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AUTHOR Wright, Andrew; And Others
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ABSTRACT

Three papers on the outlook for second language teaching and learning introduce the conference on second language curriculum and evaluation. "My Story of Language Teaching" (Andrew Wright) describes a variety of personal and professional experiences in the course of 50 years of language teaching, each highlighting emerging social values and their effects on language teaching ideas and materials. "Change in Education: Historical and Social Perspectives" (Thomas L. Simmons, Dawn Yonally, Shiozawa Tadashi) reviews change initiatives in Japanese education, examines factors associated with successful change, and makes recommendations for promoting professionalism in teaching in that context. In "Training and Development: Possible Pathways Forward," colloquium participants summarize their papers on "The Training-Development Interface" (Clive Lovelock), Teacher Research and Learner Linguistic Needs" (Kevin Mark), "Curriculum Renewal and Teacher Development" (Junko Okada), and "Teacher Training: Initiation to Development" (Jan Visscher). Individual papers contain references. (MSE)

Section One

Looking Back, Looking Forward

My Story of Language Teaching

Andrew Wright
The British Council

In this plenary I described my 50 years of learning and teaching foreign languages. Each experience described was chosen to highlight emerging social values and their effect on language teaching ideas and materials.

My Story of Language Teaching

I cannot give a grand overview of language teaching in the last forty years but I can describe my own personal experience of it. I hope this will be of interest to colleagues who might like to compare it with their own experience and see if there are any implications in this comparison which will help their teaching now and in the future.

My theme is that we can only say whether a bicycle is better or worse than a car when we know what we want to do with it and in what sort of circumstances. And we can only evaluate language teaching methods in the same way.

I will describe my own experiences of learning and teaching foreign languages in terms of:

- values and perceptions (what people think is important, for example, some people have the idea of the student as a complex, thinking and feeling person and other people perceive the student as someone who should be a grateful and respectful receiver of our information)
- aims (arising from our values, what we hope the student will learn and become)
- context (the immediate context of the classroom and its resources and also the broader context of society with its resources and values and pressures)
- students (their interests, needs, stresses, hopes, fears, rights)

When I was eleven (1948) and starting to learn French at school I was told that I was very lucky to have Dr. Macgrar as a teacher. People said he was a distinguished academic. In those days grammar school education was grammar education; the aim was to teach us the grammar of the various disciplines. This was difficult for many of us to learn because we did not have the necessary interest or habits of thought.

I don't know if Dr. Macgrar ever noticed our difficulties. From the first day Dr. Macgrar's preoccupation was with his verbs and tenses, etc., as seen in French literature. We crawled along the lines from word to word, from construction to construction. Studying a living language was evidently second best to studying a dead one, like Latin, but every attempt was made by Dr. Macgrar to kill French off so that it would be a reasonable substitute. After all, his main aim was to discipline our minds. Those were the times when a disciplined and classical education was considered the necessary training for a ruling elite to run the British Empire.

By the way, the last sentence I was asked to translate in my Latin class was, "The soldier left by the South Gate." I never translated it. That was a turning point in my education. I said to myself, "This is going to be hard work. I don't even know who this soldier is. I don't know why he is leaving and why he should leave by the South Gate." It seemed a ludicrous way of spending my energy. So I refused even to translate it. I was beaten on the backside with a stick, another part of the training required for running the British Empire, but I still refused to translate the sentence unless they could tell me who the soldier was and why he was leaving and why by the South Gate.

I was put into the bottom class of the school and another teacher of French was found for us who, they thought, might be able to get through the thick skulls of the boys in 2D.

This teacher had learned about Direct

Method teaching and felt that its reference to desks, doors and windows would be more relevant than a study of grammar in French literature. But what he produced for me was my first conscious experience of surrealism. He pointed with great solemnity at the door and said, "C'est une porte." Years later I came across the painting by Magritte who had written under his painting of a pipe, "Ce n'est pas une pipe." Ionesco wrote a surrealist play based on his observations of English lessons, in which people endlessly ask, "Hello, how"s your wife?" ...or something similar. My new teacher's values presumably were that if I picked up any French words it must be a good thing even if it was only the words for objects in a room. He did not give value to my being a thinking and feeling creature trying to make sense of things.

At the same time in my life I was discovering drawing. The art teacher encouraged me. He showed me wonderful pictures and talked with such enthusiasm and feeling about the spirit of them. He showed joy when I drew the dogs at home and the trees, streams and rocks. And he always talked about the spirit of things and about avoiding triviality, and stereotyping and glib and showy techniques. If I did a weak drawing of a tree, for example, he would grip my shoulder and say, "Bones, Wright! Bones!" And then he might take me to a tree in the school grounds and slap its trunk and say, "Bones, Wright!" I felt the power of his analogy; he left it to me to apply it in whatever way I could. He never, in five years, said I was right or wrong, his criteria were only those of the qualities of feeling and degrees of success in expressing what I felt and thought. He did not select minor bits of famous paintings for me to copy nor did he make me practice drawing straight lines, curves, circles or other shapes, nor did he make me apply lifeless rules. He encouraged me to look at the full complexity of life and slowly to grow in my understanding of how to sort out important structures and shapes and tones. With his encouragement, I discovered more and more about drawing and seeing and understanding and feeling and communicating. My line became more fluent, and my sense of form and composition became richer. Above all, I was concerned about the whole and not the minor details.

My art teacher's values in life included the idea that the world is full of triviality and that we humans must strive to discover grander meanings in it or through it or behind it, not just that we should get the grander meanings given to us but that we take on the responsibilty for searching for them.

What a contrast in values and perceptions between the two teachers! The one representing the general notion of what education should be: a concern with disciplining boys' minds and the other idiosynchratically concerned with introducing me to myself, to life and to ideas. I was able to respond to only one of them.

I failed the public examinations at the age of sixteen, in French and English. I passed in Art and I went to Art School in London.

It was the 1950s. It was a time when societies in the West thought that universal solutions to social problems and needs could be found based on science and logic.

The housing needs of the city poor were analysed, their small, terraced houses were pulled down and great blocks of apartments built for them. Look at all the grass around the building for them to look at!

The audio-lingual approach in language teaching, with its prescriptive bit by bit build up belonged to this same period.

Once more my own value system and needs did not coincide with the values and perceptions of the times and my art school days, in consequence, were largely a waste of time.

Cezanne, the French painter whose searching mind analysed the forms and colours of landscapes, still lifes and nudes was the model we were given. However, my teachers did not seem to appreciate that Cezanne was actually concerned with the picture as a whole and not its parts.

After my time at the art school I managed to get a job as an English Conversation Assistant in France in spite of the fact that I could only speak three words of French, "oui", "non" and "camping." My interviewer, learning that I could draw, decided I was bi-lingual and sent me to France. Everything I have done since that interview has been determined, in part, by that interviewer's decision! (Including this article!) Once more, thank goodness, I had come in contact with someone whose values and perceptions did not belong to the dominant values in society at that time.

I was an English assistant in France for two years and became a fluent speaker of French. It is ironic, isn't it, that I should teach English in France, given my educational history?

My time in France was over and it was the early sixties. It was in the early sixties that Britain realised it was in a mess and could no longer blame the war. Britain had lost its Empire and nobody needed preparing for it. Now Britain had to survive in a hard commercial world. We needed British people who could communicate in foreign languages...and why not

start with children? Why not start with all children in the country and not just a ruling elite, after all this was the time when the socialist Welfare State was established.

In the early 60s there was still a widespread belief that it was possible to produce global solutions for social problems. The audio-visual method was going to be the answer to society's language learning needs.

In 1962 I returned to England and got a job as an illustrator of a new audio-visual course for the teaching of French in Primary Schools (1962) which was going to be tried out on 16,000 children from the ages of 8 to 16. The Nuffield Foundation's Primary French Project was established to produce the perfect method...and it would, surely, with all that money and research.

We produced stories and pictures to illustrate the new language for the children and we gave them dialogues based on the stories for them to practise the language. Friendly stories, lots of practice and as few mistakes as possible. That was the method arising out of the aims which in turn reflected society's demand at the time.

But times were changing again. In the mid to late sixties people were becoming disillusioned with global, rational answers. Hippies were growing their hair longer and longer and universities were beginning to feel the challenge of insurrection and the Beatles were singing with Liverpudlian accents. This was the time in the West in the late 60s when there was "flower power:" a lot of mainly young people began to protest that love was the answer to personal and social problems. Flowers became symbolic of this movement. Memorable newspaper photographs showed young people putting flowers in the barrels of soldiers' guns. People were beginning to say, "We don't want global solutions. We want our individuality recognised."

About this time two academics from the University of Edinburgh, Julian Dakin and Tony Howatt examined the materials we had produced for our Primary French course and pointed out that our children were hardly ever required to use the first person subject pronoun, "je," and when they did say "je" they were not referring to themselves but to the character they were acting in the story dialogues. Our children hardly ever talked about themselves!

Dakin's and Howatt's observations reflected this new emphasis on the importance of the individual. Course writers and language teachers began to respond to social change in values and perceptions. And our team of materials producers began to look at what children actually like doing, and we began to take a broader view of what a rich, and balanced education might be for a child. Trivial stories and dialogues merely devised for teaching French now seemed wrong.

During the same years there was a project in Birmingham for teaching English called Concept 7-9 committed to developing language in the context of a more general development of concepts and skills of communication. Concept 7-9 developed the first examples of information gap games. Children sat in pairs, each child having different information, and they worked together to exchange and complete the information.

Were information gap activities better than what we were doing in the audio visual method when we asked the children to repeat and learn dialogues in trivial stories and were they better than Dr. Macgrar's grammar translation method? Information gap activities manifested a different way of looking at the child, with different values, leading to different aims and then to different methods and techniques to achieve those aims.

About 1972 I was asked to produce a course for teaching English as a foreign language to children. I was determined to make it the first foreign language topic-based course available to teachers and their children. For the first time, my own way of looking at the world coincided with a general trend in society as a whole (I thought at the time). It was at that time that the notional/functional description of language was being drafted by Wilkins, Trim and Van Ek; once again, reflecting concern for the needs of individuals in real, everyday situations. Together with a primary school teacher, David Betteridge and a linguist, Nicolas Hawkes, we wrote and tried out *Kaleidoscope* (1974). We had stories and dialogues, too, but above all we had a serious study of topics such as visual perception, in which the children had to experiment with ideas and experiences as well as develop their English. In the unit on visual perception the children studied visual illusions but they also studied the way in which various types of map projection can distort our understanding of size and position. Our values included the idea that children are rich, thinking and feeling people and that we have an enormous responsibility to help them to develop as all-round learners not merely to "pick up" an inert collection of words and structures in a foreign language. We cannot say that *Kaleidoscope* was better than the method of Dr. Macgrar or the audio-visual courses available at the time. We were trying to achieve very different things.

By the way, the publisher of *Kaleidoscope* soon became very fed up with us. The problem was that their values and ours did not coincide. They wanted to sell a lot of copies and we wanted to offer interested teachers a set of materials which represented a very particular set of values, aims and methods not available at that time in any other published materials. The director of the publishing house told us, "I will allow you 15% innovation!" We ignored his demand and produced alternative material, which didn't sell very well!

My life in language teaching has been too long to drag you through every time values have changed and my work has changed in consequence. But I cannot omit the huge impact that the humanistics movement has had on language teaching. During the eighties there were more and more people who said, "Students are people and they are rich, thinking and feeling people. They are our greatest resource. Help them to make use of all their qualities in learning a language and, most importantly, help them to share with others in the group so that their class becomes a supportive community of learners."

If the teacher believes in such values, then he or she will want to use and will use well the techniques which derive from such values. If the teacher fundamentally doesn't believe in them, he or she will kill off these techniques (and the students' goodwill). The values and the spirit of the way the teacher works are so important.

In my teacher training work I once saw a teacher ask forty students, one by one, what their fathers' jobs were. She didn't ask about their mothers' jobs and she showed absolutely no interest in any of the answers. But at the end of it she thought that she could say to other teachers, "I am using the communicative, humanistic approach."

In the last ten years I have had the good fortune to work with teachers in many countries. This has allowed me to see the way in which deeply held human values are far more important in determining what happens in the classroom than the methods which the teacher is using. In one country for example, the teacher said to me in the tea break, "When I walk into the classroom I represent 2000 years of learning. I expect total respect."

In another country I repeatedly asked questions of the fifty teachers with whom I was working and repeatedly received fifty sweet smiles, but no answers. At the break one of the teachers who was familiar with the West said, "In our culture it is regarded as inappropriate for an individual to speak out an opinion. We believe that this would undermine society." And yet they had employed me to come to their country to tell them about the latest communicative methods based on humanistic assumptions about the importance of the individual. What I fundamentally believed about people was not shared with most of the teachers I was working with.

In another country I was asked to talk to more than one hundred teachers. I began and one of the teachers dropped her pen in front of me. She couldn't get out of her place, so, of course, I picked it up and gave it to her. At the next tea break the local trainers asked me why I had done this. I knew I was facing one of those huge gaps that can sometimes open up between people from different cultures. I replied, "Because she had dropped it." One of the trainers said, "But she is just a teacher and you are an international expert and you picked up her pen." I replied, "But I am the servant of the people I am working for. If I can help them in any way then I want to do so, even if it means picking up a pen for one of them." At the end of the day one of the trainers said to me, "You make it very difficult for us. In this country if you become a teacher you are somebody. You walk down your village street and you are the teacher; you may be very poorly paid but you are the teacher. If you get a job in the grammar school you really are somebody. If you become a teacher trainer or a lecturer in a university you are in the clouds. If you are a university professor you are regarded almost as a God. You are an international expert. You have flown a very long way to be here with us and you say you are the servant of that woman. Where does that leave us poor little teacher trainers?"

It is in conversations like these and through classroom observation that I have realised that methods and techniques cannot be evaluated separately from the deeply held human values they represent. In broad terms, each society and culture has different values and aims with its own sets of contradictions and directions of change. But when it comes down to the classroom it is the teacher and his or her students whose values and aims matter the most. It is quite possible for humanistic values to be given great importance in a society and yet for an individual teacher not to share or even understand these values. She might use a course (methods and techniques) based on humanistic values but carry out the activities in an authoritarian, unsympathetic and uncommunicative manner.

How do your deeply held values about

people and society relate to the aims and methods of the textbooks and course materials that you are using? How do they relate to the values of the students (each is different), your colleagues, the parents, the inspectorate and the government? How does their variety affect your work?

Given the fact that there is so much variety and, in some situations very rapid change and conflict, it is curious that, in studies and evaluations of language teaching, reference is so often made to methods and not to value and purpose. "This method is better than that method." It's like listening to a crowd of people arguing over which is the better means of transport, a bicycle or a car.

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Change in Education: Historical and Social Perspectives

Thomas L. Simmons
Nihon University

Dawn Yonally
Anaheim School District

Shiozawa Tadashi
Chubu University

Educational Reform Past and Present

Horio Teruhisa, one of Japan's foremost education historians, takes a dim view of educational reform in Japan. In 1986 he stated,

> At present we find ourselves in an age of educational reform. The government talks of it increasingly, the Teachers' Union draws up plans, parents call for change, and students themselves protest in their own ways against the competitive, over-controlled nature of school life. It remains a fact, however the education in Japan is riddled with difficult problems: violence against teachers, school-phobia, dropping out and bullying among pupils, to name a few. To control their classes teachers also resort to violence; thus corporal punishment is a daily occurrence. Text books are controlled by strict screening, teachers are deprived of their freedom and autonomy, and classes are too large to be manageable. . . . The problem is aggravated moreover, by the severe competition in university entrance examinations, which stifles any natural interest or spontaneity in the classroom .(Horio, 1986, pp. 31-36)

By December, 1995, Horio, (Interview, 1995) stated that he actually believes the situation is worse than it was in 1986.

The entire education system which has been

developing since the middle 19th century has undergone three major periods of change: the Meiji Era reforms, the immediate post-war reforms and the retrenchment of the centralisation that typified the Meiji Era structure (Horio, 1986; 1988). At the current time, the changes that effect language education are part of a continuous process of restructuring that resembles the strategies of the industrial sector (Horio, 1986; Interview, 1995; Totuska, personal interviews, 1993, 1994). This article will give some structural and historical background and will address the process that is required for effective change as well as report on the overall change in language education itself.

Change in education requires the participation of the classroom teachers (Hall & Hord, 1987). This arguably requires a degree of teacher autonomy, an essential aspect of professionalism. Inagaki (1994) describes teaching as a profession. However, the concept of professionalism has no historical tradition in Japan prior to the modern era (Amano, 1990) and its growth continues to prove difficult. The National Council on Education Reform did not even mention the idea of teacher autonomy in its report in 1986.

Major reforms initiated in 1947 could have given Japan an education system that would prepare Japan to take its place among the democratic countries of the world. What has happened since then is that the central government has abrogated regional control and popular participation (Horio, 1988; Ienaga, 1993/94; "Japan's schools," 1990; Beer, 1984) and actively discouraged or prevented teachers from actually doing any thing more than disseminating the content at the required pace as the individual students' needs are left out of the pedagogical concerns. The Monbusho (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture) decides curriculum, texts, evaluation, and teacher training. Inagaki has this to say, "Professional bodies have hardly ever been encouraged to participate actively in reform efforts" (1993).

The Meiji government was the primary authority in creating the new education system and for this reason the relatively greater organised central authority of the state has displaced or perhaps more accurately, retarded professional development. The modernisation of professional education was a political endeavour from the beginning, controlled by the government in power and attempted change as a result has been from the top down. This aspect of the education systems here in Japan has not changed in more than 100 years (Horio, interview, 1995).

Evaluating the product of change continues on the international stage as an exercise in public relations rather than real evaluative efforts. The entrance exams typically imposed at virtually every step of the education stairway have been used by the international press to provide Japan's education with a high profile. However, poor validity and unequal comparisons have been exposed to the degree that there is little if any substance to the boast that international comparisons can demonstrate superior education (Bracey, 1991, 1993; Westbury, 1992). In fact, in 1991, a spokesperson for the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) the primary testing body for these international comparisons dealt with the problems of technical variation by saying, "We can only hope that the tests are equally unfair to most cultures." ("Technical Issues", April, 1991).

According to Mizoue and Inoue (1993), recent changes have led to the deterioration of the teacher certification process. Shiina and Chonan (1993) note that the number of new teachers entering education and placement rates are quickly declining and maintain that the decreasing number of students, uncompetitive pay, and decreasing prestige contribute to these problems. Mizoue and Inoue, (1993) point out that there is a decreased need for teachers, a decreased attraction for teaching as a career, decreased pay for teachers and there is an increased number of education programmes that last a greater amount of time and require a great deal more of the students. The greater skill and increased educational demands are thus not reflected in status or salary.

Yamamoto Akio (1989), the director of the Research Laboratory of Resources Utilisation at the Tokyo Institute of Technology in Yokohama, gave an overall review of the shortage of research funding and the types of funding available and the problems encountered in acquiring funds. He made note of the downturn in funding overall and the restrictions that hamstring the need for additional staff and the growing academic population that is placing a greater demand on an already inadequate system. He also points out what is certainly not unique to Japan, salaries of the faculty are less than their counterparts in industries. Assertions about the lack of research and contribution to international research may also be found in the analysis of publications. Of articles published in the 3,300 journals in the Science Citation Index, Japan compares inadequately with other industrialised nations contributing only about 8% of the total (Gibbs, 1995).

Real change is seriously hampered by

parochialism. Over the years, a series of articles have chronicled the continuing isolation of higher education through closed hiring practices wherein universities fill faculty positions with their own graduates and scholars from overseas are considered temporary guests rather than colleagues ("Fair play," 1985; "Too few,"1989; Findlay-Kaneko, 1995). Geller (1990) observes that it is nearly impossible for non-Japanese academics to get tenure in Japan. He puts it plainly: "[W]hy does anyone think top foreign scientists will be interested in working in temporary posts in a far-away country where the only available career path is getting the boot?"

Nagai (1971, pp. 249-250) and Amano (1990) chronicle the budgetary control placed on private and public education. That financial support is highly sought after as is the lower tax bracket that comes with certain categories of status. The money comes with strings attached and much can be controlled by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. Much of the control is mandated through "guidelines" that are in fact directives (Findlay-Kaneko, 1995). Power over education was not in the hands of educators in the late 19th century through 1945—it was, and still is a political dominion.

The Attributes of Successful Changes

There is extensive literature on change in education that shows that whether it takes place at the institutional or the national level, innovation is hardly a bit of rescheduling, new materials and a peptalk. More specifically, curriculum change involves a teacher's ability to understand how any innovation is to be used, why it is to be used, or how an innovation may fail (Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin and Hall, 1987). But more often than not the classroom teacher is left out of the planning, prevented or discouraged from contributing constructive input, deprived of the necessary in-service training, and denied preparation time needed to handle change (Candlin, 1993; Nunan, 1993). This section introduces research that examines the styles of curriculum and administrative change and comments on some implications for Japanese school settings.

Factors for a Successful Change

Berman and McLaughlin (1977; 1978) examined characteristics of new educational projects and how school districts managed educational innovations, educational methods, resource levels, implementation strategies, school climate and leadership, teacher attributes, and district management capacity and support

They learned that methods, resources and expenditures had a minor effect on the predictability of success. But, teacher empowerment, utilisation of the local expertise and creativity, the quality of leadership, the teachers' attributes and community and administrative support were paramount in predicting project outcomes and duration.

Since the choice of educational methods and resources available determine outcomes and continuation to only a small and limited extent, language curriculums should not overemphasise the way languages are taught. They should focus on the overall quality of language curriculum, the relationships between teachers and administrators and the teachers' freedom and ability to function professionally.

An interesting aspect of the Berman and McLaughlin research is that ambitious and demanding innovations promoted teacher change and teacher continuation of project methods without causing unmanageable implementation problems or diminishing gains in student performance. This suggests that if the curriculum change should take place, it should be a rather drastic change, because this marked change promotes professional development of the teacher and improves the quality of teaching.

A growing problem that complicates successful change is reliance on transient and overworked faculty. Adjunct faculty who are unable to employ the proper attention needed in improving learning gains are categorically, underpaid, unsupported and uninvolved in the curriculum. Nagai (1971) noted that since the early part of this century, the use of adjunct faculty to cut expenditures been a leading problem adversely effecting all of education in Japan. More recently, Shiozawa, Simmons and Noda (1993) have delineated the problems inherent in the growing use of adjunct faculty (full-time teachers of limited duration and part-time teachers) including exclusion from the administrative and creative process as well as the general destabilising nature of their employment which interferes in long-term commitment to their professional roles.

Candlin (1993) emphasised the teachers' role in change innovation, saying there must a payoff in terms of career improvement. Placing student outcomes and standards of competence on the teachers' shoulders and then holding them responsible is pointless unless the teachers receive professional dividends.

Change Facilitator Styles

A change facilitator is a person working

directly with people who are expected to implement change in the classroom (Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin & Hall, 1987). Researchers for the Research and Development Team for Teacher Education and the University of Texas at Austin have identified three change facilitator styles (Hall, Rutherford & Griffin, 1982). They are described in operational terms and are referred to as initiators, managers, and responders (Hall, Rutherford, Hord & Huling-Austin, 1984).

Initiators hold clear, decisive, long-range goals for their schools and have well-defined beliefs of what teachers, parents, students, and the principal should be doing to help the school move in that direction. Effective initiators make decisions based on input from those who will be involved. Effective initiators tend to be adamant, but not unkind.

Managers are responsive to situations or people. They do not typically initiate a change process and question changes at the beginning and tend to dampen their entry. They are focused on details and keep teachers informed about decisions, protecting their teachers from what they perceive as excessive demands.

Responders emphasize the personal side of their relationship with teachers and are concerned about how others will perceive decisions and the direction the school is taking. They tend to delay decisions, get as much input as possible, and try to insure that everyone has had a chance express their feelings. They will allow others to make decisions but tend to make inflexible decisions based on immediate circumstances and opinions rather than on longer range goals.

Naturally, strong relationships were found between the change facilitators' styles and the implementation success at the classroom level (Hall, Hord & Griffin, 1980). The Principal-Teacher Interaction Study (PTI) (Hord, Huling & Stiegelbauer, 1983) indicated that the initiator was the most successful at implementing an educational innovation. The managerial type of change facilitators were the next most successful, and the responders were the least successful.

Principal-Teacher Interaction Study (PTI)

The PTI study involved an investigation of interactions between teachers and principals in the implementation phase. The analyses of these interactions showed clearly that intervention is a multi-faceted process. Facilitators must be aware of day-to-day interventions, need a variety of interventions and procedures to monitor intervention behavior. Quality in education is continuous improvement rather than a standard for failure (Candlin, 1993) and teacher innovation is a continuum in which there is continuous reassessment and improvement. The do-or-die type of punitive evaluation robs teachers of their ability to deal with the day-to-day routines as well as the exigencies of students and education (Nunan, 1993).

Change may be totally different in the manner or time frame expected from that originally planned. If all teachers are informed and know that change is a dynamic process, they can continue to work and be prepared variations (Hall & Hord, 1987). In Japan where the dynamics of defined teachers' groups (Nagai, 1971) makes it extremely important in implementing any task or change, teacher input is critical. Candlin (1993) asserted that all affected parties must be involved; otherwise, if people are not cognisant of tensions and lines of accountability, these programmes will come apart.

Structural Resistance to Change in Japanese Schools: The Committee

Change at schools and other institutions of higher education in Japan are largely in the hands of the various committees that set practices at the particular school. These faculty committees ensure standards are maintained and school life is ordered. Committee mandates are set by the school, accrediting bodies, and socio-political conventions. There are numerous factors affecting a committee's perspective, some of which may be unique to an institution. The need to maintain order, justify practices, gain acceptance of rulings, and their general understanding of the environment shape their actions.

Typically, committees are focused on the need for approval and strive intensely to show rationalised decisions that avoid expediency. This tends to make committee styles rather like those of the responders and managers, focused on process and approval and tortuous in detail. For these reasons, it may be impossible to predict what decision may be reached when there is such a preoccupation with opinions. Their decisions will reflect some agreed upon rationale they feel they can state without losing face. Conservatism and the unwillingness to consider change and innovations are typical of committee decisions. As a result, change is not an issue and innovation is viewed as unnecessary or disruptive.

What does this mean in Japan? If, for example, a high school claims to teach in response to entrance exam requirements, it leaves the onus of change up to the universities to change entrance exams before the high school will consider innovations in language education.

If it is decided that schools should be fair in their grading practices, that may result in certain ratios of students who get specific grades regardless of the students' actual achievment.

Guidelines on Language Education in Japan: Policy Changes and Their Impact on Language Education

The new Ministry of Education (1991) guidelines for establishing universities issued on July 1, 1991 has made a tremendous impact on language education at the post secondary level in Japan. Based on these guidelines, over 80% of all schools including those planning curriculum changes (Monbusho, 1995) have either introduced what appear to be innovative communication-based programs, totally eliminated language classes or made them electives. Why were these diverse interpretations possible? In this portion of the article, we will examine the changes of the guidelines and their impact on language education.

Main Changes to the Guidelines

There are three main areas changed drastically. The first main change is the introduction of a "Self-Check and Evaluation" system (article 2 of the guidelines). Each school is expected to evaluate their academic and managerial performance by themselves. This meant that they needed to construct their own evaluation systems. Many schools quickly organized "self-evaluation committees," introduced a system to evaluate their courses and teachers by their students or faculty members, made a list of the research performance of each teacher, and started to publish a syllabus booklet. Some did this for the betterment of their school and some just to show the Ministry of Education that they are listening.

The second area of significant change is the simplification or abolition of requirements in many academic and organizational areas. The categorization among general education courses, major discipline courses, foreign language courses, health and physical education courses was abolished. The previous eight-unit requirement for foreign language courses also ceased to exist. The requirement of a certain ratio of full-time to part-time teaching staff members no longer exists. The number of credits required for graduation was reduced to 128. All of these changes are supposed to allow each school to make a flexible and effective curriculum unique to each school, which supports the needs of the society and a variety of students (Tanaka, 1994).

The third change is the introduction of new course registration systems geared to life-long education. Part-time students are officially recognized (article 31), and units taken at schools other than universities can be transferred now (article 29). These systems also made it possible for universities inside and outside Japan to exchange credits with each other.

Effects on Language Education

The guideline changes have inevitably brought about huge changes in language education. The biggest changes happened around the language curricula. Each school started to re-examine their entire curricula. As a result, those language courses which matched the purposes of each department increased in number, and those which did not were eliminated. Those departments which recognized the importance of language education and those which had language teachers who raised a strong voice increased the number of language courses and improved the language curriculum, and those which did not, reduced the number of the language courses or entirely eliminated them.

The self-assessment system forces the language teachers to write a syllabus for each language course and indicate how the foreign language proficiency of their students would actually improve by participating in their classes. But proving the effectiveness of their teaching is a very difficult task to achieve. Teachers know that a once weekly, 90-minute class with unmotivated students does not work well. As a result, some schools made language classes elective and that got rid of many less motivated students. Some introduced a variety of language classes which may attract less motivated students. ESP courses such as English for study abroad, science English, English for TOEIC, practical oral English, English for those who failed in the previous year, etc. were some examples. (JACET, 1992). Many schools also started to use common textbooks for all sections of the same course even if the sections were taught by different teachers. The expressed purpose of the courses hypothetically becomes clearer and the results of teaching easier to assess. However, this also means taking away more of the teachers' freedom to choose books for their specific students and to teach the way they want.

Some schools chose to adopt a semester system to comply with the increasing number of returnees from abroad. However, some schools simply re-named the first part of the academic year the spring semester and the later the fall semester. At those schools, although the students register for new classes in fall, the classes are

taught by the same teacher using the same textbook under a different course name.

This guideline change brought about some negative effects as well which were largely justified according to financial priorities. Many adjunct faculty have been dismissed but the overall adjunct faculty percentage is actually increasing as terminal full-time contracts are being used in higher proportion. Some administrators have taken this opportunity to reduce the number of the costly small size language classes. This can be done by accepting the units or scores from the University of the Air, or the TOEFL, TOEIC, or STEP tests. If students prove that they exceed a standard that each school sets, they are given credits simply by registering in language courses without attending. 115 private universities consider the STEP Test results to some degree in their admission considerations and 22 allow students to transfer credits taken through the University of the Air as of June 1994 (Monbusho, 1994). This trend is increasing at an accelerated rate.

As it happens, failure to claim the importance of language education at any school results in the loss of courses and teaching hours. Two cases illustrate the extent of the change. At the engineering department in school M in the Nagoya area, only two credits of English are required. Students can choose between language classes and physical education classes to meet additional language requirement. Administrators initiated the termination of a number of adjunct faculty; next year others may be asked to leave. School T in the Kanto area introduced an in-house English proficiency test to prove the efficiency of their language education. All students have to reach a certain score whether they pass English courses or not. As a result, students regard the English courses as being rather secondary to or preparatory for this test.

It is unclear if these guideline changes represent real innovation or if they are part of the process of industrial style downsizing and restructuring. It all depends on the power game language teachers are caught up in at each institution.

Recommendations

Clearly change in education is complex and the interpretations are varied. Inagaki makes the following recommendations from the perspective of professional development to promote the professionalisation of teaching in Japan:

1. Deregulation of bureaucratic rules and procedures in education, particularly pertaining to curriculum and materials.
2. Development of clinical research on teaching through the cooperation of teachers and researchers. The case methods of the juristic profession and clinical conference approach of the medical profession are suggested for use in the teaching profession.
3. Involvement of universities in in-service training. (1994, pp. 97-99)

The proposed changes, like many in the past, may not have the necessary political clout that is historically a part of the system in Japan. Held hostage by political agendas, it does not seem likely that sweeping changes to establish a flexible education system that can adapt to social, political, and economic changes will be instituted. The question remains then, will education continue as a 19th-century facade to address the needed international image for Japan as envisioned by past and current political parties, or will it be allowed to develop a professional tradition with the resources and status needed to function for the sake of coming generations.

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[1] In a recent discussion (December 16, 1995) at the SIETAR-Japan Conflict Resolution group year-end party in Shibuya, Japan, one of the participants, a member of her PTA, noted that an elementary school teacher had only just stopped hitting students for mistakes and misbehaviour. She reported that the idea of refraining from physical abuse is only now beginning to take hold in many school districts.

Training and Development: Possible Pathways Forward

Teacher Education N-SIG Sponsored Colloquium

Clive Lovelock
Tezukayama Gakuin University

Kevin Mark
Meiji University

Junko Okada
Asaka Senior High School

Jan Visscher
Language Resources

Andrew Barfield, Moderator
Tsukuba University

Overview

It is accelerating but is it exhilarating? Institutional curriculum reform in junior high schools, senior high schools, colleges and universities, along with increasing competition between language schools in the recession economy, put many pressures on teachers. They are often left alone to make sense of such changes in the classroom. This can be both an exciting and frustrating experience--exciting because change has the official stamp of approval; frustrating because these reforms more often than not happen from the top-down in the absence of properly facilitative frameworks. What is effective change? How can this be achieved--and sustained? Is the process the same for the novice teacher as it is for the experienced teacher? These are some of the questions running through the four papers of the first annual colloquium by the Teacher Education N-SIG.

Clive Lovelock: The Training-Development Interface

In this summary, I take up the main points from the discussion which transpired after the audience had read copies of my notes about training and development in relation to the Cambridge Univeristy/RSA Certificate in TEFL to Adults (RSA Cert TEFLA). First, contrary to apparently common perceptions, teacher training and teacher development are not incompatible, but can be mutually beneficial. Pre-service or rookie teachers both want and need a lot more guidance than experienced teachers. At the same time, everyone needs to develop the ability to adapt to different teaching situations and find their own style. Training, in other words, can empower teachers to develop themselves.

Second, the difference for me between training and development is that teacher training

involves top-down moulding of teachers in specific skills, techniques and attitudes prescribed by the trainer(s). Training can then quickly equip novices to look like teachers, but problems arise if inflexible training courses ignore individual needs. On the other hand, teacher development is based on bottom-up development occuring from within, not external "formation," and teachers discover individually what works best for them. It is intended to help teachers to manage their own strengths and weaknesses more effectively, and adapt to different or changing, teaching situations. Nevertheless, without help, development is slow ("reinventing the wheel"). In this connection, several books have recently been published on reflective development, and teacher education can be understood to incorporate both training *and* development. For example, training can involve a great deal of theory (as in the RSA Diploma course), or relatively little (as in the RSA Certificate course). In the area of self-development, while many teachers focus on their day-to-day practical problems, they may equally well decide to read up on a theoretical area that interests or seems to be important to them.

With regard to development in the RSA CertTEFLA course, the following assumptions pertain:

1. Different teaching situations require different approaches; different students have different needs, interests, learning styles; different teachers have different teaching styles.
2. The course is not tied to any particular method, but offers various alternatives.
3. The course is highly practical: 50% is directly concerned with teaching practice, and "input" is mostly through interactive workshops related to teaching practice.

As for the relationship between development and training, the course is based on the following suppositions:

1. It aims *not* for trainees to master one model; but to give them skills and awareness to continue developing after the course ends.
2. The syllabus aims to develop basic skills but trainees are free to choose materials or overall methodology.
3. Certain basic principles and attitudes are axiomatic:
   - priority to learning rather than teaching;
   - importance of setting, and teaching to, realistic objectives;
   - students should normally learn, or become aware of, something new--not just have fun;
   - trainees are trained to regard post-lesson analysis constructively.

As for trainee selection and assessment, the course is intended for people who meet the requirements to take a British undergraduate degree course (not necessarily native speakers), who have no prior training in TEFL and no, or limited, experience in the field. Applicants are accepted if they can demonstrate on a written task and in an interview a sufficient intelligence, a comand of English and the interpersonal skills necessary to enable them potentially to become a teacher of EFL. During the course, trainees are assessed mainly through observation of teaching practice (six to seven hours per traineee); plus the trainers look at the trainees' ability to reflect on, and analyse constructively, their own teaching and that of other trainees. There are also two practical written assignments that require trainees to discuss their own teaching experience. Apart from all that, a good deal of weight is given to development, through continuous assessment. There is no final examination, and final grades (A, B, Pass or Fail) are based on the degree of practical autonomy which a teacher is considered to have reached by the end of the course. In borderline cases, future development potential is important. Lastly, each course, the trainers, their performance on the course, their assessments of trainees, the facilities, etc., are evaluated by an external assessor appointed by the University of Cambridge.

Kevin Mark: Teacher Research and Learner Linguistic Needs

There are two aspects of teaching that people constantly refer to. To me they reflect what could be called the "heart" and "mind" of teaching. Underhill, in the quotation below, expresses them in the form of a distinction between teacher training and teacher development:

> The argument for training in this sense may go like this: I believe that my effectiveness as a teacher depends largely on my pedagogic skills, and my knowledge of the topic I am teaching, and on all the associated methodology. My teaching is only as good as the techniques or materials that I employ, and I improve by learning more about them. I acknowledge that the kind of person I am affects my teaching, but I don't really see

what I can do about this other than by further training and by gaining experience.

The part of me that argues for development may say things like: I believe that my effectiveness as a teacher depends largely on the way I am in the classroom, on my awareness of myself and my effect on others, and on my attitudes towards learners, learning and my own role. I value my facility with pedagogic skills, and my knowledge of the topic, but it is the "me" who operates them that primarily influences their effectiveness. I teach only as well as the atmosphere that I engender. I believe that education is change, otherwise my work will come to have a static quality about it that is not good for me or my students. (Underhill, 1990)

Why do teachers feel there are forces pulling them in different directions? Why does it appear so difficult for teachers in schools and colleges in Japan, whether they lean toward the mind or the heart, and regardless of their training, to feel they are efficient and effective in helping their students to improve their English ? One reason for both may be that teachers, materials writers and curriculum planners do not have easy access to appropriate data on the kinds of language that Japanese students produce in relation to particular situations, tasks, functions, notions or themes. Access to such data could generate ideas for materials and activities that simultaneously correlate well with students' experiences and needs, both as language learners, and as people. This would help teachers to be more efficient and to become more aware of possibilities for approaching their students as people.

How might a teacher begin to gather learner production data ? A sensible way is to start with the kind of language that students use in classroom activities or outside-class activities of all kinds that interest them, that engage them as people, and for which they sense there is meaningful purpose. The following exercise is a simple example that illustrates the principles involved. A student has completed my task of writing definitions of "a teacher," "a bad teacher," and "a good teacher." The words in italics represent my rewriting. The task requires close attention to vocabulary and grammar, can be used as a tool in training students to use a monolingual dictionary, and asks the student to reflect on their experiences of being a student. It is inherently communicative in that it asks for authenticity of feeling and thought, which motivates me as the teacher to learn from it:

A teacher is the man who leads student to better direction.
A teacher is a person who leads students in a better direction.

A bad teacher is only controlling students.
A bad teacher is someone who does nothing but control students.

A good teacher is someone who wins students's sympathy.
A good teacher is someone who is able to establish a friendly relationship with students based on trust and mutual respect.

If the data for a number of students is collected, a small but significant resource is produced. It contains linguistic and attitudinal data traces that can generate ideas for further materials and activities relevant in linguistic and whole-person terms; this can be combined with other such resources in working toward a much larger learner corpus. The data is of course further enriched by a comparison with native speaker production, if time and other constraints allow for the production of corresponding native speaker versions for each sentence.

Thus, to sustain corpus development over time, teachers need to cooperate, and to incorporate data gathering into the design of everyday teaching activities and materials. The approach I am advocating can thus be called "integrated" in more than one sense: it simulateneously approaches linguistic and "whole person" needs, and it combines teaching and research. It offers a rich possibility for going forward as a person, and as a teacher-researcher.

Junko Okada: Curriculum Renewal and Teacher Development

In 1994, a nationwide curriculum renewal was carried out in English education in Japanese high schools. However, not all classroom teachers are sympathetic to this change, and many are at a loss as to what to do in their classes. This is because teachers' viewpoints were not well reflected in the decision-making process for the renewal. This curriculum renewal, in other words, seems to have been carried out at an exhilarating pace that has outstripped most teachers. What then to do? What models should we look towards ?

White (1988) describes two models of curriculum renewal in relation to teacher development. The first model, *The Research,*

Development and Defusion Model, is basically a top-down renewal model. Here, some knowledgeable educational leaders do research into current learning theories and teaching methodologies. Based on the results of their research, they develop teaching materials; these are then mass-produced and distributed. Classroom teachers are supposed to adopt and use the materials. In this top-down model, teachers are not involved in the renewal process, and this leads to little, if any, teacher development. On the other hand, in the second model, *The Problem-Solving Model*, teachers begin to change the curriculum themselves. This is bottom-up curriculum change. In this model, when teachers have problems in their classrooms, they meet and discuss them. After they have decided which problems to work on, they start action research. This may involve getting information on learners' needs and proficiency, and/or looking at different teacher needs, learning theories, and teaching methodologies. The teachers themselves then develop suitable materials for their students, experiment in the classroom, and evaluate their work. What is significant in this process is that the curriculum emerges through teacher development. This might be considered an ideal direction for curriculum renewal in Japan.

There are however some difficulties that need to be dealt with before the latter kind of curriculum renewal can be carried out. First of all, teachers do not always have time to meet, discuss and study their curriculum and classroom teaching. In high schools in Japan, teaching classes is not often considered the primary job of teachers. Rather, school administrative work (school budget, preparing for school festivals, paper work, etc.); homeroom class management (dealing with students' behaviorial problems, attendance, grades, individual career guidance, meeting parents, etc.); and club activities are considered much more important. Some research that I did with 20 high school teachers around the Tokyo area confirmed this. In response to the question *"What kind of jobs do you spend the most amount of your work time on?,"* first came homeroom class management, then club activities, then classroom teaching, and, finally, school administration. Note that classroom teaching comes third. Note also that teachers feel a lot more pressure from work other than just teaching. If a teacher does not prepare classes, no other teachers will criticize him or her for it. However, if they do not complete administration tasks and homeroom responsibilities, they will be on the receiving end from other teachers. It is therefore natural that teachers care more about work other than teaching.

Another difficulty is that the low quality of existing teacher education programs makes teachers feel that such in-service education carries no value. This in turn does nothing to change their lack of interest in methodology. As part of the questionnaire mentioned above, the following question was also asked: *"What do you think of teacher education programs held by the Prefectural Board of Education?"* Answers to this question most often mentioned: not practical (little presentation/discussion of hands-on types of activities); not relevant to student needs; too many lectures and too few workshops; insufficient time; unsystematic. From this, we can say that teachers feel that many teacher education programs do not really help their classroom teaching. Regrettably, it is very difficult to change this attitude once disillusionment has set in.

Thus, if Monbusho really would like to see changes in English education in Japan, the first step may well be to facilitate teacher development alongside curriculum change. For this, there is a need to establish a practical support system that can help teachers afford the time and the money to take part in development-oriented teacher education programs. The lesson is: if teachers can develop, then curriculum renewal will follow through.

Jan Visscher: Teacher training: Initiation to Development (or the Agony and the Ecstasy)

Training and development are not painless processes. This is shown by comments and reflections culled from journals and course evalutions by teacher trainees[1], where a clear pattern of progression seems to hold true for most of the course participants. Indeed, much of the literature related to the affective side of teacher training confirms a pattern of initial confusion and uncertainty leading on to a fear of failure, frustration and anguish; in most cases, eventually and fortunately, this also leads to satisfaction and even pride in what has been achieved, especially in the area of personal development.

The parallels with initiation as a social ritual are too obvious to be ignored. In its most basic form, the purpose of initiation is to prepare young people for their membership in adult society with all its accompanying rights and responsibilities. Strikingly often, one stage of the ritual involves a passage through a dark area or tunnel, and sometimes includes a lengthy stay in a frightening or mind-altering environment. But once the rite of passage has been completed, it

can be seen in retrospect as a "right of passage"--that is, as an ordeal that may not be denied to anyone who wishes to develop into an adult.

The questions that gave rise to this presentation were: *"Do most trainees really have to go through the 'agony stage' ? Is it possible to avoid this ordeal for the majority or perhaps all trainees?"* The obvious place to start looking for answers is with those few trainees who seem to be able to complete the course without any noticeable feeling of anxiety. Finding out how they cope could well lead to an "agony prevention programme" for the development of coping strategies. However, until the NLP (Neuro-Linguistic Processing) people come up with some much-needed empirical findings, we have to look elsewhere for an intermediate step in the right direction.

In several teacher training programs that I have participated in, either at the receiving end, or at the other end, the approach to the ordeal as initiation to development is one of circumvention more than prevention. This approach has as its principal aim increasing the supply of nuts and bolts, i.e. providing the trainees with "surefire" techniques that translate into certainties without them having to go through the insecurity-laden process of reflection and self-examination. The trouble with the great supply of nuts and bolts, however, is that they are useful for assembling a structure, but if the foundation of that structure is not solid, it topples easily when it is attacked by the winds of change or the tremblors of teaching situations where the techniques do not apply. A solid foundation for teachers consists of a coherent and internally consistent credo based on experience and reflection.

It is my contention that "going back to the basics" as a circumventive device, without the creation of a basis to build on, is doomed to failure, because it is doing the same thing, albeit in different guises, over and over while expecting different results (the latter activity represents, incidentally, one definition of insanity).

The possible pathway forward I would like to propose - as mentioned earlier, until something better comes along, possibly from NLP--is to accept the anxiety, confusion and resentment--in other words, the crisis stage, in a training course - as an inevitable prelude to, and part of, development. That crisis represents a change in the perception of oneself as a teacher, which, for most of us, is quite the same as change in the perception of self. This holds true even for trainees who have never taught because of the thousands of hours they have spent in the classroom as students, during which models of what teachers should look like and what they are supposed to do have been deeply imprinted (Freeman, 1994). The corollary of acceptance of the crisis stage is for trainers to ask themselves how they can help trainees go through it successfully and turn the negative emotions and perceptions into positive outcomes.

The term "crisis" in the educational process brings to mind the counselling approach to learning (Counseling Learning or CL) originated and developed by Charles Curran (1972), and applied to language learning in the form of Community Language Learning, or CLL (Curran, 1976). Here, critical stages in the development of the learner (*trainee*) and her or his relation with the counselor (*trainer*) are accepted at face value, analyzed and worked through. (The terms in parentheses are my additions). Counseling plays a central role in the group process: it is not peripheral and individual as is often the case in many teacher training courses. (The latter is in its setting much closer to therapy, for which most teachers are not qualified--sometimes with literally fatal results). The procedure of CLL involves the processing of the learner's language of affect by the counselor for feedback to the learner in a cognitive form--what I understand is very close to asking someone to take the "third position" in NLP.

That these two disciplines, CL and NLP, should touch at this point is not so surprising if we remember that the subject is change for development. With CL, however, I hold that such changes must, of necessity, be painful, and that smoothing them over is likely to make the change less profound. I also believe in the power of metaphors to inform: it is no accident that "growing pains" and "birth pangs" are common collocations with both literal and figurative meanings. The trainer has the responsibility to provide the tools for turning these pain and pangs into positive results. These tools can range from a step-by-step lesson plan to be executed and then reflected upon by the trainees, with the aid of counseling by the trainer, to creating, again through counseling, a suitable framework for the venting of frustration and anger.

The design and employment of such tools has only one objective: to make the teacher training course primarily into an instrument for personal growth through change, because no matter how hard we try to change our students and our teaching environment, the only way we can change them is by starting with changing ourselves.

Notes

1. These trainees took part in the Cambridge/RSA Certificate in TEFLA (Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Adults) teacher training programmes, which have been conducted at Language Resources in Kobe since 1989.

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Signature: Gene van Troyer Position: JALT President, proceedings editor
Gene van Troyer

Printed Name: Gene van Troyer

Organization: Japan Association for Language Teaching

Address: JALT Central Office
Urban Edge Bldg. 5th FL
1-37-9 Taito, Taito-ku
Tokyo 110, JAPAN

Telephone No: 03-3837-1630; (fax) -1631

Date: October 20, 1996

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