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PROCEEDINGS OF
THE JALT LEARNER DEVELOPMENT SIG
REALIZING AUTONOMY CONFERENCE
AT
NANZAN UNIVERSITY, NAGOYA, JAPAN
SATURDAY, OCTOBER 29, 2011

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INTRODUCTION

The Realizing Autonomy Conference, which was held on October 29th, 2011 at Nanzan University, Nagoya, was a curious, Janus-faced event. On the one hand, looking backwards, the initial rationale for such an event was to mark the publication by Palgrave Macmillan of the Learner Development Special Interest Group's book, *Realizing Autonomy: Practice and Reflection in Language Education Contexts* (2012). The three-year-long project of planning, writing, and editing a book had been a collaborative venture from the start, which entailed authors coming together at a weekend retreat to plan the book and later working together as readers of each other's chapters. The idea of a conference was to provide a further opportunity to draw on and celebrate the energy and enthusiasm of that wonderful collective enterprise.

On the other hand, the conference provided not only an occasion for teachers to share current and past practices and insights, but also to look to the future and consider new aspects of and directions for enhancing learning. As Andy Barfield wryly suggested on the day, the prospect of a Proceedings of the Conference of the book seems to take the notion of "spin-offs" into the realm of the absurd. But, as we hope to show in this special issue of *Learning Learning*, each of the articles that appears in these Proceedings represents the wide range of interests and types of presentation at the conference and offers insights and departures for practice and research of autonomy and development in language education that are quite different and new.

The conference started with a plenary session by Tim Murphey, and his article, "Autonomy, Agency, and Social Capital: Surfing the Altruistic Coral Reef Cafés On a 40-Mile Layer of Life!" reflects the whimsical spirit of the talk. As the title implies, Tim's article covers a lot of ground, ranging from the beginning of the history of mankind to the cyber-communities of the 21st century, and introduces us to a model he calls the *dynamic dialectical adjustment harmonizer* that conceptualizes learning and growth as maintaining a healthy balance of autonomy and community.

Tim's initial overview paper is followed by three articles that present new research and theory. Andy Barfield's "Learners' Changing Lexical Landscapes" is a thought-provoking piece that raises questions about practices surrounding lexical development and their relation to learner autonomy. His case study of Reiko illustrates the dynamic and increasingly purposeful way in which one autonomous learner seeks to refine a method for recording vocabulary that she wants to learn.

A second research paper by Clair Taylor, Daniel Beck, Darrel Hardy, Keiko Omura, Michael Stout and Gerald Talandis Jr., entitled "Encouraging Students to Engage in Learning Outside the Classroom", describes an initiative to implement a program-wide practice involving the use of stamp cards to ensure students take advantage of the self-access facilities the university offers. A particularly interesting feature of this article is its investigation into the effects of the stamp card system over a two-year period, which not only highlights the incremental rewards

from the innovation, but also reveals the continuing resistance to change and difficulty of creating a new culture at the university.

Next, Steven Paydon introduces a new model of classroom learning motivation, based on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. As in his conference workshop, Steve illustrates his theory by showing how various motivating classroom practices relate to this model: from fulfilling basic needs for security through a need for a supportive community to a pinnacle of personal growth and learning.

These articles are followed by two reflections on the conference. The first by Robert Moreau and Jackie Suganaga takes the form of a dialogue about their workshop session on self-reflective practices for teacher development. The second is Naoko Harada's reflection, inspired by the image Tim Murphey presented in his plenary of a flying turtle, on the role of positive self-talk when facing challenges of the unfamiliar or the seemingly impossible.

The final paper in this collection is the second plenary session, "Practices of Criticality, Critical Thinking, and Learner Autonomy", which was given by Richard Pemberton and Mike Nix. This is a very special paper, both because it shifts the parameters of learner autonomy research towards the content of education and because it is Richard's final publication. At the conference, Richard and Mike's plenary was movingly introduced by Andy Barfield. His introduction is reproduced here in the same order as on that day. Andy has also compiled for this issue a profile of Richard's life and work, and this stands as the final entry in these Proceedings.

Although we end the Proceedings by looking back at Richard's life, we hope and trust that his legacy—his lifelong commitment to respecting learners and their development, and his enduring positive influence on students, colleagues and friends—will continue well into the future. We hope that you will enjoy the Realizing Autonomy Conference Proceedings, not only as a record of what transpired in Nagoya on the day, but also as an inspiration and motivation for developing your own understanding and practices of learner development.

Alison Stewart & Kay Irie

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AUTONOMY, AGENCY, AND SOCIAL CAPITAL: SURFING THE ALTRUISTIC CORAL REEF CAFÉS ON A 40-MILE LAYER OF LIFE!

Tim Murphey

This paper begins with a brief recap of human history to show how our curiosity plays a central role in our development, leading us on to more agency within communities, and finally to more empathetic altruism. I contend that we have the ability to dynamically adjust in order to harmonize ourselves to a wide range of situations, balancing autonomy and community dialectics. I describe how we naturally learn from near-peer role models and how it may take a little work to get ourselves out of our comfort zones in order to model diversity. I argue that we normally position ourselves more toward the comfort of homogeneity, whereas we need to push ourselves to try new things through mixing with diversity, in order to really savor our time on this glorious planet.

本論は、人類の歴史を振り返りながら、私たちの好奇心が、社会（コミュニティ）において、個人のエージェンシーと自律性を高めることにいかに影響を与えてきたか、そして最終的に共感できる利他主義に繋がるかを考える。我々人間はオートノミーと協調性／社会性を様々な環境や状況に合わせて調和する能力を持ち合わせている。そして私たちが自然とまわりにいるニアピア・ロールモデルから学んでいること、また、自分の心地良い空間から外に出て多様なロールモデルから学ぶことの難しさを考察した上で、その重要性を訴える。同質・同種の心地良さに捕われず、多様性に触れながら新しいことへ挑戦することで、この素晴らしい地球で「今」生きていることを味わえるのではないだろうか。

“I think the human spirit always wants to make a contribution. And I don’t think there are enough invitations” (Angeles Arrien as quoted in Briskin, Erickson, Ott, & Callanan, 2009, p. 156).

So, let’s make more invitations. (Tim Murphey, Oct. 29th, 2011)

This paper’s goal is to playfully, briefly, and selectively look at the anthropological history of humanity (only the last six million years!) and to combine that with some views on our agency, social capital, and altruism. It is my belief that the cultivation of these three capacities is the primary purpose of education. Fortunately, the cultivation of these things is not only relevant,

but eminently possible in language classes, in which “all subjects are ours” (Rivers, 1975, p. 96). I would like to invite you (readers) to engage in an experience similar to the one offered to my audience at my presentation in Nagoya. If you play along and answer the questions below (preferably with someone else), you will get an even better idea of what was happening at the conference.

I started my presentation with the following playful questions on a handout (Brown, 2011). Please try to answer them yourself for a moment before reading the rest of the article.

1. Why do you think humans stood up 6,000,000 years ago?
2. Why do you think women started birthing earlier about the same time?
3. What were the negative and positive (A B C) results of early birthing?
A)
B)
C)
4. How is hip hop going to affect future physiology and possibly brain functioning?
5. Why is a turtle trying to fly more beautiful than a bird sitting in a tree?

Figure 1. The questions given on the handout (taken from Brown, 2011).

Research by Rodiger and Finn (2009) shows that, even if you initially get the answers wrong, having thought about the possible answers first (wrong or right) makes your retention stronger (once you get the right answers) than if you were just given the right answers immediately. Struggling with possible answers creates neurological networks that are more robust. The struggling makes questions more important.

Below, I ask you to put on several hats to stimulate your imagination and your learning. As hats often do, they resemble each other a bit, but are also unique and multifunctional.

Putting on the Anthropologist's Hat

Anthropologists estimate that humans began standing up six million years ago. Why this is important for linguists and teachers will soon become apparent. There are several theories about why we stood up—the most likely being we had a sense of curiosity and wanted to see farther. Some think it was so we could run faster, but, actually, quadrupeds run faster than bipeds. So, standing may have allowed us to see farther, for example, if some dangerous animals were coming, but standing also made our getaway slower. Others believe it was to reach higher fruit in the trees. But since we were already climbing trees, that seems unlikely.

One result of standing and walking on two legs was that our hip structures were reshaped. This resulted in the reshaping of the birth canal of women, and they began giving birth to babies

much earlier. Women went from having babies after 12 months of gestation to nine months. This perhaps had dangerous repercussions for the species, possibly reducing our numbers at first, until we figured out how to take care of prematurely born children. However, gradually, caretakers realized the infants needed more care, and they started to attend to them for a longer and longer period of time. This *attending* was crucial, not only for the survival of the individuals, but also for the development of the species. I stress this attending because it meant that caretakers spent more time with infants and bonded with them in ways that probably encouraged more extended and intensive communication. Language may very well have evolved through caretakers and infants babbling to each other playfully and affectionately and staying with each other long enough to develop a shared repertoire of signs (Lee, Dina, Joaquin, Mates, & Schumann, 2010; Murphey, 2011).

Another innovation that occurred in every known group of humans on the planet is the advent of midwives. A much earlier birth was not only hard on babies, but coping with narrower birth canals meant that women needed help—midwives—to assure that they and their infants lived. Premature children with a difficult birthing, along with communal hunting and gathering of food, brought people together to help each other survive. These beginnings of communities led to cultures and eventually to civilization as we know it (not yet perfect, but ever improving with its ups and downs).

The basic human drives above are interesting to note: curiosity, adaptability, and altruism through bonding. It seems we are often at our best in the worst of times. These are some of the best characteristics of the species. However, at times, we also have the opposite tendencies—to merely do what has been done, force old ways, and to care only for ourselves. And, whereas community and belonging help us survive, they are not always positive, but can lead to some negative tendencies, such as prejudice against nonmembers, war, and group-think. As for the last two questions on the handout, the answers will come in due course. Relax.

Putting on the Dialectician's Hat: Autonomy and Social Capital

Stewart and Irie (2011) wrote a wonderful first chapter to *Realizing Autonomy* in which they note numerous initial contradictions, or dialectical pairings, involved in researching autonomy, and in particular, “freedom and constraints” within a culture (Bauman, 1999). Stewart and Irie argue for Marx’s praxis, citing Thornbury’s afterword where he wisely concludes that “individual independence might best be viewed as a consequence and natural outcome of mutually-supporting community practices” (p. 264). The chapters in the book are great examples of not only struggling with and learning from the contradictions involved in fostering autonomy in classrooms, but, also, of mutually supporting community practices in the very writing of the book. The authors are all to be applauded. The editing process brings to mind Hanks’s (1991) contention that “structure is more the variable outcome of action than its invariant precondition” (p. 17). The authors’ collaborative actions have resulted in a great book, with a bit of magical restructuring from Irie and Stewart no doubt. As the *Realizing Autonomy* example

illustrates, individual agency, social capital, and altruism are intimately connected. Individuals who come together, aggregate their efforts, and pool their resources thereby increase their social capital, that is, the worth they can generate through social contacts. In addition, the altruistic efforts they make to collaborate with each other contribute to the development of new structures and outcomes (procedures for peer editing, draft chapters, and ultimately a book), and this further enhances each individual's social capital.

Earl Stevick touches on these dialectics in terms of “inside and between.” In teaching, Stevick (1980) introduced the metaphor of “harmony” to balance these two incommensurable positions, and proposed that the main inducer of effective learning is the ever-changing rapport among people: “Success depends less on materials, techniques, and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom” (p. 4). He went on to suggest that, “The most important aspect of ‘what goes on’ is the presence or absence of harmony—it is the parts working with, or against, one another” (p. 5). This harmony among the parts, the opposites, and their balancing, are, for me, keys to making activities and, I dare say, life meaningful.

In Figure 2, I try to schematically represent Stevick's (1980) sense of harmony and various dialectical pairings by means of a diagram. Gal'perin termed such diagrams *Schemes for the Orienting Basis of Action*, or SCOBAs, and these SCOBAs “provide learners with resources that are then formulated as a plan of action...” (cited in Lantolf, 2011, p. 38). The figure is merely meant to help us think. I do not equate “freedom and constraints” with “inside and between” and “intermental and intramental,” nor with “autonomy and community,” but they all are similar in some obvious ways. We often think that we are free, but, when attached to a group, we can feel constrained. At the same time, the flip side of this constraint is that, “Freedom's just another word for nothing left to lose,” as the country singer Kris Kristofferson recognized in his song, *Bobby McGee*. So freedom is not good or bad in and of itself, but, rather, our thinking and the context make it so. Still, at the extremes of the dialectics, I would suggest that our thinking has reduced power, and we lose our ability to direct ourselves as the context consumes us. In other words, being radical autonomy-seekers, like the lone cowboy, might deprive us of contexts in which we can interact and learn from others and leave us isolated in the end. Thus, somewhat ironically, we need to use our autonomy to stay in touch with our communities so that we can learn more and, paradoxically, become even more autonomous. By the same token, trying to be too autonomous—when it means isolation—ends up making us less autonomous, because we learn less from others about how we might control our lives more. When we can keep our behavior and thinking within the balancing circles (which, just to complicate matters, are always on the move), we are more likely to maintain a balance between autonomy and community.

This balancing, a cycling movement between the extremes, helps us maintain a healthy life. A diagram, of course, is not moving and, thus, is limited in its capacity to show the continual adjusting and moving of all the parts (so please use your imagination). There is potential trouble with going too far to either extreme (becoming a lone cowboy or a sheep) and there is

wisdom in changing and adapting as a person-in-context (Ushioda, 2009) and being more or less centered while continually moving. In the circle below, one can ideally move about, adjusting appropriately to contextual needs and enjoying the benefits of all the pairs of opposites. At times we might drift toward an extreme, but, hopefully, we are soon brought back into the harmonizing circle that is continually changing. While this may be described as the fusion of opposites, I would prefer to describe it as an awareness of the need to strike a balance between extremes, trying to maximize the positive attributes of any extreme that lures us, while at the same time avoiding its negative aspects.

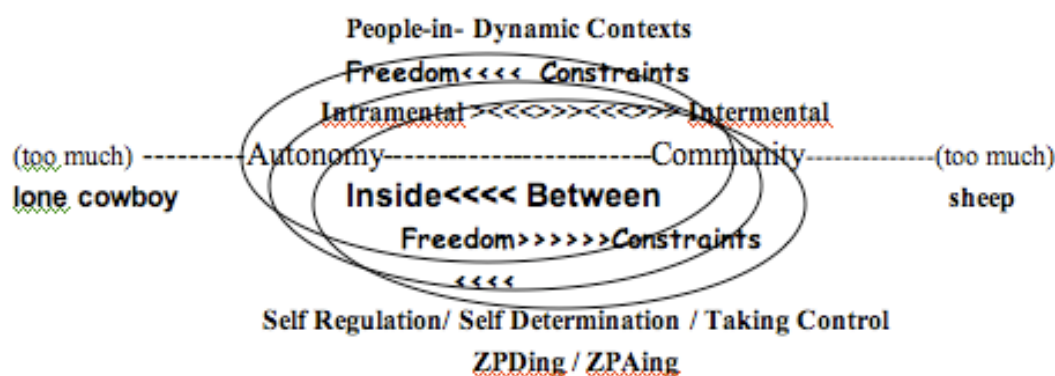


Figure 2. Balancing autonomy and community: Dynamic dialectical adjusting harmonizer (DDAH!) (Sing it!)

Extrapolating from the diagram (having a conversation with the SCOPA and letting it teach me), I think the model is also suggesting that the more we balance ourselves through moving, but staying centered, the more we are likely to enjoy being relatively self-regulated and self-determined, i.e., taking more control over our lives. This moving to stay in more or less harmony opens our Zones of Proximal Development (ZPDs) (Vygotsky, 1978) and Zones of Proximal Adjustment (ZPAs) (Murphey, 1996a, 2000, in press), in which we develop, activate, and expand our abilities to learn and adjust to others so they, in turn, can open up their ZPDs and ZPAs and learn more from us. The use of the concept ZPA implies that we all have different and developing capacities to adjust to others in different contexts.

Stevick's (1980) image of harmony draws from music, which is moving waves in the air. Of course, not all sounds are music to our ears, but, again, context and experience can sometimes change our perceptions of otherwise discordant sound. Still, no movement, no waves to hear = no chance of harmony. We need to move to have a chance of creating harmony. To illustrate using the example of another sense, children quickly find out, when they have no training wheels on their bikes, that biking requires continual movement, or you fall over.

This ability to move and to process information and to change (harmonize) as need be is similar to Carol Dweck's (1999, 2007) incremental theory of intelligence (growth mindset) in which learners accept that they learn little by little and that mistakes are part of the territory of learning. When, by contrast, students operate with an entity theory (fixed mindset), they believe that, whether good or bad, that is the way they are and that nothing can change it, and thus they don't really try to change things. Even if learners have a positive first appraisal—"You're great!"—they often do not want to risk losing the label "great" by trying things at which they might fail. When learners operate with an incremental theory or growth mindset, they accept that they are forever changing, moving, and learning how to adjust in order to make harmonious relationships and attune themselves to others. Students with such beliefs are more open to learning new things and accepting mistakes as they go along. Both harmony in relationships with others and fluency in language are incrementally realized through a growth mindset that naturally has its ups and downs. Incremental theories are process-oriented, harmonizing theories for tuning our instruments in continually emerging realities and symphonies.

Putting on Another Dialectician's Hat: Homogeneity and Diversity

Among the crucial survival strategies that we have developed are our abilities to commune, collaborate, and communicate—what Goleman (2006) calls our social intelligence. With increased social intelligence comes increased social capital, i.e., the value of our connections. And the more we exercise our social intelligence, the more we can learn, act, and control our own lives, further increasing our social capital. We would indeed be shooting ourselves in the proverbial foot if we cut off the main source of our autonomy, which very clearly is our modeling and learning with others in groups. Of course, balancing our time and effort between community and self can be tricky; it is clear that we need both community and self, but at times we stray too much to extremes. In the context of our classrooms, while more autonomy for the individual may be the goal, paradoxically, this learning of autonomy may happen most often in highly interactive groups (Thornbury, 2012), or, in another way of describing them, positive *present communities of imagining* (PCOIz) (Murphey, 2009; Murphey, Falout, Fukada, & Fukuda, 2012; Murphey & Falout, in press). A good read on community is *The Power of Collective Wisdom and the Trap of Collective Folly* by Briskin, Erickson, Ott, and Callanan (2009). While focusing mainly on the positive, the book also describes some of the terrors of group-think and group protectionism, ranging from harmful and prejudicial social acts to violence.

Through all this writing about self and community, I hear Walt Whitman shouting delightfully from his rooftop, "Do I contradict myself? Very well, then, I contradict myself! I contain multitudes!" (*Leaves of Grass*, sec. 51, line 1321). He might as well have said, "I contain communities!" since it is from our communities that we draw so much of what we know, do, and say. As Bakhtin (1981) says, "The word in language is half someone else's. It becomes 'one's own' only when the speaker populates it with his own intention, his own accent, when he appropriates the word, adapting it to his own semantic and expressive intention" (p. 294).

Pearce (1971), and certainly others before him, intuitively sensed how “a kind of rough mirroring takes place between our mind and our reality” (p. 1), shaped greatly by our community. Hatfield, Cacioppo, and Rapson’s volume, *Emotional Contagion* (1994) detailed how we “catch” each other’s emotions. A few years later, I described near-peer role modeling (Murphey, 1996b; Murphey & Arao, 2001) in which not only emotions were caught by others, but so too were strategies, beliefs, and behaviors. In 1998, Judith Rich Harris woke a lot of people up with her book, *The Nurture Assumption*, illustrating with powerful data the subtitle, *How Parents Matter Less and Peers Matter More*. At about the same time in the 1990s, mirror neurons were discovered in monkeys. Mirror neurons basically allow our brains to virtually simulate whatever it is that we are looking at, such that, when I see you reach for a glass, similar neurons in my brain will be firing in the same pattern as if I were actually reaching for a glass. Similarly, when we look at a sad face, we tend to feel sad along with the person. Thus, Ramachandran (2011) even goes so far as to call mirror neurons “Ghandi neurons”, since they often elicit empathetic and altruistic tendencies. Mirror neurons have great importance for the learning and socializing habits of humans, as well as for the spread of civilization (Ramachandran, 2011).

The above three paragraphs support the idea of forming homogeneous communities and learning from them. This works—to a point. However, homogeneous groups can only get us so far. Then they need something else—they need a shot or two of diversity. Learning a foreign language is wrestling with diversity: diverse people, diverse customs, diverse pronunciations, diverse syntax, diverse expressions, and, hopefully, finding joy in the diversity and ending up identifying with the diversity. Learning a new language is also about opening up to new communities. With Figure 3, I hope to communicate that, in describing our communities, there is a further dialectic of *homogeneity* and *diversity*. Once again, the extremes are generally unproductive: overly homogeneous communities can be boring and lack innovation, as they wish to replicate the status quo, and overly diverse communities can be difficult to coordinate, both of which could explain why some people prefer “doing it” on their own after having had bad experiences with groups at the extremes. Most people naturally do near-peer role modeling (Murphey & Arao, 2001; Singh, 2010), which works mostly in the domain of homogeneity, and teachers can use this natural tendency to help students learn more. But life is pretty boring if you just stay with people who are like you. Still, we tend to naturally gather around the single asterisk (*) in Figure 3 on the left of the line below, under homogeneity. However, getting out and mixing with diverse people leads to a richer and fuller experience of what is offered to us on the planet. My ideal for my students would be to stray to the side of diversity around the double asterisk (**). Of course, when things are too diverse, they can get very complicated and chaotic. So, even something as good as diversity has its limits, and we need to be careful of extremes. Thus, again, we have a DDAH! to help us adapt and move from homogeneity to more diversity and back again when needed.

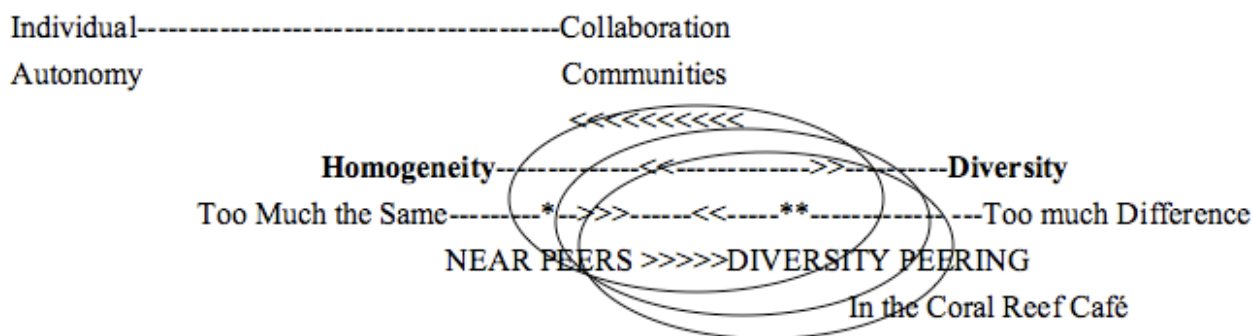


Figure 3. Balancing homogeneity and diversity: Dynamic dialectic adjusting harmonizer!

(DDAH!)

In his book, *Where Good Ideas Come From*, Stephen Johnson (2010) uses the metaphor of the coral reef and the café as places of diversity, creativity, and activity—somewhat scary places for those who have not ventured far from the cave. However, it is only in venturing out that we can interact with diversity and become someone different through incorporating others into our mental networks and increasing our social capital. And once we are engaging in different communities, our role models tend to shift as our minds, and our mirror neurons naturally model the different people around us, and we begin *diversity modeling* (Murphey, in press) through simulation (Iacoboni, 2008). This could also be called *diversity peering*, which is the bringing of diverse people, who are quite different from us, into our realms of imagination and modeling them, such that they become our peers (even if only imaginary). Children tend to do this much more easily, and are adaptable and flexible in this regard, not only with people, but with animals, plants, and even objects in the world. (See also, along this vein of thought, Jocey Quinn's (2010) lovely book on imagined social capital.)

Note that it is also quite frequent that whole fields migrate toward homogeneity in search of a firm identity (Kuhn, 1970), but, in doing so, they can greatly deprive themselves of diversity resources. In our own field of SLA, we had a strong movement for a while that suggested *theory culling*. But then some brave people dared to speak up for the rights and benefits of diversity. Two such publications include *The Social Turn in Second Language Acquisition* (Block, 2003) and, more recently, *Alternative Approaches to Second Language Acquisition* (Atkinson, 2011). Of note is Lourdes Ortega's final chapter in Atkinson's volume, in which she describes our choices:

...We have a choice in SLA studies among entrenchment, incommensurability, and epistemological diversity. Entrenchment is likely to be a temperamental reaction that is unsustainable in the long run. Incommensurability is an option that some may find merit in at this juncture in the history of SLA studies. I want to argue that the third option, **epistemological diversity, is the best choice.** (Ortega, 2011, p. 176)

Peter Block (2008), citing Putnam and Feldstein (2003), describes social capital, or community-network benefits, which, interestingly, allows us to see epistemological diversity in an even better light:

Bonding social capital are networks that are inward looking, composed of people of like mind. Other social networks “encompass different types of people and tend to be outward looking—bridging social capital.”... And as Putnam and Feldstein (2003) put it, “A society that has only bonding social capital will be segregated into mutually hostile camps. So a pluralistic democracy requires lots of bridging social capital, not just the bonding variety.” (p. 18)

Bonding social capital, good group dynamics, and near-peer role modeling are all powerful tools for classroom teachers in the initial stages of bonding. However, after bonding, greater stimulation can be found through bridging social capital, challenging the unknown (Murphey, 1989), and diversity-peering. Inviting opportunities for bridging social capital and Ortega’s (2011) epistemological diversity create spaces for diversity-peering and enlarging the autonomous self through identifying with others. In other words, putting diverse people together first helps with acceptance that leads to affiliation and identification. We tend to identify with those we live and work with most. When diversity is around us, we begin to identify with it, bond with it, and empathize with it. Ergo, we contain multitudes. (N.B. You can also try out the diversity peering survey in Appendix A.)

Putting on the Altruist’s Hat

Our species’ initial drives (curiosity, adaptability, and altruism through bonding, as we saw with our anthropologist’s hats) have served us well. However, as noted above, too much bonding social capital can sometimes create more conflicts, and we need to look at how we can build more bridging social capital and identify with diversity. I invite you to see ourselves as being in the invitational profession. We can invite students to look into the diverse lives of others who have become human rights activists, pacifists, ecological advocates, and others who have adopted international postures (Yashima, 2009). We can identify with not only strangers in the street, but with diverse others in strange lands through the massive media networks. With animal rights and ecological activists, we might even start identifying with all of nature, and, finally, with Gaia (Earth) herself as a living entity (Cates, 2005). These sideways steps of identification are imaginable because our brains are wired for such imagination to ensure survival—not just survival of ourselves, but of others and the planet because we essentially depend upon each other—we are part of Gaia.

“The entire reach of the biosphere envelope is less than 40 miles from ocean floor to outer space. Within this narrow band, living creatures and the Earth’s geochemical processes interact to sustain each other” (Rifken, 2009, p. 597). Some





people commute 40 miles daily to school or work. It's just a thin layer of life on a large planet that already has a few holes here and there. Along with Rifken, I am curious as to whether we have the adaptive capacities necessary to survive as a species on the planet, or whether our energy addiction practices will, in the end, disable life on the planet.

Our propensity toward altruistic action may be our saving grace—an altruism that expands exponentially in groups of people who belong, bond, and bridge.

So notice is given. You're all invited. Now, go change the world and have a good life.

And remember... invite your students to join you.

Post Script

It was my students who asked question #4 How is hip-hop dancing going to affect future physiology and possibly brain functioning? And I have no answer.

Question #5: Why is a turtle trying to fly more beautiful than a bird sitting in a tree? A turtle trying to fly is attempting to do something, even if it seems impossible, and that is beautiful in its own way. I believe this is also a characteristic that our species shares with turtles—and possibly with life on earth.



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Appendix A

Diversity Peering Survey

1. How many people in your professional environment have you regularly collaborated with (that you see on a **monthly if not weekly or daily basis**) in the last year? Write their names: _____ total # _____
2. Occasional collaborators – you collaborated **one or more times this past year** on a project? (paper, presentation, class lessons and study, curriculum, reports, etc.) Write their names: _____ total# _____
3. How many of the **people above** are of a different **gender**? total# _____
4. How many of the people above are 10 years older or **younger**? total# _____
5. How many of the people above are of a different **nationality**? total# _____
6. How many of the people above are of a different **ethnicity**? total# _____
7. How many of the people above are not in your **immediate field**? total# _____
8. What is your total 3 through 7 added up: _____ **How do you feel about this?

9. **What kind of people** would you like to collaborate more with? _____

10. Where might you **find these people**? _____

** Note: There are no absolute scores for how collaborative someone is. It is up to you and relative to your context and desires. Research does say however that the more diverse the partners are, the more beneficial the collaboration usually is (thus questions #3-7). Send comments to Tim Murphey at mits@kanda.kuis.ac.jp

*Never doubt that a small group of thoughtful committed people can change the world.
Indeed, it is the only thing that ever has. Margaret Mead*

EXPLORING LEARNERS' CHANGING LEXICAL LANDSCAPES AND LEARNER AUTONOMY

Andy Barfield

This paper presents the concepts of school knowledge and action knowledge (Barnes, 1992, 2008) and certain basic principles of learner autonomy as a necessary background for exploring learners' lexical development in different pedagogies for autonomy. Using a case study approach, the lexical landscapes of a single student in a content-based learning course are explored as the student develops her vocabulary practices over an academic year through experimentation, interaction and reflection with her peers. The student's emerging preference for using collocations, word associations and short paraphrases reveals an original combination of different vocabulary practices. It also suggests that learners, under appropriate conditions, will readily move beyond word-by-word translation and the simple listing of L2-L1 equivalents that entrance exam cramming requires them to do. Further research questions about the relationship between lexical development and learner autonomy are addressed in the final part of the paper.

本論は二つの「知識」に関するコンセプト school knowledge と action knowledge (Barnes, 1992, 2008) 及び学習者オートノミーの基本的理論が自律性重視の教育において語彙発達の探求に不可欠であることを論じる。ケース・スタディ手法を使い、content-based learning の年間授業で、一人の学習者の語彙学習を追った。クラスメイトたちとの交流の中での試行錯誤、自分の学びの振り返りを通しての語彙 (lexical landscape) の発達を研究した。学習者がコロケーション、単語の関連性、短いパラフレーズなどを中心にする独自の学習スタイルを確立していく様子がはっきりと伺えた。これは適切な環境と指導があれば、学習者が単純な単語リストや英和対応などの入試対策として行ってきたもの以上の語彙学習を実践することができることを示唆するものである。語彙の発達と学習者オートノミーの研究に向けて、今後の方向性についても考察する。

Introduction

While we seem more than ready to discuss nonlinguistic dimensions to the realization of learner autonomy, we are curiously reluctant to get specific about processes of lexical

development that may be involved in that realization. One effect of this separation is that different positions around issues to do with learner autonomy and lexical development become lost or silenced. It is interesting, for example, that discussions of autonomous learning can sometimes go hand in hand with uncritical assertions that students should be assigned 20, even 50, words a week to record and learn, without further consideration of the contradiction between such demands and the realisation of learner autonomy. For these reasons, it seems useful to me to revisit certain fundamental pedagogic principles of learner autonomy in relation to fostering learners' lexical development. This may allow us to consider, in a detached way, possible relationships between learner autonomy and lexical development. In this paper, I first look at the distinction between school knowledge and action knowledge that Barnes (1976, 2008) makes and connect this to three basic, commonly held principles of developing learner autonomy in practice. I then consider how these principles might be applied to lexical development, before reviewing some classic examples of learner autonomy practices where vocabulary learning and use are highlighted. My aim is to question how lexical development is addressed and represented in certain pedagogies for autonomy. Following this, I present the case of a single student in a content-based learning course so that we can explore in some detail the lexical landscape that she moves through as she pays conscious attention to developing her vocabulary practices. In the final part, I identify a few important questions that it may be helpful to address further in exploring learners' changing lexical landscapes in relation to the development of learner autonomy.

Some Basic Principles of Learner Autonomy in Language Education

Within formal education, an important distinction has been made between two modes of learning. These modes are known as *school knowledge* and *action knowledge*. Barnes (1976) comments:

School knowledge is the knowledge which someone else presents to us. We partly grasp it, enough to answer the teacher's questions, to do exercises, or to answer examination questions, but it remains someone else's knowledge, not ours. If we never use this knowledge, we probably forget it. In so far as we use knowledge for our own purposes, however, we begin to incorporate it into our view of the world, and to use parts of it to cope with the exigencies of living. Once the knowledge becomes incorporated into that view of the world on which our actions are based I would say that it has become "action knowledge." (p. 81)

Barnes (1976) associates school knowledge with the knowledge of others (e.g., teachers, texts that learners read, books that learners study) and action knowledge with the constructivist capacity of the learner to reinterpret others' knowledge, reshape it to their own purposes, and make it part of their understanding of the world where "the pupil's ability to reinterpret knowledge for himself is crucial to learning" (p. 142). The concept of action knowledge leads

into questions of how new understandings of the world are managed by learners. Barnes (2008) explains:

It is only the learner who can bring the new information, procedures or ways of understanding to bear upon existing ideas, expectations and ways of thinking and acting. That is, the learner actively *constructs* the new way of understanding. (p. 3)

Given the emphasis on the active role of learners in shaping their knowledge of the world, it is not surprising that the school knowledge/action knowledge nexus has been taken up by different learner autonomy theorists and practitioners as a way of understanding the capacity of learners to be authors of their own learning.

David Little, in particular, has theorized from Barnes's work and put forward three general pedagogic principles for the development of language learner autonomy: *learner involvement*, *learner reflection*, and *appropriate target use* (e.g., Little 2005, 2006, 2007, 2009). What Little (2007) means by learner involvement is that learners "are brought to engage with their learning and take responsibility for key decisions" (p. 7). This principle highlights the importance of learners determining for themselves their learning purposes and goals, as such self-determination can directly influence their motivation and sense of control. From the principle of learner reflection follows the need for learners to be "taught to think critically about the process and content of their learning" (p. 7). Learners should therefore be guided to consider cognitive processes of learning and develop insights into their own ways of learning; they should also have freedom to choose (or at least the right to negotiate) the materials they use for their learning. The third principle, appropriate target language use, refers to learners "using the target language as the principal medium of language learning" (2006, p. 2). Learners should, in other words, use the target language not only for their own communicative purposes, but also for the metacognitive functions of reflecting on and evaluating their performance and development in the target language. These principles are seen by Little as operating in dynamic relationship to one another: the development of autonomous learning may take place, he argues, only under conditions where all three principles are followed in practice.

Addressing Questions of Learner Autonomy and Lexical Development

Relatively little has been written about the different pedagogic and learning practices that the above principles might entail with regard to vocabulary learning in the development of learner autonomy. Following Little, we may make the following assumptions, however: (a) learners should be guided to engage with their vocabulary learning and take responsibility for key decisions about the vocabulary that they decide they need to develop; (b) learners should be taught to think critically about the vocabulary that they want to learn and about different processes of lexical development, as well as have the right to choose (or at least negotiate) how they wish to learn vocabulary; and (c) learners should use the vocabulary that they learn (or make decisions about what vocabulary they need to use) and should be guided to reflect on their lexical development. With these theoretical principles as initial reference points, I look

next at three examples of learner autonomy practices where vocabulary learning and use have a prominent role.

The first example is from a class of English beginners under Leni Dam's tutelage in a secondary school in Denmark. In the description of her own practices for developing learner autonomy (Dam, 1995; Dam & Legenhausen, 1996), Dam shows how the very first English lessons with a class of Danish 11-year-old learners in a state school focus on what the learners want to say in English, and on how they are asked to bring into the classroom and use English words they find in the world outside. From the first lesson, the learners also use *The Oxford English Picture Dictionary* (Parnwell, 1989) to find funny, exciting or useful words that they need for their own purposes (Dam, 1995, pp. 13-19). Within a few lessons, the lexical choices that the learners make are written up by Dam on posters and displayed in the classroom, so that the whole class can use this shared vocabulary to write brief profiles of themselves in English. Other times, "making word cards" and "practising words" (p. 19) are among the activities that learners choose to do. Here, they are guided to write down words in their learning diaries that they would like to know/remember, to make drawings and write short texts, regularly sharing their work with each other (Dam & Legenhausen, 1996, p. 269). The learners also produce word cards¹ with "a drawing, photo or L1 equivalent on one side and the corresponding English expression on the other side" (p. 269) and make word games that can be used by others in the class. A couple of weeks after starting to learn English, learners are further encouraged to use new vocabulary in writing stories (Dam, 1995, pp. 19-20). Dam's account shows how learners can be asked from the very beginning to be self-directed in their lexical development. She also illustrates how learners can actively explore with each other different ways of learning and using vocabulary. They do not need to be restricted to one single way. Overall, a notably distinctive feature of Dam's practice is that learning vocabulary is closely (but not exclusively) connected with use, as well as with learners making decisions themselves about the vocabulary that they need and how they want to use it. A very important point to keep in mind here is that the vocabulary focus in these classes is part of an overall approach leading towards project work.

In a different take on autonomous learning and vocabulary development, Little (2009) shares examples from a vocabulary list by a 30-year-old Ukrainian student at the A1 beginner proficiency level² in an intensive course organized on autonomous learning principles. The list includes vocabulary such as *operation*, *inflamed*, *tablets* and *temperature*. These relatively low-frequency words are directly related to the young man's need to consult a doctor about health problems (pp. 163-6). Thirty-three items are listed by the young man on the top half of a worksheet called My Personal Dictionary with the instructions, "Write 60 words. Find a partner. Test your spelling" (p. 166). Little makes the important point that "... learners acquire the vocabulary appropriate to their personal interests and priorities, which may entail the early learning of low-frequency words and technical terms" (p. 163). A similar claim is made in a rare quantitative study by Dam and Legenhausen (1996); they also report that "vocabulary acquisition in the autonomous approach is very successful and compares favourably with

results from more traditional textbook-based approaches” (p. 280). In Little’s 2009 account, the specific vocabulary task of listing 60 words lacks the creative dimension that we saw in the example from Dam’s practices; at the same time, it includes peer review and recycling to consolidate basic vocabulary knowledge. There is, however, no discussion, as far as vocabulary learning and use is specifically concerned, of what learners do beyond recording words in a list for their personal dictionaries. This makes it difficult to get a more detailed sense of how different pedagogic principles may apply in practice, unless we assume that learners are able to use the listed vocabulary for later action knowledge tasks that they do and assess themselves on.

Dam (1995) also reports on the vocabulary practices of a different intermediate class of 14- and 15-year-old learners at a Danish secondary school. In one example, some learners are described as noting down new English words after reading a poem they have chosen as part of their group project. However, how they do this is quite different from the creative vocabulary activities with the beginner class detailed in the first example. The intermediate learners simply write in their learning diaries the English words in a list next to the respective Danish translation equivalent each time. Dam does not mention any other ways in which the learners in this intermediate class record vocabulary. Clearly, in both of her classes, self-directed vocabulary development plays an essential part in the learners’ engagement with content in doing project work. The children are regularly asked to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of how they are learning and using English in the group-based projects that they do. Yet, while we may assume that Dam’s learners develop a critical awareness of learning and using the vocabulary that they need for their projects, the evidence from the intermediate class suggests that some kind of shift has taken place in these learners’ vocabulary practices towards “banking” vocabulary in L2-L1 lists. It is almost as if the learners have started collecting vocabulary for its own sake rather than for their own learning purposes.

This points to some gaps in the lessons that we can draw from these examples, particularly with regard to what learners do after recording vocabulary that they choose as important, and why learners tend to list vocabulary in L2-L1 columns as they gain in language proficiency. Is listing a function of increased lexical proficiency, in that intermediate learners may not need to organize vocabulary in any particular way in order to learn and use it? Is it perhaps an effect of further schooling and the greater institutionalization of learning as school knowledge so that vocabulary development starts to be separated from learner interest, purpose and use? What place does explicit attention to the development of learners’ vocabulary practices have as learners become more lexically proficient and go on through the formal education system? University students have necessarily had to reconcile their own purposes with the institutionalized learning that the education system has required of them over several years. The pressure to cram vocabulary for university entrance exams in Japan is one example of how an overbearing emphasis on school knowledge forces learners into specific vocabulary practices that distance them from using the language meaningfully for their own purposes. How does this impact their later vocabulary practices and goals when they continue learning English

beyond high school? Some possible answers to such questions may be provided by looking at the single case of a second-year student, Reiko, in a content-based learning course where she does self-directed research projects over cycles of several weeks.

The Lexical Development and Vocabulary Practices of One Student

In the 2011 academic year, I tracked the vocabulary practices and goals of several students doing a content-based learning course, a small but important part of which was devoted to encouraging students to explore and develop their vocabulary practices in different ways for themselves. The proficiency levels of the students ranged from high intermediate to advanced. Here I focus on one student in particular, Reiko, and her changing vocabulary history over the year (Barfield, 2011, 2012). A vocabulary history (VH) is similar to a language learning history (Benson & Nunan, 2005; Murphey, 1997; Murphey, Chen, & Chen, 2005; Pavlenko, 2001) in which a learner narrates their personal story of language learning and formulates their future learning plans and goals. What is different about a VH is that the learner gives much greater attention to how they have learned vocabulary at different stages in their L2 development and what positive and negative experiences they have had in doing so.

After discussing her own VH and reading some near-peer role models of vocabulary histories produced by other students, Reiko presented her own VH in the following way:

I started to learn the vocabularies from elementary school. I was very young, so there are many pictures in textbook of the cram school. At the cram school, we pronounced the words I learnt again and again, and after that we looked the sentences including the new words. I think this is the best way of remembering the words. Pronouncing is very useful to remember the words, and I could know how to use the word looking the sentences.

At the junior high school and high school, I learnt the vocabularies in bad ways. I just make the vocabulary notes that there are the vocabularies I didn't know and remembered the words before the exam by writing again and again. This was very easy to forget the words. After the exam, I forgot all of words I learnt. I just learnt for getting score of exam. This was very bad motivation. Also I couldn't know the pronunciation of the vocabularies.

At the university I could know a lot of words in the writing & speaking classes so far. I read so many articles and books written by English in the classes. And I have a lot of opportunities to explain the words I found out to other students. So I think that I have to understand definitely the words' meanings. So the classes give me a good motivation of learning and remembering the vocabularies.

One of the interesting points about Reiko's vocabulary history is that her practices are quite specific to each stage and context of her formal education. Early on, her vocabulary learning is focused on remembering, pronouncing, and using lexical items; however, in junior high and high school, as her vocabulary development becomes exam-driven, memorization through repeated writing takes over completely from use. At university, her way of learning vocabulary

comes from a great deal of reading, as well as from using words to explain their meaning to other students. All in all, Reiko shows a greater concern with meaning as her English proficiency develops and as she becomes more concerned with using English. Another interesting point is that repetition of one kind or another (either to herself or to others—repeated pronouncing, repeated writing, and repeated explaining) figures as the most personally significant lexical development process for Reiko. Beyond that, however, she does not really articulate any other specific details about learning and using vocabulary for herself and her own purposes.

From the start of the second research cycle onwards, the students spend some (limited) time each week looking and experimenting with different ways of recording, learning and using vocabulary. The main focus is on their research into NGOs, working on issues to do with developing countries. Explaining and paraphrasing key ideas in their research notes to other students are a key part of the process by which they build their knowledge of NGOs. Reiko researches Save The Children, and, at the start of the cycle, she chooses a few key words from her research notes in English before listing different collocations in which they can be used (see Figure 1).

Children	Education
help (disadvantaged children	provides a (broad education
(special-needs children	deliver (general
care for (difficult children	received no formal education
help the (contribute to (child malnutrition	
(child maltreatment	tradition of (religious education
(child trafficking	(legal

Figure 1. Reiko's way of recording vocabulary in early June 2011.

Although Figure 1 shows that Reiko records several different collocations, she tends to limit the number of possible combinations that she records with either key word. It appears that Reiko is becoming concerned with the quality of her vocabulary knowledge, rather than just with increasing the size of her vocabulary. This change from quantity to quality is one of the crucial changes that most students go through as they attend more consciously to their lexical development in a self-directed way (cf. Benson & Lor, 1998, who note a similar shift in learners' general conceptualisations of language learning as they become more autonomous).

A couple of weeks later, Reiko starts experimenting with using word associations. Here she mentions in her notebook the importance of trying to create a concrete image and of connecting words actively with other words. The new words that she chooses are shown on the left in Figure 2, with the word associations that she makes shown on the right.

Reiko's word associations are made with highly frequent vocabulary, revealing how she is trying to connect new words to vocabulary that she already knows very well. When, later in the same research cycle, Reiko chooses to record *advocacy*, *advocate*, *address* and *lobby*, we begin to see how her way of recording key vocabulary now includes short paraphrases, associations and collocations as she continues to experiment and try to find ways that work best for her (as in Figure 3).

measles	infection, fever, children (はしか, 麻疹)
notably	important, outstanding, remarkable
strap	belts, fasten
bureaucratic	(官僚的な) rules, official, complicated, arguments
squabbling (squabble)	argue, girls, quarrel
livelihood	money, important, protect
burden	heavy, load

Figure 2. Reiko's way of recording vocabulary in early July 2011

(v) address	to speak to someone directly
話しかける, 言う	to make a formal speech to a large group of people <i>talk, complain, speak</i> (ex a meeting/conference etc
similar	governments about an audience
(v) lobby 働きかけ	- to try to persuade the government or someone with political power that a law or situation should be changes <i>government, campaign, address</i> ex.: lobby (<u>for</u> a reduction (our leader <u>to</u> support --- (<u>against</u> a bill

Figure 3. Reiko's way of recording vocabulary in late June 2011.

In this example, *to speak to someone directly* and *to make a formal speech to a large group of people* are Reiko's short paraphrases for *address*, whereas *talk*, *complain*, *speak* are her personal associations, and *a meeting/conference* *governments about* and *an audience* are collocations that she feels are important for her to learn and use. Figure 3 also illustrates how, within a short period of experimentation, Reiko has started to combine different subprocesses together in the way that she records vocabulary for herself.

By being asked to consider what she is doing to develop her vocabulary knowledge and to think about the strengths and weaknesses of what she does decide to do, Reiko begins to become critically aware of the effectiveness of her choices and actions. In a short reflection written in her notebook about her changing vocabulary practices, Reiko notes at this point:

Today I researched similar words, but I found the way that of using is different each other. So I think my way is good for understanding, and also this way shows me the meaning of the words in both of languages, so I can understand the meaning absolutely. By doing the association, I can have the image of the words.

Then, a few weeks later at the end of July, as she looks back on the development of her ways of learning and using vocabulary in the previous two months, Reiko interprets the changes in this way:

At first of learning and using vocabulary I just wrote down the word and the meanings of the words in English. But I realized that this way was not useful because I couldn't remember the word through this way. I found that association was very helpful and it was very fun! And using collocation was also very useful! So finally I wrote down the word that I want to research and the meaning of that in English and Japanese, association and collocation. I think this way was the most useful for me. My goal in the third cycle is to increase my vocabularies which is in the field that I'm interested in.

In the autumn, Reiko continues using short paraphrases, associations and collocations as the main way of organising her vocabulary notes. She believes that taking time to create several connections helps her “know a lot of words” and “know how to use the word clearly”; her way, she observes, also helps her to “use difficult words in conversation”. An example is shown in Figure 4.

competition	1. when a company or person is trying to be more successful or better than other		
adj + N – intense	V + N		
keen competition	face, be up against	competition	
global	beat off		
	N + V competition → heat up		
	2. an event when people try to win prizes		
destroy stop	organize		
give up take out	compete in	→ competition	
	be banned from		

Figure 4. Reiko's way of recording vocabulary in October 2011.

The vocabulary notes shown in Figure 4 come from a research cycle where Reiko has chosen to look at how green businesses are developing their Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) policies to address different social and environmental issues. At the end of the third cycle, roughly six months after she started reflecting on her vocabulary history and diversifying her vocabulary practices, Reiko sees her lexical development like this:

This time I found lots of specific words which is related to CSR. These are difficult, but I could remember and know how to use it by changing my vocabulary notes and using the words a lot. Also I could learn more words through learning one word. I tried to find the related word with the words which I researched so I could learn the meaning of the words in other words.

It is important to note that, within this content-based learning course, no other student made the same choices as Reiko as to how to develop their vocabulary practices. Each student found their own new pathways through their lexical development. One of Reiko's main concerns was making connections between what she was trying to learn and what she already knew; here she used word associations in conjunction with short paraphrases and simple collocations to create multiple connections between new vocabulary and known vocabulary. She also used Japanese equivalents at times to consolidate those connections. Over time, Reiko gradually became more astute in selecting useful and important vocabulary for development rather than focusing exclusively on unknown lexis as she did early on (as shown in Figure 2, for example, with her first set of word associations). From the outside looking in, it seems that Reiko was able to find a growing sense of creativity in using word associations effectively. She also achieved, it seems, a strong sense of communicative accomplishment in developing short practical paraphrases and small sets of useful collocations around key words and ideas in her research.

Concluding Questions

It needs to be emphasized that the focus on self-directed lexical development was only a small part of the content-based learning course. The main focus in the course was on the research projects that the students did, as well as on their co-constructing knowledge of the different issues that they researched. For the lexical development part of the course, however, students were guided to engage with different ways of developing their vocabulary practice and take responsibility for the vocabulary that they wanted to learn and use. Starting from reconstructing her own vocabulary history and becoming aware of the strengths and weaknesses of different practices she had tried in the past, Reiko started to find a critical stance towards her own lexical development. She then continued to experiment with, and further develop, vocabulary practices that worked well for her, by building her awareness through discussion, short written reflections, and using key vocabulary to explain her research to her peers. Reiko's story shows that there is no necessary reason why young adult learners cannot develop their own effective ways of learning and using vocabulary for themselves as part of the overall process of their becoming more autonomous in how they learn and use English.

Are the processes of lexical development and restructuring (Henriksen, 1999) that Reiko embodies in her vocabulary practices available to learners at other levels of overall language proficiency? These processes include (a) connecting up new with known vocabulary, (b) moving between associative lexical knowledge and conventionalized collocation knowledge, (c) focusing on both individual words and multiword phrases, and (d) learning to create short paraphrases in English of key ideas. If they are available, in what ways might they be differently realized by others? If not, in what ways might those processes of lexical development and restructuring be restricted? Is the development of these processes (either individually or in combination with each other) possible in formal education contexts only under conditions that support autonomous learning? What further connections can be made between lexical development and the development of learner autonomy? These are, I believe, some of the interesting questions that the journey through Reiko's lexical landscape invites us to explore in the future.

Notes

1. Kramsch (1979) reports the use of index cards where vocabulary items are chosen by students and recorded "together with a synonym, antonym, or translation, and an example sentence" (p. 154).
2. The A1 level is part of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) scheme of proficiency levels (A1 and A2: basic user; B1 and B2: independent user; C1 and C2: proficient user). For more details, see the Council of Europe European Language Portfolio website (n.d.).

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ENCOURAGING STUDENTS TO ENGAGE IN LEARNING OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM

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Michael Stout, & Gerald Talandis Jr.

This paper describes an ongoing action research project designed to promote autonomous learning in a required Freshman English course at a Japanese university. Several teachers collaborated to encourage self-access learning using a stamp card system. Teachers used the cards as a way of introducing learning activities that learners engage in outside of class time. At the time of writing, the project was in its second cycle. Significant adjustments were made to the stamp card system at the end of the first academic year. The data from both cycles of research show that the stamp card system encourages more students to make use of the university's self-access facilities. The findings highlight the importance of clear induction with hands-on experience, especially for computer-related study, and the benefits of cooperation among teachers in implementing this approach.

英語の習得には授業内外での大量の学習が不可欠である。学生は学習法を学び、自律した学習者になる必要がある。本稿は、学生の自己学習を支援するために開発したスタンプカード・システムの実践報告である。このシステムによって、多くの学生が、様々な学習法を体験し、授業外でも自己学習を進めることができるようになった。体験による学習法の指導だけでなく、教員の連携による持続的な支援も重要であることが明らかになった。

It takes roughly 10,000 hours of learning or practice to attain expert ability in any given skill (Ericsson, Charness, Feltovich, & Hoffman, 2006). Eaton (2011) applies this concept to language learning and suggests that students supplement formal instruction with self-study, practice in informal contexts, and overseas immersion experiences to get the 10,000 hours of study and practice needed to become fully proficient. Recognizing that a limited number of contact hours will not be sufficient to significantly improve students' language proficiency, many universities in Japan are following the Japanese Ministry of Education's *Action Plan to Cultivate "Japanese with English Abilities"* (MEXT, 2003) by setting up conversation lounges to provide places for learners to interact in English in an international atmosphere. Additionally, universities are providing self-access centers which may include study booths, reading areas, and access to online materials. However, these facilities often remain underused. Students may not have the motivation, skills, or experience to make good use of the facilities, and an institutional culture of independent study may not exist.

Some universities in Japan have found a carrot-and-stick approach effective in promoting independent study. Ashurova and Ssali (2007) offer points to students for participating in sessions in their university's World Plaza interaction lounge, and attendance at a World Plaza event counts towards the students' semester grade. Barrs (2010) reveals that one of the factors underlying the success of his university's popular self-access center is that students can earn extra credit for undertaking independent study modules. Heigham (2011) reports that all students on the Communicative English Program at her university are required to attend the self-access language center 12 times per semester to do independent listening, in lieu of a listening course. These papers all suggest that once they have been encouraged or pushed to make use of the facilities, students see the benefits and many then become voluntary users. The requirement or incentive to participate acts as a form of support that bridges classwork and independent study, and helps learners make steps towards developing autonomy.

This paper describes an ongoing action research project aimed at encouraging self-study at our institution.

Setting

Toyo Gakuen University is a private university with campuses in Chiba and Tokyo. The Chiba campus serves approximately 1,200 first and second year-students, for whom English is a required subject. Most students are still at false-beginner or elementary level, despite six years of English language instruction. Motivation levels are generally low.

In 2006, the university opened an *English Lounge* at the Chiba campus. This is a relaxed, comfortable space where students can have natural conversations in English. It is open all day, with *Lounge Time* sessions at lunchtime where students can chat with a native-speaker teacher or intern over a meal. The lounge also serves as a self-access learning center, with learning support and advice available during the lunch hour. The lounge is stocked with graded readers, computers, and other learning resources.

Although the university created this English language environment, the facilities and resources remained underutilized for the first four years. Attendance at Lounge Time sessions was poor; teachers saw the same faces week after week, and attempts to attract more students through special events were largely unsuccessful. Self-reports from students suggested that few learners were making use of the website or the graded readers, or engaging in any kind of independent study. Previous action research projects showed that the student population at this university fail to engage in independent study unless supported by a tracking system which helps learners work towards set goals (Taylor, 2009; Taylor & Birchley, 2008). There was, however, no program-wide system in place to help students manage their independent study.

This was a particular problem for the authors of this study, as we faced this situation directly on a daily basis. The five native-speaker instructors are assigned regular Lounge Time sessions, and one Japanese faculty member sometimes joins these sessions. We found it difficult to generate conversational flow and maintain a vibrant atmosphere in the lounge with so few

students in such a large space, and dealing with the same students so frequently. The sessions were uncomfortable, and we felt disappointed that the lounge was not thriving. We wanted to do more to help our students make the most of the facilities provided for them and make more progress in their language learning.

Research Questions

In 2010, we decided to embark upon a collaborative action research project in an attempt to tackle these problems (Talandis, et al., 2011). The following research questions were devised:

- How can we get our students to study on their own outside of class?
- How can we boost attendance in the English Lounge?

Cycle 1: The Intervention

The intervention used in this project was a stamp card system (see Figure 1). Students were invited to earn stamps for participating in a *Lounge Time* session or event, attending a self-study support session, reading a graded reader, learning a set number of vocabulary items using the web application Smart.fm (now iKnow!), and engaging in pronunciation practice using the web application EnglishCentral. The items were chosen to encourage students to explore a range of study methods and develop in all skill areas. Both online applications allow students and teachers to track student progress.

Self-study Card		Name: _____			
Lounge time / event	1	2	3	4	
Self-study support	1	2			
Graded readers	1	2	3	4	
Smart.fm	50	50	50	50	
EnglishCentral	1000	2000	3000	4000	

Figure 1. The 2010 stamp card.

The system was implemented across the Freshman English program, chiefly in the Speaking classes. Program-wide coverage was easily achieved, since the members of this action research group teach the Speaking component of this program for almost all of the approximately 600 first-year students. Cooperation was secured with the one Speaking class taught by another faculty member in 2011, and two classes in 2012.

The program is taught by teams of four teachers, with Speaking and Reading classes held in regular classrooms, and Listening and Writing classes typically scheduled in computer rooms. There are 20-26 students in a class, and the students are divided according to department and level. The stamp cards were distributed in the Speaking classes, and students were set the target of gaining a stamp in every box, earning credit towards their Speaking course grade. There was flexibility as to whether the card was mandatory or optional, and with the amount of class time used for orientation. Some Reading, Listening and Writing teachers also collaborated with the Speaking teachers by promoting the card, providing further orientation, and counting stamps towards their course grades.

Methodology

In the first cycle of this project, teachers utilized the cards over the course of the Spring 2010 semester and gathered usage data and student feedback from an end-of-term questionnaire (see Appendix A). The authors of this study then produced written reflections on the outcomes of this stage of the project, and shared these accounts with the other members of the action research project group. Minor modifications were made before the Fall semester, with more usage data collected, in addition to student interviews. The next cycle of the project began at the start of the 2011 academic year with significant changes to the system. Further data was collected, from usage records and a feedback survey (Appendix B).

Cycle 1: Spring and Fall 2010

Spring Semester

A key difference in the way teachers implemented the stamp cards was the decision on whether or not to make card completion mandatory. Three teachers made it part of the grade, and three gave extra credit for card completion. Data on completion rates supported the mandatory approach (see Table 1). Where stamp cards were optional, the vast majority of students did not attempt any kind of study at all. However, when stamp card completion was required, most students engaged in some study, and 9% earned a stamp in every box.

Table 1

Comparison of Optional Versus Mandatory Approaches

	All	Part	None	Totals
Optional	0.5% (1)	18.0% (57)	81.7% (259)	100.0% (317)
Mandatory	9.0% (24)	46.0% (122)	45.0% (117)	100.0% (263)

Note. Numbers in parentheses represent students.

Collaboration proved to be another significant factor in achieving active student participation. Two of the Speaking teachers persuaded team teachers to promote the stamp card in some of their classes. When we compare the outcomes for these classes, it is clear that collaboration among teachers led to more students earning stamps (see Table 2). For the four classes with no

collaboration, fewer than half of the students submitted a card, compared to 60% of those in which students had this extra support from another teacher, and over 90% when two additional teachers collaborated with the Speaking teacher. Students received more encouragement and more orientation, and had a bigger incentive to earn stamps as they got more credit for their efforts. Also, unlike the Speaking teachers, the Writing and Listening teachers hold their classes in computer rooms, so it is possible to build a regular slot into each class for students to use the web applications. This allowed students to become very familiar with the tools, which enabled independent use.

Table 2

Effects of Collaboration

	All*	Part**	<i>EnglishCentral</i> Average Points	<i>Smart.fm</i> Average Points (Mastered Items)
No collaboration	6%	43%	729	18
2 teachers collaborating	0%	61%	687	48
3 teachers collaborating	86%	5%	4030	189

Note. Total number of classes = 9. *Percentage of students completing all of the card. **Percentage of students completing part of the card.

Average lounge attendance during the Spring 2010 semester increased notably over the previous year, as Figure 2 shows. The influx of students generated by the stamp cards resulted in a more vibrant and attractive lounge atmosphere, which, in turn, provided further incentive to come (see Figure 2).

On the questionnaire, a sizable proportion (9.7%) of the students commented that contact with native speakers in the lounge and opportunities to speak 生英語 [*nama-eigo* = real-live English] led to an increase in motivation. Their comments also indicated that the stamp card gave reluctant students a reason to come to the lounge, and that once students participated in a session they found it a rich experience:

English Lounge は最初は行きにくかったけど、スタンプカードのおかげで、行きやすくなった。身近に英語が感じれた [*sic*]。

[At first it was hard to go into the lounge, but thanks to the stamp card it became easier to go in there. I was able to feel English up close.]

This indicates that the stamp card can help students move out of their comfort zone to try new learning experiences.

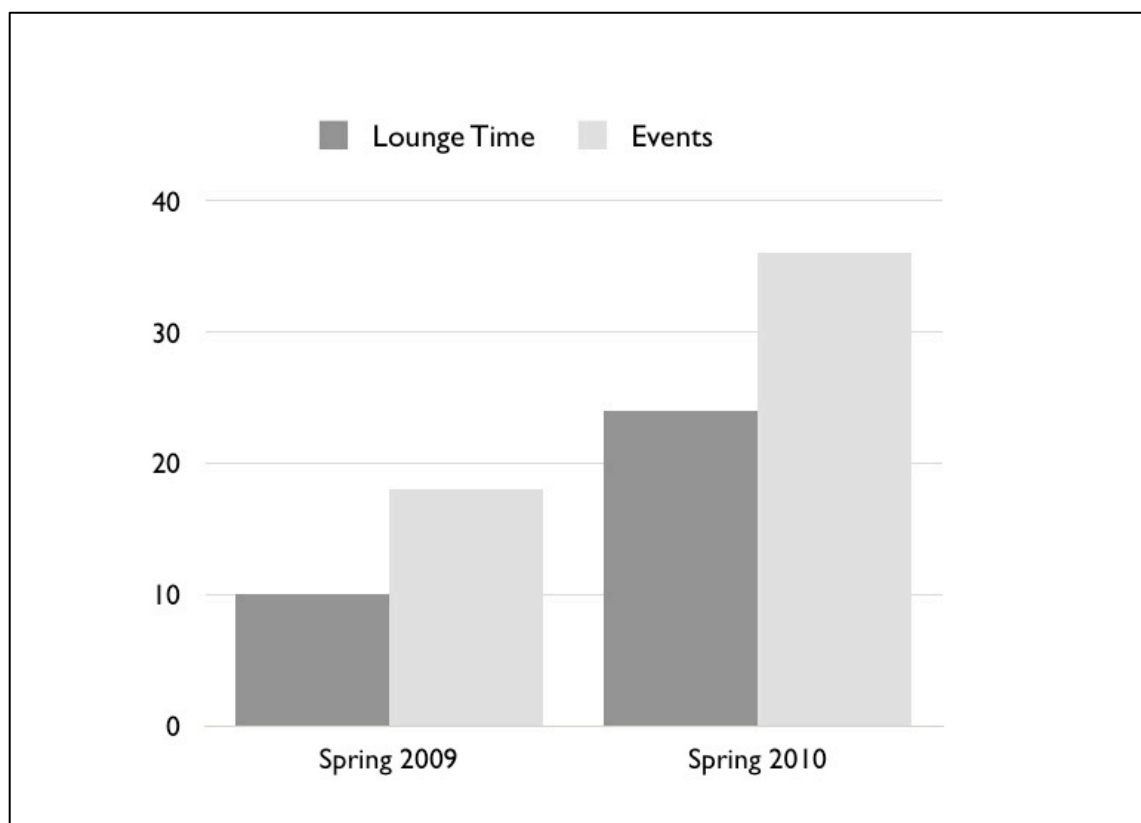


Figure 2. Comparison of the average number of students attending lounge sessions in Spring 2009 and Spring 2010.

Feedback from the questionnaire also helped identify strengths and weaknesses in the system. Some students who attempted activities reported an increase in motivation because they could improve their vocabulary, interact with native speakers more confidently, or discover new and useful learning resources. Students who did not complete the cards cited a lack of time or interest, whilst others had not understood the system or found the activities difficult, which suggested the orientation to the stamp card needed improvement. Despite the improved atmosphere, a number of students stated that it was 入りづらい [difficult to enter] the lounge.

Fall Semester

In response to the results from the Spring semester, individual teachers made a variety of minor changes for the Fall term. For example, teachers created more esthetically pleasing cards by copying the template onto heavier, glossier card or colored paper. Some teachers carried out regular progress checks and took students to a CALL room to familiarize students with the web applications. Two teachers switched from an optional approach to a mandatory approach.

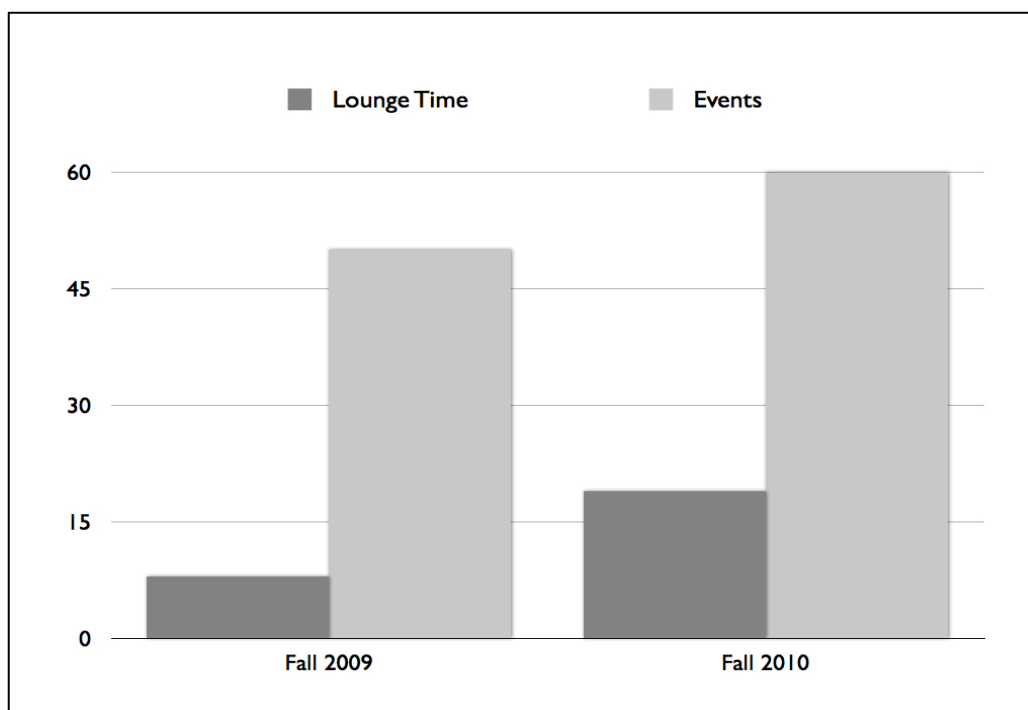


Figure 3. Comparison of the average number of students attending lounge sessions in Fall 2009 and 2010.

Results continued to improve. Lounge attendance increased from an average of nine students per session in Fall 2009 to just over 19 in Fall 2010 (see Figure 3). Furthermore, more students were able to at least partially complete their stamp cards, with 45% of the students completing some or all of the stamp card, up from 35% in the Spring semester (see Table 3).

These results supported the mandatory approach, but showed that the stamp card intervention was failing to change the behavior of more than half the students, and thus needed modification. Our aim was for all the students to engage in at least some of the stamp card activities.

Cycle 2: Intervention Modifications in Spring 2011

Based on the results of the first cycle, a number of changes were made to the stamp card system. First, all teachers made completion of the stamp card mandatory. The card now constitutes 20% of the students' grades in the speaking classes. The card has 25 boxes, and students are asked to fill 20 boxes with stamps. This builds in an element of choice, allowing students to focus on activities which they find more enjoyable or useful. The stamp card was also modified. The vocabulary web application Smart.fm became a paid service, and was therefore substituted with a free vocabulary application, [Quizlet](http://www.quizlet.com). The CD-ROM that accompanies the student textbook was introduced as an item, offering students the option of focusing on grammar. Furthermore, to provide more effective orientation, a bilingual manual was distributed in class, explaining the rationale behind the card system and each study activity, and giving detailed instructions on registering for and using the web applications.

Teachers also provided more effective monitoring by giving weekly reminders to complete the cards.

The results showed considerable improvement. The average number of students coming to a Lounge Time session in Spring 2011 was 33, compared to 24 in the first cycle of the project in 2010, and only 10 in 2009 before the stamp card system was implemented (see Figure 4). The number of students attending events in the lounge also increased from an average of 36 in the first cycle to 60 in the second cycle. The number of students completing all required tasks increased dramatically (see Table 4).

Table 3

Stamp Card Completion Fall 2010

	All	Part	None	Totals
Spring Semester	4.3% (25)	39.1% (179)	64.8% (376)	100.0% (580)
Fall Semester	6.0% (22)	39.0% (217)	55.0% (319)	100.0% (558)

Table 4

Stamp Card Completion Spring 2011

	All	Part	None	Totals
Cycle 1 (Spring 2010)	4.3% (25)	30.9% (179)	64.8% (376)	100.0% (580)
Cycle 2 (Spring 2011)	30.0% (121)	53.0% (245)	17.0% (73)	100.0% (439)

While in the first semester of 2010 only 4% of students managed to complete all the required tasks, by the end of the first semester of 2011, 30% were able to accomplish this. In fact, some students did much more than was required, filling several cards or getting extra stamps on the back of the card (see Figure 5). This indicates that the modifications to the stamp card system were effective in motivating students to engage in independent study. However, the fact that 17% of the students failed to attempt any study at all suggests that teachers need to do more to motivate and support this difficult-to-reach group.

Ultimately, the goal of the stamp card system is not merely to achieve student compliance in using the facilities, but to encourage students to develop lasting independent study habits. For this reason we included items on the questionnaire which asked students about their future intentions and expectations. The responses indicated that many students anticipate using one or more of the learning activities over the summer, and also in their second year, when they

would not be required to do so (see Figure 6). It is possible that, even though the questionnaire was anonymous, students were trying to answer in a way that pleased their teachers. Even so, these results are positive, indicating that the stamp card system may have some impact on students' ongoing study habits and development.

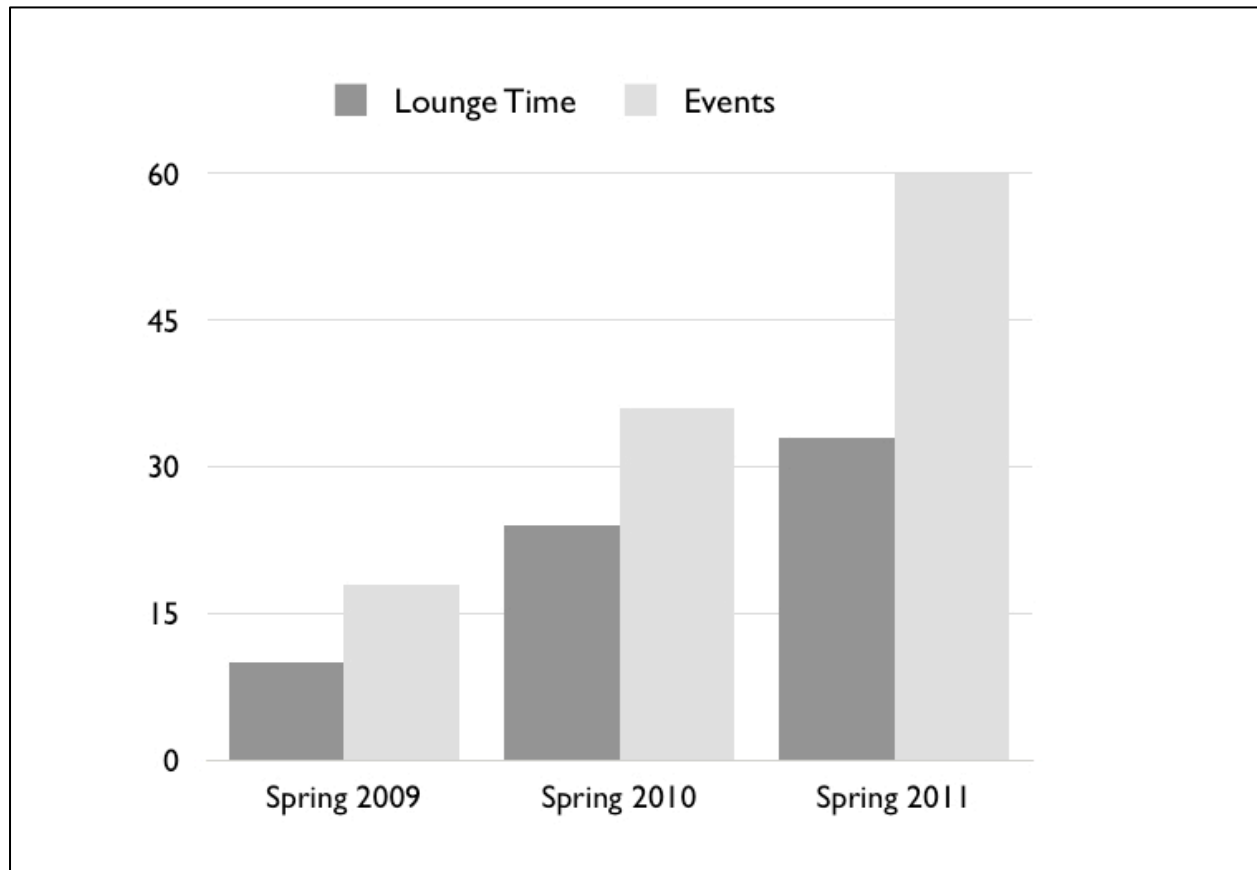


Figure 4. Comparison of the average number of students attending lounge sessions in the Spring semester 2009-2011.

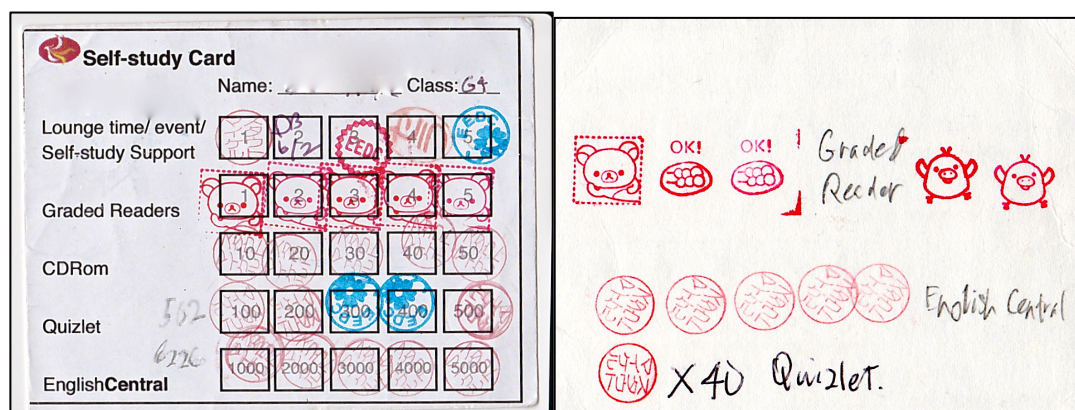


Figure 5. Stamp card with more than 20 stamps.

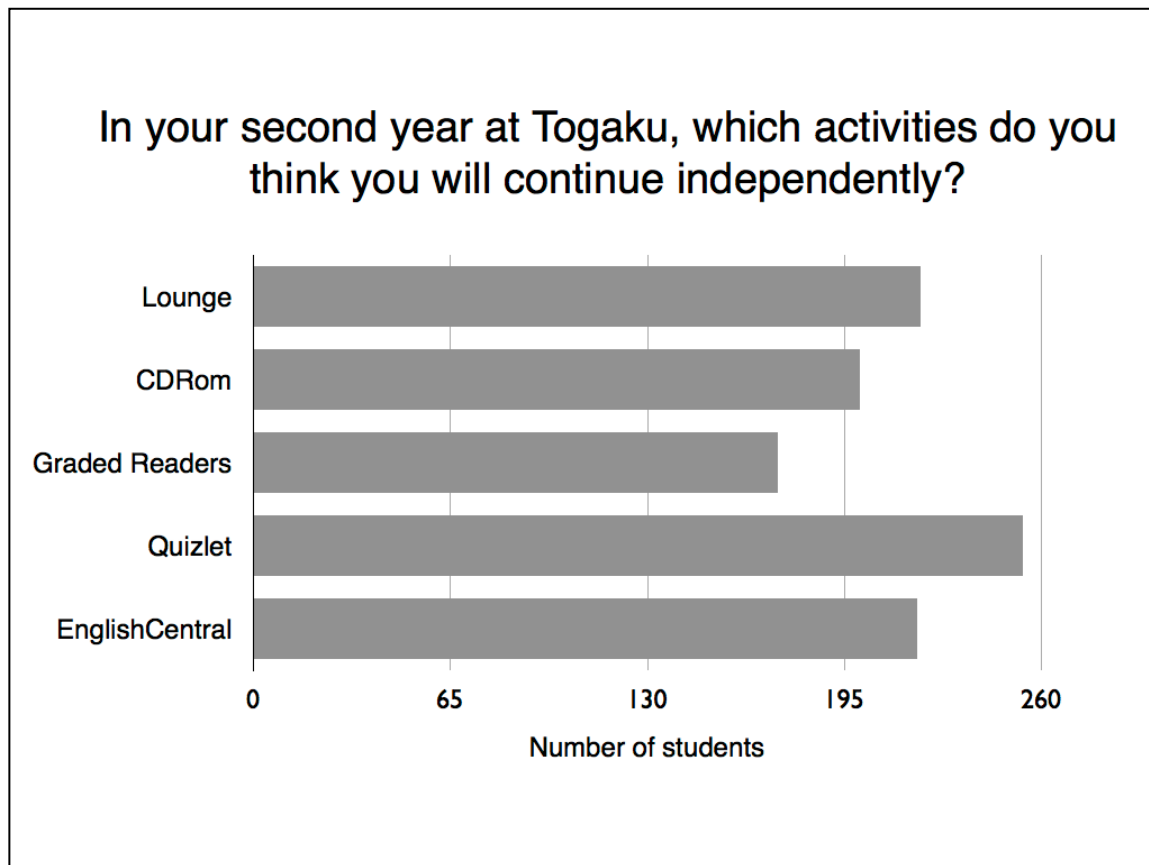


Figure 6. Student questionnaire responses on their future study plans.

Discussion

This action research project has been a journey for the participating teacher-researchers, and has impacted on our evolving beliefs about how best to foster independent learning in our student population. We have grappled particularly with the issue of learner autonomy, which we define as the learners' freedom to choose how to learn and the ability to carry out their learning plans. This requires the learners to be proactive, to "explicitly accept responsibility for their learning, share in the setting of learning goals [and] take initiatives in planning and executing learning activities" (Little, 2002). As teachers, we believe that we should empower learners by encouraging autonomy. Thus, when our English Lounge was first opened, we felt strongly that we should not force learners to make use of the facilities but instead attract them to the lounge by promoting the space and being as welcoming as possible. We also believed that we should not require university-level students to engage in any particular form of independent study outside of class time, but offer a wide range of effective and attractive resources and let students explore them and find for themselves which activities best suit their learning style. However, the failure of this approach led us to re-evaluate our stance.

It was clear that although we had given the students complete freedom in choosing how to learn, students were not able to take responsibility and exercise those choices. There were a number of obstacles for the students to overcome. Firstly, the majority of the learning resources were online, yet many students struggled even to recall their passwords to log on to the campus computers, and could not remember how to access or use the applications they were introduced to in classes. More importantly, students lacked the experience to create their own learning plans, and without any incentive to engage in independent learning, busy students failed to make time for study. Moreover, due to lack of use, the English Lounge became a somewhat stigmatized place. Students were embarrassed to be seen eating lunch with a group of teachers in the middle of a large, empty room. Overall, a culture had developed in which not studying was the norm.

The stamp card intervention aimed to tackle these obstacles, and the results indicated that it was successful. The card system made it easier for students to create a learning path by setting achievable goals and restricting the students' choices to a limited range of activities. The students could still choose when and where to study, and had considerable scope for choice within those activities (e.g., there are many genres and levels of graded readers in the library, and a choice of over 2,000 videos to study in EnglishCentral). The system gave students a reason to learn, as card completion counted towards the students' semester grades. When students had an incentive to study, they made use of the lounge and computer facilities. In turn, this increased usage rate reduced any stigma about coming to the lounge. Also, students felt the need to learn how to use the web applications, and weaker students sought help from teachers and peers. It was common to see students helping their friends access and use the applications, and working collaboratively.

As teacher-researchers we accepted that our freshman students need a structured system to help them develop autonomy, but some of us felt uncomfortable with making the stamp card mandatory. At the start of the study three teachers made the cards optional, believing that we cannot help the students learn to take responsibility for their own learning if we remove that responsibility from them. After the first set of data was collected, it was clear that the optional approach was not successful. Two teachers switched to a mandatory approach, but one teacher resisted, believing that his students could find in themselves the motivation and initiative to engage in the study activities if he promoted them more enthusiastically. Only after the second collection of data did this teacher change his views, accepting that our students are not ready yet to take on this responsibility, and need the experience of engaging in the stamp card activities for a sustained period to develop the skills, habits, and awareness needed to take charge of their own independent study.

As this project progressed, we realized the power of group action research to generate institutional change. We found a shift occurring in the culture of our campus. Entering classrooms before lessons started, we sometimes found students talking about the stamp card, discussing their motivation levels for different activities. Our students began voluntarily posting about their graded readers on Facebook, and the lounge became an increasingly

popular place to spend time. The students now have a social and psychological environment which supports independent study. This change would not have been possible if only one or two teachers had introduced the stamp card system with their students. Only a small percentage of students would have received the cards, and this would not have had the same effect on the school culture. The fact that the system has been implemented program wide is the key to its success.

Moving Forward

The project continues to impact positively on student learning behavior and the developing culture of independent learning at our institution. It is clear that a long-term commitment is required to sustain and deepen this process. The next cycle of this project will aim to improve student participation rates further through securing greater cooperation from other teachers in the Freshman English team. The project group also aims to strengthen the practice of extensive reading in English on campus by building stronger links between the stamp card activities and classwork. As the 2012 student intake moves into their second year, it will also be possible to explore how far these students continue to study English independently without the stamp card system to motivate them.

Daniel Beck, Darrell Hardy, and Keiko Omura are still based at Toyo Gakuen University, which has campuses in both Chiba and Tokyo. **Clair Taylor** now teaches at Gifu Shotoku Gakuen University and **Gerald Talandis Jr.** now teaches at the University of Toyama. **Michael Stout** will start teaching at the University of Tsukuba in September. As a group, their research interests span a range of areas including vocabulary learning, CALL, literature, project-based language learning, and online communities of practice. They share a keen interest in self-access learning and passionately believe in the power of action-research as a transformative tool for bringing about positive change in educational institutions.

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Appendix A

Questionnaire Handed out to Students at the End of the 2010 Spring Semester

基礎英語1-4A Semester 1 Questionnaire

Class _____

Your English teachers would be very happy if you could answer these questions in English or Japanese. It may take about 5 minutes.

お手数ですが、以下の簡単なアンケートにお答えください（約5分）。日本語でも、英語でも結構です。

1. How many stamps did you receive for each activity below?

以下の項目で、それぞれいくつのスタンプをもらいましたか？

- Lounge time/event _____
- Self-study support _____
- Graded readers _____
- Smart.fm _____
- EnglishCentral _____

2. What do you think the purpose of the stamp cards is?

このスタンプカードのねらいは何だと考えますか？

3. Did you find the stamp card motivating? Why or why not?

スタンプカードを使うことで、英語に対する意欲が上がりましたか？

理由も教えてください。

4. If you didn't use the stamp card, why not?

スタンプカードを使わなかった方への質問です。なぜ、使わなかったのですか？

- I was too busy 忙しかった
- I was not interested 興味がわかなかった
- I did the activities, but I forgot to get a stamp 活動はしたが、スタンプをもらうのを忘れた
- I lost my stamp card and didn't replace it スタンプカードを紛失して、新しいカードをもらわなかった
- What is a "stamp card?" スタンプカードそのものを知らない
- Other (please write) その他 _____

5. How can the stamp card system be improved?

今後、スタンプカードをより良くするためにはどうしたらいいと思いますか？

Thank you for your time!

ご協力ありがとうございました。

Appendix B

Questionnaire Handed out to Students at the End of the 2011 Spring Semester

基礎英語とスタンプカードに関するアンケート Kiso Eigo Semester 1 Stamp Card Questionnaire class _____

Your English teachers would be very happy if you could answer these questions. It may take about 2 minutes.

お手数ですが、以下の簡単なアンケートにお答えください。（所要時間2分）

1. Which KisoEigo teachers talked to you about the Stamp Card? Please circle Yes, No or Can't Remember
基礎英語の担当教員はスタンプカードについて説明しましたか？「Yes」か「No」か「覚えていない」に○を付けてください。

Did your KE1 (Grammar/Writing) teacher talk to you about the stamp card?	Yes No Can't Remember
Did your KE2 (Reading) teacher talk to you about the stamp card?	Yes No Can't Remember
Did your KE3 (Listening) teacher talk to you about the stamp card?	Yes No Can't Remember

2. Which teachers gave you class time to do Stamp Card activities, such as reading a graded reader, Quizlet, EnglishCentral, or the CD-ROM? Please circle Yes, No or Can't Remember.
どの基礎英語の担当教員が、授業内でスタンプカードの課題（グレイディッドリーダー、Quizlet、EnglishCentral、またはCD-ROM）のために時間を使いましたか？「Yes」か「No」か「覚えていない」に○を付けてください。

Did your KE1 teacher give you class time to do Stamp Card activities?	Yes No Can't Remember
Did your KE2 teacher give you class time to do Stamp Card activities?	Yes No Can't Remember
Did your KE3 teacher give you class time to do Stamp Card activities?	Yes No Can't Remember

3. Did you get enough training for the computer activities on the Stamp Card? Please circle Yes or No.
あなたは、スタンプカードの、パソコンを使った課題に取り組むために必要なパソコンの訓練を受けましたか？
「Yes」か「No」に○を付けてください。

Did you get enough training for using the CD-ROM ?	Yes No
Did you get enough training for using Quizlet ?	Yes No
Did you get enough training for using EnglishCentral ?	Yes No

4. Which activities will you use in the summer vacation? Please circle Yes or No for each.
夏休み中は、以下の課題の中で、どの課題に取り組みますか？「Yes」か「No」に○を付けて下さい。

I will use the CD-ROM in the summer vacation.	Yes No
I will use Quizlet in the summer vacation.	Yes No
I will use EnglishCentral in the summer vacation.	Yes No
I will read graded readers in the summer vacation.	Yes No

5. In your second year at Togaku, which activities do you think you will continue independently? Please circle Yes or No for each.
2年生になってからは、以下の課題の中で、どの課題を自主的に使い続けますか？「Yes」か「No」に○を付けて下さい。

I will continue coming to the English Lounge	Yes No
I will continue using the CD-ROM	Yes No
I will continue using Graded Readers	Yes No
I will continue using Quizlet	Yes No
I will continue using EnglishCentral	Yes No

Thank you for your time!

DEVELOPING A MOTIVATIONAL LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

Steven Paydon

In this paper, I propose that, by fostering interpersonal relationships in the classroom, we can help to create a productive learning environment and, consequently, enhance the conditions for personal growth in our students. Drawing on theories of motivation and group dynamics, I present a new hierarchical model representing classroom motivation, and describe each of its successive levels in turn. My workshop at the Realizing Autonomy Conference sought to demonstrate the practicability of the model by simulating a classroom with the participants. The paper concludes with a reflection on that experience and a discussion of the relationship between productive group formation and autonomous learning.

本論は教室内の対人関係の育成が生産的な学習環境の構築につながり、結果として学習者一人一人の成長を促すことを訴える。動機付け理論、及びグループダイナミクス理論に基づき、教室におけるモチベーションの新しい階層モデルと各ステップを説明する。2011年に開催のRealizing Autonomy 学会で参加者と一緒に行った模擬クラスワークショップでこのモデルの実用性を探求した。このワークショップを振り返り、生産性の高いグループの構築と自律学習の関係について考察する。

Introduction

A common concern among foreign language teachers in Japan is student motivation. This paper aims to address this concern by introducing a model of motivation that can help us better understand and create conditions for enhancing group performance, student motivation, personal growth, and learning.

Group performance refers to the quantity and quality of classroom interaction. This is an important idea in the context of communicative language teaching, where emphasis is upon developing the learners' communicative skills through participation in authentic communicative tasks (Ehrman & Dörnyei, p. 141, 1998). Motivation, here, refers to the driving force behind human endeavor. Motivation is responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity, and how hard they are going to pursue it (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 8). By looking at a group's dynamics, we can strengthen the interpersonal relationships and optimize group processes, thus dismantling barriers to communication and freeing up interaction. By looking at individual student needs, we can

appeal to the motivational drives that will both further enhance classroom task performance and, ultimately, lead to personal growth. This paper attempts to blend theories from the fields of group dynamics and motivation to provide a basic, unified model of motivation that applies to teaching and learning in a communicative and collaborative classroom context.

This paper grew out of the workshop titled Developing a Collaborative (and Productive) Learning Environment that was held at the Realizing Autonomy Conference, Nagoya, 2011. In this workshop, I introduced an original model of motivation, and then invited the participants to become students in a mock classroom exercise, enacting the steps towards developing a motivational group environment. As in the workshop, I start by explaining the theories supporting this model, and discussing the significance of its successive levels, along with ideas for practical applications in the classroom. This is followed by an account of the Nagoya workshop and my reflections upon that experience. Finally, I clarify the link between this model and other theories of autonomous learning.

Motivation Theories

The Classroom Motivation Model offers a simple construct that explains classroom motivation and justifies a special focus on the facilitation of a productive group learning environment. It draws mainly from the fields of sports psychology, group psychotherapy, education, and personal teaching experience. The model is also influenced by various motivation and group dynamics theories. First is Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET), a subtheory of Self Determination Theory (SDT). By focusing on the social environment of the classroom, CET facilitates intrinsic motivation by supporting the students' innate psychological needs (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

The Classroom Motivation Model also draws from sequential stage theories of group development. As the name suggests, sequential stage group development theories assume that groups move through stages of development. Ehrman and Dornyei (1998) have developed a four-stage model of this theory relating to the second language classroom (see Figure 1). These stages are formation, transition, performing, and dissolution. The formation stage starts when groups first come together and is a period of orientation and ice-breaking. The transition stage is characterized by conflict and resolution, or "storming and norming" (Tuckman, 1965, p. 396), where group members work through conflicts and differences before accepted behavior patterns emerge and the group matures into a unified, organized and cooperative unit. At this stage, the group has developed into a cohesive, performing unit. Dissolution begins when the sequence of developmental stages ends and the group breaks up. Awareness of these stages of group development helps us to predict how a group might behave at any given time in its development. This awareness is also particularly important when developing group performance, because a group will not be able to perform to its potential until it has reached the phase of development that supports it.

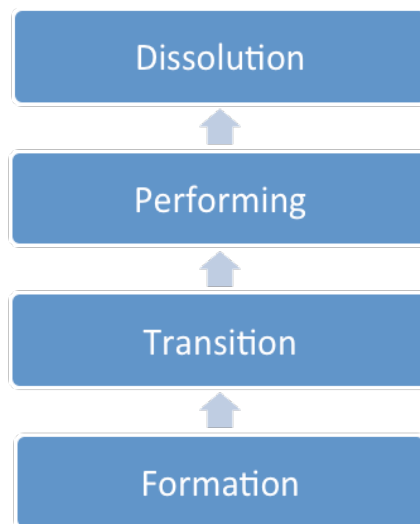


Figure 1. Ehrman and Dörnyei's Group Development model (based on Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998).

Another motivational theory that underlies the Classroom Motivation Model is Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943) (see Figure 2). Maslow maintains that we all have varying levels of needs, and that the lower-level needs must be met before we can progress to the next higher level. For example, our most basic needs are physiological. We need things like food, shelter, and sleep, and these needs must be mostly satisfied before we become interested in the next level: safety. The key point that relates to classroom motivation is that higher needs, such as language learning and personal growth, are unlikely to be met if a basic need for security has not been satisfied first.

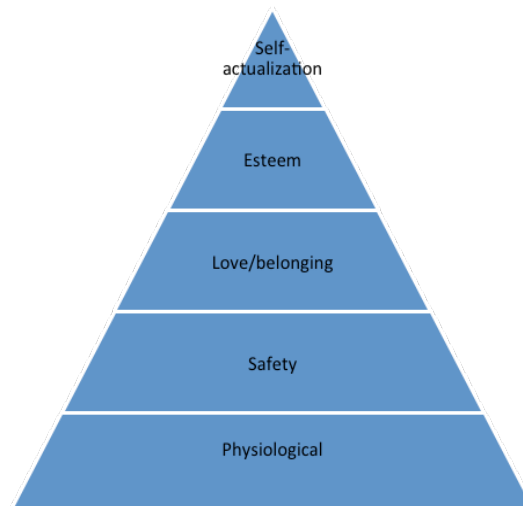


Figure 2. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (based on Maslow, 1943).

The Classroom Motivation Model

The model I introduce here has five levels (see Figure 3). The bottom four levels—structure, trust, cohesion and performance—can be seen as steps leading to group development, while the fifth level represents personal growth. The levels are not mutually exclusive; however, each level is built on the one that precedes it. Performance is the primary aim of the model in the classroom, and the stages leading to performance focus on what the group needs to realize this aim. At the performance stage, which is similar to Erhman and Dörnyei's (1998) performing stage, the group has matured into a unified, organized, and cooperative unit in action. The group's interpersonal relationships and group processes have been enhanced, the group has become important to its members, and students are interacting freely and willingly to achieve their group aims. In other words, the quality and quantity of interaction has been optimized and the performance goal has been reached. Once the students have reached the stage where they have matured as a group, and are achieving optimal performance as part of their group, they are ready to progress as individuals to the final stage. Here sits the ultimate goal of personal growth. In the context of a communicative classroom, this ultimate aim provides further potential to extend student performance and maintain motivation. Let's take a look at the steps in detail.

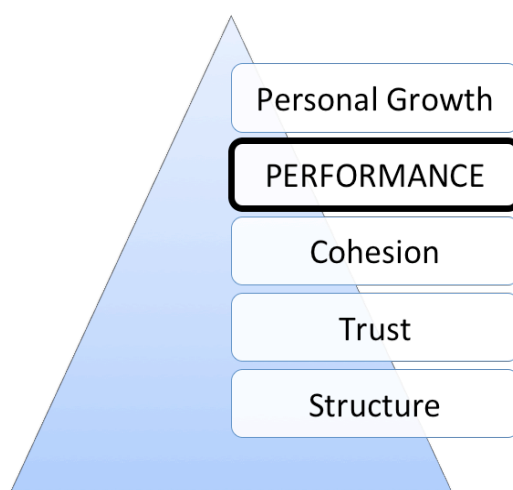


Figure 3. The Classroom Motivation Model.

Structure

The Classroom Motivation Model begins by focusing on structure. Structure refers to both physical and the social structure, and is the basic foundation upon which all progressive levels of the model are built. Physical structure refers to the tangible environment the students study in: the room size, seating arrangements, and lighting, for example. Social structure refers to “the pattern of relationships that emerges among its members” (Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998, p. 76). Whether we recognize it or not, right from the very first time students are assembled into

a group, a structure begins to develop. During this time, peer relations, status hierarchies, role and norm systems are developing that will prevail for a long time (Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998, p. 110; Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003, p. 12, pp. 14-15). Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) emphasize that this is a very important period in a group's life (p. 12). While on the surface things might seem smooth and harmonious during the initial classes, under the surface, plenty of structuring and internal organization is going on (p. 12, pp. 14-15). With a little input in the right places at the right times, the teacher can influence the way that structure develops, and encourage a positive group environment to evolve.

According to MacLennon and Dies (1992), the physical environment of the classroom affects not only the climate and quality of interaction, but also how the group will evolve. In order for students to develop into one cohesive group, they need to look and feel like one group. If there is too much space between students, they can experience feelings of insignificance, emptiness, isolation, and anxiety (p. 22). These feelings can encourage subgroups and cliques to develop, and will result in a fractured group. As Ehrman and Dörnyei (1998) suggest, "Physical closeness tends to lead to psychological closeness" (p. 143). Students should not be seated so close together that they feel crowded or confined, but neither should they be seated too far apart (MacLennon & Dies, 1992, p. 22). One practical idea is to provide an organized seating plan. A grid system usually works best. Bring the students in together and give each a designated seat. This immediately alleviates student anxiety over where they should sit. This organization will provide three important elements for developing a group: proximity, contact, and interaction (Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998, pp. 142-144).

Once the class physically resembles a group, it is time to start working on the social structure. One way to encourage a positive social structure is by working on a set of class rules with the students. Let them know that this is their class, and that they should have their own rules. Give them examples, and then together discuss what kinds of rules they might like for their class. Next, brainstorm the rules on the board, and then, go through a process of negotiation. Negotiation is important because students will likely come up with some untenable ideas. However, through a process of negotiation the teacher and students can come to an agreement that suits both parties. Some common examples of class rules from in my own classes include:

- We can drink in class.
- If we finish our work, we can leave early.
- We must have a class party.

Each of these student-generated class rules contributes to the development of a positive learning environment. The negotiation of a rule to allow drinks in class, for example (a compromise on the usual ban on eating and drinking), helps students personalize the classroom. The decision to leave once the work is done motivates them to work hard and rewards them for doing so. A class party always creates a great opportunity for the teacher to reward the students for their hard work with something they will not only all enjoy, but that

will also contribute to developing a positive group dynamic. A party is also a helpful way to motivate students for a final project or assessment. By encouraging them to work hard towards a major goal, and scheduling a party to celebrate its completion, the two become associated together and the students have something to look forward to, knowing that their hard work is not solely for assessment purposes.

Student-generated class rules also influence the basis of the social structure, and help to establish a norm system. A positive norm system is essential for a good class. As Forsyth (2010) explains, "Norms are a fundamental element of a group's structure, for they provide direction and motivation, organize social interactions, and make other people's responses predictable and meaningful" (p. 145). In this way, the rules help to guide accepted norms of classroom behavior. Consequently, as Cohen (1994) observes, an accepted norm system has the effect of transferring control from the teacher to the students:

Much of the work that teachers usually do is taken care of by the students themselves; the group helps to keep everyone on task; group members assist one another. Instead of the teacher having to control everyone's behavior, the students take charge of themselves and others. (p. 60)

A final advantage to involving students in developing a set of class rules is that these rules help to personalize the class and give the students a sense of ownership and control—in other words, autonomy.

The emphasis on structure may seem somewhat restrictive. However, we can't have freedom without some constraint. Stewart and Irie (2011) point out that "... freedom and constraint are held in direct dialectical relationship to each other, and that this tension between freedom and constraint is particularly salient for teachers who base their classroom practices on the principle of learner autonomy" (p. 14). As they point out, one of the traditional roles of the teacher, and institutions, is to provide structure in order to manage and control the process of learning (p. 15). Of course, there is a need for a balance between freedom and constraint. However, establishing some structure provides the students with a basic stable framework within which they can thrive. Structure in the form of classroom norms, for example, provides the students with an ability to understand what is expected of them, and security comes from that understanding. This, in turn, makes it easier for students to interact freely. Once a structure has been established, then the groundwork will have been laid from which trust can grow.

Trust

As Lencioni (2002) observes, trust lies at the heart of any functioning, cohesive team (p. 195). Trust is the confidence among a group's members that their classmates' intentions are good, and that there is no need to be defensive or careful around them (Lencioni, 2002, p. 195). According to MacLennan and Dies (1992), trust is a willingness to risk self-exposure:

Trust implies expectation. When two people trust each other, they make demands on the other to respond in a particular way. One has confidence in the predictability of the other, and anticipation that the other will respond in terms of what is needed, an expectation that the other will not inflict hurt, and a belief in the other's consistency. (p. 19)

Trust is especially important in a language class. Learning to speak a second language, especially at the lower levels, requires students to constantly risk potential embarrassment. They will avoid interaction if they feel they might lose face and, thus, energy will be wasted on avoiding potentially negative interactions and staying safe. These dysfunctional interactions divert energy and attention away from group tasks (Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998, p. 2; Lencioni, 2002, p. 196). When students don't trust each other, their resources are focused on simply keeping themselves out of trouble. However, when a group's participants do trust each other, they are more willing to take risks, and they can focus their energy on group tasks.

The first step to developing trust is to encourage interaction. The teacher now needs to implement ways for the students to share information about themselves in order to discover similarities and develop interpersonal attraction. Set up activities that facilitate interaction, such as, "Find-someone-who ..." exercises, random pairing/grouping, and information-exchange activities. We are drawn to people we have something in common with, and feel empathy towards people with whom we share similarities. One important point is to get all of the students in the class mixing with as many other students as possible. If they mix only with those they already feel comfortable with, then there is a danger of cliques developing. Random pairing is important because it encourages students to invest in the whole group, rather than just their friends, since they never know who their next partner will be. When students know that they might be partners with someone in the future, it positively affects how they regard the others in the group (Erhman & Dörnyei, 1998, p. 143). When a level of trust has developed, and the participants are interacting freely, then it's time to develop the cohesion.

Cohesion

Structure, trust, and cohesion are all closely related. Structure provides the basic proximity, contact, interaction, and security that will facilitate the development of trust. Whereas trust helps the group to function effectively, interpersonal relationships build the cohesion that will power the group's performance. Without first establishing trust, cohesion would never have the opportunity to develop. Cohesion grows out of the confidence to take the risks that trust provides. Lind (1999) describes the relationship between trust and cohesion thus:

... mutual trust must be built between group members before the group can be cohesive. The mutual trust between group members then results in the group members interacting with each other to a greater degree. When a high level of group trust exists, the group members will feel more tightly bound and connected into the group activities. Thus group cohesiveness emerges from group trust. (p. 859)

The cohesion level in this model also draws on the ideas from the field of social psychology. Ryan and Deci (2000) maintain that we have three basic psychological needs that enhance motivation and mental health—autonomy, competence, and relatedness—which, when thwarted, lead to diminished motivation and well-being. The cohesion stage of the model appeals to the need for relatedness by supplying the students with a social context within which they can satisfy this need. Similarly, this stage also relates to Maslow's (1943) love/belonging level of needs, as well as to Baumeister and Leary's (1995) Need to Belong Theory, which maintains that human beings have a pervasive drive to form and maintain at least a minimum number of lasting, positive, and significant interpersonal relationships. This need to belong is considered a fundamental human motivator (p. 497).

To maintain the cohesiveness of the class as a whole, students must be given opportunities to interact with all the other members of the group. Changing partners often, and with a sense of randomness, remains important throughout the course. Cohesion is the glue that binds a group of people together. That glue is made up of all the interpersonal relationships shared throughout the group. The strength of the bonds shared by the participants determines the degree of cohesion of the group. As all these interpersonal relationships are woven throughout the group, binding all the members together, the group starts to resemble a tapestry. If you pull the corner of a tapestry in one direction, the rest will follow. Just like a tapestry, if you encourage a cohesive group to move in one direction, they will move together.

Social structure, trust, and cohesion are all intangible elements. However, you can sense the cohesion in a class that has it. This is the class where students hang around after the bell and look like they don't want to leave. You can also recognize the absence of cohesion in a class that doesn't have it. This is the class where, after the bell has gone, they can't wait to get out the door!

Performance

Once structure, trust, and cohesion have been established, the group has matured. They should now be a unified, organized, and cooperative unit. Up until this point, the focus has been on removing barriers to group performance. Now it is time to focus on motivating the group to optimize performance. Three areas of opportunity for increasing motivation at this level lie in intensifying the interpersonal relationships, working on the group members' social identity, and providing optimal challenge.

Referring again to the model, it is worth noting that Evans and Dion (1991) found group cohesion and performance are positively related. When a group is high in cohesion, the relationships the students have with each other become the source of motivation. Maslow's (1943) Hierarchy of Human Needs again offers some insight into this idea. Once we have progressed up through the levels of physiological needs, safety, and need to belonging, we come to the level of the need for esteem. At this level, we are looking for positive reinforcement, and here is the connection between cohesion and motivation. The strong bonds that the students have developed at the cohesion level will lead the students to seek respect and positive

reinforcement from the classmates with whom they share these bonds, motivating them to try harder, do better, and achieve more.

Another idea for increasing motivation at the performance level is to increase students' identification with the group. Social identity theory suggests that when individuals derive their sense of self and identity from the group, they expend extra effort for their group (Forsyth, 2010, p. 298). Therefore, the more important the group is to them, the harder the students will work because they will not want to let their fellow group members down.

One simple but effective way to increase social identification is to take a group photo. The group photograph establishes each student as part of the group. Combined with a positive group experience, the group photo will reinforce a sense of belonging to a rewarding group, and this helps make the group more important. So, early on in the group's life, take the students outside, or have a class party, and take a group photo of them having fun. Then use that photo on some classroom worksheet, for example, so that they each get a copy of it to keep and look back on.

The third motivational consideration is aiming for optimal challenge. Both the concepts of SDT and *flow* are important here. CET, a subtheory of SDT, emphasizes the psychological need for competence. Similarly, Csikszentmihalyi's (2001) concept of flow also calls for clear proximal goals (p. 90). This means that to activate intrinsic motivation, tasks need to be at a level where the students are neither bored because the task is too easy, nor overloaded because the task is too difficult. What is needed is a Goldilocks factor of optimal challenges that will foster competence. Recounting an interview with Csikszentmihalyi for the *New York Times*, Goleman (1995) relates that Csikszentmihalyi told him:

People seem to concentrate best when the demands on them are a bit greater than usual, and they are able to give more than usual. If there is too little demand on them, people are bored. If there is too much for them to handle, they get anxious. Flow occurs in that delicate zone between boredom and anxiety (p. 92).

Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi (2001) further relate how people in a "flow" state experience the activity itself as intrinsically rewarding, they lose track of time, their awareness merging with their actions as they become intensely focused on what they are doing at the present moment (p. 90). I believe this concept of flow resonates with the classroom motivation model introduced here.

To increase investment in a relationship, students need to take more risk with regard to trust. As suggested earlier, in the early stages of developing the students' relationships, we might facilitate ways for them to discover similarities they have with each other, because this leads to interpersonal attraction. But to make those bonds grow stronger, they need to share incrementally more intimate information about, for example, their strengths and weaknesses, or their greatest fears. By taking more interpersonal risk, and investing higher levels of trust, the interpersonal bonds grow stronger and the relationships intensify. The stronger the

relationships are, the harder the students will work for each other. Therefore, at this level, we need to include activities that will strengthen those interpersonal relationships.

As for aiming for optimal challenge, this of course relies on the teacher's judgment and autonomy. Teachers can also be challenged by institutional constraints here, for example. However, with adequate course flexibility, a good project that works here is small group poster presentations. Both the ideas of CET and flow also outline a need for feedback on progress (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 70; Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2001, p. 90). Poster presentations offer an opportunity to break the project up into smaller steps that can be achieved more easily. These steps can then be aimed at the appropriate level of challenge. Poster presentation projects also offer an opportunity for students to work towards, and receive, positive reinforcement from both their classmates and the teacher. Each step is rehearsed, and each presentation is given multiple times, allowing students to practice, improve, and impress.

Performance has been the primary aim of the model up to this point. For any course, this is a good initial aim. However, when teachers have adequate autonomy to tailor a course to their students needs, then the ultimate goal of the model—personal growth—offers significant potential to extend performance and maintain motivation.

Personal Growth

Up until this point the focus has been on group needs. However, at the apex of the hierarchy, the focus shifts to the individual. Personal growth sits at the top of the pyramid because, as humanistic psychologists like Maslow and Rogers have pointed out, personal growth is an inherent human need (Dörnyei, 2001, p.8). Once the group has reached the level of performance, personal growth as a higher goal offers the potential to maintain, or extend, motivation.

In the context of a class, keeping students motivated after a major project has been completed can be difficult. A class that has high levels of cohesion may start to focus more on social relationships for interpersonal reinforcement; thus, getting them back on task can be challenging. I had this exact problem with a year-long course I had been teaching for a number years. I seemed to be able to get the students motivated to perform in the first semester, but, in the second semester, it was difficult to get the group refocused and on task. To make matters worse, this particular class was taken in the students' third year and many of the students were preoccupied with job hunting. Their school days were coming to an end and they were thinking a lot more about what they were going to do after they finished school, rather than what they were doing in school.

I thought about where they were in life and how I could tailor the classroom content around something that might hold significance in the next stage of their lives. If I could deliver something that rewarded them in terms of personal growth, then maybe I could reengage them. Following this thought process, and after having some success with using identity and values as content in previous courses, I came up with the idea of writing personal mission statements. Much like a company writes a mission statement that clarifies its identity, its

values, and its goals, we started a project that explored each of these elements in the context of the students' own life. We explored the notion of identity, and the students then used it to clarify their own identities. This helped the students to discover what is important to them, how people relate to them, and who they are. We also explored the notion of values and learnt about how values influence our decisions. The last topic we explored was the importance of goals, and the students set some life goals. Finally, the students drafted and peer edited personal mission statements. Their peers were people they respected, such as their parents, brothers, sisters, teachers, or best friends. I supplied a worksheet prompting peers to comment on specific areas of the students' mission statements. When the students brought their peer feedback to the class, the comments were shared and used to redraft and improve their statements. By the end of the project the students had defined who they were, what was important to them, what they wanted out of life, and all these things (their identity, values, and goals) had been influenced and reinforced by their peers. Throughout the project, they learned a lot about themselves and how others perceived them.

The group dynamic supported the conditions necessary for achieving personal growth. The students had high levels of trust in each other, and their group members' opinions were important to them. These conditions helped the students to remain engaged and motivated in the English class as they reached towards the ultimate level of the Classroom Motivation Model; that of personal growth.

Conference Workshop Experience

The model presented above is a staged approach to developing motivation in the classroom. I have found it an effective basis for managing classes, and the Realizing Autonomy conference provided a timely opportunity to share it with others. Aiming to show how classroom performance can be enhanced, the workshop took a collection of casual acquaintances (the workshop participants) and endeavored to turn them into a cohesive, performing group.

About 20 participants came to the workshop. The first step was to pair everyone up and seat them all in a semicircle. In this way, a basic, physical group structure was initiated and participants started the workshop with proximity, contact and the ability to interact easily. Next, I gave a brief overview of the Classroom Motivation Model and explained that the aim of the workshop was to develop our group in order to reach the Performance stage. We started to build the group's social structure by discussing a few basic rules along the lines of being proactive, encouraging others, and participating equally. The rules helped the participants to understand what was expected of them and created an environment in which trust could grow. Once friendly interpersonal relationships had been established throughout the group, and trust had started to develop, we worked on developing group cohesion and then on intensifying those relationships. We began by sharing non-intrusive information, but, gradually, through a series of trust-building activities, the participants were challenged to share incrementally more personal information as their levels of trust developed. I monitored their responsiveness or

resistance to the activities during this process, and these were used as indicators to determine when the group was ready to advance to the next level of interpersonal risk-taking. In this way, the participants were increasing interpersonal investment, sharing incrementally more personal information, developing their interpersonal relationships, and these all resulted in strengthening the cohesive bonds.

The final task tested the proposition that we can increase performance by developing the group dynamics and combining these with individual motivational drives. The participants were regrouped, given another short task to establish their new subgroup's dynamic, and then were told a story. The story had five characters. Each character had a flaw, and the task for each group was to retell the story, discuss the merits of each character, and, together, place the characters in order from best to worst. The real purpose of the task was to demonstrate how the enhanced interpersonal relationships and group process facilitated reaching the performance level as the participants discussed the story. Throughout the exercise, the relationships were enhanced, the participants were proactive, and communication flowed freely. In the final summary and feedback segment of the workshop, the participants indicated that we had successfully demonstrated the effectiveness of enhancing performance by developing group dynamics.

Reflection

Although somewhat artificial, the workshop simulation seemed to be a success. Building a strongly bonded, highly productive group takes more time than the workshop really allowed. However, the final task suggested that, by focusing on the different steps in succession, building interpersonal relationships and developing the group, we were able to enhance performance. The feedback at the end of the workshop, and informal discussions with participants afterward, reinforced this idea.

On a personal level, the workshop was rewarding for me, too. Discussing personal experiences with participants, both about their classes and about the workshop, helped me to understand how others grapple with the concepts I presented. These discussions gave me confidence in the model as the stages I proposed were generally accepted by the participants.

From Structure to Autonomy

Setting up the conditions in which students can achieve personal growth starts by establishing group structure. On the physical level, this means ensuring group proximity, contact, and the ability to interact freely. Combined with social structure, it assists the establishment of interpersonal trust, and as trust develops throughout the group, it will lead to strong interpersonal relationships. Developing these interpersonal relationships also assists the development of student autonomy. Little (2009) advocates that interdependence and autonomy are basic human needs, and elsewhere states that “learner autonomy, which implies

freedom from the control of others, turns out to be the product of interactive processes that are characterized not by independence but by *interdependence*” (Little, Ridley, & Ushioda, 2002, p. 7, italics author’s own). This point fits in with the Classroom Motivation Model where the focus, in the initial stages, is on developing interpersonal relationships within the group. The model highlights the importance of building group structure as an essential precursor to developing constructive, interdependent relationships in which learners are encouraged to push themselves to excel, and from which they can achieve personal growth. Students cannot operate in the group freely until they feel secure and trust the whole group. Only when the group has structure and trust will they feel relatively free to focus on their learning goals.

When a classroom group becomes cohesive, students act as one group, rather than as a fragmented collection of individuals. At this level of development, the teacher can hand over incrementally more direction of the class to the students. This feeds the students’ need for autonomy, giving them input into their own learning goals and exploiting their own motivations to design and facilitate new activities, allowing them to ultimately reach towards personal growth.

The interpersonal relationships we share in a classroom are one of the most important elements of teaching and learning. Palmer (1998) stated that “teachers possess the power to create conditions that can help students learn a great deal—or keep them from learning much at all”, and that “teaching is the intentional act of creating those conditions” (p. 7). By developing a positive, supportive learning environment, teachers can free students to focus on their learning goals. Although, perhaps, not all classes may reach the performance level—let alone personal growth—the advantages of developing a strongly bonded, smoothly functioning group will always yield some reward in enhanced performance. We cannot guarantee that all students will learn or grow in our classes, but we can help create a motivating environment in which this is possible.

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EXPLORING AND TRANSFORMING: A DIALOGUE ON SELF-REFLECTIVE PRACTICES FOR TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

Rob Moreau & Jackie Suginaga

Critical self-reflection is an example of a transformative process. We can use it to reshape existing knowledge and beliefs, and enhance what we do on a professional and personal level. As an application of self-reflective practices, this post-conference report has been written as a dialogue. Reflecting together, as we have done, has proved to be a powerful way for us to develop our individual thinking and open up new perspectives on critical reflection on our work and working environments. We hope that this dialogue, in turn, will act as a catalyst for change in our own professional development, and serve as an inspiration to our colleagues and our students.

批判的に自己を振り返ることは潜在的な変化の過程である。自分が持っている知識や信条を作り直すため、教師、個人レベルでの考えや実践を高めるために、批判的な自己の振り返りを使うことができる。自己の振り返りを発展させるものとして、この大会後のレポートは対話形式で書かれている。この形式は、著者にとって個人の思考を超え、新たな視点を開くために有効な道具になると考えたからだ。そしてそれが私達自身が教師として成長するための触媒の役目を果たし、学習者にも同じ効果をもたらすことを期待するものである。

Origins: A Chat in the Teachers College Library, August 2010

Our roundtable presentation at the Realizing Autonomy conference grew out of a poster presentation we gave at Nakasendo in June 2011, which, in turn, evolved from a chance meeting in the library at Teachers College, Tokyo a while back. The chat that day went something like this:

Rob: So, what's your MA paper on, Jackie?

Jackie: Well, overall, it's about teacher autonomy in relation to teacher development on a professional and also a personal level. I talk about how people like Dick Allwright, Phil Benson and others maintain that teacher education is most effective when it's blended with approaches like reflective practice, action research, and exploratory practice.

Rob: What are the differences between these practices?

Jackie: Well, basically, reflective practice requires teachers to critically reflect on the relationship between teaching and learning; action research is studying classroom practices in order to understand them better or solve particular problems; and exploratory practice is where teachers work together with their students to develop their mutual knowledge and understanding of learning. You could say that action research focuses more on investigating a problem, with the end result being an action taken to improve the quality of teaching. Action research also tends to require a lot more planning and adherence to an academic research model, compared to exploratory practice, which seeks to tackle “puzzles” in the classroom in creative and practical ways that involve and benefit learners (Allwright & Hanks, 2009). So exploratory practice focuses less on the action per se and more on understanding. But both types of research require teachers to engage in reflection, which, in turn, can lead to greater teaching expertise.

Rob: I see. I wrote about teacher development too. And I also discussed the need for teachers to focus on self-reflection as a way to continue to grow and develop throughout their careers. In my paper, I wrote about one goal of teacher education programs being the fostering of professionalism and life-long development in teachers, and about the central role that self-reflection plays in accomplishing this. In teacher training courses, novice teachers usually study a variety of core subjects, such as second language acquisition, grammar, and phonetics and phonology, among others, which can be extremely useful in developing a knowledge base that allows teachers to better understand the subject they are teaching. However, this is only one part of the picture. There must also be a focus on how teachers can adapt this knowledge to better suit the needs of their teaching contexts and then continue to refine their understanding to meet the changing dynamics of their classrooms. With the understanding gained through self-reflection, teachers can improve their teaching methodology and create more learning opportunities for students. An added bonus of this is that, in being reflective practitioners themselves, teachers may become role models for their students, encouraging them to develop their own reflective practices and find strategies that might help them become more effective language learners.

Jackie: So, while both of us have looked into reflective practice, I’ve approached it through action research and exploratory research as ways to understand and solve problems of learning, whereas you come at it from the point of view of enhancing teachers’ professional development.

Before the Conference: Reflections on the Planning Stage

As the date of the Realizing Autonomy Conference drew nearer, we put our heads together to come up with issues that interested or puzzled us about critical reflection.

Rob: So, what kind of things did you think about when we started to plan our presentation?

Jackie: I thought about the constraints and limitations that reflective practitioners have to deal with. From personal experience, many teachers don't get much opportunity or encouragement at work to engage in reflection. Professional or personal self-development is something that tends to occur, for many of us, outside of our teaching jobs. In my case, this started with my MA. For others, it may be through involvement with a group like the Learner Development SIG. So, with little or no guidance or support from our places of work, an initial problem is knowing where or how to start.

Rob: I agree it can be a pretty overwhelming task. As teachers today seem to be becoming busier and busier, they might think they really don't have the time to look critically at their teaching practice and the context in which they work.

Jackie: And then, on the other hand, some teachers do have the time, but may not have the awareness that what happens in their classrooms could be improved as a result of taking time for reflection. So a basic aim of our presentation was to highlight that critical self-reflection requires relatively little time, but can offer substantial rewards.

Rob: I know that we were both excited about sharing the knowledge we had gained from reading the literature on reflective practice. Let me just read this quote from Brookfield (1995), which I've found very helpful as a way to think about the benefits of reflection:

Reflection becomes critical when it has two distinct purposes. First is to understand how considerations of power undergird, frame and distort educational processes and interactions. The second is to question assumptions and practices that seem to make our teaching lives easier but actually work against our own best long-term interests. (p. 8)

Jackie: That's a pretty powerful statement. I think that it takes a lot of courage to acknowledge the constraints of power. It's easier to take for granted the conditions of our teaching context, for example, an uncongenial arrangement of desks in the classroom or a restrictive curriculum, rather than questioning and, perhaps, seeking to change them. Similarly, relating to Brookfield's second purpose, many of us may feel that questioning our own beliefs is easier to forego than to face. In fact, if we don't reflect deeply, it may sometimes be because we are too attached to our beliefs and don't want to consider the possibility of changing them—even when changing them would clearly be beneficial.

Rob: That's right. Brookfield, again, gives some good examples of the danger of being too attached to our own and others' beliefs. I like his example of how student journals and learning logs are now all the rage (Brookfield, 1995, p. 13). Because it is such a common practice, a teacher may believe that logs must be beneficial to all their students across the board. But, for some students who don't feel they have such interesting lives, writing a journal may become an activity that just makes them feel even more inadequate, instead of being a positive means to express themselves in English. This example shows the need for teachers to try to get inside the heads of their students, and avoid just sticking to "accepted" methods and procedures. I

feel that digging deeper to understand our practice better is something that can evolve over time.

Jackie: Yes, becoming a critically reflective practitioner is something that doesn't happen overnight. So, I think that we should always remember to question what we are doing with our learners and why, and encourage our students to do the same.

At the Conference: Reflections on How the Events Unfurled

On the day of the conference, we looked forward to presenting and discussing these ideas with participants. We set the scene with a brief review of the literature on autonomy, teacher autonomy, critical reflection and how these concepts are interrelated. Then we invited the 12 participants to form groups and brainstorm answers to the following questions: What is reflection? What are the reasons for engaging in reflection, and what are the reasons we often don't? How should we go about reflection? When is a good time to reflect? After brainstorming, the participants made posters of their ideas.

Rob: I like how we staged our roundtable presentation. The participants appeared to share our enthusiasm for the subject and were very receptive to what we had to share.

Jackie: Yes, that worked well, but I think we both felt that we could have cut down on some time spent on the review of the literature, so that we could have moved more quickly on to the discussion.

Rob: You're right. I also think we were a bit overambitious. But what did you think of the poster-making section?



Figure 1. Poster with ideas about how we should reflect as teachers.



Figure 2. Poster with ideas about when we should reflect as teachers.



Figure 3. Poster with ideas about how we should reflect as teachers.

Jackie: When I had a look at the video of the presentation, I could see that the poster-making session was a productive activity and everyone was engaged in animated conversations about their reflection topic. Of course, we did have a number of distinguished participants, which definitely helped.

Rob: Many of the comments on the posters were very intriguing, and some touched a personal note concerning certain limitations in the way I reflect now. For example, one of the posters (Figure 1) simply stated, “Comments later don’t make sense.” I recalled how many of the

jottings in my notebooks fit that description perfectly. This has encouraged me to try to be more systematic about my reflections to avoid such random jottings in the future. I also thought the poster that depicted reflection as a cycle of moments before, during, and after teaching was effective (Figure 2) because it tied in with Schön's (1987) ideas of reflecting-in-action and reflecting-on-action. That's to say, thinking on your feet and reflecting on these decisions afterwards can be an important part of teacher development. It's good to remind yourself that reflection is a process, and not just a point in time. What did you discover, Jackie?

Jackie: The comments "Don't fill the vacuum" (Figure 3) and "detachment" (Figure 1) hit home especially for me. Personally, I feel that these two concepts are always wrestling with each other. When I set aside time for reflection and try to detach myself to see the bigger picture, I find that the pressures of time and the desire to do other things (making materials, researching the literature, etc.) are pulling me in the other direction. This, I have realized, is to some extent a time-management issue. Also, I feel that I need to be mindful of how I spend my time and cultivate new habits of reflection without turning that practice into a mechanical routine. I think one way I can do this is to remind myself of the immense benefits reflection could bring to both my students and myself.

Rob: The posters and discussion were really the highlight of the session, but I'm glad we got to fit a survey into the final few minutes (see Appendix A). We got a lot of interesting comments, didn't we?

Jackie: We certainly did. Both the survey and the round table discussions reinforced my suspicions that, although we are well aware of the need to reflect, many of us fail to do so for a number of reasons. I'll just review what some of the participants said. Perhaps not surprisingly, everyone who attended the session said that they do reflect on their teaching. On a scale of 1 to 5, ten people wrote 5, that it was very important to engage in self-reflection, and two people wrote 4. However, although most participants said they engage in reflection, when asked "what factors might keep you from reflecting on your teaching?" one person stated they "have no one to reflect with", while another commented they "don't see the value in it". Moreover, two people wrote that they have "work overload" and seven people said that they "don't have time" to reflect. This suggests that we need to find creative ways to tackle these obstacles that, despite our best intentions, prevent us from engaging in self-reflection. I understand that this may be easier said than done, but feel that if we don't make the time to detach and reflect from time to time in both a professional and personal capacity, we are going to miss out on opportunities for discovery and development.

Rob: I was thinking about this a bit, Jackie, and there are lots of ways that teachers can tackle the problem of being busy and having a limited amount of time to reflect. Like many people, I find that discussing various teaching issues at lunchtime or during breaks at work has been really rewarding.

Jackie: That's a good point, which relates to the answers we received from another question we asked: "What form of self-reflection do you engage in?" Most people replied that they

engaged in peer discussions or journal writing. I personally prefer dialogue to written journal reflections, as the objective voice of a peer can really help push the boundaries of my own perspectives. Also, these kinds of reflective discoveries can emerge from a spontaneous conversation or a preplanned meeting with a colleague or peer. At my university, my colleagues and I have decided to invite full- and part-time English teachers from the International Culture Department to take part in bimonthly, informal meetings where we can reflect on our teaching and exchange ideas about our practice.

Rob: Yes, monthly or regular get-togethers would be a good place to have reflective discussions with our peers. One thing we didn't really have time for in the session was the booklet that we had prepared (Appendix B, downloadable at <http://ld-sig.org/LL/19two/moreau-suginaga-AppendixB.pdf>).

Jackie: Yes, it was too bad that we didn't manage to get feedback from the participants. The booklet was a tool that we developed from our own struggles to get started with self-reflection. For example, when I first started writing journals, I felt, after a while, that I was just writing for the sake of it. I never really looked at the reflections again and it became another thing on my to-do list rather than a productive exercise. So I had to rethink this process and realized that I needed more guidance in what to reflect on and how to do it critically. This was one reason why we made the booklet, wasn't it, Rob? Our aim was to give teachers something to work with and adapt to their teaching contexts based on materials we have created ourselves and adapted from the literature.

Rob: Yes, in preparing the booklet, I could also see the benefits of the various approaches for keeping track of reflections.

Jackie: We included some worksheets like Planning for the Classroom, so teachers can reflect on questions relating to lesson planning. There's also a worksheet with a list of issues in teaching, including error correction, homework, testing, and so on, so that teachers can write about their current beliefs. It's only by becoming more aware of our beliefs that we can start to transform them gradually. Then a couple of worksheets focus on student reflections. On one, teachers can write general observations about their students while the other is a student feedback form, where students can list all the class activities and make notes about what they learned, didn't understand, or want to know more about.

Rob: Actually, I personally felt that the booklet contained too much information. For my own use, I would take only the key points of what we put together and create an A4-sized reflection template that could be used on a daily basis without taking up so much time. The small items of information that I could collect over a period of time may allow me to create a fairly detailed picture of my teaching and having this information recorded in a consistent fashion might take the randomness out of my current notebook-based approach. I guess that was the point of the reflection-materials handout anyway—to adapt the ideas to best suit our needs.

Jackie: So, when we revise the booklet for our next conference, we could think about the organization. It might be good to separate the materials for teachers and students, and maybe add some examples of reflections from our students, and some personal perspectives from teachers who have used or adapted their own reflective materials.

From Reflection to Action

With the conference behind us, it's back to business as usual in our classes. So what were the most significant things we learned from reflecting on our session, and, more importantly, how will this change our own practice?

Rob: Well, we talked about the problem of having too little time in which to present all of the things we wanted to at the conference, but I think that, at the end of the day, the presentation provided an opportunity for people to talk about reflection and get excited about it. As a next step, it would be good to do a workshop where we could create a space to get people's feedback based on the worksheet activities and how these could be adapted more specifically to various teaching contexts. The opportunity would be there for us to talk about some of the techniques and methods that we have developed in our own practices as a result of the reflection we've done before, during, and since the Realizing Autonomy Conference.

Jackie: That sounds good. We could also talk about some of the assumptions that we have questioned in relation to our practice. For example, I would like to review my assumption that group work is always the best way for all students. I think some less extroverted students might be more productive if they engaged less in group work. I have many other ideas to explore. And I agree that our next workshop should move beyond highlighting the long-term benefits of critical reflection, and give people an opportunity to explore some practical ways to incorporate critical reflection into their individual contexts.

Rob: One final thing I'd like to mention is that doing the presentation really reinforced, for me, the idea that we don't have to be in search of any one specific method of reflection. The most important thing is to develop what works for us individually at the time and then adapt it as the need arises. It seems to me that, as we develop as teachers, we need to constantly reevaluate the ways that we look at our practice. Sharing thoughts with our participants brought home the fact that reflection on teaching is a complex activity. It is important to keep trying new ways of delving into our individual practices and our individual belief systems. Any final thoughts, Jackie?

Jackie: Well, Rob, I think that in teaching, and in life in general, it's good to stop and take a look around; otherwise, we might miss out on something important. In both our professional and personal lives, critical self-reflection is a transferable skill that can be used to help us gain a better understanding of any experience. We're always reshaping existing knowledge and beliefs to become better teachers and also better people. Our lives as teachers are often very

demanding, so in order for us be able to tackle challenges and deal with constraints, we need to be ready and equipped not just professionally but in a holistic sense, as human beings.

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Appendix A Survey

Exploring and Transforming: Self-Reflective Practices for Teacher Development

Jackie Suginaga and Robert Moreau

Please help us out by doing this quick survey! Thanks!!

<p>1. Where do you teach? University High school Junior High school Elementary school Kindergarten Special needs Conversation School Other _____</p> <p>2. How long have you been teaching? 0-1 1-2 2-5 5-10 10-15 15 plus</p> <p>3. Do you reflect on your teaching? No Yes Not sure</p> <p>4. Reflecting on teaching helps teachers in their development. To what extent do you agree with this? 0----- 5 Not important Very Important</p> <p>5. What factors might keep you from reflecting on your teaching? I don't have time I don't see the value in it I'm not sure how to I am an experienced teacher and don't need too Other _____</p>	<p>6. When do you reflect on your teaching? After a lesson Before a lesson During a lesson Once a week At the end of the term At the end of the year All of the above Other _____</p> <p>7. What form of self-reflection do you engage in? Journal writing Post lesson reports Voice recordings Peer discussion Observation Video recordings Other _____</p> <p>8. What is your gender? Female Male</p> <p>9. Do you believe that our personal life and what we do in outside teaching hours is related to our teaching? No – why _____ Yes - how _____</p>
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10. OPTIONAL - If you have any comments on the topic of reflection to aid teacher development, please write in the space below.

SELF-TALK OF A TURTLE: AUTONOMY IN CREATING A CHAPTER

Naoko Harada

This essay explores the psychological journey that I undertook as a writer of a book chapter in Realizing Autonomy: Practice and Reflection in Language Education Contexts. The key to completing the chapter in my case was balancing the two dialectical elements, independence and collaboration, under the framework of autonomy. Inspired by an image of a turtle in Tim Murphey's plenary session at the Realizing Autonomy (RA) Conference in October 2011, I reflect on my own mental process in the writing project.

Realizing Autonomy (RA)の一章を完成させる過程においての書き手としての自律性と執筆グループの一員としての協調性の大切さに焦点を当てたエッセイである。2011年10月のRA Conferenceの基調講演でティム・マーフィー氏が提示した亀に関する謎かけを踏まえ、肯定的な独り言の効用について考察する。

A Turtle Trying to Fly

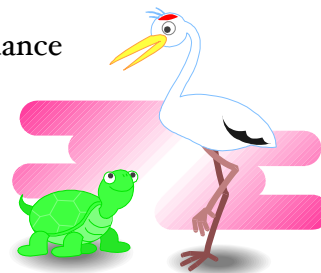
At the Realizing Autonomy Conference, Tim asked the audience at the beginning of his lecture to think of ways to fill the blanks in the following sentence:

Why is a _____ trying to fly more beautiful than a _____ sitting in a tree?

The audience came together in small groups to discuss possible answers to this and other gap-fill questions, but no one around me came up with Tim's answer, "Why is a *turtle* trying to fly more beautiful than a *bird* sitting in a tree?" COBUILD's *Advanced Dictionary of American English* defines a turtle as "any reptile that has a thick shell around its body, for example a tortoise or terrapin, and can pull its whole body into its shell" (pp. 1405-1406). It is a creature that has the capacity to either walk or swim, but it cannot fly by itself. Tim's question made us realize that even with little possibility of flying, the sight of a turtle making every effort to fulfill its dream is beautiful.

On hearing Tim's answer, I thought, "Certainly a turtle with strong motivation can make an effort night and day. It will impress its friends. But some of its friends may think it is somewhat ridiculous and call it reckless." However, by the end of the presentation, I came to

like the idea of the turtle. Murphey (2010) states, “...we become excited with our creative agency (autonomy, independence) to increase control over our world. The fun of increasing it is more exciting than *getting there* (p. 10).” In other words, the process of working toward a goal autonomously has value by itself. If I were the turtle, even if I could not succeed in my mission to fly, I would have learned something new. By practicing step by step continuously, I might someday be able to collaborate with the crane, my dance partner in *Noh*. Turtles, representing longevity and prosperity, are deeply rooted in the Japanese cultural context, as in the example of the *Noh* play, *Tsurukame* (Crane and Turtle) and as an image on congratulatory messages (Sugiura & Gillespie, 2004). In line with this, the turtle that lives 10,000 years, according to the Japanese legend, may find a way to fly with the help of birds, technology, or merely by luck.



In his lecture, Tim also told us about the importance of continuing to be curious and of getting students to use a lot of self-talk to ask questions and think. Morin (1993) defines self-talk as verbally identifying self-information that is inherent to the individual (p. 230) and suggests that it shapes our thoughts, feelings and behaviors in a great variety of ways (p. 223).

Self-talk was one of the themes of my poster presentation during the afternoon of the conference. In the following sections, I would like to explain the background of how using the Harry Potter series in my chapter and in the presentation led me to think about self-talk and its role in learner autonomy.

The Entertainment Hook

In November 2008, I was sitting at the LD SIG display table at the JALT National Conference chatting to Ellen Head about my forthcoming presentation, *Learning Identity in Harry Potter's Class and Mine*, which was to take place in a few hours. I told her how much my students, who had already read the Japanese translation, wanted to read the Harry Potter series in English and how their passion motivated me to show scenes from the movie followed by reading passages from Rowling's book, *Harry Potter and the Prisoner of Azkaban*, in the original English in the classroom. My teaching idea was to focus on the scene in which Harry's classmate, Neville, the least confident student in Professor Lupin's class, succeeds in performing a spell in front of the class to chase away a shape-shifter that embodies his fears. On hearing this, Ellen remarked it had both the entertainment hook and a bit of interaction analysis of how people learn to control their fear.

My decision to use the *Harry Potter* series as an entertainment hook for students is not without precedent. Belcher and Stephenson (2011) introduce the story of Allegra, a third-year special education teacher in a middle school in the United States, who has used audio books of Harry Potter with her students. One of Allegra's students had similar feelings of alienation from her foster family to Harry. The connection with Harry provided a strong hook for this student, motivating her to read ahead at home (p. 129). This student was described as a person who felt

that Harry Potter had relevance to her life and she showed a keen interest in reading the book, in spite of the fact that her usual performance in other activities in class was far from outstanding. Such a reaction is not surprising, as it resonates with my experience of becoming an adult fan and making it my major research theme, and reflects the popularity of the series worldwide.

In August 2010, the New York Public Library was offering nearly 7,000 copies of Rowling's books mostly in English but also in languages ranging from Arabic to Japanese. In addition, the U.S. publisher Scholastic's website, as of December, 2011, stated that the seven novels of the Harry Potter series had been translated into 68 languages and had sold over 400 million copies. These numbers provide a glimpse of the global Harry Potter phenomenon.

Think-Aloud

It is worth noting that including self-talk in our activities is regarded as a useful strategy to reduce pressure and anxiety. Experiments conducted by the California Institute of Technology suggest that sound can actually change vision (Highfield, 2002). When participants were shown a single flash accompanied by several beeps, some of them wrongly perceived them as several flashes. This study indicates that the brain processes information from each sense separately and builds up a picture of events around us, allowing us to see what we hear (p. 157). If we can use our voices more beneficially, it could help us to be more productive in accomplishing our tasks. A good example is Hurd's (2007) study of distance French language learners. During think-aloud protocols, learners who uttered positive expressions, such as "OK good" or "I'm happy with that" (p. 250), were better able to access their thought processes. The think-aloud protocols also indicated the negative effects of utterances expressing difficulty, uncertainty, frustration and confusion.

These two studies suggest that we tend to listen to our own words almost subconsciously and that, if we utter positive words to ourselves, they will influence our feelings and behaviors. I will now focus on self-talk that leads to a positive state of mind.

Positive Self-Talk

In the course of writing up my chapter for *Realizing Autonomy*, I came to see that healthy self-talk was effective when I needed a breakthrough. Since I was the sole author of the chapter, at first, I felt the burden of responsibility for completing my chapter was mine alone. The further I dug into the research area of emotions such as anxiety, fear, or worry, the further I walked into a psychological maze and let my feelings take the driver's seat. When I came to a dead end, in other words, a writer's block, my mind was full of *can'ts* and *don'ts*. I was focusing on what seemed difficult to accomplish and drifting further away from my goal of finishing the chapter. The editors of our group sensed the negative spiral I was in and advised me to focus on my research question. They gave me timely advice by introducing useful references and

sending me words of encouragement. I was ready to explore answers to my research question again.

A similar use of self-talk is seen in *Harry Potter and the Prisoner of Azkaban*, the story that I used with my students. When the frightening sound of a boggart in the wardrobe caused some tension in Harry's class, Professor Lupin reassured the students with the phrase, "Nothing to worry about." In my chapter, I mentioned the example of a student in my own classroom who uses the same phrase as a way of reducing tension and encouraging herself when she is alone (Harada, 2011, p. 203). This self-talk is important for this student for helping her to relax and concentrate on her task.

During my poster presentation, Tim instantly identified my student's tension-reducing activity as *positive hitori goto (self-talk)*. Psychology specialists writing in a *Stress and Internal Self-Talk* section on the *Stress Management for Health Course* website point out that, among the 50,000 thoughts we automatically have in a day, a healthy internal self-talk ratio is around two positive thoughts to every one negative thought, and this can influence our feelings and behaviors (para. 1 and para. 6). In other words, people tend to have twice as many positive thoughts as negative ones. Experts also claim that under chronic stress, our thinking becomes more negative. However, we can change our thinking by positive self-talk, which is more realistic and optimistic, and this can help reduce our stress (para. 12). Thus, encouraging ourselves to do positive self-talk and lowering our stress will ultimately contribute to our mental health.

Looking back, I sometimes experienced negative thoughts and anxiety while drafting my chapter for the book. I was putting pressure on myself at times when I needed to relax. To improve this situation, I tried out two things. One was to vocalize "Nothing to worry about" while facing the computer screen on a day when I had made only a little progress. Saying this to myself provided me with an opportunity to detach myself from a chain of negative thoughts. It reoriented me toward my aim of completing my draft.

The other was to entirely trust my two editors. I said to myself, "If my editors believe that this chapter will be completed and if they are planning to send the drafts to the publisher, I should trust them rather than my present negative feelings." This worked to some extent, since I could clearly picture them sending out a package of all the chapters to the publisher when everything was ready. I realized my hope was to share with my readers the joy of introducing Harry Potter into classrooms and to explain how the movie scenes and paperback books could create the *flow* moment, the state in which people are involved in an activity where nothing else matters to them (Csikszentmihalyi, 1999/2008, p. 4). All I had to do was write.

Collaboration in Reviewing

While each author wrote their chapter independently, when it came to reviewing the drafts, all the authors worked cooperatively. This activity helped to create a balance between the individual autonomy of the writers and collaboration of peers in suggesting revisions to each other's drafts. I benefitted greatly from reading my colleagues' drafts and learned how to make

clearer comments through this experience. Moreover, I felt privileged to have my initial drafts read by my colleagues in the Learner Development SIG research community. While Joseph P. Siegel gave insightful comments and taught me what reader-friendly writing means, Stacey Vye, exercising her experiences as a writing teacher, annotated one of my initial drafts with words that energized me.

Through interaction and comments from both colleagues in this project, I found myself in the position of my students who wait for their assignments to be returned with their teacher's comments. I had much to learn from my fellow writers' professionalism in analyzing, advising, praising, and sharing. Casanave (2009) writes that, in our development as teachers and as researchers, the ability to see our classes as our students do, and the ability to see our writing through the eyes of our readers are two important perspectives we should try to take (p. 5). I was lucky to experience both in this writing project.

Balancing Autonomy and Collaboration

Through the book project, I managed to learn how to write a chapter solo. If I had not experienced and overcome my writer's block with the careful support of the group editors and colleagues, my paper would not have reached the point of completion. If I had not experienced the collaboration with my colleagues through peer reading each others' drafts, I would not have improved my skills in giving feedback to my students. Consequently, I have learned the importance of balancing autonomy and collaboration. I would like to conclude this section by thanking the editors in our group for guiding me throughout the writing process, the conference organizing team for their Herculean work organizing the RA conference, and all other members supporting us to publish the book. Through this project, we have realized stronger ties in our educational community. With a pioneer spirit, a willingness to collaborate, and positive self-talk, even turtles might fly.

Naoko Harada teaches at the Senior High School Affiliated with Japan Women's University. Her academic interests lie in the areas of EFL materials development and global issues. She has been studying the application of the Harry Potter books and movies in classes to promote confidence in learning English. Related to the Realizing Autonomy book chapter, an article in the JALT2010 Conference Proceedings highlights an episode from the sixth Harry Potter volume on luck and effort.

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OPENING REMARKS TO THE PLENARY TALK BY RICHARD PEMBERTON AND MIKE NIX

Andy Barfield

It was a great honour to be asked by Alison and Kay in July 2011 to introduce Richard and Mike at the Realizing Autonomy Conference. We were close friends and had worked on many different projects together. The SIG had originally extended the invitation to Richard to participate in the conference in full knowledge that he had been diagnosed with cancer in July 2010. It was a wonderfully supportive act of friendship by the SIG, and we were all hoping that Richard would be able to make it from the UK to Japan for the conference. That was Plan A. Unfortunately, from August 2011 onwards Richard was able to travel no more than locally in Nottingham. Plan B was for Richard to take part in the conference with Mike through a live video feed, but we started to realize that wouldn't be easy to do. Other options were explored and discussed, and eventually we came to Plan C: Mike and Richard would make an audio or video recording via Skype, and Richard's participation would be prepared in advance and then played in 2-3 minute audio clips with Mike talking his part of their joint lecture directly to the audience. And that's how it turned out in the end.



From his home in England Richard did take part and, with customary humour, recorded his participation in the conference on his blog later the same day: "Today I managed to give a co-presentation at the Realizing Autonomy Conference in Nagoya, Japan. All the while safely tucked up in bed at home. Very relaxing! I'd very much been looking forward to attending the conference at first, but realised after the trip to Jamaica that it wasn't on. Plan B was for me to present 'live' to the conference from here, but that would have meant being online in the middle of the night—we all decided my sleep was more important. So we went with Plan C—a pre-recorded version. It seems to have gone well: many thanks to Mike Nix for putting it all together." This is a typically modest representation on Richard's part: just a week before in Nottingham he had got home from hospital where he had been having a bit of a rough time, to say the least. To prepare his audio clips for the conference in the very week after leaving hospital, Richard showed incredible strength of mind and courage, creating with Mike a truly

original plenary session for the benefit of everyone at the conference. Taking part meant everything for Richard.

Until a few hours before the plenary, I was still unsure about how to introduce Richard and Mike. There was hesitation and uncertainty. What should be said? How might things be put? What line—personal or professional?—would it be appropriate to take? All of a sudden, it became clear. I could see Richard smiling and hear him laughing. “You’ll know what to say, Andy,” I remembered Richard telling me just a few days before. It would be about friendship, personal and professional commitment, and it would start with a joke, not an apology, and this is what I said:

I quite understand if, like me, you’re feeling a little confused. This is, after all, the conference of the book, and there’s a film being made of the conference of the book for a book after the film from the conference of the book...that’s going to be published in a newsletter. Perhaps that’s why some people say: those who can, do; those who can’t, teach, and some of those who teach start to learn, and those who start learning enjoy life and learner autonomy conferences (and the books and films that go with them). Which brings me to Richard and Mike, our joint plenary speakers this afternoon.

A friend of the Learner Development SIG even before it started, Richard was one of the driving forces behind the landmark 1994 Taking Control conference in Hong Kong. He then co-edited the proceedings from the conference, published in 1996, in between setting up a self-access centre at his university in Hong Kong and starting his PhD. (Richard and I did the same PhD programme, and we’ve been close friends for many years.) Ten years later Richard was instrumental in organizing the Maintaining Control conference in Hong Kong, co-editing the proceedings again.

Both conferences were extraordinary events in the learner autonomy field.

It is difficult to appreciate the lasting contribution Richard has made in the development of learner autonomy in different contexts in Asia and Europe. He’s the quiet guy, modest and always good-humoured, working behind the scenes with teachers and learners, never claiming the spotlight. More than a few people, though, will say: “It’s Richard who got me started in learner autonomy and saw me through. He supported me and made me believe my learners and I could do it.”

Richard has long been a friend of the Learner Development SIG: an invited speaker of the SIG in 2002 to the JALT international conference; a contributor to Autonomy You Ask! (I’m not trying to sell the books—in fact we don’t have any copies of AYA left!), but perhaps his greatest act of friendship comes in his taking part in the conference today. Under extraordinary personal circumstances Richard’s participation is a triumph of courage, grace, generosity, and commitment to others.

And, of course, Richard's participation today would not have been possible without the absolute dedication and friendship of Mike these last few months. Mike knows Richard from 2002 when Richard came over as the SIG's invited speaker, and in Learning Learning later that year they produced together an exploratory discussion of developing learner-friendly evaluation systems. So, Mike and Richard have a history of collaboration going back a long way.

Mike has been actively involved in the Learner Development SIG since the 1990s, and we work together at the same faculty at Chuo University in Tokyo. Like Richard, Mike is a very close friend and wonderful colleague to work with.

So, let's celebrate friendship, commitment, and generosity of spirit today.

It really is a great honour and pleasure to welcome Richard and Mike for their uplifting friendship for the Learner Development SIG.

Please welcome our friends and colleagues Richard Pemberton and Mike Nix.

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PRACTICES OF CRITICAL THINKING, CRITICALITY AND LEARNER AUTONOMY

Richard Pemberton & Mike Nix

In this paper, we explore the development of critical thinking and criticality, and how they connect with learner autonomy, in two contexts. Richard discusses the development of critical thinking skills by student teachers taking an MA in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) at the University of Nottingham, and Mike considers the role that criticality plays in the self-directed academic literacy of undergraduate law students at Chuo University. We then use Ron Barnett's model of criticality (Barnett, 1997) and a social practices approach to consider some different forms that criticality takes and how these relate to understandings of autonomy.

本論では、二つの事例を通じて、クリティカルシンキングとクリティカリティの発達について、そして、どのようにしてこれらが学習者自律性（オートノミー）と関連づけられるかを考える。Richardは、ノッティンガム大学のTESOL（英語を母国語としない人に対する英語教育）修士課程で学んでいる英語教師によるクリティカルシンキングの能力の発達について論じ、Mikeは中央大学法学部生の自律的なアカデミック・リテラシークラスにおいてクリティカリティが果たす役割について取り上げる。そして、Ron Barnett のクリティカリティのモデル(Barnett, 1997) と social practices approachを用いて、クリティカリティの取る様々な形態とこれらがどのように学習者自律性（オートノミー）の理解と結びついているかを考察する。

Introduction

Criticality and learner autonomy are both widely seen as desirable educational goals, and often understood as interdependent or even mutually indispensable attributes. Raya, Lamb and Vieira (2007), for example, claim that, “The competence to think critically is coextensive with the notion of autonomy and self-sufficiency” (p. 43). And in a well-known characterisation, Little (1991) describes autonomy as a capacity “for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action” (p. 4). We share this belief that it is important for students to develop both their criticality and autonomy and we have both been exploring ways to help students achieve this in the two quite different contexts in which we work: a postgraduate MA TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) programme at the University of Nottingham in the UK, where Richard teaches and Mike did some research during his 2010-2011 sabbatical year; and a programme to develop students’ academic literacy in English

in the Law Faculty at Chuo University in Japan, where Mike teaches. Reflecting on this work ourselves, and discussing it together, has raised many questions for us about criticality, critical thinking, and autonomy: What do we mean by criticality and critical thinking, and is it useful to distinguish between them? How do they help the development of learner autonomy, and how does learner autonomy support the growth of criticality and critical thinking? Do different approaches to learner autonomy encourage particular understandings of criticality? Does, for example, emphasizing “the conceptual link between autonomy and rationality” (Raya et al., 2007, p. 43) imply criticality is the application of logical thinking techniques? If, like Little (1991, p. 4), we take learner autonomy to be a “particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of...learning”, do we then approach critical thinking as a matter of individual cognitive development? Or do we need a more socially situated understanding of criticality and autonomy, and to recognise, as Esch (2009) suggests, a choice between two roads: “the road giving prominence to individual *personal autonomy* or the road giving prominence to *autonomy as the capacity to exercise critical thinking about learning as a participant in a social milieu*” (p. 33, italics in the original)?

These questions become more important for advocates of learner autonomy to address as the top-down pressure to develop students’ ability to think critically increases in educational contexts around the world. Criticality has already become a key requirement in courses and evaluation in higher education in the UK, where Richard currently works. In Hong Kong, where Richard worked previously, the development of critical thinking often appears as a stated aim of educational policy documents, and many teachers agree with its importance but have differing views of what it means and how to facilitate it (Stapleton, 2011). In Japan, where Mike works, education policies to promote criticality at a national, or even local, level are not yet significant, but there seems to be a growing belief amongst language teachers in the necessity of promoting students’ critical thinking, a trend reflected in the recent formation of a Critical Thinking SIG in JALT (the Japan Association for Language Teaching) as well as the longer-term existence of a similar SIG in JACET (the Japan Association of College English Teachers). Importantly, there are divergent conceptions of criticality in educational policy (and pedagogy) in various countries, including Japan and the UK. These include:

- a liberal arts emphasis on the role of critical thinking in the rounded intellectual growth of the individual;
- a civic-minded association of criticality with active and informed participation in democratic citizenship; and
- a more instrumental focus on critical thinking skills as one of a range of capacities demanded of the workforce by the rapidly changing, information-based economy of the early 21st century (Barnett, 1997; Johnston, Mitchell, Myles, & Ford, 2001, pp. 97-100).

Whilst autonomy will likely continue to be an educational buzzword (Little, 1991), critical thinking is clearly now another very important one (Stapleton, 2011) and the insistent, and

discordant, noise in educational policy and practice around the need for different forms of criticality will probably also impact upon thinking about the development of learner autonomy.

Claims about the interrelatedness of autonomy and criticality focus on capacities for, or states of being, autonomous and critical. There seems, however, to be little research that investigates the actual dynamics of how learners become more autonomous and critical in specific educational contexts, or of the synergies and tensions that pedagogy for criticality and autonomy might encounter in practice. In this paper, we explore some of these questions for our two contexts. In what follows, Richard explains, in response to questions from Mike, his work developing critical thinking with student teachers on the MA TESOL programme at Nottingham. Mike then discusses, also in a question and answer format, the development of criticality and autonomy with undergraduate students in the Law Faculty at Chuo. Finally, we use Barnett's (1997) work on criticality and critical being, as well as the idea of literacies as socially situated practices, as frames to make sense of criticality and autonomy across contexts.

Richard: Developing Critical Thinking with MA TESOL Students at the University of Nottingham

What Is the Context You are Working in?

The teaching context is a one-year MA TESOL programme at the University of Nottingham. This caters mainly for overseas student teachers, some of whom have fairly limited teaching experience: the minimum requirement is only two months. The main elements of the programme are three 20-credit core modules, four 15-credit electives, and a 60-credit dissertation. (The modules and electives are listed on the [course structure page](#) of the programme website). The assessment for the programme is very academic: there are essay assignments for each module (of 4,000 words and 3,000 words) and the dissertation is 12,000-15,000 words.

At the same time, we are very much trying to help students relate the academic input they receive to their own teaching contexts, so that they apply theory to practice throughout the course. This is emphasized in the main stated aim of the course: “to develop your critical understanding of recent developments in TESOL theory and practice and to stimulate you to reflect on your own teaching” (see the [programme website](#)). So, as well as the combination of theory and practice, it's important that “developing critical understanding” is fronted up quite clearly as the key aim of the course. Critical thinking therefore plays an important role throughout the programme at Nottingham.

Why Focus on Developing Critical Thinking Rather than Learner Autonomy?

One of the reasons for the focus on critical thinking is that learner autonomy is, to a large extent, a given in the course. It underpins the whole approach to postgraduate study so that, for example, the students have control not only over where and when they study, but also over what and how. The topics for assignments are normally chosen and developed by the students,

and the whole content, structure and approach of their writing is also decided by them. So these elements of freedom and choice, which are obviously central aspects of learner autonomy, are also crucial in postgraduate study. These are supported, of course, by teaching and tutorials, and also by learning circles, small study groups that we have set up, that are a key way for students to develop learner autonomy collaboratively and therefore an important part of the course. Overall, then, the importance of learner autonomy in the programme is very much assumed.

Unlike learner autonomy, however, critical thinking is an overt part of the assessment framework at Nottingham and other UK universities. For example, as Table 1 shows, one of the marking criteria at merit level (equivalent to a B grade) for Masters courses in the School of Education at Nottingham states that students should be able to critique research and practice, so that is a criterion we look out for when we mark assignments. As a result, it is important for students to develop their criticality if they are to do well on the course.

Table 1

Grading Criteria for Masters Level Courses (Evison & Pemberton, 2009, p. 32)

	DISTINCTION	MERIT	PASS
Analysis, reflection and criticality	Demonstrates ability to analyse and critique theory, research and accounts of practice	Shows evidence of strong analytical ability; able to critique research and practice	Demonstrates some evidence of analytical ability and capacity for reflection

Another reason for this focus is that critical thinking is key to the development we want students to make during the MA. By the time they finish the programme, we want them to feel they are part of an academic teaching community and able, for example, to pick up an *ELT Journal* article and take a critical position on issues that they read about which affect their own teaching context. So by the end of the MA, we would like students to be able to take critical positions on issues that impact on them.

Which Parts of the Programme Support Students in Developing Their Critical Thinking?

There are two main parts of the programme which support critical thinking. The first is the learning circles, the small study groups which meet every week outside of regular class time. In these, students have the opportunity to discuss theories and research that they have been introduced to in class, and come across in their own reading, and then relate these to their own different contexts. So the learning circles are an important arena for students to start developing their own positions within a very safe and supportive group environment.

The second type of support involves a series of curriculum features that my colleague, Jane Evison, and I introduced specifically to prepare students to develop the ability to critique research and practice, on which they are assessed during the course. As well as a workshop on critical reading, this support includes two mini-assignments in the first semester. The first is a comparative literature review in which students are expected to show their own stance at some point. The second is a critique of the methodology of a particular paper in which they need to be able to identify methodological strengths or weaknesses of the paper. An extreme example of the latter might be to question how sound it is to draw statistical conclusions from a survey of five people. These assignments are supported by group tutorials that take place before students begin individual reading and writing for the assignment, where we model the type of writing that is expected and students discuss example papers in groups. Students often surprise themselves actually by the insights they can come up with when working together in these tutorials.

What Are the Aims in Supporting Students to Develop Their Critical Thinking?

There are four main aims we have in providing students with help for improving their critical thinking. The first is for students to feel they can critically evaluate the academic work they read. This is something that, very understandably, they find difficult when they start the course, especially if they have limited knowledge or experience. Many will think, “What right have I got to critique published work?” But we want them to learn to see that they do have this right—that everyone can express an opinion. Second, of course, opinions by themselves are not enough. We expect students to be able to support their position with reasoned argument, to develop a justified stance. Thirdly, we hope that students will express themselves in *their own way*, without feeling that they have to closely follow a formula, and that they will be able to develop their own voice.

And our last aim in supporting critical thinking—and this may appear a very grand aim—is for students to become *producers* rather than *reproducers* of knowledge. Of course, to an extent, all of us reproduce knowledge, but we want to move students away from merely repeating what X and Y have said, and to be able to add something of themselves. Again, we would like to reach the point where the reader can see something of the student’s own position in their writing.

What Kinds of Development Are Students Making as a Result of This?

The following four quotes from interviews with students on the programme are representative of the kinds of progress we see from students in developing their critical thinking.

Rebecca: *For me critical reading is a lot more useful than I felt before. I think I used to treat it like a task that our tutor pushed us to do this. Now I think I felt the necessity... I try to find the support from the materials for my assignment... I actually enjoy challenging myself.*

Samantha: *I expected to come in and this guy or this woman would tell me “OK this is how it’s supposed to be done and this is the right way”, or whatever, but then you realise there is no right. Initially it’s frustrating but then you soon learn that it’s better when you get to choose, you know and you justify those choices, so I like the way that in class we always had*

to discuss our point of view, our experiences, bring them in, compare them, use them, use the theories that we're learning, and I think by explaining our opinions, we realise "OK this is where I stand, this is the way I see it."

Deborah: *I felt what we read in books are not 100% correct. That's what I learned. I found once we are reading books we will believe everything which is written in the book, we believe the author's beliefs, but I felt it's incorrect and this kind of stuff may be not appropriate or suitable to my teaching context. So after nine months I know how to decide what is right and what is wrong depends on his evidence and whether this is applicable in my context. This is what I learned.*

Susan: *Before I was just a receiver, a passive receiver, I would read whatever I have and just accept it for what it is. Never occurred to me that—well even if it occurred to me, I felt that it wouldn't be right to question, I mean if something's published, you have the impression that it's published, it's everywhere, it's right, it can't be wrong. But now I feel like "No, you can argue, you can say what's on your mind", I mean before I used to say "How can you argue a person like that, a really well-known writer or whatever", but now I feel "No, you can do it"—as long as you're arguing with reason. I feel like I have a voice now.*

In each case, we can clearly see development from the start to the end of the course. For Rebecca, the first student, there is a clear movement from a very externalised motivation in the first assignment to a much more internalised motivation by the end of the course. In Samantha's case, we see the clear development of a justified stance. Deborah shows the developing ability to read critically in terms of applicability to her own context. And with Susan we have the development of her own voice. Obviously, students develop at different rates, but this kind of development is something that we see in almost all of the students taking the MA TESOL programme at Nottingham.

Mike: Developing Criticality and Autonomy in English With Law Students at Chuo University

What is the Context You Are Working in?

I teach in the Taught-in-English programme in the Law Faculty at Chuo University (see the [programme website](#) for more information). The Faculty has three divisions—Law, Politics, and International Business and Law—which means students have a range of interests, not just in law but in politics, international relations, human rights, development issues, trade, business, and globalization. In the Taught-in-English programme, we want to give students opportunities to explore these academic interests in English by developing their self-directed academic literacy for engaging with content in English. By that, we mean students being able to choose issues of interest to them to research, discuss with other students, and present on or write about, so that they can learn together about these issues in English.

Two examples of the courses in the programme—and the kind of issues students look at on the courses—are *Basic Research and Discussion* and *Multicultural Japan* (see Table 2 below). *Basic Research and Discussion* is an intermediate-level course in which students look at any social, legal, political or global issues they are interested in. *Multicultural Japan* is a more advanced class in which students focus on a particular area of study over a year and choose a number of issues to investigate to build their knowledge and understanding of the field.

Table 2

Two Courses in the Taught-in-English Programme and Examples of Research Issues Chosen by Students

BASIC RESEARCH AND DISCUSSION	MULTICULTURAL JAPAN
1st & 2nd year, Intermediate	3rd year, Advanced
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Japan & Tuna Fishing • Junk Food • Developing Countries' Education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Buraku Problem in Japan • Voting Rights for Korean Permanent Residents • Japanese Identity

Students research the issues they have chosen, in cycles of three to four weeks. Outside class, they find sources of information for their issue, usually online, and read and make research notes. Each week in class, they explain their research using those notes and discuss it with other students in pairs. They reflect on the development of their understanding through talking with other students but also by writing research diaries. And they also try to focus their research on specific questions which will help them build their knowledge of the issue and, very importantly, develop their understanding of it. At the end of this cycle, they give a presentation with a poster, flip chart or Powerpoint slides to other students.

In contrast to the MA TESOL programme at Nottingham, the development of criticality is not a formal requirement or criterion for grading in the Law Faculty at Chuo, although many members of faculty see it as important. In the Taught-in-English programme, full- and part-time teachers have identified criticality as an important element of students' engagement with content, and this has become an area of discussion in faculty development workshops (also known as *teacher retreats*) for teachers in the programme. Helping students to develop their understanding of an issue, not just gather information about it, has become a crucial part of the programme. We want students to recognise and reflect on their own views on an issue, to engage with different viewpoints that they encounter through research and discussion, and so to develop their own thinking about an issue with other students. This is the notion of criticality that we are working with.

Why Focus on Developing Criticality and Learner Autonomy?

To think more about the development of criticality and autonomy in the Taught-in-English programme, I will draw on interviews with four students, starting with Saori, a first-year student in the *Basic Research and Discussion* class. Explaining her research in one cycle of the

course, Saori brings out some of the ways that learner autonomy relates to development of a critical understanding about an issue.

Saori: *I'm interested in the fourth project about farmers of tobacco leaf. There are many farmers of tobacco leaf in Tanegashima, Kagoshima—my hometown... At that time, the Democratic Party of Japan said they will raise the price of tobacco. The topic, tobacco tax is very close to us, so that is very interesting for me... Following the connections, I researched various things: first, the danger of tobacco, second, the tax of tobacco and third, JT [Japan Tobacco] and tobacco farmers... I learnt many things but first tobacco tax is very high because half of the price of tobacco is tax. At first I thought simply tobacco farmer is unfortunate. During the project I think to protect tobacco farmers is a very good thing but that makes foreign people's health bad. In my presentation, I said, "There's a contradiction there. I'm not on one side or the other". That was interesting for my audience.*

Three points are important here. One is that Saori brings her own interests—concerns that are literally very local—into the classroom and into her research. The second is the way she actively self-directs the development of her research not just to develop her knowledge, but to bring in new viewpoints and see this issue from different perspectives. And the third point, very interestingly, is that Saori is not rushing to give her own opinion, or to present an argument, in the way that is advocated in some approaches to critical thinking. She is holding the issue open, and presenting it from different sides, an approach that she finds is interesting for the students listening to her presentation. Saori's case suggests, then, some ways that learner autonomy and criticality intersect that are useful to consider more.

What Are the Connections Between Criticality, Learner Autonomy and Identity in the Taught-in-English Programme?

Let me take up the crucial question of interest first. When students on courses such as *Basic Research and Discussion*, or *Multicultural Japan*, self-direct their work in English in terms of their own interests and experiences, we start to see what Douglas Barnes has referred to as the interaction between *school knowledge* ("the knowledge which someone else presents to us") and *action knowledge* ("that view of the world on which our actions are based") (Barnes, 1992, p. 81). So, when students bring their own concerns and questions to the knowledge they encounter in universities, they can start to make that knowledge their own, to use it to author their own understandings of the world. As David Little (1991, pp. 11-12) has suggested, this engagement between action knowledge and school knowledge is at the heart of learner autonomy.

Two other principles of language learner autonomy also support criticality as students develop their understandings of the world in the Taught-in-English programme. One is that students are not just language learners but are also active users of the language for learning and communicating about issues of concern to them (Little, 2000, pp. 15-16; Benson, 2002, pp. 15-17). The other principle is part of the political approach to learner autonomy (Benson, 1997) and emphasizes the right of learners to decide the content of their learning, and to use language for their own reasons and purposes. This quote from Yuto, a third-year student on the

Multicultural Japan course, gives a good sense of how his active, purposeful use of English relates to the development of his thinking about an issue.

Yuto: *I'm very interested in the environment. In [Taught-in-English classes], we can choose topics relatively freely, so we can pick up interesting topics and I enjoy researching.... For example, I researched about developing countries' environmental and human rights. Before researching that, I didn't think it was a serious problem. After researching that I felt it was very, very serious problem in developing countries. About air pollution, almost every air pollution country is a developing country.... So how to solve this problem? What's the role should developing countries play? And developed countries? What should developed countries do to solve that? I researched about law related to the environment.*

Notable here is the way that Yuto identifies problems for himself, focusing on areas and questions that will drive his knowledge forward, and suggesting that problem-setting is important for this kind of criticality. Douglas Barnes captures well this relationship between developing our understandings of the world and a purposeful, autonomous approach to learning: “We educate children in order to change their behaviour by changing their view of the world. We want to change the way they perceive the world they live in, not so they will carry out our purposes, but so they can formulate their own purposes, and estimate their value” (Barnes, 1992, p. 80).

Questions of identity are also salient here. As learners bring school knowledge and action knowledge together in learning about issues of interest to them, they are also integrating their identities as students with their identities in the wider world outside the classroom. And they are developing identities as language users who can decide the content of their own learning in that language. The importance of this sense of their own interest, purpose and control in language use is made clear—by its absence—when we consider ways in which autonomy may not promote the development of criticality.

In What Ways Can Learner Autonomy Limit Criticality?

When students do not have an active and purposeful engagement with an issue, their learner autonomy may become instrumental. They make choices about issues to research and sources of information to read because they are required to by the teacher, rather than in terms of their own interests and concerns. So, under these conditions, their choices lack motivation and meaning. Students are being autonomous because they are required to be, completing tasks for the course rather than exploring their interests in the world. The result is often a recycling of common knowledge about a topic. Students researching smoking, for example, often gather information about its harmful effects on health, confirming what they already knew, but not going beyond this in the way that Saori did, in her research on tobacco farming and tax, to encounter new problems and perspectives. As a result, this instrumental autonomy does not encourage or support criticality as an engagement with alternative perspectives and the development of new understandings about the world.

How Can We Help Students Engage With Alternative Ways of Thinking?

On the Taught-in-English programme, we have tried to provide research resources that enable students to encounter different viewpoints and arguments about an issue. Many teachers stress that students should consider the interests and perspectives of different actors involved in an issue. Like some other teachers, I have also tried giving mini-presentations that raise awareness of different approaches to a topic. But, whilst students generally find all of these interesting and helpful, what they say is most useful for developing their understanding of issues is talking with other students, exchanging ideas, hearing about other research. In other words, it is a process of co-constructing ways of thinking that is important for the development of their criticality. Central to this is “exploratory talk” (Barnes, 1992), the kind of talk that explores issues, looks for different angles, brings in different opinions, rather than trying quickly to reach a conclusion or just demonstrate knowledge. It also involves “interthinking” (Mercer, 2000), thinking with other people, rather than just inside our own heads. This then relates clearly to another principle of learner autonomy, that of interdependence. So there are synergies between criticality and autonomy in forms of discourse—exploratory talk and interthinking—and kinds of relationships—interdependent and collaborative—which support each other. Satomi and Midori, third-year students on the *Multicultural Japan* course, highlight this:

Satomi: *It's important to have a discussion with classmates not just report back on research because it helps finding new points of the research, another viewpoint, or another aspect for the issue. For me it's useful—thinking together and talking together.*

Midori: *“What does this mean to you?”, “Why do you choose this topic?” From these questions, I can consider why I choose this issue, how it relates to my interest, I can find my focus point and I can tell the stories from my experiences.*

Satomi suggests how interthinking—“thinking together and talking together”—can help students move beyond their current understandings to new ones. Midori talks about the way that exploratory talk, in the form of questioning, can help her not only to think about and focus her research but also to tell the stories of her experience. She is researching Japanese identity and thinking back to her experiences during a homestay in Australia when people asked her what it meant to be Japanese and she started to wonder about that issue. And so these stories can now come into her critical understanding of the world.

Interestingly, Satomi and Midori told me that their way of talking together, and questioning each other, had actually developed in classes in their first and second years, in which the teachers had emphasised the importance of critical thinking and particularly of asking each other critical questions. We see here then how the kind of criticality we aspire to in the Taught-in-English programme may develop out of a more specific kind of critical thinking when students use it as part of their own self-directed, interested, and purposeful engagement with content.

Criticality, Critical Thinking and Autonomy Across Different Contexts

To continue, we want to bring in a more theoretical framework for thinking about criticality, critical thinking and autonomy in different contexts. By contexts, we are referring both to the programmes at Nottingham and Chuo, but also to the way that specific academic practices, such as assignment writing, constitute microcontexts for criticality and autonomy within programs and institutions.

Forms of Criticality

The first approach we find useful is taken from Ron Barnett's work on criticality in UK higher education (Barnett, 1997; see also Johnston et al., 2011). Barnett has identified three kinds of criticality, or three ways of being critical, that relate to formal knowledge, the self, and the world:

- Critical reason—being critical about formal knowledge = critical thinking?
- Critical self-reflection—being critical about our own beliefs and ideas, experiences and practices.
- Critical engagement (action)—being critical about the world and our place in it.

For Barnett, critical thinking is a form of critical reason because it is concerned with formal knowledge. He suggests that a broader form of criticality, critical being, involves the integration or interaction of all these ways of being critical. Here, there are clear parallels with the interaction between school knowledge and action knowledge. There are also echoes, in Barnett's work, of the concern from Henri Holec and the Council of Europe, during the formative period for autonomy in language learning in the late 1970s, that learner autonomy should carry over from formal education into other areas of life (Little, 1991, pp. 6-7). Barnett's approach, then, not only helps to make sense of the difference between critical thinking and criticality, but enables us to see that we have a common concern at both Nottingham and Chuo with developing critical thinking into a broader kind of criticality, in which students integrate formal knowledge with other teaching contexts and the world beyond the classroom.

Levels of Criticality

The second approach that may be useful for thinking about criticality and autonomy is concerned with levels of criticality and students' development in terms of those. Barnett's model involves four levels of criticality, but it is useful to focus on one here: the instrumental level. The key point about this is it is other-directed, with tasks imposed on learners, not self-directed. These tasks might require learners to reflect on themselves in terms of criteria set by their teacher not by themselves, or to do an assignment in which they have to be critical because the teacher tells them to. This instrumental kind of criticality is often related to using certain skills or techniques, so Barnett would locate critical thinking skills very much in this area. Here we can see a parallel with instrumental autonomy, in which there is a similar lack of

purpose and control on the part of learners who make choices because that is what is required of them. Again, there is a common concern at Nottingham and Chuo with moving beyond instrumental criticality to a kind of criticality that involves control and agency—elements of an active, purposeful learner autonomy—as well as critical stance and voice, as a way of students expressing their own view of the world.

A framework of types and levels of criticality, based loosely on Barnett, offers, then, a way to understand a process of development from critical thinking around formal knowledge into a broader criticality that also addresses the self and the world, as well as a parallel development from an instrumental level of criticality to a more agentic one. But we should also ask if the development of criticality is really a linear development, a smooth path that students move along in a predictable pattern.

Criticality and Autonomy as Social Practices: Learning Circles, Classes and Assignments

We want to suggest that an alternative might be to see criticality and autonomy as socially situated practices. This approach to criticality and autonomy draws on the New Literacy Studies and its understanding of literacies as historically and socially specific practices (see, for example, Barton, Hamilton, & Ivanic, 2000). It foregrounds the ways that criticality and autonomy—and the kind of identities, discourses and relationships that they involve—will take different forms in different social contexts. The contexts we are thinking of here are the learning circles at Nottingham that Richard has mentioned, as well as the taught classes for the modules and electives, and the written assignments on which they are assessed. The learning circles are significant because this is where the students get together in groups, and ask themselves: What is this all about? What does this mean to me? Here, they can really work through issues from the course and try to relate them to different contexts. So the learning circles are a very important part of the programme and one that does not exist in other MA TESOL programmes that we know of.

Learning circles consist of three to five students meeting without a teacher present, so the students are in control of the pace and structure of their discussions. In contrast, in the classes that students take, especially the required modules, there are about 20 students and the teacher structures the class, usually around a Powerpoint presentation with short breaks for student discussion. One issue that the students raise is their ability to relate formal knowledge to their teaching contexts and practices in these two contexts. Whereas they feel they can do that quite effectively in learning circles, in classes, especially early in the course, they feel they have less chance to do that so well. According to one student, Betty:

Betty: *In our class, we just talk academic things. [But in learning circles] we have to talk about the theoretical part and discuss about our experiences in learning and teaching ... So it's like between daily and academic talking... first we have to express it academically and help each other if there is misunderstanding or unclear part. Then we move to our experiences.*

Another issue here is students' identities and their sense of their own ability to be critical. In classes, students, especially those with limited teaching experience, often worry about their right to be critical, wonder what expertise or authority they have for that, and feel nervous because there are "experts" in the class—other students and the teacher who know more than them. But in learning circles they become quite critical with each other and see that as helpful.

Betty: *While discussing in learning circles, if I have some misunderstanding about theoretical part, other girls just warn me, "No, it's not like this. It should be like this..." I don't feel myself sad or bad when they said something like that because, I don't know, they just try to help me.*

One more comparison, which is really important, is between assignments and learning circles. The programme at Nottingham is assessed entirely on assignments, and demonstrating criticality in those assignments is therefore very important. But, again according to Betty, the form of criticality that is possible or necessary with a written assignment is very different from that which develops in the learning circles.

Betty: *While writing [assignments] I'm the only one who looks at the topic from one perspective. Maybe I cannot see the other perspectives but in learning circles it is totally different. If there are four people then it means in a learning circle there are four different ideas or maybe one basic idea but we can all improve from different sides.*

In this description of the learning circles, we get a picture of interdependence and interthinking, and of new viewpoints and understandings developing through discussion, that echo the accounts of the way that students develop their criticality through dialogue and questioning in the Taught-in-English programme at Chuo. It is this kind of exploratory criticality, which integrates knowledge, the self and the world, and that interacts dynamically and dialectically with the development of learners' autonomy, that we are most interested in supporting. However, we also recognize that critical thinking concerned with formal knowledge is valuable and can develop into broader forms of criticality, and that specific institutional contexts and academic practices, such as individual written assignments, may require particular forms of criticality to be used. A social practices approach, which considers the varying forms that criticality takes in different contexts, addresses the kinds of differences that Betty points out. It raises questions about the intersections between the different practices of criticality in an institution, as well as about the relations between autonomy and criticality in those practices. It is these questions that we turn to now at the end of this paper.

Questions for Further Research Into Practices of Criticality and Autonomy

We have seen that students on the MA TESOL at Nottingham report significant overall development in their own critical thinking, in their ability to evaluate research in terms of their teaching contexts, to take a critical stance, and find their own voice. We have also looked at how criticality takes different forms in different academic sites and processes such as learning circles, seminar classes, and written assignments. A key question, then, is how the Nottingham students see the connections—or dissonances—in the development of their

criticality across the whole programme and over the course of the year. Extending this kind of inquiry to the Law Faculty at Chuo would mean looking at how the development of criticality in the Taught-in-English programme relates to expectations within the Faculty about students' being critical in the rest of their law, politics and business classes, some of which are seminar-type classes that involve students making presentations and writing reports but most of which are exam-assessed lecture courses.

The particular forms that criticality tends to take in the learning circles at Nottingham, and how these relate to other parts of the programme, is a significant area for further research, because the learning circles are a distinctive feature of the Nottingham course but not of other MA TESOL programmes in the UK. And whilst it is perhaps easier to track the emergence of a focused critical stance and a willingness to critique the “experts” in student assignments than in learning circles, it is also useful to understand the contribution that more exploratory and collaborative types of criticality can make to students' capacity to reflect critically on their own teaching practices and contexts. The emphasis on self-direction also makes the learning circles a key site for investigating the interactions between learner autonomy and criticality. Similarly, the Chuo programme raises questions about the synergies and tensions between learner autonomy and an exploratory, independent type of criticality—but this time in a classroom context and with undergraduate students—particularly between students self-directing their research and taking a critical stance to the knowledge that they encounter.

The importance of written assignments on the Nottingham programme provides an urgent reason for students there to develop their criticality. At the same time, it limits to one particular academic practice the formal assessment of students' ability to take a critical stance and reflect critically on their contexts. Recognising this, Richard has been considering the possibility of expanding the assessment on the Nottingham programme to include digital storytelling, a genre that seems likely to encourage the development of a personally engaged critical voice more than written assignments do. Here, then, an understanding of the different forms that criticality takes can feed back into practices of academic assessment, so that different, and perhaps more autonomy-friendly, forms of criticality can also be valued and evaluated. Mike and other colleagues at Chuo would also like to explore digital storytelling as a way for students to present their own self-directed research about the world as well as to reflect critically on their own histories and experiences. How this emerging practice of digital academic literacy supports the interdependent development of learner autonomy and criticality is one more question for future research.

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Richard Pemberton. See p. 95-99.

Mike Nix works in the Law Faculty at Chuo University. His teaching and research there are focused on helping students develop self-directed, critical and multimodal forms of academic literacy for learning in English about social, political, legal and global issues of interest to them. He has also done research recently at the University of Nottingham, with Richard Pemberton and others, on autonomy, criticality and the ownership of English in the development of academic literacy by international MA students.

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RICHARD PEMBERTON: HIS WORLD OF WORK AND SERVICE

Andy Barfield

Richard Pemberton died peacefully at home in Nottingham in the early hours of January 19th, 2012, just a few months after taking part in the Realizing Autonomy Conference, and barely 18 months after he had learned that he had metastatic prostate cancer that had spread to his spine.

Richard was Associate Professor in TESOL in the School of Education at Nottingham University. He taught at Nottingham from January 2006, after nearly 15 years at Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, where he had been responsible for setting up and coordinating the Self-Access Centre, and integrating self-access language learning into the first-year course that he coordinated. Before that, he taught ESL for eight years at secondary level in the UK and Zimbabwe and tertiary level in Papua New Guinea (University of Technology) and did one year of Voluntary Service Overseas in Lesotho between school and university.

At Nottingham, Richard was Course Director for the MA in English Language Teacher Development teaching a wide range of modules for the MA ELT/ELTD courses. He also supervised the PhD research of a large number of students. With Paul Meara as his supervisor, Richard had done his own doctoral research on the spoken word recognition of Hong Kong students (Pemberton, 2004b). His own main research interests were to do with L2 vocabulary acquisition, L2 listening, learner autonomy, self-access/self-directed language learning, educational action research (changing one's own practice and evaluating the process), and technology-assisted language learning (especially involving video or mobile devices). These wide-ranging interests were mirrored in the wealth of activities that he undertook at Nottingham. He coordinated the Second and Foreign Language Pedagogy Group's Language Learning Research Seminars, which were held on a monthly basis in the School of Education and aimed to give research students, faculty members and colleagues from other universities an opportunity to report progress, present findings, and raise problems in an informal and supportive atmosphere. Richard also initiated with Jane Evison TESOL Talk from Nottingham, a series of podcast discussions between Richard and Jane (<http://portal.lsri.nottingham.ac.uk/SiteDirectory/TTfN/default.aspx>) on different TESOL topics intended to engage graduate students and teachers on issues related to TESOL pedagogy and research. TESOL Talk from Nottingham brought together several interests of Richard's: his collaborative style of working, his devotion to using technology in innovative ways, and his concern for helping students and teachers develop new understandings of the world.

Richard similarly contributed to the learner autonomy field in many different grassroots ways. He had a profound effect on the whole field, particularly as he was responsible for co-

organizing two landmark conferences: the 1994 Taking Control conference in Hong Kong and the 2004 Maintaining Control conference in Hong Kong, co-editing the proceedings for both conferences. In Hong Kong, Richard was also an active member of HASALD (Hong Kong Association of Self-Access Learning and Development), and contributed regularly to HASALD's online newsletter (<http://www.cityu.edu.hk/elc/HASALD/>). Richard served as convenor of the AILA Scientific Commission on Learner Autonomy from 2002 to 2005 (<http://ailarenla.org/>) and was a plenary speaker at the Inaugural Independent Learning Association Conference in 2003 in Melbourne, Australia. In the UK, Richard helped organize SWAN (Sheffield, Warwick and Nottingham University) one-day conferences on learner autonomy, and from 2008 to 2010 he was also an active committee member of the IATEFL Learner Autonomy SIG (<http://learnerautonomy.org/>). Richard also took part in the Nordic Workshops on Developing Autonomous Learning for many years. More recently, Richard was active in The British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL), serving on its executive committee and working, as usual, behind the scenes for his colleagues. Shortly after Richard's death, and in tribute to Richard's work, BAAL created a new annual award, The Richard Pemberton Prize, for the best student presentation at a BAAL conference.

Specifically in connection with JALT and the Learner Development SIG, Richard was an invited speaker of the SIG at JALT2002 and astute contributor to *Autonomy You Ask!* (2003). He also provided feedback and review comments for *Realizing Autonomy* (2012) and kept in regular contact with members of the SIG. Richard was a familiar face to a great many people in the SIG, much loved for his good humour and sense of fun at different conferences and events where people would meet him. Some fond memories of Richard include:

Stacey Vye: Richard was so observant, caring, and damn funny! Because he could see things in people that maybe others couldn't? Well, he'd helped steer you where you needed to be and was very supportive about that development for the whole team. To Richard:

*If this world represents
one drop of dew
then the radiant drop
presents itself
because of you*

Never forget your impact, Richard.

Steve Brown: *I am in shock. But I consider myself honoured and privileged to have known Richard as a friend and colleague ... A man who was an inspiration and support to many, but who never had a bad word to say about any.*

Kay Irie: *Although I never met him in person, I am grateful I had the opportunity to get to know him via emails and work for the Realizing Autonomy conference. His presence and contribution were an integral part of the conference and, of course, of the field.*

Jackie Suginaga: *Richard is in my thoughts and prayers.*

Greg Rouault: *Maybe one of the SIG's scholarships or travel grants could be named in Richard's honor and bestowed on a candidate who best displays the way in which Richard lived his life, creating with the award a perpetual link between reflections on who and how he was.*

Bill Mboutsiadis: *After you mentioned him to me two weeks ago and the great work you've done together, I started reading more of his work and writing about it for my Autonomy class. He is truly an inspiring scholar and educator. I'm honored to be around those who knew him as a scholar, educator and good friend.*

Steve Paydon: *I second Bill's sentiments. I didn't know Richard at all, but I am very moved by the respect you all show for him.*

Robert Moreau: *I didn't get a chance to meet Richard, but I remember his keynote contribution to the realizing Autonomy Conference. Reading the words to the introduction to that address again, it is easy to see how much he was a friend to the LD SIG and how important his contribution was to what we all work towards in our classes. My thoughts and prayers go out to his spirit and his family.*

Alison Stewart: *I met Richard at a number of conferences around the world, then had the privilege to work with him in planning a plenary talk that he gave in October in Nagoya, Japan. Particular memories: a dinner in Hong Kong, gales of laughter coming from the next table where Richard was sitting, much to the envy and curiosity of everyone on my table; walking back from a pub in Swansea, appreciating Richard's kindness and warmth as we talked; skyping about the plenary, admiring Richard's commitment and devotion of his precious time to the event; inspiration from his blog and from the haiku he loved. My deepest sympathies to Richard's family, friends and colleagues.*

Rich Silver: *I'm very sorry to hear the news and my feelings echo those of others.*

Masuko Miyahara: *I never had the pleasure to meet Richard personally, but I have read some of his work which were a great inspiration for me. Come to think of it now,*

one of Richard's articles that I read almost a decade ago was how I got interested in the idea of autonomy! My deepest condolences to his family and friends.

Richard Pemberton's Major Publications

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- Pemberton, R., & Nix, M. (2012). Practices of critical thinking, criticality and learner autonomy. In K. Irie & A. Stewart (Eds.), *Learning Learning*, 19(2), Special Issue: Proceedings of JALT LD SIG Realizing Autonomy Conference, 79-94.
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「学習の学習」原稿募集

「学習の学習」は会員に興味あるつながりを構築する空間です。次号「学習の学習」への和文 (もしくは英文、及び二言語での)投稿を募集しています。形式や長さを問わず、学習者及び教員の発達に関連した以下のようなさまざまな文章を歓迎しています:

- ・ 論文 (約4000字-10000字)
- ・ 報告書 (約2000字-4000字)
- ・ 学習者のヒストリー (約2000字-4000字)
- ・ 自律性に関する体験談 (約2000字-4000字)
- ・ 書評 (約2000字-4000字) ・ SIGへの手紙 (約2000字)
- ・ 個人プロフィール (約400字)
- ・ クリティカル・リフレクション (約400字)
- ・ 研究興味 (約400字)
 - 写真・詩 その他

これまでにない形式のもの、また新しい方々からのご投稿をお待ちしております。内容について もぜひご相談ください。みなさまのご意見やお考え、ご経験、そして学習者の発達、学習者の自律性と教師の自律性に関することなど、ぜひお聞かせください。

次号「学習の学習」は2012年10月に出版の予定です。ご興味のある方は、最終入稿日2012年 9月1日よりずっと前に余裕をもってご連絡いただければ幸いです。受け付けは常にいたしておりますので、アイデアがまとまり次第、遠慮なくいずれかの編集委員にご連絡ください。

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Contributing to *Learning Learning*

Learning Learning is your space for continuing to make the connections that interest you. You are warmly invited and encouraged to contribute to the next issue of *Learning Learning* in either English and/or Japanese. We welcome writing in different formats and different lengths about different issues connected with learner and teacher development, such as:

- articles (about 2,500 to 4,000 words)
- reports (about 500 to 1,000 words)
- learner histories (about 500 to 1,000 words)
- stories of autonomy (about 500 to 1,000 words)
- book reviews (about 500 to 1,000 words)
- letters to the SIG (about 500 words)
- personal profiles (100 words more or less)
- critical reflections (100 words more or less)
- research interests (100 words more or less)
- photographs
- poems... and much more...

We would like to encourage new writing and new writers and are also very happy to work with you in developing your writing. We would be delighted to hear from you about your ideas, reflections, experiences, and interests to do with learner development, learner autonomy and teacher autonomy.

We hope to publish the next issue of *Learning Learning* in October, 2012. Ideally, we would like to hear from you well before September 1, 2012 – in reality, the door is always open, so feel free to contact somebody in the editorial team when you are ready:

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