

# **TOHOKU TEFL**

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# **Language Education Policy in Australia and its Implications for Foreign Language Education in Japan**

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## **Abstract**

From the early 1980s to the mid-1990s, Australia made great strides in the area of language policy development. The first national policy was adopted in 1987, the second in 1991, with a supplementary policy on Asian languages in 1994. By the late 1980s, all States and Territories had developed and were implementing their own language education policies. This paper discusses the importance of having a language and language education policy and the relationship between them. It briefly discusses the Australian experience of policy development and the lessons that can be learned from them. The paper also considers the structure and design of language policy, the basis of its development, and its articulation from the needs of the society and of individuals in the society, to policy formulation, implementation, and ongoing evaluation and revision. The paper also discusses how a national policy might be developed and illustrates this with the Australian experience. Finally, the paper discusses the basic information that is needed in preparing national language and language education policies. In discussing the educational needs, reference is made to the goals of language teaching, including the fostering of more positive cross-cultural attitudes, and to recent studies on the role of language teaching in fostering more positive cross-cultural attitudes that have been carried out in both Australia and Japan.

オーストラリアでは、1980年代から1990年代半ばにかけて、言語政策上大きな進展が見られた。1987年、1991年それぞれの年に国家的規模で言語政策が採用され、1994年にはアジアの言語に関する政策が追加された。1980年代後半までにはすべての州すべての地域で各自の言語教育政策が整備され運用されるに至っている。本論考では言語政策の内容、構成、開発過程を略述しながら、言語政策、言語教育政策、そして両者の関係の重要性について論じる。言語政策の開発にあたっては、個人と社会のニーズをいかに反映させ、それをいかに評価するかが大きな問題となるが、これらについてはさまざまなデータを参照しながら論述する。さらに言語教育について最も重要な案件は、学習者をしていかに積極的に異文化とかかわる態度を養成するかということであるが、これについてはオーストラリアと日本で行った実証研究の結果を参照する。

## **1. Introduction**

Through the 1980s and early 1990s, Australia was considered to lead the English-speaking world in systematic language policy-making at the national and State levels. This paper provides a brief description of Australia's language policy situation and seeks to draw lessons for language education policy-making in general by considering implications from the Australian experience for the nature, design and

content of language policy. It would be presumptuous for a foreigner with little experience of Japan to make any strong claim that Australian lessons are applicable to another country but, hopefully, the insights derived from the Australian experience, especially the importance of rigour in the design of language policy, can find some resonance in Japan as it “searches for the ideal” in its language education.

## **2. Language Policy**

### **2.1 What it is**

Language policies vary greatly in form and content from vague expressions of what is good about languages or language learning (the “warm words” approach) to systematic statements of needs, goals and proposed practice set in an understanding of the nature of the society the policy is to serve. The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary’s most relevant definition of “policy” defines it as

... A course of action adopted and pursued by a government, party, ruler, statesman, etc; any course of action adopted as advantageous or expedient ... (Onions 1967: 1536)

The report of the 2002 review of the teaching of languages other than English in Australia does not define the term but provides further clarification of what a policy should be. It recommends that:

1. A new National Policy or Statement on Languages Education be developed... The policy should address the purposes, nature, value and expected outcomes of languages learning. This policy or statement must be suitable for varying audiences, and be clear and explicit about the purposes, nature and value of learning languages.
2. The new National Policy should take account of contemporary and future efforts to reconceptualise curricula to reflect, among other things, realistic levels of language learning and adopt new forms of pedagogy including, most importantly, the effective use of information and communication technologies. (Erebus Consulting Partners 2002: 195)

Earlier, the report identified some key features of a systematic national policy:

In the end, resources, teacher supply and funding are key elements that must be addressed ...

... what is needed is a sense of certainty about the future. ...

... a broader framework that encompasses both language and cultural studies that has intercultural awareness and engagement as the underpinning rationale.

... Australia’s linguistic diversity needs to be understood as a national resource, hence the Commonwealth<sup>1</sup> has a responsibility to enhance and protect LOTES<sup>2</sup>. ... it is essential that the Commonwealth accept a leadership

role in promoting a coordinated approach to LOTE policy development and implementation in Australia. ...

The Commonwealth should provide general policy direction and positive leadership ... (It) needs to ensure the study and teaching of languages of strategic and social importance to Australia ...

Any new policy needs to view the learning and teaching of languages as a cycle rather than a linear series of stages, and thus take a longer-term perspective. ...

In the end, only a national undertaking, supported by the Commonwealth in some shape or form can offer some stability of policy and coordination of change. (Erebus Consulting Partners 2002: 192 – 193)

These statements refer to a languages education policy, more specifically to a “LOTE policy.” However, rationally, education should be designed to meet the needs of the society it serves and a national language education policy should exist within the broader context of a national policy on languages, which identifies the language situation across the nation, what languages exist or are needed, what language-related services are to be provided and by whom, what language-related needs are to be met through the policy or ignored, and so on. In other words, a national language education policy, which identifies which languages are to be taught, at what levels, to and by whom, and for what purposes, should logically be seen as just one part of a national language policy and should exist within, and be justified by, the national language policy, which, in turn, exists within and is justified by the nature and needs of the society. In this paper, the prime focus is on language education policies but the relationship between a national language education policy, a national language policy, and the nature and needs of the society must always be kept in mind.

## **2.2 The Importance of Having a National Language Education Policy**

The quotations above from the recent review of language education policy in Australia identify some of the key features of, and reasons for having, a systematic national language education policy. Key words indicating the nature, role, orientation and content of a national policy include these:

**Nature:** *a course of action,  
broad(er) framework,  
coordinated approach to policy and implementation,  
general policy direction and leadership*

**Duration:** *cycle rather than ... stages*

**Role:** *leadership,  
Stability of policy and coordination of change*

- Orientation:** *contemporary and future efforts,  
sense of certainty about the future,  
longer-term perspective,*
- Content:** *the purposes, nature, value and expected outcomes of ...  
learning languages,  
underpinning rationale,  
languages of strategic and social importance,  
reconceptualise curricula  
forms of pedagogy,  
resources, teacher supply and funding,*
- Goals:** *national resource (i.e., identify, develop and maintain)  
intercultural awareness and engagement,  
realistic levels of language learning*

The issues involved in language and language education policy-making are too wide-ranging and complex to be addressed successfully in any piecemeal fashion. It is essential that language policy-making be comprehensive, systematic and permanently in place. It should be carefully articulated from a basis in the nature of the society and its language needs through implementation to on-going evaluation and development. Without this degree of coherence, significant gaps, such as in the quality and supply of language teachers, will occur and undermine the success of the policy (see ALLC 1996). In addition, both language learning itself and the reform of language education are long-term activities and so, to be effective, language education policy-making must take a long-term perspective. Australia had made great progress in language policy-making from 1978 to 1996 though the policies, as admirable as they were as first steps, illustrated the “good intentions” or “warm words” approach rather than rigour in design and review. In addition, as is difficult to avoid in a democratic system based around three-year elections and adversarial politics, they lacked a permanent structure for the development, review and updating of the policy. Consequently, with the advent of a conservative, reductionist government in 1996, language policy had been largely rejected or, at best, reduced to a series of questionable assertions about so-called “literacy” until the partial review of language policy referred to earlier was undertaken in late 2002. At the same time, the pressures of a large-scale immigration programme and the perceived economic benefits to be derived from offering English language learning opportunities to students from other countries have meant that the teaching of English as a second language has expanded and professionalised. Thus, the Australian situation illustrates both the benefits of systematic language policy-making and the defects that occur if the design of the policies and the approach to their development are not sufficiently systematic or lack rigour and permanency. Successful language policy-making requires a long-term vision, a policy that is seen as evolving, rigorous in design and implementation, and subject to on-going evaluation and development rather than the stop-go of adversarial politics that prevents the necessarily long-term goals of language policy implementation from being achieved. As the review cited earlier states, to be successful, it must have a long-term perspective and be cyclic rather than a linear series of stages (Erebus Consulting Partners 2002: 192 – 193).

The basic justification for having a language education policy derives, obviously, from the justification for language learning, the value attached to language skills, and the language needs of the society. These have been discussed at length in other papers (e.g., Ingram and Sasaki 2003) and won't be discussed in detail here. In any case, the vital importance to Japan of having a strong English language education policy has been spelled out in government policy statements which draw attention to such factors as globalisation; the economy, trade, and international competitiveness; national, social and educational development; the fostering of individual human development, intellectual development, and creativity; and international communication (e.g., Toyama 2002, MEXT 2002). For these purposes, it is essential that a nation develop practically useful levels of proficiency in the languages of which it has need and sound understanding of other cultures, especially, in this case, English and English-based culture though undoubtedly a comprehensive language policy for Japan would target other community and world languages as well.

In addition, the new millennium has started with stark illustrations of possibly the most fundamental reason for a strong language education programme: the need to foster positive and sympathetic attitudes towards other cultures and peoples, whether they are the indigenous or immigrant cultures within a country or those around the world. A recent UNESCO document on *Education in a Multilingual World* emphasises the importance of recognising the language rights of all people and comments:

Language is not only a tool for communication and knowledge but also a fundamental attribute of cultural identity and empowerment, both for the individual and the group. Respect for the languages of persons belonging to different linguistic communities therefore is essential to peaceful cohabitation. (UNESCO 2003: 16)

The document summarises the strong support that UNESCO provides for recognising the languages and cultures of all peoples, for ensuring that education policies and practices help all people (including ethnic minorities of indigenous or migrant origin) to maintain their own languages and cultures, and provide opportunities for all persons to learn other languages and cultures, to learn to understand people of other racial, linguistic and cultural groups, and to develop positive intercultural attitudes. The document cites some 13 international conventions adopted under the United Nations and then notes "certain basic guiding principles" common to all of them:

1. UNESCO supports mother tongue instruction as a means of improving educational quality ...
2. UNESCO supports bilingual and/or multilingual education at all levels of education as a means of promoting both social and gender equality and as a key element of linguistically diverse societies.
3. UNESCO supports language as an essential component of intercultural education in order to encourage understanding between different population groups and ensure respect for fundamental rights. (UNESCO 2003: 30)

In elaborating the third principle, the document goes on to say:

...the cultural component of language teaching and learning should be strengthened in order to gain a deeper understanding of other cultures; languages should not be simple linguistic exercises, but opportunities to reflect on other ways of life, other literatures, other customs. (UNESCO 2003: 33)

Concluding his review of the contribution that the World Federation of Modern Language Teachers (FIPLV) has made to the issue of language rights, the FIPLV President has stated:

As the world copes with the aftermath of September 11, the destruction of Afghanistan and the war in Iraq, it is timely that we focus squarely on the benefits of linguistic rights, of intercultural understanding, the acceptance of and respect for cultural and linguistic diversity and the role that languages can effectively assume in the fostering of peace. (Cunningham 2003: 7)

Coming from a very different direction, the head of the Australian Defence Forces, General Peter Cosgrove, has also emphasised the absolute primary importance of language learning in achieving world peace. He notes how all human beings have become “more interdependent,” that the “proliferation of linkages among nations is without precedence,” and he comments:

I cannot imagine a future in which people of all cultures and nations are not increasingly connected by ties of travel, commerce and migration.

And he goes on,

Language skills and cultural sensitivity will be the new currency of this world order. ...

Our future prosperity and security will depend on our ability to understand .. (other) cultures and to build bridges to the citizens of .. (other) nations and all our immediate neighbours.

Stating that language and culture learning is more important in ensuring security and world peace than military might or economic ties, Cosgrove goes on to state:

Commercial links, alone, will never render war unthinkable. What will, however, are mutual understanding and respect and the banishing of prejudice. ...

If the future is to be one of peace and prosperity our kids will need the capacity to engage in a dialogue with others of different cultures and creeds. (Cosgrove 2002)



In brief, language education serves many purposes: the development of practically useful levels of language skills needed by the society and by individuals in it, maintenance and strengthening of the identity of different racial, linguistic and cultural groups across a nation and around the world, the development of intercultural understanding, and the fostering of positive cross-cultural attitudes. The implications of these diverse roles suggest that an adequate national language education policy in any nation will have to take account of a variety of different languages, a variety of different goals, a variety of different curricula, and a variety of different methods. An adequate language education policy is necessarily, therefore, a complex document whose design and articulation will contribute substantially to its success or failure.

Before considering the nature and design of language or language education policy if it is to provide a solid basis on which to “search for the ideal,” it may be useful to consider the Australian experience of language policy-making since, as already noted, it illustrates both the benefits to be gained from national language policy-making and the defects that may occur if the policies are not sufficiently systematic or are not fully articulated from the nature and needs of society through policy proposals to implementation and review. While the discussion will be on language education policy in general, reference will also be made to the place of ESL/EFL in Australian language education policies.

### **3. The Australian Experience of Language Policy-Making**

#### **3.1 The Context**

Ethnically, Australia is one of the more diverse nations. Demographic data show, for example, that 22% of the Australian population of about 19 million were born overseas, another 27% have at least one parent born overseas, and, in 1998, only 39% of the overseas-born had come from English-speaking countries. According to the 1996 census data, 15% of the population speak a language other than English (LOTE) at home. The top ten community languages include English, Italian, a Chinese language, Greek, Arabic, Vietnamese, German, Spanish, Macedonian and Filipino but the total number of community languages is 15 to 20 times this. In addition to these languages, which are the product of 200 years of immigration, there are the indigenous, or Australian Aboriginal, languages which number about 90 that are “relatively widely” used and possibly 150 that are considered to be seriously at risk and spoken by only a handful of elderly persons (DEET 1991a: 93; see also Clyne and Kipp 2001; for other figures, see the Australian Bureau of Statistics website at [www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs/](http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs/)).

Australia’s trade and other international relationships also emphasise the relevance of other languages and cultures in addition to English. Though the American and British alliances remain important politically, much more numerous are the links to Asia-Pacific nations. In 1997-98, 85% of Australian merchandise went to countries other than the United States and New Zealand, about 55% went to East Asia, and 70% went to countries whose populations are predominantly non-European (Market Development Task Force Secretariat and the Trade and Economic Analysis Branch 1998). Also economically significant and adding greatly to the diversity of the people living in Australia are the foreign tourists and students who, in 1999, totalled approximately 3.4 million, equivalent to 18% or one in six of the

Australian population (Market Development Task Force Secretariat and the Trade and Economic Analysis Branch 1999: 32). The overseas student numbers have climbed consistently with the most recent reliable statistics showing that there were over a quarter of a million foreign students studying in Australia in 2001 (AEI 2003).

### **3.2 To the Early 20<sup>th</sup> Century**

Such diversity has always characterised Australia. Before Europeans settled there in the late 18<sup>th</sup> Century, it is estimated that there were some 300,000 Australian Aboriginal people, speaking approximately 250 different languages and some 600 dialects (cf. SSCEA 1984: 80 and Chapter 8, Clyne 1991: 1, Lo Bianco 1987: 10, DEETa 1991: Chapter 5, and the various papers in Cunningham *et al* in press). By the 1860s, the main languages were Aboriginal languages, English, Irish, Chinese, German, Gaelic, Welsh, French, the Scandinavian languages, and Italian (cf. Clyne 1991: 7). At that time, the Chinese-born population was second only to English speakers though German speakers were slightly more numerous, community language newspapers were common (especially in German, Chinese, French, Gaelic, Scandinavian and Welsh) (cf. Clyne 1991: 7 – 8), bilingual education existed in many schools, and the learning of both languages was viewed positively (cf. Clyne 1991: 8). By the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> Century, the concept of an “Australian” allowed for diversity of language and cultural origin, while still identifying as “Australian.”

However, by the early years of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century, reaction to world political pressures resulting from the Boer Wars and the first World War fostered a dominant Anglophile view in which being Australian was linked to loyalty to the British monarch and English monolingualism (cf. Clyne 1991: 11 - 12). This attitude, together with antagonisms to the large numbers of Chinese who had come to Australia during the gold rushes and opposition after Federation in 1901 to the use of Pacific Islanders as forced labour in the Queensland sugar fields, led to an increasingly discriminatory immigration policy. This “white Australia policy” sought to reinforce Australian identity as white, English monolingual and “British.” Within education, such attitudes led to the demise of bilingual education, some State legislation endorsed an “English only” education, and, more positively, this Anglophone attitude led to the adoption of a large-scale migrant education programme focussing on the teaching of English as a second language as a means to assimilate immigrants as rapidly as possible (cf. Clyne 1991: 15 – 18).

### **3.3 The 1940s to the 1960s**

The view of Australia as a largely white, English-monolingual society of British origin was further strengthened by the Second World War so that, by the beginning of the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century, education was aggressively monolingual with the only languages taught, largely for literary purposes, being the classical languages (Latin and Ancient Greek) together with French and German, largely justified by their proximity to England. The Prime Minister of the time stated that the society sought for Australia was one “devoid of foreign communities” and, hence, where only English was spoken (Martin 1972: 14).

Nevertheless, even though it occurred in the context of turning immigrants into “good Australians,” Australian English language education was progressive and, indeed, highly innovative. All immigrants were entitled to free English language tuition and the Federal Government funded a large-scale migrant education

programme for both children and adults. At its peak, the Adult Migrant Education Programme enrolled over 100,000 students at any one time and, to cater for the linguistically diverse classes, a new “direct” methodology was developed in which all the teaching was in English. This approach, known as the Australian Situational Method, was analytic and owed much to structural linguistics and behaviourist psychology. It reduced language teaching to the teaching of small segments of language whose meanings could be conveyed unambiguously through “situations,” drawings, teaching realia, and hand signs. This approach was not officially replaced until a major review of the AMEP in the late 1970s when, under the present writer’s guidance as academic adviser, new “on-arrival” and “on-going programmes” were developed based on a form of communicative, proficiency-focussed, and theme-based language teaching.

### **3.4 The Late 1960s and 1970s**

The 1970s saw multiculturalism emerge as the official form of Australian society and Australia re-oriented itself internationally away from Europe, especially Britain, towards Asia. This re-orientation both internally and externally was prompted by several factors, including changes in Australia’s demographic structure resulting from the large and diverse immigration programme, the drying-up of the traditional sources of migrants as social and economic conditions improved in Europe, and the after-math of Australia’s involvement in the Vietnam War, which caused a sudden and larger influx of migrants of non-European origin than it had ever received previously. In addition, from an economic standpoint, many Asian nations were gaining independence, strengthening their economies, and so were of growing interest for Australian aid, trade, and political attention.

The changing focus towards Asia was signalled by many events but, in language policy, by the first major enquiry into the teaching of Asian languages and cultures in Australia. This report was published in 1970 (Commonwealth Advisory Committee 1970), strongly reflected Australia’s realignment towards Asia, and advocated a substantial increase in the teaching of Asian languages and cultures. However, it did not attempt to embed those views within a systematic language education policy or to change the view of language learning from an essentially intellectual or literary pursuit towards more societal or utilitarian views. Its impact was, consequently, minimal.

The strongest political sign that the Australian people were ready for a major change of direction came in 1972 with the election of the first Labor Government at the national level for more than twenty years. This period from 1972 to 1975 is especially significant for the emergence of multiculturalism as a deliberate government policy and an increasingly accepted premise of the Australian people (cf. Clyne 1991: 19). In language education policy, it was increasingly realised, first, that many children needed specialist ESL teaching at school and that Australia had imported a vast resource of language skills, which would be wasted if steps were not taken to enable the languages to survive and be used. Consequently, bilingual education and language maintenance programmes started to appear, government support was offered to ethnic schools, and the teaching of the so-called “community languages” was made available to both children in school and to adults (especially professionals dealing with people from the communities). Enquiries and reports into multiculturalism proliferated, generally advocating increased attention to language

education (e.g., the report of the Committee on the Teaching of Migrant Languages in Schools (Department of Education 1976: 35)). Other initiatives to support and develop multiculturalism and the languages and cultures of the community included, for example, funding for ethnic radio and television to broadcast in the languages of the Australian community, ethnic newspapers and other publications were encouraged, the National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters was established, international covenants to recognize human rights and ethnic equality were signed, legislation outlawing ethnic or racial discrimination was put in place, and commissions and community organisations to counteract racism were established. This momentum continued despite a change of government in 1975 and, in 1978, one of the most significant reports was adopted. The Galbally Review comprehensively reviewed multicultural policies and, in the language area, advocated support for language maintenance programmes, expanded community language learning in schools, encouraged professionals and other people in public contact positions to learn community languages, and called for a major review and updating of the Adult Migrant Education Program. Its essential position was summed up in these words:

...every person should be able to maintain his or her culture without prejudice or disadvantage and should be encouraged to understand and embrace other cultures... (Galbally Review 1978:4).

### **3.5 The Language Policy Era: the Late 1970s to 1996**

Despite the development of multiculturalism through the 1970s with its many projects to encourage children and adults to learn community languages, there was no attempt to develop a comprehensive or systematic language education policy and the inexorable decline in language enrolments in secondary and tertiary education that commenced in the 1960s continued. Consequently, a number of people and organisations, in particular the Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations, started agitating for a more systematic and comprehensive approach to language and language education policy-making and for the creation of a national advisory body to oversight language policy and related research (e.g., Ingram 1978, 1978a, AFMLTA 1982).

The first significant governmental step occurred on 25 May 1982, when the Australian Senate announced its inquiry into "The Development and Implementation of a Coordinated Language Policy for Australia." The report, which was tabled in Federal Parliament in 1984, strongly recommended that a national policy on languages be developed (SSCEA 1984) on the basis of four guiding principles:

- *competence in English;*
- *maintenance and development of languages other than English;*
- *provision of services in languages other than English;*
- *opportunities for learning second languages.* (SSCEA 1984: 224)

Subsequently, delays occurred but, in 1987, the first national policy on languages was adopted (Lo Bianco 1987). By this time, however, the lobbying that had occurred from the late 1970s and the strong public interest that had been generated

prompted most States and Territories to develop their own language education policies and to reform their language teaching programmes.

Though not without defects, the distinctive features of the first *National Policy on Languages* (Lo Bianco 1987) lie in the stimulus it provided to renewing language education in Australia, the wide-ranging nature of the recommendations made, and the breadth of the social context in which the policy was placed. It dealt comprehensively with language issues in Australia with chapters on the rationale for a national policy, the status and teaching of English and other languages including Aboriginal languages, and the provision of language services such as translating and interpreting, the media, libraries, and language testing. The Policy's deficiencies were few but significant. Most fundamentally, though it contained many good ideas, it lacked the sort of rigorous framework that the present writer had advocated and that will be described subsequently (e.g., AFMLTA 1982, Ingram 1994). Consequently, significant gaps occurred in such areas as teacher education, teacher supply, adult and child English language literacy, and the on-going evaluation of the policy and its programmes. Though some reference is made to the role of language skills in the development of industry and trade, the notion was not developed and, in subsequent years, a number of other reports were commissioned to look at these issues (e.g., Garnaut 1989; Ingleson 1989; Leal et al 1991; Stanley et al 1990). These deficiencies led to a major review and the adoption in 1991 of a new policy, *The Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (ALLP) (DEET 1991, 1991a).

The ALLP was less comprehensive than the 1987 policy but placed greater emphasis on English literacy and on the economic relevance of language skills. It focussed around English literacy, the learning of English and other languages as second or foreign languages, Aboriginal languages and Aboriginal literacy, and gave some attention to language services (including interpreting and translation, library services, and the media). It also addressed some implementation procedures and advisory mechanisms including the formation of the Australian Language and Literacy Council as the principal advisory body on language policy to the Federal Education Minister. The basic policy position was summed up in the Minister's foreword:

We should all aspire to an Australia whose citizens are literate and articulate...

Australian English...is our national language. But Australia's cultural vitality is also the product of other languages spoken in our community...

...as important as proficiency in Australian English is for Australians, we also need to enhance our ability to communicate with the rest of the world. ... Many more Australians need to learn a second language. (DEET 1991: iii - iv)

The policy identifies four goals, the first two of which were:

Goal 1: All Australian residents should develop and maintain a level of spoken and written English which is appropriate for a range of contexts, with the support of education and training programs addressing their diverse learning needs.

**Goal 2: The learning of languages other than English must be substantially expanded and improved to enhance educational outcomes and communication within both the Australian and international community. (DEET 1991: 4, 14, 19, 20)**

It is very significant that the policy saw the main justification for fostering language skills as their contribution to economic reform, a principle that received growing emphasis through the 1990s. The policy encouraged the learning of all languages but identified Australian English and fourteen other languages as priority languages in the education system. Of these, Asian languages were given particular priority and, for the first time, the policy sought to systematically extend the teaching of languages into Primary Schools.

The ALLP is essentially a language education policy rather than a language policy and fails to situate the education policy within general language policy. Like the earlier policy, it was also deficient in structure and, though again it contained many excellent proposals, it lacked a rational and systematic framework, and some pivotal issues, especially language teacher quality and supply, received insufficient attention and these deficiencies undermined its success. However, the momentum the ALLP gave to seeing an economic rationale for language education gained further realisation in 1994 when a major supplementary report was adopted on the teaching of Asian languages and cultures. This report, entitled *Asian Languages and Australia's Economic Future* but commonly known as the *National Asian Languages/Studies Strategy for Australian Schools* (NALSSAS), became, in fact, the main driver of language education policy in Australia over the ensuing decade (COAG 1994). It was thorough in its approach and adopted a more rigorous approach to policy design. Its particular strengths lay in its recognition of the importance of Asian languages with Japanese, Chinese, Indonesian and Korean identified as of highest priority. It set specific proficiency targets to be achieved in schools (ISLPR 2 or 3 by Year 12 (Ingram and Wylie 1979/1999)), strongly recommended that foreign language learning commence in early Primary School, and set minimum skill levels for Asian language teachers. Its main weaknesses lay in its undue optimism about the rate at which learners would gain proficiency in the target languages and about teacher supply.

### **3.6 Since 1996**

Language policy in Australia went into serious decline following the election of a new Australian Government in 1996. Without language policy leadership at the national level and, in fact, with significantly reduced Federal Government funding for language programmes, activity at the State and Territory level also declined. The principal advisory body on language policy, the Australian Language and Literacy Council, was abolished, funding virtually ceased for language research and for the principal language research organisation, the National Language and Literacy Institute of Australia, and, in 2002, funding was also abolished for the national Asian languages strategy. However, in late 2002, the Australian Government announced a review, not of language policy as a whole, but of its support for language teaching in schools (see <http://www.dest.gov.au/schools/languagereview/index.htm>). The long and detailed report of the review was publicly released in June 2003 (Erebus

Consulting Partners 2002). It went much further than simply reviewing the Federal Government's funding programme for languages in schools and, in the terms noted at the start of this paper, recommended that a new national language education policy be developed and that a long-term perspective be taken (see Erebus Consulting Partners 2002: 192 – 193). Even more promisingly, the 2003 Federal budget announced a number of new initiatives in support of language education. The Budget papers refer to the value of languages "to Australia's economic growth in a competitive global environment," allocated substantial funding to support language education at all levels of schooling (including after-hours ethnic schools), announced a new scholarship scheme to fund "immersion experience" for teachers in the language, country and culture about which they are teaching, and established a loan scheme to assist Australian university students to study overseas. In addition, the budget announced funding for a new National Centre for Language Training to provide intensive "immersion training" for business, government departments, and teachers (see <http://aei.dest.gov.au/budget/default.htm> for more information on these initiatives). While these are laudable initiatives, it is regrettable that they were not proposed within the context of a comprehensive language or language education policy since the history of similar developments through the 1970s and early '80s is that projects outside of the context of a comprehensive language or language education policy are ultimately ineffective. It is to be hoped that these announcements signal a genuine willingness on the part of the Federal Government to provide leadership in language policy development.

### **3.7 English Language Policy in Australia**

#### **3.7.1 English Policy in general**

English is the national language in Australia even though the value of other languages is also recognised. According to the 1996 census figures, English is the exclusive language of the home for 81.9% of people. Of the others, 12.4% speak another language in the home but claim "good proficiency" in English while 2.8% claim "poor" knowledge of English (Statistics Section, Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs 2001: 2). The authors of the report commented:

Those people that speak a language other than English at home present to Australia both a challenge and a resource: the challenge is to ensure that their communication skills in English are adequate to participate in the social and economic life of the Australian community; the resource is the repository of multilingual skills they offer to Australian society and the economy. (Statistics Section, Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs 2001: 2)

The 1996 English Proficiency Census (Statistics Section, Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs 2001) emphasised the importance of English for both employment purposes and income level. The overall labour force participation rate, for example, for English-only Australians in the 1996 census was 64% but only 32% for those with poor English while employed people with poor English had markedly smaller incomes: 73.5% of those with poor English received incomes of less than \$300 a week compared with 47.3% of those who spoke only English. At the upper levels, just 10% of those with poor English received incomes

of \$700 or more a week compared with 32.1% of those with English only. (Statistics Section, Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs 2001: 6, 22, 27; see also DEET 1991a: xiv, 9)

The general policy situation, as in the first goal of the Australian Language and Literacy Policy noted earlier, is that all Australians require a level of English appropriate to their needs in a range of contexts (cf. DEET 1991:4). This goal is implemented through a range of programmes addressing child and adult literacy and the needs of people of non-English speaking background. However, here we shall focus only on policies in the area of English as a second language.

### **3.7.2 English as a Second or Foreign Language**

Though education is a State responsibility in Australia, immigration and trade are Federal responsibilities. Consequently, the provision of ESL programmes for child and adult migrants and policies in relation to English for overseas students fall within Federal policy-making.

**Migrant English Programme<sup>3</sup>:** Essentially, most newly arrived immigrants and other people granted permanent residence since July 1991 have a right to access appropriate ESL programmes at least to a proficiency level where their survival or vocational needs are met. The child programme is funded by the Federal Government but administered by State and Territory Education Departments. The Adult Migrant English Program (AMEP) provides up to 510 hours of basic English language tuition though there are also vocationally oriented programmes to assist those seeking employment. The Immigration Department webpage indicates that around 6 million hours of ESL tuition is provided each year at a cost of about \$100 million.

Two major changes in the AMEP have been occurring under successive governments over the last two decades. First, whereas the adult migrant English programme had been delivered from migrant ESL centres managed by one of the education services in the various States and Territories, it is now put out to public tender and is delivered in most places by consortia of private or public institutions including, in most States, the Technical and Further Education (TAFE) Colleges. Second, increasing demands are being placed on applicants for migration to Australia to demonstrate a specified level of English proficiency (generally assessed using the IELTS Test) and, in certain categories, they may be required to pay a substantial levy against the future cost of providing them with ESL tuition. Many skilled migrants may be required to have “vocational” proficiency (equivalent to about IELTS 6 or ISLPR 3 (Ingram and Wylie 1979/1999)) while many vocational registration authorities also set their own proficiency levels for registration purposes.

The AMEP offers General English tuition in three broad categories:

1. full or part-time tuition in classes catering for students of different ages, abilities and educational backgrounds;
2. distance learning mode using a package of course materials, audio and video tapes and regular telephone contact with a qualified teacher; and
3. the Home Tutor scheme under which a trained volunteer visits clients in their homes.



The aim of the AMEP is to enable clients to achieve “functional” English, which is defined as the basic language skills necessary to deal with everyday social situations and some work situations in English. The curriculum is competency-based, using the *Certificates in Spoken and Written English*, a curriculum framework oriented towards the survival needs of newly-arrived immigrants. The programme is also designed to provide information on the Australian way of life and services available. Specifically designed course materials are available combining ESL tuition with other information needed by new arrivals in the country. Some of these are available both in book form and on-line.

Some quality assurance, professional development, materials development, and research support are provided especially through the National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research (NCELTR) shared by Macquarie University in Sydney and LaTrobe University in Melbourne (see [www.nceltr.mq.edu.au](http://www.nceltr.mq.edu.au)). Being a government-funded programme, detailed reporting requirements exist and provide substantial quality assurance. The AMEP Reporting and Management System (ARMS) includes a competency-based reporting system to record learning gains by students in the programme. The *International Second Language Proficiency Ratings* (Ingram and Wylie 1979/1999) were originally developed for use in the AMEP to measure the English language proficiency of persons entering or exiting from the AMEP. Though the ISLPR is still in widespread use, the ARMS system requires the use of a competencies scale (called the *National Reporting System* or NRS) based principally around English language competencies required in the workplace.

In addition, all centres offering ESL training to migrants, like those offering ESL to overseas students, are subject to accreditation by an authority established by the Australian Government for quality assurance purposes, the National English Accreditation Scheme (NEAS). To be accredited, an ESL provider (whether in the AMEP or in the overseas student programme) must meet certain minimum standards in facilities, staffing (including staff qualifications), curriculum, marketing, and student support services. All centres, even the most reputable based in universities, are subject to regular inspections, regular re-accreditation, and the possibility of unannounced spot checks.

**ESL for Overseas Students:** Since the Australian Government changed the student visa rules in 1986 to encourage Australian educational institutions to attract full fee-paying overseas students, the ESL programme for overseas students has expanded rapidly. It is now much larger than the AMEP in terms of the numbers of students entering the programme each year and serves predominantly five types of clients:

1. overseas students who require additional English prior to undertaking degree studies or other training;
2. overseas students wishing to learn English for personal, vocational or some other purpose but not to undertake further study;
3. groups of overseas students, generally from an educational institution overseas, who come to Australia for a short “study tour” combining English with tourism, recreational activities or short academic or vocational training programmes;

4. overseas students enrolled in academic or training programmes who require on-going support either in English language or in the expectations of the Australian education culture; and
5. overseas-based students who attend Australian-run English language programmes at centres located in overseas countries but wholly or jointly owned by Australian institutions.

The first two programmes are commonly known as English Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students (ELICOS) though the other programmes are generally delivered by ELICOS Centres. The English language programme is complemented in most centres by the provision of accommodation services based on homestay with Australian families, in particular to enhance the students' opportunities to use English and to experience "everyday" Australian culture.

The ELICOS industry is closely regulated to ensure its quality. As noted earlier, all ESL centres and their courses are subject to accreditation and regular re-accreditation by NEAS. Control over this is exerted through the student visa system: without accreditation, visas will not be issued to overseas students to attend the centre or to take its courses.

The rapid growth in ESL teaching in Australia has had a major impact on the demand for trained ESL teachers. The NEAS regulations require an ESL teacher to have an undergraduate degree and at least 100 hours of specialist ESL teacher training. However, many centres prefer to employ teachers who are eligible for teacher registration. In other words, the basic qualifications required by serious ELICOS teachers include an undergraduate degree, basic teacher education (e.g., a Bachelor of Education or general degree plus a Graduate Diploma in Education), the equivalent of a major in ESL teaching methodology, and several years' teaching experience. In addition, to gain a continuing appointment in a reputable ELICOS Centre, teachers generally require a Masters degree in applied linguistics (or its equivalent). ESL teaching is very much a growth industry in Australia, with good employment opportunities and strong demand for well-trained staff.

#### **4. Language Policy-Making**

Through the 1980s and early 1990s, Australia undoubtedly made considerable progress in the development of language and language education policy. However, there were also serious defects in the approach adopted. In particular, the lack of sufficient rigour in evaluating needs, in developing policy, and in articulating policy to implementation, and the failure to integrate on-going evaluation and revision into the policies led to critical deficiencies and a stop-go approach, which undermined the overall success of the policies. In drawing implications for language policy-making in Japan as it "searches for the ideal", it is worth considering briefly what form a more rigorous approach to effective language or language education policy-making might take.

##### **4.1 A Rational Approach to Language Policy-Making<sup>4</sup>**

Even in those countries which have not articulated an *overt* language or language education policy, it is inevitable that a *de facto* policy exists. In Australia, for instance, in the 1950s and 1960s when there was little attention given to language

education, the very lack of a policy meant that, at the school level for instance, certain decisions affecting the teaching of languages were made according to the importance, as perceived by school principals and others, that was accorded to languages by senior educational administrators, such as the Directors-General of Education in each State or Territory. Through the 1970s, there were many recommendations made in multicultural reports and these together with the action or inaction taken by the education providers themselves amounted to a *de facto* policy even though no comprehensive policy had been articulated. The problem with such an approach is that the effective policy relies on the perceptions of the education providers, it lacks coordination, and it usually bears little relationship to actual societal need (which usually has not been researched and about which most of the providers usually have little firm information). Consequently the *de facto* but effective policy fails to meet the real needs of the society, the language teaching system is at best patchy, and the providers, including the teachers, often fail to reflect the actual policies, they may fail even to implement the curriculum in the ways in which it is intended, and, overall, the resources allocated to language education will fail to match either the need or the *covert* policies that the authorities believe are being implemented. There is some evidence that this may be the situation in Japan, as the survey in the Akita region to be mentioned later may suggest. In brief, if a nation is serious about language education and the value of language skills, it is desirable that policies be developed and be made *overt* so that they can guide all aspects of policy implementation, including resource allocation, curriculum development, and teaching. Not least, the *overt* development and adoption of a national language or language education policy signals to the society, to the education providers, and to the learners that languages and language skills are important and valued.

The present writer's approach to language policy-making has been written up in a number of places (e.g., Ingram 1994, 1993) and emphasises the rational nature of language policy-making. Like applied linguistics in general (cf. Ingram 1980), language policy-making is decision-making or *problem-solving*, i.e., it entails making decisions about languages, about how to satisfy the language-related needs of society and of individuals or it entails solving language-related components of "problems," "issues" or "needs" such as how to maintain and extend the level of a nation's language resources, how to maximize the effectiveness of international trade, and so on. In being problem-oriented, i.e., in seeking to solve particular language-related "problems," "issues" or "needs" that exist in a society, language policy-making, like applied linguistics in general, is essentially a practical activity but, also like applied linguistics, it is theoretical in the sense of being both *theory-based* and *theory-making* (cf. Ingram 1980). To be rational rather than based on "warm words" and good aspirations, language policy-making is *theory-based* in the sense that, like applied linguistics, it draws on the fundamental sciences that inform the problem to be solved. In language policy-making, the contributory sciences include the linguistic sciences but also any other field that informs any particular language problem (e.g., political science, demography, psychology, economics, trade, marketing, and so on). The policy-makers' task is to use insights from the relevant sciences or information sources to elucidate the essential nature of the problem and deduce possible solutions. To do so, the policy-makers must have available both the theoretical knowledge and the practical experience of the problem situation that make the characteristics of the

problem clear and enable them to derive adequate insights and deduce viable solutions.

This *theory-based* notion of language policy-making has implications for the people who might be employed to develop language and language education policies and leads one to question the common practice of applying what is sometimes called the “management principle” to policy-making, i.e., the practice popular amongst Australian bureaucrats and politicians of putting “managers,” “eminent persons,” political affiliates, general educationalists, or even accountants, into language policy-making positions rather than experienced and qualified practitioners, applied linguists, or similar experts. To the extent that such persons apply their presumed expertise of organization or budget-control to the development and implementation of language policy and accept the advice of experts and practitioners in developing language policy and its implementation, their involvement is appropriate and even necessary but, when they intrude into decisions that involve the nature of language or language learning, they are as prone to error as any other layperson making decisions in areas in which they have had no training. The converse is equally applicable since language policy-making also involves decisions that go beyond the scope of applied linguists. The need is for language and language education policy to be developed by teams that include persons with relevant knowledge and experience in the various areas (including government, education, politics, the community, and industry) whose needs the policy is designed to meet.

Policy-making is also *theory-making* because the policy developed is essentially a theory about the nature of the problem and how to resolve it. National language policy-making, for example, essentially proposes a theory about the nature of the society’s language needs at the societal, group or individual levels and how to meet those needs. This notion is important because, if language policy-making is about theory-making, the validity of the “theory” has to be tested and hence monitoring, evaluation and review become integral parts of the implementation of the policy, features that were noted earlier as having been deficient in Australian language policy-making.

Figures 1 and 2 illustrate the structure of this process for applied linguistics and for language and language education policy-making.

This approach is not only theory-based and theory-making but it is also *research-based* in three senses: first, research is needed to develop the fundamental sciences and to gather the information on which the whole rational process depends; second, research is needed to identify the nature of the problems to be resolved, the needs to be met, the goals and objectives to be sought, and the methodology or implementation to be adopted; and third, evaluation, which is essentially a form of research in practice, is an integral part of the process and impacts on all stages from the fundamental sciences to policy formulation and implementation. Thus, a viable national language policy desirably requires the support of a research-based organization, a national language policy centre, or a strong applied linguistics research system through the universities as research institutions to feed research into the development, implementation, evaluation and review of the policy.

Language or language education policy also needs to be adequate in at least three senses of having *descriptive, predictive, and prescriptive adequacy*. First, for language policy to meet the needs of the society, it must accurately identify the

nature of the society and the needs both of the society as a whole and of individuals, and organisations or groups within it, i.e., it must be *descriptively adequate*.

Second, to be *predictively adequate*, the policy must also identify actual or desirable trends in the evolution of the society and its international relationships so as to predict the future language needs. In other words, language and language education policies must not only respond to current needs but, because it takes a long time to change language services, not least language teaching, and because it takes a long time to develop language proficiency through the education system, it is essential that policies be forward-looking or predictive. Finding the appropriate balance between responding to current needs and catering for probable and possible future needs has important implications for language policy-making. On the one hand, current needs are more obvious, they are likely to provide more motivation for language learners, education administrators at the system and school levels, and funders but, if they are the only basis on which language education provisions are made, the society will be left with serious shortages of language skills when the needs change whether as the result of demographic changes, changes in international relationships, or changes arising from such crisis situations as wars. Thus, for example, there is evidence that the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan found the United States acutely short of skills in the languages of those countries just as Australia's involvement in East Timor found the Australian military lacking in the languages of the nations that formed the United Nations contingent sent to re-establish peace (see Cosgrove 2002). The Japanese Government's education policies also emphasise this future orientation. In her Foreword to the policies, for example, the Education Minister stated:

For Japan to develop as a dynamic nation in the 21<sup>st</sup> century and to ensure a bright future whereby children can embrace and realise their hopes and dreams, I believe it is important that education be a foundation for the nation's next hundred years ...

For Japan to effectively face the new era and continue to develop as a member of the international community, an urgent challenge is to introduce reform to education, which forms the foundation of the nation, and nurture people who can meet the challenges of the new era. (Toyama 2002)

Elsewhere, the Ministry's policy documents refer to the need "to clearly demonstrate educational objectives for the future" and subsequently they say:

Education is ... inextricably linked to the future of society and the nation. For this reason, in order that Japan can develop as a vibrant nation, it is vital that education be reinforced for the nation's next 100 years. (see MEXT 2001: Section 4, p. 3)

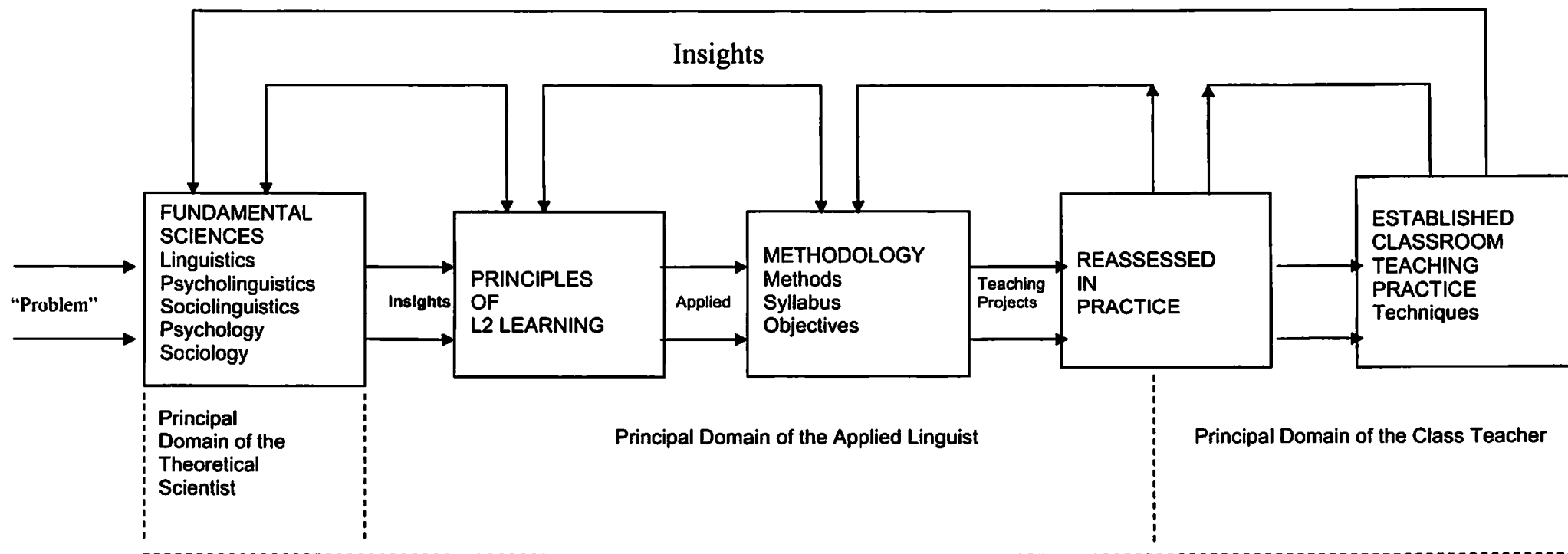
To cater for future needs at the same time as responding to current felt needs, a language education policy must balance its priority languages across both sectors, encourage the learning of a range of languages (including but not limited to those of immediate need), encourage the provision of language learning opportunities not only within the formal education system but in other situations such as in private

language schools, in extension and community education classes, and in ethnic community schools, and also make provision for the intensive teaching of languages when special demands arise that future planning has not adequately catered for (see above in Section III.6, for example, the funding allocated in the May 2003 budget in Australia for a National Centre for Language Training).

Third, a language or language education policy must be *prescriptively adequate* since a policy that does no more than set goals or utter “warm words” about languages, language skills and language teaching is pointless if it has no effect on the provision of services or on language teaching and language learning. For it to be prescriptively adequate, the policy must be worked through into specific implementation recommendations so that every aspect of the policy is both realisable and realised in practice. This has profound implications for the structure of language or language education policy, implications that are undoubtedly difficult to implement but which impose a necessary discipline on the policy-makers. One obvious example is seen in the NALSSAS policy in Australia referred to earlier: it makes highly desirable recommendations about language proficiency goals, the language and pedagogical proficiency of the teachers, and the numbers of students at the main exit points; however, the policy document fails to identify how sufficient numbers of teachers of sufficient quality are to be recruited and employed and consequently the desirable goals are unachievable, have not been achieved, and the value of the policy is greatly reduced.

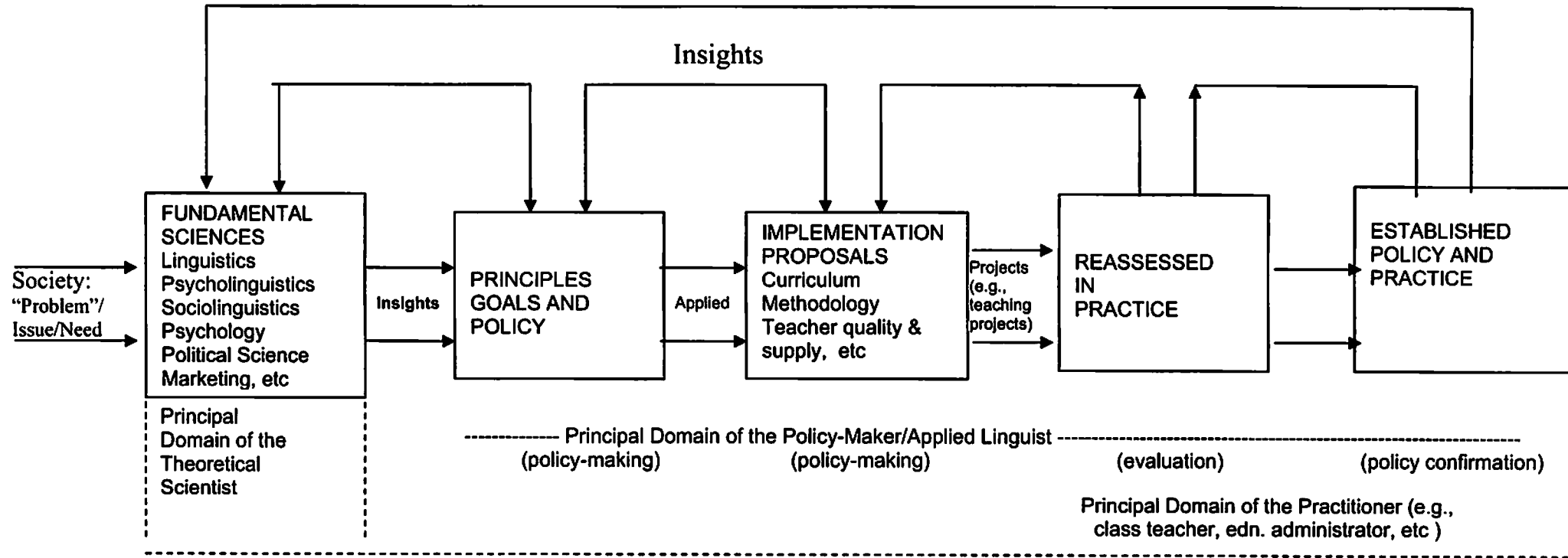
In summary, this rational approach to policy-making entails a rational understanding of the issues involved, the development of insights into the problem to be resolved, thence the postulation of a “theory,” “principles” or approach to solving the problem, the clear identification of the ultimate goals to be achieved and the intermediate objectives to be sought, and the implementation steps to be undertaken. In addition, for the “theory,” principles or policy to be tested and for the whole process to be self-correcting of errors or inadequacies and responsive to changing needs, it must integrally include an evaluation and revision process. As noted earlier, this process should be seen as long-term and, as the 2002 Australian review noted (see above), it should be seen as cyclic, as the on-going evaluation and review aspect allows, rather than being seen as a linear series of stages with periodic changes of direction or a stop-go-change pattern as is always likely where the decision-making process is dominated by politicians subject to periodic electoral change. In brief, a policy must be descriptively, predictively and prescriptively adequate.

**Figure 1: A Model of Applied Linguistics  
(in the context of language teaching practice)**



(Based on Ingram 1980:42)

**Figure 2: A Model for Language Policy-Making and Language Education Planning**



(Based on Ingram 1980:42)



## 4.2 The Structure of Language Policy

This view of language or language education policy-making leads to clear implications for the structure of a rationally developed language or language education policy. The basic “problem” to be resolved is how to develop and maintain the society's language resources and how to meet the society's and individuals' language-related needs. Hence a policy must be based on the present and changing nature of the society and commence with a description of the features of the society that are relevant in identifying present and future language needs and the steps to be taken to satisfy them. Thence the policy must specify the goals and objectives to be achieved and enunciate the policy proposals. However, idealistic policy statements are worthless if they cannot be implemented and so an adequate policy must include actual implementation recommendations enabling each element of the policy to be related to the actual real-life situation and realised in practice. All elements of the policy and its implementation must also be justified, the rationale made obvious, and, as already discussed, be subject to on-going evaluation and revision. Thus, a rational policy should contain at least the following elements:

- a description of the nature of the society the policy is to serve;
- a statement of needs (both societal and personal);
- policy proposals;
- implementation recommendations;
- indicators of success or the basis for the evaluation of the policy and its implementation; and
- a summary rationale for each policy proposal and implementation recommendation.

To emphasize the rational and articulated nature of language policy and to impose rigour on policy development and implementation, the present writer uses “rational frameworks,” a device which requires the policy to commence with a description of the nature of the society it is to serve and is presented in, and articulated through, a table with interrelated columns headed

- Needs (Societal and Individual)
- Goals and Objectives
- Policy Recommendations
- Implementation Proposals
- Indicators of Success
- Rationale

Each item in a column to the left must be traced through the columns to the right so that, for instance, a need will lead to a goal or objective, a policy principle and then into implementation, one or more indicators of success, and a justification or rationale. The present writer has written at length about this approach to policy design, he has used it in major language policy submissions and in the Queensland language education policy produced in 1990 (see Ingram 1994, 1993; Ingram and John 1990; AFMLTA 1982).

## **5. IMPLICATIONS FOR JAPAN**

### **5.1 Implications for the Design and Structure of Language Policy**

As a foreigner with little experience of Japan, it is not appropriate for the present writer to draw close implications from the Australian experience for Japan. However, the Australian experience has implications for language policy-making in general and possibly persons with more knowledge of the Japanese situation may see those lessons as relevant as Japan “searches for the ideal” in language education policy. Here, only the most general observations will be made and will include some findings from a joint project on language teaching in Australia and Japan being conducted by Griffith and Akita Universities (see also Ingram 2003). The initial findings of that project seem to have some implications for language policy-making in both countries.

Thus far, this paper has sought to provide a brief overview of language policy in Australia with some focus on English language policy and has sought to situate the experience of language education policy-making in Australia in a more general consideration of the nature and structure of rational language policy-making. Perhaps the most fundamental implication to be drawn for other language policy-making situations is the vital importance of a rigorous, coherent and systematic approach to policy development and implementation and, within that, the critical importance of considering how to maintain the relevance and quality of the programmes offered. The most serious breakdown in language policy-making in Australia was to fail to draw policy principles through into detailed implementation and, in particular, to give insufficient attention to the provision of well trained, language proficient teachers. Australia is not the only instance of such a breakdown. In Korea, for example, Kwon (2000) has noted the adverse effects of making the ESL programme dependent on generalist Primary School teachers with minimal English language proficiency and no specialist training supported by professionally untrained native English speakers from overseas. These experiences have a serious warning for Japan since the “Strategic Plan to cultivate ‘Japanese with English Abilities’” proposes to use native English speakers as “special instructors,” “regular teachers” in junior and senior high schools and elementary schools with a target of 11,500 assistant language teachers (see MEXT 2002: 4). Since there is no reference to native speakers being required to have had language teacher training, they are no more suitable for teaching English than a Japanese in the street is suitable for teaching Japanese and to make the success of English language education policy dependent on them inserts a certain source of breakdown into the policy.

In brief, the Australian experience of language policy-making and language education planning would suggest the desirability of adopting a rigorous approach to policy development with careful attention to the detailed articulation of policy from societal and individual need, through policy principles to implementation, evaluation and justification.

### **5.2 Project on Cross-Cultural Attitudes**

In recent years, the present writer has cooperated with colleagues at Akita University on a project looking at the relationship between language learning and cross-cultural attitudes. This project raises a number of issues highly pertinent to language education policy-making. In particular, if there is one lesson that the world

can draw from the rise of terrorism, the Iraq war, the Israel-Palestine conflict, and many other world events, it is that there is no safety in military might; the future of the world and the security of all peoples depend, fundamentally, on their developing positive attitudes towards each other, on their accepting the rights of others to be different, and on their valuing human diversity in all its forms. As noted earlier, the head of the Australian Defence Forces has strongly argued that language education has a major role in working towards world peace (Cosgrove 2002) and there is strong theoretical and empirical evidence that the most effective tool a society has available to it to work towards peace and to foster positive inter-cultural attitudes is appropriate language education. The implications of the research for language education policy and for language teaching itself are complex and cannot be discussed here other than to say that the mere fact of learning another language does not inevitably produce more positive cross-cultural attitudes and the design of the language programme and the methodology used to teach it are critical variables (e.g., Ingram 2003a, 2002, 2000; Ingram *et al* 2003, Ingram *et al* 1999).

In order to examine the relationship between cross-cultural attitudes and language learning programmes and to draw implications for language education policy in Australia and Japan, the present writer and colleagues at Akita University, the Japanese Red Cross Junior College in Akita, and the University of Southern Queensland have looked at the cross-cultural attitudes of middle school students in Brisbane, Australia and in the Akita prefecture, Japan. The Brisbane study has been written up in several places (e.g., Ingram 2003a, 2002, 2000; Ingram *et al* 2003, Ingram *et al* 1999). The Akita study was conducted in the latter part of 2002, the teacher data has been analysed, but the analysis of the quite massive student data is currently being finalised and will be written up in the near future (some additional findings are reported in Ingram 2004). Here, the teacher data will be briefly discussed since it has some quite far-reaching implications for language education policy-making both in general and in Japan.

Forty-seven teachers from ten schools in and around Akita City participated in the survey. For the most part, the teachers were well experienced with 8% (4 teachers) having taught for 3 years or less, 13% (6 teachers) having taught for 4 to 7 years, and 79% (37 teachers) having taught for 8 or more years (Table 1). None had taught overseas, 21% (10 teachers) had not visited an English-speaking country, 40% (19 teachers) had made 1 or 2 visits to English-speaking countries, and 33% (16 teachers) had made from 3 to 9 visits to English-speaking countries (Table 2).

**Table 1: Teaching Experience in Japan and Overseas**

Teaching Experience		0 years	1 year	2 or 3 years	4 or 5 years	6 or 7 years	8 or more years
Japan	No.	2	1	1	3	3	37
	%	4%	2%	2%	6.5%	6.5%	79%
Overseas	No.	0	0	0	0	0	0
	%	0	0	0	0	0	0

**Table 2: Number of Visits to English-speaking Countries made by the Teachers**

Visits to English-Speaking Countries											Tots.
No. of Visits	DNA	0	1	2	3	4	6	7	8	9	
No. of T'ers	2	10	11	8	3	7	1	1	3	1	47
% of T'ers	4%	21%	23%	17%	6%	15%	2%	2%	6%	2%	73% had visited

The teachers were asked their **preferred goals** for their language programmes (Table 3). There was strong consensus that the most important goal is to communicate orally with native speakers of English, rated as of highest priority by 27% of the teachers and in the top five goals by 87%. In contrast, the goals related to reading and writing were given low ratings with only 5% and 2% respectively rating them as of most importance and only 38% and 37% rating them in the top five. The second most important goal was to enable students to gain positive attitudes towards language learning in general (rated as of highest priority by 24% of teachers and in the top five by 54%). The other goals that were highly rated included “to learn about the culture of native speakers,” which 62% of teachers placed in the top five goals though only 2% rated it as the most important. The goal “to use English accurately across the four skills” was firmly supported with 18% of the teachers rating it as of most importance and 53% placing it amongst the five most important goals.

With regard to goals related to cross-cultural attitudes, it was striking to see that the goal “to gain positive attitudes about native speakers of English” was rated as of greatest importance by just 4% of teachers and in the top five goals by fewer than half (49%) of the teachers. As already noted, “to learn about the culture of native speakers of English” was rated as of most importance by only 2% of the teachers but within the top five by 62%. Curiously, rather more teachers (11%) rated the goal “to enable students to evaluate their own cultural preconceptions” as of highest importance and 56% placed it in the top 5 goals. In brief, the goals specifically relevant to cross-cultural attitudes were given only moderate priority by the teachers and were given considerably less weighting than the general “language learning” goals though the support for the goal “to enable students to evaluate their own cultural preconceptions” is interesting and relevant.

The teachers were asked to identify their preferred **teaching/learning activities** (Table 4). The striking outcome was the priority given to “traditional,” formal methods with more than half of the teachers saying that they “often” or “very often” used pronunciation drills (89%), formal grammar teaching (83%), and grammar exercises (75%). 58% said that they used translation exercises “often” or “very often.” “Communicative activities” ranked 10<sup>th</sup> in priority order with just 29% of teachers saying they used them “often” or “very often,” 49% saying they used them “sometimes,” and 23% saying they “never” or “rarely” used them. Other activities that promote practical proficiency and provide some opportunity for learners to use the language creatively or for communicative purposes ranked even lower, with, for example, language games being used “often” or “very often” by 21%,

interaction with native speakers by 20%, projects about culture by 17%, student to student conversations by 17%, role plays (commonly used in “communicative” language courses) by 7%, free reading by 8%, and story writing by 6%. The focus in the nine most preferred activities is clearly on formal knowledge and “traditional” methods rather than creative or productive use of the language. This contrasts with, for example, the national strategic plan to cultivate *Japanese with English abilities*, which emphasises “basic practical communication abilities” (MEXT 2002: Section II, p. 3).

**Table 3: Teacher ratings of Eleven Goals of Language Teaching**

Teacher Ratings of Eleven Goals of Language Teaching											
Goals	Priority Weightings (% of teachers per rating)										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Use Eng. accurately across 4 skills	18	11	9	4	11	7	7	2	9	9	13
	53%					40%					
2. Communicate orally with t'er in Eng.	9	0	22	7	13	7	7	7	4	13	11
	51%					42%					
3. Communicate orally with n.sps. using Eng.	27	15	7	25	13	0	9	2	2	0	0
	87%					13%					
4. Communicate through W in Eng.	2	7	16	5	7	7	11	16	11	11	7
	37%					56%					
5. Read fluently in English	5	9	13	2	9	11	11	11	13	9	7
	38%					51%					
6. Gain positive atts. about lang. learn. In general	24	13	6.5	6.5	4	9	9	13	6.5	2	6.5
	54%					37%					
7. Gain positive atts. about n.sps. of Eng.	4	20	2	7	16	24	9	0	2	7	9
	49%					27%					
8. Learn about the cult. of n.sps. of Eng.	2	16	13	22	9	9	7	11	2	7	2
	62%					29%					
9. Enable sts. evaluate their own cult. pre-conceptions	11	9	9	18	9	13	7	2	13	7	2
	56%					31%					
10. Enable sts. learn how to learn langs. effectively	13	3	11	8.5	8.5	13	8.5	8.5	11	13	2
	44%					43%					
11. Enable sts. use Eng. to communicate with spkr of other langs.	11	16	2	9	13.5	4	7	4	9	11	13.5
	51.5%					44.5%					

**Table 4 Preferred teaching and learning activities in priority order.**

Priority	Teaching and learning activities	Often or Very Often	Sometimes	Never or Rarely
1	Pronunciation drills	89	11	0
2	Formal grammar teaching	83	17	0
3	Grammar exercises	75	25	0
4	Listening to recordings, radio or television	72	22	6
5	Directed tasks, including inquiries	68	28	4
6	Teaching writing	59	35	6
7	Translation exercises	58	23	19
8	Teaching of culture	45	49	6
9	Rote memorisation of vocabulary	33	39	29
10	Communicative activities	29	49	23
11	Language games	21	40	39
12	Interaction with native speakers	20	48	32
13	Projects about culture	17	57	26
14	Student to student conversations	17	42	41
15	Jigsaw reading	12	18	70
16	Free reading	8	13	79
17	Role plays	7	39	54
18	Story writing	6	9	85
19	Songs	4	43	53
20	Activities involving internet	4	15	81
21	Language clubs	4	9	87
22	Using computer games, CD-Roms etc in English	4	5	91
23	Communication via email	0	8	92
24	Language camps	0	5	95
25	Plays/playlets	0	4	96
26	Language evenings	0	2	98

Note. Where equal percentages listed an activity as used “very often” or “often,” the “sometimes” rating was used to establish priority. All percentages are rounded.

With regard to those activities known to be conducive to more positive cross-cultural attitudes and a balanced understanding of the target culture, again the focus seems mainly to be on formal culture teaching. 45% of teachers said that they used “teaching of culture” “often” or “very often” and 49% “sometimes” but culture teaching activities such as projects that give students more initiative in learning about the culture were used “sometimes” by 57% of the teachers, “often” or “very often” by just 17%, and “rarely or “never” by 26%. More informal activities that encourage learners to use the language for normal social interaction outside the constraints of the classroom and in contexts where there is some opportunity to live the culture rather than learn about it, activities such as language clubs, language camps or language evenings, were virtually never used with just 9%, 5% and 2% respectively saying that they used them “sometimes” and 87%, 95% and 98% saying that they used them “rarely” or “never.” Interaction with native speakers either face-to-face or via the internet, which are desirable both for developing proficiency and for fostering positive cross-cultural attitudes, were rarely used. Though 48% of the teachers said that they sometimes used “interaction with native speakers,” only 20% said they used it “often” or “very often,” and 32% said that they “never” or “rarely” used it. It is probable that those who used it most frequently had access to a native English speaking teaching assistant. Again, this contrasts with the national strategic plan,



uncontrolled situations for normal social interaction (or situations that approximate to such interaction). Similarly, those activities most conducive to balanced cultural understanding and positive cross-cultural attitudes (other than probably formal “teaching of culture”) were also rare. There remains a significant mismatch, in other words, between the policy promulgated in the national strategic plan and its implementation by the teachers.

The questions on factors that influence course design yielded similar results to those just discussed for goals and teaching/learning activities (Table 5) and will not be discussed here except to say that, with regard to cross-cultural attitudes, the teachers rated attitudes to English native speakers as of moderate importance compared with the other factors: some 50% of teachers rated it at the “extremely important” end of the scale but, overall, it emerged as moderately supported. On the other hand, the possibility of contact with English outside of the classroom was not seen as particularly important, possibly because the teachers believe that there are few opportunities for such contact in Akita, that they do not understand how to make use of them, or simply that they had not taken advantage of such opportunities as there are. It is perhaps significant that contact with English out of school was rated lower than the set syllabus or university entrance examination in determining course design though, if the national strategic plan were implemented, such contact would rate much more highly (see MEXT 2002: Section I, p. 1).

The teachers’ approach to language teaching could have been strongly influenced by their perception of what they feel obliged to do to implement the prescribed syllabus, to prepare the students for the university entrance examinations, or to teach to the authorised textbooks. However, they were also asked whether, if they had the opportunity, they would like to vary the current time allocations for various activities (Table 6). That question provided a somewhat different, if ambiguous, picture of the teachers’ views. On the one hand, there was very little support for reducing the time allocation on any of the listed activities, especially for the preferred activities such as using the authorised textbooks, practising accurate grammar, and the testing of reading, writing and listening (though 68% thought the time allocated to the testing of speaking should be increased). On the other hand, there was strong support for increasing the time allocation for some activities, especially those related to the practical use of the language and those that we know are relevant to fostering positive cross-cultural attitudes. So, for instance, activities whose time allocation more than half the teachers wanted to see increased included learning about the culture of English-speaking countries (57%), talking in English about Japan and Japanese culture (58%), using the internet to communicate with students in English-speaking countries (68%), and talking with native English speakers (79%).

Though the Akita study has yet to be finalised, clearly the results of the teacher data suggest some important implications for language education policy in Japan. In particular, there remains a considerable mismatch between the programme that is being implemented and the national strategic plan. Not least, what the teachers believe it is necessary to do is different to a considerable degree from what they would like to be doing in order to develop their students’ language skills and cultural understanding and differs strongly from the policy proposals in the national strategic plan. This apparent breakdown in the policy seems to arise from several sources. In particular, as it stands at present, the national strategic plan seems not to be fully



developed in the articulated manner recommended earlier in this paper. It does not, for example, provide a detailed implementational plan showing how teachers are to be trained to understand and implement the plan nor does it indicate, other than in very general terms (MEXT 2002: Section I (2)), how the examination system is to be modified to match the goals of the new plan. Consequently, the programme as it is taught seems to be more influenced by the teachers' perceptions of what they are required to teach and by the examinations than it is by the national strategic plan or the national course of study.

**Table 6: Changes in Time Allocation for Specified Activities that Teachers would like to Make in their Programmes**

<b>Changes Preferred in Time Allocation for Specified Activities: Ranked according to Support for current time Allocation</b>				
<b>Rank</b>	<b>Teaching/Learning Activity</b>	<b>Time Allocation: % of Teacher Support</b>		
		<b>Less time</b>	<b>No Change</b>	<b>More time</b>
1	Listening to songs in English	2	79	19
2	Using English in studying other subjects in school	7	78	15
3	Studying the set textbooks	11	78	11
4	Practising accurate grammar	9	72	19
5	Playing language games in English	9	70	21
6	Learning English for the job I want to do in the future	4	64	32
7	Practising accurate pronunciation	2	64	34
8	Testing ability to read English	4	60	36
9	Testing ability to write English	6	56	38
10	Testing ability to understand spoken English	0	53	47
11	Using the internet in English for research purposes	4	52	44
12	Reading	11	47	42
13	Learning about the culture of English-speaking countries	0	43	57
14	Writing	6	43	51
15	Talking in English about Japan and Japanese culture	4	38	58
16	Testing ability to speak English	0	32	68
17	Using the internet to communicate with students in countries where English is spoken	2	30	68
18	Talking with native speakers of English	0	21	79
19	Learning to use English for everyday purposes	0	17	83

## 6. Conclusion

This paper has sought to provide a brief overview of language and language education policy-making in Australia and to draw implications from that for language and language education policy-making in Japan. It argued for a systematic and comprehensive approach to policy-making founded in the nature of the society and societal and individual needs and articulated through to implementation and the policy's continual review and development. It made brief reference to a study of language teaching in the Akita prefecture of Japan. Though the principal focus of that study was on the design and implementation of language programmes and their relationship to the students' cross-cultural attitudes, the data currently available on how the teachers see the language programme that they implement suggests a serious mismatch between the goals of the national strategic plan and national course of

study, on the one hand, and, on the other, the goals that the teachers think they must pursue and the methods they use to achieve those goals. In brief, the teacher component of the Akita study reinforces the need for language education policy to be fully articulated from societal and individual needs through policy proposals into detailed implementation, not least taking into account the need for teacher re-education and for steps to be taken to ensure that the examination system complements and does not conflict with the aims of the national policies. In other words, if language or language education policy-making is to be successful, it is necessary that it be systematic, comprehensive and fully articulated into practice.

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### Notes

1. The term "Commonwealth" (derived from the nation's formal name, "The Commonwealth of Australia") is used interchangeably in Australia with such terms as "national government," "Australian government," "Canberra" etc and is not to be confused with the grouping of Britain and its former colonies called the "Commonwealth of Nations."
2. The term "LOTEs" (singular "LOTE") is an acronym for "Languages other than English" and has been adopted in Australia to replace such terms as "modern languages" or "foreign languages" in acknowledgement of the fact that many of the languages spoken or taught in Australia are amongst the most ancient in the world, especially the indigenous languages, and most of the others are not "foreign" but are the first languages of many Australians in identifiable "ethnic communities."
3. Most of the information in this section may be found on the webpage of the Australian Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs at <http://www.immi.gov.au> .
4. See also Ingram 1993, pp. 85 to 91.

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# **English Activities at Elementary Schools: Merits and Problems Inherent in Using Volunteers**

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## **Abstract**

A lack of instructors is one of the most serious problems for Japanese elementary schools in providing English activities. The purpose of this paper is to examine the merits and problems of English activities facilitated by volunteer teachers<sup>1</sup>. For that purpose, classroom observations were conducted. Furthermore, five questionnaires were given to students, homeroom teachers, volunteers, and an ALT. Results revealed that there was not a clear connection between enlisting volunteers and enhancing student attitudes toward communication with others. The results also showed that enlisting volunteers makes it possible to provide more input and support for individual or small groups. This enhances individual understanding and encourages each student to speak English. The results also indicate that the differing English proficiency levels among volunteers can be a problem.

小学校における英語活動の導入にともない、さまざまな問題点が指摘されているが、最も大きな問題は指導者の絶対数不足である。本論文では、その問題を解決する一方策としてのボランティア教師の利点と問題点を考察する。児童、学級担任、ボランティア教師、ALT を対象としたアンケートおよび授業観察の結果、ボランティア教師の参加と生徒のコミュニケーションに対する積極的な態度の間にははっきりとした関係は見られなかった。しかし、ボランティア教師には、児童の受ける言語インプットの量が増える、一人一人の児童や小グループに目が行き届く、したがって個々の児童をよりよく理解し、話す機会を増やすことができる、などの利点のあることがわかった。一方、問題点としては、ボランティア教師の英語力や異文化体験にばらつきがあることが指摘された。

## **1. Introduction**

“English activities” has been one of the offerings in the “Period for Integrated Study” in elementary school since 2002. Generally, the aims of these English activities seem to

be not only developing communication ability but also deepening international understanding. An instructor from another country could help students better understand differences in words, gestures, ways of thinking, and modes of expression. Given the linguistic circumstances in Japan, however, Japanese elementary schools cannot really expect help from Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs)<sup>2</sup> or native speakers of English. Besides, there is still room for the elementary school teachers to improve their English teaching skills and communication ability in English. Thus, in order for elementary schools to provide English activities, the biggest problem identified is the lack of instructors. Other recent foreign language teaching policies implemented by the Japanese Ministry of Education are designated as 'A strategic plan to cultivate "Japanese with English Abilities"(2002)' and 'An action plan to cultivate "Japanese with English Abilities"(2003).' In pursuing more relevant English activities, these policies encourage schools to enlist the assistance of Japanese who are proficient in English or who have lived overseas. These local volunteers are referred to as Volunteer English Teachers (VETs) or English Activity Assistants (EAAs). In most cases, the local volunteers team-teach with homeroom teachers.

There are both advantages and disadvantages of enlisting the cooperation of local volunteers. According to Curtain & Pesola (1999), requesting the assistance of people from abroad who live in the area can lead to a broadening of school activities, especially language education. They mention that it is also meaningful as a way to make use of the unique qualities of the local area, as well as an opportunity for the school to open its activities to include the local community. On the other hand, they point out that enlisting the cooperation of parents and local residents in this way has limitations. Because local volunteers from within the community do not usually have a license or other professional qualifications to teach languages, their use requires the creation beforehand of a complete curriculum or yearly activity plan by professional language teachers. Furthermore, Matsukawa (2004) and Kabeya (2003) point out that it is difficult to find and keep a person who can engage in the activities consistently.

The purpose of this study is to examine the merits of such English activities facilitated by these volunteer teachers. The study also tries to discuss some problems inherent in using volunteers.

## **2. Outline of Activities**

The study first introduces English activities at Yurigaoka Elementary School in Natori, Miyagi for the first year. It looks at how the school deals with the lack of instructors.



## **2.1 Yurigaoka District and Yurigaoka Elementary School**

Yurigaoka district in Natori City is located next to Sendai City, which is the largest city in Northeastern Japan. It has good local human resources since quite a few residents are engaged in educational and other professional occupations. There are two ALTs assigned to the Natori local government as assistant foreign language teachers. They mostly help junior high schools with their English activities.

Yurigaoka Elementary School has 896 students and 33 teachers, with four teachers holding a teaching license of English. The school started English activities in 2003 with the use of local volunteers. It was designated as a model school of 'The Proposal Model Program for Activating Schools in Miyagi' and has been expected to provide English activities on a regular basis to all grades from 2004 to 2006.

## **2.2 English Activities at Yurigaoka Elementary School**

### **2.2.1 Purpose**

The main goal of this program is for children to have positive attitudes toward communication with others both in Japanese and English. The program also tries to introduce elementary school students to English and foreign cultures through communication and enjoyable activities.

### **2.2.2 Program Contents**

#### **1) Duration**

The English program began in April of 2003 and ended in February of 2004 for the first year.

#### **2) Numbers and length of lesson**

There were 14 to 17 lessons for students of elementary schools in grades 1 to 6. Each lesson was 45 minutes in length.

#### **3) Class size**

There were 35 to 38 students in one class.

#### **4) Curriculum**

The curriculum was not provided in advance, but each lesson plan was presented to be followed. Lessons could be adjusted according to time and the students' reactions.

#### 5) Skills and activities focused on

Throughout the lessons, there was neither grammar instruction nor a focus on reading and writing. The major goal of the lessons was believed to be accomplished by learning from listening, speaking, and trying. The hope was that students could learn naturally through games and interacting with native English speakers.

#### 6) Teaching style

Most of the lessons were team taught with a homeroom teacher (HRT) acting as the main instructor and VETs or an ALT to offer assistance. There were mainly three patterns for the team teaching:

① HRT +ALT, ② HRT +VETs, ③ HRT + ALT +VETs.

In the first semester (April ~ July), ① was the main teaching style, and in the second semester (September ~ February), ② or ③ was the main style.

#### 7) Use of local volunteers

To deal with the problem of a lack of instructors and pursue more relevant English activities, the school enlisted the cooperation of parents and local residents as a way to assist the homeroom teachers. There were 29 volunteers who supported the English activities in the second semester as assistants.

### 3. Method

#### 3.1 Research Questions

Some research has been conducted in the Japanese EFL context to investigate Japanese students' communication attitudes and ability in English. However, there has been little study on how English activities with the help of volunteers affect elementary school students. This study focuses on this point and the following research question was addressed: What are the advantages and limitations of the English activities with the help of volunteers?

#### 3.2 Hypotheses

There would be some advantages to enlisting volunteers for the English activities at elementary schools. The following are the advantages which can be expected:

1. Using volunteers would provide additional opportunities for students to be exposed to natural communication settings besides communicating only with homeroom teachers. Thus, enlisting volunteers would help students to have a more positive attitude toward

communication with others, regardless of which language is used.

2. Using volunteers would lead to students' exposure to more input in English. Volunteers' attendance would also contribute to a variation of English activities, both in small-groups and in the whole class. Consequently, using volunteers would help students become familiar with English.

### **3.3 Subjects**

To investigate the above questions, two methods were used: 1. classroom observation by the author both as a program advisor and a school volunteer; 2. questionnaires as the materials used in the study. For the classroom observations, the author observed four classes from the 1st grade, and one class from each grade among grades 2 to 6. The subjects of the questionnaires were 865 elementary school students, from grades 1 to 6, and twenty homeroom teachers who were the main instructors in the English activities. Twenty-two volunteers and an ALT also participated in the study.

### **3.4 Procedure**

For both classroom observations and questionnaires, the data collection procedure took place from June 2003 to March 2004. Classroom observation focused on the volunteers' involvement, and the students' participation in the activities including the students' ability to reproduce English sounds and to use the English they learned in the activities.

Five different questionnaires were administered. Each questionnaire, consisting of 8 to 10 questions, was administered to students, homeroom teachers and volunteers, and the ALT. Questionnaires A and B were administered during regular classes by homeroom teachers. The purpose of the study was explained to the students and they were asked to give quick responses to the questions. Questionnaires A through D were written in Japanese; E was written in English. Grade 1 students were asked to raise their hands to show their responses.

Questionnaire A, which was administered to 865 students in June 2003 (A-1), and February 2004 (A-2), mainly concerned student attitudes toward communication. Question items in different categories were as follows: Questions 1 to 3 investigated student attitudes toward communication, both at the beginning and end of English activities, to assess how much student attitudes were affected by the English activities with the use of volunteers. Questions 4 to 9 concerned student experiences of international communication and English learning and awareness, all of which could be influential factors on English activities. Some of the questions were multiple choice

questions and others were alternative choice questions.

Four other questionnaires were administered in March 2004. Questionnaire B was given to 219 students (one class from each grade), Questionnaire C to twenty homeroom teachers, and Questionnaire D to twenty-two volunteers, and Questionnaire E to an ALT. Question items in these questionnaires tried to investigate the subjects' comments on English activities and reactions to the attendance of volunteers.

To investigate Hypothesis 1, Questionnaire A-1 (Q1,2,7) and Questionnaire A-2 (Q1,2,4) were employed (Appendix 1). For investigating Hypothesis 2, Questionnaire B (Q8), Questionnaire C (Q5,6), Questionnaire D(Q4,5) and Questionnaire E (Q5) were employed (Appendix 2).

#### 4. Results and Discussion

For the questionnaire, the following analysis procedure was taken. For question items 1 through 4, and 6, 7 and 9 in Questionnaire A, the total number by each grade was counted and compared. This demonstrates the extent to which students perceive each item as pertinent or important. For question items 5 and 8, written answers were listed by each grade. A similar analysis procedure was used in Questionnaires B, C, D and E.

#### 4.1 Advantages of the Use of Volunteers

##### 4.1.1 Students' Attitude toward Communication

As Tables 1 and 2 show, there was not a strong correlation between the improvement of students' attitude toward communication and the use of volunteers.

**Table 1 Do you often talk with your friends in the breaks between classes?**

	Yes	No
June 2003	87 %	13 %
February 2004	90 %	10 %

**Table 2 Would you like to talk and have some activities with foreign people at your school**

	Yes	No	Other	Not sure
June 2003	71 %	12 %	11 %	6 %
February 2004	64 %	15 %	14 %	7 %

According to Table 1, the total number of the students who often talk with friends slightly increased at the end of activities. As Table 2 shows, surprisingly enough, the

number of students averse to communicating with persons from foreign countries increased at the end of the activities. Looking at students' comments on the activities, two possible reasons for this come to mind. In attempting to communicate with the ALT during the activities: 1. some students might have thought that English was too difficult for them to understand; 2. some students might have developed xenophobia or communication anxiety with foreigners.

Despite these findings, it has been observed by the author and homeroom teachers that through the activities, students came to show a more positive attitude toward communicating with people from foreign cultures. It was mentioned that students came to greet the ALT and other guests from foreign countries in English frequently and tried to talk to them and ask them questions more often. This finding implies that English activities with the help of volunteers might help students to be more positive and confident about communicating with others both in English and Japanese. However, the connection between the findings and the enlisting of volunteers is not really determined yet and activities carried out over longer periods will be required.

#### **4.1.2 Students' Familiarity with English**

The results of the questionnaires showed that a majority of the students enjoyed the English activities with the volunteers. It was also clear that 90% of the homeroom teachers thought that enlisting volunteers would be useful for future English activities. The results showed that the homeroom teachers realized the importance of volunteers as assistants in their teaching. Furthermore, in self-evaluations, 60% of the volunteers believed they could contribute to English activities to some extent. The following are the ways they contributed: 1. as a teaching assistant to the homeroom teachers, in providing the correct pronunciation of English words and expressions in small groups; 2. as a way to further international understanding; 3. in the preparation of teaching materials and tools; 4. in helping to create an atmosphere in which students feel free to speak English; 5. in providing opportunities for students to be exposed to natural communication settings; 6. in focusing on student individually and being aware of their comprehension of each activity.

Classroom observation showed that students were more actively involved when they attended the volunteer's English activities. Almost all the students tried to reproduce English words and expressions they had learned in group activities. Also students enjoyed the games using key words and expressions of each lesson, both in the group and in the whole class. Thus, it seems that volunteers gave students exposure to more English sounds and helped them to become familiar with English to some extent.

Based on the results of the questionnaires and classroom observation, it can be said that there are four major advantages to the use of volunteers. Volunteers promote students' participation in activities, encourage students to speak English, help students get familiar with English to some extent, and help students understand what they have been taught. The results of the classroom observation showed that the volunteers were able to do these things by giving more careful attention to each student and talking with each one individually. It can also be said that the use of volunteers helps the group activities function more effectively, giving each student more opportunities to speak English and ask questions.

#### **4.2 Limitations of the Use of Volunteers**

The results of the questionnaires and classroom observation showed that enlisting volunteers had limitations in that they could not replace ALTs regarding aspects of teaching intercultural studies and English sounds. It can be said that requesting the assistance of these volunteers doesn't always lead to an increase in opportunities for students to be exposed to English, since the proficiency level in English and experiences and understanding of intercultural communication vary among the volunteers.

### **5. Conclusion**

The findings obtained in this study may be summarized as follows. English activities with volunteers have some merits. Enlisting volunteers makes it possible to provide more support during lessons, such as giving more careful attention to individual or small-group instruction. This enhances both individual and whole class understanding, and leads to more active participation in the activities. The assistance of volunteers also encourages each student to speak English and communicate with others. On the other hand, the differing English proficiency levels among volunteers can be a problem.

Because the intent of English activities at elementary schools is for students to gain direct exposure to English and to become familiar with life and culture in foreign countries, it is necessary to utilize ALTs and to apply creative teaching formats such as team-teaching. However, in practice, an ALT is usually not assigned to just one school on a full-time basis. Even without an ALT, the use of simulated exercises with multiple instructors such as volunteers should be considered to help students develop a familiarity with English.

This study has some limitations. Long-term research to examine the effects of

enlisting volunteers on enhancing student attitudes toward communication will be necessary. Also, participants of different ages may display different results. It is necessary that special attention will be paid to the role of student grade level in affecting the outcome of English activities. To investigate these aspects could contribute to the discussion for more effective use of volunteers in future activities.

### Notes

1. This is a revised version of the paper presented by the author at KATE 2004 International Conference held in Seoul, June 2004.
2. "ALT" refers to language teachers who come from abroad and who are assigned to local governments as assistant foreign language teachers, under the auspices of "The Japan Exchange and Teaching Program (the JET Program)," which began in 1987.

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## APPENDIX 1: Survey on students' attitudes toward communication

### Questionnaire A-1 (June, 2003)

The total number of students is 865.

1. Do you often talk with your friends in the breaks between classes ?

		yes		no	
Grade	1	66.90 %	95 students	33.10 %	47 students
	2	88.24	120	11.76	16
	3	87.59	127	12.41	18
	4	87.68	121	12.32	17
	5	91.33	137	8.67	13
	6	96.75	149	3.25	5
		86.59	749	13.41	116

2. When you talk with your friends, do you positively talk to them or your friends take the initiative in talking ?

		you talk to them		your friends talk to you		other		not sure	
Grade	1	54.2 %	77 students	29.6 %	42 students	7.7 %	11 students	8.5 %	12 students
	2	63.2	86	25.7	35	10.3	14	1.5	2
	3	56.6	82	20.0	29	22.1	32	1.4	2
	4	47.1	65	12.3	17	33.3	46	7.2	10
	5	66.0	99	15.3	23	8.0	12	10.0	15
	6	60.4	93	14.3	22	14.9	23	42.9	66
		58.0	502	19.4	168	16.0	138	12.4	107

7. Would you like to talk and have some activities with foreign people at your school ?

		yes		no		other		not sure	
Grade	1	50.7 %	72 students	16.9 %	24 students	7.0 %	10 students	2.8 %	4 students
	2	88.2	120	9.6	13	0.7	1	1.5	2
	3	71.0	103	10.3	15	11.0	16	7.6	11
	4	68.8	95	15.9	22	12.3	17	2.9	4
	5	62.0	93	9.3	14	14.0	21	14.7	22
	6	72.1	111	6.5	10	17.5	27	3.9	6
		68.7	594	11.3	98	10.6	92	5.7	49

### Questionnaire A-2 (February, 2004)

The total number of students is 856.

1. Do you often talk with your friends in the breaks between classes ?

		yes		no	
Grade	1	83.9 %	120 students	16.1 %	23 students
	2	90.6	125	9.4	13
	3	92.3	132	7.7	11
	4	80.4	111	19.6	27
	5	94.7	144	5.3	8
	6	96.5	137	3.5	5
		89.8	769	10.2	87

2. When you talk with your friends, do you positively talk to them or your friends take the initiative in talking ?

		you talk to them		your friends talk to you		other		not sure	
Grade	1	61.5 %	88 students	25.9 %	37 students	2.8 %	4 students	9.8 %	14 students
	2	59.4	82	20.3	28	16.7	23	3.6	5
	3	60.8	87	20.3	29	11.2	16	7.7	11
	4	34.8	48	17.4	24	31.9	44	15.9	22
	5	60.5	92	15.8	24	9.9	15	13.8	21
	6	47.2	67	11.3	16	38.0	54	2.8	4
		54.2	464	18.5	158	18.2	156	9.0	77

4. Would you like to talk and have some activities with foreign people at your school ?

		yes		no		other		not sure	
Grade	1	58.7 %	84 students	15.4 %	22 students	2.8 %	4 students	9.1 %	13 students
	2	85.5	118	10.9	15	5.8	8	1.4	2
	3	82.5	118	4.9	7	3.5	5	9.1	13
	4	50.0	69	19.6	27	22.5	31	8.0	11
	5	25.7	39	22.4	34	30.3	46	7.2	11
	6	69.0	98	9.9	14	16.2	23	4.9	7
		61.4	526	13.9	119	13.7	117	6.7	57



## **APPENDIX 2: Survey on the comments on the attendance of volunteers**

### **Questionnaire B**

Survey on students' comments on the attendance of volunteers (March 2004)

The total number of students is 219.

In some questions, the sum of the answers exceeds the total number of students, because some low-grade students took two or more choices.

8. What did you think of the attendance of volunteers in the activities ?

① fun	54.3 %	119 students
② O.K.	42.9	94
③ Instruction only by teachers is preferable	3.2	7
		220

### **Questionnaire C**

Survey on homeroom teachers' comments on the attendance of volunteers (March 2004)

The total number of teachers is 20.

5. What did you think of the attendance of volunteers in the activities ?

① very effective	45.0 %	9 teachers
② effective	45.0	9
③ not effective	0.0	0
④ not sure	10.0	2
⑤ other	0.0	0
		20

6. Do you think the attendance of volunteers will be necessary for the future English activities ?

① necessary	70.0 %	14 teachers
② not really necessary	10.0	2
③ not sure	10.0	2
④ other	10.0	2
		20

### **Questionnaire D**

Survey on volunteers' comments on English activities (March 2004)

The total number of volunteers is 22.

4. What did you think about your participation in the English activities as volunteers ?

① could contribute	0.0 %	0 volunteer(s)
② could contribute to some extent	55.0	12
③ could not really contribute	9.0	2
④ not sure	27.0	6
⑤ other	9.0	2
		22

→ Related question: If you choose ① or ②, how could you contribute ?

Answers:

- could talk about the experience of living in foreign countries
- could assist homeroom teachers (HRT)
- could be aware of each student's understanding in group activities
- could help HRT with preparing for the lessons
- could help students learn English sounds and rhythm
- could create an atmosphere in which students feel free to speak English

6. What did you find the most challenging for having English activities ? (take one choice)

① using English in the activities	27.3 %	6 volunteers
② communicating with ALT	18.2	4
③ communicating with HRT	0.0	0
④ communicating with students	22.7	5
⑤ preparing for the lessons	0.0	0
⑥ other	31.8	7
		22

# Follow-up Investigation into English Education Perceived by Students in High Schools in Akita Prefecture: Its Ideal in the 1994-2002 Course of Study and Reality in Classes

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## ABSTRACT

To supplement and verify findings in the 2001-2002 Griffith-Akita joint research analysis, the present questionnaire research was made through the perception of university freshmen with recent memories of their high school English classes. The objective of this study was to present what had been occurring in high school English classes from three viewpoints: the learning and teaching purposes, the gap between the ideal in the 1994-2002 Course of Study and the reality in classes, and the influence of university entrance examinations. A questionnaire was administered to 303 first-year students at Akita University and the Japanese Red Cross Junior College of Akita. This research shows several major findings. First, about 20% of the students learn English positively to pass entrance examinations or as one of the school subjects; another 20% learn English, satisfied with learning basic communication skills; the other 60% of the students learn English, suppressing their demand to learn more practical English, just accepting it as what they have to learn, or feeling discontent with the present teaching methods for communicative teaching. Second, the emphases on communication in the 1994-2002 Course of Study have not been sufficiently incorporated into actual classes. Third, high school English classes are predominantly conducted for university entrance examinations.

本研究は、「秋田県における日本人英語学習者の語学学習が異文化に対する態度に及ぼす影響」について調査したグリフィス大学と秋田大学の共同研究（2001～2002年）の調査結果を補完し検証することを目的として実施された。本研究の目的は、「学習目的と指導目的」、「1994～2002年の学習指導要領に描かれている理想と実際の授業とのずれ」、「大学入試の影響」という3つの観点から、秋田県の高校の英語の授業で実際に起こっていることを、大学新入生に対するアンケートによる意識調査を通して明らかにしようとしたものである。調査は秋田大学と日本赤十字秋田短期大学の新生303名に対して実施された。注目に値する結果が数点導き出され、うち3点を以下に挙げる。第1点目は学習目的に関する結果である。約20パーセントの生徒が大学入試に合格するため、または、教科のひとつとして積極的に英語を学習している。さらに20パーセントの生徒が基本的コミュニケーション能力育成のための学習に満足して英語学習に

取り組んでいる。その他60パーセントの生徒は、実用的な英語の学習をしたいという気持ちを抑えるか、学習しなくてはならないものと甘んじるか、コミュニケーションのための英語の授業に不満を感じるかしながら消極的に英語を学習している。第2点目は、1994-2002年の学習指導要領で強調されているコミュニケーション重視の概念は実際の授業には十分に取り入れられていなかったという結果である。第3点目としては、高校の英語の授業は大学入試のために行われていると生徒に意識されていた。

## **1. Introduction**

The present questionnaire survey was made to follow up the 2001-2002 Griffith-Akita joint questionnaire research conducted in senior high schools in Akita Prefecture as an international joint research project by Ingram and O'Neill from Australia and the present authors from Japan to examine the relationship between language learning and cross-cultural attitudes and the influence of language teaching methods on cross-cultural attitudes in a different social context. The 2001-2002 Griffith-Akita joint research was modelled on research conducted in Queensland schools in Australia (Ingram, O'Neill & Townley-O'Neill, 1999). Since the results of the 2001-2002 Griffith-Akita joint research have not been completely analysed, a comparison of the results between the three pieces of research will be made in another paper.

## **2. The Present Study**

### **2.1 Purposes**

The purpose of this follow-up research was to identify students' perception of the following three areas of Japanese high school English education: the learning and teaching purposes, the gap between the ideal in the 1994-2002 Course of Study and the reality in classes, and the influence of university entrance examinations. Students' perceptions were elicited from university/college freshmen with recent memories of their high school English classes, who had entered university/college less than two months earlier.

The first specific purpose was to identify high school students' purposes for learning English and their teachers' purposes for teaching English. We tried to find out how similar or different they were and whether or not the students were satisfied with their English learning, given the purpose they had and they assumed that their teachers kept in mind.

The second specific purpose of this research was to examine to what degree the design and principles of the 1994-2002 Course of Study were realised in high school classes. This 2004 academic year is the last one guided by this Course of Study which placed strong emphasis on oral communication and the use of English as a tool of communication. How big or small was the gap

between the ideal teaching encapsulated in the Course of Study and the reality of high school English classes as perceived by students?

The third specific purpose of this research was to find out how much influence of university entrance examinations had on high school English education based on the analysis of the students' perceptions. Teachers often say that university entrance examinations have a negative influence on English education in high school, but the learners' perceptions have not been as well documented as those of teachers'.

## **2.2 Hypotheses**

### **2.2.1 Hypotheses concerning the learning and teaching purposes**

1. The students' purpose for learning English in high school is to study English as one of the school subjects or to pass university entrance examinations rather than to have communication in English or to use English for their future career or study.
2. If their learning purpose is to study English as one of the school subjects or to pass university entrance examinations, a large number of students are not satisfied with learning English.
3. Even if their learning purpose is to have communication in English or to use English for their future career or study, their satisfaction with their classes is not high because their classes are not conducted to meet their needs.
4. A large number of students perceive that their teachers conduct classes to get their students to pass university entrance examinations and the students also think of those classes as acceptable and necessary to pass the examinations.

### **2.2.2 Hypotheses concerning the gap between the ideal in the 1994-2002 Course of Study and the reality in classes**

5. The communication-oriented purposes of each English subject, such as Oral Communication A, B, and C, English I and II, Reading, and Writing, described in the Course of Study are not sufficiently incorporated into actual classes.

### **2.2.3 Hypotheses concerning influence of university entrance examinations**

6. Exam-oriented classes are more frequently conducted than communication-oriented classes.
7. Whatever way of teaching is implemented, the students' interest in foreign cultures and wish to communicate with foreign people in English are strong.

## 2.3 Participants

The participants in this research were 303 first-year students at the tertiary education level; 191 (63%) were students at Akita University and 112 (37%) at the Japanese Red Cross College of Akita (RCA). All the participants graduated from high school in Akita Prefecture and had learned English in high school in the years when the 1994-2002 Course of Study for teaching English was in effect. Not all of the participants took an English entrance examination because of different entrance examination systems. For example, some students were admitted on recommendation without any English entrance examinations.

The participants varied in terms of their major and 16 students did not specify their major. The 157 participating students in Faculty of Education and Human Studies, Akita University, were from different courses (49 from Course in School Subject Teaching, 14 from Course in Education of Children with Disabilities, 14 from Course in Human Development, 50 from Programme in Regional Studies, 20 from Programme in International Language and Culture Studies, 10 from Programme in Environmental and Mathematical Studies). The remaining 130 students majored in health sciences (13 from Department of Nursing and 5 Department of Physical Therapy in Akita University; 60 from Nursing Department and 52 from Care and Welfare Department in RCA). The ratio of male and female students was 1 to 3. The rate of students who hoped to major in English the next year was 8 percent.

## 2.4 Procedure

### 2.4.1 Questionnaire

The questionnaire items were designed, revised four times, and completed between April 8 and 23, 2003. They were composed of three parts.

#### A. Learning and teaching purposes

The questionnaire items 7 (A, B, C) and 8 (A, B, C) were included (see Appendix) to test hypothesis one, two, three, and four. The multiple choice options in the 7 and 8 question items were designed based on Sato et al. (1984).

#### B. Gap between the ideal in the 1994-2002 Course of Study and the reality in classes

To test the fifth hypothesis, items 9 to 14 were employed. In order to estimate the gap between the ideal and the reality in each subject of the 1994-2002 Course of Study, questions 9 (A, B), 10 (A, B, C), and 11(A, B, C) were designed for Oral Communication A and Oral Communication B; 12 (A, B, C, D) for English I and English II; 13 (A, B, C, D) for Reading; 14 (A, B, C, D) for Writing (see Appendix). We constructed the multiple choice options, referring to the 1994-2002 Course of Study and JACET the General Survey Committee (1993).

#### C. Influence of university entrance examinations

Questionnaire items 15, 16, and 17 were used to test hypothesis seven and item 19 (A, B, C) to test the sixth hypothesis (see Appendix). Item 18 (A, B) had been part of the questionnaire to analyse the correlation between cross-cultural attitude and language proficiency, but the collated data for this item were unexpectedly too complicated to be analysed in the present research.

#### 2.4.2 Administration of Questionnaire

On April 23, 2003, a letter of request, including the research background and purpose, was sent together with a sample questionnaire sheet to five professors and their permission was given to the authors. The questionnaire was administered in 10 freshman classes (7 in Akita University and 3 in RCA) between May 1 and 12, 2003. The students in those classes were given about 20 minutes either at the beginning or at the end of the class to answer the questionnaire. All the questionnaire sheets were returned to the authors along with a collection summary sheet containing information about the date, the minutes spent, and the number of respondents.

### 2.5 Data Analysis

The data input for multiple-choice questions was completed by the middle of July, 2003, and analysis of the answers to open-ended questions was made by the end of August, 2003.

#### A. Learning and teaching purposes

In the analysis of learning and teaching purposes in items 7 and 8, the total number of the participants' choice in each of the eight options in 7A and 8A was determined and a chi-squared test was used to find out whether there was a tendency in their responses. Next, to examine the degree of the participants' satisfaction with learning English with their choice of purpose, the eight options were separated into two broad categories labelled "As a subject or for entrance exam (SEE) (options 1 and 2)" and "For communication or practical use (CPU)(options 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8)". In each of the two categories, their responses were divided between Yes and No (7B) and their reasons were examined in four subgroups: 1) satisfied in SEE, 2) unsatisfied in SEE, 3) satisfied in CPU, and 4) unsatisfied in CPU.

#### B. Gap between the ideal in the 1994-2002 Course of Study and the reality in classes

To investigate the status quo in classes named Oral Communication (OC), a chi-squared test was completed on responses to item 9A. To estimate the level of the participants' satisfaction with OC A or B, the rating options describing emphases of teaching (10A and 11A) were categorised into three: "Traditional (T) (1 and 2 in 10A; 1, 2, and 3 in 11A)", "Communicative (C) (5 and 6 in 10A; 5 and 8 in 11A)", and "Neutral (N) (3 and 4 in 10A; 4, 6, and 7 in 11A)". The participant's answers on 10A and 11A were differentiated through the following steps. First, N options were excluded from their ratings. Secondly, where their first few rating options (2 options in 10A and 3 in 11A) were all T options in random order, the participant was categorised into T; where their first

two rating options were both C in random order, the participant was placed into C; where they belonged to T and C both, the participant was put into neither. The participants' reasons for their choice of either Yes or No (10B and 11B) were analysed in each of four subcategories: 1) satisfied in T, 2) unsatisfied in T, 3) satisfied in C, and 4) unsatisfied in C.

In analysing the situation in English I or English I and II, the participants were divided into "grammar and translation into Japanese (GT)" and "integrated activity (IA)" (12A). Their reasons for the choice of either Yes or No (12B) were investigated in four subgroups: 1) satisfied in GT, 2) unsatisfied in GT, 3) satisfied in IA, and 4) unsatisfied in IA.

The way of analysis in Reading and Writing followed the data analysis of OC. The rating options (13A and 14A) were categorised into three: "Traditional (T) (1 to 3 in 13A; 1 to 3 in 14A)", "Communicative (C) (5 to 8 in 13A; 4 to 7 in 14A)", and "Neutral (N) (4 in 13A)". The participant's answers to 13A and 14A were differentiated through the following steps. First, the N option was excluded from their ratings. Secondly, each participant's first few rating options were categorised into one of the groups of T, C, or neither. For example, where the top three were all from T in random order, they belonged to T; where all the top four came from C in random order, the C label was given to the participant; where options from T and C were mixed in the top three or four rating options, the participant was categorised into neither. The reasons the participants described for their choice of either Yes or No (13B and 14B) were analysed in each of four subcategories: 1) satisfied in T, 2) unsatisfied in T, 3) satisfied in C, and 4) unsatisfied in C.

### C. Influence of university entrance examinations

A chi-squared test was used to find out characteristics among the participants' responses in items 15, 16, 17, 19A, and 19B. The answers to 19C were analysed in three subgroups according to the choice of answer for 19B: 1) useful (4 and 5), 2) not useful (1 and 2), and 3) undecided (3).

## **3. Results and Discussion**

### A. Learning and teaching purposes

Analysis of learning and teaching purposes (Table 1) shows that statistically significant differences were found in the participants' answers ( $p < .01$ ). The notable outcome was that more than 60% of the participants both in their learning purposes (60.4%) and in their teachers' teaching purposes (73.3%) answered that it was SEE. In SEE, a marked difference between learning and teaching purposes was observed. The top reason in teaching purposes was "to pass university entrance examinations" (58.4%) while the top reason in learning purposes was "English is one of the school subjects" (39.6%). The second top reason in teaching purposes was "English is one of the school subjects" (14.9%) while the second top reason in learning purposes was "to pass university entrance examinations" (20.8%). These results lead us to surmise that about two-thirds of high

school students learn English as one of the school subjects or to pass university entrance examinations rather than to have communication in English or to use English for their future career or study. Learning English seems to be regarded as “to be studied or tested” rather than “to be used for real-life communication”. The higher percentage of “to pass university entrance examinations” in teaching purposes indicates that in students’ eyes teachers are more exam-conscious than students.

**Table 1: Learning Purposes and Teaching Purposes (students assumed)**

Item	Learning Purposes	Teaching Purposes
	Number (%)	Number (%)
<b>SEE</b>	183 (60.4)	222 (73.3)
School subject	120 (39.6)	45 (14.9)
Pass entrance examinations	63 (20.8)	177 (58.4)
<b>CPU</b>	96 (31.7)	78 (25.7)
International understanding & cooperation	3 (0.9)	19 (6.3)
Part of general education	50 (16.5)	36 (11.9)
For my future career	15 (5.0)	4 (1.3)
For my future study	15 (5.0)	4 (1.3)
Useful for future exchanges with foreigners	11 (3.6)	11 (3.6)
Other	2 (0.7)	4 (1.3)
n/a	24 (7.9)	3 (1.0)
$\chi^2$	334.9**	629.68**

Note.  $n = 303$ . Thirteen participants (19%) belonged to neither. SEE = as a subject or for entrance exams; CPU = for communication or practical use; n/a = did not answer. \*\*  $p < .01$

In CPU, the conspicuous differences were that 10% of the participants thought English learning was “for their future career or study” whereas just 2.6% thought that was their teachers’ main purpose and that only 0.9% answered “for international understanding and cooperation” as their primary learning purpose whereas 6.3% chose it as their teachers’ main purpose. The common tendency was that the two purposes related to cross-cultural attitudes, i.e. “international understanding and cooperation” and “useful for exchanges with foreigners in the future”, occupied less than 10% (4.5% in learning and 9.9% in teaching purposes).

As illustrated in Table 2, more respondents expressed their dissatisfaction with their learning with SEE with almost the same number of students in learning ( $n = 128$ ) and teaching purposes ( $n = 125$ ). The top three reasons for their discontent with SEE were very similar in learning and teaching purposes with only the reverse order between “demand practical English” and “dislike English learning, apathetic”. The students demanded to learn practical English, but when the demand was not met, they may have disliked English or felt apathetic.

What was noticeable was the number of students who were satisfied with SEE in teaching purposes was close to twice as large as the counterpart in learning purposes. The first reason for being satisfied with SEE was common in learning and teaching purposes: “to pass university



entrance exams". Particularly, in teaching purposes, "to pass university entrance exams" was chosen by as many as 60 participants. This may indicate that Japanese students perceive that their teachers conduct classes to get their students to pass university entrance examinations and the students think of those classes as acceptable and necessary to pass the examinations.

In CPU, contrary to the third hypothesis, more students were satisfied with their learning with CPU both in learning purposes (64.6%) and in teaching purposes (74.4%) and the reasons were similar between learning and teaching purposes, although the order of reasons between 'preparation for the future' and 'interest in culture and people' was reversed.

**Table 2: Degree of satisfaction with the purpose and top 3 reasons in four subgroups**

Top 3 reasons	Learning Purposes		Teaching Purposes	
<b>SEE</b>	<b>60.4 % (n=183) n/a (n=4)</b>	<i>n</i>	<b>73.3 % (n=222) n/a (n=1)</b>	<i>n</i>
<u>Satisfied</u>	<u>27.9 % (n = 51)</u>		<u>43.2 % (n = 96)</u>	
1 <sup>st</sup>	To pass university entrance exams	11	To pass university entrance exams	60
2 <sup>nd</sup>	Interested in English, find it fun	10	Teacher was enthusiastic	16
3 <sup>rd</sup>	Have not thought about reasons	7	Just accepted English as a subject	6
<u>Unsatisfied</u>	<u>69.9 % (n=128)</u>		<u>56.3 % (N= 125)</u>	
1 <sup>st</sup>	Demand practical English	66	Dislike English learning, apathetic	40
2 <sup>nd</sup>	Dislike English learning, apathetic	26	Demand practical English	27
3 <sup>rd</sup>	Discontent at exam-oriented learning	21	Discontent at exam-oriented learning	22
<b>CPU</b>	<b>31.7 % (n=96)</b>		<b>25.7 % (n = 78) n/a (n=4)</b>	
<u>Satisfied</u>	<u>64.6 % (n = 62)</u>		<u>74.4 % (n = 58)</u>	
1 <sup>st</sup>	Preparation for the future	18	Interest in different culture& people	16
2 <sup>nd</sup>	Learned basic skills	13	Useful in learning basic English ability	9
3 <sup>rd</sup>	Common knowledge, education	9	Class was fun	6
4 <sup>th</sup>	Interest in different culture& people	8	Preparation for the future	5
<u>Unsatisfied</u>	<u>35.4 % (n = 34)</u>		<u>20.5 % (n = 16)</u>	
1 <sup>st</sup>	Little communication in class	19	Didn't like the way class was taught	11
2 <sup>nd</sup>	Discontent with exam-oriented class	5	More time for intercultural studies	1
3 <sup>rd</sup>	Not challenging enough, not fun	3	Too busy preparing for entrance exam	1

These results lead us to surmise the following two. Firstly, the degree of satisfaction with learning English depends on their learning or their teachers' teaching purpose. If the purpose is not a communicative one, such as one of the subjects or for entrance examinations, the students are more likely to be unsatisfied. On the contrary, if the purpose is a communicative one, they tend to be more satisfied than not. Secondly, what we must pay attention to is why they are satisfied or unsatisfied with learning English. The reasons expressed by the students indicate a general tendency. About 20% of the students learn English with a desire to pass entrance examinations, as one of the school subjects, or for their future ("satisfied" in SEE) (this 20% increases to about 30% when they take classes by the teachers with SEE purposes, especially for university entrance

examinations). Another 20% learn English, satisfied with learning basic useful skills for communication or for their future (“satisfied” in CPU). The other 50% to 60% of the students learn English, suppressing their demand to learn more practical English, just accepting it as what they have to learn, or feeling discontent with the present teaching methods for communicative teaching (“unsatisfied” in SEE and CPU).

***B. Gap between the ideal in the 1994-2002 Course of Study and the reality in classes***

In marked contrast to 19% of the participants saying OC classes were mostly or totally communicative activities, 71% said that they were mostly or totally replaced by learning of grammar, as portrayed in Table 3 ( $p < .01$ ).

**Table 3: OC classes replaced by learning of grammar (G) or not**

replaced by G	mostly G	fifty-fifty	mostly OC	OC	n/a	$\chi^2$
62 (20%)	154 (51%)	23 (8%)	45 (15%)	12 (4%)	7 (2%)	215.85**

Notes.  $n = 303$ . \*\*  $p < .01$

This proves that developing oral communication ability in OC classes has not been realised in Akita Prefecture, not following the 1994-2002 Course of Study.

**Table 4: Emphases in teaching OC A and degree of satisfaction**

Top 3 reasons	Traditional 55 % ( $n = 37$ )		Communicative 27 % ( $n = 18$ )	
<b>Satisfied</b>	<b>46 % (<math>n = 17</math>)</b>		<b>89 % (<math>n = 16</math>)</b>	
1 <sup>st</sup>	Studied daily conv expressions	5	Communication-emphasised class	6
2 <sup>nd</sup>	Studied grammar	4	Class was fun	5
3 <sup>rd</sup>	Anyway learned to some extent	2	Appropriate for my level	5
<b>Unsatisfied</b>	<b>54 % (<math>n = 20</math>)</b>		<b>11 % (<math>n = 2</math>)</b>	
1 <sup>st</sup>	Neglect to teach practical English	12	Insufficient hours of class	1
2 <sup>nd</sup>	Class was not fun	2	Couldn't learn much to be practical	1
3 <sup>rd</sup>	Test-focused, irresponsible teaching	1	N. D.	

Note.  $n = 68$ . Thirteen participants (19%) belonged to neither. N.D. = no data

Among the total of 68 students who took OC A, 55% said that they were taught in a traditional and formal way of teaching while 27% were taught in a communicative way as emphasised in the Course of Study (Table 4). In the traditional and formal way, slightly more participants (54%) were unsatisfied, stating mainly that they wanted to learn more practical English. In the communicative way, the majority of the students (89%) were satisfied. In OC B (Table 5), 49% of the participants' answers belonged to neither the traditional nor the communicative group, but the rest of the participants indicated a similar tendency seen in OC A: traditional (44%) rather than communicative (7%), more unsatisfied (66%) with traditional than satisfied (33%), and more

satisfied (73%) with communicative than unsatisfied (27%). The reasons listed in each subgroup were also similar to those in OC A.

**Table 5: Emphases in teaching OC B and degree of satisfaction**

Top 3 reasons	Traditional 44 % (n = 73)	Communicative 7 % (n = 11)
<u>Satisfied</u>	33 % (n = 24)	73 % (n = 8)
1 <sup>st</sup>	Understood grammar 8	Could practice listening 4
2 <sup>nd</sup>	Teacher was good & interesting 3	Had a lot of communicative activities 2
3 <sup>rd</sup>	Motivated, class was fun, etc 2	N. D.
<u>Unsatisfied</u>	66 % (n = 48)	27 % (n = 3)
1 <sup>st</sup>	Heavily grammar-centred 13	Content was not interesting 1
2 <sup>nd</sup>	Few communication activities 11	Did not study actively 1
3 <sup>rd</sup>	Too much memorisation 5	Couldn't get my message across well 1

Note. n = 166. Eighty-two participants (49%) belonged to neither. N.D. = no data

These results observed in OC A and OC B suggest that even if the principle of teaching in the Course of Study becomes more communicative, the approach actually taken by teachers is not drastically changed and remains quite traditional. The higher percentage of satisfaction with OC A than OC B by 13% seems to be attributed to the following situation in senior high school. OC A seems to be chosen by schools whose students do not necessarily enter university, while OC B is usually adopted by schools that have a mission to send their students to universities. As OC A textbooks include simple sentence structures and colloquial expressions, OC A may be appreciated by the learners to review grammar or memorise simple conversation though it is taught in a traditional way. On the other hand, the students who take OC B have a hope to use English practically but have to learn advanced grammar for entrance examinations.

**Table 6  
GT or IA in English I or English I & English II and degree of satisfaction**

Top 3 reasons	GT 73 % (n = 221)	IA 14.5% (n = 44)
<u>Satisfied</u>	44 % (n = 97)	84 % (n = 37)
1 <sup>st</sup>	Improved in reading skills 16	Teaching with 4 skills integrated 16
2 <sup>nd</sup>	Taught in a lucid way 15	Acquired deeper knowledge 5
3 <sup>rd</sup>	No special complaints about class 8	Could understand content of class 4
<u>Unsatisfied</u>	56 % (n = 124)	16 % (n = 7)
1 <sup>st</sup>	Lack of communicative activities 44	Tired of only textbook work 2
2 <sup>nd</sup>	Too much translation and grammar 40	Bored 2
3 <sup>rd</sup>	Bored with monotony 14	Test was easy though class was opaque, etc 1

Note. n = 303. the other participants: depend on teacher 1 (0.3%), not learned 23 (7.6%), n/a 14 (4.6%)  
GT = grammar and translation into Japanese; IA = integrated activity

As Table 6 illustrates, the ratio of GT (73%) was about five times as large as that of IA (14.5%) in English I or English I & II. The two primary reasons expressed in the subgroup unsatisfied with GT were that the emphasis of teaching was on repeated translation and grammar work and too few communicative activities. In IA, more students were satisfied than not. The top reason for their satisfaction with IA was “teaching with 4 skills”.

Although an integrated way of teaching is strongly encouraged in the Course of Study, the data show that the method of teaching actually occurring in actual classes is mainly grammar and translation. Teaching methods have not been affected or controlled by the design or principle of the Course of Study. The top three reasons listed in GT (“lack of communicative activities”, “too much translation and grammar”, and “improved in reading skills”) lead us to believe that a representative activity held in English I and II is reading by grammar-focused translation. The relatively high ratio of satisfaction with GT can be accounted for by the students’ preference for the traditional method of teaching. While there are many students who demand practical English, there still seems to be many students who feel satisfied with the grammar-translation method.

**Table 7: Emphases in teaching Reading and degree of satisfaction**

<u>Top 3 reasons</u>	<u>Traditional 39 % (n = 118)</u>		<u>Communicative 1 % (n = 3)</u>	
<u>Satisfied</u>	<u>53 % (n = 63)</u>		<u>100 % (n = 3)</u>	
1 <sup>st</sup>	Enjoyed content of teaching materials	8	Taught through top-down approach	1
2 <sup>nd</sup>	Enjoyed reading followed by translating	8	N. D.	
3 <sup>rd</sup>	Understood with teachers’ translation	7	N. D.	
<u>Unsatisfied</u>	<u>46 % (n = 54)</u>		<u>0 % (n = 0)</u>	
1 <sup>st</sup>	Teaching method was inadequate	9	N. D.	
2 <sup>nd</sup>	Taught the same way as other English subjects	9	N. D.	
3 <sup>rd</sup>	Mostly translation, textbook-centred(not practical)	6	N. D.	

Note. n = 303. the other participants: belonged to neither 127 (41.9%), did not learn 51 (16.8%), n/a 4(1.3%)  
N.D. = no data

Analysis of Reading and Writing (Table 7, 8) reveals that the percentage of teaching emphasis on communication was extremely low respectively (1%, 0.7%); this might have been caused by the data analysis employed in this study. When attention is paid to “traditional” and “neither” group, the ratio between them in Reading was almost 1 to 1 (39% : 41.9%) while the ratio between them in Writing was about 5 to 2 (61.0% : 23.4%). The high percentage of “neither” group in Reading appears to suggest that a traditional style and a communicative style are combined in teaching reading, but the percentage of a “traditional” group and the listed reasons surely attest that teaching of reading skews more towards a traditional method using translation of a textbook than towards a communicative one. The high percentage of a “traditional” group and the described reasons in Writing, such as “effective for grammar study”, “failed to develop skill in writing English”, and

“boring, bored with just memorising grammar”, provide evidence that Writing is used for grammar review at a sentence level, not used for developing writing skills at a discourse level.

**Table 8: Emphases in teaching Writing and degree of satisfaction**

Top 3 reasons	Traditional 61.0% (n = 185)	Communicative 0.7% (n = 2)
<u>Satisfied</u>	51 % (n = 95)	100 % (n = 2)
1 <sup>st</sup>	Effective for grammar study	Learned gram & expres by writing a lot
2 <sup>nd</sup>	Learned to write better	N. D
3 <sup>rd</sup>	Enjoyable	N. D.
<u>Unsatisfied</u>	46% (n = 86)	0 % (n = 0)
1 <sup>st</sup>	Failed to develop skill in writing English 11	N. D
2 <sup>nd</sup>	Difficult to understand 10	N. D
3 <sup>rd</sup>	Boring, bored with just memorising grammar 8	N. D

Note. n = 303. the other participants: belonged to neither 71 (23.4%), did not learn 43 (14.2%), n/a 2 (0.7%)

N.D. = no data

The results indicate that the students can be content with the traditional method because reading and writing are more likely to be regarded as subjects that supplement grammar learning at high school. It is, however, necessary for students as well as teachers to pay more attention to developing written communication skills at a discourse level in Reading and Writing.

### C. Influence of university entrance examinations

The majority (84.5%) responded that language learning activities in high school English class were geared to entrance exams ( $p < .01$ ). Asked whether the learning of English for entrance exams turned out to be useful when you actually took entrance exams, the outcome was statistically significant ( $p < .01$ ). Fifty-six per cent concluded it was useful because traditional and formal teaching and practice in the past exam patterns worked in exams or they got accustomed to reading a long passage; 13% judged it as not useful because the trend in actual exams was different from their in-class exam practice or they complained about the quality of the exam-oriented classes plus 9 participants in RCA did not actually take an English entrance exam; 26% answered ‘undecided’, about half of whom wrote the reason that they did not take the English exam. The reality is high school English classes in Akita Prefecture are predominantly conducted for university entrance examinations. Exam-oriented classes in this study can be defined as classes with memorisation, grammar, and translation from the results shown in Table 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8. The fact that more than half of the students find those classes useful leads us to conjecture that entrance examinations in general are still traditional, though movement towards communicative entrance examinations is observed in the 13% who responded that the exam-oriented classes were not useful.

The tendency in responses to the questions about interest in foreign cultures and wish to communicate with foreign people in English was statistically significant respectively ( $p < .01$ ). With regard to interest in foreign cultures, 81.1% said that they were interested in them (“strongly agree” by 35.9%, “agree” by 45.2%) Only 4% stated that they were not and 14.2% answered “undecided”. In responses about their wish to communicate with foreign people, more “undecided” responses (21.1%) were seen along with a smaller per cent of positive answers (73% (“strongly agree” by 24.0%, “agree” by 49.0%)) and a little higher per cent of negative answers (5.6%) than in responses about their interest in foreign cultures, though the overall tendency was still very positive. The students may feel a little reluctant to actually communicate with foreign people probably because they are not so confident in their oral communication ability.

In contrast to the participants’ highly positive answers above, their responses about learning English showed far less positive attitudes (28.4%) with far more ‘undecided’ responses (47.2%) as well as more negative attitudes (24.1%) towards learning English. It is crucially important to note that approximately half of the students cannot decide whether or not they are positive towards learning English. This indicates that those university freshmen are not motivated to learn English in spite of their interest in foreign culture and desire to communicate with foreign people.

#### **4. Conclusion**

This study reported on English education in high schools in Akita Prefecture from the three viewpoints: the learning and teaching purposes, the gap between the ideal in the 1994-2002 Course of Study and the reality in classes, and the influence of university entrance examinations.

Our study had seven major findings. First, about two-thirds of the high school students regard English as “to be studied or tested” rather than “to be used for real-life communication” and their teachers are more exam-conscious than the students in their eyes. Second, about 20% of the students learn English positively to pass entrance examinations or as one of the school subjects; another 20% learn English, satisfied with learning basic communication skills; the other 60% of the students learn English, suppressing their demand to learn more practical English, just accepting it as what they have to learn, or feeling discontent with the present teaching methods for communicative teaching. Third, the concept of “English as a global language” has not been strongly reflected in English teaching and learning. Fourth, the emphases on communication in each English subject described in the 1994-2002 Course of Study have not been sufficiently incorporated into actual classes and teaching methods have remained more traditional than communicative. Fifth, there still seems to be many students who feel satisfied with the grammar-translation method. A communication-oriented teaching and learning should be further developed at a discourse level. Sixth, high school English classes are predominantly conducted for university entrance

examinations with more emphasis on memorisation, grammar, and translation, which about half of the students find useful. Seventh, approximately half of university freshmen cannot decide whether or not they are positive towards learning English in spite of their strong interest in foreign culture and desire to communicate with foreign people. It depends on English education at the tertiary level whether those students turn into motivated learners or not.

This questionnaire survey was limited in two ways. First, without classroom observation, these findings have to remain subjective at a perception level. Second, since the participants were only from Akita Prefecture, the results and discussion cannot be generalised as the phenomena occurring in Japanese high school English class. The significance of the present survey, however, was to follow up the 2001-2002 Griffith-Akita joint research analysis and the findings from these two surveys will be discussed in future research.

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## APPENDIX

### Questionnaire English Language Learning in Senior High School

We would appreciate it if you answer this questionnaire about your English language learning in senior high school. Your answers will be kept confidential. Please answer the questions as accurately as possible.

1. Prefecture where your high school is
  1. Akita Prefecture
  2. Other (Name of prefecture : \_\_\_\_\_ )
2. Name of high school you graduated from  
( \_\_\_\_\_ )  
Course ( \_\_\_\_\_ ) Major ( \_\_\_\_\_ )
3. Month and year of your graduation
  1. March, 2003
  2. March, 2002
  3. March, 2001
  4. Other (Year: \_\_\_\_\_ , Month \_\_\_\_\_ )
4. Gender
  1. Male
  2. Female
5. Faculty and Department you belong to  
(Circle one in a parenthesis, if you choose 2 or 3.)
  1. Faculty of Education and Human Studies
  2. School of Health Sciences  
(Nursing • Physiotherapy • Occupational Therapy)
  3. Red Cross Junior College  
(Nursing • Care and Welfare)

*\*If you answer 1. Faculty of Education and Human Studies, please go on to 6.*  
*\*If you answer 2. or 3., please go on to 7.*
6. A. Would you like to take a course of the field of the English language or its related areas at Akita University (Course in School Subject Teaching (English) • Course in European and American Culture Studies • Course in International Communication Studies)?
  1. Yes.
  2. No.B. If you answer yes in A, circle a course you would like to take at the moment.  
(this question is not relevant at all to the actual choice of course)
  1. Course in School Subject Teaching (English)
  2. Course in European and American Culture Studies
  3. Course in International Communication Studies
  4. Not yet decide.
7. A. What was your purpose of learning English in your senior high school days?  
(Circle only one, the main purpose, please.)
  1. English is one of the school subjects.
  2. To pass university entrance examinations.
  3. For international understanding and cooperation.
  4. As part of general education.
  5. For my future career.
  6. For my future study.
  7. English will be useful for exchanges with foreigners in the future.
  8. Other ( \_\_\_\_\_ )B. Were you satisfied with learning English with the purpose you had?
  1. Yes.



2. No.

C. Write a reason/reasons for your answer in B specifically, please.

8. A. What do you assume was your teacher's purpose of teaching English in your senior high school days? (Circle only one, the main purpose, please.)

1. English is one of the school subjects.
2. To get you to pass university entrance examinations.
3. For international understanding and cooperation.
4. As part of general education.
5. For your future career.
6. For your future study.
7. English will be useful for exchanges with foreigners in the future.
8. Other ( )

B. Were you satisfied with the teachers' purpose?

1. Yes.
2. No.

C. Write a reason/reasons for your answer in B specifically, please.

9. A. Was your "Oral Communication (OC)" class replaced by learning of grammar?

1. Totally replaced by learning of grammar. A textbook of OC was not used.
2. Mostly replaced by learning of grammar, though a textbook of OC was used.
3. The ratio of communicative activities and learning of grammar was half-and-half.
4. Mostly communicative activities.
5. Totally communicative activities.

B. Which subject did you learn, "Oral Communication A (OCA)" or "Oral Communication B (OCB)"?

1. OCA (Objective: Speaking & Listening in Daily Lives)
2. OCB (Objective: Listening Comprehension)

*\*If you choose 1. in 9A, please go on to 12.*

*\*If you choose OCA in 9B, please go on to 10.*

*\*If you choose OCB in 9B, please go on to 11.*

10. A. Please rate the following emphases of teaching in your OCA class from 1 (most emphasis) to 6 (least emphasis).

1. Memorising words & phrases in a textbook
2. Grammar, sentence structure, word usage
3. Pronunciation practice
4. Speaking accurately
5. Exchange one's opinions
6. Try to communicate positively without being afraid of making mistakes

B. Were you satisfied with the emphasis of teaching in your OC A class?

1. Yes.
2. No.

C. Write a reason/reasons for your answer in B specifically, please.

11. A. Please rate the following emphases of teaching in your OCB class from 1 (most emphasis) to 8 (least emphasis).

1. Memorising words & phrases in a textbook
2. Grammar, sentence structure, word usage
3. Translate short sentences into Japanese
4. Pronunciation practice

- 5. Exchange one's opinions
- 6. Filling in the blanks
- 7. Dictation
- 8. Understanding of the main idea of what you listened to

B. Were you satisfied with the emphasis of teaching in your OC B class?

- 1. Yes.
- 2. No.

C. Write a reason/reasons for your answer in B specifically, please.

1 2. A. Did you take "English I" or "English I" & "English II" in senior high school?

- 1. Yes.
- 2. No.

B. If you answer yes in A, which activity was mainly used in your English I or English I & English II classes?

- 1. Grammar and translation into Japanese
- 2. Integrated activity (4 skills in balance)

C. Were you satisfied with the emphasis of teaching in your English I or English I & English II classes?

- 1. Yes.
- 2. No.

D. Write a reason/reasons for your answer in C specifically, please.

1 3. A. Did you take "Reading" in senior high school?

- 1. Yes.
- 2. No.

B. If you answer yes in A, please rate the following emphases of teaching in your Reading class from 1 (most emphasis) to 8 (least emphasis).

- 1. Memorising words & phrases in a textbook
- 2. Grammar, sentence structure, word usage
- 3. Translation into Japanese
- 4. Reading passages aloud to transmit the content and one's interpretation
- 5. Speaking out one's own ideas about what one read
- 6. Writing one's own ideas about what one read
- 7. Scanning (Reading to search for specific information in a passage by answering True or False questions or Q&A)
- 8. Skimming (Understanding the main idea of a passage by answering True or False questions or Q&A or writing a summary)

C. Were you satisfied with the emphasis of teaching in your Reading classes?

- 1. Yes.
- 2. No.

D. Write a reason/reasons for your answer in C specifically, please.

1 4. A. Did you take "Writing" in senior high school?

- 1. Yes.
- 2. No.

B. If you answer yes in A, please rate the following emphases of teaching in your Writing class from 1 (most emphasis) to 7 (least emphasis).

- 1. Memorising words & phrases in a textbook
- 2. Grammar, sentence structure, word usage
- 3. Translation into English
- 4. Writing down in English the outline and the main points of what has been listened to or read

- 5. Writing in English what one wants to express
  - 6. Organising and writing down one's own ideas of what has been listened to or read
  - 7. Free writing, taking into consideration organization and coherence of a passage (Paragraph Writing)
- C. Were you satisfied with the emphasis of teaching in your Writing classes?

1. Yes.

2. No.

- D. Write a reason/reasons for your answer in C specifically, please.

\* Please circle the number most appropriate to your feeling or attitude.

- 1 5. I am interested in foreign/other cultures.

1. Strongly agree 2. Agree 3. Undecided 4. Disagree 5. Strongly disagree

- 1 6. I am positive towards learning English?

1. Very negative 2. Negative 3. Undecided 4. Positive 5. Very positive

- 1 7. I would like to communicate with foreign people in English.

1. Strongly Agree 2. Agree 3. Undecided 4. Disagree 5. Strongly disagree

( 1 8. deleted)

- 1 9. A The language learning activities in my English classes at senior high school were likely to be geared towards entrance examination.

1. Strongly agree 2. Agree 3. Undecided 4. Disagree 5. Strongly disagree

- B. Please answer if you choose either 1, 2, 3, or 4 in A.

Did "learning English for entrance examination" turn out to be useful when you actually took entrance examinations?

1. Not useful at all 2. Not Useful 3. Undecided 4. Useful 5. Very Useful

- C. How useful or not useful was "learning English for entrance examination"?

Please write specifically.

*Thank you for answering the questions.*

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