【論文】

Unpacking the 'English in Principle' Policy: A Pedagogical Framing of the Concept of Classroom English (CRE) in Japan.

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[Abstract]

　This report addresses the recently revised curriculum policy listed in the senior high school English New Course of Study (*shin gakushuu shidou youryou: gaikokugo, eigo*) for 2013 requiring Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) to basically use "English in principle" (EIP) in their classroom instruction. The concept of classroom English (CRE) as it is presently understood by JTEs implies a list of scripted, monitored uses of English. The aim of this report is to expand uses of CRE taking it from a secondary role in instruction to a primary one so that it permeates instruction; therefore taking an initial step to meet the EIP policy by demonstrating its (CRE) relevance to pedagogical areas of classroom instruction. Contextual factors that impede the implementation of curriculum policy and teacher development implications will also be addressed.

[Keywords]：English in Principle Policy, Classroom English, BICS/CALP

1. Introduction

　In recent months, a new policy has been implemented into the English Course of Study (COS) national curriculum in Japanese high schools. The new policy states that in order to improve students' abilities to effectively use English for communication, "classes are to be conducted in English, in principle" (AJET, 2011, p.1). The policy has implications for classroom instruction, as the Ministry of Education in Japan (MEXT) explains,

> The objective of this is not only to increase opportunities for students to come into contact with English and communicate in it, but also to enhance instruction which allows students to become accustomed to expressing themselves and understanding English in English (AJET, 2011, p.1).

One could posit that the new push to use more English in the English language classroom has a direct link to the overall objective in the English COS, which is translated as follows (see Underwood, 2012, p.117),

> To develop students' communication abilities such as accurately understanding and appropriately conveying information, ideas, etc., deepening their understanding of language and culture, and fostering a positive attitude toward communication through foreign languages.

However, for more than 30 years, the COS guidelines have included an overall communicative objective in its guidelines, and reaching that goal has been fraught with problems. In a survey conducted with approximately 10,000 Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs), the teachers reported that less than half of their students' responses were in English in oral communication courses (Taira, 2010). It can be argued that the necessity to include the "English in principle (EIP) " dictate in the COS is a direct response by MEXT of attempting to address the failure of schools to reach the communicative objectives so far. Problems with enacting the overall objective, as perceived by JTEs, are that the teachers feel there are various obstructing contextual factors that surround the implementation of the overall objective, such as preparing students for tests and entrance exams, and student guidance activities (*seito-shido*), such as counseling students and extracurricular activities' responsibilities that all contribute to a lack of time because of a long school day and inadequate teacher development (Laskowski, 2007; Okano & Tsuchino, 1999; Takaki & Laskowski, 2002; Underwood, 2012). Considering the constraining contextual factors stated above, and a traditional teaching approach that emphasizes written modes of instruction through grammar translation, it becomes a daunting challenge for JTEs to now start using EIP.

In order to unpack what it means for JTEs to implement the EIP policy, I first discuss problems that often occur when policies intended for teacher change are made at the top and then handed down to teachers. Then, the EIP policy will be examined. In terms of teacher development, this policy is stated broadly and therefore presents challenges to teacher developers on how they can effectively help JTEs increase their use of English during instruction. In order to better understand what it means to have all English instruction, the study will look at contextual factors that are embedded in teaching English in high school in Japan, particularly the heavy use of Japanese because of a traditional, grammar translation approach in instruction. Next, the concept of 'classroom English' (CRE) is examined, and examples are given from a preconceived reference list of phrases that the JTEs use to bring English into their instruction. Because of a grammar translation, traditional approach used by JTEs, CRE plays a secondary role in instruction. The concept will be enriched in this study by framing it within areas of pedagogy that are relative to appropriating the EIP policy, and thus giving it a primary role in the English classroom. Finally, a revitalized approach to Lesson Study (*Jugyokenkyu*), the Japanese system of teacher development, will be discussed to show how teachers can use it to help them initiate the new policy in their schools.

2. A gap between curriculum policy and classroom realities

Seeking teacher change through formal policies designed by educational authorities is easier said than done. Considering the EIP policy, in this section, implications of policies made at highest bureaucratic level, such as MEXT and their influences on teachers at the classroom level are presented. Fullan (1991) suggests that generally in educational systems, the more things change the more they remain the same in many curriculum policies. He cites several reasons to support his maxim. He argues that polices made at the top are written by high level bureaucrats or university consultants and often are limited in implementation because they are either unaware or do not consider the realities teachers face in their classrooms. Fullan lists some reasons why outside

'experts' who write curriculum policy often fail, "because of faulty and overly abstract theories not related or relatable to practice, [and having] limited or no contact with an understanding of the school..." (p. 22). The result is that when teachers believe the curriculum policy does not match their realities, they ignore them (Cohen & Spillane, 1992). Lipsky (1980) coined the phrase 'street-level bureaucracy' to suggest that the success or failure of changes intended by policies made by those at the top hierarchical level will eventually depend on the willingness of those who are being asked to implement them. Teachers are the street level bureaucrats in the classroom. Cuban (2011) writes,

> ...[T]hese professionals [e.g. teachers, police and social workers] work within large rule-driven organizations but interact with the public daily as they make on-the-spot decisions. Each of these professionals are obligated to follow organizational rules yet have discretion to make decisions. In effect, they reconcile the dilemma of obligation and autonomy by interpreting, amending, or ignoring decisions handed down by superiors (p.1).

In the above discussion on the implementation of curriculum policy, a dichotomy emerges. Formal, official polices are successfully implemented if they cohere with the teachers' realities, which can be labeled informal influences. For example, in Japan, the effectiveness of formal policies listed in the COS must be seen in light of how they interrelate with the teachers' realities as perceived by their beliefs, knowledge and experiences that emerge informally from their personal teaching practices (Laskowski, 2007; Woods, 1996). Cohen and Spillane (1992), who originally used the terms *formal* and *informal instructional guidance*' as categories in their research, explain how informal influences on instruction go beyond formal structure (p. 31),

> Guidance for instruction never stands alone. School systems consist not only in rules and formal structures, but also in beliefs about authority, habits of deference and resistance, and knowledge about how things work. Culture and social organization intertwine with formal structure in these systems.

What teachers do in the classroom are embedded in surrounding contexts that influence their actions. Research has shown that teachers' personal conceptions of their teaching are salient in determining what gets incorporated into their practices at the local school level. For example, Shimahara and Sakai (1992, p. 148) write, "[A] reform program that does not take into account teachers perspectives is bound either to undergo significant alterations or fail entirely." Therefore, the degree to which the JTEs carry out curriculum dictates (externally driven) will depend on how much they perceive formal demands as realistic or appropriate for their daily teaching practice at the local school and classroom level (e.g., Feiman-Nemser & Floden, 1986; Hargreaves, 1980). Furthermore, the perceptions of the teachers as indicated earlier are influenced by what Cohen and Spillane (1992) refer to above as the "...beliefs...habits...and knowledge about how things work." These underlying influences reflect the internal processes that underpin the hidden curriculum which depict what teachers actually do in their classrooms. The 'hidden' influences do not originate externally and formally from government policy, but are generated internally and informally from teachers' own personal conceptualizations (or theories) of teaching based on their experiences, beliefs and knowledge. Burns (1996) writes,

> Personalized theories of teaching, then, should be considered not as adjuncts or ancillaries to classroom behaviour but as the motivating conceptual frameworks shaping what teachers do when they teach (p. 1).

Fullan (1991) further illuminates on the dichotomy of external to internal influences in his descriptions of 'objective' and 'subjective' realities of teaching, which provide rich insights into formal and informal influences. *Objective realities* represent the formal meaning the teachers give to educational policies that are produced at the institutional level and "exist outside any given individual" (p. 37). Thus, objective realities of teaching represent formal attempts by the teachers to make sense of government initiated policies (as indicated by formal influences in this study). *Subjective realities* of teaching represent the personal concerns of teaching at the local classroom level. According to Fullan, teachers' subjective realities are more focused on how educational policies (that form the objective realities of teaching) "will affect them personally in terms of their in-class and extra-classroom work" (p. 35). Fullan argues that the success of an educational policy depends on "...whether it orders and makes sense of the confusion and complexity of educators' subjective realities"(p.30).

In regard to teacher development, being aware of formal and informal influences on what gets done in the classroom can be useful in helping teachers address the new EIP policy. In the next section, in order to address the possible confusion and complexities of the new EIP policy, a look at the realities, both subjective and objective, of implementing the new policy are presented.

3. English Teaching in the Japanese high school classroom

To better understand the realities JTEs face in meeting the demands of EIP, it is necessary to look at the surrounding contextual influences in which they work. In doing so, an ecological perspective, which affords the opportunities to consider the larger contexts that influence teaching practices, is given. An essential component of this approach is ecology, which van Lier defines as "the study of the complex interrelationships among organisms in and with their environment" (1997, p. 784). One particular contextual factor that needs to be examined is the interrelationship between examinations and the use of Japanese that has contributed to a traditional teaching approach to English.

In the COS English guidelines, preparing students for examinations is not mentioned. Moreover, the *use of Japanese* is not stated, and nor is translating English into Japanese. According to Hino (1988),

> It is important to note that the Course of Study [COS] for English prescribed by the Ministry of Education which defines and controls the contents of English teaching in junior and senior high schools, makes no mention of the skill of translating English into Japanese (pp. 47-48).

However, in the English classroom there has been a discernable *use of Japanese* in interactions with students and in translation activities. The fact that the *use of Japanese* is not mentioned in the official COS, but is used in the JTEs' daily practices is an indication that native language use is a salient feature of their pedagogy. One of the reasons for its use is the JTEs adherence to the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) that largely exists in the instruction of the JTEs, and has played a traditional role in shaping their teaching practices. Stern explained the principle features of the GTM and why it is also called a Traditional Method, "As its name suggests this method emphasizes the teaching of the second language grammar; its principle practice technique is translation from and into the target language (1991, p. 453). He adds that, "There is evidence that the teaching of grammar and translation has occurred in language instruction through the ages" (p.453).

Evidence in the literature also indicates that the *use of Japanese* and elements of the GTM have survived the introduction of other teaching methods and have continued to underlie a traditional approach to teaching English in Japan. The JTEs implementation of GTM is referred to as *yakudoku*, a process of reading in a foreign language where target sentences are translated (Underwood, 2012). Chronologically, a traditional reliance on the use of Japanese supported by a *yakudoku*, GTM approach in the following comments by researchers on teaching English in Japan is presented. For example, Hino (1988, p. 45) wrote over 25 years ago that "the mainstream teaching of Japan is *yakudoku*, where "[t]he teacher's job in class is to explain the word- by-word translation technique, to provide a model translation and to correct the students translation. Law (1995) discussed the role of translation in Japan and claimed, "The focus of attention is only initially on the codes of the foreign language; most of the productive energy of the method is directed toward the recoded Japanese version" (p. 216). Scholefield (1997) writes that methods like the audiolingual approach, and oral approach were not successful in Japan because reformers were not willing to take into account how their approach would benefit students, "...with regard to examinations which remained focused on grammatical analysis and written translation" (p. 19). Scholefield continues, "The audioligual approach did introduce a degree of oral practice to English language education in Japan, but the basic teaching paradigm even throughout the 1970s, 1980s, 1990s has remained *yakudoku* (grammar-translation) mode". The *Yakudoku* method is still present in the Japanese English classroom as Underwood (2012, p.123) writes,

> In spite of the communicative emphasis of the MEXT's Course of Study, the predominate method of instruction in Japanese senior high English classes to date school is widely acknowledged to be *yakudoku*....

One of the reasons given for the reliance on *yakudoku* is preparation for reading items on entrance exams (Gorsuch, 2000; Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004). However, studies have indicated that test items on university entrance exams have shifted from emphasizing receptive skills that require direct translations to productive skills, such as synthesizing information from passages and making inferences, which would make *yakudoku* insufficient for the level of language skills now needed for reading items on examinations (Guest, 2008, Underwood, 2010, Seki et al., 2011).

Nonetheless, as in the above, and much to the chagrin of MEXT in trying to introduce a communicative emphasis with EIP into the JTEs' instruction, there is still a heavy reliance on use of Japanese and GTM. Even though formal instructional guidelines as presented in the COS do not mention examination preparations, and use of Japanese or a GTM, these informal influences that make up the personal or informal teaching practices of JTEs are what motivates them to do what they do in their classrooms. Therefore, it becomes a daunting task for JTEs to adapt to the EIP policy if their instruction is embedded in a tradition of teaching that has formed the basis of a hidden curriculum that lends itself to the high use of Japanese. Seen in this light, one can understand the "complexities and confusion" the EIP policy is causing. Moreover, it is not too much to imagine what kinds of conversations are taking place privately between high school JTEs who as 'street level bureaucrats' are at this very moment determining to what degree they can implement the policy. As a step in teacher development to facilitate implementing the policy, we will first unpack what EIP in the classroom means from a pedagogical standpoint.

4. Unpacking EIP: Use of English in the Classroom

The emergence of the EIP policy in the 2013 COS guidelines coupled with a traditional teaching approach to English that largely exists in Japan make it plausible to assume that much more Japanese has been used in the English classroom than the target language. Therefore, the new EIP policy requires the teachers to take a new direction in their teaching. What does it mean to teachers to now basically teach in English? Is it reasonable to expect teachers to change their teaching approach to suddenly accelerate the use of English in their classes? How and in what ways should the teachers increase their use and students use of English? How and in what ways can teacher developers help teachers meet the challenges of implementing the new EIP policy? To approach the perplexities teachers and teacher educators may face over the new policy, a preliminary step is taken by first deconstructing the meaning of EIP in the classroom. Below, I will examine a concept that is understood by JTEs as classroom English (CRE), which usually reflects a limited, scripted use of English phrases for managing certain tasks in the classroom. CRE is thus regulated to a secondary role in instruction. In this study, CRE is expanded and explored from a pedagogical viewpoint to illuminate on its relationship with the use of EIP as primary objective. In doing so, the EIP policy is discussed by framing it within several areas of English instruction as Figure 1 below illustrates.
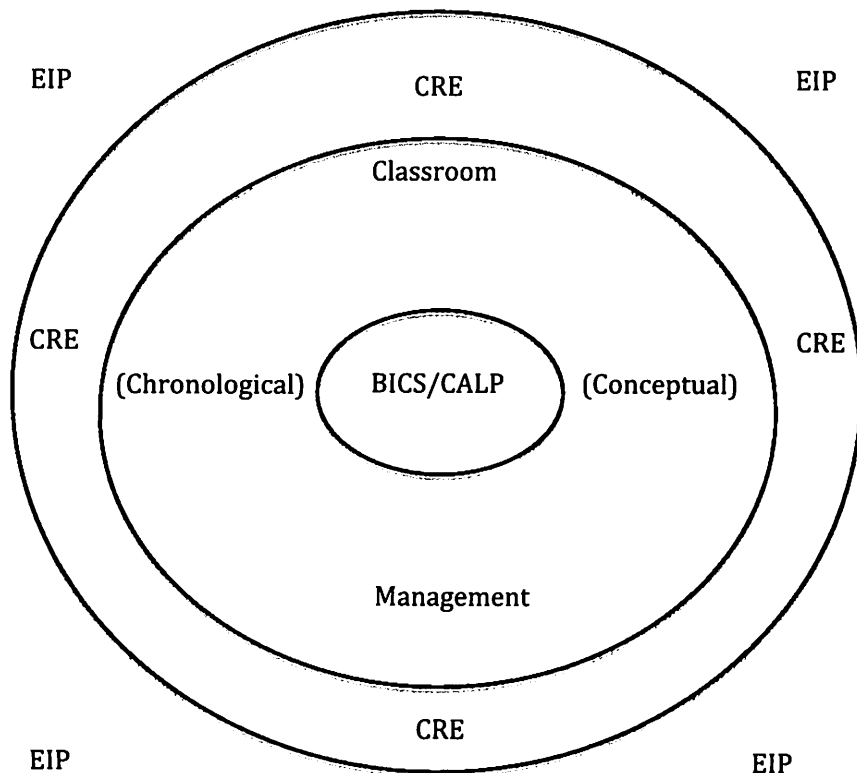

Figure 1. Pedagogical Framing of CRE into areas of instruction

Classroom English (CRE)

Within the JTEs' teaching culture, the phrase classroom English (CRE) is understood. However, when I first heard the phrase, I wondered what it could mean. After all, isn't all English used in the classroom CRE? However, for the JTE as a non-native teacher, CRE refers to a taxonomy of English phrases to help them become aware of using English for functional reasons in the classroom. One can easily find a list of CRE resources listing phrases on The Internet, and many are based in Japan. One Japanese site provides a 20-page reference of CRE scripted phrases (from Aichi, Education Center Handbook, 2004). Below is a list of CRE phrases taken from the list that are largely categorized for managing classroom tasks,

Taking attendance	*Is anyone absent today? What happened to Jiro?*
Giving directions	*Make a group of six; take one and pass it on.*
Giving feedback	*You did a very good job; I'm impressed; don't be afraid of making mistakes.*
Discipline	*Shh, quiet everyone; Why are you playing around?*

Some of the CRE examples that are listed under categories to increase interaction are as follows,

Greetings and Responses	*Hi Everyone, How's it going? I feel great; I have a headache.*
Questioning/Clarification for understanding	*Do you think that...? Can I ask you about...? What do you mean by...? How do you spell...?*
Debate (agreeing/disagreeing)	*I agree with you; I see your point, but...*
Discourse markers	*However; To sum up; In addition; First..., Second...*

The concept of CRE is understood to be scripted phrases the teacher can use to help JTEs monitor, or facilitate their uses of English. The study expands on the concept by breaking it down into pedagogical areas as shown below (see Figure 1.). CRE will be used as an umbrella term that encompasses the various uses of EIP in the classroom.

Classroom Management

To further unpack EIP and CRE, the next focused layer represents uses of English for managing the classroom. *Teacher knowledge*, defined by Shulman (1986) as *subject matter knowledge* (e.g. knowledge about English language), and *pedagogical, content knowledge* (e.g. how to teach it), is required for daily classroom management. Depending on the classroom activity, whether the teacher is a facilitator in a student-centered activity or an authority in a teacher centered lesson, the teacher nonetheless is the one who has the responsibility to structure the course concerning the subject matter content and ways to teach it (pedagogical, content knowledge). Woods (1996) found that there are two course structures inherent in the way teachers manage their class, referred to as Chronological and Conceptual structures that are involved when a teaching a lesson. Woods writes "these two meanings are evident, for example, in textbooks where a lesson (a

conceptual unit) may take longer than a single lesson (calendar) to cover" (p.87). Woods adds, "The term 'course' can also refer to either the chronological course occurring in the calendar time, or the overall conceptual whole [subject matter content] to be covered" (p.87).

Chronological course structure, therefore, refers to teachers' concerns with calendar and the clock. Classes take part on certain days and times, and within lesson, activities need to start and finish within the boundaries of time limitations. In relation to the EIP policy for the JTEs, chronological structures require pedagogic knowledge to manage classroom lessons through the use of corresponding English phrases. For example, the teacher needs to estimate time needed for an activity, assess the time progression of an activity (e.g. Is it getting too long or ending too quickly?), and in the realm of the EIP policy, the teacher needs to be able to use appropriate English phrases to chronologically manage the activity with students (see below).

Conceptual structures refer to the pedagogical skills JTEs need in the actual instruction of teaching subject matter in regard to course content, the learning goals and the methods of instruction. For example, if the teacher wants students to read and discuss an article (subject matter) in collaboration with the idea of developing interactive skills (learning goal), she would design a group activity built on a jigsaw activity technique found in cooperative learning (method of instruction). The teacher could further increase interaction by questioning the students. (The types of questions selected require pedagogical knowledge as explained below.) In the conceptual process of instruction, the teacher structures the activity by helping students with understanding the text (discourse structures) and then having them learn through group work (activity structures). Woods (1996) draws a further distinction between the dual structures: "chronological goals involve getting the job done, but say nothing about *how* the job will be done [i.e. conceptual structuring]" (p.91). Below are some examples of CRE for the dual course structures:

Chronologically structured EIP:

Completing the activity	*Let's get back on track; We're running short of time; Hurry up; We have 20 minutes; 5 more minutes to go; You have time so slow down.*
Transitioning to the next activity	*Let's take a break; Let's take a moment to relax.*
Starting the next activity	*Let's move on; But now to our next topic; Now, we'll correct the homework.*
Calendar	*On Friday we will do the presentations; Next week we have the exam.*

Conceptually structured EIP:

Grammatical explanations	*We use the past perfect to describe an action in the past that is still occurring in the present.*
Writing strategies	*An introductory paragraph has an opening statement, general comments, and the thesis, the main controlling idea of your essay.*
Conversation strategies for cooperative learning in pairs/groups (clarification)	*Could you repeat that? Please slow down; What does ___ mean? I don't understand;* How do you spell it? Where did you find the answer?
Conversation strategies for cooperative learning in pairs/groups (encouragement)	*Good job; You found it quickly; Thanks for your help; We can do it; We're almost finished; We did it! We're a good team.*

In the above chart, grammatical explanations and writing strategies could be conceptualized in English by the JTE using pedagogically representative CRE phrases. To increase cooperative learning with pairs or groups, the above CRE phrases could be introduced to the students to increase interaction among students.

In addition, JTEs should be aware that types of questions play a role in the level of conceptualizing content. Tharp and Gallimore (1991) point out that there are two main questioning approaches when teachers interact with their students in regard to subject matter content. Most commonly used are *assessment type questions* that require lower order thinking skills. These questions are comprehension type questions to locate answers in the text,

Assessment questions	*Why were Hawaiians afraid they would lose their language? When was Hawaiian written language introduced in schools?*

Assessment questions are effective to know if the students understand the material given to them, however, they do not require expanded learning. On the other hand, *assisted type questions* require higher order thinking skills because they challenge or lead learners to go beyond the text in regard to what they have just learned:

Assisted questions	*Can you see examples of how your own cultural identities could be threatened? If you were in a similar situation as the Hawaiians, what arguments would you have given to maintain your language?*

Although it is more challenging for JTEs to use assisted questions for their learners, as professionals they should nonetheless try to include assisted questioning in their pedagogical repertoire in English. The challenge should also be taken on by teacher developers to help JTEs with the conceptual structuring of their lesson in EIP.

Woods' research, representing the dual structures, focused on verbalizations of teachers regarding how they structure their lessons and courses. Nonetheless, the concepts are useful by framing them within areas of pedagogy for the classroom management of the English language classroom. The pedagogical framing of the two structures also serves as a heuristic for the teacher developer as a means to suggest the use of EIP in these areas during instruction.

BICS/CALP

At the core of CRE framework are two areas that define target language proficiency skills that students need. These two areas have a direct relationship with course content, goals, and methods of instruction, and, of course, English language use. Over 30 years ago Cummins (1980) looked at a language immersion program in Canada where L2 learner children, who were thought to have an adequate proficiency in L2, did poorly in the classroom. The conclusion was that language proficiency skills used conversationally in daily life or Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) do not equate academic proficiency skills or Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) needed for learning school subjects. Clarifying aspects of the distinction, he later wrote (1999), " [T]here are clear differences in acquisition and developmental patterns between conversational language and academic language, or BICS or CALP" (pp. 2~3). Cummins noted that proficiency in BICS should precede the more cognitively demanding CALP. Cummins also determined that it

would take about 2~3 years to develop proficiency in BICS and at least 5 or more years to develop CALP. Cummins noted that the former would take a shorter time because conversation skills (listening and speaking) are less cognitively demanding because the learner is assisted by a large amount of contextual factors that occur in daily life social situations. In the latter case, academic proficiency is more cognitive demanding with less contextual aides other than teachers' input to present or elicit contextual knowledge regarding subject materials.

Although the BICS/CALP distinction was made for learners in a second language learning environment, where the target language is spoken outside of the classroom, it has some relevance to foreign language teaching English in Japan (Fukushima, 2009). English has been introduced in elementary schools since April 2012, and the emphasis has been on developing students BICS. Underwood (2012) adds that the new curriculum implicitly articulates Cummins developmental language proficiency views of BICS (conversational proficiency) and CALPS (academic proficiency) in that the development of the former should precede the latter. The English curriculum proceeds with the ideal plan that students will have developed adequate BICS through elementary school, and then in junior high, where language activities gradually shift to the development of CALP in preparation for high school (Takada, 2003). However, Fukushima (2009) points out that in a foreign language-learning environment, both areas need to be developed and continued right on through high school. This is especially so for developing BICS because there is less exposure to the target language outside the classroom in social conversational situations. She further adds that BICS is not adequately developed in Japanese schooling. She posits that in middle school the focus begins to shift, not gradually, but largely and intensely towards developing CALP as evidenced by the reading materials. Consequently, Fukushima observes that in high school CALP proficiency is much more intensified at the cost of weakening BICS. She writes, "I may not be the only teacher who feels that many university freshman have not developed BICS in English as yet" (p.9). She goes on to say that secondary school teachers need to increase their focus on developing BICS more and reconsider their belief that spending a lot of time on time on written modes of learning that require cognitively demanding skills do not always lead to language proficiency in literary skills.

The discussion of BICS/CALP above is relevant to the EIP policy for high school teachers. Fukushima's observations and the fact that a EIP policy needed to be stated in the COS, are strong indicators that JTEs need to further develop their students BICS. Therefore, JTEs need to make adjustments in their instruction. They need to move from a reliance on a traditional, grammar translation, exam preparation approach that focuses on written modes of translated instruction (CALP) and heavy use of Japanese to an interactive EIP approach that engages students in CRE that involves social interactive activities (BICS) among the learners to develop their verbal skills. JTEs also need to engage with their learners in the target language as well. Enacting these changes means that teachers have to be actively and willingly involved in their teacher development.

5. Implications for teacher development

The implementation of the EIP policy requires much more teacher education. Teachers need development in activities that are designed to increase student output in English. In turn, the JTEs need development in ways to increase their input of English to the students. The discussion of CRE in this report provides an initial step

for the JTEs to conceptualize the implementation of the EIP policy in their instruction. However, the JTEs can and will only implement the EIP policy in ways that are appropriate to their particular classroom needs. The issue of particularity can be addressed if JTEs willfully take the next step to research their own classrooms to develop ways to increase English use in the classroom. Fortunately, for JTEs, they have access to their own locally grown *action research teacher development model* (a structural framework allowing teachers to explore their own classrooms through following phases of a research cycle-e.g. see Burns, 1999; Nunan, 1992). The teacher development model that JTEs have access to is known as *Jugyokenkyu* or Lesson Study (Laskowski, 2009; Lewis & Hurd, 2011) which is beginning to spread in the world as a respected teacher centered professional development model that empowers teachers to do research at their local school and in their particular classrooms (Laskowski, 2011).

In every school, Lesson Study is part of the Japanese teacher development culture. Teachers gather together and go through a cycle of setting a goal, planning a lesson, teaching the lesson and finally reflecting on the lesson (Lewis, 2002). In response to the EIP policy, JTEs are doing this right now in Japan. However, this report would like to stress the importance of having high school JTEs go through the cycle with their colleagues as a collaborative process, especially at the planning the lesson stage. Unfortunately, anecdotal evidence, which needs to be confirmed in future studies, indicates that Lesson Study is often not done collaboratively in the planning stages (perhaps because of the constraints mentioned previously that JTEs are busy with a heavy workload). In such cases, a JTE is selected and plans the class by herself and then teachers if available come in to observe. However, if JTEs go through the cycle in collaboration with other teachers benefiting in sharing ideas and experiences from the beginning stages of planning a lesson together, then they can learn from each other as they build, teach, and discuss the outcomes of the lesson. One way to alleviate the burden of JTEs finding time to be collaboratively involved in Lesson Study (in addition to reducing their heavy workload) is to benefit from having a consultant or outside expert, often from a local university, join in on the cycle to act as a facilitator. Doing Lesson Study in a collaborative manner, and keeping in mind the CRE pedagogical areas of instruction as presented in this report, will help teachers frame their lesson planning in ways that successfully help them implement the new EIP policy.

6. Conclusion

The EIP policy as simply addressed in the COS means that the JTEs should holistically use English in their instruction. Because of a traditional approach based on GTM and *Yakudoku*, English or CRE plays a secondary role to the use of Japanese in instruction. Additionally, CRE can also represent a list of scripted phrases as an instructional aid. The CRE model presented in this report enriches the concept by categorizing it into several fundamental areas of pedagogy in the classroom. Through delimiting CRE into pedagogical categories, JTEs can begin to attach relevance to using more EIP in regard to their instruction. The CRE phrases in connection to the pedagogical areas are mere examples, reminders of appropriate English to use. Categorizing a list of phrases for each area as a resource in teacher development would be an exhaustive task, perhaps one that a corpus linguist would like to attempt. However, to the teacher developer, the CRE model can be useful to show

JTEs the pedagogical areas of instruction for using English as a way to unpack what the phrase EIP means in their teaching. It is also important to note that the above only provides examples of what English phrases to use and when to use them in relation to particular pedagogical areas of instruction. The suggestions do not address the equally important factor of how to use them in instruction; here Lesson Study (*Jugyokenkyu*) plays a role in helping JTEs implement the new EIP policy. The value of Lesson Study to implement change is that it is centered on the teachers. If teachers take ownership of their development as in the case or Lesson Study, then they can realistically confront the particular realities they face without constraints put on them from policy makers who are often disconnected from the JTEs' practices. If Lesson Study is done collaboratively, and if it is framed on using English in instruction that is representative in the CRE model depicting pedagogical areas, then JTEs can and will co-construct effective ways to implement the new EIP policy.

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