jalt journal

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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 and one forming chapter, all in Japan, along with 23 special interest groups (SIGs) and four forming SIGs. JALT is one of the founders of PAC (Pan-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 semiannual research journal; *The Language Teacher*, a bimonthly periodical containing articles, teaching activities, reviews, and announcements about professional concerns; and the annual *JALT International Conference Proceedings*.

The JALT International Conference on Language Teaching and Learning and Educational Materials Exposition attracts some 2,000 participants annually and offers over 600 papers, workshops, colloquia, and poster sessions. Each JALT chapter holds local meetings and JALT's SIGs provide information and newsletters 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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JALT Central Office

Urban Edge Building, 5F 1-37-9 Taito, Taito-ku, Tokyo 110-0016, Japan
Tel.: 03-3837-1630; Fax: 03-3837-1631; Email: jco@jalt.org;
Website: <www.jalt.org>

In this Issue

Articles

We are pleased to present a variety of pieces for you in this autumn issue of *JALT Journal*. Our first contribution, a full-length research article, comes from **Michinobu Watanabe**, who explores whether Japanese students' willingness to communicate in English changes during the high school years. We also present two Perspectives pieces. The first is by **Chit Cheung Matthew Sung**, who explores controversies surrounding the implications of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) for English Language Teaching (ELT) while considering the realities of language teachers and learners. In the second, **Gregory Paul Glasgow** discusses the impact of MEXT's new national senior high school *Course of Study for Foreign Languages* on collaboration between Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) and assistant language teachers (ALTs).

Point to Point

In addition, we offer a stimulating point-counterpoint debate. **Panayiotis Panayides** initiates the debate by responding to an article from our previous issue entitled "Using Rasch Analysis to Create and Evaluate a Measurement Instrument for Foreign Language Classroom Speaking Anxiety" (2013, vol. 35, pp. 5-28). The author of the original article, **Matthew T. Apple**, makes his counterpoints to the critique in "The Author Responds."

Reviews

In the first of our six book reviews, **Crystal Green** looks at an investigation into professional identity through the experiences of native Japanese teachers of English. In the second, **Harumi Kimura** reviews a book focused on refuting common misunderstandings about how people learn languages. Third, **Leigh McDowell** examines a model for curriculum design in language courses and programs. The next review, by **Jason Moser**, covers an edited collection of research studies into task-based language teaching in EFL contexts. Our fifth review comes from **Richard J. Sampson**, who reports on a range of studies into identity, motivation, and autonomy in language learning in an edited volume. Finally, **Vick Ssali** and **Umida Ashurova** join forces to review an edited work that exclusively addresses language learning outside the classroom.

From the Editor

It's hard to imagine November's cool breezes and the changing colours of the leaves when the *JALT Journal* production cycle begins in the sweltering heat of July. However, if I close my eyes and sit right under the air conditioner in my office, I can almost do it. Once again, I thank the members of the Editorial Advisory Board and additional readers for their assistance. At this time, I would like to thank **Tim Murphey** in particular; he leaves the EAB after many years of service to *JALT Journal* as a reviewer. I again offer my thanks to all the authors who have chosen *JALT Journal* as the home for their work, **Anne Howard**, our Associate Editor who is increasingly taking on *JJ* tasks, **Greg Sholdt**, our go-to stats man, and as always, Production-Editor-slash-Goddess **Aleda Krause** and her crack production team who are keeping *JALT Journal* standards high. Starting with this issue, *JALT Journal* will be printed on recycled paper, in response to a JALT member suggestion.

Melodie Cook

Articles

Willingness to Communicate and Japanese High School English Learners

Michinobu Watanabe
Toin Gakuen High School

In this longitudinal study I investigated the extent, if any, to which Japanese high school English learners' willingness to communicate (WTC; McCroskey & Richmond, 1985) changes over the 3 years of high school and then explored the reasons for the changes or stability. A questionnaire was developed drawing on the WTC scale (McCroskey, 1992) and administered to 190 students three times at yearly intervals. The data were analyzed with the Rasch rating scale model and ANOVAs. Two distinct constructs were identified across the three waves of data: willingness to communicate with friends and acquaintances (WTCFA) and willingness to communicate with strangers (WTCS). The results showed that neither WTCFA nor WTCS changed significantly over the high school years, and that WTCS remained low. Follow-up interviews with selected students suggested several possible reasons for the questionnaire results.

本縦断的研究は、日本の高校生英語学習者のwillingness to communicate（WTC; McCroskey & Richmond, 1985）が高校3年間に変化するのかどうかと、その変化または無変化の理由を調査したものである。WTC質問票（McCroskey, 1992）を基に質問票を作成し、高校生190人に、1年間隔で3回、回答してもらった。質問票のデータは、ラッシュモデルと分散分析（ANOVA）を用いて分析した。その結果、何れの回においても、「友人や知人に対するWTC」と「見知らぬ人に対するWTC」の2つの心理概念が見いだされた。そして、「友人や知人に対するWTC」にも「見知らぬ人に対するWTC」にも高校3年間に有意な変化が無かったこと、また、「見知らぬ人に対するWTC」は大変低いレベルに留まっていたことがわかった。質問票での調査に続けて実施した、抽出した生徒へのインタビューでは、それらの結果のいくつかの理由が示唆された。

For the past 20-plus years, the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has tried to develop high school students' English communication abilities by incorporating oral communication into high school English courses (MEXT, 1989, 1999), designating foreign language as a compulsory subject (MEXT, 1999), and reorganizing high school English courses into communication English, English expression, and English conversation (MEXT, 2009).[1] If or when high school students develop English communication abilities, their willingness to communicate in English will increase because the former can be considered as an antecedent to the latter (MacIntyre, 1994). If their willingness to communicate fails to increase, problems need to be identified. In this study[2] I investigate the extent, if any, to which Japanese high school students' willingness to communicate in English changes over their high school years and inquire into the reasons for any changes or stability that were observed.

Literature Review

Theoretical Background

Willingness to communicate (WTC) was originally conceptualized with reference to the first language by McCroskey and associates (e.g., McCroskey & Richmond, 1985) as the probability of a person's engaging in communication when free to do so. They treated WTC as a personality trait and suggested that WTC was related to communication apprehension, perceived communicative competence, introversion-extroversion, and self-esteem. MacIntyre (1994) proposed a model describing the interrelations among several individual difference variables as predictors of WTC. In his model, WTC was influenced most directly by a combination of communication apprehension and perceived communicative competence, which in turn were influenced by introversion and self-esteem.

MacIntyre and associates applied WTC to L2 communication in various Canadian contexts and suggested that WTC in the L2 was a predictor of frequency of L2 communication (e.g., MacIntyre & Charos, 1996). MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels (1998) treated L2 WTC as a situational variable, defined as the individual's "readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using an L2" (p. 547), and developed a heuristic model of variables influencing it. The model shows the range of potential influences on L2 WTC, including relatively stable influences such as intergroup relations, learner personality, and communicative competence, as well as more transient influences such as desire to speak

to a specific person and communicative self-confidence in a particular set-ting. MacIntyre et al. (1998) argued that an L2 program that fails to produce learners who are willing to use the language is a failed program.

Empirical Research

Several researchers investigated Japanese English learners' WTC in English using the WTC scale (McCroskey, 1992), which includes items that are designed to measure the individual's likeliness to choose to converse in a particular situation with a specific person or persons. Hashimoto (2002) investigated the WTC in English of Japanese university ESL students in Hawaii. The results indicated that perceived competence and lack of anxiety led to WTC, and that WTC and motivation affected L2 communication frequency in classrooms. Yashima (2002) investigated the relation between L2 learning and L2 communication variables among Japanese university EFL learners and found that motivation enhanced self-confidence in L2 communication, which led to WTC. In addition, greater international posture, which she defined with reference to Japanese EFL learners as "interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners, and . . . openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures" (p. 57), also led to greater WTC. Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, and Shimizu (2004) investigated the antecedents and results of WTC in English of Japanese high school students in Japan and in the United States on a study-abroad program. The results indicated that perceived L2 communicative competence and international posture led to WTC and L2 communication, and that greater WTC resulted in more frequent L2 communication.

Researchers have reported on Japanese English learners' interest in communicative English, rather than WTC in English, as part of their inquiry into the learners' motivation. Kurahachi (1996), by administering a questionnaire using a retrospective design to university students, investigated how Japanese students' motivation for learning English changed from junior high school through university. The students reported that over time, they lost interest in English as the novelty wore off, experienced a reduced level of self-efficacy, failed to find their learning environment attractive, and finally lost enthusiasm for learning English. However, the results suggested that the university students recognized the need to learn English, and that they wanted to be able to speak the language.

Nakata (2001) investigated the English-learning motivational components of Japanese 1st-year university students and inquired into the

background of the components through a questionnaire. Four motivational components possessed by his students were identified: intrinsic motivation for communication in English, negative attitude toward the instrumentality of English, anxiety, and self-efficacy. The results suggested that despite their negative views of English in the past because of their perceived grammatical difficulties in the language and negative feelings toward "exam English," university students maintained interest in communicative English.

In summary, the main findings concerning Japanese English learners' WTC in English and interest in communicative English are as follows. First, the learners' perceived competence and confidence in L2 communication, international posture, and lack of L2 anxiety lead to WTC, which affects the frequency of their L2 use. Second, despite their negative experiences and views of English in the past, university students retain interest in communicative English.

Purposes and Research Questions

Past studies on WTC focused on identifying and confirming its antecedents and consequences. Studies on its changes over time seem to be almost nonexistent. The purpose of this study was to investigate whether Japanese high school English learners' WTC in English changes over the high school years and to look into the reasons for changes or stability. The research questions are as follows:

1. Does the WTC in English of Japanese high school English learners change during 3 years in high school?
2. How do the participants perceive changes or stability in their WTC in English in their high school years? What reasons do they give for changes or stability?

Methods

Participants

The participants were 190 first-year high school students aged 15-16 at the start of this study, from a private boys' school in eastern Japan. This study tracked them over the course of 3 years. Because of absenteeism and natural attrition, 185, 173, and 172 students answered the questionnaire described below in the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd years, respectively. The school is a combined 3-year junior high school and 3-year high school.[3] Each week in high school, the participants had six to seven 50-minute English classes, fo-

cused on reading, writing and grammar, and oral communication. They were taught a weekly oral-communication class by a native English speaker from the 1st year in junior high school through the 1st year in high school. As all the participants had passed the school's competitive entrance examination with the intention of proceeding to university after graduation, their English proficiency (determined as early intermediate) as well as their academic ability in general was above the national average.

Instrumentation

A questionnaire that included 19 WTC items was developed. The items are identical to those used by Hashimoto (2002),[4] who made several changes to McCroskey's (1992) WTC items for her Japanese participants. Of the 19 items, seven items are fillers.[5] The remaining 12 legitimate items are combinations of four situations (*speaking in dyads*, *speaking in a group of about five people*, *speaking in a meeting of about 10 people*, and *speaking in public to a group of about 30 people*) and three types of receivers (*strangers*, *acquaintances*, and *friends*). Thus, the legitimate items represent 12 contexts (four situations × three types of receivers). For example, one item reads, "Talk in a small group (about five people) of friends." The participants were instructed to imagine that they were living in an English-speaking country and indicate the percentage of times they would choose to communicate in English in each context when free to do so. They completed a Japanese version of the questionnaire (see Appendix A for the English translation) approximately 1 month after the beginning of the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd years of high school (Time 1, Time 2, and Time 3, respectively) during a homeroom hour with their homeroom teacher supervising them.

Preliminary Data Analysis

First, to examine the validity of the construct measured by the questionnaire, the WTC data were analyzed with the Rasch measurement model (Rasch, 1960), using WINSTEPS 3.68.2 (Linacre & Wright, 2009). A Rasch analysis of item fit and a Rasch Principal Components Analysis of item residuals was performed. The criteria for the unidimensionality of the construct were set as follows: (a) item separation is sufficiently high (above 2.00), (b) no items misfit the Rasch model (infit and outfit mean square statistics are between 0.50 and 1.50, Linacre, 2009), (c) the variance explained by the Rasch measures is sufficiently high (above 50%), and (d) the unexplained variance explained by first residual contrast is sufficiently low (below 3.0

eigenvalue units, Linacre, 2009). Across the three waves of data, two fundamentally unidimensional constructs were identified: Willingness to Communicate with Friends and Acquaintances (WTCFA), on which all the friends and acquaintances items loaded, and Willingness to Communicate with Strangers (WTCS), on which all the strangers items loaded (see Appendix B for the Rasch tables). The Cronbach alpha reliability estimates, measured using PASW Statistics 18.0 (2009), were all good across the three waves of data: For WTCFA they were .94, .93, and .93, and for WTCS they were .81, .86, and .80, at Times 1, 2, and 3, respectively. Next, the raw scores from the questionnaire were converted into interval Rasch person measures: [6] Each participant was given a person measure for WTCFA and a person measure for WTCS at each measurement time. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the person measures for WTCFA and WTCS at each time point. The Pearson correlation coefficients of the person measures for WTCFA and WTCS were low at .45, .54, and .39 ($p < .01$) at Times 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Willingness to Communicate With Friends and Acquaintances (WTCFA) and Willingness to Communicate With Strangers (WTCS)

	WTCFA			WTCS		
	Time 1	Time 2	Time 3	Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
Mean	51.41	51.44	51.89	39.82	40.26	40.13
Standard error	.80	.87	.86	.60	.66	.67
95% confidence interval (LB)	49.83	49.72	50.20	38.64	38.96	38.80
95% confidence interval (UB)	52.99	53.15	53.58	41.00	41.56	41.46
Standard deviation	10.91	11.42	11.18	8.16	8.65	8.84
Skewness	-.31	-.14	-.25	.65	.84	.18
Standard error of skewness	.18	.19	.19	.18	.19	.19
Kurtosis	.29	.09	.43	-.20	.31	2.32
Standard error of kurtosis	.36	.37	.37	.36	.37	.37

Note. The logit scale was transformed into a CHIPS scale (item mean = 50.0).

Interviews

Follow-up interviews were conducted with 13 participants, consisting of three groups of students: typical, motivated, and returnee. Typical students were selected on the condition that their person measures for WTCFA, WTCS, and other constructs[7] obtained from the three waves of the questionnaire were more or less around 50, which represents the participants' average. Motivated students were selected on the condition that their person measures were mostly over 50. Returnee students, who had lived in a foreign country before, were chosen out of convenience (e.g., from the class I was teaching). About 10 students were listed for each group: They were given an informed consent form, on which a parental signature to indicate permission was requested, and were asked for their voluntary participation in the interviews. Four typical students (i.e., Yu, Shun, Toshi, and Ken), five motivated students (i.e., Dai, Koh, Taka, Teru, and Toku), and four returnee students (i.e., Jun, Kazu, Yuta, and Goh) agreed to be interviewed (all the names are pseudonyms).

The interviews were held approximately 3 months before the students graduated from high school. Each student was interviewed once on a one-on-one basis, and interviews were conducted in Japanese in an amicable atmosphere in a small quiet room at the school. The students were asked predetermined questions based on their answers to the questionnaire and additional questions based on their responses during the interviews. The interviews, which lasted for 22.2 minutes on average, were recorded on an IC recorder.

All the interviews were fully transcribed in standard Japanese orthography without including pauses, prosody, or nonverbal phenomena. Six influential themes, including WTC, were identified, and important utterances were selected for each theme and translated into English. To confirm the reliability of the translations, a Japanese university instructor holding an EdD in TESOL degree translated approximately 20% of all the selected utterances from the original Japanese into English, and my translations were compared with hers. She and I agreed that although our translations did not match word for word, their meanings were the same.

Results

Students' WTC Over Time

Figure 1 represents the mean Rasch person measures for WTCFA and WTCS at each measurement time. It shows that both WTCFA and WTCS

remained stable across the three time points, but that WTCS remained very low. A one-way repeated-measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted for each construct to assess whether there were significant differences in the means over time. The results showed no significant difference for either WTCFA or WTCS.
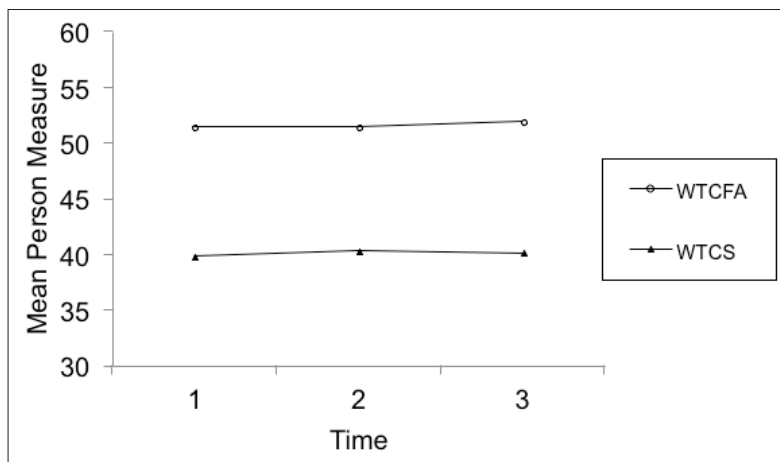
Figure 1. Mean person measures for Willingness to Communicate with Friends and Acquaintances (WTCFA) and Willingness to Communicate with Strangers (WTCS).

Students' Perceptions

Why did neither the students' WTCFA nor their WTCS increase and why did their WTCS stay very low during the high school years? The interviewees suggested several reasons.

First, it might not have been easy for the students to imagine the English-speaking contexts described in the WTC items on the questionnaire. Ken explained why his WTC might have been low:

> I can't imagine a situation in which I have to communicate in English very well. I have never thought of living abroad or going abroad. That may be the reason.

The difficulty Ken had imagining the contexts might not be unusual among students who do not have much experience using English communicatively.

In addition, the difficulty might have been increased by the lack of detailed contextual information in the WTC items.

Second, the students might have held uncomfortable feelings toward foreigners, and, as a result, might not have felt like talking with them. Yu explained why his WTC measured by the questionnaire might have been low:

> I didn't really want to talk with foreigners. [It's] because I don't have the chance to talk with them in my daily life. I don't know how [inaudible]. I don't really know what they are thinking. I think they have different values from Japanese people. And there have been many incidents in which contact with foreigners caused problems. Probably I was thinking of these when I was filling in the questionnaire.

Considering that the opportunities for most Japanese students to come into contact with foreigners are very limited, it might not be surprising for students to be somewhat uncomfortable with foreigners. However, Yu eventually became interested in learning communicative English seemingly because he shifted his focus from his negative feelings toward foreigners to his dream job, becoming a politician visiting foreign countries, which he discussed elsewhere in the interview.

Third, the students might not have been willing to communicate in English because of their lack of confidence in using it. Goh, who seemed to be motivated to acquire practical English skills for his hoped-for future job as an internationally known chemist, explained why his WTC as measured by the questionnaire might have been low:

> I'm not good at speaking English. Besides, I don't have the chance to speak it. So, when I imagined myself in the situations given by the questionnaire, I wasn't sure what I would do . . . . I have been learning English since I was in the fourth grade. But I have had few chances to use it; I have been studying it just for exams. So, I can't really apply it to actual situations. I would like to acquire English that I can actually use.

Goh seems to suggest that even if students are motivated to acquire practical English, they cannot build confidence in using English or be willing to communicate in the language without many chances to use it. His words "studying [English] just for exams" seem to indirectly refer to the conventional form and accuracy focused, grammar-translation, and audio-lingual approach these examinations seem to favor.

Fourth, students' WTC can depend on their current environment, as Jun, a returnee student, suggested:

> My willingness to communicate in English may have been low probably because there are few foreigners at this school and few chances to talk to them. I think it will change a lot depending on the environment. If I enter the SILS (School of International Liberal Studies) at Waseda [University], I think it will jump up because everything is done in English there. If I enter Keio [University], it will jump up, too, because I'd like to go abroad as an exchange student [from the university].

Jun was able to compare himself in English-speaking and non-English-speaking environments because he had been exposed to both environments as a student abroad and then as a returnee. As Jun suggested, one's WTC in English can be low when in a non-English-speaking environment because of a feeling of psychological distance from the English-speaking environment. In this case, the contexts described in the questionnaire were detached from him. On the other hand, when in an English-speaking environment, those same contexts can seem close and familiar and similar to the contexts encountered in daily life.

Fifth, many students might not have known what communication with native English speakers was like or have realized its importance. This became clear to me when Yuta, another returnee student, explained why he wanted to learn communicative English:

> I can get a lot from talking with people from different cultures. Americans are cheerful, and talking to them makes me feel that we can understand each other straightforwardly as two human beings. If I don't talk, they won't open up and, as a result, I won't be able to say what I want to say. So, I think being able to speak [English] well is important, first and foremost.

Yuta keenly felt the importance of communication with native English speakers from his real experiences in the United States. This might explain why his WTCFA and WTCS were both higher than average. However, students without experiences abroad might not have realized its importance so clearly.

Finally, the very low mean for WTCS across time might reflect a Japanese attitudinal tendency about communication with strangers as Klopf (1991)

noted: "The Japanese find it difficult to initiate and maintain communication with strangers" (p. 137). Let me quote Toshi, who was discussing his WTC:

> It was neither high nor low. According to the questionnaire, it might have been low, but that was probably because the questions were all like "When you met a person in an elevator . . ." I wouldn't talk to even a Japanese person in an elevator.

Although the item that Toshi referred to was a filler item and was not used for the statistical analyses, the questionnaire included four legitimate items about strangers (the other eight legitimate items were about friends or acquaintances). Because the mean for WTCFA was in the middle range of the scale while the mean for WTCS was extremely low across the three administrations of the questionnaire (Figure 1), the influence of this attitudinal tendency cannot be ruled out.

To summarize, the students' WTCFA/WTCS measured by the questionnaire did not increase over the high school years possibly because (a) it was difficult for the students to imagine themselves in the English-speaking contexts described in the questionnaire, (b) the students might be uncomfortable with foreigners, (c) the students may not have had confidence in using English, (d) the students were not in an English-speaking environment, (e) many students perhaps did not realize the importance of communication with native English speakers sufficiently, and (f) as far as WTCS is concerned, a Japanese attitudinal tendency might have played a role irrespective of growth in proficiency.

Discussion and Conclusion

Past researchers treated WTC, measured by the WTC scale (McCroskey, 1992), as a single construct when they investigated its predictors and results. However, the statistical analysis of this study showed that across the three administrations of the questionnaire, the scale measured two distinct constructs: Willingness to Communicate with Friends and Acquaintances (WTCFA) and Willingness to Communicate with Strangers (WTCS). This differentiation seems to be reasonable because semantically, friends are close to acquaintances, whereas strangers are distant from friends and acquaintances.

Although WTCFA and WTCS should ideally increase in the course of language learning, the questionnaire results of this study showed that there was no significant change in the students' WTCFA or WTCS over their high

school years, and that their WTCS remained very low. The interview results indicated several possible reasons.

Perhaps, as the interview results suggested, the WTC items in the questionnaire might not have been appropriate for the participants. Imagining living in an English-speaking country, a precondition of all the contexts described in the WTC items, might have lacked reality for most students, who had never been or lived abroad. Also, the described contexts might have been too simplified and short for many students to fully imagine. These potential drawbacks of the WTC items are a limitation to this study and need to be taken into consideration in evaluating the questionnaire results.

In addition, the questionnaire results might not necessarily reflect what the participants might actually do in real life. For example, following the last quote in the previous section, Toshi said:

> But when I was in the fifth grade at elementary school, I traveled in America with my cousin and his family for about a month during the summer. We traveled from Los Angeles to New York, taking small planes for only 20 people or so and visiting many places on the way. Many people there are friendly, aren't they? So, I was talked to. At that time, I tried to make myself understood by using gestures, eye contact, and what few words I knew. So, I don't think of [my willingness to communicate in English] as low. I think it is important to speak in order to communicate what you feel and think, and in order to do so, English conversation skills are necessary. So, I would like to be able to speak English well enough to make myself understood, if not very well.

Although Toshi seemed to have displayed positive responses to strangers during his trip to the United States and have a strong interest in communicative English, both his WTCS and WTCFA measured by the questionnaire were low across time. This discrepancy suggests that the students' responses to the imaginary contexts in the questionnaire could be different from their actual responses in real life, and that their WTCFA and WTCS as measured by the questionnaire might not mirror their general attitudes toward English communication. These possibilities also need to be taken into account in evaluating the questionnaire results.

That said, the questionnaire results seem to reflect the learning environment of the participants. Although they had a weekly oral communication class taught by a native English speaker until the end of the 1st year in high

school, all the English classes they had in the 2nd and 3rd years were taught by Japanese English teachers in Japanese. In these 2 years, their studies were more and more focused on preparation for university entrance examinations, which usually include an English test that predominantly consists of reading-comprehension, grammar, and vocabulary questions and almost invariably does not include a speaking section. Considering such a milieu, it is unsurprising that the participants' WTCFA and WTCS in English did not increase over the high school years.

On the other hand, I had a strong feeling during the interviews that the students had a growing awareness of the need for practical English skills and a considerable interest in communicative English, which agrees with the findings in Kurahachi's (1996) and Nakata's (2001) studies. This observation and the questionnaire results together suggest that such awareness and interest alone were not enough to raise the students' WTCFA and WTCS.

So, what is needed? Although the participants in this study do not necessarily represent the entire Japanese high school student population, their milieu and awareness concerning English learning are not unusual in Japan. Thus, several implications may be derived from this study for the target population.

First, high school students need more opportunities to communicate in English. This is because the infrequency and limited duration of such opportunities is connected with two possible reasons for the stagnant WTCFA/WTCS of the participants in this study discussed during the interviews: the lack of confidence in using English and the non-English-speaking environment. I hope students will have more such opportunities in and after 2013, when a new course of study for high school (MEXT, 2009) comes into effect. It stipulates that fundamentally, the English classes are to be conducted by means of English, and textbooks compiled in accordance with it contain various aural and oral activities. Students need numerous student-centered, individually focused activities on realistic issues, in which they can be engaged in English communication for an extended period of time while exercising their ingenuity in a friendly atmosphere. Such activities should be implemented in the English class as much as possible.

Second, high school students need to learn more about English-speaking people and their attitudes toward communication. This is because without such knowledge, students might have negative feelings toward them and their English communication might be inhibited by their own attitudinal tendencies and conventions about communication, as the interview results indicated. Although many textbooks include material intended for this pur-

pose, the material does not seem to be enough. Japanese English teachers need to augment it by sharing with the class their own experiences in meeting English speakers and what the students might be able to obtain to this end from language-heavy media such as TV, the Internet, newspapers, magazines, books, songs, dramas, and movies. In addition, as direct contact with English speakers provides students with excellent opportunities to learn about English-speaking people and use the language, schools should expand their student exchange programs, organize more student trips to English-speaking places, domestic and abroad, and invite local English speakers to, or ask them to help with, as many students' events and activities as possible.

Finally, as university entrance examinations have a great influence on English teaching and learning at Japanese high school (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008), I would like to suggest that as part of their entrance examinations, universities give an English speaking test or, alternatively, require candidates to take a commercial standardized English-proficiency examination that includes a speaking test and report their scores.

In short, more communication opportunities and further efforts to overcome the disadvantages of the Japanese EFL environment seem to be needed for the growth of Japanese high school students' WTCFA and WTCS in English.

Notes

1. This reorganization has been implemented since April, 2013.
2. This study is part of a larger study in which I investigated multiple motivational constructs of Japanese high school English learners longitudinally.
3. The Japanese Education Ministry has been promoting the spread of combined junior high school and high school called *chuko ikkan kyoiku ko* since 1999 to diversify secondary education, and has recognized 420 schools (44% public, 56% private) nationwide as such as of 2011 (MEXT, 2011). These schools include many institutions that send many students to prestigious universities in Japan.
4. One of two virtually identical fillers among her 20 items was removed.
5. The fillers are dummy items, with which no analysis was conducted.
6. The logit scale was transformed into a CHIPS scale (item mean = 50.0).
7. The larger study, of which this study is a part, included 12 motivational constructs.

Michinobu Watanabe earned his EdD from Temple University, Tokyo, and his interests include Japanese foreign language educational policies, EFL motivation, and ESL writing.

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Appendix A

Willingness-to-Communicate Questionnaire

Imagine that you live in an English-speaking country and face the following 19 situations. You have completely free choice of communicating or not communicating. Please indicate in the underlined space at the left the percentage of times you would choose to communicate in English in each type of situation.

0 % = never, 100 % = always

__ 1.   *Talk with an acquaintance in an elevator.
__ 2.   *Talk with a stranger on the bus.
__ 3.   Speak in public to a group (about 30 people) of strangers.
__ 4.   Talk with an acquaintance while standing in line.
__ 5.   Talk in a large meeting (about 10 people) of friends.
__ 6.   *Talk with a janitor/resident manager.

__ 7. Talk in a small group (about 5 people) of strangers.
__ 8. Talk with a friend while standing in line.
__ 9. *Talk with a waiter/waitress in a restaurant.
__ 10. Talk in a large meeting (about 10 people) of acquaintances.
__ 11. Talk with a stranger while standing in line.
__ 12. *Talk with a shop clerk.
__ 13. Speak in public to a group (about 30 people) of friends.
__ 14. Talk in a small group (about 5 people) of acquaintances.
__ 15. *Talk with a garbage collector.
__ 16. Talk in a large meeting (about 10 people) of strangers.
__ 17. *Talk with a librarian.
__ 18. Talk in a small group (about 5 people) of friends.
__ 19. Speak in public to a group (about 30 people) of acquaintances.
*Filler item

Appendix B
Rasch Tables

Table B1. Rasch PCA of Item Residuals for the WTCF and WTCA Items at Time 1

Item	Residual loading	Measure	SE	Infit		Outfit	
				MNSQ	ZSTD	MNSQ	ZSTD
19 WTCA4	.66	57.1	.6	1.03	.3	1.09	.6
14 WTCA3	.59	50.3	.5	.92	-.7	.89	-.9
10 WTCA2	.40	49.7	.5	.99	.0	1.04	.4
13 WTCF3	.19	54.5	.5	1.15	1.3	1.13	1.0
8 WTCF2	-.59	45.4	.5	1.06	.6	.87	-.8
18 WTCF4	-.52	46.5	.5	1.01	.1	.91	-.6
5 WTCF1	-.45	47.1	.5	.77	-2.2	.89	-.7
4 WTCA1	-.26	49.3	.5	1.02	.2	1.16	1.2

Note. The logit scale was transformed into a CHIPS scale (item mean = 50.0). WTCA = Willingness to Communicate with Acquaintances; WTCF = Willingness to Communicate with Friends.

Table B2. Rasch PCA of Item Residuals for the WTCS Items at Time 1

Item	Residual loading	Measure	*SE*	Infit		Outfit	
				MNSQ	ZSTD	MNSQ	ZSTD
7 WTCS2	.95	44.8	.6	.91	-.7	.91	-.6
3 WTCS1	-.75	51.1	.7	1.27	1.7	1.23	1.4
16 WTCS4	-.21	50.0	.7	.96	-.2	.86	-.9
11 WTCS3	-.12	54.0	.8	1.07	.5	.92	-.4

Note. The logit scale was transformed into a CHIPS scale (item mean = 50.0). WTCS = Willingness to Communicate with Strangers.

Table B3. Rasch PCA of Item Residuals for the WTCF and WTCA Items at Time 2

Item	Residual loading	Measure	*SE*	Infit		Outfit	
				MNSQ	ZSTD	MNSQ	ZSTD
19 WTCA4	.70	56.8	.6	1.17	1.4	1.00	.1
13 WTCF3	.54	54.6	.6	1.16	1.3	1.03	.3
14 WTCA3	.39	49.4	.6	.69	-2.9	.74	-2.0
10 WTCA2	.15	49.0	.6	.76	-2.2	.73	-2.1
18 WTCF4	.09	48.1	.6	.99	-.1	.91	-.5
8 WTCF2	-.61	44.2	.6	1.03	.3	1.66	2.9
4 WTCA1	-.61	49.5	.6	1.07	.6	1.36	2.4
5 WTCF1	-.40	48.4	.6	1.06	.5	.97	-.2

Note. The logit scale was transformed into a CHIPS scale (item mean = 50.0). WTCA = Willingness to Communicate with Acquaintances; WTCF = Willingness to Communicate with Friends.

Table B4. Rasch PCA of Item Residuals for the WTCS Items at Time 2

Item	Residual loading	Measure	*SE*	Infit MNSQ	Infit ZSTD	Outfit MNSQ	Outfit ZSTD
7 WTCS2	.83	46.1	.6	.81	-1.4	.83	-1.2
16 WTCS4	.34	50.2	.7	.88	-.8	.75	-1.7
3 WTCS1	-.82	50.5	.7	1.22	1.4	1.26	1.6
11 WTCS3	-.34	53.3	.8	1.26	1.4	1.14	.7

Note. The logit scale was transformed into a CHIPS scale (item mean = 50.0). WTCS = Willingness to Communicate with Strangers.

Table B5. Rasch PCA of Item Residuals for the WTCF and WTCA Items at Time 3

Item	Residual loading	Measure	*SE*	Infit MNSQ	Infit ZSTD	Outfit MNSQ	Outfit ZSTD
19 WTCA4	.78	57.7	.6	1.45	3.2	1.52	2.9
13 WTCF3	.69	55.7	.6	1.11	.9	1.04	.3
18 WTCF4	.11	47.1	.6	1.03	.3	1.09	.6
8 WTCF2	-.54	43.6	.6	.94	-.4	1.01	.1
10 WTCA2	-.43	50.0	.6	.88	-1.0	.92	-.5
14 WTCA3	-.40	49.8	.6	.68	-3.1	.66	-2.7
4 WTCA1	-.36	48.6	.6	1.01	.1	1.02	.2
5 WTCF1	-.10	47.6	.6	.82	-1.6	1.21	1.3

Note. The logit scale was transformed into a CHIPS scale (item mean = 50.0). WTCA = Willingness to Communicate with Acquaintances; WTCF = Willingness to Communicate with Friends.

Table B6. Rasch PCA of Item Residuals for the WTCS Items at Time 3

Item	Residual loading	Measure	*SE*	Infit		Outfit	
				MNSQ	ZSTD	MNSQ	ZSTD
7 WTCS2	.94	46.2	.6	.89	-.8	.88	-.8
11 WTCS3	.02	52.5	.8	1.22	1.2	1.10	.6
16 WTCS4	-.58	51.0	.7	1.00	.1	.87	-.7
3 WTCS1	-.56	50.4	.7	1.16	1.0	1.06	.4

Note. The logit scale was transformed into a CHIPS scale (item mean = 50.0). WTCS = Willingness to Communicate with Strangers.

Perspectives

English as a Lingua Franca and Its Implications for English Language Teaching

Chit Cheung Matthew Sung
Lancaster University

In recent years, the use of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) worldwide has given rise to the question of whether English as a Native Language (ENL) norms should continue to be used in the English Language Teaching (ELT) classroom. In this paper I explore the controversial issues surrounding the implications of ELF for ELT by considering the practicalities of language teaching and learning. I argue that ELF should not be seen as in competition with ENL or as a replacement of ENL for pedagogical purposes. Instead, ENL and ELF can play different but complementary roles in ELT. Although ENL may remain as the primary model for pedagogy as a point of reference, there is a need for teachers to raise students' awareness of ELF use in reality, including the notion of language variation in ELF and the role of English in today's world.

英語がリンガフランカとして世界中で使用されるに至り、ここにひとつの疑問が浮かび上がる。それは、母語としての英語（以下ENL）使用の基準が教室で英語を教える際に使われ続けてもいいのかどうか、という疑問である。本稿では、言語指導そして言語学習における実用性を念頭に、英語というリンガフランカ（以下ELF）の基準を英語教育（以下ELT）の指導に適用することをめぐる問題について考察する。筆者の考えでは、ELFをENLと競争関係にあるもの、あるいは指導を目的としたENLの代用として見なすべきではない。そうではなく、ENLとELFはそれぞれに異なった働きが、しかもELTの場で互いを補い合う働きがある。ENLは指導のための第一義的な参照対象であり続けると思われるが、その一方で、ELFの言語的多様性に対する考え方、そして現代社会における英語の役割を含めたELFの現実そのものを学習者が認識するよう、教師は努める必要がある。

For many years, two dominant varieties of English, namely British and American English, have been upheld as the most widely acceptable models for English Language Teaching (ELT) in many parts of the world. However, the widespread use of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) has given rise to the controversial issue of whether English as a Native Language (ENL) norms should continue to be taught in the ELT classroom, especially in Expanding Circle countries (Kachru, 1985), such as Japan and China. As a result, the default adoption of these two major varieties of ENL in ELT has been called into question. In the last decade or so, in an attempt to challenge the appropriateness of the use of ENL models in ELT, several ELF researchers have advocated a reorientation of English away from the deference to ENL use in the ELT classroom and have emphasized the legitimacy of variations displayed by ELF users (Jenkins, 2000, 2007; Jenkins, Cogo, & Dewey, 2011; Kirkpatrick, 2007, 2010; Seidlhofer, 2001, 2004; Sung, 2010, 2011, 2012). Alptekin (2002), for example, called for a new pedagogical model to accommodate the rise of English as a means of international and intercultural communication, arguing that the strict adherence to ENL norms is inappropriate for acquisition of English as an international language for cross-cultural settings. Kirkpatrick (2007) also argued against the use of an ENL model in the ELT classroom, as such a practice is seen to be advantageous for only a very small percentage of the total population of teachers and learners worldwide. In light of the controversies surrounding these challenges to the traditional pedagogical practice of placing priority upon ENL norms, it is worth examining the implications of ELF for ELT. In this paper, I shall explore the issue by considering how ELF has an impact on language teaching and learning. I will conclude by making some recommendations on how both ELF and ENL can make a useful contribution to ELT practice.

ELF: The New Paradigm

As Graddol (2006) noted, ELF is "probably the most radical and controversial approach to emerge in recent years" (p. 87). According to the ELF perspective, ENL does not represent a valid model for learners of English, as nonnative speakers of English are more likely to use English with other nonnative speakers than with native speakers of English for intercultural communication. As Jenkins (2000) pointed out, "a native-like accent is not necessary for intelligibility" in ELF interactions (p. 207). McKay (2009) also argued that "reliance on a native speaker model as the pedagogical target must be set aside" (p. 239). Similarly, Seidlhofer (2001) saw ENL as the "straightjacket" that discourages the pursuit of an alternative that may more

accurately reflect the changes in the use of English worldwide. Seidlhofer also noted that

> uncoupling the language from its native speakers and probing into the nature of ELF for pedagogical purposes holds the exciting, if uncomfortable, prospect of bringing up for reappraisal just about *every* issue and tenet in language teaching which the profession has been traditionally concerned with. (p. 151)

Indeed, the notion of "native speaker" has been challenged by a number of researchers. For example, Davies (2003) argued that the notion of native speaker is a myth. Modiano (1999) suggested that the primary criterion for classifying different speakers of English should be language competence, rather than nativeness, as language competence should not be something owned solely by native speakers. Similarly, Rampton (1996) pointed out that native-speaker competence has often become conflated with notions of ethnicity and race, and therefore, there is a need to differentiate between expertise and affiliation or inheritance. Although the former is achievable for second language (L2) learners, the idea that some people are *born* as native speakers of a language implies that L2 learners can never achieve the same status, regardless of their effort. Rampton therefore suggested the replacement of the terms *native speaker* and *nonnative speaker* with *expert* and *novice* respectively, with the intention of placing emphasis on language expertise rather than nativeness in conceptualization of language competence.

Furthermore, among ELF researchers, it is considered problematic to pass native-speaker judgments on appropriate usage in ELF contexts (Seidlhofer, 2004). One reason is that what may be perceived as odd if judged against the standards of ENL could be perfectly intelligible to ELF users (Seidlhofer, 2001). It is therefore argued that such instances should not be treated as errors but as characteristics of ELF usage, and as such, should not necessitate explicit remediation in language pedagogy. In a similar vein, Jenkins (2000) suggested that "there really is no justification for doggedly persisting in referring to an item as 'an error' if the vast majority of the world's L2 English speakers produce and understand it" (p. 160).

As a result, several ELF scholars have looked into the possibility of developing and promoting an alternative to ENL pedagogical models in ELT (Jenkins, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 2007). They have claimed that a new pedagogical model, an alternative to ENL, is necessary and could be more relevant for L2 users in international communication. In particular, ELF scholars have made suggestions about the implications of the descriptions of ELF for language

pedagogy and have called for the recognition of the pedagogical relevance of the ELF paradigm. Specifically, Jenkins (2007) referred to "ELF as a potential provider of norms for English language teaching" (p. xii). Previously, Seidlhofer (2001) had argued that the description of ELF "could serve as a potential basis for formulating a curriculum for the teaching of ELF" (p. 141). In other words, a description and codification of ELF is seen to provide "a feasible, acceptable and respected alternative to ENL in appropriate contexts of use" (p. 150). Seidlhofer also envisaged that

> the conceptualization of ELF as an alternative to ENL would open up an additional repertoire of options for appropriating "English" [and] of using ELF as a possible first step for learners in building up a basis from which they can then pursue their own learning in directions (ELF or ENL). (p. 151)

It should be noted that much of ELF research has been concerned with spoken communication, rather than written forms of communication. One reason is that greater leeway is often given for the use of variant forms in spoken communication than in written communication (Horner, 2011). Most variation in ELF is found in spoken communication, where the negotiation of meaning and the use of interactive patterns in spoken English are left to the interactants, with little monitoring (Mauranen, 2003). What seems to matter most in ELF spoken communication is intelligibility among the interactants, rather than formal correctness. On the other hand, the written language is more stable than its spoken counterpart as a result of the availability of printed materials in Standard English in many parts of the world. As a result, there is less room for variability in written English for ELF purposes, particularly in genres such as academic English.

In exploring the implications of ELF for ELT in this paper, I shall now focus on the teaching of English for spoken communication in particular and consider the issue from several perspectives relating to the practicalities of language teaching and learning, including (a) the problems of ELF as a pedagogical model, (b) the distinctions between language learning and language use, (c) learners' needs, and (d) teachers' perspectives.

Problems of ELF as a Pedagogical Model

In view of ELF scholars' recommendations to reconsider the dominant role of ENL in the ELT classroom, several issues contradict the acceptance of ELF as a pedagogical model. One major issue is that ELF refers to a context of

use, rather than a variety (or a set of varieties) of English. Although corpus-based research on spoken interaction (e.g., Cogo & Dewey, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2004) has identified a number of regularly occurring lexico-grammatical features of ELF, it is doubtful whether these features are sufficient to justify the claim that ELF is a distinctive variety (Ferguson, 2009). Indeed, ELF is characterized by variability, and "variation from the norm in lingua franca communication is itself likely to be the 'norm'" (Rubdy & Saraceni, 2006, p. 12). ELF is thus best seen as a process or a communicative activity.

Another issue with conceptualizing ELF as a variety of English is that there does not seem to be a stable community of ELF users. Instead, the community of ELF users is characterized by heterogeneity, with different constellations of speakers of diverse first-language backgrounds in every interaction (Maley, 2010; Meiercord, 2004). And given the variable, dynamic, and fluid nature of ELF use, any attempts at codifying ELF as a variety of English may be unrealistic. For these reasons, ELF is inoperable as a pedagogical model, and it is highly uncertain whether ELF could provide alternative norms or an alternative set of norms to which learners might orient (Timmis, 2012).

Instead, learners should be provided with a model (or a specific variety of English) as a starting point so that they can develop and use their own version of English (see Hartle, 2010). Depending on the particular context of use, learners may adapt the features of the model and make accommodation and modifications accordingly. In other words, it is also worth examining the distinctions between the two different contexts of language learning and language use (see Swan, 2012), a point to which I shall now turn.

Distinctions Between Language Learning and Language Use

ELF research is primarily concerned with language use, rather than language learning. For example, several prominent lexico-grammatical features in ELF spoken interactions are identified in the Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English project (VOICE; Seidlhofer, 2004), the aim of which is to redress the balance in relation to a perceived overemphasis on ENL corpora:

- dropping the third person present tense –*s*;
- confusing the relative pronouns *who* and *which*;
- omitting definite and indefinite articles where they are obligatory in ENL and inserting them where they do not occur in ENL;
- failing to use correct forms in tag questions (e.g., *isn't it* or *no?* instead of *shouldn't they?*);
- inserting redundant prepositions as in *We have to study about . . .*;

- overusing certain verbs of high semantic generality, such as *do*, *have*, *make*, *put*, *take*;
- replacing infinitive-constructions with that-clauses, as in *I want that*; and
- overdoing explicitness (e.g., *black color* rather than just *black*). (Seidl-hofer, 2004, p. 220)

The above lexico-grammatical features of ELF should be seen as an end product of language use and should not be used as a starting point in second language teaching and learning. It is therefore problematic to adopt the end product of ELF use as the starting point or the pedagogical model. It is equally problematic to assume that comprehensibility is all English learners need (Kuo, 2007).

Indeed, a restricted focus on features crucial to intelligibility might result in an impoverished syllabus in ELT (Kuo, 2006; Timmis, 2012). As Saraceni (2008) pointed out, "nobody needs a model of English construed and constructed in academia for them, no matter how much it is based on empirical research" (p. 25). Although descriptive work on ELF use may be used in awareness-raising activities, teachers should not restrict themselves to the teaching of ELF features. Such an approach would be rather reductive and miss the point that these features are applied and appropriated by language users regularly and flexibly for effective communication (Hartle, 2010).

Rather, it is crucial to provide learners with a codified pedagogical model as a point of reference in order to prepare them for international communication. Essentially, a pedagogical model is an idealized or simplified language system that attempts to capture the language that is commonly used among educated speakers of the language (Petzold, 2002). In other words, it does not necessarily reflect the rich variety of individual differences or recent innovations among speakers of the language. Although learners are likely to encounter variability in language use, they need "clear and consistent learning models" (Swan, 2012, p. 384) so that they can develop competence in a standard variety of English. Despite being exposed to different nonstandard ELF features in the real world, learners need to be presented with basic information about core constituents of the language in the classroom and these constituents are very likely to be drawn from common elements of the major standard varieties of English. ELF features, however, even those found in learners' own localities, are unlikely to constitute a proper model in second language pedagogy. One reason is that some of the ELF features may simply be dialectal idiosyncrasies that may or may not be shared by other ELF speakers (Gorlach, 2002).

It is also worth acknowledging the distinction between what is taught and what is learnt. As Sowden (2012) pointed out,

> it is less crucial that the model presented for teaching can be precisely reproduced, since it will not usually be completely mastered, than that it serves as a clear marker for the classroom and, with more ambitious students, for the wider world beyond. (p. 5)

In other words, the chosen model should not be seen as a target, but rather as a convenient point of reference in the ELT classroom (Kuo, 2007). Although I do not deny the possibility of learners achieving native-like competence, the majority of learners tend to reach only a moderate level of competency and rarely achieve full proficiency (Sowden, 2012). Van den Doel (2010) also made the similar point that the adoption of an ENL model in the classroom does not necessarily imply the attainment of a native-speaker target.

Learners' Needs

It is also worthwhile to consider learners' needs and preferences when pedagogical decisions are made. As Dalton and Seidlhofer (1994) noted, "giving learners what they want may not always be possible or desirable, but it is obvious that their attitudes should be taken into account in pronunciation, as in other aspects of language" (p. 8). Baumgardner and Brown (2003) also pointed out that "the choice of a pedagogical model [should] come from the users and potential users of English themselves" (p. 249). As a great deal of research shows, there is a clear preference for native-speaker norms in ELT among learners (e.g., Dalton-Puffer, Kaltenboeck, & Smit, 1997; He & Li, 2009; Scales, Wennerstrom, Richard, & Wu, 2006; Timmis, 2002). It is indeed understandable that most learners are likely to strive for what they perceive to be the best they can achieve, even though they may or may not be able to do so ultimately (Maley, 2010).

Indeed, most learners tend to see the standard model as a convenient starting point in the classroom so that they can develop their own variety of English as L2 speakers. Learners of English usually conform to ENL norms in some respects but not necessarily in others (Swan, 2012). In addition, many learners are "unconcerned about emulating native-speaker norms of correctness except in so far as these are likely to serve their communicative purposes and are perfectly satisfied with approximations that are transparent and effective" (Swan, 2012, p. 381). In other words, an ENL model serves

only as a point of reference for learners; it is up to individual learners to decide to what extent they want to approximate to such a model.

Teachers' Perspectives

Apart from learners' needs, teachers' perspectives need to be taken into account. According to previous research (e.g., Murray, 2003; Sifakis & Sougari, 2005; Timmis, 2002; Tsui & Bunton, 2000), there is a tendency for nonnative teachers of English to look for an exonormative, native-speaker model for teaching purposes. In other words, many nonnative teachers of English seem to hold a norm-bound view and emphasize the teaching of standard ENL models in their current pedagogical practices (Sifakis & Sougari, 2005). One reason for these teachers' preference for the ENL model is that they seem reluctant to discredit their prior and ongoing efforts and investment into developing their competence in ENL (Murray, 2003).

However, and more important, most teachers of English, both native and nonnative, usually simply try to teach the forms of English that will allow learners to function effectively in most situations, regardless of whether these forms are regarded as ELF or ENL. In particular, they are often committed to "providing learners with a repertoire of well selected vocabulary, sentence patterns and grammar, as well as a stock of communication strategies" (Richards, 2006, p. 22). As for assessment, for example, most teachers pay attention to how successful communication is achieved as well as the range and appropriateness of language use, rather than simply whether or not the language produced by the learners conforms to a certain standard (Hartle, 2010; Taylor, 2006).

Although some researchers make a claim about the conservatism of language teaching (see Sewell, 2013), I would argue that language teaching is not necessarily conservative, but is primarily pragmatic in orientation. As some recent research studies (Goh, 2009; Timmis, 2002) show, many nonnative teachers of English also report that they do not necessarily insist on strict conformity to ENL norms unless certain nonstandard features impede communication. Similarly, Young and Walsh (2010) found that most nonnative teachers of English claimed to teach a standard based as closely as possible on ENL. It was also found that these teachers held a practical perspective on ELF, emphasizing the need for a standard form of the language, even if it may not necessarily correspond to the reality of the current global use of English.

It is undeniably important to understand teachers' views, as it is ultimately teachers, not researchers, who decide to what degree descriptions of ELF are

relevant to classroom teaching. As Jenkins (2012) admitted, ELF researchers "do not see it as their role to encroach any further on to teacher territory" (p. 492). It is also unrealistic for ELF researchers to decide what learners of English should learn in order to communicate with one another. As Maley (2009) pointed out, there tends to be a discrepancy between the concerns of teachers and those of researchers, since "most teachers of English are sublimely unaware of the ELF debate, which for the most part takes place among a very small group of researchers" (p. 196). Maley went on to suggest:

> Even those who are aware of it, even if they sympathise, live in a very different reality from that of the researchers. Teachers are committed to promoting effective learning among their students. The world of theory and research has rarely had much direct impact on what teachers do in classrooms, and it is unrealistic to suppose it should. (p. 196)

It is also important to be aware of the danger of imposing the features of ELF use on ELT, as Tomlinson (2006) pointed out:

> Are we not being rather arrogant in assuming it is we as applied linguists, language planners, curriculum designers, teachers, and materials developers who will determine the characteristics of a World Standard English? Is it not the users of English as a global language who will determine these characteristics as a result of negotiating interaction with each other? (p. 146)

Thus, although it is desirable that teachers' awareness of the lingua franca role of English and the linguistic features in most ELF interactions be raised by researchers, it is crucial to understand teachers' perspectives on how best to implement an ELF approach in classroom practice. In so doing, teachers themselves should, in turn, take careful account of learners' opinions about the kind of English they would like to learn in the classroom, especially in light of the importance currently attached to a learner-centered approach to language teaching.

A Way Forward: ENL and ELF in ELT

I shall now turn to making recommendations as to how both ENL and ELF can contribute to ELT practices. I would argue that ELF should not be seen as a competitor with or a replacement for ENL for language teaching purposes. As Sewell (2013) pointed out, there seems to be a tendency for

ELF researchers to essentialize and exaggerate the differences between ELF and ENL, thereby creating a false dichotomy. Rather, ENL and ELF can play different but complementary roles in ELT. Specifically, my argument is that although ENL may remain as the primary pedagogical model or point of reference in the classroom, there is a need for teachers to raise students' awareness of ELF use in reality, including the notion of language variation and change in ELF and the role of English in today's world.

There is a need for a model of some kind for pedagogical purposes, that is, a model that learners can orient to. Ideally, such a model should be codified and be internationally intelligible and acceptable. It would be useful for learners to learn the forms of a given model of English before they develop their own version of English. However, L2 learners' own form of English is not always or necessarily the product of a conscious decision, but tends to evolve naturally due to the impact of their first language. This is particularly true of pronunciation, and the same could be said of lexical, syntactic, and pragmatic features of English, albeit to a lesser extent.

The choice of a pedagogical model may or may not match an ENL variety, but an ENL model can serve as a convenient point of reference in understanding the diversity of English varieties in ELF communication (Kuo, 2007). As Shibata (2010) noted, "without understanding [the] linguistic features of the standard form, learners cannot be aware of the uniqueness of the English they use" (p. 132). In other words, standard ENL can serve as a useful and convenient point for reference so that learners can recognize how their local variety of English is different from standard English and how different local varieties of English differ from one another.

When an ENL model is adopted as a useful point of reference in the ELT classroom, it is essential that it not be promoted as the only correct, or standard, model of English or as an object of undue deference (Timmis, 2002). Teachers should also make learners aware that although they are learning a standard variety of ENL, there are other varieties of English around the world that they are likely to encounter in their lives (Maley, 2010). Where possible, learners should understand that "it is the needs of the local context and not the alleged superiority of the model that should inform their pedagogical choices" (Baumgardner & Brown, 2003, p. 249), as the choice of a pedagogical model is often made with reference to specific local contexts in which the teaching of English takes place, and issues such as attitudes towards different models, the models' perceived acceptability and prestige, and the availability of teaching materials are taken into consideration (Petzold, 2002).

It is also important to distinguish between seeing the chosen model as a *target* and as a *point of reference* (Hewings, 2004). A target is some standard to which the students aspire or that the teacher chooses as a goal for students. As a point of reference, on the other hand, a model is presented as a guide, and any intelligible variation from the model is considered acceptable. For example, an appropriate and reasonable goal of pronunciation is to achieve an English pronunciation that is understandable in international communication, although it is acceptable (and one might add, for most learners, inevitable) that some unobtrusive features of a nonnative English accent will be retained (Hewings, 2004). Prodromou (2009) also made a similar point that "models are not targets" (p. 80). Many learners do not expect that they will be able to sound like native speakers of English, but they still display a desire to orient to an ENL model of English as a reference point. As Prodromou pointed out, "learners are selective in their turn, taking from these partial models the elements they choose to, and are able to, assimilate" (p. 80). Indeed, it is inevitable that the majority of L2 users would not be able to attain native-speaker pronunciation, but

> necessarily end up with their own individual varieties of English. They need to conform to NS [native-speaker] norms sufficiently to permit effective communication, but they may differ considerably from NS English and from each other (depending on learners' mother tongues and other factors). (Prodromou, 2009, p. 81)

In other words, the use of an ENL model will, in any case, tend to result in forms of English similar to those that characterize ELF.

I shall now turn to considering the pedagogical implications of ELF use for ELT. One implication is that there is scope for an enhanced awareness of language variation among learners of English (Seidlhofer, 2011). As Dewey (2012) pointed out, ELF involves "a reorientation of thinking about language in the curriculum, of moving beyond the singularity that typifies current approaches in order to better encapsulate the diversity and plurality of communication" (p. 163). With the availability of different corpora of ELF use (e.g., VOICE; Seidlhofer, 2004), it is possible for teachers to raise learners' awareness of language variation in ELF interactions. It would be advantageous to expose learners to a range of native and nonnative varieties of English, rather than a single or a restricted range of Englishes in the ELT classroom (McKenzie, 2010). In doing so, teachers can provide learners with critical awareness of language variation at the appropriate stage, so that they are capable of entering into a range of discourse communities (Sewell, 2013).

One possibility of introducing language variation is an awareness-raising approach, whereby little emphasis is placed on production. Such an approach would involve exposing learners to different varieties of English in comprehension mode whenever possible and training learners' receptive ability in understanding different variants of English in ELF contexts. In doing so, learners may increase their comprehensibility and tolerance of different nonstandard features in ELF interactions.

On a practical level, it is crucial to consider carefully how language variation should be introduced in the classroom. Should different L1 and L2 varieties of English be presented? If so, which varieties of English and what kinds of variants should be selected? A careful and systematic approach to introducing language variation must be in place before any attempts to incorporate language variation are made. In particular, teachers should consider a number of issues, for example, which native-speaker or L2 accents should be included, whether only highly-intelligible accents or a full range of accents should be used, how much exposure would be needed in the ELT classroom, and when learners would be ready for language variation (Sung, 2013b). Tentatively, it is suggested that in pedagogical terms, exposure to different accents of English could be implemented after it is felt that sufficient time has elapsed for the main pronunciation model to become properly established, thereby minimising the risk of confusion.

Furthermore, learners should be made aware of the fluidity of language, of the complex relationship between the abstract level of language model and the actual language use as enacted in communication (Dewey & Leung, 2010). In particular, a *polycentric model* perspective should be encouraged that involves a respect for local variation and a willingness to engage in the shared pursuit of intelligibility and comprehensibility, so that it allows individual variations in ELF use and the expression of local identity, while at the same time enabling the existence of a model or standard (Maley, 2009). Meanwhile, teachers should provide students with an accurate picture concerning the global role of English and the use of ELF worldwide. Teachers should also introduce learners to the ELF view that English is no longer the exclusive property of its native speakers and that the ownership of English is shared by both L1 and L2 users of English (see Matsuda, 2006). It is hoped that, in so doing, learners will develop a tolerant and open-minded attitude about the diversity of English and ELF use around the world.

In addition, ELF is not only concerned with awareness, but also with choice (see Cogo, 2012). What ELF offers learners is the choice to appropriate features of the language flexibly, depending on the contexts in which

they find themselves. As Cogo (2012) points out, "they can choose to speak like native speakers when and if they want to, but they may want to speak ELF, and in certain situations, this may even be more appropriate" (p. 104). It should be up to learners to decide what kind of English they would like to learn, given that learners' choice of a model may be closely tied up with their preferred identities and personal aspirations (Sung, 2013a).

Finally, there is a need for teachers to put more emphasis on the process of using the language, rather than exclusively on the teaching of the language model and the linguistic features associated with it. As Dewey (2012) aptly noted, "ELF is relevant not so much in terms of identifying alternative sets of norms, but more in terms of enabling us to move beyond normativity" (p. 166). As the use of ELF inevitably involves strategies and processes, an awareness of communicative competence and processes in ELF use is important. In such a way, learners would be aware of "the diversity among users and the multiplicity of uses to which English is put worldwide and think in terms of varied processes of interaction rather than a single prescriptive model" (Seidlhofer, 2006, p. 40).

Apart from developing learners' awareness of the variability in ELF use, teachers should also try to inculcate the importance of communicative strategies in dealing with the variability and fluidity inherent in ELF use. For example, teachers can focus on helping learners develop fluency and strategic competence to manage miscommunication or incomprehension. Particular emphasis should be placed on the training of interpersonal and negotiation skills that allow people to achieve intelligibility and communicative success in ELF interactions. In particular, accommodation skills should be seen as a part of assessing learners' communicative competence in ELT, given the importance of a speaker's flexibility to accommodate in ensuring effective communication. As Jenkins (2000) pointed out, "intelligibility is dynamically negotiable between speaker and listener, rather than statically inherent in a speaker's linguistic forms" (p. 79). It is therefore essential to develop learners' strategic skills for accommodation and collaborative negotiation of meaning, for example, strategies of repair and clarification as well as paralinguistic strategies.

Conclusion

This paper has examined the implications of ELF for ELT by considering the practicalities of language teaching and learning. I have argued that both ELF and ENL can play different but complementary roles in ELT. Although it

is true that descriptions of ELF use can be instrumental in raising learners' awareness of language variation in ELF communication, they cannot by any means be seen as the sole factor in determining the kinds of linguistic input that may be best for pedagogical purposes, as ELT is concerned primarily with attempting to meet language learning needs rather than simply presenting models of language use. ELF use, as Sewell (2013) notes, is inevitably "variable, emergent, contextual, and subject to hybridity and change" (p. 3). For pedagogical purposes, there is a need for a model to which learners can orient. Rather than attempting to search for a substitute for an ENL model for pedagogical purposes, it would be useful to find ways to engender changes in perspective and attitudes towards ELF use and the linguistic features associated with it among teachers and learners. Meanwhile, there is a need for "a shift in focus away from a set of predetermined linguistic norms and towards a focus on items of lexis and grammar that are most often used by accomplished ELF speakers" (Cogo & Dewey, 2012, p. 176).

It is also important that teachers help empower learners to make choices about the language they use so that they can become fully competent speakers of English who are capable of presenting themselves in whatever way they would like (see Ushioda, 2009). As Saraceni (2009) noted, "seeking to devise an appropriate model of English involves a will to make choices that are the exclusive right of each individual user of English" (p. 25). Regardless of whether learners choose to speak ENL or ELF, the teaching of English should provide learners with the greatest sense of self-agency in interactions involving English as a lingua franca.

Acknowledgements

Chit Cheung Matthew Sung holds a PhD in Linguistics from Lancaster University, UK. His research interests are in the areas of English as a lingua franca, discourse analysis, language and identity, and second language education. He has published in international refereed journals, including *Changing English*, *English Today*, *ELT Journal, English Text Construction*, *Brno Studies in English, Nordic Journal of English Studies, Journal of Gender Studies*, and *The Language Teacher*.

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The Impact of the New National Senior High School English Curriculum on Collaboration Between Japanese Teachers and Native Speakers

Gregory Paul Glasgow
General Center for Education, Meikai University, Urayasu Campus

In this paper I discuss the impact of the Ministry of Education's new national senior high school *Course of Study for Foreign Languages* on collaboration between Japanese teachers of English and native speakers of English. In consideration of the new curriculum's request that classes be conducted in English and its reorganization of all English subjects, I draw upon frameworks in language-in-education policy and planning (Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003; Liddicoat, 2004) and highlight potential issues concerning its implementation at the local level.

　本研究では文部科学省の新しい外国語学習のための指導要領が日本人教師と英語母語話者との間の連携に与える影響について議論する。新しいカリキュラムの全体目標と全英語科目の再構成に鑑み、本研究では教育における言語政策・計画の枠組み（Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003; Liddicoat, 2004）から現場レベルで実施する際に起こりうる問題を明らかにする。

S enior high school English departments around Japan are enacting the new national Course of Study for Foreign Languages (hereinafter, Course of Study) released by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT). The new curriculum has received an increased amount of attention in the literature on English education in Japan (Glasgow, 2012; Tahira, 2012; Underwood, 2012; Yamada & Hristokova, 2011). As evidenced by new subject names such as English Communication, English Expression, and English Conversation, MEXT continues to signal the need for classes to integrate the four macro-skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and to focus on communicative proficiency. Kikuchi and Browne (2009) stated that the revision of subjects "seems likely to increase the pressure on teachers at all levels to help develop students' communicative ability" (p. 189).

The new curriculum has eliminated the 1st- and 2nd-year Oral Communication subjects, in which Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) collaborated with native speakers of English who served as assistant language teachers (ALTs). These classes, along with the introduction of the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Programme in 1987, were intended to increase intercultural exchange as well as enhance students' spoken proficiency; however, several authors have indicated problems in their implementation (Hiramatsu, 2004; Kachi & Lee, 2001; Mahoney, 2004; McConnell, 2000; Tajino & Walker, 1998). Furthermore, the proliferation of non-JET agencies that supply ALTs to prefectural Boards of Education has led to problems surrounding their employment (Hashimoto, 2013). Hence, a critical question is to be posed: in the new Course of Study, how will JTEs and ALTs work together equitably and collaboratively to fulfil its objectives?

In this paper, I explore the impact of the new Course of Study on JTEs who work with native speakers serving as teachers and assistants in the Japanese school system. I will summarize concepts in nonnative speaking (NNS) and native speaking (NS) English teacher studies that have accounted for the distinctions in NS-NNS teaching behaviour. Then, drawing upon Liddicoat's (2004) framework highlighting the role of teaching methodology in language-in-education policy, I will explore the new curriculum in terms of curriculum planning, teaching materials, methodology, and assessment. It is envisioned that this paper will provide teachers with the opportunity to critically reflect on the new curriculum and consider how its goals can be realized in a contextually relevant manner at the local level.

NNS and NS Teacher Collaboration and the New Course of Study

NNS and NS English teachers around the world have the potential to collectively and positively influence student learning. However, each group possesses its own challenges with respect to issues concerning professional identity and legitimacy. Medgyes (1999), in his seminal work on NS and NNS English teachers, determined that irrespective of differences in teaching approaches and language proficiency, both can be equally good teachers on their own terms. However, NNS English teachers are affected by discriminatory hiring practices and perceived weaknesses with respect to language proficiency and teaching competence (Braine, 2010), exacerbated by the pervasive nature of the native speaker fallacy (Phillipson, 1992) as a result of which NS English teachers benefit from a more privileged status. Recently, however, attention has shifted to how NS English teachers have been affected by restrictive policies and ambiguities in their professional roles (Breckenridge & Erling, 2011; Houghton & Rivers, 2013). Therefore, the self-images of both NS and NNS teachers will need to be improved by supportive policies in language education.

The JET Programme was a major initiative put in place to foster NS-NNS English teacher collaboration. I reflect on its implementation to demonstrate how the roles of ALTs and JTEs have been positioned in terms of the new Course of Study. The literature on the JET Programme and team-teaching (TT) in Japan can be found in the form of books (Brumby & Wada, 1992; McConnell, 2000; Wada & Cominos, 1994), doctoral dissertations (Hiramatsu, 2004; Miyazato, 2006), and a significant number of local and international journal articles (Crooks, 2001; Gorsuch, 2002; Kachi & Lee, 2001; Mahoney, 2004; Tajino & Walker, 1998). Two major resources for the JET Programme, the MEXT *Handbook for Team Teaching* (2002) and the Council of Local Authorities for International Relations (CLAIR) *ALT Handbook* (2012), have stated that team teaching requires good cooperation between ALTs and JTEs so that they can encourage students to use English for real communicative purposes inside the classroom.

However, the implementation of TT is difficult at the local level due to what Carless (2006) has referred to as logistical factors, pedagogical factors, and interpersonal factors. These provide a general understanding of challenges faced in TT. First, with respect to logistical factors in Japan, Gorsuch (2002) pointed out that there is division of labor between ALT and JTE classes, in which reading and writing classes serve as the domain of JTEs, whereas ALTs tend to be commissioned for conversation classes. This division can also be accentuated by the lack of frequency with which

ALTs meet the students (Browne & Evans, 1994; McConnell, 2000). When ALTs and students do meet, students may infer that the TT class is a one-off performance. Carless (2006) noted that such classes are often insufficiently integrated into the wider curriculum. With respect to pedagogical factors, Miyazato (2006) examined issues of power sharing in TT classrooms and concluded that ALTs may have linguistic power in the classroom, but are politically weaker due to lack of knowledge of Japanese as well as of the Japanese education system. Moreover, Kachi and Lee (2001) reported that both JTEs and ALTs receive little preparation to carry out their jobs in TT. Finally, in term of interpersonal factors, Voci-Reed (1994) noted challenges in cultural communication styles.

Taking into consideration these factors, the question that arises is how these lingering problems will be addressed in the new curriculum. Section 8, Article 4, 2 (4) of the new Course of Study (MEXT, 2011a) states that "team-teaching classes conducted *in cooperation with native speakers, etc.* should be carried out in order to develop students' communication abilities" (p. 7, italics mine). The explanatory guidebook for the new curriculum (MEXT, 2010), entirely in Japanese, refers to the attributes of native speakers as instrumental in increasing communication skills without any further explanation of what exactly those attributes are. Currently, the CLAIR *ALT Handbook* does not mention the new senior high school curriculum, and uploaded materials to provide new ALTs with support (JET, 2010) are not explicitly connected to it. However, a report from the Association of JET Opinion Exchange Meeting in Winter 2012 stated that MEXT is creating a revised handbook for team teaching and e-learning platform that will most likely be released at a later date (AJET, 2012).

To summarize, though many studies have provided suggestions for improvement, the system has not changed. Moreover, the Japanese government has been reviewing ministerial programmes for their efficacy, with the JET Programme being criticized for not meeting regional demands (Hashimoto, 2013). According to Mie (2013), a draft of the midterm report of the Liberal Democratic Party's Economic Revitalization Unit announced plans to increase the number of JET teachers to 10,000 in about 3 years. Although such an initiative sounds impressive, questions still remain regarding future ALT-JTE collaboration in the new curriculum.

Language-in-Education Policy Goals and the New National Curriculum

The revisions to the English curriculum can be viewed as language-in-education policy decisions (Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003). These decisions are made in terms of the following subgoals: (a) curriculum policy (the goal and content of the curriculum), (b) methods and materials policy (the methodology and teaching materials used), (c) evaluation or assessment policy (the way in which the curriculum or the learners are evaluated), (d) personnel policy (the teachers hired to fulfil the goals), (e) access policy (when the policy is to be introduced), and (f) resource policy (time and financial considerations). In order to further account for the role of teaching method, Liddicoat (2004) cited methods and materials separately as two of four policy goals, along with curriculum and assessment, as critical in investigating how language-in-education policy affects language teaching methodology. The new Course of Study, with its call for classes to be taught in English, is suggesting a change in method. This can be detected in an excerpt from Chapter 3 of the explanatory guidebook of the new Course of Study (MEXT, 2010) that states that teaching should not be "centred on the explanation of points, simple translation or instruction in grammar, but instead focus on providing students with *exposure to English and opportunities to communicate in English"* (p. 43, English translation mine, italics mine).

As language teaching methods policy can influence and be influenced by materials, curriculum, and assessment policy, I draw upon this framework to explore the impact of the new Course of Study on JTEs and native speakers at the institutional and classroom level.

Curriculum Policy: What Are the Roles of Japanese Teachers and Native Speakers?

In the new curriculum, the new subject English Communication (Basic 1, 2, and 3) focuses on the integration of the macro-skills of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. The emphasis of English Communication is on the four macro-skills through activities such as speed-reading and class discussions (MEXT, 2010). Elective subjects, English Expression 1 and 2, develop speaking and writing skills, and students learn presentation methods and to write appropriately for a situation (MEXT, 2011a). The final new subject, English Conversation, is an elective created to enhance speaking and listening skills (MEXT, 2010; 2011a). The new curriculum stresses the development of students' abilities to accurately understand and convey information and ideas

(MEXT, 2011a) and suggests that students be given more chances to use English in all English subjects.

With respect to JTEs, there is the implication that establishing English as the language of instruction will render the ALT role superfluous, as the ALT has been viewed as a key catalyst for the development of students' use of L2 communicative skills (Wada, 1994). At the same time, the new curriculum does state that although contemporary standard English should be used in principle (MEXT, 2011a), consideration should be given to raising students' awareness of other varieties of English. McKenzie (2013) has noted that the US and UK standard models have been historically preferred in Japan, but he added that researchers have argued for a de-Anglo-Americanized pedagogical model. The fact that JTEs will be expected to teach classes in English brings up the issue of whether or not Japanese-accented English should represent the contemporary standard variety. Should this be the case, many JTEs may need support in changing their perceptions towards their accents, as it has been pointed out by Miura (2010) that the JTEs who felt most anxious about teaching in English were not confident in their pronunciation. Furthermore, the Course of Study explanatory guidebook (MEXT, 2010) refers to ALTs in the English Conversation class only. In the explanations of the English Expression and English Communication classes, ALTs are not mentioned, raising questions as to how their roles will change after oral communication classes have been eliminated and suggesting that the knowledge base of the ALT will need to be adjusted to conduct class in a more integrated manner. Therefore, the preparedness of ALTs and JTEs is of concern here.

Methods Policy: Will English Actually Be Taught in English by all Teachers?

The methods policy requests that classes be conducted in English with some Japanese permitted for grammatical explanations (MEXT, 2010; 2011a). However, the wording "classes conducted in English" has apparently confused some JTEs, who have mistakenly believed that they have to conduct English-only classes (Miura, 2010). Although the English version of the Course of Study (MEXT, 2011a) says English classes should be conducted in English and that "consideration should be given to use English in accordance with the students' level of comprehension" (p. 7), the explanatory guidebook for the Course of Study in Japanese asserts the following:

> These guidelines stress the importance of conducting classes in English because it provides many opportunities for students to gain exposure to English and create actual communication situations in the classroom. *This is not to say that the entirety of all classes must be conducted in English. Japanese can be used as needed in class as well, provided the lessons are focused mainly on language activities* (MEXT, 2010, p. 44, English translation mine, emphasis mine).

The information provided by the explanatory guidebook, with its mention of Japanese, can be considered as what Tollefson and Tsui (2004) have referred to as exit clauses and qualified statements in policies that seek a change in the language of instruction. Statements such as "Japanese can be used as needed in class" and "in accordance with the students' level of comprehension" serve as examples of noncommittal language. Furthermore, the issue of using the L1 in a second or foreign language classroom remains a sensitive one for NNS teachers even though several studies in foreign language, bilingual education, and English-medium classrooms have recognized its facilitative role (Hall & Cook, 2012; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009). More research needs to be conducted on whether NS teachers are any more effective when using their own L1. In Hong Kong, Luk and Lin (2006) found that being an NS English teacher did not necessarily guarantee successful classroom management and learner acquisition, nor does being an NS guarantee superior writing skills (Andrews, 2007).

Methods policy will not only be challenging for JTEs in solo-taught classrooms but also for TT classrooms. Though team-teachers can indeed coordinate language use with judicious L1 support (Carless & Walker, 2006), cases exist where JTEs serve as interpreters for ALTs (Tajino & Walker, 1998), translating ALT instructions whether or not students need L1 clarification. Drawing on terminology from Martin (2005), I refer to such interpreting as a "safe practice" (p. 89); I suggest that Japanese is used in such cases to relieve students from the potential anxiety of negotiating meaning in the L2. Other contextual factors such as class sizes and the textbook are also challenging. It is difficult to foresee any changes in language practices if English departments do not carefully consider a "clearly articulated approach or set of principles and consistently applied pedagogical tools" (Levine, 2011, p. 127) to address code choice in the classroom.

Materials Policy: Will the Textbooks Reflect the Goals of the New Curriculum?

Textbooks for the subjects to be taught in 1st-year senior high school classes have already been approved and published. Textbook writers, however, are often influenced by commercial factors, which can cause "slippage" between the intended curriculum and its resourced curriculum, or textbooks, as Adam and Davison (2003, p. 32) found in their study on the implementation of the task-based approach in Hong Kong primary schools. McGroarty and Taguchi (2005), in a study on textbooks for the oral communication class in the 1994 Course of Study, found that the activities in the textbooks did not develop pragmatic competence and had a limited range of exercise types to promote spontaneous open-ended communication. This corroborates Cohen and Ishihara's (2013) concerns that "textbooks do not provide sufficient interactive exercises for practicing the introduced forms and discussing sociocultural norms of the target language" (p. 119).

The issue of materials is a significant one for ALTs and JTEs, with ALTs tending to rely on materials that focus on speaking and listening, and JTEs using materials that focus more on grammatical competence, a common practice noted by Smiley and Masui (2008). These practices further reinforce the ALT-JTE role divisions. Therefore, in order for the more ambitious objectives of the new curriculum to be realized, schools will still have to critically assess textbooks to determine which ones best meet the objectives and what to do if they fall short. Kennedy and Tomlinson (2013) also pointed out that "policies might change but examinations tend to remain the same (and examinations tend to determine what published materials do)" (p. 265).

Assessment Policy: Will It Change to Align With the New Curriculum?

The National Center Test for University Admissions, as well as second-stage university examinations, remain as the current assessment policy. In addition, Prime Minister Shinzo Abe has also been weighing whether or not to make the TOEFL test a key resource for English language assessment for university entrance (Hongo, 2013). This recent move coincides with the Five Proposals and Specific Measures for Developing Proficiency in English for International Communication (MEXT, 2011b), in which concern exists as to how to ensure that the four skills are "tested at proper balance" (p. 12). The national university entrance exams continue to operate as a "de facto language policy" (Menken, 2008; Shohamy, 2006) that has washback

not only on classroom practices but also on language use. Menken (2008) found similar issues in a study on English language learners in New York City senior high schools, where the high stakes Regents graduation exam has significantly influenced teachers' language choices and curriculum decisions. With the entrance examination firmly entrenched as the assessment policy, the potential for the continuation of the status quo remains.

There are issues that need clarification with respect to the impact of the assessment policy, or national university entrance exams, on teachers' practices. In his study of JTE beliefs and intentions to implement the new national curriculum, Underwood (2012) stated that "for the majority of teachers a reform-oriented approach is also seen to be at the expense of grammatical accuracy and knowledge of grammar, which was frequently reported as important in preparing for [university entrance exams]" (p. 919). One of his participants reported "having to use—against her better judgment—the Oral Communication 1 class (grade 10) entirely for grammar work" (p. 917) due to perceived entrance examination pressures. Sakui (2004), in her study on JTE implementation of communicative practices, noted that JTEs "cannot ignore the demand to prepare students for entrance examinations" (p. 159) and found that students perceived communicative approaches as not serious study. Hence, equipping ALTs and JTEs with the knowledge to bridge the perceived gulf between "entrance examination English" and "communicative English" remains a major challenge, as the new Course of Study has explicitly stated that "grammar instruction should be given as a means to support communication through effective linkage with language activities" (MEXT, 2011a, p. 7)

Conclusions

This paper has outlined issues in the implementation of the new Course of Study as it pertains to collaboration between JTEs and ALTs in Japanese senior high schools. Though theoretical perspectives on NS-NNS English teachers have shown that their strengths and weaknesses complement each other, structural challenges in terms of curriculum, methods, materials, and assessment policy subgoals raise serious questions as to how the new curriculum will translate into effective pedagogical practice. It has been shown that the curriculum policy has not clearly articulated the roles of ALTs and JTEs in terms of the intended pedagogical model and teaching expectations. The practice of conducting classes in English as a methods policy has yet to be truly accepted in the team teaching classroom, where teachers have resorted to ad hoc language practices. The materials policies in past cur-

ricula have shown inconsistencies between the intended curriculum and the published textbooks that are bound to affect ALT-JTE teaching practice. Finally, the assessment policy remains and will continue to have an impact as a de facto language policy that affects language of instruction, methodology, and curriculum priorities.

According to Garcia & Menken (2010), "good language educators do not blindly follow a prescribed text or march to an imposed language education policy" (p. 258). Therefore, it will be incumbent upon both groups of teachers in their respective departments to negotiate these challenges and to develop localized solutions that suit their contexts.

Acknowledgements

Gregory Paul Glasgow is an assistant professor at Meikai University. His research interests are language-in-education policy and planning, English as an International Language (EIL), and multilingualism in language education.

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Point to Point

A Critique to "Using Rasch Analysis to Create and Evaluate a Measurement Instrument for Foreign Language Classroom Speaking Anxiety"

Panayiotis Panayides
Secondary Education, Cyprus

Apple (2013) published a study in a commendable attempt at bringing to light the many advantages of the Rasch models over Classical Test Theory (CTT) and other Item Response Theory (IRT) models and how they can be productively used in contexts where researchers are measuring foreign language anxiety (FLA). Of special importance, and much to Apple's credit, is the detailed procedure followed for the establishment of the unidimensionality of the Foreign Language Classroom Speaking Anxiety Scale (FLCSAS).

Even though the Rasch model was originally developed for use in educational testing, measurement pioneers such as Wright (1967, 1977, 1983, 1997, 1999), Andrich (1978), Masters (1982) and Linacre (1992, 1996, 1998, 2006) have taken the field to a different level. Now the Rasch models can address every reasonable observational situation in the social sciences.

Unlike other statistically-oriented IRT models, the Rasch models provide a mathematical framework of ideal measurement, against which test developers can assess their data. Real data can, and always do to some extent, deviate from ideal measurement due to random measurement error.

One of the advantages of the Rasch models over other IRT models is that they are the only models that use the raw score as a sufficient statistic for estimating item difficulty or person ability. This means that the sufficient statistic for estimating item difficulty is simply the sum or count of the correct responses for an item over all persons. Similarly, for person ability, it is the sum or count of the correct responses for a person over all items. This ensures that, despite the fact that items in a test or scale have different difficulty estimates, the raw score ranking or order is maintained for both item difficulties and person abilities, and this is consistent with the widely-used practice for reporting results.

One flaw in Apple's study lies in exactly this feature of the Rasch models. Apple uses a 20-item scale (each item on a 6-point Likert scale) and when items are ranked by difficulty as estimated by the mean score, the order is quite different from when they are estimated by the Rasch Rating Scale model (RSM). For example, item 20 has the smallest mean score of 1.82 (thus it is the most difficult item), and the Rasch item difficulty estimate is -0.65, making item 20 the fourth easiest. Item 16 is the ninth most difficult in the mean difficulty ranking (2.26) but the most difficult in the Rasch item estimate ranking (0.90). Item 19 is the fourth easiest in the mean difficulty ranking (2.95) but the third most difficult in the Rasch item estimate ranking (0.57). Figure 1 shows a scatter plot of the Rasch item estimates against the item mean scores. The three aforementioned items are the outliers in the figure.
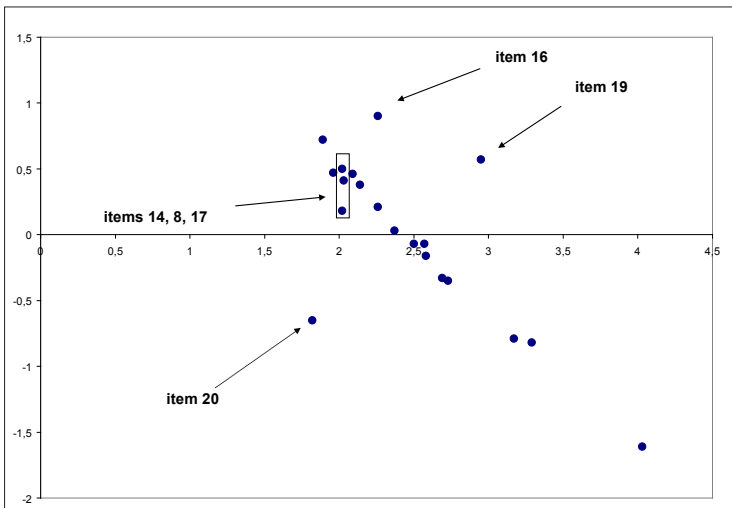

Figure 1. Scatter Plot of Rasch Item Estimates Against Item Mean Scores

The three items in the narrow rectangle (items 14, 8, and 17) are also problematic. Table 1 shows the details of these items. Even though they have essentially the same mean score, their Rasch estimates vary from 0.18 to 0.50 logits. The mean score shows that they are of the same difficulty, but in contrast the Rasch estimates show that item 17 is easier than item 8, which in turn is slightly easier than item 14.

Table 1. Mean Score and Rasch Estimates for Three Items

Item #	Mean score	Rasch estimate
14	2.02	0.50
8	2.03	0.41
17	2.02	0.18

Furthermore, the correlation between these sets of item difficulties is -.746. The negative sign is expected because a higher mean signifies an easier item and thus a lower Rasch item estimate. However, a value much closer to -1 was expected.

Apple (2013) referred to this change of item order by citing only items 16 and 20 and concluded that "This demonstrates how reliance on mean scores to judge which items are the best indications of levels of a psychological variable … may be potentially misleading" (pp. 20-21). He implies that this item order change is common practice in using the Rasch models, which in fact it is not. This could only occur when other IRT models are used, which employ parameters other than person ability and item difficulty (discrimination and guessing). However, this results in intercepting item characteristic curves and does not constitute ideal measurement because the fundamental assumption that *a more difficult item will always have a smaller chance of being answered correctly than a less difficult item* is violated.

Concluding Remark

A mistake must have been made either in the calculation of the mean scores or in the application of the Rasch RSM. If indeed such a mistake has occurred in the latter, it is obvious that the validation process has been distorted and Apple's results cannot be reliable.

Readers interested in the basics of the Rasch model and its applications to language education are advised to read Sick (2008a, 2008b, 2009a, 2009b, 2010, 2011). Also, readers interested in a detailed application of the Rasch RSM to FLA may like to read Panayides and Walker (2013).

Panayiotis Panayides holds a BSc in Statistics with Mathematics, an MSc in Educational Testing and a PhD in Educational Measurement (Durham University, UK). He is currently an assistant headmaster and head of the Mathematics Department at the Lyceum of Polemidia, Limassol, Cyprus. His research interests include educational and psychological measurement.

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A Reply to "A Critique to 'Using Rasch Analysis to Create and Evaluate a Measurement Instrument for Foreign Language Classroom Speaking Anxiety'"

Matthew T. Apple
Ritsumeikan University

In his response to my paper concerning the use of the Rasch model for creating and evaluating foreign language classroom speaking anxiety (Apple, 2013), Dr. Panayides makes some interesting observations; however, there also appear to be several points of misinterpretation of the study results. The initial issue is his opening assertion that my paper was designed to show advantages of the Rasch model over classical test theory (CTT) models as well as item response theory (IRT) models. In fact, the paper was designed only to demonstrate the advantages of the Rasch model for Japan-based classroom teachers of English. I made no mention whatsoever of other IRT models. I also did not set the Rasch model against all CTT methods; I merely demonstrated that simple descriptive statistics were not as informative or useful as Rasch analysis when creating and evaluating questionnaires.

The main argument of Panayides's critique is that, because the correlation of mean raw scores and Rasch logits was not the "expected" 1.0, I had somehow miscalculated the raw scores or had not used Rasch analysis properly. As a point of clarification, I did fail to clearly indicate the difference in *N*-size between the mean scores in Table 1 (p. 14), which was produced to compare raw score results, and the Rasch item analysis in Table 2 (p. 15). Whereas Table 1 with traditional mean scores showed the original *N*-size of 172, Table 2 with Rasch item analysis showed the reduced *N*-size of 152, following the removal of 20 persons whose responses systematically misfit the model. The descriptive statistics were meant to show what a researcher with no knowledge of the Rasch model would have done. The researcher would not have known that 20 persons' responses misfit the model, because merely summing up raw scores from questionnaire items and then averaging them does not provide a measure of person fit.

The issue in the correlation-based argument is the assertion that, because both traditional mean scores based on classical test theory (CTT) and the Rasch model use the raw score as a sufficient statistic for the estimation of item difficulty, raw scores from Likert-type category data ought to correlate highly with Rasch logits. As Panayides states, for a typical Rasch model-based analysis of testing data, "[the] sufficient statistic for estimating item difficulty is simply the sum or count of the correct responses for an item over all persons." However, there are two important points to be made regarding the use of raw scores and the Rasch model.

First, there is a crucial distinction between CTT and the Rasch model, which Bond and Fox (2007) have made explicit:

> *To the extent that the data fit the Rasch model's specifications for measurement* [emphasis added], then *N* is the sufficient statistic. (Bond & Fox, 2007, p. 267)

Data obtained from a well-established questionnaire with a large *N*-size (*N* > 1000) may indeed show good item fit. However, the data in my paper were obtained from a newly created measurement instrument, which had many misfitting items; the *N*-size, while adequate, was not large and the participants were not well targeted by the items, which may have introduced measurement error. Additionally, data from a test, which has correct answers, and a Likert category scale, which has no correct answers, are necessarily different. The frequency of responses to the Likert response categories for each item may adversely affect item fit and thus measurement

of the construct (Linacre, 1999). Traditional raw scores take neither fit nor measurement error into account, nor do they consider differences in Likert category utility.

Second, the relatively low correlation of traditional mean scores to Rasch logits demonstrates that Rasch logits based on Rasch model analysis are not simply another type of descriptive statistics. The Rasch model is not a model of observed responses, but a model of the probability of the observed responses (Wilson, 2005, p. 90). In other words, the Rasch model attempts to predict the likelihood of a questionnaire respondent to give the same answer to similar items on a future iteration of the questionnaire. Raw scores are descriptions that do not take item or person fit, measurement error, or Likert category scale functioning into account. Rasch logits are the result of attempting to model probabilistic item responses as a function of the level of endorsability of the construct for both respondents and items.

As I mentioned in my discussion on the drawbacks of traditional statistics (pp. 7-8), there are two problematic assumptions with averaging or adding raw scores such as participant responses to Likert-scale items on a questionnaire in order to create an item mean score. First, Likert-type category data are not true interval data. With interval data, the distances between each adjoining pair of data points are required to be equal. Although the distances between points on a Likert scale may look equal on the surface, they may actually vary from person to person and item to item. Second, because Likert-type category data are ordinal and not interval, such data are not additive. Different questionnaire respondents may have very different perceptions of the distinction between a *strongly agree* and an *agree* for one item. Adding a 1 from one person's response to a 2 to another person's response doesn't really equal 3. Averaging the two responses doesn't really equal 1.5, either. Likewise, a response of a 3 on one item by one person is not necessarily the same as a 3 on another item by the same person. The use of mathematical averages ignores the possibility that responses from different people on the same items or the same person on different items may represent very different perceptions of the intended Likert categories. Thus, any correlation of means, based on raw scores, to Rasch logits of data from a Likert category scale seems of questionable value.

Additionally, I stated in the conclusion (p. 23) that not only did several items on the questionnaire need revision, but that, indeed, several studies had already used revised versions of the anxiety questionnaire. Each use of the questionnaire with new participant samples required new Rasch analysis for validation; this construct has proved valid and reliable for Japan-

based samples. Readers are invited to review Apple (2011) and Hill, Falout, and Apple (2013) for further information.

Finally, Panayides claims that I implied that "item order change is common practice in using the Rasch models." I did not imply this; I did, however, suggest that reliance on raw scores to judge item difficulties in a questionnaire may lead to erroneous conclusions about which items are more difficult than others to endorse, because raw scores do not take item fit or measurement error into account. I thank Dr. Panayides, and I thank the editors of *JALT Journal* for giving me this opportunity to respond to the issues raised and give clarifications. I hope this exchange of ideas will encourage *JALT Journal* readers to learn more about the use of Rasch model analysis for second and foreign language teaching and research.

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Reviews

Exploring Japanese University English Teachers' Professional Identity. **Diane Hawley Nagatomo. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters, 2012. xii + 315 pp.**

Reviewed by
Crystal Green
University of Jyväskylä, Finland

Exploring Japanese University English Teachers' Professional Identity offers a fascinating picture of the current state of English teaching at the university level in Japan. An audience familiar with Japan will find that the book is consonant with mainstream perceptions, while throwing into sharp relief the experiences of native Japanese teachers of English in a data-driven exploration of experience and identity. Nagatomo has added significantly to the conversations on gender and professional identity in broad strokes with qualitative inquiry into an under-researched area as well as in more specific particulars through the intimate narratives of university English teachers. The book is a valuable addition to the libraries of university teachers, as well as of those interested in studies of gender, professional identity, English teaching, narrative research, and the teaching context in Japan.

The book is divided into eight chapters: Chapters 1-4 provide the background for the study; Chapters 5, 6, and 7 are case studies considering professional identity (Chapter 5: "Developing Professional Identity"), gender (Chapter 6: "It's a Man's World"), and teacher practices and beliefs (Chapter 7: "Teaching is What I Do Not Who I Am"); Chapter 8 presents a summary of the findings with remarks.

Nagatomo crafts a compelling introduction to the book, signaling the influential place of English teachers in Japanese university education. She then indicates the possible disconnect between the Ministry of Education's goals and the practices and beliefs of teachers themselves as the starting point for

her research, aiming to bring teachers' practices and beliefs more centrally into the discourse on English education in Japan. Although acknowledging the TESEP (tertiary, secondary, and primary) vs. BANA (Britain, Australasia, and North America) tensions in English teaching, Nagatomo steers clear of the cultural pedagogy debate and focuses on the development of English teachers' professional identity as key to understanding and improving English teaching. In pursuing her research, she expertly refrains from negative discourse about pedagogical styles in Japanese English classrooms to delve into more compelling questions of who teachers themselves are and how teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and identity influence language teaching.

In the opening four chapters, the research is contextualized with a concise but thorough background about university education, English teaching, and gender in Japan. Nagatomo uses *narrative study*, collecting stories from eight teachers through in-depth interviews over a period of 1 year to create three unique, interconnecting studies. Previous studies of professional identity in Japan have included both native and nonnative English teachers (e.g., Simon-Maeda, 2004; Stewart, 2005), but Nagatomo's work is distinguished by being based solely on in-depth interviews with native Japanese English teachers. Chapter 5 considers the development of four relatively new English teachers' professional identities. Nagatomo adopts Wenger's (1998) theory of identity and communities of practice as her framework to explore the teachers' engagement in teaching and the workplace, access to inbound trajectories, and engagement in wider society. In Chapter 6, "It's a Man's World," Nagatomo uses Gee's (2000) perspective on identity as a structured way to explore the narratives of seven female teachers, systematically revealing the ways these women's gendered identities are intertwined with other identities as individuals and professionals. Chapter 7, "Teaching is What I Do Not Who I Am," considers how one female teacher's practices influence her professional identity. Using class observations and interviews, Nagatomo makes an insightful investigation of the intersection of practice and beliefs. She touches briefly on the debate about language pedagogy before examining the more interesting matter of why her participant chooses to lecture her English classes in Japanese. Drawing these three chapters together, Nagatomo summarizes her findings in four categories: English language teacher versus academic in an English-related field, past student self versus teacher self, woman in a male-dominated society, and the influence of learning histories on teaching styles. Nagatomo ends the book with a call to action in the form of recommendations for improving English education at the university level. These recommendations are centered on teacher experience: the need for more pedagogical training for

university teachers and an apprenticeship or mentoring system.

Nagatomo illustrates her points in a clear, succinct, and conversational tone, creating a book that is both persuasive and easy to read. She is also accurate in her observation that "the greatest value in [the] study lies in exposing the clear and frank self-reflection of the participants provided during the interviews" (p. 189). Although her findings will not come as unexpected to those familiar with the Japanese context, they are distinctive in the care with which she has applied the theoretical frameworks to derive her conclusions.

A small criticism would be that the teachers' words quoted to illustrate her findings could have been more explicitly interpreted. Nagatomo conducted the interviews in English and later revised the interview transcriptions to be more intelligible. Even so, it is not always easy to understand the meaning the teachers were trying to convey. For this reason, the quoted words presented to the reader as emblematic and the conclusions drawn from them may seem somewhat unclear. It also seems that Nagatomo presumes her readers have some familiarity with Japanese culture. Nevertheless, she is clear at every point about her own position in the study and her potential bias, and is cautious not to overstep her data.

In *Exploring Japanese University English Teachers' Professional Identity*, Nagatomo, herself a woman who has lived many years in Japan as a university English teacher, displays an extensive understanding of the context and succeeds in transforming her dissertation into a book that addresses a gap in our understanding of issues in university English education in Japan.

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Second Language Acquisition Myths: Applying Second Language Research to Classroom Teaching. **Steven Brown and Jenifer Larson-Hall. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 2012. viii + 199 pp.**

Reviewed by

Harumi Kimura

Miyagi Gakuin Women's University

Second Language Acquisition Myths is written as an introductory book in SLA with insights from research that are intended to help both pre-service and in-service teachers apply the findings in their teaching. This book adopts the chapter structure of *Vocabulary Myths* (Folse, 2004), the first book in the myths series from the University of Michigan Press. Each chapter has three sections presented in the same sequence: "In the Real World" in which one of the authors shares a personal story to introduce the topic; "What the Research Says" covers the research findings; and "What We Can Do" links research to classroom practice.

The book consists of eight units, each of which tries to refute a common misunderstanding about how people learn languages. For example, Myth 1 states that children are good learners of languages but adults are not. However, both the anecdote Larson-Hall shares with readers and an array of past studies demonstrate that children are not faster than adults in learning either their first or second language and that both children and adults need to be exposed to the language and immersed in the language environment for an extended period to be perceived as relatively fluent. Furthermore, adults' brains are shown to be plastic (i.e., adults can learn new things and new languages). Myth 2 refers to the common naïve belief that bilinguals are people who speak two languages perfectly. Contrary to this common belief, there are many different types of bilinguals besides *balanced bilinguals*, who typically encounter two languages early in their lives and become fluent in both.

Brown and Larson-Hall reserve the largest part of the book (Myths 3-6) for the input-interaction-output theory of SLA and suggest that a lot of classroom practice should be reconsidered and modified. A large amount of input is essential, but meaningful interaction with ample opportunities for producing output and receiving effective feedback also plays a vital role. Practice is necessary, but just practicing does not advance learners to producing perfectly accurate output. Explicit teaching is effective to some

extent, if it has enough reinforcement (e.g., through planning and repetition), but still has limitations. Also, corrective feedback is not as effective as teachers expect if it is not consistent and persistent.

The authors suspect that individual differences might not be as powerful a driving force in SLA (Myth 7) as they have been believed to be. Past research in personality and learning styles has produced mixed results, and rather promising constructs such as motivation and aptitude have recently been going through major reconceptualization to better describe their reality. For example, motivation has been shown to be dynamic, not static, and situated in specific contexts. In addition, other individual attributes should be investigated, such as interests and emotions.

In Myth 8, the authors cite alternative perspectives in SLA. Pragmatic competence is an integral part of language knowledge—it can and should be taught. Researchers in sociocultural strands perceive that language learning proceeds in a social context and that language learning research should look beyond the individual. Thus, they see interaction differently from mainstream researchers and believe that learners co-construct knowledge through interaction. Along this line of thought, the authors also refer to language socialization and L2 learner identity.

The anecdotes and monologues at the beginning of each chapter invite readers into the topic. Readers can then relate those stories to their own experiences. For example, Larson-Hall, an English-speaking mother who was based in Japan, shared her experience in parenting a 7-year old Japanese-speaking girl whom she adopted. The girl needed lengthy exposure to the new English language and a push to start speaking it. Thanks to this personal story, the discussion that follows in Myth 2 is more approachable.

The authors have chosen a limited number of studies and have then gone into some depth to make their point. They decided on this approach for the benefit of their main targeted readers—novices in the field. In this attempt, the authors have been successful. For example, when they discuss the controversy over the effectiveness of written grammar corrections, they go into a rather thorough discussion but cite only a few articles instead of giving an exhaustive list of studies.

The authors cover both mainstream research and social approaches in the field without getting too deep into theoretical debates. As this is an introductory title, the balanced perspective that learning languages is both a cognitive and social matter is highly appropriate. At the same time, the authors seem to recognize the need for further exploration of the social dimensions of language learning. The three suggestions in Myth 8 to (a) promote developing

communicative competence, (b) make more use of group work, and (c) have students experience real use of the language through service learning indicate that they view interaction in terms of participation in interpersonal relationships.

There are additional characteristics of this book that should be noted. First, although the primary purpose is to give an overview of the field, the authors occasionally refer to their own views. For example, in relation to possible directions that future studies on individual differences could take, the authors suggest cultivating learners' metacognitive skills and beliefs. Second, the authors do mention key concepts in statistics and quantitative research findings when necessary and appropriate. They put explanations of such concepts as effect sizes and correlations in boxes separate from the main text itself. Third, the authors include tables and figures to summarize the key points in some articles. This provides visual support for readers to understand what each study demonstrated, such as the contrast between learning grammar and the development of unaccented speech according to bilinguals' age on arrival (pp. 13-14). Fourth, although the sources for discussion are mainly from SLA, the authors do refer to cognitive psychology and neuroscience at times, which demonstrates that they have taken a wider, multidisciplinary perspective on the study of SLA.

On a less positive note, although their suggestions in the "What We Can Do" sections are insightful and practical, occasionally they make a proposal that does not seem to fit the previous discussion. For example, in Myth 5, after saying that learners are not likely to learn what they are taught, the authors suggest teaching chunks of language. Although their suggestion is reasonable, readers might wonder what made the authors take this stance given the previous discussion on explicit teaching and feedback.

Overall, this is an ideal starter book on SLA and teacher trainers will welcome this title as a textbook for introductory TESOL courses. Undergraduate and graduate students will see it as an enjoyable, easy read to shape and challenge their own beliefs. Teachers who want to bring their knowledge of SLA up to date will enjoy considering the new developments presented. The authors hoped they would arouse readers' interests in particular areas of SLA, and I think they have done so quite capably.

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Language Curriculum Design. I. S. Paul Nation and John Macalister. New York: Routledge, 2010. xvi + 224 pp.

Reviewed by

Leigh McDowell

Nara Institute of Science and Technology

A large number of books on curriculum design (CD) have already been written, with some serving as classics in the field for decades, so I was curious to know what this book by Nation and Macalister might contribute. From the outset in Chapter 1, the authors introduce what I came to recognize as the enduring contribution of this book: an elegant and all-encompassing model of the CD process. Represented as a diagram on p. 3, the model looks a bit like one of those mysterious crop circles, with three separate circles emerging from one central circle, each divided into three subcomponents, and all contained within one larger circle. This visual model provides a clear representation of a very complex process—and the authors are consistent throughout the book that CD should be viewed as a process that can look at any of the specific elements "with a variety of starting points and with continual opportunity to return to [the various] parts" (p. 197).

According to the model, goals are at the very center of the process and are directly linked with three areas: (a) content and sequencing, (b) format and presentation, and (c) monitoring and assessment. Together, these form the central circle of the model, out of which come three separate circles representing environment analysis, needs analysis, and principles. There's one more circle, representing evaluation, surrounding the model. Chapters 2-8 are dedicated to these seven individual parts of the model. Like a good lesson, each chapter starts with its aims, ends with a summary of the steps covered, offers tasks to allow the reader to apply the steps introduced, and provides case studies to further highlight the core concepts.

Chapter 2 focuses on *environment analysis*, which is the process of investigating the constraints that may affect the goals of a course (e.g., students' contact time with the language, teachers' background knowledge, or the layout of the classroom [my examples, not the authors']). This is an appropriate starting point for the book as even the most sophisticated CD will not succeed if the basic environmental constraints have not been addressed. *Needs analysis*, traditionally a central focus of CD, is treated in Chapter 3 as one of the three outer circles of the CD model (along with environment analysis and

principles). Needs analysis is further divided into three parts—necessities, wants, and lacks—and the authors look at some tools for investigating these. I felt that, on its own, the description offered in this chapter equips the reader to perform only a small-scale needs analysis, and that there was little coverage of the types or depth of data analysis used in more extensive needs analyses. However, according to the model, a needs analysis is only one of seven parts of the CD process. Also, having a separate chapter for environment analysis means that needs can be uncovered from different angles. In practical terms, the sophistication provided will suffice for many curriculum designers.

Following environmental and needs analyses, the third circle that feeds into goals and the central part of the CD model is *principles*, taken up in Chapter 4. It is now well accepted that principles, rather than methods of language teaching, should be followed and this chapter offers a collection of 20 principles for sound language pedagogy. Each principle is given a snappy name to help digest and remember them, (e.g., Time on task) along with a concise discussion and references to the published research and theory that support them. This list is an excellent resource for language teachers and one could base an entire CD on just this chapter and still come away with a decent course.

Chapter 5 moves to the central circle of the CD model and covers *content and sequencing* as well as reviewing goals, which makes sense as the content of a course or its lessons is inextricably tied to its objectives and outcomes. The authors offer clear guidelines and starting points for determining content, such as vocabulary, grammar, language use, and discourse. For sequencing, the authors cover a range of possible units of progression, such as words, genres, topics, strategies, subskills, and task outcomes and provide comprehensive lists that inform sequencing considerations. I felt the range of choice in this chapter reflects how far the field has progressed since the days of repackaging grammar items as functions in the scope and sequence charts blended into the table of contents in course books. The lists of potential units of progression in this chapter are yet another valuable resource for practicing teachers.

The next two chapters complete the central circle of the model. Under the heading *format and presentation*, Chapter 6 covers teaching and learning techniques (i.e., the kinds of activities we do in the classroom) and offers guidelines for deciding lesson format. In keeping with the cohesive nature of the volume, these guidelines build solidly on the topics already covered. Those familiar with Nation's (2007) work will recognize the four strands—another all-encompassing model. Chapter 7 covers the basics of *monitoring*

and assessment, including reliability, validity, and practicality, with another set of robust guidelines to relate this piece to the rest of the CD puzzle.

Finally, *evaluation*—that is evaluation of the curriculum, not the learners—completes the model. Chapter 8 offers steps on how to gather data and the types of data that can be gathered to aid in evaluating curricula. The authors then go on to offer six more useful chapters that cover the following topics: "Approaches to Curriculum Design," "Negotiated Syllabuses," "Adopting and Adapting an Existing Course Book," "Introducing Change," "Planning an In-service Course," with "Teaching and Curriculum Design" serving as a grand review of the whole book.

As language teachers, we are faced with decisions relating to CD on a daily basis, and thus we can all benefit from gaining a wider understanding of the topics presented in this book. In addition, as the authors point out, curriculum related decisions need not be a large-scale operation—language curriculum design can be "applied to something as small as an activity in a lesson" (p. 197). This book offers a broad understanding of the process in a clear and comprehensive, yet concise package that—along with the model itself—can confidently guide users at the classroom and program level through the complex activity of language CD.

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Task-Based Language Teaching in Foreign Language Contexts.
Ali Shehadeh and Christine A. Coombe (Eds.). Amsterdam/
Philadelphia: John Benjamins, 2012. xi + 363 pp.

Reviewed by

Jason Moser

Osaka Shoin Women's University

Over the past decade there has been a noticeable increase in the number of books and research articles on the subject of task-based learning and teaching (TBLT). TBLT is now clearly a mainstream concept in ESL/EFL. *Task-Based Language Teaching in Foreign Language Contexts* is the newest contribution to this expanding literature. The editors' stated purpose with this collection of research articles is to expand TBLT literature by including the underrepresented EFL context. Shehadeh writes in Chapter 1 that the research in the book highlights the fact that the conditions under which TBLT is researched, implemented, and practiced in foreign language settings are often very different from those of second language settings. He goes on to describe some of the institutional, student, and teacher factors that shape TBLT in EFL contexts.

The next 13 chapters in the book consist of research studies. Six of these studies are situated in Japan, which Carless in the last chapter believes might reflect the robustness of TBLT research in Japan rather than any editorial bias. The book is divided into two sections. The first section, "Variables Affecting Task-Based Language Learning and Performance," includes five research studies that build on prior TBLT research. Chapter 2, by Sasayama and Izumi, like most of the studies in the book, includes the underrepresented population in TBLT research of students with limited oral proficiency. Their study investigated the effects of task complexity and pretask planning. It found support for both Robinson's (2001) cognition hypothesis and Skehan's (1998) limited capacity hypothesis. Chapter 3, by Malicka and Levkina, is a study situated in a Spanish university and is rare in that the authors investigated the influence of proficiency on task difficulty perception and task performance outcomes. Surprisingly few TBLT studies to date have researched the important variable of proficiency in relation to task performance. Chapter 4, by Genc, is a study with Turkish EFL students that, following Ellis and Yuan (2005), investigated the under-researched effect of modality (oral versus written) on task planning and task performance. Chapter 5, by Horiba and Fukaya, covers an investigation

into the effects of task conditions on text processing. In the study, a sample of students with limited L2 proficiency, initially given a text to process, were subsequently given a recall task on the same text to be completed under L1-only or L2-only conditions, or while switching from L1 to L2 during the recall. Students were then given an unannounced vocabulary test. Only the L1-only condition showed a significant result on the dimension of enhanced content recall of the prior text. In a final review of the inconclusive results, the authors suggest that task conditions may influence how well students process texts. They also suggest that for limited L2 proficiency students there is a trade-off between content learning and language learning. The final chapter of the first section, by Hobbs, is a Japan-based research study with important classroom implications. The study presents strong evidence of what researchers and teachers can learn about task structure and interaction by analyzing native-speaker task performances.

The second section of the book, "Implementation of Task-Based Language Teaching," focuses on studies that mostly center on the implementation of TBLT in classroom settings. Chapter 7, by Iwashita and Li, reports on patterns of corrective feedback in a TBLT class in a Chinese university. The study identifies conditions that allow for TBLT to be successfully implemented in similar EFL contexts. Chapter 8, by Moore, is a study based in Japan that will be of value to researchers interested in learner-generated focus on form. His study highlights a number of the contextual issues in the implementation of focus on form in EFL contexts including the influence of the L1. Chapter 9, by Chan, is a qualitative study of how novice teachers realize task-based language teaching in primary classrooms in Hong Kong. The study describes very thoroughly the multiple real-time decisions that teachers have to make during a task-based lesson in order for it to be successful. Chan writes that this decision-making ability is the key to successful task-based language teaching and learning. Chapter 10, by Park, is a computer-assisted task-based study in Korea with middle school students (ages 13-14), an under-represented group in TBLT research. In comparison to students taught using traditional teaching methods, the task-based group in his study in addition to doing better on task-based writing tests also showed better results on a standard grammar and vocabulary test. The study is valuable in that it demonstrates that TBLT is compatible with contexts that prioritize exam passing.

Chapter 11, by Chacón, is an action research study rich in detail situated in Venezuela that investigated ways for prospective language teachers to improve their oral fluency through a task-based approach that centers on

the use of films. In addition to the fluency gains for learners, Chacón concludes that the task-based project helped these teachers develop awareness of TBLT, which is now being introduced as part of the language-education reforms in Venezuela. Chapter 12, by Jackson, is a study that looks at the benefits of a task-based language teacher education program. The results are similar to those in the previous chapter in that they demonstrate that such programs help develop positive attitudes to TBLT including the value of collaborative work between teachers. Chapter 13, by Weaver, provides a very detailed step-by-step account of how a formative assessment cycle can be incorporated into a TBLT curriculum. As Weaver explains, this assessment cycle allows students to better understand the gaps in their interlanguage as well as supporting teachers to develop a more effective curriculum. The final research study by McAllister, Narcy-Combes, and Starkey-Perret, situated in a French university, examined the teachers' perceptions of the introduction of a new TBLT blended program in the university. The paper begins with an interesting explanation for the rationale of moving towards a TBLT curriculum. The findings of the teacher interviews showed a positive attitude toward the program but they also revealed a number of concerns.

The final chapter in the book is by David Carless, who was the keynote speaker at JALT's Task-Based Learning SIG's TBLT conference in 2012. He identifies some of the key themes that have emerged from the articles in addition to offering suggestions that can further the development of TBLT in EFL settings. This book demonstrates that TBLT research continues to expand and develop in new and important directions and provides original articles that make a significant contribution to TBLT research. As such, this edited volume will be of interest to researchers as well as program directors and classroom educators looking to incorporate TBLT.

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Identity, Motivation, and Autonomy in Language Learning.
Garold Murray, Xuesong Gao, and Terry Lamb (Eds.). Bristol,
UK: Multilingual Matters, 2011. x + 266 pp.

Reviewed by
Richard J. Sampson
Gunma University

There has been a recent trend in second language acquisition theorizing and research towards looking at language and language learning holistically rather than attempting to divide these activities into subcomponents (Five Graces Group, 2009). *Identity, Motivation, and Autonomy in Language Learning*, an edited collection of 16 chapters divided into three sections, continues in this holistic vein with an "aim to synergise findings" (p. 1) from these three different areas. As the title of the volume suggests, this book is targeted at those interested in exploring the interrelated natures of identity, motivation, and autonomy. However, as a large portion of the content draws on institutional language learning contexts, it would perhaps be of greater benefit to teachers or those researching classroom language learning, particularly with qualitative methods.

The first section, containing four chapters, introduces emerging theoretical understandings that might inform the study of motivation, identity, and autonomy. It is perhaps apt that two of the chapters explicitly build upon a background of complexity theory, as there is an overall theme running throughout the section of the dynamic interaction of the learner with the environment. This theme is evident in the chapter by Ushioda, who contends that understandings in motivation research, which previously have been heavily based upon positivist world views, could be further developed by drawing on autonomy research and engaging with language learners as real people in real contexts with real identities. Ushioda further writes of an identity perspective on motivation that draws attention to the dynamic interaction between present negotiation of experience inside and outside of the classroom and future conceptions of possibility. The ways in which seemingly different approaches complement one another are again highlighted in the chapter by Gao and Zhang, in which they argue for the benefits of understanding interrelations between the sociocultural concept of *agency* and the cognitive theory notion of *metacognition* in considering language learner autonomy. The explicit discussion of complexity-based understandings begins with Sade's chapter. This thought-provoking chapter provides a development of the idea of *identity*

fractalization. Sade contends that through analysis of narratives written by learners about their second language development one can discern two properties of fractals in identity formation—infinite possibilities for new social identities and self-similar patterns. The final chapter in section one, by Paiva, again draws on a complex adaptive systems perspective, arguing that identity, motivation, and autonomy are key elements that put a system into motion, fostering interaction between the individual and the environment. Paiva uses English language learner histories of Japanese and Brazilian learners to show how these key elements contribute to points of change and emergence in second language learning.

The second section again has four chapters, this time exploring independent learning contexts as offering valuable potential to examine interrelations between elements in the book's title empirically. From these chapters, the idea of personalization as a pedagogical resource emerges as the binding theme. Murray's chapter looks at how Japanese university-aged language learners used imagination in a blended self-access center (SAC) and classroom learning environment. His analysis reveals the ways in which learners used images of an ideal L2 self and imagined communities to assist their learning, leading him to propose that the learning process ought to be made a much more personalized experience drawing on an individual's imagination. Castillo Zaragoza's chapter adds a much-needed consideration of learners accessing SACs to study more than one language. Through her research with learners in Mexico, Castillo Zaragoza argues that through personally selected resources, SACs allow students to develop their own identities regarding plurilingualism. Murphy then deals with learner motivation in distance language learning. She contends that in order for learning to engage with multiple identities, roles, and interests of learners in such contexts, teachers ought to select course materials and activities, enhance opportunities for choice, and foster self-evaluation practices to personalize learning and reduce occasions when learners ponder, "Why am I doing this?" (p. 123). Finally, the chapter by Reinders and Lazaro takes a slightly different viewpoint, asking very astutely, "But what about the teacher?" (p. 125). It looks at teachers as facilitators of SACs, finding that the rewards teachers feel in acting on their beliefs that SACs might promote more flexible and personalized learning are balanced by an array of challenges, such as insufficient professional preparation, that have an impact on teachers' motivation and identity as teachers.

This clash of beliefs with realities is echoed in many of the six chapters in the final section, which deals with language learners' experiences in a

variety of contexts as well as teachers' perspectives. Chapters by Chik and Breidback, and Martin Lamb provide situated accounts of the ways in which students had different expectations of and attributed different motivational, identity, and autonomy-related roles to classroom learning and classroom-external learning opportunities. This divergence of beliefs is also represented in the chapter by Ryan and Mercer, in which they argue that learner beliefs about the role of study abroad versus classroom learning in their home country may influence learners' sense of agency. They contend that teachers must take care that messages they send learners emphasize the individual learner as the agent of successful language learning rather than primarily the context, so that students do not expect learning to come effortlessly from the experience of study abroad. For language teachers, the chapter by Cowie and Sakui is intriguing in that it explores research asking teachers who work in the Japanese university context for their understandings and beliefs about the motivation of students. One area of interest that came from the chapter, although unfortunately not discussed explicitly, was how teachers placed themselves as the focal point of motivational practice in the classroom, rather than seeing motivation as emergent from interactions in the classroom. Exploration of this teacher belief, whether held consciously or subconsciously, and particularly in light of Ushioda's (2009) push for a "person-in-context relational view of emergent motivation" (p. 215), would be a particularly valuable follow-up to the study reported.

Although a common weakness of the chapters is a lack of detailed elaboration of analysis or methods, this is prevalent in most edited volumes containing a range of studies. On the other hand, one of the clear strengths of the book is its persistent use of individual voice—from students, and in an area that might be utilized further, from teachers—to investigate the lived experience of the interaction of identity, motivation, and autonomy. This use of individual voice makes the text more interesting and also allows readers to bring their own personal, lived understandings to interact through reading with the voices in the text. Furthermore, many of the chapters have clear implications for teachers: I found the chapter by Chik and Breidbach to be particularly inspiring, highlighting the ways in which the sharing of self-reflections on language learning processes between language learners with wikis might further promote learner motivation, autonomy, and identity by heightening awareness of the various paths that learners take. The book certainly takes an important step towards its stated aim of synergising findings regarding interactions between identity, motivation, and autonomy, and is recommended to anyone interested in the lived, holistic experiences of language learners and those involved with them.

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Beyond the Language Classroom. **Phil Benson and Hayo Reinders (Eds.). Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan, 2011. x + 208 pp.**

Reviewed by
Vick Ssali, Aichi Gakuin University
Umida Ashurova, Nanzan University

Although out-of-class learning is becoming more and more important, a large proportion of the studies and literature on language education so far has dwelt on in-class learning. *Beyond the Language Classroom* seeks to break this monopoly by looking at the existence, mechanisms, and significance of language teaching and learning in settings beyond the classroom. It is being acclaimed as the first published work to deal exclusively with language learning outside conventional classrooms, and in 13 chapters the book attempts to correct two false assumptions: one, on the extreme, that settings beyond classroom walls are good only for using the language, and the other that although some learning takes place as learners use the language in settings beyond classroom walls, there is no meaningful teaching possible.

From the beginning, the book brings the reader's attention to these false assumptions caused by the dichotomy between in-class and out-of-class learning or instructed and noninstructed kinds of learning. While making a reasonable argument that "language learning beyond the classroom lies in the distinctive modes of pedagogy that are found in different settings" (p. 2), Benson, in Chapter 1, introduces an analytical framework for investigating the field. He proposes that this framework consists of four dimensions (location, formality, pedagogy, and locus of control) and that it appears in

two main analytical constructs (setting and mode of practice). Calling this framework "somewhat rudimentary" (p. 15), Benson assumes that there will eventually be a theory of language learning beyond the classroom similar to that of instructed SLA as proposed by Ellis (1995).

The subsequent chapters are divided into three broad parts. Conveniently sequenced, Chapters 2 to 5 explore patterns of language learning beyond the classroom from four different, but related, theoretical perspectives. In Chapter 2, Palfreyman brings our attention to the role of social networks in learning beyond the classroom. He investigates how people in the learners' families and social life (other than the teacher) contribute to the out-of-class language learning experiences of young Arab women. Palfreyman thus underlines the fact that such social networks are of paramount importance both as a means of language interaction and a source of encouragement and advice for the learner.

In Chapter 3, Kuure shifts the focus from people in our everyday lives to the things in our current technology-rich existence. Based on mediated discourse analysis, this case study of a young Finnish man's technology-mediated out-of-school language learning practices shows that "computer games may provide important affordances for language learning" (p. 35). Kuure thus encourages language teachers to create activities for teenagers that "allow the participants' own worlds to become shared resources in collaboration" (p. 46).

Chapter 4 reports on findings by Kalaja, Alanen, Palviainen, and Dufva that, providing the learner is prepared to exercise agency, there are many contexts and chances for learning outside the traditional school environment. Responses from Finnish learners of English and Swedish show that although the experiences of learning both languages were similar at school, outside the school learners engaged with the two languages in very different ways: they chose to seek out learning opportunities in English, but failed to expand the contexts for learning and using Swedish.

Although Chapter 5, by Menezes, begins with a rather lengthy and complicated theoretical background, the author's main argument is relatively simple: "the dialogue between new metaphors and students' voices will lead us to the understanding that perception and agency are crucial to language learning" (p. 60). Menezes's examination of language-learning histories of Brazilian, Japanese, and Finnish students reveals that whichever opportunity is available beyond the classrooms is an essential element in the processes of language learning. In what will make interesting reading for advocates of independent learning beyond the language classroom, Menezes emphasizes

that schools alone cannot provide all the necessary opportunities for language development, so it is incumbent on teachers and facilitators to open their students' eyes to the world around them.

With these perspectives in mind, readers are prepared to take a look at Chapters 6-8, which examine more closely what learners actually get from language learning settings outside the traditional classroom. In what one can call an implicit reference to the power of agency, Divita describes in Chapter 6 how multilingual, code-switching seniors, influenced by their life pursuits, idiosyncratically learned and used their L2 in socio-linguistic circumstances different from formal settings. Zimmerman's paper (Chapter 7) will be of particular interest to teachers in schools with foreign students actively involved in learning the L1 of their host schools. Learners engaged in conversations about the language they were learning, which not only bridged linguistic and cultural gaps, but also provided real teaching and learning opportunities in completely autonomous circumstances beyond the walls of the classroom. The highlight of this section, though, is Sundqvist's examination in Chapter 8 of the extent to which the English that young people learned from activities they engaged in outside the language classroom contributed to their overall proficiency. Sundqvist's study also gives insight into the relevance of other variables such as the type of extramural activities, the time spent on them, and their interactivity.

Part 3 examines the issues arising from institutional initiatives to provide opportunities for language learning beyond the classroom. Bailly's paper (Chapter 9) will be of interest to EFL teachers who may be required to guide learners in choosing and learning another language besides the main one taught in the classroom. Bailly examines the relationship between in-school and out-of-school learning of foreign languages that are not taught at school, and her study gives insight into the languages students choose to study outside school, why they choose them, how they learn them outside of class, and the difficulties they meet.

In Chapter 10, Murray explores the topic of identifying optimally conducive circumstances for older learners in a self-access learning context. Not only does he bridge the gap in the existing research in which self-access learning is always identified with younger university learners, but he also eloquently describes the older learners' experiences from the dual perspectives of a "social learning space" and a "community of learners" (p. 144). Stickler and Emke present evidence in Chapter 11 that there is a lot of learning possible in online virtual environments. Although some readers may get lost in the definitions and emphasis on what the authors call informal,

nonformal, and incidental or unintentional learning, the study serves as an interesting methodological model for teachers doing research as participant observers. Instructors can reflect upon their own roles as tutors in matching students and guiding them through online meetings and activities to more learner-led interaction and learning. Finally, Barkhuizen (Chapter 12) focuses on "the relationships that language learners engage in with people beyond formal classroom contexts" (p. 161). This article will be of particular interest to readers involved in informal one-on-one tutoring situations. However, it also highlights the factors that influence any teacher-student relationship, more importantly teacher cognition and the learner's real and imagined successes in L2 learning.

In Chapter 13, Reinders appropriately closes the book with ideas on the "selection, creation, and implementation of materials designed to support learners in their learning beyond the classroom, and to develop learner autonomy" (p. 175). Reinders places appropriate material development and use at the centre of the autonomous learning and assessment process, and teachers and facilitators in all the language learning settings outside the traditional classroom covered in the book will find a close reading of this practical chapter rewarding.

Beyond the Language Classroom stands out as a collection of 11 well-researched and easy-to-read accounts of language learning experiences outside the conventional classroom (Chapters 2-12), plus a very practical guide to effective material development and use for independent learning (Chapter 13). All the studies are grounded in a solid theoretical framework, and the book even begins (Chapter 1) with a succinct description of rudimentary conceptual guides to understanding learning settings beyond the classroom. This strength of the book may, however, also be the source of its weakness. Some chapters dwell too much on theoretical descriptions that sometimes overshadow the pedagogically practical experiences from the field. Despite this, the book succeeds in demonstrating that language learning and teaching is possible in settings beyond classroom walls, and it will be a useful resource for both novice researchers and veterans in the field of independent learning.

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JALT Central Office

Urban Edge Building 5F

1-37-9 Taito, Taito-ku, Tokyo 110-0016, Japan

Tel.: 03-3837-1630; Fax: 03-3837-1631

(From overseas: Tel.: 81-3-3837-1630; Fax: 81-3-3837-1631)

Email: jco@jalt.org   URL: www.jalt.org

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