development* (2006, coauthor Steven L. Thorne) published by Oxford University Press.

JJ: When and how did you begin your shift away from mainstream SLA (second language acquisition) thinking and research?

JPL: My interest in sociocultural theory (SCT) and Vygotsky began about 1983, when I was on the faculty of the University of Delaware. Up to that time in my career, I had no idea who Vygotsky was. At a dissertation defense of one of my students, Bill Frawley, a colleague, asked what I thought was a really interesting question about SLA from an SCT perspective. It immediately piqued my interest, because it represented a viewpoint on SLA that I had never thought of. Bill had been a student of Jim Wertsch at Northwestern University. Jim Wertsch, of course, is one of the individuals most responsible for introducing Vygotsky's ideas to the English-speaking world. Following the defense, Bill and I talked further and then we decided to put together a seminar on SCT where we would read along with our students some of the seminal writings of Vygotsky and his colleagues, including Luria, Leontiev, Galperin, et cetera.

JJ: Two of your books are edited collections of SCT-themed papers, one of them coedited with your wife, Gabriela Appel. Your new book was written with a Penn State colleague, Dr. Steven Thorne. Is there a Vygotskian subtext to these collaborations, a sense that the field needs as many voices to speak for it as possible?

JPL: Collaboration is something that those of us working within SCT have always valued even when we appear to be working alone. This was behind my thinking when we started the SCT and L2 Learning Research Group back in 1993. The idea was to bring together scholars (practicing academics and graduate students) interested in SCT and SLA in a collaborative setting where we would help each other think through our various projects. I didn't think the group would survive more than a year or two, but we just had our 13th meeting at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, and next year we will meet at the University of Arizona. So, yes, the idea of collaboration, which was at the heart of Vygotsky's own work as he met with his colleagues regularly as they developed their thinking, has become an integral part of the way SCTers do business.

JJ: You have been an advocate for the neo-Vygotskian paradigm for more than 20 years now. How firmly established do you feel it has become? Does SCT see itself as still being outside the mainstream?

JPL: It depends on which mainstream we are talking about. Within Anglo-American psychology, the theory is clearly not part of the mainstream. It

is barely on the radar screen. It is no accident that Mike Cole and Jim Werstch are not in departments of psychology, but in communication and education, respectively. To my knowledge, the only two leading Vygotsky scholars in psychology departments in North America are Jan Valsinser, at Clark University, and Anna Stenzenko, at City University of New York.

Within education departments, on the other hand, I believe there is a great deal of interest in Vygotsky's ideas, certainly more than was the case 20 years ago, when Piaget was the dominant figure. Within SLA, SCT has become an accepted part of the research landscape. This is seen in the number of dissertations written in many parts of the world; the number of publications in the leading journals that have an SCT focus; the fact that many of the handbooks in SLA and applied linguistics include a chapter on SCT; and the number of conference presentations, including keynote and plenary addresses, that take an SCT perspective. So, I think the mainstream has widened in general education and in applied linguistics, but psychology, at least the Anglo-American variety, is still not particularly interested in the theory.

JJ: Vygotskian theory is enjoying what could be called a "boom" here in Japan, but many teachers find it a difficult subject to get a foothold on. Is your new book a good starting point for someone who is new to the theory?

JPL: While the book should be useful for someone new to the theory, it is not a work that one can read through quickly and end with a complete understanding of the theory. I think it will need to be read more than once. But this is because of the nature of the theory itself.

The motivation behind the book is this: while many scholars working in SLA have shown an interest in SCT, they have not, unfortunately, taken the time to read Vygotsky, Luria, Leontiev, and the others who laid the foundation of the theory, as well as important modern scholars such as Wertsch, Michael Cole, and Vera John-Steiner, to name a few. Instead, they have interpreted Vygotsky through the writings that I, and my colleagues, have published in L2 research venues. Consequently, they do not have a full picture of what Vygotsky's theorizing is all about.

As a result, some people have stated in print that Vygotsky's is a sociolinguistic theory, which it most definitely is not, at least not in the standard interpretation of sociolinguistics. Others have claimed that it is a psychological theory that doesn't have a theory of language. To some

extent this is the case, though if you read Vygotsky closely, you discover that he indeed espouses a theory of language (this is a project that I am currently working on). Others have asserted that, as appealing as the theory is, you still need the metaphor of the “autonomous knower” to account for SLA, because not everything is in the environment (e.g., how do you explain the common assumption of learners that the past tense of eat is **eated* instead of *ate*?). Thus, the thinking goes, you still need cognitive theory [Ed.: a theory that posits cognition being located in the individual mind] to explain SLA.

What people don't understand is that SCT *is* a cognitive theory—it argues that the source of cognition is social activity. So our 2006 book was written with all of this in mind. We precede each SCT-SLA chapter with a chapter that discusses the relevant theoretical construct in the hopes that this will provide the necessary background for a reader to appreciate what the SLA research is saying.

JJ: If cognition is social, where does that leave concepts such as learner autonomy, self-directed learning, and individual variation?

JPL: Autonomy does not mean autistic. The key point is that individuals are not the starting point but rather the *result* of development. Human individuals emerge from the dialectical relationship between what is biologically endowed and what is socially / culturally inherited. A physically autonomous entity is still a socially organized and historically constructed individual. Biology provides us with such processes as memory, attention, and consciousness of things around us. This we share with our primate cousins. Culture provides the means through which we come to gain intentional control over our biological endowment. As Vygotsky said, humans, through culture, are able to control rather than be controlled by our brains. This control gives us the ability to inhibit immediate reactions to stimuli from the world, which in turn allows us the option of planning how to respond to the stimuli.

When an animal feels hunger it sets out immediately to seek food. Humans experiencing the same feeling can decide to delay the seeking of food, to build an appropriate weapon, or to coordinate a hunt with other individuals. The capacity to plan symbolically is the primary way we are able to control our biological abilities. Symbols are created by cultures. As Marx put it, the spider builds a web by instinct, while the architect first builds a house symbolically on paper (or on a computer). Among other things, this reduces the risk of getting it wrong when the real building is

constructed. So, human cognition—understood as the ability to exercise voluntary and intentional control over our biological brains—comes from culture, which creates the symbols that we use to exercise this control.

JJ: I think that many readers here in Japan will be particularly interested in the chapters on SCT-based pedagogies, Dynamic Assessment (DA) and Systemic-Theoretical Instruction (STI). Pedagogy is where a complex theoretical construct like the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) makes practical sense.

JPL: I think it is a mistake to turn straight to the pedagogy chapters without a full appreciation of what they are arguing for. The result is likely to be what I have called a “technologization” of the pedagogy, whereby DA or STI is reduced to a set of techniques to follow rather than a completely new approach to understanding the relationship between teacher, learners, and the object of study.

JJ: How do the two teaching methods differ?

JPL: DA and STI illuminate different aspects of the same theory of pedagogy as grounded in Vygotsky’s general theory. The most important aspect of STI, which perhaps doesn’t come out as forcefully as it should in the book, is that instruction in any field has the responsibility of presenting learners with the very best knowledge on a given object of study available at the time. The object cannot be compromised for the sake of ease of understanding.

On the other hand, pedagogy based on appropriate forms of mediation (DA) must be flexible enough to help learners at any level develop toward full understanding of, and control over, the object of study. Even though we wrote the book only a short while ago, our thinking on STI and DA has changed considerably as a result of carrying out further research and having taught two graduate seminars on these topics. If we were to do a new edition of the book, I think we would integrate STI and DA into a single chapter and show how the two concepts can work more closely in promoting development. [Working papers discussing these pedagogies can be downloaded from the CALPER website: <<http://calper.la.psu.edu>>.]

JJ: Your misgivings about concepts being removed from their theoretical context seem well-founded. Many references to SCT concepts in articles and presentations seem deracinated.

JPL: This is very frustrating. This has been one of the problems we have had to confront almost from the beginning of our efforts. People find various bits and pieces of the theory appealing and then they proceed to work with these bits and pieces independent of the full theory. The classic example is the ZPD, which is perhaps one of the most misunderstood and misused constructs of the entire theory. To extricate the ZPD from Vygotsky's writings on development, mediation, activity, sense, sign, et cetera, undermines the construct itself.

Having said this, I think it is a good thing to extend theoretical constructs and concepts, including the ZPD. Vygotsky himself did not write a lot about the ZPD and after more than 80 years you would think we would have come to a deeper understanding of what the ZPD is about than we have.

However, I don't think this gives one license to interpret the original concept in any way one pleases. To extend, and even to modify, a concept, requires an understanding of what the original notion of the concept was. This, in my view, hasn't happened. What is often passed off as the ZPD (including the notion of scaffolding) is a genuine distortion of how Vygotsky understood development as a mediated process.

JJ: If you were asked to put Vygotsky's main theoretical contribution into a single phrase, what would you say?

JPL: His true insight was that there is an inseparable and organic connection, between individuals and their social circumstances, that is the *source* of thinking. This connection, in mainstream psychology and linguistics, including SLA, has in many ways been severed, resulting in a dichotomized psychology, much in the way the language under Saussure's influence was dichotomized—separated from its speakers.

JJ: How has your thinking on Vygotsky evolved since you first entered the field?

JPL: Vera John-Steiner once said to me that reading Vygotsky was like traveling through a long tunnel. Only after being in the tunnel for years and years can one begin to see the light at its end. This is precisely what my experience of Vygotsky has been. When one first reads Vygotsky, one thinks it is understandable, almost a common sense way of thinking about the connection between mind and society. But until you read between the lines and realize that what Vygotsky was proposing was a profound new ontology of what it means to be human, you don't really understand his

work. If you were to look at my set of his collected writings you would see evidence of my different readings of him in what is underlined and what is commented on in the marginalia.

This is a long-winded way of getting to my answer—the single most important notion to be discovered in Vygotsky is his *dialectical perspective* on human consciousness. Until this notion emerges in your thinking, you are left with a collection of concepts (the ZPD, private speech, mediation, activity, sense, meaning, etc.).

SLA is still functioning under a set of dichotomies that I think have prevented us from fully understanding the nature of language learning and teaching. These include competence/performance, learning/acquisition, input/output, learning/use, individual/social, explicit/implicit knowledge, teaching/assessment, teacher-centered/learner-centered pedagogy, et cetera. At the moment I am carrying out what is likely to be an extended project on what SLA would look like from a dialectical rather than a dichotic perspective.

JJ: Could you unpack the term *dialectical*? How does it differ from *contextual* or *interrelated*? If something is done in dialogue, does that make it dialectical?

JPL: To function dialectically means to be able to hold in one cognitive space notions that on the surface appear to be contrary (learning/development, implicit/explicit knowledge, input/output, etc.) and to come to understand how these seeming contraries fit together as necessary components of the object of study.

Dialogue and context are events and spaces. What matters is the quality of what happens in these events and spaces. A dialogue for instance can be antagonistic rather than dialectical. A dialogue can also be cooperative and even collaborative without being dialectical.

A dialectical view of the world, going back to Spinoza, for instance, understands the world as inherently integrated, including especially events and activities that on the surface appear to be contrary. The dichotic/dualistic viewpoint breaks this natural nexus whereby the whole is shattered and with it the very nature of what one is trying to understand and or participate in. So, to argue for the independence of learning and development, as is done in a classic Piagetian perspective, loses sight of the possibility that learning and development are components of a unity: one builds upon the other in a potentially unending cycle. The same can be said about the relationship between the individual and the social, learning and assessment, et cetera.

The dialectic is at the heart of what we know as human society. The reason people hang together in societies is because we are different from each other and therefore we need and rely on each other. If we were all the same, there would be no society.

James Lantolf is to speak at the upcoming Independent Learning Association's conference *Exploring Theory, Enhancing Practice: Autonomy across the Disciplines*, to be held October 5-8, 2007, at Kanda University of International Studies in Chiba, where he will give a plenary address on the topic "Autonomy and Sociocultural Theory."

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Reviews

***Japanese Female Professors in the United States: A Comparative Study in Conflict Resolution and Intercultural Communication.* Masako Hamada. Lewiston, NY: The Edwin Mellen Press, 2006. i +266 pp.**

Reviewed by

Justin Charlebois

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One result of globalization is an increasing interest in other cultures and languages. Educators residing abroad are quasi-cultural ambassadors who not only teach the formal aspects of language but also the pragmatic and cultural. These educators in turn often face a plethora of cultural obstacles in the course of their residence abroad.

This book, based on Hamada's doctoral dissertation, is the first of its kind. It discusses the various challenges Japanese female professors are faced with in university classrooms in the United States. Hamada focuses on the strategies these women use when dealing with academic conflicts and misunderstandings. In relation to this, she is also interested in how length of residence in the United States affects the use of these strategies. In order to investigate this she combined a written survey questionnaire (partially multiple-choice and partially open-ended questions) with open-ended, in-depth guided telephone interviews.

The first part of the book is dedicated to a comprehensive literature review of gender and Japanese culture. Her multidimensional analysis of the challenges facing Japanese women transcends gender and incorporates other factors which can affect communication. These factors are rooted in cultural differences such as conflict avoidance and the preservation of harmony, face-saving, *omoiyari* (empathy), *enryo* (self-restraint), and high context communication. While she illustrates that these factors do affect communication between Japanese female professors and American students, it is a safe assumption that they would also influence intercultural encounters on a more general level as well.

Hamada highlights five styles that her participants used to handle conflicts. These are avoiding, compromising, dominating, integrating, and obliging. The integrating style was the most prevalent way of handling

conflict. This style is characterized by solving an issue with a student. It is also characteristic of a Western approach to handling conflict.

As their length of residence in the United States increased, her participants more frequently utilized the dominant style and less frequently the obliging one. The dominant style is characterized by firmness in pursuing a given position when dealing with a student. Hamada is careful to cite age and increasing experience as contributing factors to the preference for this style besides the obvious "Americanization" of her participants. The obliging style, on the other hand, involves accommodation to students' wishes, and may more accurately characterize a Japanese communicative style. However, in interactions between superiors (i.e., teachers) and subordinates (i.e., students) this is not always the case in Japan.

Finally, Hamada cites the problems precipitating conflict which were mentioned most often in the survey. These are students complaining about grades, not showing respect for professors, classroom behavior (e. g., eating and drinking during class), attempting to negotiate with the professor to change the curriculum, cheating, the language proficiency of the professors, students' lack of preparation, and differences in communication styles. This section of the book is apparently intended to assist Japanese educators with their transition to United States academic culture.

This book is very well written and thus accessible to a wide audience. It includes both quantitative and qualitative analyses which further strengthen the author's claims. Statistical analyses are thoroughly explained so that even a novice can easily interpret the results.

Hamada's book is useful for anyone interested in intercultural education. Expatriate educators in Japan may benefit from knowledge of the various issues facing their counterparts residing abroad.

While Japanese professors in the United States may be the intended readership for this book, any educator involved in instructing pragmatic and cultural aspects of language will find this volume to be a valuable resource. In addition, Japanese learners of English who plan to live or work in North America would benefit from an awareness of the importance of the integrating style of conflict management in United States culture. At the same time, it is crucial for these students to learn that in many Western cultures silence is not golden and success depends upon one's ability to articulate his or her opinions. The adage "the nail that sticks out gets hammered down" translates to "the squeaky wheel gets the grease" in many Western cultures. Hamada eloquently highlights these and many other issues facing those involved in intercultural interactions.

***Language Learners in Study Abroad Contexts.* Margaret A. DuFon and Eton Churchill (Eds.). Clevedon, Buffalo, Toronto: Multilingual Matters, 2006. xii + 329 pp.**

Reviewed by

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While study abroad programs continue to be extremely popular with learners and teachers around the world, research on second language acquisition in study abroad (SA) contexts is still in an early phase of its development. The popular belief that SA programs lead to gains in competence is one of the few generalizations that can perhaps be supported. SA researchers are now expanding their analytical focus to comparative studies and the demonstrably different experiences of learners even within the same study programs and host contexts. On the whole, existing studies provide a series of contradictory findings, depending on learner age, gender, type of study program, language proficiency, relationship with host families, or personality of the learners themselves. These individual and program variables indicate that the process of language acquisition in SA contexts is often far from consistent and unilinear, and presents a series of complex challenges for researchers in the field to map effectively.

Language Learners in Study Abroad Contexts is a welcome addition to the research literature on the subject, offering 10 chapters that combine both theoretical and practical considerations of the major themes. Collecting contributions from nine different authors familiar with SA programs in Japan, Indonesia, Germany, Australia, and the USA, the book's four sections range across a number of areas, from research on gains in linguistic skills, learner motivation, and learner strategies and anxiety to the sociolinguistic and metacognitive knowledge required if SA learners are to be successful (Paige, Cohen, & Shively, 2004).

Chapter 1, *Evolving Threads in Study Abroad Research*, serves as an introduction to the volume as a whole, providing an overview of existing research studies while describing a number of new developments that have occurred over the last 10 years. Research is becoming increasingly analytical, focusing on issues concerning literacy and register, and moving from general proficiency to more detailed studies of grammar, pronunciation, and prosodic language features. Comparative studies

of at-home (AH) and SA programs have emerged, with more attention given to individual learning differences. Lately, following the social turn in SLA, a concern with researching the variables shaping the host context has developed, though these have been limited to only a few languages and programs to date.

Chapters 2 and 3 belong to Part 1 of the book subtitled *The Acquisition of Pragmatic Competence During Study Abroad*. Both chapters explore issues in pragmatics, primarily in relation to strategies for taking leave in Indonesian (Chapter 2), or the conventions governing the use of social address (*Sie / du*) in German (Chapter 3). Both contributions confirm previous research (Barron, 2003), supporting the notion that the conscious awareness of input is extremely important for the acquisition of second language pragmatic knowledge.

In Part 2, Chapters 4, 5, and 6 examine the theme of Interaction and Socialization at the Host Dinner Table, focusing on study abroad contexts in Indonesia and Japan. Issues explored include the socialization of taste in a second-language culture, the expression of folk beliefs in dinnertime conversations with host families, and the acquisition of linguistic and cultural norms in a homestay setting. The main implications arising from the studies supported the notion of a homestay environment as an “opportunity space” to learn the cultural aspects of language, the dynamics of which are not normally available to learners in traditional pedagogical contexts.

The two chapters in Part 3 entitled, *From Home to School in the Study Abroad Environment*, explore the negotiations that occur between the homestay environment and that of a formal teaching context such as a high school. Research findings from the studies in this section focus on the wide variety of performance often found in SA learning environments as compared with study at home.

In the final part of the book, *The Influence of Individual and Program Variables on SLA*, Chapters 9 and 10 discuss issues of learner motivation and attitudes, social networks, and learner strategies. The chapters provide an appropriate closure for the studies contained in the rest of the book by foregrounding the need to focus on the complex relationship between learners’ motivation and the development of appropriate support structures and social networks in an SA context.

Language Learners in Study Abroad Contexts is a valuable contribution to an emerging field, where initiatives have largely been based on an intuitive belief rather than sound research. The three papers that address SA

issues related to Japanese learners will be of particular value to teachers, academics, and coordinators involved in SA programs in Japan. The book should also provide some much needed theoretical input for existing practitioners in the field. It also could act as a reference point for future enquiry by SLA researchers looking for a still emerging disciplinary area that is conducive to original work.

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***Interlanguage Pragmatics: Exploring Institutional Talk.*
Kathleen Bardovi-Harlig and Beverly S. Hartford (Eds.).
Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. 2005. 230 pp.**

Reviewed By

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Behind the walls of various institutions there exist unique ways in which discourse unfolds. These forms of talk have attracted the interest of many scholars, according to Wasson (2000), for example, who acknowledges that there has been "a growing concern with the question of how everyday talk is embedded in institutionalized structures of power" (p. 457). The analysis of how language functions in specific institutional contexts is the subject of *Interlanguage Pragmatics: Exploring Institutional Talk*, edited by Kathleen Bardovi-Harlig and Beverley Hartford, two principal figures in the fields of pragmatics and second language acquisition.

The book piques the reader's interest from the beginning by outlining the benefits of such research. Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford's introduction and the first chapter, Institutional Discourse and Interlanguage Pragmatics, explain the benefits of studying institutional talk in terms

of “three primary requirements” (p. 31): comparability, interactivity, and consequentiality. The two editors contend that institutional discourse is comparable since institutions may share the same features within and across them. They also propose that it is interactive in the sense that two people or more are necessary for discourse to occur, and consequential since such talk is situated in situations that have specific objectives.

One group of institutions examined was universities (a university tutor center and a university physics classroom) and secondary schools. In Chapter 2, *Writing Center Interaction: Institutional Discourse and the Role of Peer Tutors*, Jessica Williams compares native speaker (NS) and nonnative speaker (NNS) interactions with NS writing tutors, discovering salient differences in turn construction and organization of discourse. She discloses that social distance between tutor and student varies, with NNS students seeking more tutor assistance and NS students expecting to operate more on an equal footing. In Chapter 3, Lynda Yates’ *Negotiating an Institutional Identity: Individual Differences in NS and NNS Teacher Directives*, the variation of mitigated teacher directives uttered by Australian and Chinese teacher trainees in the secondary school system yields interesting data on how such directive forms correlate with nationality, gender, and individual style. University interaction is the focus of Chapter 5 in which Catherine Evans Davies and Andrea Tyler’s *Discourse Strategies in the Context of Crosscultural Institutional Talk: Uncovering Interlanguage Pragmatics in the University Classroom* examines an incident where a Korean teaching assistant (TA) confronts an American student caught cheating. In this study, Davies and Tyler refer to a unique form of discourse formed by the Korean TA that is referred to as a “third place,” or, in other words, discourse not specifically governed by sole transfer of L1 pragmatic competence into L2 discourse situations. The unique nature of this form of discourse shows that “broad, sweeping notions” (Watts, 2003, p. 101) of culture may tend to view NNS language users in a unidimensional manner and neglect to consider other dynamic forces affecting L2 language use in specific contexts.

Other institutions and milieus that were researched were employment centers, hotels, social service, and doctor-patient contexts. In the job placement center in Chapter 4, *Before, During, and After the Event: Getting the Job (or Not) in an Employment Interview*, Julie Kerekas examines external factors (language ability, background, and others) that affected the outcomes of gatekeeping encounters with temporary industrial job applicants. In Chapter 6, *English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP)*, Elaine Tarone asserts that

ESP research can inform ILP researchers about the way that second language learners use pragmatic functions in the real world. However, Tarone cautions against leaning too much towards an NS versus NNS distinction here, as it tends to be overemphasized; instead, the expert versus novice paradigm is better served to inform the ESP framework. Finally, Tara Leigh Gibbs, in the following chapter, *Using Moves in the Opening Sequence to Identify Callers in Institutional Settings*, takes into consideration NNS hotel housekeeping trainees' successes and failures in learning how to perform specific genres of calls known as "call-ins" to request pick-ups of items or furniture in hotel rooms. Gibbs exposes how such genres have their own conventions, which would need to be effectively taught to novices.

The information obtained from studies like these can benefit those who would like to practically apply such findings in a pedagogical context, particularly for L2 speakers who are novices in such settings. The studies here provide a wide range of approaches to studying institutional discourse reinforcing the message that multivariate approaches lend themselves to more rich, varied, and interesting data. The challenge is, however, to get permission to conduct the research. Several guidelines are listed in the *Practical Considerations* section, and Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford avoid sounding overly optimistic by practically addressing issues surrounding gaining permission to conduct such studies. To those who would emulate the book's contributors, they advise patience, persistence, and the effective use of social networks, among others, as key ways to ensure success.

Overall, this book is a valuable addition to the area of interlanguage pragmatics where it is hoped it will influence similar researchers to follow in the same path, broadening the scope of such research in the future.

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***Connecting Reading & Writing in Second Language Writing Instruction.* Alan Hirvela. Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press, 2004. xiii + 210 pp.**

Reviewed by

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Part of the Michigan Series on Teaching Multilingual Writers, this book addresses an issue which deserves greater recognition: the complementary nature of reading and writing in language learning. Many instructors, lacking insight into how these two skills relate, teach them piecemeal. The goal of the book is to address this unnecessary division so that teachers and their students realize the benefits of aligning reading and writing activities.

The book resembles others in the series in terms of length and structure. Each of the five chapters is divided into numerous subtopics and each concludes with a set of Questions for Reflection and Discussion. The first chapter, Overview of Reading-Writing Connections, recounts how researchers have come to recognize the essential link between reading and writing and how they have worked to bridge the gap that has existed historically between the teaching of the two. The least interesting of the chapters, it reads like a dry series of book reviews accompanied by laundry lists of bullet points and clusters of references to associated research. While there is a certain logic to beginning with relevant background material, this initial chapter could discourage the reader from plowing forward to more compelling material.

Fortunately, after the first chapter, the book begins to fulfill the promise of its title by incorporating pragmatic concerns into the discussion. Chapter 2 presents reader-response theory, according to which meaning does not lie buried in the text like a fossil waiting to be unearthed: it is composed by the reader through interaction with the text. Reader-response theory frees the reader from the burden of deciphering the author's *intended* meaning. Because their voice has a status equal to or superior to that of the text, readers (L2 learners in particular) can focus on developing their own insights instead of worrying whether they have understood the text in the *right* way. A further benefit of reader-response theory is that it recasts reading as an active, productive process instead of the passive, receptive one that it

has long been presented as in language classrooms.

Chapter 3 and 4 examine, respectively, writing as an avenue to reading and vice versa. A teacher of limited experience with writing pedagogy would find Chapters 3 and 4 especially valuable. The author advocates injecting writing into the reading classroom, and reading into the writing classroom, on the premise that practice in one skill generally leads to proficiency gains in the other. For example, texts for reading classes can serve as models for writing assignments. Furthermore, problems manifested in one skill may have roots in the other (e.g., a student's apparent writing difficulties may in fact be the consequence of reading struggles). Teachers can address such weakness via the complementary skill. As Hirvela explains, "Writing before, during, or after reading enables a reader to make sense of her or his reading, which in turn strengthens the quality of the reading and contributes to the development of L2 reading skills" (pp. 73-4).

With emphasis on classroom application, Chapter 5 describes five different models of reading-writing pedagogy (computer-mediated, literature/response-based, collaborative, content-based, and sequential) and discusses choosing texts and tasks for each. Inclusion of the computer-mediated model underscores one of the book's key points: reading and writing can no longer be considered solely in terms of the conventional printed page. The growing use of computers by students inside and outside the classroom means that teachers must consider the ramifications of "electronic literacy" (p. 142). As for the other four models, their concepts will be familiar to veteran teachers, who should read with an eye toward synthesizing from all five models the features relevant to their classrooms.

One flaw needs mentioning: as the book progresses, the writing becomes marred by an increasing wordiness. The careful wording of the introduction and first chapter gives way to rambling prose that makes straightforward ideas needlessly tangled. The final chapter is rife with phrasing that could be trimmed without sacrificing clarity. Though wordiness is not out of character for academic texts, it is ironic that a book on reading and writing pedagogy should fall short as a model of concise prose.

This drawback aside, the work has value: the author offers compelling evidence for linking reading and writing and makes good suggestions for classroom activities. The book's ideal readership would be experienced teachers seeking a broader perspective on reading and writing.

***CALL Research Perspectives.* Joy L. Egbert and Gina Mikel Petrie (Eds.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 2005. xi + 204 pp.**

Reviewed by

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Egbert and Petrie have edited a comprehensive and concise text which provides a review of the most pertinent research methods and their interpretation by experts in the field of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL).

CALL Research Perspectives is invaluable for researchers from all fields, for as many of the contributors assert, research is no longer the dominion of one theoretical framework. Rather it is the symbiosis of many in order to illuminate the complex aspect of language learning and skills development, as well as the effect of intrapersonal variables, and the sociocultural, economical, political, and historical forces which create the world as we perceive it both physically and virtually.

CALL Research Perspectives is organized into three sections: an introduction, the research perspectives, and a conclusion. The introduction offers an overview of CALL research, which Egbert still finds lacking a "coherent understanding" (p. 3). Therefore Egbert proposes a definition of CALL which places at its center language learning. She concludes that no matter who undertakes research, the methodology must be rigorous. Next, an article by Huh and Hu suggests how research rigor can be achieved. To set a criterion for research they review a wide range of articles and research to highlight the weaknesses of previous research and to emphasize that research should have strong theoretical support based on valid objectives and research design.

The main part of the book, *Research Perspectives*, is a collection of articles from leading CALL researchers. Meskill opens this section by explaining that metaphors can help define how we observe and describe what we understand as we establish perspectives of CALL. Warschauer examines the relationship between a sociocultural perspective and CALL from the point of view of the Vygotskian "concept of *mediation*" (p. 41). Many researchers will be familiar with the Zone of Proximal Development

(ZPD), but fewer are aware of the concept of mediation. The concept is equally important for as Warschauer explains, CALL is not simply about the technological contribution towards language learning; it must also be concerned with how learners and technology interact in order to bring about learning development. Investigating *interactionist SLA theory* and its contribution to language acquisition through and around technology and communities of learners, Chapelle reflects on the meaning of interaction by questioning how authentic communication fits within CALL and SLA.

Hauck reviews research on the concepts of *metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive strategies*. Referring to Flavell, Wenden, and other prominent authors on the issue of metacognition, Hauck details how these metacognitive elements assist language learners to develop an understanding of their capabilities and the learning process. Mohan and Luo explain how *Systemic Functional Linguistics* examines learners' use of the target language to construct and infer meaning from everyday communication. Due to the extent to which computers are now being used to construct all aspects of communication, Systemic Functional Linguistics is one approach that is helpful in examining how CALL and learner discourse objectives intertwine.

Commenting on *visuality*, Petrie observes that learners have come to develop skills to create a variety of visually enhanced documents. Petrie comments that visuality can be both a complement and a distractor during language learning acquisition. Yet such an approach can bring students to a deeper understanding of the semantic and semiotic features of communication.

Researching *authentic language* in Computer-Mediated Communication can be problematic, according to Crystal (2001). Nonetheless, Lotherington comments that due to constant online social lexical evolution, chat-based learning requires further investigation—notably in the area of language authenticity. Jackson and Delehanty's (1996) coaching guide to bringing the Chicago Bulls to multiple wins has defined the terms *zone* and *flow*. Egbert applies the *flow* metaphor to suggest that the right mix of tasks, skills, psychological states, and language objectives can bring learners to immerse themselves in the act of learning for the joy of learning. Very little research investigates flow, and Egbert's contribution shows how flow data collection is not such an easy task.

Considering culture, Brander posits, is vital when considering CALL and online education. Not only do students have a right to protect their

own culture from external bias structures; they also have a right to understand how to build bridges between their conceptualization and experiences with cultural identities. Yang explains how *Situated Learning* (Lave & Wenger, 1990) can be integrated into a CALL environment. Whether it is in the class or on the net, students become part of communities from which “learning takes place as an act of membership” (p. 159). Yutdhana informs readers that *Design-Based Research* (DBR) first emerged as a concept in 2002, when Hoadley “describe[d] work combining software design and research in education” (p. 170). Yutdhana provides some examples to demonstrate that researchers can benefit from DBR, because as a research method it analyzes the effect of designing learning environments on developing learning theories. This contribution concludes that although DBR can lead researchers to develop “richer” understandings of CALL environments, DBR does need consistent, long-term investment in order to bear results (p. 176).

As the last contributor to the research perspective section, Raby begins her review of *User-Centered Ergonomic Approach to CALL Research* with an anecdotal observation of one of her students who had decided to use a piece of grammar-learning software to develop her idiomatic comprehension level. Ergonomics aims to evaluate the reasons subjects act and perform the way they do during their working activities (p. 180). This is a novel angle from which to observe student behavior as it places CALL in the position of a working environment rather than a learning milieu. Raby concludes that by positioning CALL as a working environment researchers might need a variety of theories to observe “learning and teaching not only as performance but also as psychological and social processes [which] call for many dimensions to be taken into account” (p. 187).

In the conclusion Petrie observes that *CALL Research Perspective* is not intended to be “a comprehensive atlas. Rather . . . [it] is a developing map” from which to establish working paths in the CALL field (p. 194). Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory is the common thread which ties the contributions together. That is to say, the contributors provide some evidence that students have much to gain from computer-based activities, which encourage them to autonomously investigate their language and technological abilities. Thus each contribution not only reviews CALL research in depth, but also offers invaluable future directions towards creating learning environments that are more conducive to student-centered learning activities. In addition, *CALL Research Perspectives’* consistent format makes it an accessible read for both novice and advanced researchers interested in research methodology and CALL.

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***The Greek & Latin Roots of English*. 3rd ed. Tamara M. Green. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield, 2003. xvi + 235 pp.**

Reviewed by

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As the preface to this book informs us, more than 60% of all English words are derived from Latin and Greek. The number rises to 90% in the areas of science and technology. The study of Graeco-Latin roots is as valuable to science majors as to English majors, be they native speakers or foreign language learners, and is an interesting and time-efficient way to enlarge one's vocabulary across a wide range of disciplines.

The Greek and Latin Roots of English was originally written as class material by Tamara Green, professor and chair of the Classics Department at CUNY-Hunter College, for a course on Latin-Greek etymology offered jointly to mainstream classics majors and advanced ESL students. Green's resulting text is a fascinating and highly readable account of the linguistic origins of many English words. The reader does not need a background in Latin-Greek studies, but this certainly would be an advantage.

The 18-chapter text is presented thematically with separate units on the structure of the Latin and Greek languages followed by sections on professional disciplines including politics, medicine, and literature, and concluding with information on the history and cultures of Greece and

Rome, as well as Latin expressions still used in English. Except for a short, introductory lesson on food, most chapters include an extended reading and a word bank containing Latin and Greek words, their English meanings, and one example for each of a derived word in English. Exercises follow giving cumulative practice with additional words derived from these roots. Rather than presenting Greek and Latin roots in separate sections or one by one with long lists of derived words, Green deliberately chose this integrated, topical approach to preserve a sense of the richness and complexity of the English language, which has absorbed so many words of foreign origin. The text ends with separate appendices of the Latin and Greek words appearing within the chapters. A teacher's manual is also available.

Native speakers interested in etymology will find this book a feast for the intellect. It is packed full of interesting facts. For example, few readers will know that the word *ketchup* comes from Chinese. Native readers will delight in discovering the Latin and Greek origins of a profusion of familiar and unfamiliar words, particularly those coming from Latin through French. Thought-provoking chapters on the linguistic structure of Latin and Greek deserve several readings. This is a book to be read through once for basic understanding and then kept to be used regularly as a reference work.

The very thing which makes this book intriguing to native speakers, however, may discourage its use with the EFL students we have in Japan. The presentation of roots with single-word English examples is not meant for readers with a small number of Graeco-Latin-derived words in their repertoires. The book's complex thematic presentation would surely frustrate many students who are accustomed to memorizing long lists of words for short-term recall on tests. Finally, the explanations of Latin and Greek structure are written for learners having extensive experience with grammar study in English-speaking countries.

The above caveats, however, should in no way dissuade native English teachers from reading this book. With the current shift in Japanese universities away from English conversation classes and toward content courses, academic reading, and TOEFL study, it behooves college-level EFL instructors to broaden their understanding of Graeco-Latin etymology so that they can confidently impart this knowledge to their students and help expand their vocabularies. This book is a great place to start.

***An Introduction to Psycholinguistics (2nd Edition).* Danny D. Steinberg & Natalia V. Sciarini. 2006. Harlow, UK: Pearson Longman. xvii + pp. 306.**

Reviewed by

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Psycholinguistics is a difficult field of study because of its continuous development due to ongoing research. Often the terminology is rather incomprehensible to nonspecialists, so some linguistics students and even teachers may lack the knowledge to understand its different branches. That is why books called introductory need to be accessible to novice readers. They should contain a comprehensive updated bibliography and, whenever possible, an ample glossary. *An Introduction to Psycholinguistics* has accomplished the first two, but lacks the glossary, which is a drawback. This is a book that offers a simple and complete approach to different aspects of the relationships between psycholinguistics and first and second language learning (acquisition).

The book has three main parts: a) first language learning, b) second language learning, and c) "language, mind, and brain" which is centred on aspects of culture, natural grammar, and the function of thought and the brain in language development. The writers have succeeded in simplifying the language and ideas presented throughout the book so that they are accessible to all readers regardless of their previous knowledge of the topics.

There are, however, three challenging assumptions in the preface that may be difficult to achieve or may lead to the wrong impression that they are mainstream views in the field. The first is the idea that this volume can "bring the reader to the highest level of understanding of the topics" (p. xiii). Because of the positive simplicity of this introductory book, it may be difficult to reach a high level of understanding of controversial and highly specialized topics. The second assumption is the labelling of Natural Grammar as "a new theory of grammar." Discussing in detail whether Natural Grammar is new is beyond the scope of this review; however, it is partially assumed in older theories, some of which were formulated by Krashen 30 years ago, or introduced in the "natural speech"

methods (Direct Method or Total Physical Response) (p. 150) even longer ago. The last interesting assumption that teaching methodologies should focus on learners may be hard to achieve as teachers have their own ways of thinking and doing, and it is difficult for them to change their style, beliefs, and attitudes. However, it is in the teachers' interest to try to change and be open and flexible in their daily work by listening more to their students' needs than to their own ideas.

One innovative section focuses on the mental processes that lead to communication (understanding and expression) in sign language. Even the most nonspecialized psycholinguistics books fail to include this because it is quite a controversial topic and specialists tend to believe it is not of much use to the general public.

I also found it very useful for the JALT readership that special attention was paid to Japanese and Chinese research in the teaching and acquisition of kana and kanji in writing, speaking, and even psycholinguistic disorders like aphasia.

Overall, Steinberg and Sciarini have accomplished a brief but informative book which should have a significant place in the field of psycholinguistics, especially in Asia. Readers will find *An Introduction to Psycholinguistics* informative, reader friendly, and more than anything else, useful and well balanced.

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"x11" 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.

Submission Procedure

Materials should be sent as an e-mail attachment in Rich Text Format (preferred) or by 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 or CD-ROM.

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5. Japanese translation of the title and abstract, if possible (no more than 400ji).
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Yoshinori J. Watanabe, Ph.D; *JALT Journal* Japanese-Language Editor

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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。

提出するもの:

- ・ 原稿3部（執筆者名は書かないこと）
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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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