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Implementing Communicative Language Teaching: A Case Study
of English Language Teaching Reform in a Japanese Science
University

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Thesis submitted for the award of Doctor of Education (EdD)

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The Open University

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Abstract

This thesis considers an example of English language teaching (ELT) reform in the context of internationalisation at Noda campus, Tokyo University of Science, Japan. Research questions not only enquire into institutional policy, but also teacher beliefs, attitudes and perceptions about a greater use of communicative language teaching activities and how these notions play out in examples of teaching practice.

I take an interpretive stance to the enquiry and conduct a qualitative case study. As a participant in the research context, I am able to gain insight into the wider social processes of a purposely chosen group of seven Japanese English teachers. I employ Wolcott's (2008) notion of an ethnographic perspective on data gathering with 1) institutional documents regarding ELT reform and other ethnographic material, 2) field notes taken during classroom observations; and, 3) a theme analysis of semi-structured interview transcripts.

Findings suggest there has been a move towards 1) the implementation of communicative language teaching activities with a large increase in the number of oral English courses, 2) a more student-centred approach; and, 3) the introduction of oral communication activities on a trial-and-error basis. I contend that findings are relevant to educational theory in illuminating the extent to which perceived negative attitudes towards ELT reform may be mitigated through constructive engagement. Moreover, in terms of educational practice, the study of participants' apparent attitudes and beliefs may be analogous to other groups of teachers engaging with foreign language education reforms.

The thesis concludes by recommending future investigation into educational contexts viewed as inter-related systems (Larsen-Freeman and Cameron, 2008). Such future investigations will focus on the constant mutual restructuring of teaching policy, theory and practice (Johnson, 2008). This type of research will provide insight into how educators mediate national and institutional policy initiatives in order that they be suitable for local contexts.

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List of Key Abbreviations

BERA	British Educational Research Association
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CMS	Class Management System
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
JABEE	Japan Accreditation Board for Engineering Education
MEXT	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology
TOEFL	Test of English as Foreign Language
TOEIC	Test of English for International Communication
TUS	Tokyo University of Science

1. Research aim and rationale

1.1. Introduction

In the post-war era of rapid economic growth, the almost guaranteed prospect of life-time employment in Japan meant that there was little incentive to study English to achieve economic success (Hatakenaka, 2010). However, due to a relatively weak economy since the collapse of a vast economic bubble in the early 1990s, there has been a growing perceived need on behalf of policymakers to respond to the challenge of international competition that comes with economic globalisation (Kobayashi, 2013).

This thesis considers an example of English language teaching reform in the context of internationalisation. Tokyo University of Science (TUS), the site at which the present study was carried out, is putting into practice various strategies intended to make itself a more integral part of a broader push towards internationalisation in universities in Japan, Asia and other parts of the world (Delgado-Marquez et al., 2013; Yamada, 2013).

The study is undertaken at TUS, a university specialized in the sciences. It may seem surprising that English is taught at a science university; however, in Japan, almost all university students, irrespective of their field of study are required to take English lessons and gain a set number of credits before they graduate (Nagatomo, 2012). However, as noted, the way in which English is currently taught is under review. The Japanese government is encouraging higher education institutions to create graduating students that are better able to conduct business and research in English at the same level as their peers in other nations (MEXT, 2014). An example of such reform to English language teaching is being investigated in this thesis.

1.2. My role as a researcher and as a teaching professional in the university

My role in this investigation is two-fold. I am at the same time a teaching professional and a researcher. In this way, not only am I an Associate Professor in the English section of the Faculty of Science and Technology at Noda Campus at TUS, but I am also a researcher into the nature of and extent to which English language teaching reform can be implemented, there.

I am both a researcher and a teaching professional investigating educational reform in a context in which I am intimately involved. As a consequence, I will have access to institutional documents, the ability to carry out classroom observations and interview participants with fewer complications than I would otherwise. Moreover, being intimately

involved with colleagues who are also subjects of the research, I am obliged to acknowledge my potential personal biases and pre-empt or react to them if needed (Sullivan, 2012; Keller and Casadevall-Keller, 2010; Kubanyiova, 2008). I also need to take steps to allay any potential for participants to worry that I may report on any beliefs and/or attitudes that they would prefer I did not. If such an eventuality were to occur, I would potentially lose the trust of the group due to an abuse of power in the research relationship (Barbour, 2008; Churchill and Sanders, 2007; Kvale, 2007). More about my role as an insider/outsider (Section 3.6.) and ethical treatment of participants in the research process (Section 3.7.) can be found later in this thesis.

Regarding my experience of teaching in Japan, at the time of moving to this institution, I had already been living in Japan for 17 years and worked in tertiary education for 11 of those. Accordingly, bearing in mind that I had previously carried out research on curriculum reform and how such complex systems react to change in their make-up (Jennings, 2009; Jennings, 2010), I decided to enquire into how a shift towards internationalisation at the site of the enquiry would affect the English teaching curriculum.

After taking up a post at TUS in April 2013, I quickly realised that there was a great deal of change taking place in the institution and in the English language group in the Liberal Arts section, in particular. English language teaching reform (henceforth, ELT reform) instigated by the institution's senior management meant that by April 2014, a new curriculum that satisfied the requirements for a greater emphasis on improving students' oral English proficiency needed to be ready. My colleagues and I were tasked with drawing up a reformed English curriculum that reflected strategic plans outlined in institutional documents. As a result, I became heavily involved in this process. During the period of intense debate that took place during the planning stage, I gradually started to become aware of the reasons for the reform and began to wonder how the teachers who were creating the planned innovations in the curriculum perceived the reasons and the degree to which the it would, perhaps, ultimately result in a change in their teaching practice. This growing awareness of change in my new teaching context became the basis for further reflection.

1.3. The aim of this thesis

The awareness of change in teaching practice seemed pertinent because research suggests that a focus on oral English proficiency and communication skills might be at odds with how English has traditionally been taught in Japan; and other Asian contexts, since English taught in a traditional manner is typically a one-way transmission of knowledge from teacher to student (Abe, 2013; Stewart, 2009; Littlewood, 2007; Lamie, 2004; Bax, 2003; Hu, 2002; Wedell, 2003; Li, 1998). The aim of this thesis, then, is to explore the extent to which an ELT reform centred on communicative language teaching (CLT) approaches might be implemented in a Japanese context.

What is particularly interesting to me, is any gap between the intentions of the reformed English language teaching policy at TUS and what happens in practice. As illustrated in Chapter 2, this gap between a proposed change and what happens in reality is often achieved by teachers adapting the plans to suit their context. In this study then, an investigation into any gap between the proposed plan and innovations in teaching practice requires the collection of data that may be analysed to discover more about the perceptions of those teachers directly involved in the teaching reform process through their narratives. With that in mind, I compare and contrast what is written in institutional documents with what teachers say in interviews and do in practice. This combination of data collection methods provides evidence that offers both policy- and teacher-centred perspectives on the same phenomenon.

1.4. English language teaching in Japan

1.4.1. Context and recent changes

So as to set the context for English language education in Japan, in this section, I describe the interplay between various sociocultural factors. Within the discourse of World Englishes, a variety of systems have developed in separate regions regarding the way English is taught and learned in primary, secondary and higher education (Phan, 2013). In Japan, for example, English is used widely on adverts, signboards and in popular culture, but, in this realm, its ‘decorative’ use only appears to symbolise an international ‘atmosphere’ (Rowland, 2016; Backhaus, 2006; Seargeant, 2005). It is in this context that Kachru (1985) places Japan in the outermost of three concentric circles. These circles are comprised of an *inner circle*, where English is spoken as a native language, an *outer circle*, where English is spoken as a second language, and an *expanding circle*, where English is engaged with as a foreign language.

Compared with other countries in the expanding circle, Japan struggles to gain parity in terms of English ability. Indeed, compared to other expanding circle countries in Asia, Japan has a poor level of English attainment. In 2016, for example, although Japan no longer ranked bottom in the Test of English as Foreign Language (TOEFL) scores, it ranked below both its regional rivals; China, and Korea (ETS TOEFL, 2016). The apparent recognition of poor communication English skills by policymakers has resulted in policy reform (Numata, 2013). An outline of recent policy reform follows, below.

In Japan, the education system is comprised of: primary, lower- and upper-secondary and tertiary education, arranged in a 6-3-3-4 construct. English was taught in secondary schools and not taught at all in primary schools until 2011. In that year the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (henceforth MEXT) introduced a directive requiring English to be introduced in primary schools based around the four skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking. The directive specified English lessons were to be taught between one and two times per week, in years three and four; and three times a week in years four and five (Roux, 2016). Nevertheless, in reality, because it is not treated as an official subject in primary schools, English is often only taught once a week and mostly by teachers who have not had proper training (Japan Times, 2013).

Stewart (2009) explains that, in 2003, as a response to economic globalisation, MEXT introduced a policy directive requiring state secondary schoolteachers of English to move away from English teaching being based on word-by-word translation (Morita, 2014) and towards those activities that emphasise oral communication. However, Hosoki (2011) maintains that even though the policy was to cultivate ‘Japanese with English Abilities’ there are many teachers who continued to teach English using pre-established methods. This teaching methodology continued because, for many years:

English was the crucial means to pass entrance examinations, so students were trained to read and write in English, relying on grammatical analyses and translations to and from Japanese as the primary methods. In class, students practiced a lot of drills and repetitions, and there were almost no opportunities for students to engage in discussions, express opinions, or engage in group problem solving. Teacher-centered, lecture-style instruction worked very effectively to achieve these entrance examination-oriented goals in large classrooms.

(Hosoki, 2011, p. 209)

Thus, in spite of examination-oriented classroom dynamic, it is clear that in recent years, classroom activities have been introduced that involve a greater emphasis on the four

skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening in primary and secondary schools. In illustration, since the aim of producing ‘Japanese with English abilities’ was introduced in 2003, government policy directives have been introduced that reflect a move away from a system of English education based on passing university entrance examinations and towards the testing of both passive *and* active English skills. A further move in this direction has been signalled with the advent of a new test, provisionally called the Prospective University Entrant Scholastic Abilities Evaluation Test (MEXT, 2015). This change in teaching emphasis has ushered in a sense of urgency in institutes of higher education and provided an impetus for reforming how English is taught and learned.

1.5. Internationalisation through English communication

The internationalisation of higher education in Japan has evolved over the past decades to encompass not only an influx of foreign students but also the improvement of Japanese students’ cross-cultural understanding and the extent to which they are able to put this to use in the workplace after graduation.

The Japanese Ministry of Education introduced ‘basic policies’ regarding international students in 1983, followed, in 1992, by a plan to greatly increase the number of international students (Horie, 2002). These policies were not only introduced with the aim of creating greater cultural and social understanding between Japan and other nations (Bradford, 2013; Takagi, 2009; Butler and Iino, 2005; Hatakenaka, 2004), but also to create a more recognisable international identity so that opinions and ideas of the Japanese state be better understood in the international arena (Whitsed and Wright, 2013; Kobayashi, 2011; Kawai, 2007).

In this way, policies seen as stemming from economic globalisation, such as treating ‘education as a commodity’ (Block and Cameron, 2002, p .6), appear to be a growing trend in Japan (Kubota, 2011; Takayama, 2009). Indeed, there are calls from industry leaders for a new type of labour force with competency in English communication (Keidanren, 2016; Grove, 2012; Inui and Kojima, 2012). It is noteworthy then, that there appears to be an implicit understanding that participating in a global knowledge economy requires attention to English communication skills (Liddicoat, 2013).

I turn now to give background to the site for this enquiry, Tokyo University of Science and, subsequent to that, how English language teaching there, is undergoing reform.

1.6. Background information about TUS

Founded in 1881, TUS is the oldest private university of science and technology in Japan. Being a highly regarded private science university in the Tokyo area, TUS regularly attracts more than 50,000 entrance exam-takers for the roughly 4,000 places available to new students in a given year. At the three campuses in and around Tokyo, a wide variety of science subjects are taught to more than 19,000 undergraduate and postgraduate students (Tokyo University of Science, 2013).

The data for this project was collected from Noda campus, which is the largest campus both in terms of physical size and student numbers. At Noda campus, there are two faculties and twelve academic departments with a combined undergraduate student population of over 6,000.

1.7. ELT reform at TUS

ELT reform at TUS has become associated with raising students' oral communication competency and skills to a world-class level (Tokyo University of Science, n.d.a). This development involves a shift in the continuum away from a transmission model, where information is imparted in discrete steps; towards a communication model, where students take more responsibility for their own learning.

The reform of the English curriculum can be traced to an institutional document released in a regular meeting of full-time members of faculty at the beginning of the academic year 2013 (see Appendix 1 for the original Japanese). This 24-page report laid out a vision for the reform of the English curriculum and gave a clear mandate for the teachers in the English section of the Liberal Arts group to carry out changes. There follows a translation of the first two paragraphs of this report:

In recent years, it has become clear that the age of Globalisation has made us rethink educational policy and what is best for our students. In this regard, it remains clear that English communication skills are the basis of international relations. Moreover, these skills are becoming a basic necessity for job-seekers and for those hoping to pass post-graduate school exams. It is within this environment that we find ourselves with a need to strengthen English education, with particular emphasis on communication skills.

However, it may be fair to say that students in our university *lack* English skills. In fact, according to English teachers, students lack skills in writing and listening. Students also lack the reading skills and the presentation skills necessary when attending international conferences - vital at the post-graduate level. Science teachers also feel this keenly on a regular basis.

Institutional documents note that the policy was to change the emphasis on how English is taught as a reaction to calls for a response to globalisation. The following five factors were drawn up in institutional documentation (see Appendix 2) in order that teachers become aware of the need to support the call for improvements in listening and speaking skills and was suggested to be undertaken with reference to:

- 1) Testing the English ability of students on entry to the university
- 2) Making students aware of the necessity of improving their English skills
- 3) Making the emphasis in English lessons on ‘improving communication skills’
- 4) Making external test scores a part of students’ grades
- 5) Continuing with periodic testing to make students aware of their improving English

1.8. Sociocultural factors connected with ELT reform

Although I claim specific sociocultural factors are potentially at odds with ELT reform, I also acknowledge that individuals may vary widely. Thus, I do not wish to engage in essentialising these factors as values that all Japanese students hold (Walker and Riordan, 2010). Nevertheless, I maintain that two concepts are particularly relevant for understanding how ELT reform may or may not be successfully implemented at TUS. One of these is the academic genre called *nihonjinron* (theorising the Japanese people) and the other is the socially recognised necessity of *juken-benkyo* (the study for entrance examinations).

Theories offered in the *nihonjinron* ethos are widely used to express and give credibility to a worldview that Japan is comprised of a single, homogenously linguistic and therefore unique cultural group (Hoffman, 2013; Gottlieb, 2008; Liddicoat, 2007). Such a worldview has resulted in the paradox of attempting to achieve a greater level of internationalisation while simultaneously preserving the feeling of being separate and distinct (Denman, 2014; Hashimoto, 2013; Ostheider, 2012; Rivers, 2010). This concept might influence the success or failure with which ELT reform can be implemented by deterring students from learning English and be due to a tendency to implicitly assent to the ‘othering’, or essentialising of outside groups (Kubota, 2013).

The second concept, *juken-benkyo*, is considered an essential part of English learning at the secondary level (Mondejar et al., 2012). Rather than learning English as a tool for actual communication in the real world, prospective university students in Japan typically only pay attention to *juken-benkyo*, so that they become skilled in answering the type of

questions that are found in entrance examination questions (Hashimoto and Kudo, 2010). Indeed, there is a strong relationship between university entrance examinations, which are heavily biased towards questions that rely on detailed knowledge of English structure, and obscure vocabulary (Hu and McKay, 2012; Butler and Iino, 2005). Hence, the concept of *juken-benkyo* indicates that learners at TUS (and Japan in general) are more likely to view English solely as a portal through which to pass entrance examinations; but less likely to directly engage with the people who speak it (Komisarof, 2014).

In this thesis, I aim to discover the nature of the ELT reform at Noda Campus in Tokyo University of Science and the extent to which its implementation might be hampered by the two concepts introduced above. I also explore the beliefs that English teachers at TUS have about English teaching and how those beliefs relate to the extent to which they adopt a new approach in their teaching practice. I investigate the setting with a combination of methods, including analysis of institutional documents, classroom observations and semi-structured interviews.

Thesis Outline

This thesis explores the bounds of a particular case, followed by analysis of how a group of participants undertake actions to develop the case, and, finally, how the participants view what was undertaken. In that regard, the rationale for the research undertaken in this thesis is given in Chapter One. Following that, in Chapter Two, I present a review of literature that situates the study in its academic context. In Chapter Three, I describe the methodology I employ and the method I use for collecting and analysing the data. Chapter Four reports on evidence in the form of institutional documents to show how plans to move from a traditional to a more communicative-based curriculum were implemented. In Chapter Five, data in the form of field notes describe four classroom observations of research participants. Two observations were carried out in the pre-reform era and two after. Chapter Six includes findings regarding English language teachers' attitudes about ELT reform with evidence from seven semi-structured interviews and institutional documents. In Chapter Seven, I clarify this project's significance with a restatement of findings and associated implications that may be transferred to other contexts. I also explain how the research contributes to academic knowledge. I conclude by stating limitations of the investigation and establishing guiding principles for a way forward with recommendations for further research.

2. Literature review

2.1. Introduction

In this chapter, I focus on what past studies have found, regarding ELT reform, to give background to the review of Japan relevant to the context under investigation. First, I focus on the complexity of teaching reform, innovation and the process of change in educational institutions by introducing key concepts. I then report on the wider context of English language teaching reform in a variety of countries. Following on from that I move on to explain teaching reform in similar educational institutions in Japan; and summarise how I expect these findings might be different in my research context. I then move on to review scholarly literature on ELT reform in Japan, the notion of change and innovation in various contexts; and teachers' beliefs, attitudes and perceptions regarding the extent that innovation in teaching reform affects teaching practice.

An earlier version of this literature review was published in the Tokyo University of Science Journal, *Studies in Liberal Arts and Sciences* (Jennings, 2016).

2.2. Change, Innovation and Reform

The aim of this section is to differentiate between frequently confused terms involved with how an educational context evolves over time. 'Reform' in an existing educational system is also commonly referred to with the terms 'change' or 'innovation'. Although these terms are used interchangeably in much scholarly research (Cerna, 2014; Murray, 2008; Kennedy, 1988), I draw a distinction between them.

Change	The intended or unintended reorganisation of systems
Innovation	The deliberate implementation of expected improvements
Reform	The extent to which change is implemented by teachers

Table 1: Drawing a distinction between the terms change, innovation and reform

Change may be seen by teachers in a myriad of ways; that is to say, as 'not only good or bad, but also unconscious or conscious, physical or mental, imposed or self-motivated, small or large, or significant or trifling' (Lamie, 2005, p. 7). Turning to innovation in an educational system, Lo Bianco (2013, p. 150) claims that; rather than change 'which can be random, undesired and undirected', innovation is associated with the notion of *renewal*. That is, innovation in an educational system 'implies some deliberation or consciousness' (Kennedy, 1996).

In this regard, while change or innovation are appropriate terms by which to describe the parts of the transformation the ELT curriculum is undergoing at TUS, I take the term 'reform' as a catch-all for the research I undertake, because – in contrast to change, which may be either intended or random; or innovation, which indicates implementation of intentional improvements – reform refers to a 'structured and conscious process of producing change no matter its extent' (Cerna, 2014, p. 18). As a consequence, I use the term 'reform', instead of 'innovation' or 'change' throughout this study because the extent to which the English curriculum will be re-organised is not known.

In the next section, I refer to ELT reform in various contexts throughout the world. I do this in order to create a wider context for the topic of this thesis and to show how contexts in which English is taught as a foreign language are distinct, yet they have a parallel set of dynamic interdependent factors at work, when an existing ELT curriculum goes through substantial change, incremental innovation, or general reform.

2.3. English language teaching reform: the wider context

In this section, I consider how differing contexts throughout the world affect how ELT reform is implemented. In this respect, I take Richards' (2013) notion that learning activities, procedures and techniques both influence and are influenced by stakeholders' beliefs about how reform in ELT curricula may be best achieved. I also draw on Nunan's (2003) notion of the gap between the grand intentions of policymakers and the reality of ELT reform as it is undertaken by teachers in the classroom. Thus, with reference to stakeholder beliefs, policymaker intentions and practitioner realities, the creation of new education policies can be considered as a dynamic interplay of global and local factors (Jones et al., 2016; Stambach, 2016).

Recent research reported on by Rodriguez-Chamussy et al. (2012) reinforces a perception, on behalf of researchers who argue, that a leading motive for ELT reform in a wide variety of contexts both comes about as a response to economic globalisation, and results in a greater number of communicative activities in classrooms. Despite that shift towards CLT, in numerous educational contexts, English teaching often consists of a deeply entrenched, teacher-centred approach in which lesson activities focus on grammar exercises and translation (Abe, 2013; Stewart, 2009; Littlewood, 2007; Lamie, 2004; Bax, 2003; Hu, 2002; Wedell, 2003; Li, 1998).

In order to give background to ELT reform in Japan, the main focus of this thesis, I describe studies in the educational contexts of two countries: one in Europe/Middle East (Turkey) and one in North Africa (Egypt). I do this in order to give examples of the obstacles to ELT reform regarding the introduction of CLT in those countries. I go on to describe obstacles to ELT reform in educational contexts in East Asia (China, Korea and Thailand) and Japan in subsequent sections.

In the Turkish education system, English communication skills are seen as being instrumental for the country to achieve a competitive edge in a world where economic globalisation has become a key force (Kirkgoz, 2009). With that in mind, in 2013 a wide-ranging reform of the educational system was implemented, with the effect that English was to be taught three years earlier than before, in the second year of primary school (Celik and Kasapoglu, 2014). Bringing forward contact with English in primary schools, implies an aim on behalf of policymakers to build upon children's communicative ability, with "fun" activities in primary-level English lessons, throughout their school life (Celik and Kasapoglu, 2014, p. 6).

The main obstacles to the implementation of a greater number of communicative activities appear to stem from large class sizes and a lack of contact hours (Karakas, 2013). Scholarly research in this context has revealed that although students may not indicate shyness as a reason to prefer teacher-fronted lessons, they hesitate to take a more active role in their learning and prefer a 'weak' version of CLT in which lesson activities are supported by the teacher to a greater degree (Karakas, 2013) (see Figure 1 in Section 2.9. for more information on 'strong' and 'weak' forms of CLT).

I now turn to the context of ELT reform in Egypt. In state schools in Egypt, English is taught with a focus on grammar and vocabulary acquisition in large and sometimes poorly taught and resourced, teacher-led classes in which translation, rather than dynamic oral communication, is an established norm (McIlwraith and Fortune, 2016). In this regard, there is an awareness among stakeholders that a focus on grammar and translation may be necessary for the high stakes examination system, but is also detrimental to the communication skills required in the era of economic globalisation (Ibrahim and Ibrahim, 2017; Abdel Latif, 2012). As a result, in recent years, the norm for those who can afford it, is for school-based English lessons to be supplemented with private tutors; so much so as to have become viewed as essential (Sobhy, 2012).

This, in turn, has led to Egypt's Ministry of education to engage in ongoing ELT reform in order to improve the quality of lessons in state schools by providing guidance on how to increase the amount of 'active learning'; that is, student-centred activities that focus on unstructured communication (Egypt Independent, 2018; Abdel Latif, 2017; El-Bilawi and Nasser, 2017; Ginsburg and Megahed, 2009).

This section described ELT reform in two countries in order to show how contexts in which English is taught as a foreign language have social, cultural, political and historical factors that hinder the way in which ELT reform is implemented. The main themes to emerge between these educational contexts are two-fold. One is that communicative activities in lessons are viewed by policymakers as a way in which to help bring about a workforce that will be able to better respond to a growing economic globalisation; and the other is that large class sizes, a lack of contact hours, and a lack of adequate training in practical ideas about how to implement communicative activities in practice, hold the reform back.

In the following paragraph, I describe examples of educational contexts in East Asia in which ELT reform has occurred and any factors that hinder its implementation.

2.4. English language teaching reform: the East Asia context

Many students in educational contexts in East Asia such as China, Korea and Thailand are likely to have studied English as a required subject in secondary school but even at the end of their studies remain low in confidence, motivation, and ability; and, consequently, achieve only a poor fluency (Brown and Muller, 2014). The reason given for this poor fluency is, lesson activities that concentrate on activities designed to improve students' ability to achieve success in high stakes tests, are based on questions that measure the extent of their knowledge of grammar and vocabulary (Shehadeh, 2015). Accordingly, due to the aforementioned prevalence of poor oral communication fluency and the perceived need to change the status quo, a growing number of scholarly papers are being published with a view to furthering the understanding of trends in ELT reform in differing contexts on a sociocultural basis (Neubauer et al., 2013). Indeed, much of this research concentrates on both the perceived need to maintain and grow a workforce well-acquainted with oral communication in English (Sung, 2012); and the extent to which the reform should be adapted by teachers to suit their educational context (Cheung et al, 2015; Muller et al., 2012; Nunan, 2003).

Kirkpatrick (2016) brings together a collection of studies on English language policy in Asia. Using this collection, I will concentrate on three educational contexts that have similar social and political factors to that of Japan – the educational context that is the main focus in this thesis. Like Japan, ELT policy in China, Korea and Thailand has undergone various types of change, innovation and reform since the 1990s (Kirkpatrick and Bui, 2016).

Regarding China, policymakers have become committed to building a greater proficiency in English, so that its political influence gains a more equal foothold in world affairs (Li, 1998). Moreover, at the level of the institution, in order to graduate from university, all Chinese undergraduates must 1) take English for a minimum of one year, 2) gain 10% of the credits they need from English lessons; and, 3) pass a test containing grammar and writing questions (Gil, 2016). Regarding classroom-level dynamics, as well as not wanting to lose face by giving opinions or making mistakes, the following factors make the wholesale adoption of communicative teaching methods challenging: 1) university entrance exams that stress knowledge of grammar and vocabulary over communicative ability, 2) a lack of prestige for those teachers of communicative English compared to those who teach formal grammar, linguistics and literature; and, 3) a lack of resources to adequately train teachers to teach more communicatively (Gil, 2016).

I now turn to ELT reform in Korea. In this context the teaching and learning of English is strongly associated with nation-building, and, as such, is synonymous with socioeconomic success to the degree that English is studied with an apparent intensity bordering on a type of fanaticism (Chung and Choi, 2016). Thus, although ELT reform is thought to be a key political objective, and reform has developed through numerous innovations within seven phases of government policy since the 1950s; Korea has only achieved a standard of ‘moderate proficiency’ in its attempt to attain an English competence that will allow it to more actively take part in the world economy (Yeo, 2017; Jeon, 2009). Studies in primary (Chung, 2011) and secondary education (Choi and Andon, 2014) reveal that – in the case of the primary school study – teachers who follow guidelines about how to carry out a programme of reform, adapt materials and broker content to suit their classroom context. However, in the case of the secondary school study, teachers more freely interpret government guidelines on improving communication competency so that they can better help students pass the grammar- and vocabulary-based national university entrance exam. In this way, teachers in Korea may be seen as agents

of change that centre their teaching practice on local knowledge and expertise and thus oppose the direct implementation of Communicative, and Task-based Language Teaching (Chung and Choi, 2016).

With the educational context of ELT reform in Thailand, a parallel set of findings emerge as those set out in the preceding paragraphs relating to other contexts in the world. Since the 1990s, national education policies developed to respond to the effects of economic globalisation, by placing a greater emphasis on communication skills (Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison, 2009). A number of hindrances to the direct implementation of reforms seeking to improve these communicative skills appear to revolve around the concept of *Thainess* (Kaur et al., 2016). *Thainess*, as a concept, emanates from: an implicit understanding of the centrality of reciprocal relationships, one's place in a Buddhist society and the recognition of the supremacy of the king (Kaur et al., 2016). With respect to ELT reform, though, *Thainess* reinforces a distinction between oneself and those from other countries and, because it is both anathema to the concept of multilingualism, and a wider flexibility in one's identity, it may lead to a poor willingness to communicate (Yashima, 2002). In sum, A complex and dynamic interplay of the aforementioned sociocultural values and traditions in Thailand has led to a perceived poor level of English and consequent underperformance in the arena of the global economy (The Nation, 2015).

Due to the obstacles to ELT reform outlined in the previous paragraph, a growing number of scholarly articles have been written on how teachers adopt, adapt, or oppose ELT reform. One such study (Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison, 2009) followed four secondary school teachers in Thailand as they attempted to implement communicative language practices in their lessons. Findings show that teachers are willing to follow guidelines given by policymakers but a perceived weakness in their own English proficiency and, among others, insufficient training, meant that a smooth transition from teacher- to student-centred lessons was not possible. The study finds that the agency of these teachers and, perhaps, others in similar contexts, would be more fully exploited if they were to have more say in how the ELT reform was to be implemented.

This section described ELT reform in various contexts in East Asia in order to show how contexts in which English is taught as a foreign language are distinct yet have a parallel set of dynamic interdependent factors. The main themes to emerge are 1) a growing importance placed on the ability to effectively communicate with peers in other countries

in the era of economic globalisation, 2) a shift to viewing language learning from a sociocultural standpoint, 3) a move towards student-centred classroom activities; and, 4) an understanding that guidelines instigated by policymakers are adapted by teachers to suit their classroom context.

In the next section, I turn to context of ELT reform in Japan, which is the educational context at the core of this thesis.

2.5. English language teaching reform: the Japan context

It has been suggested that ELT reform in Japanese universities, including past innovations in lesson activities emphasizing communication skills, is driven by a policy agenda that aims to satisfy the needs of business (Denman, 2014; Lo Bianco, 2013; Takayama, 2009). This agenda has been influenced by an increasing need to produce university-leavers that are able to communicate well enough in English to take part in business and other forms of negotiation or interaction with counterparts in other countries. Yonezawa (2014) reports on the numerous policy directives and scholarly papers that have been published with a view to driving the shift in emphasis. He also reports on research on the process by which the new emphasis on communication skills is implemented.

Some scholars report the need for fundamental change in national policy in higher education curricula (e.g. Takagi, 2009), while others claim that policymaking is a ‘continuing process of engagement and interpretation’ (Hashimoto, 2009, p. 42) that is borne out in initiatives at both a top-down national policy level and a bottom-up institutional level, especially in the sphere of privately run universities (Hashimoto, 2013; Gottlieb, 2008; Kawai, 2008). Such institutional policy initiatives in private universities such as TUS, precipitate teaching reform and the advent of innovations in classroom practice.

Hawkins et al. (2013) though, remind us of Altbach’s (1989) claim that the origin of the modern model of higher education is in the West and that policymakers in East Asia view this model through the lens of Confucian-based values, which can be glossed as the following: appearing in learning environments such as Japan, Confucian-based values are thought to stem from a dynamic interplay between the concepts of *ren* and *wu-lun* (Wang et al., 2005). That is, where the creation of a peaceful and harmonious society coalesces through the compassion and affection one holds (*ren*) for those people that one encounters in everyday life (*wu-lun*) (Hwang and Meyer, 2018). In so doing, Confucian

societies impart the feeling of responsibility for self- and societal-betterment through scholarly success (Huang and Asghar, 2018).

In this regard, taking economic globalisation into account, in recent years, government policies in Japan and various other countries in East Asia have put an emphasis on creating English language teaching curricula that not only enhance student-centred learning and critical thinking but are also aimed at fulfilling the English language needs of major industry (DeWaelche, 2015; Yonezawa, 2011).

Here, I take Japan as a lens through which to view the use of three models that may emerge in a given society (Kennedy, 2013). Firstly, 'mechanistic' policy implementation, in a given context, is associated with institutional change from a top-down, external orientation. Another model is 'individual change', which is a bottom-up model of policy implementation associated with teachers as agents of change. A third, 'ecological model', on the other hand, is a model that seeks to mitigate obstacles to policy implementation because they are a mix of both top-down and bottom-up models and, therefore, is likely to be adaptive to both global and local, or *glocal* factors (Kennedy, 2010). Furthermore, innovations in teaching practice within the 'ecological model' of policy implementation allow for ongoing changes in both a top-down and bottom-up way. Innovations to teaching practice made in this manner are mutually constructed by administrators and teachers to form a *best-fit* with the teaching and learning context. Indeed, this type of research is a growing trend in research connected to ELT reform (Gonzales Basurto, 2016).

With reference to this growing trend, educational research has taken what Tudor (2003) described as an 'ecological perspective'. This perspective sees ELT reforms as embedded in a larger web of interdependent concepts (Waters, 2014; Larsen-Freeman, 2013; Lo Bianco, 2013; Hu and McKay, 2012; Murray, 2008; Savignon, 2007; Lamie, 2004; Nunan, 2003; Wedell, 2003; Holliday, 1999; Li, 1998; Kennedy and Kennedy, 1996). As noted, in many cases where educational policy impacts on practice throughout the world, educators mediate government policy initiatives in order for them to be suitable for local contexts (Phan, 2013; Cha and Ham, 2011; Bjork, 2010; Knight, 2008; Block and Cameron, 2002).

In the next section, I draw on these perspectives to explain the web of independent concepts that encompass the ecology of English language teaching in Japan.

2.6. Tensions between traditional and communicative language teaching

It has been suggested in numerous studies that CLT-type classroom activities commonly used in English as a Second Language (ESL) educational contexts, such as the United States, are not equally appropriate in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context of Japan (Hayes, 2008; Nishino, 2008; Komiya Samimy and Kobayashi, 2004).

Moreover, in such environments, it is possible that students may not react as students in the target language environment would because they may not have formed a target language group identity (Breen and Candlin, 2003). In other words, as a result of their learning experiences in secondary school, students may not typically be comfortable with learning strategies used in ESL contexts such as ‘asking for information, requesting clarification, requesting explanations and examples, interrupting, restating and making suggestions’ (Kinsella, 1997, p. 55).

Indeed, it is the standard for English lessons in Japan at the secondary level to be teacher-centred, use Japanese as a medium of instruction and contain classroom activities that concentrate on the frequent testing of vocabulary and grammar (Thompson and Yanagita, 2015). However, owing to various external and institutional pressures; the number of Japanese English teachers in higher education institutions that are adapting their teaching approaches to include a greater focus on oral communication activities, appears to be growing (Humphries and Burns, 2015). Even so, the goal of learning English in Japan at the secondary level remains steadfastly tied to helping students to be successful test-takers rather than successful communicators (Humphries et al., 2015; Kobayashi, 2013; Hu and McKay, 2012; Nagatomo, 2012; Hosoki, 2011; Hashimoto, 2009; Kawai, 2007; Aspinall, 2006; Butler and Iino, 2005; Honna and Takeshita, 2005). The term commonly used to describe the effects testing has on how teachers and learners interact, is ‘Washback’ (Brown, 2008).

2.6.1. Washback in a university context

Scholars differ about the extent to which washback from tests can be said to have a direct influence on how teachers and learners interact. While some scholars argue that washback occurs when teachers and students engage in teaching and learning behaviours that they would probably not do otherwise (Alderson and Wall, 1993), others propose these behaviours can have no simple connections (Cumming, 2009). In tandem with the ecological perspective to educational research outlined in Section 2.5. above, such

scholars suggest that washback from tests consists of a host of complex and dynamic factors existing within ‘individuals, policies or practices, within the classroom, the school, the educational system, or society as a whole’ (Watanabe, 2004; Wall, 1997, p. 291). As a consequence of this complex interplay of factors, teachers are likely to believe that they know how to best achieve the type of teaching and learning necessary in order to achieve successful outcomes for students. Teacher perceptions of washback are then based on the extent to which teachers are knowledgeable about the societal role that tests, such as Japan’s high stakes university entrance exams, play in the teaching and learning of English (Wall, 2012).

As a result of English language education at the secondary level focussing on university entrance examinations that have traditionally focussed on grammar and translation, the English language education that a typical first-year student at TUS receives – prior to entering the university – consists of achieving an intimate knowledge of the structure of English from written texts. Due to this emphasis on the structure of English, rather than as ‘negotiation of meaning’ between people in spoken discourse (Varonis and Gass, 1985), a typical first-year student at TUS tends to have achieved a high level of knowledge of English structure but a low level of oral communication competence (Sakamoto, 2012; Aspinall, 2006; Butler and Iino, 2005).

With reference to this low level of oral communication competence, there has been a new priority placed on improving students’ oral communication competence in higher education institutes in Japan through innovations made in English language curricula (Humphries and Burns, 2015). Such institutions are moving away from lesson activities that focus on translating English texts into Japanese and are moving towards a focus on improving the proficiency of students’ oral communication. In large part, the innovation in English language curricula is achieved by the introduction of a communicative language teaching approach (Kosaka, 2014). This approach, however, is having only limited success (Humphries et al., 2015). This limited success may result from the educational context of the learner. Hu (2002) claims that a learners’ ‘culture-specific values and beliefs may clash with values and beliefs ... threaten[ing] cultural identity and integrity and produc[ing] consequences of which the native culture does not approve’. Indeed, the limited success to the introduction of classroom activities that focus on oral communication is bound up with a belief system that is prevalent in countries sharing Confucian-based values. Tjeldvoll (2011) asserts that the type of system of learning

practiced in such ‘Confucian lands’ as Japan, has been greatly influenced by the emphasising of the study of key historical texts by those who go on to become ‘model’ members of society.

In addition to the former, Gray (1998) stresses that the system of university entrance examinations, in contexts that prize the dedication of putting facts to memory, is a direct result of a lingering Confucian ethos. Gray points out that once the Western model of university education had been adopted, after the more than 200-year period of self-imposed isolation of Japan ended in the 1860s, a place at university became highly sought after because education had become the main means for gaining economic and social mobility. University entrance examinations came to assume central importance to the extent that it has become deeply engrained in the educational system in the modern era. That is to say, the teaching of English at secondary level and the university entrance examination system have come to reflect the Confucian values of obligation, duty and social cohesion and because of this, are a mainstay of the education system as a whole.

In this section, I described how the dominant educational system for English learning in Japan is based on the model of learning prevalent in contexts with a deep-seated Confucian ethos and how such contexts prize the ability to accurately answer the types of questions, based on English structure, commonly found in university entrance examinations. This description was important for my research because the interplay of these and other notions, described below, illuminate the complexity of the educational context of TUS.

In the next section, I describe why I focus on teachers’ strategies for dealing with the ELT reform.

2.7. Teacher awareness of ELT reform

It is well-documented in the literature that there is a tension between the aims of reform in language teaching and what transpires in reality (Underwood, 2012). For example, Murray (2008) has observed that those who instigate reforms are not necessarily the same as those who implement them. In addition, Butler (2011) notes that in many cases, while senior management has broad visionary ideas for teaching reform, it is teachers who are faced with the constraints of actually interpreting and implementing it. This notion of the contrast between senior administrators’ intentions for reform and the extent it is implemented by teachers has informed my research design. That is why in this study, I

investigate not only the procedure of the reform itself but also what teachers think about it and the extent to which they implement it in their teaching practice.

What teachers think about a particular reform is a complex matter and depends on an interplay of a range of past experiences and current motivations that act as a basis for the interpretation of new information (Kim et al., 2013; Phipps and Borg, 2009). Arising from the more general notions of ‘teacher identity’ (Racelis and Matsuda, 2013) ‘teacher cognitions’ or ‘teacher thinking’ (Nishino, 2012; Andrews, 2007) – what teachers believe tends to be hidden from view (Borg, 2003; Pajares, 1992). Yet, the success or failure of the implementation of a curriculum innovation lays with a greater understanding of these notions (Maskit, 2011; Markee, 1993); and merits further investigation.

In that regard, I draw on Borg’s (2015, p. 295) terms for teacher cognition: ‘thoughts, beliefs and attitudes’ in order to frame how the teachers in this investigation deal with ELT curriculum reform. However, I discard the term ‘thoughts’ in favour of ‘perceptions’, as this term conveys the nuance of *insight*. That is, of having a potential ‘solution’ to a problem; rather than ‘thoughts’, which has the sense of *forming of ideas in the mind*. Thus, for this investigation, I maintain that teacher beliefs about language learning and teaching have their origins in the interplay of their previous learning or teaching experiences (Kalaja and Ferreira Barcelos, 2013); that attitudes are shaped by internalised views of their professional status (Ginsburg and Megahed, 2009); and teacher perceptions are provisional interpretations and help reshape a developing understanding of change to an existing system (Watanabe, 2016).

I illustrate a distinction between attitudes, beliefs and perceptions, by referring to Kennedy and Kennedy (1996), who report that in order for a change in student behaviour to be successfully implemented, there is a need for teacher attitude to be further developed by the concepts of teacher beliefs and any actions taken as a result of those beliefs. They argue that there may be general characteristics of a national culture that influence certain behaviours, including negative intentions. Thus, when deciding on how to implement classroom-level innovations caused by English teaching reform, Kennedy and Kennedy (1989) contend that the teacher should reflect on his or her contextualised belief system, or how it came to be this way. In so doing, they add, the teacher will have awareness about how their belief system is a mutual construction that stems from the beliefs they hold; the extent they perceive those beliefs as fixed; and how they perceive the relationship between themselves and the stakeholders in the educational context. As

these three concepts are distinct but overlapping to a certain degree, on occasion, I refer to them with the catch-all ‘teacher awareness’ to refer to how the reform affects their teaching practice (Gebhard and Oprandy, 1999). Teachers are then key agents in an envisioned curriculum change.

2.7.1. Teachers as agents of change

As noted, I take the premise that teachers are key agents in the implementation of change in institutional settings and describe a general overview of how proposed innovations may be adopted, adapted, or opposed. Waters (2014) reports that in the initial stage of educational change, it is important to discover more about the wider context in which teaching takes place, so as to better understand the ongoing process. Meanwhile, in the implementation stage, Waters continues, it is important to discover how teachers react to envisioned innovations accompanying the teaching reform and how much they are likely to adopt certain practices, or adapt those practices to their teaching context. Thus, I view it as essential to discover more about the extent of the under-researched field of interdependence between teachers and their teaching context (Glasgow and Paller, 2016) using TUS as a case in point.

An illustration of a context in which external educational policy reform impacts on practice is described in Coffield et al. (2007, p. 725). They indicate that the UK government responded to perceived societal problems with the use of ‘policy levers’ such as new funding, updated targets for learning outcomes and quality assurance that lead to an increasing culture of compliance and bureaucracy at the level of the institution. However, Coffield et al. argue, due to a wide range of interdependent socio-economic factors there can be no uniformity across varying educational contexts because change comes about through a response to a perceived problem affecting an existing system.

In such systems, senior administrators typically conceive of ideas to deal with problems at a structural level, which bring about innovations at the level of the institution, groups of teachers, or the individual. However, although such innovations may be fully adopted, what is more likely, Coffield et al. contend, is that they may be adopted in a less than wholehearted way, adapted to suit the needs of the teaching context, or, opposed outright.

In the next section, I go into more detail about the obstacles to ELT reform that appear with a shift to classroom activities that emphasise oral communication in contexts where

the teaching of grammar and translation has been typical. This will help in framing the nature of the English language teaching reform in TUS, which is such a context.

2.8. English language teaching reform: CLT in EFL contexts

In this section, I first define CLT for the purposes of this thesis and then engage with existing research in EFL contexts before moving on, in the following section, to address recent attempts to implement CLT activities at various levels of education in Japan.

Common themes in scholarly works reporting on CLT and its implementation have been that teaching techniques remain without extensive details (Savignon, 2007), and may be regarded as an approach, or a theory that highlights a general ELT philosophy (Johnson and Johnson, 1999). Therefore, in order to better frame CLT for the purposes of this thesis, I define it as classroom activities that enable second or foreign language learners to better control dynamic communication in group activities by using language which is novel and inventive rather than 'correct' (Brown, 2007; Komiya Samimy and Kobayashi, 2004; Li, 1998).

As claimed by Waters and Coffield et al., in general education contexts, the difference between the intended educational reform, in this case CLT in EFL contexts, and the actual reality is a focal point in many investigations. Indeed, in EFL contexts there has been a prior emphasis on classroom activities involving the extensive study of grammar and translation, which prizes correctness, rather than activities focussing on oral communication, in which dynamic meaning-making is the main focus. In the following paragraphs, I describe features that have been found to embody obstacles to the adoption of CLT activities in EFL classrooms so as to provide a context of the reform underway in the research context.

One obstacle to the adoption of CLT activities in EFL contexts is the extent to which they are considered appropriate for the existing educational culture (Bax, 2003). In such cases, teachers may broker the content of the classroom activities in a way that is 'sensitive to the social, cultural and historical context' (Hu and McKay, 2012, p. 350). That is, more often than not, teachers adapt rather than adopt CLT activities in order to suit the reality of their classroom dynamic (Butler, 2011; Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison, 2009; Mangubhai et al., 2005; Holliday, 1999).

Thus, when ELT reforms involving CLT are implemented in EFL contexts there is a tension between what Holliday (2001) calls 'cultural continuity' on one hand and

'communicative competence' (Komiya Samimy and Kobayashi, 2004) on the other. This further entails a tension between a teacher- and a student-centred approach to ELT. It is important, therefore to research inherent 'cultures of learning' such as, general attitudes, beliefs and perceptions connected with the degree of cultural shift needed for ELT reforms to be implemented in a sustainable way (Stewart, 2009; Wedell, 2003; Hu, 2002 p. 96). To that end, there have been a growing number of scholarly articles written on education institutions from a systems perspective and how such systems respond to a greater number of activities that emphasise communication rather than grammar and translation activities (Zaini et al., 2016; Larsen-Freeman, 2011; Five Graces Group, 2009).

2.9. English language teaching reform: CLT in Japan

There is a growing literature comparing ELT reform worldwide and at a regional level (Cha and Ham, 2011). Japan is a particularly interesting site for the investigation of ELT reform not only in the way the English language acts and is acted upon within its society (Kobayashi, 2011; Seargeant, 2005); but also, the difference in its educational philosophy to that found in the West (Arimoto, 2001).

That being said, some scholarly research contends that traditional classroom activities, including the extensive study of grammar and translation, have long been the norm; and, as a result, there is a continuing trend among teachers to believe that there is little need to investigate the style of learning found in student-centred activities engaged in during oral communication, as with CLT-type classroom activities (Allen, 2016; Watanabe, 2004).

In contrast to that argument is the move to interpret the use of CLT in specific contexts. This progression in how CLT has been adapted has given rise to both task-based instruction (TBLT) and, more recently, in Japanese universities, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) (Watanabe et al., 2011). Figure 1, below, aims to show the gap that CLIL has filled in recent years between, on one end of a spectrum, grammar and translation activities and activities suitable for a submersion context on the other. CLIL fills the gap between these two approaches by adopting a dual-focus approach where the content is taught in the foreign language (Parsons and Walker, 2013). However, in the case of TUS, while a sizeable proportion of students do possess adequate English test-taking skills, the majority of them are at, or slightly above, the average TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) score for university level students and, are

likely to be placed somewhere on the continuum between GT and Strong CLT (TBLT); such a positioning does not reach a level at which CLIL, as initially intended, may be implemented.

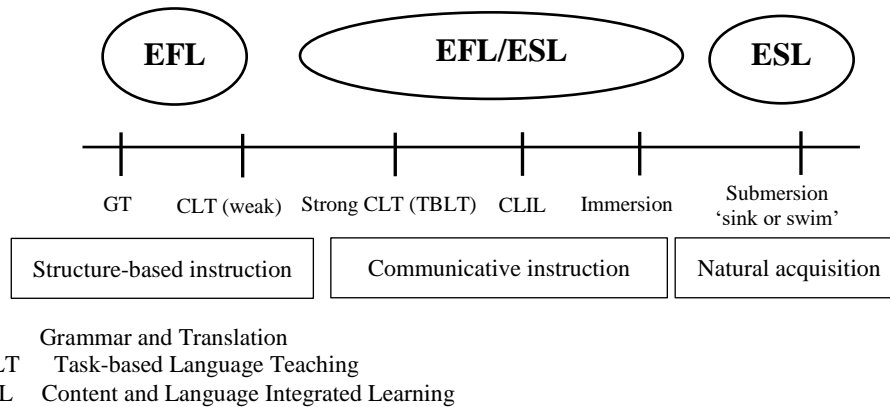


Figure 1: The place of CLIL in English language teaching methodologies (Adapted from Ikeda, 2012)

Conversely, the broad consensus about CLT in EFL contexts such as Japan is that it supports both strong and weak forms. Weak forms of CLT involve more deductive methods of learning, where scaffolding of activities and commensurate, level-appropriate vocabulary is commonplace. In contrast, strong forms of CLT such as TBLT, use inductive methods of learning where there are fewer scaffolded activities (Butler, 2011). However, as a consequence of the many shades of strength of approach, teachers may have only a vague understanding of how to best implement it (Humphries and Burns, 2015).

Accordingly, this research project falls within the bounds of previous studies on the suitability of direct adoption of, or adaption to, a teaching approach in which teachers have limited knowledge; and in which both teacher and students may feel alien. It also falls within the potential clash of the Western-based philosophy of CLT and its employment in the educational context of Japan (Wedell, 2003). Thus, as the ELT reform at TUS progresses with a greater amount of oral communication during lessons, it is important to investigate beliefs about effective teaching practices; attitudes teachers have about this reform; and the perceptions that teachers have about any innovations in teaching practice that the reform has brought about.

In the next section, I go into more detail about the obstacles to ELT reform in Japan that emerge with a shift to oral communication, in a context where the teaching of grammar and translation had been typical.

2.10. ELT reform: CLT at different levels of education in Japan

The studies I describe below, focus on three levels of English education in Japan: secondary, further and higher. I describe these studies so as to better position my study among previous scholarly works in the context of ELT reform in Japan and, in the process, to become more knowledgeable about the social, political and historical factors that were found to affect the educational context. Doing so will help in framing the nature of the English language teaching reform in TUS. It will also help in identifying any gap in knowledge regarding perceptions teachers may have about policy reforms and the extent to which these reforms become part of their practice.

The first section concentrates on studies carried out in secondary schools by Nishino (2012), Thompson and Yanagita (2015) and Humphries et al. (2015). I then move on to describe the studies carried out in further education by Humphries and Burns (2015); and by Nagatomo (2012) in higher education. On the whole, studies on implementing CLT in Japan have pointed to a range of challenges.

2.10.1. English language teaching reform: CLT at the secondary level

At the secondary level, Nishino's (2012) study examines 139 teachers' beliefs and practices in regard to CLT innovations in Japanese secondary schools. The implications of her study point to the difficulty teachers experience in adopting a CLT approach. Nishino's contention is that rather than adopting CLT activities in their lessons, teachers tend to keep using the approach to teaching English known in Japan as *yakudoku* (a teacher-centred grammar-translation teaching approach). She reports that teachers commonly hold the belief that skills taught in the *yakudoku* approach are the most appropriate for those students aiming to go on to university, because focussing on these skills is thought to be imperative for passing entrance examinations. I would argue that the *yakudoku* method of learning English in secondary school is likely to have had an adverse effect on the active oral communication competence of a typical student at TUS because they will have only experienced lessons in secondary school that treat English language learning as a means to pass examinations based on a focus on form, rather than

meaning (Hosoki, 2011). As a consequence, such students are likely to have had very little experience of communicating orally in English.

Another study also takes up the issue of beliefs and practices of secondary school English teachers raised by Nishino (2012). In an investigation into the implementation of a greater emphasis on CLT activities by one teacher in a secondary school in Japan, Thompson and Yanagita (2015) describe how she struggles to find a way in which to introduce CLT activities in the classroom. Thompson and Yanagita point out how factors that hinder a greater use of CLT approaches in classrooms arise due to the prevalence of peer pressure to follow: traditional methods of teaching English, the use of *yakudoku* in order to teach students the necessary techniques needed to pass entrance examinations; and a lack of awareness of how a CLT approach may *not* actually hinder students in their study for entrance examinations. Thompson and Yanagita make the claim that even though there exists a large number of factors that hinder the introduction of a CLT approach, it is not impossible to introduce. Thus, the aim of government policy: to improve the communicative competence of secondary school-leavers by introducing the adoption of a larger amount of oral communication activities, is achievable; but will take a great deal of effort.

Taken as a whole, the effort needed for teachers to include of a greater amount of oral communication activities during English lessons in a context like Thompson and Yanagita's study would be a break with tradition. Moreover, as CLT is unclear to many teachers, they may be loath to introduce lesson activities that do not have clearly defined student and teacher roles. Added to that would be the extent to which the teacher feels comfortable with: releasing control of the direction of knowledge exchange, the forecast of a lack of participation on behalf of the students; and the effort it would take to prepare lesson activities. The central pillar around which the overcoming of these obstacles is likely to revolve is, Thompson and Yanagita argue, innovations concerning the university entrance examination system.

Even though the context of Thompson and Yanagita's study is at a state secondary school and the investigation I carry out at TUS takes place in a private science university, their study is relevant in that it provides analysis of factors that constrain the implementation of a CLT approach in higher education. For example, it gives credence to the central role of university entrance examinations in the teaching of English and that introducing a CLT approach to lessons does not necessarily lead to failure, if it is well-supported. Therefore,

I argue that it is apt to investigate the extent to which a group of teachers adapt CLT-type classroom activities in their teaching practice.

The third secondary school study is carried out by Humphries et al. (2015). This investigation delves into why the adoption of a CLT approach has struggled to achieve the positive outcomes desired of government policy. Their review of literature indicates that experiences of learning English at secondary school remain likely to cause a weak 'capacity to speak'. That is, upon entering university, such students tend to be reluctant to actively participate in communicative activities due to past learning experiences, in which there were a focus on *yakudoku* techniques; an implicit view that such a teaching method is beneficial for studying how to pass university entrance examinations; and other subjects being typically taught in this way. These experiences led both to the avoidance of serious attempts in oral communication – in order to pre-empt any loss of face – and a lack in ability to formulate timely responses during dynamic oral communication activities.

The implications that Humphries et al. (2015) allude to are that the obstacles to students being able to improve their capacity to speak can be overcome with the introduction of a CLT approach using strategies such as cooperative learning, setting rules on the use of English, using a variety of both form focussed and active oral communication activities, and by creating an atmosphere that lowers students' anxiety. In order for there to be a successful implementation of a CLT approach at TUS, it is therefore necessary to investigate whether the same, or similar obstacles to the reform of the English curriculum are found there. It is also necessary to discover whether any implications can be made, that point to how such obstacles may be overcome.

2.10.2. English language teaching reform: CLT at the further education level

At the level of further education, Humphries and Burns (2015) add to the study of factors that constrain the successful introduction of CLT activities in Japan by investigating a specialist college of further education that focuses on providing engineering education to students between ages 15 and 18. In this study, textbooks focussing on a *yakudoku* approach were substituted with textbooks that placed a greater emphasis on CLT activities. Humphries and Burns contend that the factors that affect the implementation of a CLT approach are teachers' beliefs about the efficacy of its methods, as well as external and internal sociocultural constraints.

The findings in Humphries and Burns' study point to differences in perspective between those who initiate the plan to carry out ELT reform and those who implement it. External constraints were not based on study for university entrance examinations, but rather on the goals of the Japan Accreditation Board for Engineering Education (JABEE), which instigated the move towards CLT activities. Internal constraints were that the teachers felt that students lacked confidence and had low motivation, leading to a failure to actively participate in the lesson. These findings helped Humphries and Burns make the case for the teacher to act more as a knowledgeable other (Ball, 2000) by: helping students to actively participate with classmates in order to achieve lesson goals, teachers adapting the textbooks to suit their immediate needs and, by-and-large, keeping to a *yakudoku* approach. The authors contend that in order to overcome the constraints to the implementation of lesson activities associated with CLT, teachers must gain an understanding of its theoretical underpinnings and have access to ongoing support.

The aim of Humphries and Burns' study is relevant to the research I carry out at TUS because their investigation was to discover more about teachers' beliefs about and attitudes towards ELT reform and the innovations that are implemented as a result. That is, in this case, the shift away from textbooks focusing on a *yakudoku* approach and towards a greater emphasis on activities that promote oral communication. There are, moreover, similarities between Humphries and Burns' study and the context at TUS in terms of the external and internal constraints that hinder a successful implementation of a CLT teaching approach. Although both cases are free from the constraint of teaching English in order to help students pass university entrance examinations, students at TUS are highly likely to lack confidence and have low motivation. This eventuality leads to a failure to actively participate in oral communication activities.

The difference in terms of the age of students and the level of academic ability, I argue, also makes Humphries and Burns' study relevant to the research I carry out at TUS and allows for a contrast between them to become clear. Firstly, although the gap between the ages of students overlaps at the age of 18, I argue that the gap in age and educational context is sufficiently large enough to warrant a different categorisation (Kosen, n.d.). In addition to that is the differing academic levels. While the specialist college of further education does not require particularly high scores on entrance tests, as mentioned earlier, TUS is roughly twelve times oversubscribed and is well-known throughout Japan for creating graduates that work for large international engineering conglomerates, including

Hitachi and Toyota (Tokyo University of Science, 2017). Thus, while English may not be as readily useful to the graduates of the specialist college of further education, those graduating from TUS are more likely to engage with overseas clients in their future jobs, and may then, have a higher willingness to improve their English ability.

2.10.3. English language teaching reform: CLT at the tertiary level

Turning to the tertiary level of education; in order to discover more about the role of women in academia; teachers' beliefs about, and attitudes towards changes in teaching practices, Nagatomo (2012) carried out interviews with female Japanese university teachers. This investigation is connected to the study I carry out at TUS in that it describes how the university system in Japan is going through changes brought about by a dynamic interplay between global, national and institutional conditions. Nagatomo argues that the vast majority of university teachers of English who are Japanese have a background in English literature and have taught English in a traditional way using a *yakudoku* approach. A tension for these teachers arises between seeing themselves as specialists in literature (a researcher) and the threat of becoming non-specialists in English language teaching (that is, teaching with an emphasis on activities that seek to improve oral communication activities). Nagatomo's study is relevant to the study I undertake at TUS because it exemplifies the factor of Japanese teachers' academic backgrounds and the extent to which their backgrounds have an effect on the ability for a CLT approach to be successfully implemented.

2.11. Research questions

This thesis answers the following research questions and data collection methods:

Research questions	Data collection methods
1. What is the nature of the English language teaching reform in TUS?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Institutional documents • Semi-structured interviews • Classroom observations • Other ethnographic data
2. To what extent do teachers in TUS adapt their practice to the English language teaching reform?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Classroom observations • Semi-structured interviews
3. What are teachers' beliefs about and attitudes towards the English language teaching reform in TUS in terms of their practice?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Semi-structured interviews

Table 2: Research questions

2.12. Summary of Literature Review

This literature review focussed on the implementation of CLT-type classroom activities (see Figure 1) in the EFL context of Japan; and has found tensions exist in the way they are introduced. In order to better understand the tensions, I reviewed past studies to justify the positioning of my investigation within a tradition of research into teacher attitudes to a curriculum renewal that includes an emphasis on oral communication. To that end, I described why I use the term ‘reform’ (rather than change or innovation) to refer to the way that an educational system evolves to suit societal trends, for instance the trend for government policies that aim to satisfy the needs of business (Denman, 2014; Lo Bianco, 2013).

It was seen that due to Japan’s poor standing in international tests of English, a research focus on the differences between traditional and CLT-type activities came to the fore. It was reported that there exists a growing number of studies on a move away from teacher-centred classroom activities, which concentrate on the frequent testing of vocabulary and grammar; towards the use of CLT-type activities, which are based around student-centred, non-linear and dynamic oral communication activities. Even so, it was claimed, due to high stakes university entrance examinations, the goal of learning English in Japan at the secondary level oftentimes remains steadfastly tied to helping students to be successful exam-takers rather than successful communicators (Humphries et al., 2015; Kobayashi, 2013; Hu and McKay, 2012). With regard to this contrast, while some scholars argue for a fundamental shift in higher education policy, others consider it beneficial to take into account the views of senior management and teachers, using an ecological approach (Kennedy, 2013; Tudor, 2003). This, latter perspective, sees ELT reforms in EFL contexts as embedded in external-, institutional- and classroom-level factors.

A further focus in this literature review was what teachers think about a particular reform. Beliefs were reported to depend on an interplay of a range of past experiences and current motivations but as these thoughts are usually implicit, they have become a topic of speculation in scholarly research (Borg, 2003). What is more, the extent to which teachers are aware of how they view their educational context, in terms of attitudes and perceptions, is thought to have a major impact on how a reform is dealt with. In this chapter it was, furthermore, postulated that the extent to which a teacher’s awareness about how they deal with ELT reform be the warrant for investigating the

interdependence between teachers and their teaching context (Glasgow and Paller, 2016), using the introduction of CLT-type activities in ELT reform in TUS as a case in point. Therefore, as I view the sociocultural context surrounding TUS as important, I reviewed a number of studies that took place in similar educational institutions to TUS and commented on how findings might differ in TUS in terms of any effects on teacher awareness about the introduction of CLT-type activities and any resulting change in teaching-practice. In this way, differences in research questions, educational context, methodology and analytical method reveal gaps between those studies and the one I undertake.

A review of studies with comparable contexts to that of TUS found a similar set of external-, institutional- and classroom-level constraints that hinder a successful implementation of a CLT teaching approach. With reference to that point, despite Thompson and Yanagita's claim that a teacher in their study was able to introduce a CLT approach to lessons within a *yakudoku* framework, the commonly held teacher belief about ELT reform and the introduction of CLT at different levels of education in Japan; was *yakudoku* is not only a more appropriate means by which to teach students the techniques necessary to pass university entrance exams (Thompson and Yanagita, 2015; Nishino, 2012), but it is also appropriate for students, who are accustomed to learning in this way in institutions of further and higher education (Humphries and Burns, 2015; Nagatomo, 2012). A secondary tension that emerged at the tertiary level is teachers being concerned about losing their status as specialists in literature as they take on a greater amount of responsibility for teaching English as a foreign language (Nagatomo, 2012).

2.13. Warrant for research

After considering the interplay between external-, institutional- and classroom-level factors that influenced stakeholders in English education in past studies, I find a gap in knowledge around the way CLT-type activities are made the subject of ELT-reform. In order to shed light on the interdependence between these factors in this thesis, I develop insight into educational theory, policy and practice while investigating questions that focus on: the nature of the reform underway, the beliefs and attitudes teachers have towards it, and the extent to which teachers perceive they have made innovations in their teaching practices.

Though the reviewed studies at secondary and tertiary stages of education are analogous to the study I conduct in this thesis, I will provide insight into a different educational context to that of the specialist engineering college (see above Section 2.10.2.). I will, furthermore, provide insight into an existing gap in knowledge about Japanese teachers' beliefs regarding ELT and specifically, the reform they are in the process of implementing. That is, insights into their beliefs about which blend of educational theory, policy and practice is the most beneficial, will be clarified. This clarification will be of benefit to students who commonly go on to work in companies that are widely considered to be major players in the global economy.

From a literature review focussed on the implementation of CLT-type classroom activities in the EFL context of Japan, I move on, in the following chapter, to a description of the methodology I use to answer my research questions.

3. Methodology

3.1. Introduction

In this chapter, I describe the methodology I use to answer the research questions. I explain how I position my study theoretically and then why I think it is important to collect a wide range of data. I then move on to define the methods by which this data is collected and analysed. Explaining my role as an insider in the data collection process, and the bearing this has on the ethical treatment of interview participants, provides cautionary details about how to avoid potential breaches of trust and the influence of personal bias in research.

3.2. Theoretical Position: A sociocultural approach

It is possible to do educational enquiry from different theoretical positions. The ‘positivist’ standpoint would see this study being undertaken within a setting ‘that is largely free from the social and physical contexts within which it occurs’ (Johnson, 2006). If I had taken a purely positivist stance, I would have wanted to collect data through a process of the careful measurement of phenomena with scientific objectivity; and deduce causal relationships found with statistical analyses using quantitative data gathering instruments (Denscombe, 2010). However, I do not view enquiry variables as interactions that happen in a fixed manner as is the case with a positivist view of educational enquiry (Gage, 1989). Thus, I do not believe that viewing the enquiry in this way will produce results which adequately answer my research questions. Instead, I take the view that ‘the knowledge of the individual is constructed through the knowledge of the communities of practice within which the individual participates’ (Johnson, 2006). This ‘interpretive’ view, then, requires the investigation of the broader sociocultural context in which the enquiry takes place (Rubin and Rubin, 2005). However, such a sociocultural analysis becomes a complex and multifaceted host of interconnected notions, that some scholars have termed *messy* (Hyland and Wong, 2013; Barbour, 2008; Boote and Beile, 2005; Kawaguchi and Lander, 1997; Law, 2004), and by a growing number of scholars, as representative of a seemingly *complex system* (Kostoulas et al. 2017; Montuori, 2000).

The sociocultural approach taken in this study might be described as ‘qualitative’ because I carry out this study without having any preconceptions about data that may emerge (Silverman, 2014). A qualitative approach, in Benson’s definition, relies on the notion of a representation of ‘one researcher’s interpretation of a particular case or phenomenon’

(2013, p. 1). I have chosen such an approach here because it is consistent with my view that teaching-policy, -theory and -practice are interdependent and are subject to a constant mutual restructuring (Johnson, 2008). In qualification, although I claim an investigation of the interplay of a host of sociocultural factors is a more apt approach to the collection of data than a scientific one, I would like to clarify that I take Ercikan and Roth's (2006) proposal that it is unhelpful to view educational enquiry as either completely quantitative or qualitative, since both approaches necessarily contain elements of the other. That is, for example, when a quantitative decision is made about the number of times a qualitatively decided action occurs, or when any fluctuation occurs between quantities being measured.

Taking the premise of a sociocultural stance to the enquiry, an 'interpretive' standpoint affects research theory and methodology. In theoretical terms, I view teachers as active agents and brokers of the changes taking place at TUS as a result of teaching reform. In methodological terms, I use data collection methods usually associated with ethnography so as to gain access to objective and participant-informed information at the external-, institutional- and classroom-level (McCarty, 2014).

I argue that it is appropriate to use data collection methods that Green and Bloome (2004) refer to as employing an ethnographic *perspective*. That is to say, because the investigation undertaken in this thesis is a piece of educational enquiry done on a small scale and a limited time period, it is appropriate to take an ethnographic perspective to the investigation undertaken in this thesis by using ethnographic tools such as the 'framing, conceptualizing, conducting, interpreting, writing, and reporting associated with a broad, in-depth, and long-term study' (Green and Bloome, 2004, p. 183). Taking this stance, I gather data on the ELT reform from the three perspectives of: *examining* institutional documents and other associated material; *experiencing* interactions between teacher and students through the act of taking field notes during observations; and actively *enquiring* into teacher attitudes by carrying out a theme analysis of semi-structured interview transcripts (Wolcott, 2008).

Now that I have outlined a sociocultural stance, I move on to consider how to frame the research.

3.3. Theoretical Position: A Case Study

Turning now to look at the theoretical position I hold regarding this investigation, I undertake a case study to gain insight into the wider social processes of the context. As stated above, doing this will enable me to better answer the research questions with a participant-informed stance rather than a purely objective one, as I argue in the following paragraph.

Duff (2012, p. 6) defines case study as ‘looking both holistically and in close detail at the behaviors, performance, knowledge, or perspectives of just a few rather than many research subjects’. As a result of the focus on a small number of research subjects in this thesis, a case study might be questioned in terms of its validity. In response to this claim, as pointed out in Chapter 2, the literature suggests that other higher education institutions in Japan are undergoing processes similar to TUS, in terms of internationalisation and ELT reform. Therefore, I place my study within a cluster of past research that has investigated the effects on teacher beliefs about and attitudes towards ELT reform and any resulting change in teaching-practice.

3.4. Justification of methodology

In this section, I explain how I arrived at the methods of data collection and analysis that I use in this study. Reflecting on the participant-informed standpoint of data collection helped me come to realise the importance of identifying teachers’ comments about beliefs and contextual factors. Thus, later in this chapter, I describe how I analyse data in the form of institutional documents, observations and semi-structured interviews at TUS. I do this in order to offer different perspectives on the extent to which ELT reform has been adopted or adapted.

I base my explanation on an evaluation of the methodology employed in three investigations in studies on similar topics but using different analytical methodologies. I evaluate each study in terms of how they might be said to differ in their credibility and discuss whether any of the analytical methodologies are better suited to the investigation I carry out in this thesis. First, however, I define the credibility of a piece of research using the associated term of validity.

As a result of choosing to view the enquiry from an interpretive viewpoint, the validity of the data cannot be completely achieved because it is assumed that both researcher and participant are not fully aware of the socio-historical complexity of the context (Fullan,

2009). The perceived validity of a piece of research then, may be seen as depending on the extent to which any findings may be transferred to other contexts. Data gathered in a large amount of randomised trials, for instance, would benefit from being analysed using a quantitative breakdown of statistical measurements. Such investigations might claim findings are directly transferable across a broad range of individual instances of the phenomenon being investigated. In contrast, data gathered about a phenomenon in one particular context, would benefit from being analysed with a rigorous scrutinisation of the transparency of choices made by the researcher throughout an investigation.

Findings, then, would not only be seen as valid and reliable through a scrutinisation of the purpose of the investigation, but also how the data was analysed and the extent to which it relates to a wider context (Cooper and Ellis, 2011).

As a result, although this enquiry will not achieve complete validity or be wholly generalizable; by being strongly designed it will be able to provide ‘an iterative improvement on other’s work’ (Keller and Casadevall-Keller, 2010).

In what follows, I describe similarities and differences between the methodologies adopted in three studies and how this helped me decide which methods of data collection to use in my investigation. In the following sections I take each study and describe the type of data collection; documentary data, interview and classroom observation that are used. I then explain in detail how each was carried out.

In the first of these studies, the author took a ‘positivist’ stance and, as a consequence, put an emphasis on collecting ‘quantitative’ data.

1) In order to evaluate teachers' perceptions of communicative, audiolingual and traditional (*yakudoku*) activities, Gorsuch (2000) investigated 884 randomly selected Japanese secondary school teachers’ perceptions of classroom activities associated with a CLT approach. Utilising structural equation modelling, Gorsuch tentatively concluded that teachers incorporated CLT-type classroom activities into their existing teaching methods; but did so in a way that ensured that they did not adversely affect preparations for university entrance examinations.

The second study consists of elements that are neither overtly ‘positive’ nor ‘interpretive’ and, as a result, collect data in both a ‘quantitative’ and ‘qualitative’ form.

2) In an exploratory study, designed to model Japanese secondary school teachers’ beliefs and practices, Nishino (2012) investigated ‘socioeducational’ factors that affect

the use of CLT-type lesson activities. The study was undertaken with a 'mixed method' of data collection of survey, classroom observation and semi-structured interviews. The questionnaire was answered by 139 respondents and was the basis for a statistical analysis. Other data was collected from four participants, known to Nishino, in the form of classroom observations and interviews.

The last of the three studies is an example of a study carried out with an 'interpretive' stance and an emphasis is put on collecting 'qualitative' data:

3) With the aim to find out more about the intentions and realities of implementing communicative curriculum reform, Orafi and Borg (2009) carried out a study on the case of three secondary school teachers in Libya. The way that the three secondary school teachers interpreted their use of CLT activities in order to create such activities appropriate for their context was investigated. Orafi and Borg collected data with classroom observations and semi-structured interviews. Implications indicate that the alignment between prior beliefs and current attitudes towards teaching and the innovations being made, depend greatly on the amount of access teachers have to good quality faculty development.

In summary, these three studies are indicative of different approaches to carrying out educational enquiry. Both Gorsuch's and Nishino's study have a high degree of credibility as their data is collected from a large number of participants and analysed with a statistical analysis. However, a distinction between them is that Nishino also collected data from classroom observations and interviews. Therefore, Nishino was able to augment the statistical analysis with qualifying data; and make the analysis more nuanced as a result. Nishino (2012, p. 302) reports that the qualitative data she collected 'partly illuminate the interactive relationship between teacher cognition and practice'. An example of the qualitative data that Nishino collected follows below:

Koji and Gen reported that although they had provided certain communicative activities, they quit using them when they thought that the activities did not fit their students' conditions or that they themselves felt incapable of conducting these activities in the desired manner.

Moving on; the study carried out by Orafi and Borg, would have had an equal degree of credibility to Gorsuch's and Nishino's studies if the method in which it was collected and analysed had been sufficiently transparent. An example of an insufficiency in their data collection, though, was not making clear the questions that were asked of the participants.

This makes it difficult for other researchers to interpret the answers provided by the participants.

In each of the studies carried out by Gorsuch, Nishino and Orafi and Borg, the research question was ‘put first’ (Ercikan and Roth, 2006) and data was collected in order to do this in the most suitable way to answer their respective research questions (Denscombe, 2010). A distinction, though, can be made between Gorsuch and those of Nishino, and Orafi and Borg. The distinction is, that with Gorsuch, a reader engages with the author of the study but with Nishino and Orafi and Borg, the reader engages more with the voices of the participants. As with Orafi and Borg, my study is small in scale and, as well as being related to teachers’ awareness of the context of the reform, I also describe the nature of the ELT reform and teachers’ practices. Thus, taking account of the evaluation of the three studies above, I take the premise that a more participant-informed standpoint of data collection, which considers the voices of the participants, is better suited to discovering beliefs, attitudes and perceptions that are necessarily nuanced and less readily quantifiable.

3.4.1. Selection of research participants

During the investigation undertaken in this thesis, the number of teachers of English in TUS consisted of 10 full-time members of faculty and between 35–40 part-timers. Of this number, the Japanese contingent was eight full-timers; and between 25-30 part-timers. I purposely chose the group of eight full-time members of faculty from whom to collect data, rather than the Japanese part-time teachers, because the former group were the more knowledgeable about and well-acquainted with the decision-making process of the curriculum reform. This group (ultimately of seven teachers) would, then, be able to more readily answer the research questions than the part-time Japanese, or native-speaker teachers.

In the next section, I describe my data collection, ethics and data analysis.

3.5. Data collection: Types of data

In this section, I describe the types of data that I collected to answer my research questions. I collected three types of data; documentary, classroom observation and interview. Each type offers a different perspective on the topic under investigation.

- 1) Documentary data illuminates the nature of the English language teaching policy reforms that were instigated by senior management and subsequently how it was carried out by a group of full-time Japanese teachers of English.
- 2) Observations of four classes, two pre- and two post-reform, illuminate the classroom dynamic with a view to exploring how CLT is implemented in practice.
- 3) Interviews illuminate the beliefs and attitudes of these teachers towards the reform and their perceptions about the extent any reform is being implemented.

In the following sections, I describe in detail how each type of data collection was carried out. First I describe the nature of each type of data collection, I then explain how I collected the data and finally I clarify the method by which the data was analysed.

3.5.1. Data collection: The nature and scope of data collected

1) Documentary data

The documentary data I collected is not only linked to institutional policy directives that outline the scope of ELT reform, but also English teaching related innovations such as teaching schedules, course syllabi, textbook lists and other documentation relating to out-of-class English activities. The purpose of this data was to discover the nature of the English language teaching reform in TUS. The vast majority of data (statements of institutional policy and minutes to meetings) was in the Japanese language. Other Japanese language documents were in the form of teaching schedules and teaching syllabi. The type and quantity of documentary data collected is outlined in Table 3, below.

Where and what collected	Produced by	Language	Approximate number of pages
1. Faculty meetings: documents and minutes	Senior management	Japanese	29 sets of approx. 58 pages of words and tables
2. Humanities Group meetings: documents and minutes	Humanities group teachers	Japanese	2013: 11 sets of approx. 8 A4 pages of words and tables 2014: 11 sets of approx. 8 A4 pages of words and tables 2015: 11 sets of approx. 8 A4 pages of words and tables
3. English section group meetings: documents and minutes	English section teachers	Japanese	2013: 22 sets of approx. 4 A4 pages of words and tables 2014: 26 sets of approx. 4 A4 pages of words and tables 2015: 19 sets of approx. 4 A4 pages of words and tables
4. English Working Group meetings: documents and minutes	Faculty	Japanese	2013: 7 sets of approx. 24 A4 pages of words and tables 2014: 6 sets of approx. 11 A4 pages of words and tables 2015: 3 sets of approx. 35 A4 pages of words and tables
5. English Course syllabi	English section teachers	English Japanese	2 sets of 17 syllabi in tables on 2 A4 pages
6. Textbook lists	English section teachers	English	5 A4 pages of lists of textbooks
7. Teaching schedules	English section teachers	Japanese	2010: 1 page A4 2017: 3 pages A4
8. TUS Official website	Senior management/ Faculty / Public Relations	English Japanese	Message from the President: Mission statement for the university regarding international outlook
9. Humanities Group official website	Humanities group teachers	English Japanese	Information about teachers' backgrounds
10. Various places: other ethnographic data	Individual and groups of teachers	English Japanese	Posters (2), explanatory information (2), guidelines for use (2). Handbook for part-time teachers 12 A4 pages of words and tables

Table 3: Types and Quantities of documentary data

As displayed in Table 3, various types and quantities of documentary data were collected over a three-year period. The most copious data comes in the form of a monthly faculty group meeting (1.). In this meeting of approximately 130 teachers, material is shared in a top-down fashion. Information on how English teaching is undergoing reform is shared with the 10 science departments in the Faculty of Science and Technology. Another

meeting from which I gathered data was the Humanities group meeting (2.). This meeting of approximately 30 teachers is held once a month, apart from August. In this meeting, plans regarding humanities subjects including English teaching reform are prepared and shared. While discussion is not normally a priority, there are sometimes frank exchanges of ideas. Turning to the English section meetings (3.), this meeting of 10 people is held roughly twice a month. Plans for the English reform were designed and ironed out in these group meetings. Meetings are scheduled for one hour but often continue for two, and on occasion, three hours. Another set of meetings is the English Working Group (4.) that were held between 2013 and 2015. As well as four members of the English section, one member of each department of the Faculty of Science and Technology and the Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences attended the meeting. Approximately 25 teachers were in attendance each time. In this meeting, English teachers would present information about ELT reform. Science teachers would ask for clarification or raise points of contention over future plans, such as scheduling conflicts.

Turning to other documentation than that presented at meetings, as part of implementing the ELT reform, various documents were prepared by teachers in the English section. As explained in detail, in Section 4.2.2., below, English syllabi (5.) in the pre-reform era had only sparing guidelines for teachers, whereas the post-reform syllabi were written with specific teaching outcomes in mind. In addition to that, so as to avoid the same student using a textbook twice, textbook lists (6.) for courses became a necessity. One of the things that was immediately noticeable, between the teaching schedules (7.) in 2010, as opposed to 2017, was the number of lessons whose titles denoted a shift in emphasis from grammar-translation to a more communicative approach.

Another type of data collection for institutional documents took place online (8.). The message from the President, in 2015, outlined a strategy for internationalisation. Meanwhile, in 2016, the Humanities group (9.) renewed their online presence with outlines and plans for the various humanities subjects, including English.

Lastly, other ethnographic data (10.) was collected from a variety of places, such as the extra-curricular activities of the English Lounge and the English Consultation Service. This data consisted of two sets of posters and explanatory information about the Lounge or consultation service and guidelines for their use.

2) Classroom observations

Collecting data from observations in this study illuminated how CLT is carried out in practice in the pre- and post-reform curricula that neither documentary analysis nor interviews are able to do.

Although a greater number of classroom observations would have provided the chance to collect more data on how the curriculum was being implemented, the number of classroom observations in this investigation was limited to four, for reasons explained in the following paragraphs.

The employment of classroom observations emerged as a key requirement while reflecting on feedback from thesis supervisors and other Open University reviewers. Having decided to carry out classroom observations, the number of courses remaining in the pre-reform curriculum became an issue. Indeed, as a consequence of the ongoing introduction of the curriculum reform, the number of pre-reform courses had dwindled to a relatively small number. This eventuality, coupled with both my and the potential observees' teaching schedules, resulted in a limited number of observations being carried out.

Since this thesis is being written for a professional doctorate, it is necessary for me to carry out a small-scale study on my own workplace. However, there is a limit on the amount of data a researcher carrying out a small-scale study can collect. Thus, while analysing transcripts of audio-recordings of a larger number of classes observed may have made it possible to bolster the validity of any emerging themes connected to the research questions, collecting data from videoed observations would have surpassed the attentional resources I possessed at the time (Brockmann, 2011; Schmidt, 1993).

3) Interview data

Eight separate semi-structured interviews were undertaken. One pilot study interview took place in December, 2013 and seven subsequent interviews took place between September, 2014 and June, 2015. In the following sections, I first describe the procedure undertaken in the pilot study interview and then go on to describe the post-pilot interviews.

Pilot study interview

A pilot study is a necessary pre-requisite in the process of carrying out small-scale doctoral research and involves careful planning on behalf of the researcher (Burgess et al., 2006). The plans I made for the pilot interview I took part in on December 17th, 2013, were based on a consideration of how to collect data and analyse it. The pilot study was undertaken with participant P1 and took 37 minutes. The time and location of the interview was decided amongst four different days and times. It was decided that the interview would take place in the participant's office, which is a spacious, quiet and well-lit room with comfortable seating. The language used in the interview was English but there were several occasions where the participant made use of his/her mother tongue (Japanese) for reasons of clarity or brevity. Background information to the research and prompts intended to be asked were sent to the participant three days before the interview to give a focus for the participant and a chance to plan any responses. The questions were based on a government of Japan publication on the plan to create graduating students who are 'global human resources' (Yonezawa, 2014). Themes emerged as a result of the literature review and internal documents. The interview was recorded unobtrusively with small digital sound-recorder. I made post-interview notes, which consisted of positive points and reservations about how the interview was undertaken and how I perceived the quality of answers. A transcript of the interview was made as a memory aid for the researcher and to allow the participant a chance to review what he or she said. The pilot study allowed me to reflect on the process of carrying out an interview with a prospective participant. In so doing, I was able to notice that the questions I had asked were not sufficiently well-planned to adequately answer the research questions I had prepared. As a consequence, I was able to adapt both the questions and the prompts I would use in the study proper (Kvale, 2007).

Post-pilot study

Having piloted the interviews, I added prompts that would help discover the participants' beliefs, attitudes and perceptions regarding the ongoing teaching reform and whether there had been, or there was likely to be any resulting adaption to, or adoption of CLT-oriented classroom practices. As part of my focus is on beliefs about and attitudes towards English language teaching reform, semi-structured interviews are a suitable data collection method.

As mentioned in a previous section, I collected interview data from seven full-time faculty members of the English section in the Liberal arts group at Noda campus because I concluded that they would be more knowledgeable about and conscious of the decision-making process of the reform in the English curriculum than the Japanese part-time teachers (Silverman, 2014; Josselson, 2007). While one interview took place in the office of the participant involved, the remaining six interviews took place in my office. As with the pilot study, background information to the research and prompts intended to be asked were sent to each participant three days before the interview; moreover, each interview was recorded unobtrusively with small digital sound-recorder. The length of each interview varied between 38 and 67 minutes and lasted, on average, 50 minutes. At the beginning of each interview, every participant read and signed the informed consent document (see Appendix 3) and kept a copy. Perhaps, as the participants are all teachers of English and are colleagues that I more often speak with in English; during the interviews, the participants tended to keep their comments in English with occasional switches into Japanese. This code-switching (Gumperz, 1977) mostly consisted of back-channelling phrases, or short phrases that have no ready English equivalent.

	Nationality	Academic specialty	Age	Number of years at TUS
Participant 1	Japanese	British and American Literature English	40s	3 - 5
Participant 2	Japanese	English Literature	40s	10 -15
Participant 3	Japanese	English Literature and Theatre History	60s	30 - 35
Participant 4	Japanese	English Literature	40s	15 - 20
Participant 5	Japanese	Linguistics (Old English)	50s	15 - 20
Participant 6	Japanese	English Literature	60s	25 - 30
Participant 7	Japanese	English Literature	50s	20 – 25

Table 4: Overview of interview participant characteristics

As displayed in Table 4, every member of this group is a Japanese national and has varying lengths of service between less than 5, to 30 or more years. Six of the seven teachers have an academic background in English Literature and one has a background in Linguistics. Ages range from participants in their 40s (three participants) and 50s (two participants) to those in their 60s (two participants). As all the members of this group have offices in the same corridor, arranging an interview did not demand any special preparations.

3.5.2. Data collection methods

The combination of documentary data collection, semi-structured interviews and observations increases the amount of knowledge on the nature of ELT reform in TUS in policy and in practice. In the following sections, I describe each data collection method in more detail. I first explain the differing types of documentary data I collected. I then describe the way I observed lessons, and after that, I focus on the colleagues that agreed to act as interview participants.

1) Data collection: Documentary

Institutional documents were collected from minutes to meetings connected with English teaching reform and from plans, timetables, internal memos and announcements made by the full-time English teaching staff. Institutional documents and material published online show ELT reform to be an important part of the framework that seeks to address the transformation of TUS from a nationally-focussed university into an outward-looking, world-class centre of science and technology (Tokyo University of Science, n.d.b). In order that a clear distinction is made between the English language curriculum pre- and post-reform, I collected pertinent documentary material between April 2010 and April 2017.

2) Data collection: Classroom observations

In total, I observed four lessons with two teachers. Four classroom observations were undertaken with an emphasis on both description and interpretation: two pre- and two post-reform to compare how the teacher and students interact with the classroom activities pre- and post-reform. I approached both parties by email and after making clear the observations were a follow-up on the earlier interviews they had taken part in; both teachers permitted me to observe their lessons.

Observations may be carried out in an active way, wherein the observer, to a greater or lesser degree, takes part in the classroom activities. However, because it would allow me to concentrate on taking field notes, I chose to observe in a passive way, where the observer does not take an active part in classroom activities. However, when on occasion I was asked to talk to students and model sentences, it was noted in the analysis.

For the classroom observations, I took a 'subjective and impressionistic, emotional [and] poetic' approach to writing notes in order to swiftly catalogue what happened during the lessons (Blommaert and Jie, 2010, p. 38). In this way, I made notes in a shorthand that

would will help me to recall important scenes and settings. While writing my notes, my aim was to catalogue student and teacher interaction by noting who was doing what action; at what time; and for how long. I also commented on the communication between teacher and students; and made an interpretation of the manner in which this communication took place.

3) Data collection: Semi-structured interviews

At the end of January 2014, in a formal meeting of the full-time English teaching staff, I informed my colleagues that I would be undertaking a study into the English teaching reform at TUS and this study would be part of a doctoral thesis. At this time, I announced that I would like to approach them for an interview at a mutually convenient time in the coming months. This choice of flexible scheduling made it possible to refine questions between interviews.

In order to give structure to the process of data collection by interview, I fulfilled the five steps outlined by Roulston (2013, p. 3). That is, I (1) confirmed that the interview guide contained prompts that support answering the research questions, (2) carefully considered which group of participants would be most appropriate, (3) created an interview guide associated with a semi-structured interview process, (4) gained approval for the research from the appropriate body in charge of consideration of ethical treatment of participants, and; (5) recruited participants and made an interview schedule. Although listed here in the order that Roulston sets out, the actual achievement of each step contained some overlap. Moreover, added to these five is the gaining of approval from the participants themselves (Ethical treatment of the participants is reported on in Section 3.7., below).

As well as questions about beliefs about and attitudes to external- and institutional-level policy changes, I also enquired about the teaching reform and the teachers' perceptions of the process of the implementation of CLT-type classroom activities at the level of teaching practice. I created a list of prompts that would allow me to lead into questions, create links from one question to another and make follow-up questions in a methodical way (see Appendix 4).

In order to collect data as accurately as possible, I audio-recorded every interview and made notes on what was said to aid recall, for the reflection I wrote, after each one had ended. While I typically asked my questions in the same order each time, I made use of the semi-structured idea of the process and used the interview guide to stimulate

discussion as topics of interest emerged (Kvale, 2007). I made reference to what I considered critical utterances as they arose and asked participants to share their point of view about them. To prevent misunderstandings and to give a signal for moving between each question I made a conscious decision to check that I had understood the participants' intended meaning by briefly restating what I understood had been said.

3.5.3. Data analysis methods

In this section, I explain the methods for data analysis I carried out to answer my research questions. I examined the collected data with an analysis of themes. These themes emerged during the drawing together of relationships between what was written in the document analysis; transcribed in the interviews; and written in field notes taken during classroom observations.

I used what Lapadat (2010, p. 926) describes as a thematic analysis that is both systematic and makes it possible to handle 'large volumes of data without losing the context'. The themes in this study emerged not only from a process of 'simple counting' (Kvale, 2007), in the analysis of institutional documents, but also from a sociocultural approach to data collection. That is, rather than forcing a theme to conform to a predefined notion, I contend that themes emerge from the analysis in an inductive manner (Paterson, 2010).

I describe how I analysed institutional documents, interview transcripts and observations in the sections below.

1) Data analysis: Documentary

Being a proficient user of the Japanese language, I first made initial remarks in English on the original documents. I then used a digital scanner to make copies of pertinent parts of the texts and used these digital versions to isolate the parts that I later referred to as data. Once I had separated those parts of texts, I made provisional translations if required.

Pertinent institutional documents had a direct bearing on the research questions in this study, which, in turn, shaped the questions that were asked in the interviews. This reciprocal feature is made clear in sub-section 3, where I describe how I analysed the semi-structured interviews.

2) Data analysis: Classroom observations

I took notes when I made observations in the classroom about the types of activities used by the two teachers (see an example of field notes in Appendix 7). Analysis of the

observations was carried out by reviewing field notes and arranging the observation into three main factors (Borich, 2016).

- 1) A table setting out the main distinctive elements emerging from the four lessons (see Section 5.2.1. Table 8).
- 2) A written description of what happened during each lesson in chronological order (e.g. Section 5.2.2.).
- 3) A further interpretation of the interaction between teacher and students and students and students (e.g. Section 5.2.2.).

3) Data analysis: Semi-structured interviews

I analysed the data I collected in seven semi-structured interviews by making transcripts of what was said using a standardised notation (see Appendix 5). This notation aided in creating an interpreted rendition of each transcript. Themes developed over time and aided the reassessment of the aim of the research and the connected research questions (Lapadat, 2010). I draw on a within-case approach by using initial research questions and interview prompts as a basis to start the process of coding (Paterson, 2010).

Transcribing the interviews

Initially, I chose to show how participants' intended meaning could be construed through emphasising certain words with an underline and by showing rising and falling intonation with angled arrow marks. However, after some consideration, I decided that these two notations were irrelevant to the answering of my research questions. In this way, I decided to do away with a verbatim rendering of the transcript and make it read more as a common dialogue. As a result, I decided to rewrite the transcripts in a form more in keeping with my interest in the content of *what* was said rather than in the *style* in which it was said; that is, unless the style had a bearing on the meaning or content.

Other revisions to the transcripts were how I treated code-switching between languages and parts of the interviews I deemed irrelevant. In order to give clarity to what I considered the intended meaning, and to enhance readability, I made a number of minor revisions to translations of back-channelling words and phrases. More revisions were made in the form of the exclusion of initial greetings and questions on the participants' professional background, as I considered them insufficiently relevant. In addition, certain portions of the interviews were not included when comments were made off-the-record,

veered away too far from the topic of the question, or had the potential of causing harm. A sample of a portion of an interview transcript can be found in Appendix 6.

Coding the interviews

Transcripts were written in separate documents and went through, on average, seven sets of revisions before they were ready for comparing and contrasting with other interview texts. I actively focussed on the areas of the text that contained information that, in my view, had a bearing on answering the research questions, or were interesting to the degree that such parts of the text might lead the study in a new direction. I coded in this way, because, as my stance to the investigation is interpretive, I collected data through a process that Wells (1999) refers to as 'dialogic'. Because this type of analysis gives a framework in which meanings can emerge in a negotiation between people in a dynamic dialogue, they may be viewed as 'critical utterances' (Halquist and Musanti, 2010). However, taking the term utterance as of indeterminate length, I systematically and objectively analysed longer passages (Sullivan, 2012) in which I, or the participant appeared to have had a 'moment of insight' (Kiernan, 2012).

During cross-referencing of the transcripts, these passages were brought together to form nascent themes that had potential to answer the research questions. I actively focussed on the areas of the text that contain the most pertinent sections of dialogue that shed light on the research questions. One interview transcript was juxtaposed against another, so, what constitutes an insightful passage in this study, developed over time and helped in the reassessment of the aim of the research and the connected research questions.

In order for an interpretation and analysis to occur there needs to be a reduction in length of the original amount of data. As a result, although I aim to be systematic and objective about the decisions I take, regarding what constitutes an insightful passage as a decision formed on a personal interpretation, I acknowledge that they will be biased.

Insightful passages in the interviews

In this section, I describe how an instance of a moment of insight occurred. When interview participants were asked about the balance of skills between reading, writing, listening and speaking in the reformed curriculum, two made the case for keeping an appropriate amount of focus on reading and writing skills and not to overly focus classroom activities on speaking and listening skills.

One participant argued ‘I think that reading and writing are skills – important for our students because they will read and write theses or articles in scientific fields in the future so ... you can’t think that reading and writing are not so important. I believe so.’ While the other participant relayed their opinion, thus: ‘The supporters of this change can be too critical of the methods other than CLT. For example, if we take 30 minutes or more to explain grammar, they won’t be very happy. They might say that it is too old-fashioned – it is out-of-date, but actually they need that if they want to be successful engineers or internationally successful researchers, businessmen.’ In this case, the excerpts conveyed that an emphasis on reading and writing skills was prevalent in the pre-reform ELT curriculum. The excerpts also conveyed an unwillingness to give up on grammar and translation activities. Therefore, I argue that these two participants share an *awareness* that the teaching of reading and writing skills hold great importance to them as a result of their previous learning or teaching experiences. Moreover, the attitude of these teachers is that their ability to help students improve the type of English skills they need in the future is compromised by the English teaching reform.

The final contention I have is related to the awareness these two participants have of the ELT reform in TUS. I argue that when the one participant states ‘I think that reading and writing are skills – important for our students’ and the other states, ‘The supporters of this change can be too critical of the methods other than CLT’, what they were providing was a provisional interpretation of a developing understanding. By that I mean, in reality, the participants are able to adapt CLT to meet their own beliefs and perceptions of what is best for students in their classes. They can teach reading and writing activities within a CLT approach and, by adapting the stated aims of the syllabus accompanying each course, they can create an approach that they are familiar with; yet incorporate activities that enhance oral communication. These examples demonstrate the way in which I approached and analysed the interview transcripts and identified critical points within them.

Confirming interpretations in the interviews

The final level of analysis was an interpretative summary of each proposed theme. This action was important in confirming my initial interpretation because, as Kvale (2007) points out, the interviewer typically has a monopoly on interpreting what was said in an interview.

To that end, as I am a close colleague of the interview participants, I found it particularly important to clarify meaning in the semi-structured interviews. As a result, I would then be able to better understand the ways in which the participants answered the questions and, in so doing, answer the research questions in this investigation (Balconi, 2010). Accordingly, in order to attempt an as-accurate-as-possible interpretation of the participants' words, each participant was asked to check the typed transcript of their interview; whereupon minor revisions were made on two occasions. Furthermore, on eight occasions, participants were asked in follow-up correspondence by email to clarify the meaning of a part of their interview that was unclear.

3.6. Insider/outsider role

Turning now to the role that I take in the research process in this study, because I am embedded in the research context, I am able to do an in-depth investigation that involves a study of a particular group (Denscombe, 2010). As noted (see Section 1.2); I have a dual role in the research process, which requires delicate decisions to be made regarding ethical treatment of my colleague-participants. Thus, while acknowledging I am an insider, namely a close colleague of the research participants, I am also a comparatively new member of the faculty and someone who does not possess perfect sociocultural knowledge of Japan. Thus, although I am an insider to the extent that I am carrying out research on my own workplace, I am also at the same time, what may be considered, an outsider doing what Hayes (2008, p. 3) refers to as 'working in [my] own backyard'.

3.7. Ethical Considerations

This section describes the necessary ethical considerations that emerge when doing research on human subjects. Ethical treatment of research participants is a central feature of research that hopes to acquire knowledge that is valid, reliable and beneficial to all parties concerned (Flick, 2007; Sieber, 1992). Guidelines on ethical treatment from the British Association of Applied Linguistics (BAAL, 2016) exist in order to help researchers weave through the maze of potential ethical difficulties that arise during a study involving humans (Barbour, 2008; Churchill and Sanders, 2007; Kvale, 2007). However, for the purposes of this thesis, I rely on the notion of ethics in research in the British Educational Research Association (BERA) guidelines. In these guidelines, Hammersley and Traianou (2012) note a complex and dynamic interaction of a set of five core ethical principles: (1) minimising harm (2) respecting autonomy (3) protecting

privacy (4) offering reciprocity (5) treating people equitably. With these principles in mind, a document was prepared in order to obtain informed consent of the interview participants (see Appendix 3). This document was inspected and approved by the Open University Human Research Ethics Committee (Ref: HREC/2014/1822/Jennings/1).

The matter of informed consent was the beginning of the delicate decision-making process that is undertaken when negotiating a subject that is connected with a context that goes beyond the conversation (Ezzy, 2010; Barbour, 2008). The informed consent document explains that participants' anonymity will be ensured and that they will receive a debriefing of the study after it has been completed. In order to ensure anonymity, participants are referred to by 'P' and the number corresponding to the order in which they were interviewed. Thus participant 1 is rendered as P1, participant 2, as P2, and so on. In the next paragraphs, there follow two illustrations of how I reacted to sensitivities that were raised by the interview participants. They show how decisions about how to proceed with the interviews were part of a dynamic process of interaction.

First, of the eight colleagues who were potential research participants, I interviewed seven. One colleague was unable to take part due to other commitments. In view of this, I made clear in personal communication that in no way was there to be any repercussion for not being able to participate. Second, during the interviewing process, I was asked by three different participants whether what they said would be reported to senior management. As this was related to the first interview question, I was able to immediately tell the participants that it was not and the interview continued as planned. I asked the three participants concerned whether they would like to keep the part of the interview script that concerned the reporting of what was said in the interview back to senior management in the transcript. They all said that they would rather keep it off-the-record.

This concern of which evidence to use and what to leave out goes to the heart of effective and equitable research. In research that seeks to find out beliefs, attitudes and perceptions from a group of interview participants, what has been asked by a participant to be omitted must be excluded in order to prevent harm. There remains, though, the obligation of the researcher to inform educational policy and practice without compromising the integrity of the research participants.

As a result of the interview participants being anonymised, it is possible for their comments to more accurately inform education policy than they otherwise would because

they are likely to relay their attitudes, beliefs and perceptions in a frank manner. Certainly, all participants agreed for me to use their comments towards my gaining data on English teaching reform at TUS and, as stated earlier, each transcript was checked and agreed to be valid by the participants.

3.8. Summary

In this chapter, I described the methodology I use to answer the research questions. To that end, I stated that rather than answering the research questions with ‘positivist’ scientific objectivity, using quantitative data gathering instruments; I would do an ‘interpretive’ investigation into the *messy* sociocultural context in which the enquiry takes place. I also noted that both quantifiable and qualitative data may contain elements of the other (Denscombe, 2010; Ercikan and Roth, 2006; Rubin and Rubin, 2005). I made clear that not only was the decision to undertake a case study a result of viewing the research context through a sociocultural lens, but it was also instrumental in shaping the decision to collect data with an ethnographic perspective. With reference to the taking of this approach, I reviewed three investigations in a cross-case analysis. Analysis of these studies provided a framework for the data I would collect: institutional documents, semi-structured interviews and classroom observations. In addition, mention was made about the importance of describing my role as both insider- and outsider-colleague. In this regard, I explained the need to avoid potential personal biases (Sullivan, 2012). That is, although I have personal relationships with the participants, at the same time, as a relative newcomer to the workplace and, being non-Japanese, I also have an imperfect sociocultural knowledge of both the institution and socioculturally acceptable interpersonal communication.

Lastly, I also described the need for ethical treatment of interview participants and how I navigated any conceivable ethical difficulties by following the ethical guidelines specified by BERA. Importantly, with these guidelines in mind, I created a document that would gain informed consent; and ensured anonymity by referring to participants with a code.

Turning from a description of the methodology I use to answer the research questions, I move on, in the following chapter, to describe findings from an analysis of institutional documents.

4. Institutional ELT Reform

4.1. Introduction

In this chapter, I draw on evidence in the form of institutional documents such as minutes to meetings, course timetables and internal memos to show how TUS intended to move from a traditional to a more communicative-based curriculum.

4.2. ELT reform

An analysis of data from institutional documents indicates five main ways in which the English language teaching underwent reform. The following initiatives were instigated:

- 1) Moving towards oral communication competence
- 2) Moving from teacher to student-centred teaching
- 3) Streaming of students by English ability instead of by student number
- 4) Standardising teaching materials and goals across courses
- 5) Introducing extra-curricular facilities for English learning

These five initiatives emerged from the analysis of institutional documents and they coalesce to constitute the ELT reform. In the following sections, I describe each initiative in more detail.

4.2.1. Moving towards oral communication competence

One initiative was the devising of ELT reforms to help students raise their English oral communication competence. As stated in section 1 of the General Introduction, ELT curriculum reform was put into action following a request by senior management to improve students' oral communication competence. To provide data on the extent of this action, interview transcripts and documentary data were analysed. Interview transcripts show teacher beliefs about the reason for the reform and Tables 5, 6 and 7 show changes in the number and teaching emphasis of pre- and post-reform ELT courses, and changes in the number of English courses in the pre- and post-reform eras.

As part of the move to emphasise oral communication, there was a deliberate management strategy to recruit a number of native English speakers to teach English. Subsequent to an English Working Group sub-committee meeting, minutes to an English section meeting denote plans for the employment of around eight part-time native-speaker teachers with the reasoning that it would be apt for every student to be taught by a native-

speaker at least once in the two years that they are taking English courses because these teachers would have native or near-native linguistic and cultural command of English. Thus, including myself and my full-time fixed-term contracted colleague, the number of native-speakers rose from four in academic year (henceforth, AY) 2010 to twelve in AY 2017. This three-fold increase in the number of native-speakers and a roughly one third drop in the number of courses taught by Japanese teachers, indicates an apparent shift in emphasis away from lesson activities that concentrate on grammar and translation and towards those which focus on oral communication skills. The following Table presents data on the number of courses emphasising oral communication in the pre- and post-reform eras.

	Pre-reform (AY 2010)	Post-reform (AY 2017)	Percentage rise	Percentage fall
Total number of courses	182	357	96%	-
Courses emphasising oral communication skills	17	254	1394%	-
Percentage of courses emphasising oral communication	9%	71%	62%	-
Percentage fall in the number of lessons other than those that emphasise oral communication	90%	62%	-	28%

Table 5: Courses emphasising oral communication in the pre- and post-reform era

Another piece of evidence to show that TUS is moving towards a greater emphasis on oral communication skills is the rise in the number of courses emphasising oral communication. Table 5 shows there was a rise of 96% in the number of English courses from 182 in AY 2010 to 357 in AY 2017. Another number based on my calculations is a rise in the number of courses that either highlight or emphasise oral communication skills from 17 in AY 2010 to 254 in AY 2017; or a rise of 1394%. As a consequence of the rise in native-speaker fronted lessons, there was a necessary drop in the number of courses taught by Japanese teachers, from 90% in 2010 to 62% in AY 2017.

More evidence for a move towards a greater emphasis on oral communication skills can be found in a comparison of the number of English courses available by year of study and the amount of credits earned in the pre-reform curriculum of AY 2010 and the post-reform curriculum of AY 2017. These quantities are outlined in Table 6, below.

Pre-reform (AY 2010)					Post-reform (AY 2017)				
Title of Course	Year available and number of credits				Title of Course	Year available and number of credits			
	1 st year	2 nd year	3 rd year	4 th year		1 st year	2 nd year	3 rd year	4 th year
英語講読 I (Reading-translation I)	2				Freshman English	2			
英語講読 II (Reading-translation II)			2		Integrated Skills in English A	1			
英語講読 III (Reading-translation III)			2		Integrated Skills in English B		1		
英語表現 I (English Expression I)	2				Integrated Skills in English C		1		
英語表現 II (English Expression II)			2		Reading Skills A	1			
英語表現 III (English Expression III)			2		Reading Skills B		1		
英会話 (初級 (Conversation [Beginner]))			2		Writing Skills A	1			
英会 (中級 (Conversation [Intermediate]))			2		Writing Skills B			1	
アカデミック・ライティング (Academic Writing)			2		Listening and Speaking Skills A	1			
プレゼンテーション (Presentation)			2		Listening and Speaking Skills B			1	
時事英語 I (Current English I)			2		English for Academic Purposes 1			1	
時事英語 II (Current English II)			2		English for Academic Purposes 2			1	
英語基礎総合 I (General Basic English I)			2		TOEIC/TOEFL Skills 1			1	
* Courses that apply only to students under the pre-reform curriculum					TOEIC/TOEFL Skills 2			1	
					Global Issues 1			1	
					Global Issues 2			1	
					English Communication A*			2	
					英語講読 III (Reading-translation III) *			2	

Table 6: Changes in number and teaching emphasis of pre- and post-reform ELT courses

Although there was neither any change in the average number of credits (128) that students need to attain for an undergraduate degree, nor the average number of credits that English courses may contribute to that (10); courses in English in the Liberal Arts group have undergone substantial change in teaching emphasis at the request of senior management.

One change between the teaching emphasis of pre- and post-reform ELT courses is that course titles displayed, only in Japanese in official documentation in the pre-reform era, are rendered in English only in AY 2017. The change in course titles can be traced to the minutes of a monthly meeting of the Liberal Arts Group (see Appendix 8). This change in course titles suggests a shift in attitude towards the teaching of English. Namely, that there has been a move to demonstrate distance between the use of the Japanese language in English classes and, as a consequence, an apparent distancing from grammar-translation as a teaching approach.

A second signal of change in the teaching emphasis of pre- and post-reform ELT courses is the number of credit points per course that students obtain towards their undergraduate degree. In the pre-reform era of AY 2010 the number of credits per course, at two, is representative of the year-long, thirty-week mode of the previous curriculum. This shift from year-long courses to semester-based courses can be located in a decision made by senior management to follow government policy guidelines (see Appendix 9). These guidelines state that that semester-based courses (April to July and September to January) allow for a larger number of foreign students to join classes in September when the academic year begins in the vast majority of education systems around the world; and so, make it possible for TUS to make strides towards a greater internationalisation of the student body. Thus, semester-based courses were phased in from AY 2013 and a consequent large rise in the number of English courses took place. More indications of reform connected with this rise can be traced in a comparison of the types of courses; the table below specifies the difference between the pre- and post-reform eras in terms of the rise in the number of courses emphasising oral communication skills.

AY 2010				AY 2017			
Course title	Number of courses	Ratio of native-speaker teachers to Japanese teachers	Percent taught by 'native-speakers'	Course title	Number of courses	Ratio of native-speaker teachers to Japanese teachers	Percent taught by 'native-speakers'
英会話 (初級) (Conversation [Beginner])	7	7:0	100%	Freshman English (Small class CLT)	62	24:38	38%
英会 (中級) (Conversation [Intermediate])	10	10:0	100%	Freshman English (Large class Non-CLT)	24	0:24	0%
英語講読 I (Reading-translation I)	41	0:41	0%	Integrated Skills in English A	49	28:21	57%
英語講読 II (Reading-translation II)	34	0:34	0%	Integrated Skills in English B	49	19:30	38%
英語講読 III (Reading-translation III)	3	0:3	0%	Integrated Skills in English C	49	15:34	30%
英語表現 I (English Expression I)	36	0:36	0%	Reading Skills A	12	0:12	0%
英語表現 II (English Expression II)	31	0:31	0%	Reading Skills B	12	0:12	0%
英語表現 III (English Expression III)	4	0:4	0%	Writing Skills A	12	4:8	33%
英語基礎総合 I (General Basic English I)	2	0:1	0%	Listening and Speaking Skills A	12	7:5	58%
アカデミック・ライティング (Academic Writing)	3	0:3	0%	Listening and Speaking Skills B	12	9:3	75%
プレゼンテーション (Presentation)	2	0:2	0%	English for Academic Purposes 1	8	3:5	37%
時事英語 I (Current English I)	8	0:8	0%	English for Academic Purposes 2	12	3:9	25%
時事英語 II (Current English II)	1	0:1	0%	TOEIC/TOEFL Skills 1	8	0:8	0%
時事英語 III (Current English III)	1	0:1	0%	TOEIC/TOEFL Skills 2	12	0:12	0%
TOTAL	182	17:165	10%	Global Issues 1	8	5:3	62%
* Courses that apply only to students under the pre-reform curriculum				Global Issues 2	12	9:3	75%
				Basic Presentation Skills	2	1:1	50%
				*English Communication A	1	1:0	100%
				*英語講読 III (Reading-translation III)	1	0:1	0%
				TOTAL	357	128:229	37%

Table 7: Changes in number of English courses in the pre- and post-reform eras

While the difference in terms of the number of courses that are taught by native-speakers and Japanese is much higher in the post-reform era. Data in Table 7 indicates that while reform has resulted in the majority of Listening and Speaking courses being taught by native-speaker teachers, it has not resulted in the dominance of native-speakers in all courses. Data here also appears to signify that courses on reading and test-taking skills are considered better taught by Japanese teachers, who, presumably, teach in the teacher-centred manner normally equated with such courses.

4.2.2. From teacher to student-centred teaching

A second initiative of standardising the provision of courses by creating course-specific curriculum goals where none existed before, provides evidence for a move from teacher-centred to student-centred teaching. Analysis of institutional documents devised by the English teaching faculty reveals the introduction of more detailed course syllabi. Namely, detailed post-reform syllabi ensure a greater amount of standardisation of content and a move from teacher-centred to student-centred learning.

This provision of detailed syllabi, combined with other administrative details provided by the office for educational affairs and an English language handbook, as a guide for native-speaker teachers (see Appendix 10), suggests a significant change between the pre- and post-reform eras. That is, while in the pre-reform era there was scant detail on course aims written in Japanese; in the post-reform era, a large amount of administrative information; including course descriptions, objectives and goals, is written in English. In the following, I report on pre- and post-reform course outlines, which seem to indicate teachers having to deal with a greater amount of administrative work as a by-product of the move to a more student-centred style of teaching, resulting in negative opinions of the changes.

The following is a translated version (see Appendix 11 for original) of the pre-reform guidelines for the courses titled English Conversation (Beginner/Intermediate) from AY 2010.

English Conversation courses are taught by native-speakers and have the objective to improve oral communication skills. The English Conversation (Beginner) course is aimed at a basic level, while English Conversation (Intermediate) targets a higher level of ability.

Figure 2: Guidelines for *English Conversation (Beginner/Intermediate)*

This example reveals that course guidelines given to teachers (both part- and full-time and Japanese and native-speaker) offered only brief and open-ended explanations as to course content and method of teaching and suggests that in the pre-reform era, teachers had freedom to create content and decide how to teach. It can be surmised therefore that teachers decided that it would be sensible for them to teach in the same way that they had done in the past, moreover it is a teaching method that students were also already likely to have been familiar. That is, these courses should be taught using a traditional grammar translation approach via a transmission of knowledge from teacher to student.

In the post-reform era however, teachers are provided with information that conforms to newly created guidelines in the sample syllabi for each course. Syllabi are then made available for students to view online and, furthermore, by third parties including government entities responsible for checking that all necessary information for carrying out a course is present.

Freshman English is designed for first-year students. Its aim is to prepare you for further studies at university and lay a foundation for the use of English in the future, at work and in research. This will be achieved by revising the basic grammar and vocabulary you learned at school and using this in more practical situations.

This course is taught twice a week. In one lesson the class concentrates on oral communication and is conducted in English. In the other lesson, the class concentrates on grammatical structure through reading, grammar and writing exercises, and is conducted both in English and Japanese.

Small class (少人数):

Class description 授業の概要

Freshman English is based on improving your ability to talk about various topics connected with social issues. You will critically consider different opinions by:

(1) Listening to classmates' opinions and giving your own.

(2) Building up and shared ideas in discussion.

Skills you learn here are directly related to your study in the second semester of this year.

Objectives 目的

This class moves away from a formal type of teacher-centered English learning. It moves towards you taking control and beginning to improve your ability to talk about various topics connected with social issues.

Goals 到達目標

You will become familiar with critically considering different opinions on a variety of themes. You will become better able to give clear opinions on a variety of topics. This lesson prepares you for 'Integrated Skills in English A' in the second semester of this year.

Figure 3: Teaching guidelines for the required course *Freshman English*

These two sets of guidelines suggest a marked difference between first year courses emphasising oral communication skills improvement in the pre- and post-reform eras. Indeed, it may be argued that standardisation appears to be a side-effect of the shift to CLT. In Chapter 6, further descriptions of data reveal that teachers seem to conflate the shift to CLT with an increased administrative burden, which gives them negative attitudes to both.

In Figure 3, the description clarifies that the medium in which the small class part of the course is to be taught is in English rather than Japanese. It also specifies that students will be given tasks that encourage the negotiation of meaning in oral communication activities. Another precept is, a clear statement of objectives helps both teachers and students to become aware of the proposed shift from a teacher-centred to a learner-centred classroom. Lastly, taking into account how students at TUS tend to lack critical-thinking skills, the goals of the course show how students are expected to give clear opinions on a range of issues that are further built upon in subsequent required courses.

These four guidelines indicate that the employment of native-speakers has had an effect on the amount of time students are expected to communicate with each other in English during lessons. However, as outlined above in the methodology section, the ability for students to form opinions on social issues depends on a mixture of sociocultural factors which seem to be at odds with ELT reform. As a result, in order to stratify students into groups that share a similar English ability level, and, conceivably, a similar outlook on its relevance, the streaming of classes through the measurement of general English skills in standardised tests began in AY 2014.

4.2.3. Streaming of English courses by ability

A third initiative was the streaming of students by English ability instead of by student number. In the pre-reform era, institutional documents indicate that English courses were either assigned randomly in the case of elective courses, or by student number in the case of required classes (see Appendix 12). In personal communication, one teacher who has been a member of the faculty for more than 25 years informed me that students are likely to have been assigned English classes in student number order since the inception of Noda campus in 1968. The longstanding use of mixed ability classes in the pre-reform era is in contrast with the post-reform era, where required classes are streamed in terms of

English ability via standardised external tests and where the streaming process continues to be revised.

Following the stated aims of the report by senior management in AY 2012 (see Appendix 13), starting in AY 2014; all first-year students took a computer-based version of the TOEIC as a placement test for English courses at the end of each semester. However, due to the wide gap in English ability between high- and low-achieving students, courses were split into three bands according to TOEIC score; upper, middle and lower. Student scores were analysed and, depending on the number of students in each department, groups of between 16 and 35 students were allocated a class between level 'a' and level 'h'.

Minutes to an English section meeting in AY 2014 (see Appendix 14) suggest that the full-time English teaching faculty considered undertaking the running, analysis and placement for over 2,400 students every semester to be quite a burden. As a result, the placement test for students entering TUS was revised and, in AY 2015, started to be undertaken outside of the university. Thereafter, rather than full-time English faculty members, the test was invigilated by staff of English Testing Service who administer the TOEIC. A plan exists to expand the running of the TOEIC externally as a placement test and the testing of students' English attainment once a year rather than every semester, which will also lower the burden of placing students in classes according to their TOEIC data.

Another revision can be found in the minutes to a committee meeting that brings together teachers in the English section with a representative teacher of each of the 12 science departments. In one meeting of the English Working Group sub-committee in AY 2015, it was agreed that in order for students to take the test seriously 10% of their grade for required courses, was to be calculated according to their TOEIC score (see Appendix 15). Although this addition was revised in AY 2017 so that it was only required in the first semester, it testifies to the greater importance accorded to oral English communication in the newly reformed curriculum.

4.2.4. Standardising teaching materials and goals across courses

As noted, guidelines that part-time teachers received prior to each academic year in the pre-reform era contained no specific advice on materials that teachers should use.

Moreover, the freedom for teachers to choose their own materials had likely been this

way since the inception of English courses at TUS. Thus, there appears to have been a tacit understanding that each course was to stand alone.

In contrast, institutional documents indicate that in the post-reform era courses are semester-based and, as a result, it emerged in English section meeting minutes that courses would need to complement each other (see Appendix 16). For this reason, remarks made in English section meeting minutes in AY 2013 reveal that teachers of required courses, emphasising oral communication skills, would be required to choose a textbook from a prepared list. The five lists of textbooks were prepared by full-time faculty members of the English section after consideration of their suitability. The five textbook lists contain a selection of textbooks targeting both the international and Japanese market. The reasoning for the list of textbooks is pointed out in minutes to an English section meeting; that once the decision was made to systematise learning outcomes by standardising the choice of textbooks, a way to ensure that the same textbooks are not used in differing courses had to be devised.

Revisions have been made to the five initial textbook lists. As well as revisions resulting from textbooks going out of print, minutes to an English section meeting indicate that due to the making of meticulous class divisions in AY 2014, students who had low levels of motivation and aptitude gathered in the lower level classes and these courses were difficult to teach as a result. Thus, from AY 2015, the lower ability level was scrapped and while levels a, b and c remained upper level classes, levels d to h were purposely allocated with students of mixed levels of ability (see Appendix 17). Accordingly, as opposed to the pre-reform era, textbooks are used in the post-reform era in order to cater for students with varying levels of English ability. This supports my argument that there is a move towards a greater amount of CLT-type activities because all the textbooks in the list contain these activities as an integral part of their lesson plans.

4.2.5. Introducing extra-curricular facilities for English learning

This section describes the creation of an English lounge and an English consultation service. Establishing these learning spaces outside the classroom is evidence for a move away from a mode of English learning that directly transfers knowledge from teacher to student in discrete steps to one where students take more responsibility for their own learning.

1) The creation of an English Lounge

The English section website at Noda campus (see Appendix 18), reveals that the English Lounge is a converted classroom that was designed with the express purpose of establishing a space in which students chat in English with part-time, or supply teachers and other students. Moreover, it explains that along with free tea and coffee, there is a television, a selection of magazines, newspapers books and board games that have been made available in order to make the Lounge an inviting destination for students.

As TUS is a science university and not a university in which students study foreign languages as a major, joint or minor part of their degree, students are bound to have varying degrees of willingness to engage in English classes. This notion substantiates the shift in emphasis towards communicative skills in English lessons for the significant minority of students who are interested in conversing in English outside of classes.

Findings show student usage of the Lounge has grown rapidly on the days of the week that have native-speaker supply teachers. Data shows that comparing the first semester and second semester of its use the rise in the number of students attending the English Lounge was 134, or a rise of 158%. This rise in popularity seems to indicate a preference for having communication partners in the Lounge for extended periods of time rather than in separate timeslots. Moreover, as the data shows that the same students frequently visit the Lounge it may be inferred that communicating with the native-speaker supply teachers in an out-of-the-class atmosphere is a rewarding experience. Indeed, subsequent budgetary increases, mean that, as of September 2017, the number of hours teachers work has risen by 5 hours to a total of 21 hours a week.

Thus, as the number of students using the Lounge has risen, so senior management has responded with a larger budget to employ native-speaker supply teachers. This appears to denote a move on behalf of senior management to support chances for students to interact with native-speaker teachers in the type of dynamic/non-linear communication that is being implemented in the ELT reforms.

2) The creation of an English consultation service

In the pre-reform era, there was no place for students to get advice on essay writing or to brush up their oral presentation skills. In contrast a plan for an English consultation service was formed by full-time faculty members of the English section and then cleared by the English Working Group sub-committee in AY 2013 (see Appendix 19). The

rationale for this expanded consultation service corroborates the shift in emphasis towards communicative skills in that it provides a way for students, or teachers, who want to relate their academic research in English to an international audience.

It was proposed that with no extra compensation, the native English-speaking full-time non-tenured member of the English teaching faculty be available to consult with those students, or members of faculty, wishing to have their English academic writing or oral presentation checked. Starting in April 2014, students who wish to use the service, contact the teacher and make an appointment online. A review of the data kept by the teacher in charge reveals that the number of students using the service was 25 in AY 2014 and 36 in AY 2015, or an increase of 44%. In AY 2016, the numbers of visitors remained roughly the same as the previous year, at 39, showing an increase of 8%.

The fact that the service is popular enough to warrant its continuation shows that there is a clear need for students and others to have their English checked. The increase in visitors to the service seems to have stabilised but it remains to be seen whether this service will continue to fall or rise in popularity. In personal communication, the teacher in charge of the service makes clear that the current pace of 2 or 3 visitors a week is not over-burdensome. However, there may be a need to create a facility, or employ teachers for, the specific purpose of getting advice on academic writing or presentations - as in the case of the English Lounge.

In sum, with regard to extra-curricular English services, it may be gathered that students feel oral communication skills improvement in a sociable environment to be more valuable than advice on writing or presentations.

4.3. Summary

In this chapter, I described five reforms to the English curriculum in TUS; drawing on data in the form of teaching schedules, minutes to meetings and data gathered from extra-curricular English facilities for students.

Analysis of the teaching schedule indicates a significant increase in the number of English courses emphasising oral communication, taught in the main by native-speakers, and a substantial drop in the number of English courses taught by Japanese teachers. Furthermore, institutional documents provide evidence that innovations in teaching practice were introduced through clarifying the intended achievement of learning goals,

the periodic testing of English in nationally recognised tests and using a limited range of textbooks containing CLT-type activities.

Institutional documents also show the increase in popularity of both a new English Lounge for students to engage in conversation with native-speaking teachers outside of the classroom; and an English consultation service for students and faculty to improve the accuracy of their English research papers or presentations. All of these changes combined to support the argument that there is a clear shift towards the use of CLT in the post-reform curriculum.

From findings that emerged during analysis of the nature of changes in policy that have brought about ELT reform, the following chapter reports on findings arising out of an analysis of four classroom observations.

5. Classroom observations

5.1. Introduction

This chapter moves on to report on findings that emerged from an analysis of classroom observations between May and December, 2015. As described earlier, observations were made of two teachers two times each. The first observation was of a lesson in the pre-reform curriculum and the second was of a lesson in the post-reform curriculum. These observations were carried out with a view to explore if teachers altered their teaching practices as a result of the reform.

5.2. Classroom observations: Overview

Classes were observed, and field notes were written with the intent to convey not only a representative impression of what was done by whom and for how long, but also in the way teachers and students, and students and students interacted with each other.

Examples of what I noted down are: oral and verbal instructions given by the teacher, the occasions individual, pair, or group work took place, when teachers spoke or wrote in Japanese and the ratio if it was a mix of both, and; a post-observation reflection of what transpired from my point of view (see Appendix 7 for an example of field notes). Such field notes were written in order to produce a narrative of what took place and provide the basis for any themes to emerge that may inform my research questions.

As noted, a decision was made not to augment field notes with audio- or video-recordings. This decision was made because I considered that it would be highly likely that I would lack the attentional resources needed to analyse these recordings sufficiently well enough, since I was already in the middle of analysing interview transcripts and institutional documentation.

5.2.1. Classroom layout

This section contains a description of the classrooms where the observations took place in order to show how they may have an impact on how students interact and participate.

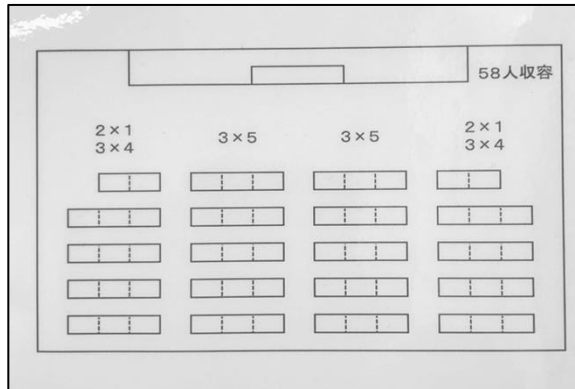


Figure 4: Photo of layout of a typical classroom in the Lecture Building

Two of the observations took place in the Lecture Building. This building consists of both large and medium-sized classrooms. Each classroom has electronic equipment such as a video recorder in a cupboard in the upper right-hand corner of Figure 4, and a blackboard with a podium and a chair on a raised dais in the uppermost-centre. Teachers can use a laptop computer or other device in tandem with a projector and screen which can be pulled down when needed. In the medium-sized classrooms used in the observations, even though each desk has space for three people, students usually sit two people to a desk. All tables and chairs face the blackboard and cannot be moved easily due to their heavy weight.



Figure 5: Photo of layout of a computer room

Two other observations took place in one of the computer rooms on campus. In this classroom, there is a raised dais with a whiteboard and a purpose-built desk with a

computer, monitor and equipment that is able to control what students see and hear. The teacher's computer can be navigated to instruct students on a sub-monitor next to each student's computer monitor. The 46 available computers are set at two per table. Most tables are arranged with students facing the walls. There are also two columns of tables in the middle of the room perpendicular to the whiteboard. Students at these computers sit facing each other.

Moving on from a description of the classrooms, in the next section I describe findings gathered from each of the four observations. Each observation is explained: first, by giving a description of the activities that took place, and second by a critical interpretation of what seemed to have transpired during each observation. Table 8, below, depicts the four observations in terms of themes noted by the researcher.

Pre-curriculum reform classroom observation			Post-curriculum reform classroom observation	
	Teacher P6	Teacher P5	Teacher P6	Teacher P5
Type of class	Reading class	Reading class	4 skills	4 skills
Type of classroom	Lecture Building	Computer room	Lecture Building	Computer room
Basis for activities	The Economist magazine	Bilingual textbook on current news: Japanese publisher	Four skills textbook in English: International publisher	Four skills textbook in English: International publisher
Amount of student-student oral communication in English	None	None	Quite high	Very little
Level of vocabulary	Very high	High	Comprehensible	Comprehensible
Sense of routine	Yes	Somewhat	In part	Somewhat
Sense of calm	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Type of approach	Teacher-centred	Teacher-controlled and Student-centred	Student-centred	Teacher-controlled and Student-centred
Number of students that speak in English in assigned activities	Few	None	Every student in the class	A minority
Classroom activities include teacher informing students of meaning	Yes	No	No	No
Classroom activities include students negotiating meaning between them	No	No	Yes	No
Teacher acting as a broker of meaning	Yes	No	Yes	No
Teacher acting as a facilitator	No	Yes	Yes	Yes

Table 8: Overview of emerging themes during classroom observations in the pre- and post-curriculum reform

5.2.2. Pre-curriculum reform: Reading class 1

1) Description

The observation of this class took place on May 28th, 2015 in the Lecture Building. There was a roughly 50-50 ratio of male and female students from the Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences. Before I walked in the classroom, the teacher informed me that the observations would be a typical lesson from the old curriculum. This gave me pause to consider what such a typical lesson would be like. I was then reminded of the literature I had read about Japanese students being very accustomed to such lessons. That is, where classroom activities take place in an objective, teacher-centred classroom.

I was introduced as a visitor. Next, there was an introduction to the main topic of the lesson. It became apparent that students already knew that the activities in the lesson were based on the homework they had been given the previous week. First, the teacher directed a selected student to read aloud a paragraph of the original English text of the article given to read for homework, followed by their reading aloud of the Japanese translation of that paragraph. The article was titled ‘The reason loneliness could be bad for your health’ (Economist, 2011). The article consisted of 613 words and used highly sophisticated language that may be referred to as intellectual.

Lonely people, it seems, are at greater risk than the gregarious of developing illnesses associated with chronic inflammation, such as heart disease and certain cancers. According to a paper published last year in the *Public Library of Science, Medicine*, the effect on mortality of loneliness is comparable with that of smoking and drinking. It

Figure 6: A selection of text from ‘The reason loneliness could be bad for your health’

The remainder of the lesson consisted of a series of six activities:

In the first activity, a student was chosen to read aloud from the text. The student read aloud in a regular monotone in English then repeated the same text in what appeared to be a highly fluent Japanese translation. The teacher then explained certain phrases and the extent to which they were accurately translated.

The second activity was a repetition of the first with another chosen student. The difference between the first and second student is that although the second student read in a regular monotone, they sometimes lapsed into a native-like English pronunciation. The next activity consisted of an explanation of certain phrases from the text that were

considered key to its understanding. Using the blackboard, the teacher translated phrase by phrase in Japanese.

The fourth activity took the same pattern as before, so a sense of routine had built up by this time. A new student was chosen to read aloud from the text in English and then repeated the same text in a Japanese translation. In this case, the teacher pointed out the difference in fluency between the reading aloud of the original English text and the fluency of the reading aloud of the Japanese translation. The teacher said it would be better to speak with a more marked intonation in English. As before, the teacher compared the student's Japanese translation with the original text.

The final two activities consisted of the same pattern: a newly selected student reading aloud the original English followed by a Japanese translation. However, just before the final activity, the teacher altered the flow of activities up to that point. This was done by endeavouring to create a focus for the last paragraph of the text by asking a question about whether the students took part in extra-curricular activities or not. However, as no one ventured an answer, the teacher continued with an explanation from his perspective. That is, extra-curricular activities may impact one's health from the view of combatting loneliness rather than just of building up physical strength or endurance.

2) Interpretation

The consideration that a sense of routine had built up seemed to be borne out when it became clear that students appeared to be comfortable with a reading and translation approach to learning. Indeed, field notes illustrate that students 'seemed happy' with being chosen at random to read-out-loud a translation of the text. The following observation from field notes, moreover, seems to support the calm and objective atmosphere of the classroom: 'Feels like a scientific dissection. I mean clinical and distant. Good for higher level reading [of] complex authentic texts'; by making clear the impression of the activities being disengaged from language as it is used, that is, as a form of intellectual pursuit, in the manner of mastering the syntax of English rather than proficiency in oral communication. Indeed, the passage that students had translated into Japanese contained the sentence 'The effect on mortality of loneliness is comparable to smoking and drinking', which is not typically the type of phrase found in English language learning texts for EFL students studying a pure science degree. Such a high-

level phrase is more likely to be found in the sink-or-swim level of a submersion ESL environment (see Section 2.9., Figure 1).

This thought-process led to the following written observation ‘I’m reminded that the semantic distance between Japanese and English is very wide’; this remark appears to pull together both the sense of calm detachment that seemed to permeate the classroom, and the use of translation as a classroom activity. As evidenced in field notes; while students typically spoke in a Japanese-accented monotone while reading from the original text, the reading-aloud of their Japanese translation was free-flowing. Thus, the use of translation seems to act as a kind of safety net, allowing students to speak in English while staying within the security of their mother tongue. In other words, rather than getting students to converse spontaneously and unaided, the use of translation into Japanese, perhaps acted as a kind of scaffold to support students’ understanding of the differences between the very dissimilar syntax of English and Japanese.

While field notes point to the students in this observation as appearing to have a high ability in reading in English and translating into Japanese, conversely, the oral communication ability of these students remains unknown. Field notes show the teacher asking questions to the class; but these questions turned out to be rhetorical, as is shown in the following entry ‘It seems that the teacher was not expecting any answers because no one was directed to answer’.

5.2.3. Pre-curriculum reform: Reading class 2

1) Description

The observation of this reading class took place on June 2nd, 2015 in one of the computer classrooms on campus; and consisted of 30 male students from the Faculty of Science and Technology. Most students sat at tables placed perpendicular to the teacher’s desk at the front of the classroom. About eight other students sat scattered around the edge of the room facing either a wall or a window. Each student had access to his own computer and sub-monitor. The students already knew that it was important to bring their own earphones to listen to the online readings.

The textbook, *News Gallery 2015* was a bilingual textbook and published by a Japanese publisher. Each unit covers a well-known news topic from the previous year. I was introduced as a visitor while students were logging in to their computers.

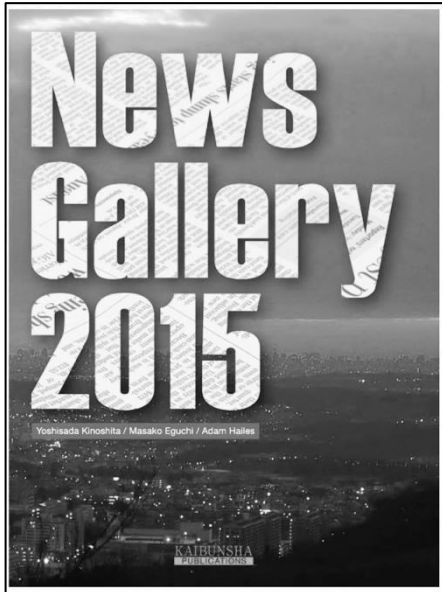


Figure 7: Front cover of the textbook *News Gallery 2015*

The lesson was structured into a series of activities:

The first activity consisted of students talking to a partner and asking questions on the topic of chapter six in the textbook *more university students looking for post-graduation employment overseas*, in pairs. For the second activity, the teacher asked students to make a Japanese translation of specific English phrases in the textbook, in preparation for the following page which had a reading passage. Some students did this by themselves and some did the task with a partner.

<p>関野光剛 personnel dispatch services 人材紹介サービス de riguer ゼひ必要 job-placement companies 就職支援会社</p>	<p>⑥ “I feel that the number of those seeking jobs at foreign companies has increased,” says Recruit Holdings staffer Mitsutaka Sekino, who handles personnel dispatch services in India. The job hunting process overseas differs from that in Japan, where preliminary application forms called “entry sheets” are de riguer. Instead, applicants might be asked to submit projects they completed in school. In general, students looking for work abroad appear to use services provided by job-placement companies to approach foreign companies. 25</p> <p style="text-align: right;">30</p>
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Figure 8: Reading passage from *News Gallery 2015*

In the third activity, students were chosen at random to read the translations of the questions they had prepared. Following that, students were directed to a web-based class management system (CMS) that they seem very familiar with. This platform was accessed and then students listened to an audio file from the computer and read while listening. Following the reading, students answered questions in written form about the passage.

Activities

Vocabulary Check

次の単語の定義を下の選択肢から選んでください。

1. flock () 2. expansion () 3. preliminary ()
 4. application () 5. submit () 6. prospect ()

(a) the action of becoming larger or more extensive
 (b) present something to a person for consideration or judgement
 (c) move or go together in a crowd
 (d) the possibility that something will happen
 (e) a formal request to an authority
 (f) preceding or done in preparation for something fuller or more important

Figure 9: Vocabulary checking activity from *News Gallery 2015*

Students carried on using the textbook at their own pace and started to do an activity where they reviewed vocabulary. Following that, the students took part in a seemingly new activity in the shape of an online CMS ‘True or False’ quiz. This quiz was based on vocabulary such as ‘flock’, ‘expansion’ and ‘preliminary’; they had just reviewed. At this point the teacher monitored how students were progressing by interacting with a few students. Upon entering their answers into the quiz, students were able to see the percentage of true or false answers appearing in real-time in an online pie chart. Students worked online with activities created from the textbook on the CMS. Next, students were informed by the teacher to continue with the textbook in Japanese written on the sub-monitor next to their computer screen. In this way, the teacher further facilitated student progression through the class. Instructions were given at the end of the lesson about preparations for the following week.

2) Interpretation

One observation made in field notes is that while the textbook has instructions and translations of certain phrases in Japanese, the level of English vocabulary was what I deemed ‘high’. Notwithstanding this difficulty of input, another field note pointed to the easy-going atmosphere of the classroom and ‘simple’ activities. Moreover, later in the lesson, the written observation was made that ‘students are quietly getting on with things. Calmness.’ These comments seem to demonstrate that students observed during this

lesson appear to be keen to carry out the reading activities while taking part in ‘a little small talk in Japanese’. On the other hand, field notes indicate a concern on behalf of myself with regard to students ‘not discussing anything as of yet’.

Although students did engage in asking and answering questions from the textbook in English at the start of the class, these questions did not appear to lead to any discussion in order to form a consensus. In this way, field notes indicate, students seemed to have an air of confidence that was observed as presupposing there would be, ‘no discussion in English in class’. Thus, perhaps either as a result of the simplicity of using online activities based on the textbook that require little or no discussion, or perhaps the knowledge that according to the field notes ‘all instructions [from the teacher are written or spoken] in Japanese’; students appeared to feel content to talk in Japanese, in what the field notes describe as ‘light terms’.

At the end of the observation, the teacher was asked whether discussions took place during other lessons, or whether this particular observation was out of the ordinary. Speaking to this, field notes show that the teacher informed me that discussions are held ‘from time to time’. Thus, rather than informing students of the meaning of the text they had read; or acting as a broker of meaning between languages; the main thrust of the fifteen-week course appears to be allowing students to read at their own pace and, according to field notes, ‘to gather data on students [as they] advance through the [online activities]’.

After relaying what was observed in the two lessons in the pre-reform curriculum, I now move on to describing the observations that took place in the post-reform era.

5.2.4. Post-curriculum reform: Communication class 1

1) Description

The observation of this class took place on December 18th, 2015 in the Lecture Building. The class was made up of a ratio of roughly 70:30 male to female students from the Faculty of Science and Technology. The textbook used in this observation was published by an international publisher in English and was designed to integrate reading, writing, listening and speaking. The teacher introduced me at the beginning of the lesson.

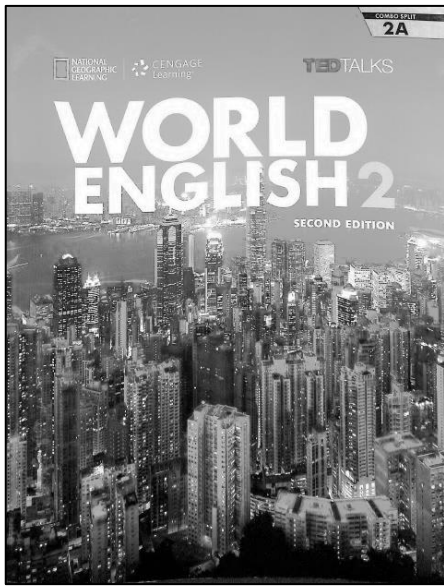


Figure 10: Front cover of the textbook *World English 2A*

Field notes specify that the first activity consisted of the teacher giving cards at random to students in order to make pairs. Further correspondence with the teacher reveals that the *cards* used were what the teacher calls ‘the usual attendance cards’ – that is, credit card-sized coloured pieces of paper that contain spaces for students' name, number, department, name of the class and teacher, day and period. The teacher clarified the pair-making procedure and why it was undertaken as follows:

I just shuffle the cards and make pairs, read the names aloud and make them share the desk side by side. But one thing I should add here is this I try NOT to couple students who are from the same department. For example, if you teach [a joint] MA (Mathematics) and EE (Electrical Engineering) class ... one MA and one EE [should] make pairs. This is because TUS students are shy and without our efforts they don't like to have chat with students who are not familiar with each other.

科目名	担当教員
月 日 ()	時限
理工 学部	学科 年 番
氏 名	
東京理科大学野田校舎	

Figure 11: Attendance card

Thus, the teacher seems to be facilitating a lesson environment in which the usual passive mode of soothing familiarity, or *routine* is purposely disrupted.

In the next activity inspired by the textbook, the teacher told students not to speak in Japanese and started to give examples of common and familiar vocabulary to help them create correct expressions that would explain how to get to the nearest train station. Students were informed that they would then work together to write down their explanation.

The third activity comprised of four randomly chosen pairs of students writing their directions on the blackboard. After each of the four explanations had been written on the board, the teacher gave advice on how to improve the grammatical accuracy of the sentences. The teacher then orally described the differences between general and specific directions, while referring to the four examples on the board. The teacher went on to explain, in Japanese, the connection between a general and specific attitude when giving directions, and the general to specific statements needed in science.

The next activity was a textbook activity connected with how food is thought to shape a city.

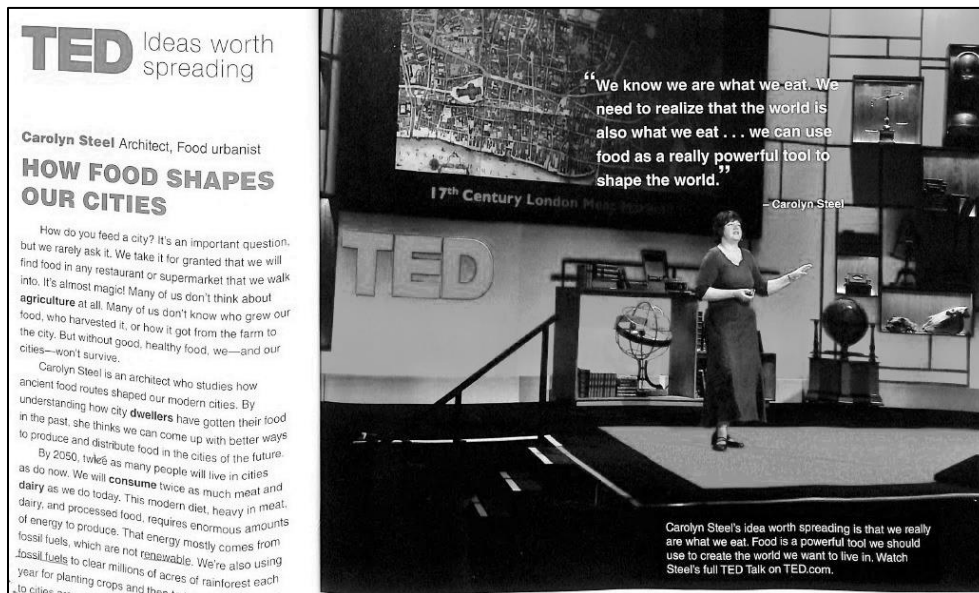


Figure 12: Reading activity from *World English 2A*

Students were asked to make three predictions on the future of food using phrases from the textbook. Students were chosen at random to write on the blackboard and the teacher

commented on grammatical accuracy and the extent to which the ideas were likely to be realised. Questions about the reading were answered in the textbook in pairs. Homework was given to read the text about the TED presentation contained in the textbook by the following week.

2) Interpretation

Field notes indicate my view that the amount of English spoken by the teacher at the beginning of the lesson was 'lengthy'. The following comments 'Really explaining in English' and 'lots of English' in the field notes appear to indicate surprise at the extent it was used. However, as a subsequent note implies, the teacher seems to have been aware that not all students were able to grasp what was said, so a switch to using occasional words or phrases from the mother tongue (code-switching) was employed as a means by which the teacher would be able to successfully broker the meaning of what was said in English in a timely manner.

A subsequent written observation noted, the teacher's belief that 'the grammar [in the directions giving activity] is too easy' for the students. What can be inferred from this statement is that although the teacher indicates the grammar is very simple for the students, the oral communication part of the activity will not be as easy. Thus, the teacher seems to be presupposing students' lack of ability in explaining simple directions to their classmates. Such a presupposition may be, in turn, based on an apparent understanding of the gap between students' meta-linguistic knowledge of English and how competent they are in oral communication.

A further observation demonstrated the teacher's approach to instruction in the 'directions to the nearest train station' activity. Firstly, field notes reveal an impression that the teacher made the activity 'real' by setting the directions from the Lecture Building to the nearest train station, which is different from the activity shown in the textbook. What may be inferred from this is the teacher wished to introduce a sense of closeness to the topic and thus engage the students in taking an interest in getting the directions correct.

Moreover, there may have been a sense of competition involved in creating directions that would be comprehensible to other students in the class after the directions are written on the board. In this way, according to field notes, the conversations between students while they were constructing directions, appeared to be 'animated'.

Field notes also show that once students formed a pair, they worked together to create the directions, yet it is not clear whether the students were talking together in English or Japanese at that time. All the same, it seems evident from the teacher's monitoring of whether various pairs of students were talking in English or not and asking whether students had any problems – that the monitoring took place with what appeared to be a judicious use of both English and Japanese. What may be inferred from the teacher's actions is that rather than a passive, objective and teacher-centred approach to teaching and learning; the teacher is employing an active, inductive and student-centred approach.

Other field notes indicate students in this observation did 'not mind at all' to write their versions of how to get to the nearest train station on the blackboard; to the degree that this part of the lesson appeared to be a 'routine' carried over from previous lessons. This eagerness to cooperate may be a direct result of what was noted: 'students get average participation marks for writing on the board'. On the other hand, the apparent willingness for students to write on the blackboard may also stem from the reflection that asking the rhetorical question '[Is the] strategy of writing on the board replacing [the onus to speak out in class]?'

One lesson activity consisted of the teacher orally describing the differences between general and specific directions, while referring to the four examples on the blackboard. At this point, field notes contain an entry about the content of the talk given by the teacher. The comment 'The obvious is not obvious for the students - they are/feel bound by rules', seems to imply a feeling on behalf of myself that students were either unwilling, reticent or unaware of the possibility of appreciating the main thrust of the activity, which is to give directions to an imaginary person who is unfamiliar with the area. What students appeared to do was to use only the grammatical structures that appear in the textbook.

A final descriptive reflection of this observation is that while students were reading the text about how food shapes a city, the teacher made a point of saying in English, and partially in Japanese, that the reading is 'so easy compared to the study done for entrance examinations'. The purpose of this statement may be to draw students' attention to the difference in level at which they are able to function in English in reading and the level at which they are able to communicate orally. Furthermore, in what may be an attempt to compensate for the ease of the reading text, the teacher calls on students randomly to ask for opinions. A few students attempt to answer what the teacher calls 'tricky questions'.

Field notes show that the teacher and students use both English and Japanese to complete the task.

5.2.5. Post-curriculum reform: Communication class 2

1) Description

The Observation of this class took place on December 16th, 2015 in one of the computer classrooms on campus. The class was roughly an 80-20 ratio of male to female students from the Faculty of Science and Technology. The textbook, *Four Corners*, used in this observation was published by an international publisher in English and was designed to integrate reading, writing, listening and speaking. After being introduced by the teacher in Japanese, I was asked to introduce myself using the grammar and associated phrases that were to be the topic of the lesson.

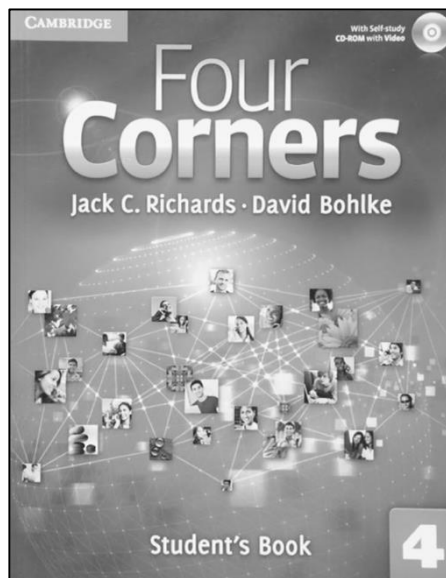


Figure 13: Front cover of the textbook *Four Corners 4*

After logging into the computer and opening up the CMS, students engaged with the first activity, listening to the audio from the textbook that had been uploaded for them. The students listened to the model sentences; some repeated them quietly. Next, in Japanese, the teacher specified the grammar points and the students listened again but the second time, they concentrated on the stressed words and how some of the words elide. Students then read sentences to each other with as correct pronunciation as possible.



Figure 14: Listening activity in CMS user interface from *Four Corners 4*

In the fourth activity students read a passage from the textbook while listening to the audio uploaded for them. The students completed concept checking exercises using computers. In the fifth activity, students listened, and answered ‘True or False’ questions taken from the textbook in drop-down menus made using the CMS. In the subsequent activity, students were instructed to write a letter within 15 minutes about what they do to relax, using grammar and expressions from the textbook.

3 Writing About relaxation

A What do you do to relax? Write about it. Use the questions and the model paragraph to help you.

- What techniques have you tried to help you relax?
- What worked?
- What didn't work?
- What do you wish you could try to help you relax?

B Pair work Share your writing. Do you do similar things to relax?

Relaxing

My job is very stressful, so when I have some free time, I try to do things to help me relax. I've tried yoga and baking. Yoga really helps me relax my body and my mind, and I do it twice a week. Baking didn't work for me because I made a big mess in the kitchen, so I got more stressed because of that. I wish I could . . .

Figure 15: Writing activity from *Four Corners 4*


In the seventh activity, students exchanged their writing with a partner and read silently. Students then wrote a comment or question for their partner about their written work. The eighth activity consisted of the teacher explaining some of the vocabulary in a reading passage in the textbook and explaining various English phrases, such as ‘watching the

stars' and 'yelling alone in a forest'. In the final activity, the teacher asked the researcher the researcher to discuss how to relax with students.

4 Speaking Relaxing creatively

A Group work Look at the ways that some people relax. Which do you think would work for you? Which wouldn't? Why not?

watching fish	painting
baking	shopping
cleaning the house	singing in the shower
dancing	watching a horror movie
keeping a journal	watching the stars
keeping a pet	writing poetry
listening to rock music	yelling alone in a forest



A: I think watching fish would help me relax.
B: Me, too. But writing poetry wouldn't. That would be stressful for me.

B Class activity Brainstorm other creative ways to relax. Share them with the class.

I can discuss ways to relax.

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Figure 16: Communication activity from *Four Corners 4*

At the end of the lesson, the teacher assigned homework and informed students that the topic for the following week will be 'How to interrupt politely'.

2) Interpretation

As all parts of the textbook were made into computerised activities, it may be argued that the teacher facilitated the lesson by making available the path through which students interacted and progressed through the textbook.

Field notes indicate that although the teacher spoke in Japanese throughout the lesson, written instructions that appear on the sub-monitors next to each student console were written in English. What may be inferred from this is the teacher presupposes that for these students, it is appropriate for the language of immediate oral instruction to remain in Japanese, while instructions that students may respond to in their own time appear in English. It may be further inferred then that there is a fuzzy distinction between the use of Japanese and English as a medium of instruction. Indeed, this notion is further reflected towards the end of the lesson when students are asked to respond to their partner's writing. The field notes show the following observation of what the teacher had written in English on the sub-monitor: 'in English better/Japanese okay'; meaning it would be better for those students who feel able to speak in English to attempt oral communication in that

language, but speaking in Japanese would be appropriate for those students who remain reticent to apply what they have studied during the lesson, in English. A decision about which language to use for oral communication then appears to be left for the students to decide.

Another set of field notes indicates the textbook is at a level where the ‘grammar is not so difficult for them’. This comment implies that I considered it important to compare the students’ meta-linguistic knowledge of English and how competent they are in being able to freely use grammatical structures in the textbook in oral communication. The first indication of a gap seems to occur when, as notes indicate, the teacher asked students in Japanese to say ‘what they do to relax’. While a few students answered in a subdued way, others uttered muted and vague answers. Such answers seem to imply a reticence to involve oneself in unstructured communication and the lack of importance placed on brokering meaning by fostering an approach where meaning is created through a ‘negotiation’ between students.

Another observation made in a subsequent activity is that before students formally read their sentence aloud to their partner, they appeared to *informally* discuss whether what they had to say on the topic of ‘what they do to relax’ was grammatically correct or not. To that end, while field notes state ‘students seem happy [and] not bored ... reading out grammar points’, it is possible to infer that rather than instinctively using the language in an exchange of ideas that are mutually constructed, these students seem to be content to progress through the lesson in a mechanical, problem-solving fashion. It may be inferred from the apparent lack of students creating meaning together during unstructured communication – and the willingness to approach communication as a matter of routine – that such lessons are what may be referred to as soothingly predictable.

It was also noted that students used their computer screens to interact with a written passage in the textbook. That is, instead of reading and discussing the answers together, students did CMS-based cloze exercises. It was during those exercises that the following observation was made ‘Again, silent working ... perhaps writing in class isn’t boring for them - interesting’; also, later ‘Students are still silently working and don’t appear bored at all.’ These comments can be inferred as meaning both teacher and students appear to agree that the teaching approach taken to the lesson is appropriate both in terms of its

content (whether English or Japanese) and information exchanged (superficial or complex) in oral communication.

5.3. Summary

This chapter has described four classroom observations at the research site between May and December, 2015. While it is acknowledged that these observations do not hope to be definitive, they do exemplify the case of the two teachers' classroom teaching in depth and thus may be thought of as illustrative of findings made in chapter four and support findings in the next chapter; Chapter 6.

In the remainder of this section, there follows a summary of the main points of each observation. Findings from the pre-reform observations confirm that lessons are based on translating texts of relatively high semantic complexity, whereas observations of post-reform classes reflect the move to a more student-centred approach, based on practicing English communication skills. Instances that confirm the differences in teaching approach are illustrated in the table below.

	Pre-reform (Reading skills lessons)		Post-reform (4 skills lessons)	
	P6	P5	P6	P5
Student-student participation in English	None		Plentiful	None
Level of vocabulary	Very high/high		Comprehensible	
Calming effects of activity repetition	Yes		No	Yes
Teaching approach	Teacher-centred	Teacher-controlled student-centred	Student-centred	Teacher-controlled student-centred
Teacher facilitating understanding	No	Yes	Yes	
Complexity of tasks	low		high	

Table 9: Main pedagogical differences in classroom observations between pre- and post-reform eras

Findings in observation one, are that students appear to be content to treat learning of English in a scientific way; that is, by dispassionately analysing the translation of second language immersion-level vocabulary from a specialist economics magazine article. Both teacher and students seem to be aware of the pleasant routine found during a repetitive

cycle of translation and analysis. However, the analysis seems to remain within the Japanese language.

Findings in observation two are that students seem to view the lesson as an easy-going and straightforward English lesson focussed on reading. In explanation, rather than control the lesson in a teacher-centred way, the teacher appeared to facilitate activities through a computer-mediated class management system. In contrast to observation one, although translation takes place in this observation, it is not done in a repetitive cycle. Rather, a range of short tasks appear to exploit the high-level vocabulary. It may be as a result of the computer-mediated routine of the lesson, but students do not give the impression of expecting to actively engage in oral communication in English.

Moving on from the pre-reform observations, findings in post-reform observation three are that there appears to have been a move away from the teacher-centred approach, found in observation one; and a move towards students working together to construct meaning. In an apparent attempt to adapt to a more student-centred approach, the teacher seems to attempt to match students' needs with classroom activities. In this case, it appears to be done by using English with frequent instances of code-switching. Moreover, in the post-reform era, as the teacher points out, grammar activities in the textbook appear easy for students, whereas oral communication seems difficult. Therefore, the activity of using the blackboard to critique co-constructed sentences seems to be an appropriate medium for the teacher and students to engage in meta-linguistic analysis of sentence structure. However, this analysis is at the expense of engaging in the relatively unstructured meaning exchange that usually takes place in oral communication.

Findings in observation four consist of students following the teacher's instructions on how to navigate the computer-mediated class management system. Students appeared to go through language tasks without the apparent need to think critically and share opinions orally in English. Indeed, there appears to be a fuzzy distinction between the use of English and Japanese as a medium of instruction. This may have led to the apparent reticence for students to communicate in English since it was not considered a must by the teacher. What seems to have transpired in this observation is that the teaching approach is appropriate for these students' learning styles but is not creating the chance for active engagement in unstructured oral communication.

As a consequence of piecing together key information emerging from field notes, it seems that there are differences between lessons with a kind of teacher-led scientific objectivity, and those with a more devolved creative subjectivity. In this way, the gap between a typical TUS student's extensive knowledge about English vocabulary and grammatical accuracy, and the typically shallow extent of their ability to communicate orally became pronounced.

Thus, it may be supposed from the observations that many typical students' reading ability is comparable to top-level ESL students. However, the same observed students appear to only have the oral communication ability of a low level EFL learner. Indeed, field notes show the teacher asking questions to the class is largely a rhetorical gesture, and if English is used by the teacher to any degree, there seems to be a need to mitigate it with a frequent code-switching. This difference between the pre-reform teacher-led scientific objectivity and the post-reform notion of teacher as a facilitator seems to have been brokered by the teachers using what they deem an appropriate mix of English and Japanese in order to achieve success in the classroom activities they are using.

From a description of findings from an analysis of four classroom observations, I move on to describe ELT reform in teacher practice through analysis of findings from interviews concentrating on teacher attitudes, beliefs and perceptions.

6. Teacher attitudes to ELT reform in practice

6.1. Introduction

In this chapter, findings are described that arise from analysis of data collected from two sources. While findings emerge from semi-structured interviews in the main; they are, on occasion, augmented by data gathered from institutional documents. The interviews were conducted between the researcher and a group of seven, purposely chosen, Japanese English teachers who are full-time members of faculty at TUS. Thematic analysis of interviews suggested that attitudes to ELT reform fell into two principal categories, positive and negative. As described earlier, I take Ginsburg and Megahed's (2009) view of teacher attitudes; that is, as being shaped by internalised views of their professional status.

6.2. Positive attitudes to the ELT reform

Described first is the positive attitude that teachers appear to possess about the ELT reform. What emerged during the interviews are three supposed positive attitudes:

- 1) A welcome for the move towards CLT
- 2) A positive reception to the standardisation of teaching objectives
- 3) An appreciation of streamlining students by ability

I describe these positive attitudes in more detail below.

1) A welcome for the move towards CLT

P3 describes an attitude to the reform by saying 'I welcome the change in teaching style or teaching goal'. Participants who welcome the reform, report that the changes will redress the balance between how much attention is paid to reading, writing and grammar and translation skills; and competency in oral communication. This sub-theme supports one of the stated aims given for the reforms; i.e. that a greater emphasis be paid to improving students' oral communication competence. An example of this welcome is given by P5 who suggests that the reform will motivate students to overcome their tendency to suppress their thoughts and ideas; P5 contends 'So what is important is that they've got no opportunity to express their ideas in English, so I think it's very good to ... stimulate them to speak.'

2) A positive reception to the standardisation of teaching objectives

One positive attitude to the reform is that a clear distinction in focus can be drawn between the teaching guidelines for the course *English Conversation (Beginner/Intermediate)* in AY 2010, and the teaching guidelines for the course *Freshman English*. Interview participant P1 gives it support, by arguing that that the ‘narrowing of the topic subject’ in the syllabus is a welcome change to the previous tolerance of courses where classroom activities significantly diverged from what would usually be associated with their course title. P1 goes on to say, ‘It was quite easy for us to teach the vague notion of *eigo hyogen* (English Expression) or *eigo kodoku* (English reading/translation) it’s quite easy - you could do anything, you could do anything!’ This statement gives a strong impression that a move to CLT-type activities would be welcome in terms of standardisation but may cause some discomfort to those teachers who have become used to a more traditional mode of teaching.

3) An appreciation of streamlining students by ability

A third theme within the positive attitudes to the reform is the streaming of classes in terms of English ability. In AY 2014, students’ English ability started to be assessed using an online version of the TOEIC at the end of each semester. That is, rather than merely streaming classes in order of student number, as was the case in the pre-reform ELT curriculum, students were allocated classes according to their English ability level from the upper level ‘a’ down to level ‘h’ or ‘i’, or ‘j’ at the lower levels (see Appendix 20).

A number of participants welcomed the streaming of classes. For instance, P5 states that ‘the *kurasu wake* (streaming classes in terms of English ability) system is, I think, good for students and for teachers as well.’ Meanwhile, P4 gives an example of a positive attitude to class streaming by saying:

I think it is a positive step we have taken – and in part that has been made possible by the new policies and projects – of course it had negative sides too – but it has obviously positive sides. The students at a higher level will be having a fun and rewarding time during Freshman English class, I think.

What can be inferred from these excerpts is that although teachers welcome the shift to a greater number of communicative courses, those students at the middle or lower ability levels, may be deprived of being in a class with a more equal distribution of abilities. In an English section meeting in October, 2016, it was noted that this move towards streaming students within higher, middle and lower ability levels had the effect of

students with the lowest levels all being in one class, which in turn resulted in very low levels of motivation. Therefore, minutes reveal, it was agreed that middle and lower level streaming scores was to be abandoned for Integrated Skills in English courses and, from AY 2016, the streaming of students by English ability was only to be preserved for the three higher ability level classes. The remaining five or six (depending on department) middle and lower levels became one mixed-ability level. In this way, although the streaming of classes was generally welcomed, it has been altered in order to better fit the reality of classroom practice. With reference to this, in follow-up correspondence, P4 argues that this equal distribution has potential benefits for students at the middle or lower ability levels to be positively influenced by mixing with, and learning from, those at a higher English ability level. Moreover, P4 argues that these students ‘look more relaxed than when I taught lowest classes before this switch’ and appear more motivated, probably because now they ‘need not be branded as poor achievers.’

This section showed that there appears to be a general welcome to aspects of the reform that are deemed useful. This welcoming attitude, then, presupposes a certain amount of dissatisfaction with the status quo (Kennedy, 1998). The extent to which dissatisfaction with the status quo and potential obstacles to the intended reform collide is dealt with in the following section.

6.3. Negative attitudes to the ELT reform

In the next part of this chapter, I go on to describe six categories of negative attitudes that may act as obstacles to its full realisation. I describe these obstacles in an order that considers each attitude’s importance in answering the stated research questions (see Section 2.11.).

- 1) Questioning the primacy of oral communications skills
- 2) Problems in transitioning from teacher to student-centred learning
- 3) A hesitancy for Japanese teachers to use CLT-type activities
- 4) A conflation of CLT reform and increased administrative burden
- 5) Sociocultural factors result in a low level of oral communication competence
- 6) The detrimental effect entrance examinations have on oral communication skills

I describe each of these obstacles in more detail in the sections below.

6.3.1. Questioning the primacy of oral communications skills

One attitude to emerge is the questioning of the primacy of oral communications skills. That is, rather than a wholesale adoption of CLT activities, teachers appeared to argue for a sensible balance between the traditional classroom activities they are used to implementing on the one hand and CLT-type classroom activities required on the other.

P1 points out the semantic range of the word “communication” is broader than what may be intended by the introduction of CLT-type activities: ‘They say ‘communicative, communicative’ all the time but even if it’s reading or writing, language is basically communicative. What they are talking about is oral communication skills.’ Thus, the obstacle of finding an appropriate balance between reading, writing, translation and classroom activities that are designed to improve oral communication skills needs to be overcome if the ELT reform is to be fully implemented.

A related point is that some teachers believe that using classroom activities commonly found in a CLT-type approach to teaching preclude the use of any other type of activity. Thus, a balance between traditional and CLT-type activities will be difficult to achieve. For instance, P6 explains:

~grammatically correct expression is important both in oral communication and written communication. So, it is important to put emphasis on oral communication but at the same time it is important to teach them the sentence structure and essay construction and writing.

Moreover, P7 argues ‘you can’t think that reading and writing are not so important’ and P5 adds ‘[CLT] doesn’t always develop their scientific ... ability’. Accordingly, it may be construed that these teachers believe that English teachers in TUS should help budding scientists understand the English that they need to read and write academic works rather than to communicate orally; these two comments appear to suggest concerns about whether classroom activities that emphasise oral communication should be used at all at TUS.

After consulting with P7 and P5 in follow-up correspondence, it became clear that both teachers believe that although typical university students in Japan are commonly considered to feel obliged to improve their oral communication competency, students at TUS are not atypical students; as P5 indicates below:

Our students, however, are not average Japanese at all, but prospective students who will lead our future society as well as their scientific world. For those students, we should put priority on providing more reading and writing opportunities.

This description indicates that P1, P5 and P7 all believe that the high-STEM-ability (Science, Technology Engineering and Mathematics) of the average student makes it necessary for English lessons to concentrate on English skills related to reading and writing rather than in oral communication. Taken together, these attitudes suggest that many teachers question a primacy accorded to oracy over literacy.

6.3.2. Problems in transitioning from teacher- to student-centred learning

A second finding to emerge from interviews is that the on-going teaching reform is thought likely to help put to an end the long-held tradition of teacher-centred instruction of the traditional approach to teaching. Some teachers appear to think that the CLT approach is not suited to the context of Japan due to a deeply engrained view about how learning normally takes place. In interview, P1 stresses that pre-reform teaching practice ‘should be blended into Western style logic ... but we should not ignore the very, very long traditional Japanese learning style’. In the following extract from the interview transcript, P1 describes the traditional approach to learning that is common not only in ELT, but all types of learning situations in Japan:

P1: ~ traditionally speaking, we learn by getting a secret.

SJ: ... Getting a secret?

P1: Secret. Exchanging the secret. Kind of ‘master and disciple’. That’s a Kendo or Judo, or *do* (way of learning martial arts) thing – way. I know there are bad points of teaching and learning in this way, but it doesn’t mean it should be totally discarded. Too clear ... it is quite hard for me to explain it in English but if everything gets too clear then it’s not ‘learning’.

What is stated in this excerpt is best described by P1 who adds that there is a ‘cultural difference and a very deep gap’. That is, a gap between a teaching approach that uses classroom activities that involve inductive, CLT-type classroom activities involving oral exchanges of information on the one hand, and a traditional approach that typically uses classroom activities involving deductive activities in reading and translation on the other. Thus, what can be inferred from the excerpts from P1 in this section is that the shift towards CLT-type classroom activities and traditional approaches, are at odds. In other words, the gap between teaching approaches is an obstacle that needs to be overcome if both external and institutional learning objectives for English are to be met.

Indeed, a number of teachers stated that a traditional approach uses such teacher-led classroom management techniques commonly used in secondary school education. Moreover, that these techniques are connected with a tacit, yet very strongly held, approach to learning. For instance, in teacher-led lessons, students sit quietly and take notes. P3 states:

Junior high school and high school teachers tell the students ‘Listen to me and be quiet’ – so they don’t ask questions during class. Teachers give a lecture and students write; copy from the blackboard.

What may be implied from this excerpt is that it is common practice for English lessons to be teacher-centred. In this way, a weakening of links to the traditional approach to teaching may affect teaching practice in TUS because classroom activities used in the pre-reform ELT curriculum appeared to be a seamless extension of secondary school education. A majority of teachers remark that in the pre-reform ELT curriculum, lessons were a straightforward matter of translating from Japanese to English in reading courses and from English to Japanese in writing courses. P3 concedes:

Many Japanese teachers teach ... for example in reading classes, they have the students translate English sentences into Japanese and that’s all. They understand the meaning and they are relieved.

In follow-up correspondence, P3 explained that ‘relieved’ would have been better as ‘satisfied’ in the sense of ‘content’. What can be inferred from this clarification is that a sense of relief indicates a feeling that students finally understand the meaning of the sentences after earlier frustration. In contrast, a sense of contentment indicates a feeling on behalf of students that a simple translation of the text is all they require. Thus, the subtle difference between students overcoming frustration and that of discovering a meaning without delay indicates that translating from one language to another is representative of a receptive, deductive and teacher-centred; rather than active, inductive and student-centred approach to learning.

Another participant, P6, asserts that in their teaching practice ‘I asked them to read the text in English and explain it and translate it into Japanese in the reading class.’ Similarly, P7 describes typical classroom activities, in an extended excerpt, thus:

I asked them to read the text in English and explain it and translate it into Japanese in the reading class. And in the writing class {let me see} I appointed a student to have him make an English composition for some Japanese passages and have them write the translation in English on the blackboard, [...] I think it was simple.

Japanese to English in the reading class and in the writing class, English to Japanese. Just ... {how can I put it?} a simple style, I think.

What P7 seems to suggest here is that classroom activities involving translation between Japanese and English are an appropriate way in which to teach students in TUS.

Furthermore, P7 explains their pre-reform teaching practice; acknowledging that reading and grammar-translation are closely associated with the traditional approach to teaching: 'And I let the students read some English passages and then let them translate into Japanese. That's the classical way.' It appears, then, that both teacher and students are familiar with this method and find it undemanding and trouble-free. P4 adds a similar description of their pre-reform teaching practice by saying 'so I just picked up students randomly and asked them to take charge of two or three paragraphs in English and give a Japanese explanation about the content.' By that token, it may be implied that a major reform to the regular and well-understood method of teaching – with the introduction of classroom activities that promote oral communication – would disrupt this longstanding practice.

6.3.3. A hesitancy for Japanese teachers to use CLT-type activities

An obstacle to the implementation of the ELT reform to emerge from interviews are that the participants believe they themselves should not teach classes that emphasise oral communication. Two reasons for this seeming hesitancy, being a non-native speaker of English and lacking experience of teaching English as a foreign language, are described below.

1) Non-native speakerness

The first reason there is a suggested hesitancy for Japanese teachers to use CLT-type activities is that CLT activities make better use of the perceived innate skills that native-speakers of English possess; and Japanese teachers of English do not. An instance of this belief is described when P1 explained that '[Students] know I am Japanese and I can speak Japanese so this is a big difference'. P1 continues a little later '[They] expect me to speak in Japanese, so that is the biggest challenge for me'; and then adds '[One's] appearance matters very much in this type of class. This is a big challenge. A problem.' These statements suggest P1 believes students in TUS hold firmly to the concept of Japanese teachers speaking Japanese rather than English, during lessons.

Another participant, P4; gives an extended description of the belief that Japanese teachers using CLT-type activities is ‘unproductive’ when compared to a teacher who is a native-English speaker:

It can be too artificial when we Japanese do that. But if your instructor is a native-speaker ... your presence gives them some motivation. And although some native-speakers can have a very good understanding of Japanese, still the fake or the supposition degree is only one or two steps away ... let’s suppose we have this kind of situation – we don’t but let’s suppose we have this situation, what would you do? But if *we* do that it is kind of doubled. We can understand each other in Japanese OK, but let’s suppose we can’t OK. There’s a whole big supposition, a fake. OK. Actually, there is no need to speak in English between Japanese. It’s a fake.

Such a description suggests that participants believe it is cumbersome to teach English in English, due to the impracticality of both parties using a second language to converse when they could readily use their mother tongue. A reason for this apparent belief may be that students have a mind-set that does not expect Japanese teachers to use English during lessons.

What may be inferred here is that P1 and P4 suggest that rather than being gained through years of study, native-speakers possess an innate linguistic and cultural command of English. Thus, the traditional approach to teaching English – relying on broad linguistic knowledge honed over many years – is deemed more prestigious than that which is instinctive. Indeed, when asked whether English communication classes tend to be perceived as having lower status than reading and writing classes, P6 responded, ‘I guess that it’s true, I think.’ In follow-up correspondence, P6 again indicated that a belief exists that the teaching of communication carries less status than reading or writing classes.

2) Lacking experience of teaching in English

The second reason Japanese teachers appear hesitant to teach CLT-type activities is that they lack experience of learning English within a CLT approach. They almost certainly will have experienced teaching English courses focussing on reading, writing and translation for many years and having a background in English literature or linguistics, rather than teaching English as foreign language. P2 comments ‘I wish I had learned how to teach English – you know; so, I sometimes ask friends how they do it, these tips are so useful.’ Meanwhile, P5 explains their beliefs about the appropriacy of Japanese teachers

teaching courses which emphasise CLT-type activities during the following exchange with the researcher:

SJ: Because you said you were not experienced in teaching these types of classes

...

P5: No, so, that is very challenging to me. I thought there are two points: one is for me and the other is for students. Concerning the former, as you know, I am a Japanese and I wonder if I am qualified to provide speaking opportunities to students. That's very problematic, I think. And concerning the latter, Japanese students want to be taught by foreign teachers.

In this way, interview participants appear concerned that they have not had any experience in using English to teach English. Indeed, P1 argues that:

But, I myself got used to teaching English in Japanese, so um... to be honest it is easier for me to teach English in Japanese, using Japanese. The main challenge is teaching English in English. [...] In a sense, I enjoy the experience but it is quite a challenge for me.

These two excerpts indicate that participants appear to believe Japanese teachers will not motivate students to speak in English as well as a native-speaker teacher. The reason participants give for this is, in contrast to a teacher with native linguistic and cultural fluency, when a Japanese teacher introduces communicative activities, the distance between the student and an authentic experience is made greater.

The beliefs described in this section imply that certain teachers believe that both not having a background in teaching EFL with an emphasis on oral communication and not possessing native-like linguistic and cultural command of English are obstacles to the employment of CLT techniques in their classes.

6.3.4. A conflation of CLT reform and increased administrative burden

A fourth obstacle to the implementation of the ELT reform that emerges in an analysis of interviews, is that participants appear to conflate a shift to CLT with an increased administrative burden, which, in turn, appears to make them apprehensive of both. It is suggested by P1 that in the pre-reform ELT curriculum a traditional teacher-centred approach, using reading and translation classroom activities, was common occurrence due to the lack of official guidelines:

The former curriculum was almost [completely] for the teachers...[s]ome teachers taught Japanese translation in an expression class!

P7 describes their belief about the growing number of rules; saying that 'This university has begun to need more compliance than ever'. Another participant, P4, reports the belief

that that the introduction of a growing amount of record-keeping detracts from what should be the main purpose of higher education; ‘from helping students grow and think more creatively’. This participant contends that:

It takes us further away from education itself – it is like making up our appearances, as a school and as an individual teacher. ‘I’m doing OK. See, I’m doing everything I’ve been given in this list. I’m an OK teacher - here are OK students.’ Ha, ha. Just like a whole pretence, like Big Brother.

In order to illustrate a growing compliance to external and internal regulations concerning lesson content, the first and third versions of one syllabus were examined. Both versions of the syllabus were created by full-time members of faculty and distributed to all part-time teachers to be used as guides from which to produce their own. The first of ten information fields are contrasted to illustrate the differences between the first (AY 2014) and the third (AY 2017) iterations of the post-reform sample syllabi (see Appendix 21). The main points can be seen in Table 10 below.

Where changes took place	Pre-reform (AY 2014)	Post-reform (AY 2017)
Field titles	Japanese only	Bilingual
General information about course	Sparse	Detailed
Description and goals	Separate field	Same field
Japan Accreditation Board for Engineering Education (JABEE)	No statement necessary	Statement necessary

Table 10: Changes with course syllabi between AY 2014 and AY 2017

The first point is that in 2014, the field titles are in Japanese only, but in AY 2017, the field titles are bilingual (Japanese and English), making filling in the information easier for teachers unfamiliar with Chinese characters. Another difference is, in AY 2014, the general information about the course was sparse but in the AY 2017 version, it is detailed. However, while this detailed information is useful to teachers in making sure they are filling out details for the correct course, it became more time-consuming. In addition to that, in the AY 2014 version, separate fields were used to show course Description and Goals. However, in AY 2017, there is a set arrangement of course Description, Objectives and Goals that teachers are asked to use in the sample syllabus as-is.

Lastly, in AY 2014, no clarifying statements are necessary for the Japan Accreditation Board for Engineering Education (JABEE) but in the AY 2017 version, there is a set of

information that first describes the aspects of English courses that apply to engineering education; and, more specifically, details information for the Departments of Civil Engineering (CV) and Electrical Engineering (EE). The display of this JABEE information is an administrative necessity. It is necessary to display this information to students of Civil Engineering and Electrical Engineering because it forms proof that the course displayed will add to the number of credits needed for them to be able to gain a Master of Science degree in Engineering during their undergraduate studies.

In sum, although it has been argued that a syllabus is an important tool for ensuring the continuity of a course between different teachers, by focussing on a comparison between the same part of the AY 2014 and AY 2017 syllabus of one course, there appears to be clear evidence of an increase in the need to comply with a growing amount of detailed documentation. An underlying belief that such compliance to regulations is a growing inconvenience would suggest that teachers conflate a shift to CLT and a greater compliance, to a growing number of rules and regulations; marking them both as obstacles to teaching English to science students. That is, teachers appear to suggest that the implementation of CLT is connected to a response to institutional policy which equates with a greater administrative burden.

6.3.5. Sociocultural factors result in a low level of oral communication competence

A fifth obstacle towards the ELT reform is that teachers perceive students to be reticent to engage with classmates, even after the introduction of more communicative activities in lessons. This may be because teachers perceive that students harbour negative feelings towards English from prior experiences and, as a consequence, cannot improve their functional oral communication ability. P1 explains ‘You know, lower level students, it is quite hard for them to think and say something in English. They’ve got kind of a complex [about their] English ability.’ This extract implies that P1 is under the impression that English should be spoken during lessons as much as possible. However, in doing so, students whose English ability was measured as being average or below average, are not likely to be able to accurately communicate their intended meaning.

P5 surmises students are not keen on communicating via the spoken word in English because ‘the quality of contents, or the quality of language itself is very different between a reading class and a speaking class’. This implies that students either lack experience in

the use of everyday expressions, because they have only learned English phrases for the passing of exams that are based on high level reading texts; or that students have an inherent difficulty in communicating orally.

The notion of the obstacle of an inherent difficulty in oral communication is raised by P1, P3 and P6. Participant P1's perception is that 'Even if I use the simplest terms the students cannot understand what I'm saying', while P3 contends that students 'can't even ask one question in class!' These two extracts imply that even if Japanese teachers of English speak in English during the lesson, students would struggle to understand them. This, as a result, constrains the progression of the class. P6 puts forward a related argument thus: 'it's difficult to motivate the students to speak up. Most Japanese students hesitate to say something'. It appears then that students with a low level of English ability also lack motivation and seem to hesitate to give their opinion. In addition to this, the following extract, featuring P7, underscores the notion of a low willingness to take part in oral communication with classmates:

SJ: ~there is quite a big gap between the knowledge about English and how to use English–

P7: There is quite a gap–

SJ: What would you say is the reason for this reasonably large gap?

[...]

P7: One reason, I would say is, they are shy, including me, and the second reason is a lack of exercise in speaking and expressing their own feelings and own thoughts–

On this issue of an innate reluctance to participate in oral communication, P5 states 'And I think what matters is, as you know, Japanese students and particularly the students here are very ... reticent – shy.' What seems to be implied here is the perception that Japanese students, both in the broad sense, and in particular at TUS, are poor at coming to a consensus using the spoken word. Teachers remark that students share a reluctance to converse in English that can be traced to the notion of sharing a Japanese 'national character'. When asked if there is a reason why students tend to keep their opinions to themselves, P7 replied by asking if the researcher was familiar with the term '*kokumin-sei* (national trait, or character)'.

P6 indicates in the following extract that the prevalence of the inability to freely speak one's opinions is a formidable obstacle to improving one's spoken competence.

SJ: How do you feel about the large gap between the knowledge of structure and the ability to communicate their opinions in English? How did it get like that?

P6: The time of speaking is so limited for them and they don't ...

SJ: Get a chance?

P6: Get a chance, of course ... they don't and ... they would not like to speak in public.

SJ: I see ... because ...?

P6: National character.

SJ: National character.

P6: Some of them – it is their national character.

SJ: Did you say 'national' or 'natural'?

P6: 'National' that is *kokumin-sei* – trait/character ...

It is thought by at least two participants that this sense of Japanese-self has negative repercussions on the teaching and learning of oral communication in English. P7 relates the following perceptions on the theme of 'national character':

Maybe ... *genso* in English 'illusion' or ... {what's the expression} maybe we Japanese have the illusion that we are a single nation – we are a single people, but there is Okinawan people (*on the islands of Okinawa*) and Ainu (*the native inhabitants of the northern regions of Japan*) people so ... but it is an illusion, we have thought that we are common in everywhere in Japan.

What may be implied from this extract is that that this teacher's perceptions of the ELT reform are affected by the commonly held belief that people in Japan share a view of a Japanese cultural one-ness. Moreover, that this notion of cultural one-ness provides the framework for a 'national character', which manifests itself in a particular style of communication.

Indeed, there is a general sense among participants that due to a frequent use of ambiguity in oral communication, in Japanese, people tend to express themselves with turns of phrase that can simultaneously mean one thing or another. This form of expression allows interlocutors to exchange an intended meaning without stating it directly. Accordingly, a student at TUS will likely not need to accurately or fluently describe their intended meaning – in a breadth or depth usually associated with utterances a native-speaker of English would expect – for a classmate to understand the intended meaning. Such transfer of meaning then may be considered purposely vague.

A description of this ambiguity is given by P7 in reply to an interview prompt: '{How can I put it, now} ... {What can I say?} Hmm ... we Japanese have had the feeling of *iwanakute wakaruru daro* (I don't have to tell you what I mean because you already know what I mean)'. In follow-up communication, P7 affirmed that this general style of

communication affects the way in which English is learned and how students will communicate when they use it. Moreover, that this style of communication, in turn, can be traced to the interdependent notions of *national character* and the way the traditional teaching approach is suited to being able to correctly answer questions typically found in university entrance exams.

6.3.6. The detrimental effect entrance examinations have on oral communication skills

When asked for an opinion on the question of whether students at TUS have a good ability in exam-taking technique and a typically poor level of spoken competency, P7 affirms a sixth obstacle to the implementation of the reform by stating, ‘I am afraid that it is true to some extent ... to a large extent’. Regarding the teaching of English to pass exams, P6 explains the perception of how secondary schools vary in their teaching of English depending on the academic expectations associated with school leavers:

In upper level (academically oriented) high schools, the emphasis is on reading and sometimes grammar or grammatical knowledge [...] [in] medium or lower, most of the teachers try to encourage the students to learn or speak English and they want them to like English ... few Japanese like speaking English.

This entrenched categorisation seems to form an obstacle to the introduction of the ELT reform in TUS; because, as P2 asserts, ‘it is not going to be possible for one university to do – it is the government, isn’t it?’ P2 elaborates, ‘the government is thinking of getting rid of the Center entrance examination (National Center Test for University Admissions) system and using TOEFL (*this test is taken by students who hope to study in the medium of English in a country where English is an official language*)’.

In the same manner, P1 puts forward a reason for the difficulty of changing the entrance exam-based system of English learning in TUS. Specifically, the number of students taking the TUS entrance exam precludes a system of interviewing, or grading of prospective students’ written work. During analysis of the transcripts, a dialogue between the researcher and P1 emerged as informative:

P1: ~Do you know how many students took our entrance exam?

SJ: Was it more than 20,000?

P1: Way more – 50,000.

SJ: I remember now, 50,000.

P1: How can you check this many students’ English proficiency? It’s impossible. That’s why the government is thinking of using the TOEFL test as an entrance exam in 10 years or so.

In further correspondence, it became clear that P1 meant to imply that if the use of the TOEFL for the English segment of the Center Test becomes a reality, a much greater emphasis on knowledge of expressions in daily use, as well as those used in college lectures, will be the focus of study in schools. Indeed, P1 clarified in follow-up correspondence that if the TOEFL is to be used for entrance exams in the future, the central pillar of the purpose of learning English will then be relocated; thereby creating a new dynamic to the teaching of English in Japan. Thus, it may be argued that the revisions to the English curriculum in TUS are an example of the rapid change taking place in English education in Japan.

Indeed, participants P1 and P2 contend that the ELT reforms in TUS are an example of the change taking place in English education in Japan, as a whole. In response to a comment from the researcher about the difficulty of moving away from the current entrance examination structure. Both P1 and P2's comments about the planned future use of the TOEFL as an entrance examination for prospective students, show that the Japanese government is considering leading the educational system of English in Japan away from a traditional approach and towards one in which an emphasis is placed on creating learners who are accustomed to coping with the demands of exchanging information – not only in writing but also in dynamic/non-linear oral communication.

The current situation, though, is that a typical student entering TUS is very likely to have had a secondary English language education highly steeped in the learning of English for university entrance examinations. It may be inferred then, that the balance between reading, writing and oral communication skills of a typical TUS student is affected by the difference in time spent in secondary education focussing on study of university entrance examination questions and on engaging in oral communication. As P4 relates; a sizeable proportion of students at TUS pay attention to English exams rather than becoming good at oral communication:

~because [students believe] English is part of their educational 'tax'. It is one thing that they have to go through whether they like it or not – it's part of the institution. And some clever students – they even say that 'it is only ... testing. I study English for the tests because that's what it is all about, isn't it?'

P4 seems to imply that typical students at TUS possess this mind-set. Moreover, that such students would have little experience of oral communication and little in the way of motivation to improve their spoken fluency. Consequently, the amount of time spent in

studying for entrance examinations helps perpetuate the way that English is taught and learned. That is to say, university entrance examinations are a central pillar of the system of English learning in Japan and play a large part in creating the imbalance between knowledge of how English is constructed; and the level of fluency that it is needed in dynamic spoken situations.

Indeed, obstacles to the successful implementation of the ELT reforms are impacted by what participants in effect argue; that is, in secondary school education the English language becomes an artefact, of which a mastery will help enable entry to the exam-takers' university of choice. This type of study for English entrance examinations requires a great deal of dedication and 'training' (P5). In the following excerpt from P5's interview transcript, what emerges is an illustration of how typical students at TUS use a form of interlanguage affected by their previous study:

P5: The main reason is, I think, is that they have been trained for *juken eigo* – English for entrance examinations – and *juken eigo* contains very difficult vocabulary. But in everyday expression we don't have to use difficult vocabulary. For example, we have a ticket for a baseball night game but it starts to rain heavily ... I often ask them what do you say? *yakyu no shiai wa enki-sareta* the baseball game has been postponed, not *chushi* (cancelled) but *ashita-ni enki-sareta* (postponed until tomorrow) in English, so they say, 'the game tonight was postponed'–

SJ: Yes ...

P5: They use 'postponed' a very difficult word. But you often use 'the game was put off'. So, you know, they know the words 'put' and 'off' – very simple words but they don't know how to connect 'put' and 'off' and they tend to express themselves with very difficult words. Because the *juken eigo* they know ... they are ...

SJ: Familiar with that–

P5: Yeah ... 'postponed' is Latin.

What may be implied from this interview excerpt is P5's perception that, in the traditional approach, students do not learn everyday expressions, they learn formal vocabulary and how to answer the types of questions that have both appeared in previous examinations and are likely to appear in future examinations, giving their speech a more academic than colloquial feeling. Thus, it would appear that the enormous amount of time dedicated to learning English for entrance examinations in secondary school results in a paucity in practice of oral English communication.

What seems to result from this is a high-level of meta-cognitive knowledge of the structure of English grammar but a lack in ability to communicate in dynamic situations

in an appropriate manner. Accordingly, students at TUS are likely to view English learning through the lens of previous learning experiences and are liable to have a mind-set in which English is viewed as a set of knowledge to be learned objectively, rather than as a way in which to create meaning through the exchange of opinion with classmates.

6.4. Summary

In this chapter, findings emerge from analysis of data collected from seven semi-structured interviews, which were occasionally reinforced with data from institutional documents. These findings were split into two main themes: participants' positive and negative attitudes to the implementation of the ELT reform.

The first main theme of teacher attitudes is a general welcome to the reform. The welcoming attitude teachers have is best explained by comments made about the introduction of streaming of classes by English ability. For instance, in the pre-reform era, students were arranged in classes without heed to English ability level. Teachers argue that in the post-reform era, those students with a higher English ability level are much better served than they had been in the pre-reform era.

The second main theme is obstacles to the implementation of the ELT reform. Six obstacles to the ELT reform were described. One obstacle to emerge is the questioning of the primacy of oral communications skills. A second obstacle stems from the belief that students are better served by the pre-reform curriculum, when, some teachers argue, the lessons were straightforward and predictable. A third obstacle to the employment of CLT techniques is based on not having a background in teaching EFL, nor possessing native-like linguistic cultural command of English. A further obstacle appears to be a conflation of the ELT reform with an added administrative burden. Moving to the fifth obstacle, teachers point out sociocultural factors result in a low level of oral communication competence and a seeming lack of willingness for students to communicate orally. A sixth obstacle is the study of 'exam English', which is said to play a role in the extent to which English is treated by students as an abstract object rather than a language to be spoken; and used to negotiate meaning.

From the nature of changes in policy that led to ELT reform, I move on, in the following chapter, to describe the study's significance and a way forward with future research.

7. Significance

7.1. Introduction

In this chapter, I review the aims of this study and summarise key findings. I then convey the extent that the implications of those findings contribute to educational theory, policy and practice. I finish up with limitations of the investigation, followed by suggestions for further research.

7.2. Review of study aims

This investigation focussed on a case of English language teaching (ELT) reform centred on implementing a communicative language teaching (CLT) approach. The aim of this research project was threefold: the first aim was to discover the nature of the English language teaching reform in TUS; the second was to explore the attitudes of a group of seven Japanese teachers of English to the reform; and the third was to explore if there was any change in teaching practice following the reform (see Section 2.11. for research questions).

The research questions in this thesis went through a number of iterations, which allowed them to become more nuanced and thus more accurately reflect significant themes that emerged during the investigation. Research questions were formed by considering a number of factors connected with a discussion of teacher awareness, such as the teachers' beliefs, attitudes and perceptions regarding a greater use of classroom activities that correspond to a CLT approach, taking into consideration the teaching context and my being an insider in the research process (see Section 2.7. for details on teacher awareness and Section 3.6. for further discussion on insider research). I outline the findings of the research in Table 11, on the following page.

7.3. Findings

This section identifies main findings and implications from analysis of the data that was collected. The following table contains research findings and the research question to which it pertains.

Research question	Research findings
1	The devising of ELT reforms in order to help students raise their English oral communication competence
	A fall in the number of courses emphasising grammar-translation and a rise in both the number of courses emphasising oral communication skills improvement makes way for a rise in the number of teachers who are native-speakers of English
	A periodic testing of English skills and streaming of students into classes by ability
	The standardisation of the provision of courses creates course-specific curriculum goals
	Standardising the choice of textbooks in certain courses allows for the setting of new curriculum goals
	Introducing the creation of an English Lounge and an English consultation service
2	The level of vocabulary in classroom texts fell from high to comprehensible
	The complexity of tasks that students engaged in rose from low to high
	The gap between students' knowledge of grammatical structure and the extent to which they are able to communicate orally became evident
	Teachers appear to broker lesson activities by using a considered mix of Japanese and English
3	There appears to be a general welcome towards the curriculum reform
	There is claimed to be a large gap between traditional and CLT teaching approaches that will be difficult to bridge
	The primacy of oral communication competency is questioned
	Problems in transitioning from teacher to student-centred learning
	Teachers who are native-speakers of English are perceived as being more suitable for courses involving CLT-type activities
	There is a seeming conflation of CLT reform and increased administrative burden
	Sociocultural factors result in a low level of oral communication competence
	There are concerns about the detrimental effect entrance exams have on oral communication skills

Table 11: Research findings

In the following, I describe how the key findings, as listed above, combine to address the three research questions.

7.3.1. Research Question 1: What is the nature of the English language teaching reform in TUS in policy?

Findings garnered from my analysis of documentary and other ethnographic data (see Section 3.5. for more information on data sources) indicate that the ELT reform was clearly centred on improving students' oral communication ability.

One reform that became apparent during the analysis of institutional documents was a noteworthy fall in the number of courses taught by Japanese teachers who, according to past course guidelines, would have used a traditional teacher-centred approach. There was also a similarly significant rise in courses in lessons taught by native-speaker teachers based around a CLT approach. Another reform was the introduction of a periodic testing of English skills and streaming of students into classes by ability. This made way for the introduction of the streaming of courses in terms of English ability and a shift to standardisation of lesson content and goals.

Further findings from documentary and other evidence gathered from an ethnographic perspective, specify that two ways for students to improve their oral English communication competence were created (see Section 4.2.5.). An English consultation service, for students to help prepare for academic presentations or academic writing and an English Lounge, where dynamic conversation skills can be enhanced, showed a growth in attendance during the study.

In sum, findings for this research question indicated that the nature of ELT reform in TUS has its origins in international competition between universities and the perceived need for Japanese universities, including TUS, to produce graduates capable of pursuing scientific research through collaboration in English. As a result of senior management adopting this policy initiative, a package of reforms was created.

Moving on from Research Question 1, I now turn to consider the extent to which teachers adapt their teaching practice to the ELT reform between the pre- and post-reform eras.

7.3.2. Research Question 2: To what extent do teachers in TUS adapt their teaching practice to the English language teaching reform?

Findings emerged from a comparison of pre- and post-reform classroom observations. In the following, I present findings that lead me to argue that teachers adapted their practice

in order to cope with a new emphasis on the communicative nature of classroom activities required by the reform.

One finding that emerged from a comparison of observations (see Table 9) was that the level of vocabulary in the textbooks appeared to fall from high, in the pre-reform, to a comprehensible level in the post-reform curriculum. A possible explanation for this finding, as discussed in Section 4.2.4., above, is that courses under the post-reform curriculum use purposely chosen EFL textbooks from a predefined list. What may be taken from this shift in textbooks is that compared to the pre-reform era (see Section 5.3. above), lesson activities using highbrow authentic texts, or textbooks that focus on reading and translation, seem to be less appropriate for oral communication skills improvement than those texts that are adapted from internationally published EFL textbooks.

Turning to the next point, the complexity of tasks that students engaged in, appeared to rise from low, in the pre-reform curriculum, to high, in the post-reform era. A possible explanation for this finding is, as a result of a shift to using EFL textbooks, classroom tasks appear to have shifted from that of discovering a meaning without delay – by simply translating from one language to another – to that of an active, inductive and student-centred approach to learning (see Section 6.3.2. for further clarification).

A further finding was that in the lesson that had devolved learning to students in an active way, the gap between students' knowledge of grammatical structure and the extent to which they are able to communicate orally, became evident (Section 5.2.4., part 2). Thus, students' ability to communicate novel utterances, using simple grammatical structures, does not seem to be as accomplished as their knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, nor does their ability to deconstruct complex sentences and translate from one language to another. In this way, the textbooks for the international market used in the post-reform curriculum did not have appropriate tasks for students because the grammar was 'too easy'. Another point is that the speaking tasks seemed to lack enough context for students to create what they deem suitable sentences.

A last finding was that teachers appeared to broker lesson activities by using a deliberate mix of Japanese and English. The use of such a strategy, implies a flexibility in approach to classroom activities that teachers may not have known they possessed. As a

consequence, use of this strategy may provide a chance for this thesis to become a conduit for professional development in the investigation context.

In summary, classroom observations show how obstacles to the implementation of the reform can be overcome in an environment where teachers are given space to find a middle ground in which communication can take place between teacher and students and students and students. In this way, teachers seem to adapt their teaching practice in a process of trial and error.

Moving on from Research Question 2, I turn to address teachers' beliefs and attitudes to the reform that became salient through the investigation of my third research question regarding classroom-level practice.

7.3.3. Research Question 3: What are teachers' beliefs about and attitudes towards the English language teaching reform in terms of their practice?

Findings emerged both in the form of positive and negative attitudes to ELT reform that appear to revolve around the perceived gap between the method of teaching and learning in the pre- and post-reform curriculum. In the following paragraphs, I will first address the positive attitudes that emerged as findings and then the negative.

In terms of positive attitudes to the reform, while one teacher was wholly welcoming, six out of the seven participants appeared to see advantages, such as a standardisation of teaching goals between teachers teaching the same course, the likely redressing of the balance between translation skills and competency in oral communication, and the alleviation of the burden of teaching students, of widely differing ability levels, in the same class (see Section 6.2.).

Turning to drawbacks, all teachers speculated about how they would be able to employ CLT-type activities in their practice. Indeed, teachers report on obstacles to the reform that seem to stem from beliefs about the most appropriate approach to teach Japanese students in a science university. Six themes, creating obstacles to the implementation of the ELT reform, were judged to have emerged from an analysis of the seven semi-structured interviews that took place. These obstacles and what I suggest is their effect on the teachers' ability to implement the reform are reported on in the following paragraphs.

One obstacle to emerge was a questioning of the primacy of oral communication skills for students at TUS (see Section 6.3.1.). With this obstacle, it seems that even though

participants in the study created the teaching schedules and designed the content of the courses, participants imply reticence in giving up on longstanding grammar-translation teaching techniques. In interview, the participants reflected on what is most appropriate for students at TUS by considering how students will use English both in their university studies and future careers. It appears that teachers who believe that reading and writing in English is more useful for science students after they have entered the workforce, do not think that the extent to which students will need to exchange ideas and information – in a dynamic, oral way – warrants the effort involved with altering their teaching practice.

A second obstacle was the teachers' perceptions of the difficulty of bridging a perceived gap between classroom activities in pre-reform courses and those found in the post-reform era. In the pre-reform curriculum, it emerged that a number of teachers spoke of their belief that students' past learning experiences played a part in the difficulty of transitioning from teacher- to student-centred learning (see Section 6.3.2.).

Another obstacle (Section 6.3.3.) was based on the perception that teachers who are native-speakers of English are, by some participants, perceived as being more suitable teachers for courses that involve CLT-type activities. The perceived unsuitability of Japanese teachers for oral communication courses indicates one of the following: the teachers perceive themselves as unqualified to teach these courses due to a lack of experience of a student-centred approach to teaching, or they experience a loss in status. This loss of status seemingly stems from the possession of a self-image of themselves as a researcher, rather than that of a foreign language teacher. In this regard, what teachers said in interview implies that in the post-reform era, it would be better to keep things more-or-less as they were in the pre-reform era, or, for courses that emphasise the improvement of oral communication skills, to make use of native-speaker teachers' innate cultural and linguistic fluency.

Turning to the fourth obstacle (Sections 4.2.2. and 6.3.4.), the implementation of the ELT reform appears to emerge as a conflation of CLT reform and increased administrative burden. The upshot of this is that teachers may well view the administrative burden as a by-product of the ELT reform and see it as a hindrance to the running of the lesson; thereby limiting them to teaching in a certain way in order to fulfil a set of particular criteria.

Moving on to the fifth obstacle, interview participants relay various sociocultural reasons for a majority of students at TUS having a low level of oral communication competence. One reason participants give, found in Section 6.3.5., above, is that a typical TUS student's ability to readily take part in oral communication in English is hampered by a culturally-based inarticulacy that leads to oral communication deadlock between students. Therefore, without using some of the pre-reform teacher-centred techniques they had practiced in the pre-reform era, students with a typical sociocultural outlook are likely to struggle with speaking tasks in which there is little access to a familiar grammar and translation focus.

The sixth and final obstacle, pertains to concerns about the detrimental effect entrance examinations have on oral communication skills. The main concern interview participants had, is with the centrality of the role that the study for entrance examinations play in Japan. The societal role that these examinations play was described in Section 2.6.1., as, 'deeply engrained in the educational system'. Thus, concern was expressed about the inability of any university to have anything but the smallest effect on the oral communication ability of its students.

In summary, what seemed to emerge in answering this research question was that the participants brokered the reform with their own personal teaching style. In addition, although no teacher was against the implementation of the ELT reform, all of the teachers came up with potential obstacles to why a smooth implementation of the reform was difficult, such as an inherent teacher and student attitude towards English.

Moving on from findings emerging during the answering of research questions. In the next section, I suggest some practical recommendations for educational theory and for educational policy and practice.

7.4. Implications for educational theory

In this thesis, I have reviewed the merits of past scholarship on teachers engaging with foreign language reforms in order to create a frame of reference for my investigation. While I acknowledge that the findings and implications here cannot be directly applicable in a wider context, researchers in similar situations within Japan; in Asian countries, whose sociocultural history shares Confucian principles; or where a teacher-centred approach to teaching has traditionally been the norm, may find the implications

meaningful and relevant. Thus, in the following paragraphs, I describe implications for educational theory that may be of use to teachers, educational researchers and policymakers in similar contexts. However, there is necessarily some overlap between them.

7.4.1. Implications for educational theory: Teachers

1) As we have seen, ELT reform may lead to a standardisation of individual courses to the extent that administrative, or extra-curricular work becomes a noticeable burden for teachers. The metaphor of a lever being pulled by senior administrators has been used to describe the pre- and post-policy reform in education and the drastic change in compliance and bureaucracy it may bring about (Coffield et al., 2007). Indeed, at TUS, the relative freedom of how classes were taught in the pre-reform curriculum gave way to the conformity required of classes in the post-reform era. Therefore, what I recommend teachers; especially of English literature, or others who are experts in fields different from TESOL (Teaching English to the Speakers of Other Languages) do, in this, or similar cases, is to acknowledge the reasons behind the shift towards standardised class syllabi and restructure their internalised attitudes towards it. In this way, teachers will be better able to constructively engage with the reform and introduce CLT activities into their practice on a trial-and-error-basis.

2) We have also seen that teachers may perceive the reform as having drawbacks that can be mitigated by engaging with it in a positive way. There is a growing amount of research into the extent that teachers adapt their practice to a reform. For instance, where it is felt that students lack confidence and have low motivation, it may be useful for teachers to act more as, what the seminal Russian scholar, Vygotsky, termed ‘knowledgeable others’ (Ball, 2000). By helping students to actively participate with classmates in order to achieve lesson goals, teachers may adapt textbooks to suit their immediate needs and, by-and-large, keep to a familiar teacher-centred grammar-translation approach known as *yakudoku* (Humphries and Burns, 2015; Thompson and Yanagita, 2015). Thus, what I suggest is that teachers take the role of facilitator rather than a font of knowledge. In other words, teachers should facilitate lesson activities that sanction and empower students to negotiate meaning through sets of active, inductive and student-centred tasks.

3) Teachers may find it easier to adapt their teaching practice to that required by ELT reform if they consider blending the intended reform and their existing teaching practice and, thereby, create a *best-fit* for their purposes. As indicated above, policy initiatives in a higher education institution may be instigated in an ‘ecological’ way. That is, by seeking to mitigate obstacles to policy implementation in a way that is adaptive to both global and local factors. Innovations to teaching practice made in this manner are mutually constructed by administrators and teachers to form a *best-fit* with the teaching and learning context (Gonzales Basurto, 2016; Hashimoto, 2000).

7.4.2. Implications for educational theory: Educational researchers

1) Viewing an educational context as a kind of broad ecology of inter-related systems and subsystems is a functional way of investigating and making sense of a complex set of social, cultural, political and historical factors connected with ELT reform (Kennedy, 1988). I suggest that educational researchers should view the ELT reform in this investigation as being affected by a host of external-, institutional- and practice-level factors in a dynamic and non-linear way (Waters, 2014; Larsen-Freeman, 2013). That is, the teachers who participated in this study reacted to the ELT reform based on their beliefs about and attitudes towards what is the most appropriate way to teach their students in their context (Phan, 2013; Cha and Ham, 2011; Bjork, 2010).

2) It would also be useful for educational researchers to develop a greater understanding of the appropriacy of classroom activities in the pre- and post-reform eras may result in discovering more about underlying sociocultural constructs that are deep-rooted and appear inherent in the teaching and learning process. As seen above, sociocultural constructs, such as inherent belief-structures concerning *nihonjinron* and Confucian values may be the basis for teacher beliefs about and attitudes towards past experiences and current motivations (Racelis and Matsuda, 2015; Kim et al., 2013; Nishino, 2012). In the pre-reform era, TUS seems to have consisted of a mix of *nihonjinron* values, which endorse an understanding that Japan is culturally unique (Hoffman, 2013); and Confucian values, which prize obligation, duty and social cohesion (Tjeldvoll, 2011; Hu, 2002; Gray, 1998). In contrast, in the post-reform era, students are encouraged to interrupt, make suggestions and ask either teacher or classmates for clarification (Kinsella, 1997) in the manner of students in the target language group (Breen and Candlin, 2003).

3) Findings (e.g. Section 6.3.2.) point to an enduring preference for a traditional, teacher-centred approach to teaching and high stakes university entrance examinations that students study for at secondary school. As noted, part of this preference stems from interrelated sociocultural norms and ensuing teaching methods different to those found in the West (Wedell, 2003; Arimoto, 2001). That is, the Confucian ethos of the development of the character and social cohesion of students through hard work and perseverance (Kelly, 1998) seems to have resulted in a stable relationship with traditional teaching methods that emphasise frequent testing of vocabulary and grammar in order to demonstrate how successfully a student has studied (Thompson and Yanagita, 2015). In this way, educational researchers should take stock of the status quo and plan more research on the possible effects of policymakers' plans for further reform. In East Asia, and Japan in particular, I would recommend researchers to pre-empt any change in future students' views to the learning of English as a foreign language. Further research in this area could investigate the extent to which students in Japan, or East Asia move away from a Confucian stance to learning, towards one that is more common in the West.

4) Notions of a complex mutual construct between teacher-centred lessons and examination-oriented English study, appear to result in comprehensive knowledge of the structure of English but a limited functional ability. The concept of *juken-benkyo* (the study for entrance examinations) and the associated means by which it is usually studied, *yakudoku* (a teacher-centred grammar-translation teaching approach) are deemed as essential for the study for university entrance examinations (Mondejar et al., 2012; Hosoki, 2011) and a matter of course for university teachers with a background in English literature (Nagatomo, 2012). This mutual construct tends to lend itself to a teaching approach that aims to help students become successful exam-takers rather than successful communicators (Humphries et al., 2015; Kobayashi, 2013; Hu and McKay, 2012). With regard to the notion of a mutual construct, I would advise researchers to view educational institutions as sets of inter-related systems and subsystems. By doing so, it would be possible to take a sociocultural stance to research and realise the potential for external- and institutional factors to have an effect on teacher practice. In the case of Japan, I suggest research be done on the possible effects of the implementation of a new English segment in the Prospective University Entrant Scholastic Abilities Evaluation Test being prepared by the Ministry of Education. I recommend that researchers investigate the

likelihood of future students entering tertiary institutions being more comfortable with a 'strong' version of CLT as a result of examination 'washback' (see Section 2.5.1 for a description of this term).

5) The use of a trial-and-error strategy implies a flexibility in teaching that teachers may not have known that they possessed and provides a channel for this thesis to become a conduit for professional development in the investigation context. In this regard, I suggest that perhaps the largest obstacle regarding adapting teaching practice to the ELT reform is the difficulty in lifting students out of a seemingly static low oral communication competence and, a culturally appropriate 'lack of wordiness' (Szyszka, 2017; Ikeda, 2015, p. 79; Larsen-Freeman and Cameron, 2008). In order to mitigate this obstacle, and appropriately broker lesson activities, classroom observation showed teachers used a kind of interlanguage. It seems then, that teachers are not at a loss about how to create chances for students with a low level of general English ability to speak because they employ practical strategies that work in their context. Thus, I suggest that researchers conduct research on the mixing of Japanese and English in talk between teacher and student during classroom activities in a CLT atmosphere. This mixing, or 'translanguaging' (Garcia and Wei, 2014) is specific for the matter at hand, or, in order to make progress during the lesson in a timely way.

In this section, I stated implications of this investigation into the nature of the ELT reform at TUS. In the next section, I move on to state implications and recommendations for educational policy and practice.

7.5. Implications and recommendations for educational policy and practice

I argue that in order to discover more about the community of practice in their workplace (Lave and Wenger, 1991) it would be appropriate for researchers to consider using a similar interpretive methodology and analytical methods to the one used in this thesis. That is, researchers who want to base their research on the dynamic interaction of global and local factors in their teaching context, could usefully carry out participant-informed research that collects data that has both quantitative and qualitative aspects (Kennedy and Kennedy, 1998; Ercikan and Roth, 1998). As noted, so as to cover those factors and aspects, it would be effective to undertake a case study with an ethnographic approach, employing an ethnographic perspective (Green and Bloome, 2008), using analytical tools

such as the collection of documentary data, interview transcripts, field notes from classroom observations and other ethnographic data such as meeting minutes (McCarty, 2011; Wolcott, 2008). In this way, I advocate that both TUS and other institutions consider the following implications arising from the investigation in this thesis:

- 1) Motives for reforming English language teaching
- 2) The appropriacy of predictable lesson content
- 3) Setting limited course goals

These three implications emerged from the analysis of institutional documents, classroom observations of teaching practice and semi-structured interviews with teachers. In the following sections, I describe each implication in more detail.

7.5.1. Motives for reforming English language teaching

As noted, reasons for potential motivations and rationales for reform in policy or practice in an educational context may remain hidden from view (Borg, 2003). The warrant for the investigation undertaken in this thesis then, is based on three factors regarding external-, institutional- and classroom-level policy reform: firstly, Japanese government initiatives regarding the improvement of oral communication skills through ‘active learning’ at the external level (MEXT, 2014), secondly, an institutional directive to improve students’ oral communication skills (see Appendix 1), and lastly, the ensuing implementation of ELT reform in the classroom (see Appendix 16).

Turning to implications for practice, findings emerging in this thesis revolve around teacher awareness about language learning and teaching being shaped by 1) beliefs formed during previous learning or teaching experiences (Kalaja and Ferreira Barcelos, 2013), for example that teachers are loath to abandon traditional teaching practices, 2) internalised attitudes (Ginsburg and Megahed, 2009) towards their professional status, such as being a researcher rather than a teacher of English as foreign language; and, 3) by teacher perceptions of the reform process (Watanabe, 2016) that appear to include more difficulties than benefits regarding its implementation.

I recommend that further research be done at the intersection of these three factors regarding teacher beliefs, attitudes and perceptions and external-, institutional- and classroom-level policy reform. Examples of findings at this intersection, to emerge in this

thesis, are the relationship between economic globalisation and internationalisation, the centrality of the university entrance examination and an apparent disparity between knowledge of grammatical structure and oral communication. Research undertaken in this thesis adds to knowledge about a connection between these factors and is explained in detail, below, with reference to the different stakeholders in this investigation: policymakers, teachers and educational researchers.

1) Policymakers: Economic globalisation and internationalisation

As indicated, a growing economic globalisation has been viewed as the starting point of policies connected with the internationalisation of higher education worldwide (Block and Cameron, 2002). What can be inferred from a review of literature is that there is a belief, on behalf of stakeholders in the context of this thesis, that participating in a world with increasing economic competition requires attention to English communication skills (Liddicoat, 2013; Kubota, 2011; Takayama, 2009). Moreover, that this attention to English communication skills be done in order to prepare university graduates for the workforce (Keidanren, 2016; Grove, 2012). Additionally, data emerging from analysis of institutional documents showed that a shift from year-long courses to semester-based courses was made by senior management to follow government policy guidelines made with the aim of improving international relations (Bradford, 2013; Whitsed and Wright, 2013; Kobayashi, 2011). What may be implied here is that there is a top-down connection between external and institutional policy reform. However, in the case of TUS, ELT policy reform is conducted by teachers and further interpreted at the level of classroom practice.

2) Teachers: Confucian ideals and university entrance examinations

As stated earlier in Section 2.5., the study for high stakes university entrance examinations in secondary school appears to stem from the Confucian ideal of the intensive study of a comprehensive sum of information. As a consequence, institutional documents and interviews indicate this ideal seems to have skewed the learning of English in TUS and other typical higher education institutions in Japan, to that of a focus on grammar and translation rather than dynamic oral communication (see Section 4.2.1., Table 6, and Section 6.3.6.). In this regard, findings indicated a majority of teachers gave reasons for how the traditional, teacher-centred approach to teaching, which both teachers

and students were familiar, had become the preferred method of teaching (Section 6.3.2.). Findings reveal that this preference teachers have for the traditional approach, is probably due to a lack of experience in teaching English as a foreign language and/or being of the same ethnolinguistic background as the students. Thus, the implications of changes in government policy that appear to be afoot in terms of the National Center Test for University Admissions, will be of great interest to scholarship (MEXT, 2015). Indeed, as findings arising from interviews indicate, a shift in balance towards oral communication in this test is very likely to have an effect on the amount of time students pay towards the study of grammar and translation and that of dynamic interaction with the spoken word (see Section 6.3.6.).

7.5.2. The appropriacy of predictable lesson content

Field notes taken during classroom observation indicate that although both observed teachers, P5 and P6, used a teaching approach which generated a peaceful and studious classroom atmosphere; the teachers used differing tactics. Whereas P5 got students to engage in silent, lone problem-solving activities online and at their own pace, P6, meanwhile, utilised a cycle of reading, translation and teacher comment to engender a seeming sense of student 'composure'. I suggest that there are implications for policymakers and educational researchers with respect to educational theory, policy and practice in these findings.

1) The appropriacy of predictable lesson content: Policymakers

Regarding educational theory, I suggest a more positive stance towards the use of repetitive, autonomous activities in foreign language lessons in similar contexts since they appear appropriate for both student and teacher in the context of this study. That is, field notes reveal, students consider such activities appropriate because of the apparent sense of assuredness gained from advanced knowledge of how the lesson will progress (Sections 5.2.4. and 5.2.5.).

2) The appropriacy of predictable lesson content: Educational researchers

In terms of originality in implications for policy and practice, I argue that classroom activities in typical grammar-translation classes may be akin to certain familiar cultural activities such as the tea ceremony. Classroom activities observed in this thesis appear to

share a mindful; yet understated carrying out of a process in an established order within the notion of simplicity (*wabi*) and respect for tradition (*sabi*) (Japan-Aesthetics, 2017). Consequently, one obstacle to the implementation of the ELT reform in practice is a discrepancy between an implicit endorsement of an approach to teaching that shares a wabi-sabi perspective; shifting to a CLT teaching approach that embraces an unpredictable negotiation of meaning between students in the post-reform ELT curriculum.

In the next section, I describe the implications for theory, policy and practice of teacher perceptions of a middle ground for successfully implementing ELT reform in TUS, or comparable contexts.

7.5.3. A middle ground between traditional and CLT-type activities

This section moves to a description of teachers' perceptions of how a middle ground for successfully implementing the ELT reform at the site of the investigation can be reached. I suggest that there are implications for educational policy and practice in findings arising out of the investigation in this thesis for educational researchers, policymakers and teachers.

1) A middle ground between traditional and CLT-type activities: Educational researchers

Regarding implications for educational theory; as indicated, findings emerging from field notes reveal that students appear confident in their ability to engage with lesson activities in a teacher-centred, or teacher-controlled manner. However, emerging from field notes and interviews, is an apparent anxiousness associated with a student-centred approach, which requires participation in a certain amount of dynamic and active interaction with classmates. This description and implications arising from field notes in teacher P6's second classroom observation are examples of teaching practice adapting, or, acclimatising, to the ELT-reform (see Section 5.2.4.). The intention here is to find a *best-fit* for the aim of improving students' oral communication ability with those students who may struggle with a move on a continuum away from the study of grammar and translation and towards dynamic oral communication. It may be argued that the constant search for the *best-fit* is reminiscent of the gradual development found in natural selection in living things. That is, those that cease to adapt to their surroundings cease to be relevant (Kennedy, 1988).

2) A middle ground between traditional and CLT-type activities: Policymakers
Thus, with regard to policy, I suggest there should be ongoing reform at regular intervals. Indeed, because the reform is understood to be in a larger web of interdependent concepts such as cultural, historical, political and economic factors; small changes in policy are inevitable in order to adapt to the changing circumstances. I suggest that this may best be done with a well-measured, trial-and-error approach. Teachers would then, make use of the well-known sociocultural notion of *kaizen* and make continuous improvements to educational policy and practice systems by sharing their insights on scheduled occasions (Berger, 1997).

3) A middle ground between traditional and CLT-type activities: Teachers
In terms of educational practice, I would argue, maintaining a view of ELT reform in the investigation context from a sociocultural stance allows for an ‘ecological model’ (Kennedy, 2013; Tudor, 2003) to provide a space in which ELT reform may co-exist with traditional teaching methods. This, however, calls for more research on classroom observations of the type of trial and error that teachers in the investigation context undertake, as they attempt to advance ELT reform in their practice.

7.6. Limitations

In this section, I will describe limitations of the investigation contained in this thesis. I do so in order to help provide sufficient information about the analytical method by which data was collected and analysed (Hammersley, 2011).

1) The number of classroom observations

The number of classroom observations was small. I made four observations: two lessons under the pre- and two under the post-reform curriculum. What has come to my attention, after the fact, is that comparing the pre- and post-reform lessons provided for thought-provoking data on how teachers went about implementing it. Future studies, could, therefore, usefully draw on the method of classroom observations for its potential to offer insights into actual behaviour, which may contrast markedly with institutional policy and participants’ views. During the study, it became clear that classroom observations were the metaphorical furnace in which external-, institutional- and classroom-level factors were forged with teacher and students’ beliefs and attitudes ‘in the moment’ (Jennings,

2010). It was in that atmosphere that I was able to observe the teachers' agency as they either encouraged students to collaborate in student-centred, non-linear and dynamic oral communication activities, or facilitated the lesson with a calm detachment, commonplace in a teacher-centred lesson.

2) The number of interview participants

The number of interview participants was limited to seven teachers, which is not a large number to draw upon for the creation of themes that would represent beliefs, attitudes and perceptions of the reform. However, for this study I was limited to this number because the group of participants was purposely chosen to represent those with the greatest knowledge of the process of helping create the parameters for the implementation of the reform. Nevertheless, future research might consider whether including a wider range of participants would enable more voices to be heard. In any case, and as noted above, it appears that interviews can be usefully complemented by classroom observations, to compare teachers' beliefs about curriculum reform with their actual behaviour in the classroom.

With regard to reporting limitations, allowing my investigation to evolve as I learned more about the context of the educational system of which I am a part, was a very important factor in the carrying out of the research because I was able to follow new paths of enquiry as they emerged. However, doing research in this way means that one has to make constant decisions about which path to follow. If one is not used to doing a complex investigation into a piece of reform in an educational institution, it may become what some scholars have termed *messy*. Yet, having drawn emergent data together into a cogent whole over the course of this thesis, I am now able to take a more pro-active stance to a similar study in the future.

7.7. Concluding remarks: Further research

In these concluding remarks, I will reflect on the process of carrying out the investigation in this thesis and suggest areas for further research.

The idea for carrying out a case study of the reform was prompted by a confluence of various events. Although, during the last 15 years of teaching English in universities in Japan, I had written in in-house journals on topics such as curriculum reform, systemic functional grammar and complex systems (Jennings, 2010; Jennings, 2009), it was not

until I had moved to my current position at Noda campus, Tokyo University of Science in April, 2013, that this study took full shape. That is, rather than merely undertaking research on the ELT reform in my workplace, I was already an integral part of the process. Indeed, immediately after I joined the university, I discovered, in institutional documents at a faculty meeting, that my hiring was a small part of a greater plan to internationalise the university. In this way, the external-, institutional- and classroom-level factors of my teaching context came into better focus as I was progressing through the data collection process in the first 18 months of the study.

In this thesis, I have informed educational policy by creating a study that will be used to debrief participants and senior management of the extent to which teachers' beliefs, attitudes and perceptions of ELT reform at TUS has been implemented (Open University, 2014). A clear and simple debriefing will pave the way for further analysis, as I intend to make the findings into discussion points that may lead to ideas for a new project within my institution.

As noted, I intend to build on the findings in this thesis and further knowledge about how teachers use a trial-and-error approach to the blending of traditional teaching activities with activities that require a more student-centred approach. I aim, in this future study, to discover more about teaching practice through classroom observation. I envisage this new research being less messy but equally rewarding both personally and professionally.

I conclude the investigation in this thesis by recommending future investigation into educational institutions that are viewed as sets of inter-related systems and subsystems (Kennedy, 1988). As stated above, such future investigations will focus on ELT reform with regard to the interplay of social, cultural, political and historical factors and teaching policy, theory and practice (Johnson, 2008). This type of research will provide insight into how educators mediate national and institutional policy initiatives in order for them to be suitable for local contexts.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

Mandate for reform

The reform of the English curriculum can be traced to an institutional document released in a regular meeting of full-time members of faculty at the beginning of the academic year 2013. The following is the first two paragraphs of a 24-page institutional document about the necessity of improving oral English communication skills. This document, taken in its entirety, gave a clear mandate for the teachers in the English section to carry out curriculum reform. See Section 1.6., for an English translation.

1. はじめに

近年グローバル化した社会において、そうした時代に適合した人材育成の必要性が叫ばれている。その中で英語力は国際社会の中でのコミュニケーション能力の基礎となるものだけに、その必要性が強く指摘されている。事実、多くの会社では入社試験の際に英語力を証明する書類の提出を求めることが普通になっている。また大学院入試においても英語力を証明する書類の提出を持って英語入試に換えることが多くなってきている。こうした状況で、本学の学生の英語力、特にコミュニケーション能力を強化することは緊急の課題となっている。

しかし一般に東京理科大学(以下「本学」という。)の学生は英語を不得手とするといわれている。事実、英語教員の意見では読解力の弱さ、作文力の不足、またヒアリング能力の不足が指摘されている。また4年生以降、卒業研究や修士課程の研究の中では、英語論文を読む力が不足している、国際学会での英語での発表、質疑応答が容易ではないなど、専門課程の教員も日ごろその点を実感している。

Appendix 2

Main points for reform

Institutional documents note that the policy was to change the emphasis on how English is taught as a reaction to calls for a response to globalisation. A list of factors was drawn up in order for science teachers become aware of the need to support the call for improvements in listening and speaking skills. See Section 1.6., for an English translation.

当面の行動方針

具体的には全学部において当面下記の施策の実施を検討していただきたくお願いします。

1. 入学時英語力検査等を実施して新入生に自分の英語の実力を認識させること。
2. 新入生に対して、卒業までの間に「英語力」を向上させる必要性を周知する授業を実施すること。
3. 一般科目の英語教育において「コミュニケーション能力の強化」を目的とした講義を開講すること。
4. TOEIC テスト等の成績向上を目的とした講義を授業に組み込むこと。
5. 継続して英語力検査を実施するなど、学生が英語力の向上を実感できる体制を構築・実施すること。

Appendix 3

Informed Consent form

At the beginning of each interview, every participant read and signed the informed consent document and kept a copy.

Consent Form

Information Sheet

Project Title

The impact of university lecturer beliefs and attitudes to English language curriculum change in a Japanese science university

My name is Stephen Jennings. I am conducting research into how a university in Japan is implementing changes in its curriculum so that it will be able to better carry out these changes. I would like to interview you about your perceptions of the process of the curriculum change in your workplace.

My interest is in how much curriculum changes are connected to globalisation of the world economy. Especially regarding internationalisation of education in universities in Japan.

Thank you very much indeed for taking the time to meet me today. I am happy to answer any queries before you read the questions below or about anything else related to this project. If you decide to take part, please continue reading this consent form. You will be given a copy of this form.

This study is sponsored by the Open University, UK and has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee.

For further information, please contact Dr Duncan Banks
Chair, The Open University Human Research Ethics Committee
Email duncan.banks@open.ac.uk
Ref: HREC/2014/1822/Jennings/1

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Appendix 3

Informed Consent form (continued)

Please make a selection by circling your answer:

Have you received enough information about the study and the intended use of the information collected?

YES NO

Do you understand that you are free to withdraw at any time, without having to explain your withdrawal?

YES NO

Do you understand that you may have all your data destroyed at your request up to 6 months after the date of your interview?

YES NO

Do you understand that you will not be disadvantaged in any way regardless of whether you take part or do not take part?

YES NO

Do you consent to the processing of personal information for the purposes of this study; and do you understand that such information is anonymised in all disseminations based on this study and that it will be treated as strictly confidential and handled in accordance with international law and the UK

Data Protection Act 1998?

YES NO

Do you understand that there will be a short debriefing session after analysis of your interview data?

YES NO

Do you understand that the results of the research will be made available to you in a PDF copy of the researcher's doctoral thesis?

YES NO

Please fill in

Name

.....

Signature

Date

For the researcher to sign

I confirm that I have carefully explained the nature and demands of this study to this informant.

Signature

Date

Contact details:

Researcher: jennings@rs.tus.ac.jp

Project supervisor:

kristina.hultgren@open.ac.uk

Telephone: 04-712-1501 Extension: 3026

Appendix 4

Interview prompts

I created a list of prompts that would allow me to lead into questions, create links from one question to another and make follow-up questions in a methodical way.

Questions	Prompts
Have you any questions before we begin?	What is your background? How long have you been here? What subjects do you teach?
I would like to find out if you feel that this university has changed in general terms recently?	What are your views of the video I introduced to you about the idea of a <i>flipped classroom</i> ? Is it achievable? Is it a good idea for more students to join exchange programmes and/or join short-term English language abroad?
Can I ask, what was your style of teaching here 2 or 3 years ago?	Has anything changed since then and if so why do you think this is? How do you view the streaming of classes into levels of English ability?
Have your classes changed this academic year?	If so, what types of teaching material or different teaching methods do you use now?
What do you understand by communicative language teaching? What do you think about classes that teach English with an emphasis on communication?	How necessary are they? Do you teach one of these classes? If not, would you like to?
Can I ask what you think has been the aim of making changes to the English curriculum?	What effect do you think this change will have on students? Or on the institution as a whole?
I'd like to ask what you see as the main challenges associated with implementing a communicative language teaching approach in your teaching.	Is the communicative language teaching method appropriate for your lessons? What do you see as the benefits and drawbacks of this approach?
To what extent do you feel that the changes being implemented will be helpful?	Do you have any concerns about the changes?
How likely are incoming students here able to have effective communication in English based on what they have learned in school?	If "unlikely" then what can be done to help this? Is secondary education the main problem? How much do you think university entrance examinations are connected to students' poor English communication skills?
As we get close to the end of this interview, I would like to ask how it was for you to be talking to me in this way.	Do you any questions for me as we end our time together?

Appendix 5

Interview notation

I analysed the data I collected in seven semi-structured interviews by making transcripts of what was said using a standardised notation. This notation aided in creating an interpreted rendition of each transcript.

Notation	Remarks
...	Three dots signify a gap between utterances of roughly 3 seconds
~	A wavy line ~ indicates the utterance was preceded by an unrelated thought group.
Hyphen between words	A long hyphen – with one space before and after a word, marks a break in a single thought within a sentence
overlapping speech–	A long hyphen – with no space between it and the previous word, marks the start and end points of overlapping speech.
(additional comments)	Additional comments in brackets e.g. about features of context or delivery.
[...]	Three dots inside square brackets indicate redacted speech. Parts of the conversation may have been erased for ethical reasons or for being too discursive.
<i>italicised words</i>	Japanese speech is rendered in an italicised phonetic transcription.
<i>(italicised words in brackets)</i>	Italicised words inside brackets denote where clarification of a term is provided.
(words in brackets)	Words in brackets are translations of Japanese words written in italics.
{ words in curly brackets }	Words in curly brackets denote when a code-switching event occurred and the original Japanese has been rendered into English.
‘use of quotation marks’	Quotation marks are used to denote when the researcher is reading from prepared questions. Use of quotation marks are also used to refer to what others have said.

Appendix 6

Sample of interview transcript

The following is a sample of a portion of an interview transcript in which P6 and the researcher discuss the effects of globalisation and internationalisation on the Japanese education system.

SJ: So, Society has asked the university to change the curriculum?

P6: Society has changed and there has been strong pressure from outside.

SJ: Outside pressure, yeah.

SJ: Who's that from?

P6: ...*are desu-yo* (From 'them') From industry.

SJ: Industry needs ...?

P6: Needs more communicative English and more internationalised people ... for their companies.

SJ: And if they don't have those people then the company will lose out to other countries that are competing with Japan? So, it is the sense of competition—

P6: Uh-huh.

SJ: So, what I've read is that globalisation is the thing that is happening and internationalisation is the thing that we need to do to struggle – to cope – with globalisation. Have you heard of the *gurobaru jinzai ikusei* (*Global Human Resources Development is a Japanese government funding project that aims give the basis for improving Japan's global competitiveness*) project?

P6: Project right?

SJ: I think that is what we have to do, isn't it?

P6: Yeah.

SJ: To show that ... to produce students who can do that. Do you think that is possible?

P6: Yeah. And it is very difficult to change all of the students into internationalised but some of the students, we should try to teach them many things about globalisation and internationalisation. I would say that 10% or 20% of the students – if 10% of students changed into international people, the reputation of the university would be much better.

SJ: Oh, OK.

[...]

P6: We should not try for 100% but 10% is OK, I think.

SJ: Yes ... 10 or 20 is a good thing to aim for. And students coming from the junior high and high schools, maybe in five years' time these students will have a good start and be more international when they join. That would make things easier.

SJ: Going back to the curriculum. Our English curriculum has changed ... 'Can I ask you what has been the aim of making changes to the English curriculum'.

P6: The main point is to shift to what is called internationalisation or globalisation.

Appendix 7

Field notes taken during classroom observations

Below is the first part of the field notes taken during P6's first lesson.

Pharmaceutical Science students.
 10:40-12:00
 5 Class
 May 18th 2021

Introducing me the visitor.
 Giving out papers speaking in Japanese
 Reading out names 10:40 → 10:45

Introducing the topic → 10:45 → 10:50
 Faces = jobs different jobs = different types of faces.

Science teachers don't show expressions on their face - but kindergarten teachers have "kind" faces.

Asks a question doesn't wait for an answer.

"Reading this passage will help you know the answer to this question"

Chooses a student to read at random. Student reads in monotone then translates into Japanese while reading out loud.

10:45
 Reading (S) and stands.
 Teacher then explains in Japanese phrases / idioms the purpose of the lesson.

10:45
 Another student reads the next paragraph.
 I think this student could read better mean she sometimes tapes into a native-like fluency of pronunciation

10:55
 Example on board "pre-existing illness" in Japanese
 Teacher translates sentence by sentence "be at risk" - examples.

11:00
 Continues to translate the paragraph using pointing out use of "that" which refers to "mortality of loneliness" - gives examples from real life.
 Points out "contracted for" which is a particularly useful word for researchers
 Points out "gargantuan" on the board

11:05
 Brings in the students' life and asks them but doesn't ask anyone to speak at length.

11:15
 Explains about own past and makes the text relevant through this. Asks for any questions anecdote

11:20
 3rd person reads next paragraph.
 Teacher points out the fluency of "Japanese accent" speech and says it would be better to speak with intonation
 As before, teacher gives details with his translation.

11:30
 crucial = important → we instead of important because it sounds "intelligent"

11:45
 Continuing to translate.
 "genuine" - the meaning of this

11:50
 gives example from own past doesn't wait for students to keep reply

11:55
 any questions? - no questions!

Appendix 7

Below is the second part of the field notes taken during P6's first lesson.

11.5. ~~The~~ Penultimate paragraph.
Same pattern as before.

11.0 This is a very important paragraph
so it needs explanation in detail.

11.05 Nice talk connected with "life"
~~11.05~~ end.

① Reflection.

Students seem to be very
receptive of this kind of lesson.

Silent writing. Will there be a
time for discussion?

As reading as in "Japanese" accent
this could affect or does affect
the tone of the lesson.

Students come with translation in-hand

I can sense a "calmness" in the
class.

feels like a scientific dissection. I mean
clinical and distant. Good for
leading ^{high level} complex "authentic" texts

Students are sitting at the back.

Don't bother the students who
are wedding off at the back

Appendix 8

Change in course titles

Changes in course titles can be traced to the minutes of a monthly meeting of the Liberal Arts Group, see below. The crossed-out Japanese script is being replaced with the hand-written part. The crossed-out script states the course titles and describes the necessary amount of credits students needed in the pre-reform curriculum. Meanwhile, the hand-written text describes the necessary amount of credits students need to graduate and states the new course titles in the post-reform era.

The Chinese character in the circle in the upper left is the character for “new”. The Chinese characters in the circle in the upper right mean “document”.

2. 授業科目の履修方法

(1) 一般科目の履修

(イ) 英語分野

英語科目は4年終了時までには8単位を修得すればよいが、できるだけ1年次に英語表現1、英語講読1（各2単位）、2年次に英語表現2、英語講読2（各2単位）を修得することが望ましい。

英語は原則指定されたクラスで受講すること。ただし、条件によってはクラス変更や再履修クラスの履修を認めることがある。詳細は「履修の手引」を参照のこと。

この分野は、以下の授業科目の中から、卒業要件単位数である8単位を修得しなければならない。なお、クラス指定がある場合は、その指定に従うこと。

[Freshman English, Integrated Skills in English A-B-C, Reading Skills A-B, Writing Skills A-B, Listening and Speaking Skills A-B, English for Academic purposes 1-2, TOEIC/TOEFL Skills 1-2, Global Issues 1-2]

Appendix 9

Implementing a semester-based approach

This shift from year-long courses to semester-based courses can be located in a decision made by senior management to follow government policy guidelines. The underlined part of the guidelines clarifies that that semester-based courses (April to July and September to January) allows for a larger number of foreign students to join classes and a greater internationalisation of the student body.

The title may be translated as: “2. Implementing semester-based courses”


2. セメスター制の実施に向けて

平成 25 年度に行った各学部におけるセメスター制の実施に係る調査をもとに、学長から国際化の推進（留学生の受け入れ体制の整備、秋季入学・秋季卒業）、サバティカル制度の促進及び「東京理科大学教育研究のあるべき姿」（平成 25 年 12 月 12 日部局長会議報告）での提言を踏まえ、「セメスター制の実現に向けた具体的方策の検討及びそれに基づくセメスター制の実施について（依頼）」（平成 26 年 2 月 27 日付文書）において、平成 28 年度からのセメスター制の完全実施と、そのための具体的方策の検討について依頼があった。これを受け、教育開発センターでは平成 26 年度の方針を「平成 26 年度授業データにおける通年科目のうち、80%の科目をセメスター化することを目標に各学部において検討し、平成 27 年度よりセメスター化する」と定め、各学部に検討を依頼した。

Appendix 10

Teachers' Handbook

The following is a sample of the university handbook for part-time teachers, created in April, 2015. The handbook contains important information on term dates; as well as guidelines on filling out syllabi, handing in grades, cancelling classes, and other special instructions.



TUS Teachers' Handbook

1. University Contact numbers

If you are running late for class, please contact one of the following telephone numbers after 8:30am:

- 1st floor Teachers' Lounge (Lecture Building)
 - Kamei-san 04-712-1501 Ext. 2222
- Main office for the Liberal Arts section (4th Floor of Building 3)
 - Yoshida-san/Isoda-san 04-712-1501 Ext. 3050

Classes will be automatically cancelled if no teacher arrives in the first 30 minutes but please call as soon as you can

- Contact person: each teacher has a full-time counterpart who you can contact with any queries you may have about classes, scheduling etc.

Appendix 11

Pre-reform ‘Conversation’ classes

The following is a copy of the pre-reform course guideline for ‘English Conversation (Beginner/Intermediate)’ in AY 2010. The English translation may be found in Section 4.2.2.

(4) 「英会話」 English Conversation (「英会話(初級)」 「英会話(中級)」)

「英会話」はnative教員が担当し、主にオーラル・コミュニケーション能力の向上を目標にします。「英会話(初級)」では、オーラル・コミュニケーションの基礎を学習し、「英会話(中級)」では、基礎学習を終えた学生を対象に、より高いレベルのオーラル・コミュニケーションの学習を行います。

Appendix 12

Changing placement by student number to placement by ability

The underlined parts of the following institutional documentation indicate that in the pre-reform era, English courses were either assigned by student number, in the case of required classes, or randomly in the case of elective courses.

<クラス指定について> 英語講読 I, 英語講読 II, 英語表現 I, 英語表現 II の 4 科目についてはクラス指定制です。学生は各学科に入学時に各自の学籍番号にしたがって、1~3組, または1~4組のいずれかの組に振り分けられ, 所属するクラス(組)が決まります。このクラス分けは卒業まで適用されます。再履修の場合でも, 学生は自分の所属するクラス(指定されたクラス)で履修しなければなりません。

Appendix 13

Use of TOEIC test to measure English attainment

Following the stated aims of the report by senior management in AY 2012, starting in AY 2014; all first-year students took a computer-based version of the TOEIC test as a placement test for English courses at the end of each semester.

In this document at number (1) parts ① and ② is evidence of the decision to use a short version of the TOEIC test to discover the change in students' individual and academic department's average score in order so that it can be shown upon graduation. The notice informs the reader that a review of the process will take place at the end of the 2016 academic year to see if improvements can be made.

3 卒業時 【英語力の向上度の確認・アウトプット】(検討項目Ⅲ関係)

前1により目標スコアを設定し、それに到達するため、前2により正課内外で充実した英語教育を実施した後に、卒業の段階にあたって、英語力がどの程度向上したかを確認する。

【平成28年度目標】

(1) 英語力向上度の確認方法(案)

- ① 学生の英語力が、入学以降、在学時の教育を経て、どの程度向上したかの確認(卒業時の英語力アセスメント)のため、例えば、3年次の9月頃(卒研配属の要件とする場合や就職活動開始時期等を考慮)に再度TOEIC-IP試験を受験してもらい、英語力の向上の度合い(スコアの推移)を確認する。(例:経営学部で実施)
- ② 「卒業予定者対象アンケート」(学部4年次の12月～3月の間に実施)の質問項目にTOEICスコアについて伺う設問を追加して卒業時のスコアを把握する(自己申告による)。

(2) 英語力のアウトプット

卒論の要旨を英語で作成

⇒前2の在学時の英語教育の充実により、卒論の要旨(または各種レポート・提出物等)を英語で作成することを課すことで、英語で発信する力を養う。

(3) その他

卒業時の英語力として把握した情報をもとに、設定された目標スコアや、英語カリキュラムの検証・見直し等を行う。

Appendix 14

Changing emphasis on TOEIC testing

Minutes to an English section meeting in AY 2014 suggest that the full-time English teaching faculty considered undertaking the running, analysis and placement for over 2,400 students every semester to be quite a burden. The amount of testing was lowered from four times in two years, to two times.

A translation of the document follows:

1.4. Undertaking the placement test

The following has been tentatively agreed

- (a) The test taken at the beginning of the first year will be the score for the whole year.
- (b) The score from the first semester will also affect the class grade students receive in the second semester.
- (c) The test taken at the beginning of the second year will be the score for the whole year. Students who take an outside TOEIC IP test may submit their test score and change classes as necessary.

1.4. クラス分けテストの使用法について

下記のように決まった。

- (a) 1年次4月の TOEIC IP テストは、その結果を前期の成績に組み込み、前期・後期のクラス分け作業にも使用する。
- (b) 1年次後期のクラス分けテストは、その結果を後期の成績に組み込み、2年次のクラス分け作業にも使用する。(ただし結果は、2年次前期の成績には組み込まない。)
- (c) 2年次は、前期のクラス分けを後期も継続する。より上位のクラスを後期に受講したい学生は、自身で TOEIC IP テストを受け、その成績を学科担当に申告する。また、2年次後期の習熟度確認テストは、その結果を後期の成績には組み込まない。

Appendix 15

The importance of the TOEIC test

In one meeting of the English Working Group sub-committee in AY 2015, it was agreed that in order for students to take the test seriously 10% of the grade for required courses Integrated Skills in English A, B, C, was to be calculated according to their TOEIC score.

A. 上記 1(1)、2(1)、2(2)の理由：

ALCによるクラス分けテスト成績は、従来 Integrated Skills in English-A, B, C成績のうちの 10%分として組み込み、全員受験を促してきたが、2年生で履修者数が減少するとともに、クラス分けテストの欠席者が増加する傾向にあり、28年度実績は別表2の通りであった。このため、2年前期末のクラス分けテストは実施しないこと、また、2年前期 ISE-B および後期 ISE-C の成績への組み込みは行わないこととした。

Appendix 16

The outline of the new curriculum

The new English curriculum outline shows how courses in the post-reform era complement each other.

New English Curriculum Outline (For use from 2015-16)					2015.2.6
Required classes: Building the 4 skills with a concentration on production (Approx. 18 per class [1st Year - semester 1], approx. 27 per class [1st Year - semester 2 and thereafter])					
	1st Year - semester 1	1st Year - semester 2	2nd year - semester 1	2nd Year - semester 2	3rd~4th Years
Split ability level	Freshman English (Small)	Integrated Skills in English A	Integrated Skills in English B	Integrated Skills in English C	
No. of classes	6-8 Classes per department	8-9 classes (2 departments per class)	8-9 classes (2 departments per class)	8-9 classes (2 departments per class)	
	2 credits	1 credit	1 credit	1 credit	
Class Description	Reading, Writing, Listening and Speaking skills development with a focus on Listening and Speaking. Students will become better able to actively use latent vocabulary in discussion; and writing at the sentence level.	Reading, Writing, Listening and Speaking skills development with a focus on discussion and paragraph writing. Students will exchange reasoned opinions on a variety of topics connected with society.	Reading, Writing, Listening and Speaking skills development with a focus on holding discussions at paragraph length on a variety of topics. Discussions should consist of introduction/ body/ conclusion and be the basis for writing and presentation skills.	Reading, Writing, Listening and Speaking skills development with a focus on reacting to the opinions of others. Students will express opinions using appropriate phrases, orally and in writing, that make clear their reasons for agreeing or disagreeing.	
Test (all students)	Class placement test: Early April & Mid-July	Class placement test: Mid-January	Class placement test: Mid-July	Ability appraisal test: Mid-January	
Grading policy	In-class Tests: (Small: 45%/ Joint: 45%) & Placement Test: 10%	In-class assessment: 90% & Placement Test: 10%	In-class assessment: 90% & Placement Test: 10%	In-class assessment: 90% & Ability appraisal Test: 10%	
Textbook	Chosen from the book list	Chosen from the book list	Chosen from the book list	Chosen from the book list	
Elective classes: 4 skills study (not streamed for ability, 1 credit)					
	Freshman English (Joint)	Reading Skills A	Reading Skills B	TOEIC/TOEFL Skills 2	
	2 classes per department				
	Review and confirmation of grammar knowledge and dictionary use. Reading skills improvement and study through e-learning.	The ability to read, understand and paraphrase the main idea of paragraphs (around 600 words) written in plain English.	The ability to read and understand and summarize paragraphs of around 1000 words.	The study of TOEIC and TOEFL exam taking technique, focussing on improving prospects for job hunting, continuing education and study abroad programs.	
Textbook	Chosen from the book list				
		Writing Skills A	Writing Skills B	English for Academic Purposes 2	
		The ability to create paragraphs consisting of at least 5 sentences that accurately express one's opinion.	Students will learn how to make an essay outline from which multi-paragraph essays will be written. Paragraphs will consist of an introduction, body and conclusion and contain sentences that flow logically.	The ability to write research papers for presentation at academic conferences. Among others, students will learn how to write logically coherent cause and effect and comparison and contrast essays. Peer review will aid taught presentation skills.	
		Listening and Speaking Skills A	Listening and Speaking Skills B	Global Issues 2	
		Improving listening comprehension through listening will build gains in speaking and conversation. DVD content, role play and self-study with TEO (TUS online learning system) will be the starting point for oral activities.	Improving the ability to give clear opinions and intentions is the main focus. DVD content and TEO (TUS online learning system) will be used. There will be a focus on pronunciation during role play, oral activities and discussions.	Improving discussion ability through becoming more media literate. Becoming more able to think critically using the themes of Science, the Environment, World Affairs and Internationalisation. There is a focus on Input (Reading, Watching and Listening) combined with one's opinions to become Output (Writing and Speaking).	
Grading Policy		In-class grading	In-class grading	In-class grading	
Textbook		Decided by teacher	Decided by teacher	Decided by teacher (IT2: Partly fixed)	
Elective classes: 4 skills study (not streamed for ability-level, 1 credit) (2nd Year - 4th Year: All)					
				TOEIC/TOEFL Skills 1	
				Classes will put emphasis on the most important points for improving both TOEIC and TOEFL scores. The skills and exam taking techniques learned each lesson will improve prospects for job hunting, continuing education and study abroad programs.	

Appendix 17

The need for textbooks at three ability levels

As opposed to the pre-reform era, textbooks in the post-reform era cater for students with varying levels of English ability. The three levels on AY 2015-16 were condensed to two levels in AY 2017-18.

Freshman English (2015-2016)				2015 年度
Textbook list				
Freshman English				
Level	Title	Author	Publisher & ISBN	Price
Upper Level classes: a & b (EE department a & b) : Y: a, b, c				(Excl. tax)
1	Life Topics (Advanced)	Shimaoka & Berman	Nanundo ISBN: 9784523177517	¥2,100
2	Pathways: Listening, Speaking & Critical Thinking 3A	Tarver Chase, Johannsen	Heinle Cengage Learning ISBN: 9781285159768	¥2,450
3	Network 4A Student book / Workbook	Hutchison & Sherman	Oxford University Press ISBN: 9780194671668	¥2,200
4	Identity	Shaules, Tsujioaka & Iida	Oxford University Press ISBN: 9780194385749	¥2,590
5	Smart Choice Level 3 Multi-Pack A	Wilson & Boyle	Oxford University Press ISBN: 9780194407151	¥2,200
Middle Level classes: c & d (EE department c, d, e, f) : Y: d, e, f, g, h				
1	Impact Issues 2	Day, Shaules & Yamanaka	Pearson Longman ISBN: 9789620199318	¥3,070
2	Pathways: Listening, Speaking & Critical Thinking 2A	Tarver Chase & Johannsen	Heinle Cengage Learning ISBN: 9781285159744	¥2,450
3	Network 3A Student book / Workbook	Hutchison & Sherman	Oxford University Press ISBN: 9780194671651	¥2,200
4	Interchange 4 th Edition Student's Book 3	Richards, Hull & Proctor	Cambridge University Press ISBN: 9781107648708	¥2,850
5	Stimulating Conversations	Goodmacher	Intercom Press ISBN: 9784900689626	¥2,400
Lower Level classes: e & f (EE department g & h) : Y: i & Y: j				
1	Impact Issues 1	Day, Shaules & Yamanaka	Pearson Longman ISBN: 9789620199301	¥3,070
2	Pathways: Listening, Speaking & Critical Thinking 1A	Tarver Chase & Johannsen	Heinle Cengage Learning ISBN: 9781285159690	¥2,450
3	Nice Talking With You 2 Student's Book	Kenny	Cambridge University Press ISBN: 9780521188098	¥2,600
4	Network 2A Student Book / Workbook	Hutchison, T., Sherman, K.	Oxford University Press ISBN: 9780194671644	¥2,200
5	Interchange 4 th Edition Student's Book 2	Richards, Hull & Proctor	Cambridge University Press ISBN: 9781107648692	¥2,850

Freshman English (2017-2018)				2017 年度
Textbook list				
Freshman English				
Title	Author	Publisher & ISBN	Price	
Upper Level classes a, b, c				(Excl. tax)
Life Topics <i>Advanced</i>	Shimaoka & Berman	Nanundo ISBN: 9784523177517	¥2,100	
Pathways: Listening, Speaking & Critical Thinking 3A	Tarver Chase, Johannsen	Heinle Cengage Learning ISBN: 9781285159768	¥2,450	
Network 4A Student book / Workbook	Hutchison & Sherman	Oxford University Press ISBN: 9780194671668	¥2,200	
Identity	Shaules, Tsujioaka & Iida	Oxford University Press ISBN: 9780194385749	¥2,590	
Smart Choice Level 3 Multi-Pack A	Wilson & Boyle	Oxford University Press ISBN: 9780194407151	¥2,200	
Mixed Level classes d, e, f, g, h, i				
Impact Issues 2	Day, Shaules & Yamanaka	Pearson Longman ISBN: 9789620199318	¥3,070	
Pathways: Listening, Speaking & Critical Thinking 2A	Tarver Chase & Johannsen	Heinle Cengage Learning ISBN: 9781285159744	¥2,450	
Network 3A Student book / Workbook	Hutchison & Sherman	Oxford University Press ISBN: 9780194671651	¥2,200	
Interchange 4 th Edition Student's Book 3	Richards, Hull & Proctor	Cambridge University Press ISBN: 9781107648708	¥2,850	
Stimulating Conversations	Goodmacher	Intercom Press ISBN: 9784900689626	¥2,400	
Nice Talking With You 2 Student's Book	Kenny	Cambridge University Press ISBN: 9780521188098	¥2,600	

Appendix 18

English Lounge poster, policy and explanation to part-time teachers

The idea for the English Lounge was initiated by senior management but English teachers controlled the setting up of the room. Part-time teachers and student staff chat with students who 'pop in' for a chat in English and free coffee.



<p>Dear colleagues,</p> <p>This email is being sent to inform all teachers about the "English Lounge" that is being set up to start from April, 2015. The idea is for it to be a relaxing coffee-shop atmosphere for students to chat or discuss a topic that crops up in conversation. Talking with students would be your only duty.</p> <p>You are not obliged to take part with English Lounge activities. Please be assured that if you are not able or prefer not to take part, your relationship with TUS will not be affected in any way.</p> <p>If you would like to join in English Lounge activities, you would get paid 2,300 yen for one period. Importantly, you do not have to be there for the whole 90 minutes. A leeway of about 10 minutes after the previous class and 10 minutes before the following class is presumed necessary for teachers to move between the lounge and classes. That means you will receive 2,300 yen for each slot of about 70 minutes spent engaging with students. Payments are made for every scheduled attendance at the English Lounge rather than per month.</p> <p>The final details have not been set up yet, but the room is K208. It will have access to international news on TV, magazines, comfortable seating, coffee, tea...etc. There is likely to be a set of conversation topics that change by the week and board games as ice-breakers.</p> <p>The English Lounge has been devised in order for students and teachers to talk in English in a relaxed and friendly way. If you think you would like to join in this scheme it would be a good chance to engage with students in a new way. Please do think about joining. Please reply to this email using the questionnaire below if you wish to take part.</p> <p>It would be very helpful if you could let me know whether you are interested in taking part by April 2nd, 2015.</p> <p>Best wishes,</p> <p>Stephen Jennings</p>	<p>English Lounge Policy</p> <p>General Information</p> <p>This Lounge is a place for speaking in English</p> <p>Help yourself to tea and coffee</p> <p>Speak to the teachers –</p> <p>watch TV, read a newspaper, a magazine</p> <p>Teachers</p> <p>Teachers arrive about 10 minutes after the bell sounds and leave about 10 minutes before the next lesson</p> <p>Students</p> <p>You do not have to speak to the teacher(s) feel free to watch TV or read a newspaper or magazine</p> <p>There may be other students wanting to join your conversation</p> <p>If you want to speak to someone make eye-contact and say "Hello"</p>
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Appendix 19

The English Consultation Service

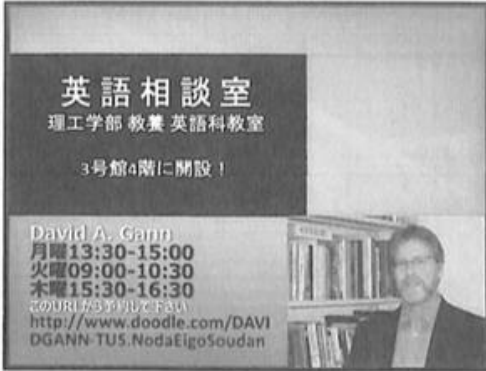
A plan for an English consultation service was formed by full-time faculty members of the English section and then cleared by the English Working Group sub-committee in AY 2013.

TUS 英語相談室の案内

The **Eigo Soudan Shitsu** is a service provided by David Gann of the TUS English Department.

Its purpose is to provide support to students and teachers who are writing reports for classes, articles for publication, or presentations for conferences.

I look forward to meeting with you and helping you to communicate your ideas in English. Following the guidelines below will ensure a satisfactory result.



英語相談室
理工学部 教養 英語科教室

3号館4階に開設！

David A. Gann
月曜13:30-15:00
火曜09:00-10:30
水曜15:30-16:30
このURLから予約下さい
<http://www.doodle.com/DAVIDGANN-TUS.NodaEigoSoudan>

Japanese

Guidelines for Using the Eigo Soudan Shitsu:

- **It is best if you make an appointment.** If you come by suddenly, I may not be there, or may be meeting another student. So, make an appointment through the Doodle site:
<http://www.doodle.com/DAVIDGANN-TUS.NodaEigoSoudan>
- **When you request an appointment** be sure to include your TUS email so that I can contact you if I need to tell you something. Please tell your name, your department, and the purpose of your consultation.
- **You should not just leave papers with me.** I am able to look at your papers, during the time of your appointment. You should be present during that time, because I must sometimes ask for technical points to be clarified.
- **I cannot be responsible for the security of your data.** Bring your own computer if you want me to look at digital content.
- **You will get much better results** if you contact me a week or more before a deadline or a presentation date.
- **This is not an English conversation service.** You can expect a warm and friendly reception, but when you come, bring some writing, like a school paper, a research article, a speech, a Power Point Presentation, etc.

I am looking forward to assisting you in meeting your academic and professional goals.

Appendix 20

Class placement levels

Rather than merely streaming classes in order of student number, as was the case in the pre-reform ELT curriculum, students were allocated classes according to their English ability level from the upper level 'a' down to level 'h' or 'i', or 'j' at the lower levels.

決定事項

1) 薬学部 FE クラス分けは次の通りとする

少人数・合同クラス upper: a,b,c middle: d,e,f,g,h lower: i j

Appendix 21

Iterations of the post-reform sample syllabi

Both versions of the syllabus were created by full-time members of faculty and distributed to all part-time teachers to be used as guides from which to produce their own. The first of ten information fields are contrasted to illustrate the differences between the first (AY 2014) and the third (AY 2017) iterations of the post-reform sample syllabi.

授業科目名： Freshman English	教員の免許状取得のための 選択科目/必修科目	単位数： 2単位	担当教員名：Stephen Jennings 佐藤憲一 担当形態：
科目	教科に関する科目		
施行規則に定める科目区分			
授業の到達目標及びビテーマ 【少人数クラス】 This class moves away from a formal type of teacher-centered English learning. It moves towards you taking control and beginning to improve your ability to talk about various topics connected with social issues. You will critically consider different opinions on a variety of themes. This lesson is the forerunner of the class 'Integrated Skills in English A'. Skills you learn here are directly related to your study in that class in the second semester of this year. 【合同クラス】 このクラスは英語の基本的なルールを再確認することを目標にし、コミュニケーションに必要な規則・法則性・習慣・文化的背景・歴史的背景を学びます。毎回の授業の前半では英語の基礎知識を学習し、後半ではその知識を用いて練習問題を解いていきます。			

科目名称 Course title (Japanese)	Integrated Skills in English A		
科目名称 (英語) Course title (English)	Integrated Skills in English A		
授業名称 Class name	Integrated Skills in English A (●●●●●)		
教員名 Instructor	●●●●●		
開講年度学期 Year / Semester	2017 年度 後期		
曜日時限 Class hours	●●●●●		
開講学科 Department	●●●●●		
単位 Course credit	1.0	学年 Grade	1年生
科目区分 Course category	一般科目・英語	履修形態 Course type	選択必修
授業の概要・目的・到達目標 Class description / Objectives / Goals	Description Integrated Skills in English A is a one-semester class that builds on what was learned in the previous semester's Freshman English lessons. Integrated Skills in English A is taught once a week and is conducted primarily in English. This class continues with a student-centered, active-learning approach. Objectives In this class you will begin to take control of discussions and improve your ability to talk about various topics connected with social issues. The aim is to further develop your active English language skills. Goals You will 1) start to become more comfortable with taking risks in your communication in English. 2) get used to explaining your opinions about a topic before reading about or listening to it. 3) become better able to write short paragraphs. 4) ask questions to classmates if you do not understand what he or she says. 5) become better at repeating what you want to say using other words so that your partner will understand you. This class is devised to help provide the following: • To broaden an outlook on Nature/Human Beings/ Society • To think logically and critically • To communicate ideas • To develop a sense of Internationalization (cross-cultural communication/knowledge of foreign languages/knowledge of other peoples/knowledge of International Affairs) To CV students The Department of Civil Engineering designates this class under learning/education as "Type (E) Nature/Social Studies: Enhancing the ability to carry out Civil Engineering via a thorough grounding and a greater understanding of Nature/Humanities/Social Science". To EE students who take Electrical, Electronics and Information Systems Engineering courses Please refer to the following link for the objectives set forth by your own department: http://www.rs.noda.tus.ac.jp/ee-jabee/		