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Interdisciplinary Course Design for CLIL

Monica Hamciuc and Jonathan Parker

Abstract

This paper describes the process and outcomes of a collaboratively designed Introduction to Religion Content and Language Integrated (CLIL) course for first-year students at a private university in Japan. The authors (a Philosophy / Religion instructor and an English instructor) aim to provide a case study and model for both new and experienced language and content teachers who may be approaching integrated team-taught courses for the first time.

Keywords: CLIL, course design, team-teaching

Introduction

Course design, just like curriculum design, has developed dramatically over the last decades. Johnson (1990) in his book "The Second Language Curriculum," observes that curriculum design "has evolved from a focus on content and methodology only (syllabus design), to a broader focus that includes needs assessment, instructional design, teacher training, program management and evaluation." This holds true for course design as well. Most individual teachers today do not just select a textbook and lecture from it in their courses. They need to consider student needs, course objectives, as well as course monitoring and evaluation because their role in the classroom has changed. Teachers are now seen as mediators between the course material and the students, as opposed to dispensers of knowledge. In both language teaching and

instruction of a subject matter other than language, there is a trend of focusing on student-centered teaching and learning practices.

Regarding language teaching, this shift from a teacher-centered classroom to a student-centered classroom was marked by the advent of the communicative teaching method (CT). Communicative teaching, in turn, has several different approaches, starting with the natural approach (based on Second Language Acquisition theories) or the functional approach (emphasizing language functions), the immersion approach (where content and language are merged, such as CLIL and EMI) or the task-based approach and so on. Therefore, course design for language classes usually begins with the selection of one approach, and, based on that approach, continues with the selection of goals, classroom methodology and materials (Yalden, 1991).

Student-centered approaches are also considered when teaching content other than language. The Cornell University Center for Teaching Excellence, for instance, recommends starting the design of a course by setting outcomes, creating a syllabus, flipping the classroom (blended learning), considering all student needs, evaluating and redesigning the course.

As course design requirements are very similar for both language and content instructors, it looks as if, in theory, there will not be differences impossible to overcome when a language teacher and a content teacher may need to create and teach a course together. In reality, though, as Stewart (2005) writes, it is not that easy to create an effective partnership. Team teaching can mean peer support and professional development, but it can also become a sensitive issue when two teachers who do not know much about each other's field of expertise are asked to teach the same course together. Sandholtz (2000) describes three different types of team teaching: 1) in which teachers are loosely responsible for parts of a course, 2) where course design is done

together, but teaching is separate and finally, type 3) where planning, instruction, and evaluation are all done together.

Type 3 is the case introduced in this paper, which discusses the particular team teaching arrangement of the authors and the process they followed in designing, teaching, evaluating, and redesigning an Introduction to Religion course taught in English to non-native speakers of English in an EFL context.

CLIL or Content and Language Integrated Learning is a teaching method that was developed originally in Canada for immersion programs and then spread throughout Europe, where universities, mainly, started to offer more courses for international students. In CLIL classes students learn content through an L2 target language while focusing on improving both understanding of the content and the target language at the same time. CLIL, therefore, has a dual focus. According to Dale & Tanner (2012), CLIL can be placed on a continuum between CBLT (content-based language teaching) and immersion. In CBLT the aim is to teach language in context; therefore, the language only is assessed and feedback is related to language support only. Immersion, on the other hand, focuses completely on teaching content with little or no attention paid to the language.

The instructors of the course under scrutiny in this paper shared the understanding that the course to be designed would be a CLIL type course, aimed at supporting both understanding of the content and development of the language of course takers.

Course Design – The Steps

The course design process followed several steps including (1) defining and combining content and language objectives, (2) selecting content and deciding the course format, (3) analyzing content and redefining language objectives, (4) designing language support material, (5) teaching and monitoring, (6) making adjustments and, finally, (7) evaluating.

1) Defining and Combining Content and Language Objectives

As this was an Introduction to Religion course for first-year students, the question was what to select from the religion field that would be relevant, and appropriately challenging for our students. The Religion instructor decided to make the course an introduction to eight major world religions. Regarding the English language, the general objective at this point was to support understanding of new concepts and language in the context of world religions.

2) Selecting Content and Deciding the Course Format

The second step involved selecting the content and agreeing on a format that could be applied throughout the course. The Religion instructor created the first reading material as a template for each of the eight units or modules. After applying a time frame to this sample and cross-referencing with the semester schedule, the instructors decided to divide the course into seven chapters, with two of the religions to be introduced in the same chapter. For the EFL instructor, this process was different from previous experience with course design. The language instructor did not have a choice in the selection of content and did not have expertise in this content. Therefore, there was a need for the EFL teacher to revise existing background knowledge of the content or learn the content as new knowledge. Although time-consuming and possibly even challenging, this situation presents a pedagogical advantage. It put the EFL

instructor in a position similar to the students', thus leading to increased empathy and a better chance of predicting student needs.

3) Analyzing Content and Redefining Language Objectives

To create the first sample of language support material, the EFL instructor had to analyze the content and redefine or refine language objectives. Therefore, the decision was made to provide support for developing two types of skills, namely vocabulary and listening. Vocabulary development was chosen as a goal because, although adapted after authentic texts, the reading material was still very challenging for first-year students. The reading material was processed using a free online lexical frequency profiling tool (www.lextutor.ca), and it was found that only 81% of the vocabulary belonged to the K1 and K2 lists (K1: first most frequent 1,000 words; K2: second most frequent 1,00 words). The 81% score meant that students would probably need to check a dictionary for close to 20% of the text, or every five words, and they would have had to study approximately 150 difficult words (not on the K1 and K2 lists) used in a total of approximately 300 instances for this particular material.

These findings were shared with the content teaching partner who agreed to rewrite some sections of the text while paying attention to the vocabulary used. The objective was not to overuse academic words and to try to repeat keywords or key concepts so that they could be recycled and mastered.

This process, in turn, led to the idea of developing all units around seven main, common concepts, so it resulted in redefining objectives for content as well. The result was a course divided into seven units, with reading materials organized around seven key concepts. This

template was expected to help students navigate through their reading material easier while pointing out conceptual similarities and differences across the eight world religions.

4) Designing Language Support Material

This step involved designing the language support material and formatting it. New features were added to the design of the reading material to support vocabulary development. One was to insert a vocabulary box with key words after each paragraph of text, thus integrating vocabulary study and reading. The aim was to draw attention to those words and encourage the students to use a dictionary to confirm their meaning. Secondly, content comprehension questions intended to assess students' understanding of the material newly introduced, and their ability to write and later speak about it were moved below the vocabulary box, so that students would try to use the new vocabulary when answering the questions. Finally, in the second run of the course, a Quizlet (www.quizlet.com) class was set up and vocabulary lists were created for each unit. The students enrolled in the online Quizlet class and used the available array of functions to study each list. Completion of the Quizlet list study was a requirement for one of the language assessment components of the course.

To address the development of listening skills, the instructors searched for and collected short video materials to complement the readings that could be used in class or assigned as homework. Short animated stories created originally for young native speakers of English were selected, one for each unit. The EFL instructor transcribed these 7- 15 minute long videos and created English subtitles for each. Two types of activities were added to the videos. One was a fill-in-the-gap language activity that required the students to listen and write down the missing sections of the subtitle. The second activity was comprehension questions related to the content

of the video that the students could choose to complete for bonus points. Additionally, in the end-of-unit quiz assessment, one question was always related to the video.

Below are screenshots of one section of the first unit reading handout and the complementary video assignment posted to the Moodle learning management system.

ॐSacredness

Because Brahman is everywhere and in everything, in one respect everything can be seen as sacred in Hinduism. Many Hindus worship particular deities that are seen as manifestations of Brahman; statues of these deities are seen as sacred and are treated very respectfully. In temples the image of the god is often bathed, dressed, and even perhaps put to rest at night in different bed clothes.

IN ONE RESPECT (expr.) PARTICULAR (adj.) TREAT (v) BATHE (v) BED CLOTHES (n)
Questions: 1. Explain the concept of the sacred. 2. What is sacred in Hinduism? How is that similar or different from what you consider sacred?

Hinduism

1 Hinduism Unit Text

Hinduism video

Watch the video and write down the missing subtitles in a list from 1 to 16.

A dilemma that the EFL teacher had to face was whether to suggest editing the text so as to lower its lexical difficulty closer to the students' level, or to try to find ways to support the students and help them develop not only language skills but also more general learning skills. As a result, less editing and more language support was offered. This decision was partly based on previous teaching experience at the same college that showed that students in more demanding courses worked harder and, as a result, made more visible progress compared to students in more lenient courses, provided that the appropriate type and amount of support be offered.

5) Teaching and Monitoring

Most of the course materials were created before the beginning of the term, so the instructors started using them in class and monitoring to see possible issues, and outcomes. The instructors taught each class session as a team, dividing time between content-related and language-related activities. After each class, the instructors met face-to-face or shared observations through e-mail. Several issues were identified, discussed and addressed throughout the course, and adjustments were made as shown below.

6) Making Adjustments

The adjustments made refer to issues such as class management, volume of material and methods to use it, material design, assessment, and student feedback.

Although the instructors had trimmed down the material to what it seemed to them the ‘bare minimum,' class sessions proved to be too short to allow covering as much as originally planned. Therefore, by taking a flipped class approach, reading was assigned as preparation before coming to class, opening class time to group discussions and deeper interpretation of the concepts covered in the reading material.

It was intended originally for videos to be shown and discussed in class. However, due to the lack of equipment such as big screens or individual monitors, not all students were able to see or hear the videos well, so these were assigned as homework too, together with the complementary fill-in-the-gaps and comprehension check activities.

The design of the handouts changed slightly as well. The vocabulary box did not originally have space for the students to write any notes inside and was designed to draw

attention to the words. As students were observed writing notes in that small space, the box was later enlarged to give that option.

The biggest change that was made to assessment was trying to incorporate all the assignments, activities, and tests. Without the incentive that a score represents, very few students were willing to put in the necessary effort to engage with the materials provided or participate in class activities.

Finally, individual support for students was offered during office hours, when feedback from students was also collected. An end-of-semester online survey provided additional insight into the students' opinions of the course, which led to further improvements.

7) Evaluation

At the end of the semester, students participated in a survey and answered questions related to the course format, content, and delivery, as well as their performance in the course. Results show that, overall, students found the course goals and materials challenging but achievable. They also reported self-perceived improvements in listening, reading and vocabulary skills, and having acquired the ability to find not only similarities and differences between religions but also connections between religion and daily life.

The survey questions were divided into five different categories: interest in the subject, confidence, intent to improve, preferred class activities and effort/ time. To determine whether the course scores for video assignments, vocabulary/ Quizlet assignments, unit quizzes and final exams correlated in any way with the students' answers on the survey, Rasch statistical analysis was conducted. The only significant correlation found was between video assignment scores and

the value of the self-reported effort/ time item on the survey. The students' self-reported effort/time explains 41% of the variance in video assignment scores.

Coefficients	Std. Error	t value	Pr(>|t|)
interest.in.the.subject	15.6894	-1.466	0.1632
confidence	6.6001	0.808	0.4317
intent.to.improve	7.8717	0.340	0.7388
preferred.activities	3.1483	-0.308	0.7621
effort.time	26.9890	2.479	0.0255 *
Multiple R-squared: 0.4103, Adjusted R-squared: 0.2137			

Conclusion

Reflecting on the course, the two teachers highlighted the importance of communication and trust. While it would seem obvious that it is important to plan and evaluate before and after classes and courses, it does not always happen. To make the class successful, the instructors tried to ensure that they always communicated face to face, or via shared documents and e-mail. They also emphasized the importance of allowing each other the freedom to experiment with new techniques and approaches. There is a danger perhaps in designing course objectives for a new class and then trying to control the learning process to meet those objectives. The teachers chose

to trust that the students could take on a challenge if the necessary amount of help and guidance was provided and to provide that support flexibly and responsibly.

This paper offers a model of collaborative CLIL course design while being aware that a number of factors may influence the way a CLIL course is planned and implemented. Moreover, the data collected throughout this project is, in nature, more qualitative, although some attempts were made to analyze qualitative data as well. It should be noted that the data sample may have been too small for sounder correlational analysis, although this can be achieved in appropriate contexts.

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Effects of Gratitude Savoring toward One's Parents on Subjective Well-Being in Japanese Undergraduate Students

Futoshi Kobayashi

Author Note

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Abstract

Regarding subjective well-being, the effect of gratitude savoring was compared with the effect of gratitude listing. Sixty-four Japanese undergraduate students were randomly assigned to Groups A, B, and C. The process for Group A involved recalling three things that made them grateful toward their parents, and making lists of them daily for seven days. The process for the Group B involved recalling one benefit from one's parent(s), noticing it, appreciating it, and expressing one's gratitude to one's parent(s) daily for seven days in order to savor the experiences of gratitude. The process for Group C involved recalling three impressive things, and making lists of them daily for seven days. Although participants in both Groups A and B significantly improved their scores on two out of three indicators of subjective well-being after the intervention, Group C significantly improved their scores on

all three indicators of subjective well-being after the intervention. There were no significant group differences regarding their subjective well-being before and after the intervention. Further studies may be needed.

Keywords: gratitude, Japan, positive psychology, parent

Ryan and Deci (2001) explained that subjective well-being is made up of "three components: life satisfaction, the presence of positive mood, and the absence of negative mood, together often summarized as happiness" (p. 144). Gratitude, one of the positive affects, has been found to be correlated with various subjective well-being measures. For example, it demonstrated positive correlations with subjective happiness, life satisfaction, empathy, optimism, positive affect, and negative correlations with depression, anxiety, and negative affect (McCullough, Emmons, & Tsang, 2002; Watkins, Woodward, Stone, & Kolts, 2003).

Currently, there are at least two major gratitude intervention strategies for improving subjective well-being. One, the gratitude listing strategy, requires each participant to make daily lists for a certain duration of time (e.g., a week) of several things that happened in their life that make them feel grateful. The other is called gratitude visit, in which each participant spends some time writing a letter of gratitude that they will then read to someone whom he or she wants to express their gratitude to. Since Emmons and McCullough (2003) developed the gratitude listing strategy and Seligman, Steen, Park, and Peterson (2005) initiated the gratitude visit strategy, many researchers have demonstrated the effectiveness of these two methods to improve subjective well-being (See Wood, Froh, & Geraghty, 2010, for a review). However, significant effectiveness of gratitude listing strategy was not replicated clearly in Japanese samples (Aikawa, Yada, & Yoshino, 2013; Kobayashi, 2014; Otsuka, Hori, & Kawahito, 2012).

Recently, Gander, Proyer, Ruch, and Wyss (2013) compared the effectiveness between the gratitude listing strategy and a combination of the gratitude listing and gratitude visit strategies for improving subjective well-being. Although participants of both strategies significantly improved their subjective well-being after intervention, the combination did not show a significant difference from the gratitude listing strategy alone.

In my understanding, the combination of the gratitude listing and gratitude visit strategies of Gander, Proyer, Ruch, and Wyss (2013) did not offer an optimal combination which could in turn produce the optimal intervention effect on subjective well-being. Specifically, in their two-week intervention, their participants conducted various activities of the gratitude visit program in the first week, and kept writing gratitude listings daily in the second week. In other words, due to the design of the intervention, the participants might feel they were conducting two completely different activities that did not connect with each other meaningfully.

Bryant and his colleagues (Bryant, Chadwick, & Kluwe, 2011; Bryant & Veroff, 2007) claimed that positive psychologists should investigate how to savor positive experiences in order to create, preserve, and magnify positive emotions. Bryant, Chadwick, and Kluwe (2011) defined savoring as "the self-regulation of positive feelings, most typically generating, maintaining, or enhancing positive affect by attending to positive experiences from the past, present, or future" (p. 108). Along the same lines, regarding gratitude: one type of positive affect, Wood, Froh, and Geraghty (2010) and Watkins (2014) also suggested that not only noticing but also appreciating the positive events (i.e., benefits) is important to understand why gratitude improves one's subjective well-being. Without appreciation, the benefits that are bestowed from the benefactor(s) and acknowledged by the beneficiary would not produce gratitude in the beneficiary's mind. Lately, Watkins, Uhder, and Pichinevskiy (2015) empirically demonstrated that one must notice the positive events that happened in one's life and then appreciate them in order to create gratitude in one's mind, and subsequently improve one's subjective well-being. Moreover, Lambert, Clark, Durtschi, Fincham, and Graham (2010) demonstrated that those who appreciated their close friends and expressed their gratitude toward their friends twice a week for three weeks increased the

communal strength of the relationship more than those who felt appreciation but did not express their gratitude.

In my opinion, the gratitude listing and gratitude visit strategies should be merged systematically in order to savor each benefit thoroughly. This would involve retrieving the benefit from one's memory system, noticing it, appreciating it (in order to create gratitude), and expressing one's gratitude to one's benefactor(s) in order to maximize the improvement of subjective well-being. In this way, each benefit that is bestowed from the benefactor can be thoroughly savored by the beneficiary.

Additionally, the present study investigated a certain type of gratitude: gratitude toward one's parent(s) because this kind of gratitude has been emphasized in Japanese culture and history (Matsudaira, 1984; Oohata, 1971; Shintou, 1986). Kobayashi (2014) found that the parental gratitude group significantly increased their scores in life satisfaction and subjective happiness, and the daily events listing group also significantly increased their scores in life satisfaction and empathy after the intervention.

In order to offer a more systematic approach, this study made three groups via random assignments. Group A, as a replication and a slight revision of gratitude listing of Kobayashi (2014), involved the process of recalling three things that evoked gratitude toward one's parent(s) and noticing them by daily listing for seven days. Group B, as a systematic combination of gratitude listing and gratitude visit, involved the process of recalling one benefit from one's parent(s), noticing it, appreciating it, and expressing one's gratitude to one's parent(s) daily for seven days. Group C, as a control group, involved the processes of retrieving three impressive incidents in their life and noticing them through daily listing for seven days. Although participants in Groups A and C recalled three incidents from their memories, participants in Group B were asked to recall only one incident because Group B had to savor the benefit of the chosen incident thoroughly via two additional activities (i.e.,

analyzing the benefit and expressing gratitude). This design was determined to be suitable as the daily assignments of the three groups should occupy an approximately equal duration of time (i.e., less than 10 minutes) in order to keep equivalency with their daily workload.

In order to measure the dependent variables, three well-established subjective well-being measurements (i.e., subjective happiness, life satisfaction, & positive and negative affect) were used following the definition of Ryan and Deci (2001).

There were two hypotheses. The first hypothesis was that the subjective well-being of Group B would manifest the highest scores, Group A would fall in the center, and Group C would exhibit the lowest scores after the intervention. The second hypothesis was that the only participants in Groups A and B would significantly improve their subjective well-being after the intervention.

Method

Participants

Initially 66 participants filled out the first survey, however one participant in Group A failed to answer the second survey after the intervention and another participant in Group A failed to answer some items in the first survey, therefore these initial participants were omitted from the data analyses. Thus, this study had a total of 64 participants comprised of 12 male students (18.8%) and 52 female students (81.2%) at a liberal arts college in Miyazaki, Japan. Their mean age was 20.2 (*SD* age = 3.87, age range = 18 - 46).

Materials

Subjective Happiness. The Japanese Subjective Happiness Scale (JSHS) was developed from the original Subjective Happiness Scale (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999) by Shimai, Otake, Utsuki, Ikemi, and Lyubomirsky (2004). The JSHS is designed to measure

global subjective happiness by rating four items on a 7-point Likert-type scale. It demonstrated sound internal consistency (α = .82), test-retest reliability (.86 for a 5-week interval), factorial validity, and convergent and discriminate validity in a Japanese undergraduate sample. Recently, it exhibited appropriate internal consistency (α = .83) and sound construct validity in another Japanese undergraduate sample (Kobayashi, 2013).

Positive and Negative Affect. Sato and Yasuda (2001) created the Japanese version of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) from the original PANAS (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Based on the results of factor analysis, Sato and Yasuda (2001) chose eight adjectives to measure positive affect and another eight adjectives to measure negative affect. The Japanese PANAS is a Likert-type scale that is designed to measure participants' emotional state by rating each adjective from 1 (*does not apply to me at all*) to 6 (*applies to me greatly*). They also reported strong internal consistency for both positive affect (α = .90) and negative affect (α = .91). Recently, the Japanese PANAS exhibited satisfactory internal consistency for positive affect (α = .87) and negative affect (α = .88) and sound construct validity in a Japanese undergraduate sample (Kobayashi, 2013).

Life Satisfaction. Sumino (1994) created the Japanese version of the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS) (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) by conducting five different studies with Japanese samples. As a Likert-type scale, it measures cognitive aspects of participants' subjective well-being by rating the five items from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The Japanese SWLS demonstrated sound construct validity with high correlations with five relative scales and appropriate internal consistency in an undergraduate sample (α = .84) and a middle-age adult sample (α = .90), and a test-retest reliability of .80

with a 4-week interval. Kobayashi (2013) reported that it exhibited appropriate internal consistency ($\alpha = .83$) and sound construct validity in an undergraduate sample.

Procedure

I sent out e-mail invitations to all of the undergraduate students in the institution where I work after receiving an approval from the Institutional Review Board and the Dean of the School of International Liberal Arts. Students who came to my office read the informed consent form, the general description of the present study, and their rights and financial rewards of participation. Those who agreed to participate were randomly assigned to Group A ($n = 22$), who would recall three things that made them feel gratitude toward their parent(s), and notice them by daily listing for seven days or Group B ($n = 22$) who would recall one benefit from their parent(s), notice it, appreciate it, and express gratitude to their parent(s) daily for seven days or Group C ($n = 22$) who would recall three impressive incidents in their life and notice them by daily listing for seven days. Each participant was given a unique identification number (e.g., A1) randomly and used the number for answering any materials that were used in the study. After completing the surveys of subjective happiness, positive and negative affect, and life satisfaction, the participants were given notebooks and asked to do daily assignments before going to bed. All participants returned to my office a week later, completed the survey again and submitted their notebooks. Finally, 1,000 Japanese yen (approximately US $8 in December 2015) was given as financial reward to each participant.

Results

A 3 (between subjects: treatment group) X 2 (within subjects: time of assessment) Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was conducted toward three dependent

variables: subjective happiness, life satisfaction and affect balance. Each participant's affect balance was calculated by subtracting the total number of negative affect from that of positive affect. The results showed that there were no significant multivariate effects across the interaction between group and time, $V = .022$, $F(6, 120) = .223$, $p = .969$, $\eta_p^2 = .011$, and of group, $V = .026$, $F(6, 120) = .268$, $p = .951$, $\eta_p^2 = .013$, but there were significant main effects of time, $V = .387$, $F(3, 59) = 12.42$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .387$. Follow-up univariate tests revealed significant time effects on subjective happiness, $F(1, 61) = 14.78$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .195$, affect balance, $F(1, 61) = 15.24$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .200$, and life satisfaction, $F(1, 61) = 23.96$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .282$. Both the interaction effect and the group effect were not significant (Fs < 1).

Regarding subjective happiness, post-hoc tests with a Bonferroni adjustment revealed that Group A significantly increased their scores after the intervention, $t(19) = 2.35$, $p = .022$, mean difference = 1.400, 95% CI = [0.206, 2.594], Cohen's $d = 0.524$, Group B increased their scores after the intervention, $t(21) = 1.68$, $p = .099$, mean difference = 0.955, 95% CI = [-0.184, 2.093], Cohen's $d = 0.357$, and Group C significantly increased their scores after the intervention, $t(21) = 2.63$, $p = .011$, mean difference = 1.500, 95% CI = [0.361, 2.639], Cohen's $d = 0.561$. See Table 1 and Figure 1.

Regarding affect balance, post-hoc tests with a Bonferroni adjustment revealed that Group A increased their scores after the intervention, $t(19) = 1.74$, $p = .088$, mean difference = 2.800, 95% CI = [-0.426, 6.026], Cohen's $d = 0.388$, Group B significantly increased their scores after the intervention, $t(21) = 2.07$, $p = .043$, mean difference = 3.182, 95% CI = [0.106, 6.258], Cohen's $d = 0.441$, and Group C significantly increased their scores after the intervention, $t(21) = 2.99$, $p = .004$, mean difference = 4.591, 95% CI = [1.515, 7.667], Cohen's $d = 0.636$. See Table 1 and Figure 2.

Regarding life satisfaction, post-hoc tests with a Bonferroni adjustment revealed that Group A significantly increased their scores after the intervention, $t(19) = 2.42$, $p = .019$, mean difference = 2.350, 95% CI = [0.407, 4.293], Cohen's $d = 0.541$, Group B significantly increased their scores after the intervention, $t(21) = 2.89$, $p = .005$, mean difference = 2.682, 95% CI = [0.829, 4.535], Cohen's $d = 0.617$ and Group C significantly increased their scores after the intervention, $t(21) = 3.19$, $p = .002$, mean difference = 2.955, 95% CI = [1.102, 4.807], Cohen's $d = 0.680$. See Table 1 and Figure 3.

Discussion

The participants in Group A significantly increased their subjective happiness and life satisfaction, the participants in Group B significantly increased their affect balance and life satisfaction, and the participants in Group C significantly increased all three indicators of subjective well-being after the intervention. There were no significant group differences regarding all three indicators of subjective well-being before and after the intervention. Thus, neither of my hypotheses was supported.

To begin discussion of the findings, first allow me to examine the issues of comparison between gratitude listing strategy (i.e., Group A) and the combination of the gratitude listing and gratitude visit strategies (i.e., Group B). Although the participants in Groups A and B significantly improved two out of three indicators of subjective well-being after intervention, there were no significant differences between the groups. In addition, the results of post-hoc tests exhibited similar magnitudes of effect size for all the dependent variables in both groups. After the present study was conducted, a meta-analysis of gratitude interventions was published (Davis et al., 2016). In meta-analyzing 19 different studies, Davis et al. (2016) reported that interventions which involved expressions of gratitude had similar magnitudes of effect size for psychological well-being (Cohen's $d = 0.20$) compared

with interventions that used gratitude listings (Cohen's $d = 0.20$). Altogether, these findings might indicate the difficulty of creating a synergic effect from a combination of effective gratitude intervention strategies for improving subjective well-being.

Secondly, I would like to offer some discussion regarding the significant effects of Group C on all three indicators of subjective well-being. In meta-analyzing nine different studies, Davis et al. (2016) reported that gratitude interventions that included either the gratitude listing or gratitude visit strategy did not perform "better than the psychologically active condition (d = -.03; 95% CI [-.13, .07]; Q[8] = 5.50, p = .703)" (p. 24) regarding psychological well-being. The participants in Group C daily recalled and listed three impressive events, therefore, they were psychologically active and their assignments could become an effective intervention toward subjective well-being in the present study. In the future, a control group in gratitude intervention studies might be better to use the measurement-only condition because Davis et al. (2016) found significant effects of gratitude interventions on psychological well-being compared to the measurement-only condition "(d = .31, 95% confidence interval [CI = .04, .58]; k = 5)" (p. 20).

From the results of meta-analysis, Davis et al. (2016) found weak support for the effectiveness of gratitude interventions and speculated that such effectiveness might be produced by placebo effects. If the participants engage in simple and regular activities (such as thinking and doing about something daily), they expect some positive psychological consequences because they participated in the psychological research. Such an expectation could create the positive psychological consequences in the measurements that the researchers used. Such a placebo hypothesis can suitably explain the results of the present study and the results of three previous gratitude listing intervention studies with Japanese samples (Aikawa, Yada, & Yoshino, 2013; Kobayashi, 2014; Otsuka, Hori, & Kawahito,

2012). Researchers who investigate the effectiveness of gratitude intervention might benefit from consideration of such a placebo hypothesis.

Finally, it is necessary to recognize that there are several shortcomings of the present study. First, the sample size was so small that the findings might be the result of idiosyncrasies within the sample. Second, the measurements in this study were all self-reports that inherently include a danger of self-serving bias. Third, the Japanese participants in this study might be qualitatively different from other typical Japanese undergraduate students because they usually speak English and study liberal arts subjects in English in their college life.

Although this study failed to support the two hypotheses, I believe it deserves attention because psychologists should reveal both significant and null findings in order to alleviate the "file drawer" problem (Rosenthal, 1979) and grasp the whole picture. I assume such a practice will lead to true advances in psychological research. In addition, Cumming (2012) recommended that psychological researchers consider effect sizes and confidence intervals more thoroughly instead of merely searching for statistically significant results because we can search for the truth in using meta-analysis with effect sizes and confidence intervals. I hope the present study can be useful in future meta-analyses.

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Table 1
Means, Standard Errors, and 95% Confidence Intervals by Treatment Group and Time of Assessment

			Time of Assessment			
Dependent Variable	Treatment Group	*n*	Pre-Treatment (*SE*)	95% CI	Post-Treatment (*SE*)	95% CI
Subjective Happiness	Group A	20	19.30 (0.831)	[17.64, 20.96]	20.70 (0.776)	[19.15, 22.25]
	Group B	22	19.68 (0.792)	[18.10, 21.27]	20.64 (0.740)	[19.16, 22.12]
	Group C	22	19.82 (0.792)	[18.23, 21.40]	21.32 (0.740)	[19.84, 22.80]
Affect Balance	Group A	20	6.650 (1.959)	[2.732, 10.568]	9.450 (2.433)	[4.586, 14.314]
	Group B	22	8.182 (1.868)	[4.447, 11.917]	11.364 (2.319)	[6.726, 16.001]
	Group C	22	9.045 (1.868)	[5.310, 12.781]	13.636 (2.319)	[8.999, 18.274]
Life Satisfaction	Group A	20	19.10 (1.223)	[16.65, 21.55]	21.45 (1.325)	[18.80, 24.10]
	Group B	22	19.73 (1.166)	[17.40, 22.06]	22.41 (1.263)	[19.88, 24.94]
	Group C	22	20.18 (1.166)	[17.85, 22.51]	23.14 (1.263)	[20.61, 25.66]

Note. *SE* = standard error, CI = confidence interval.

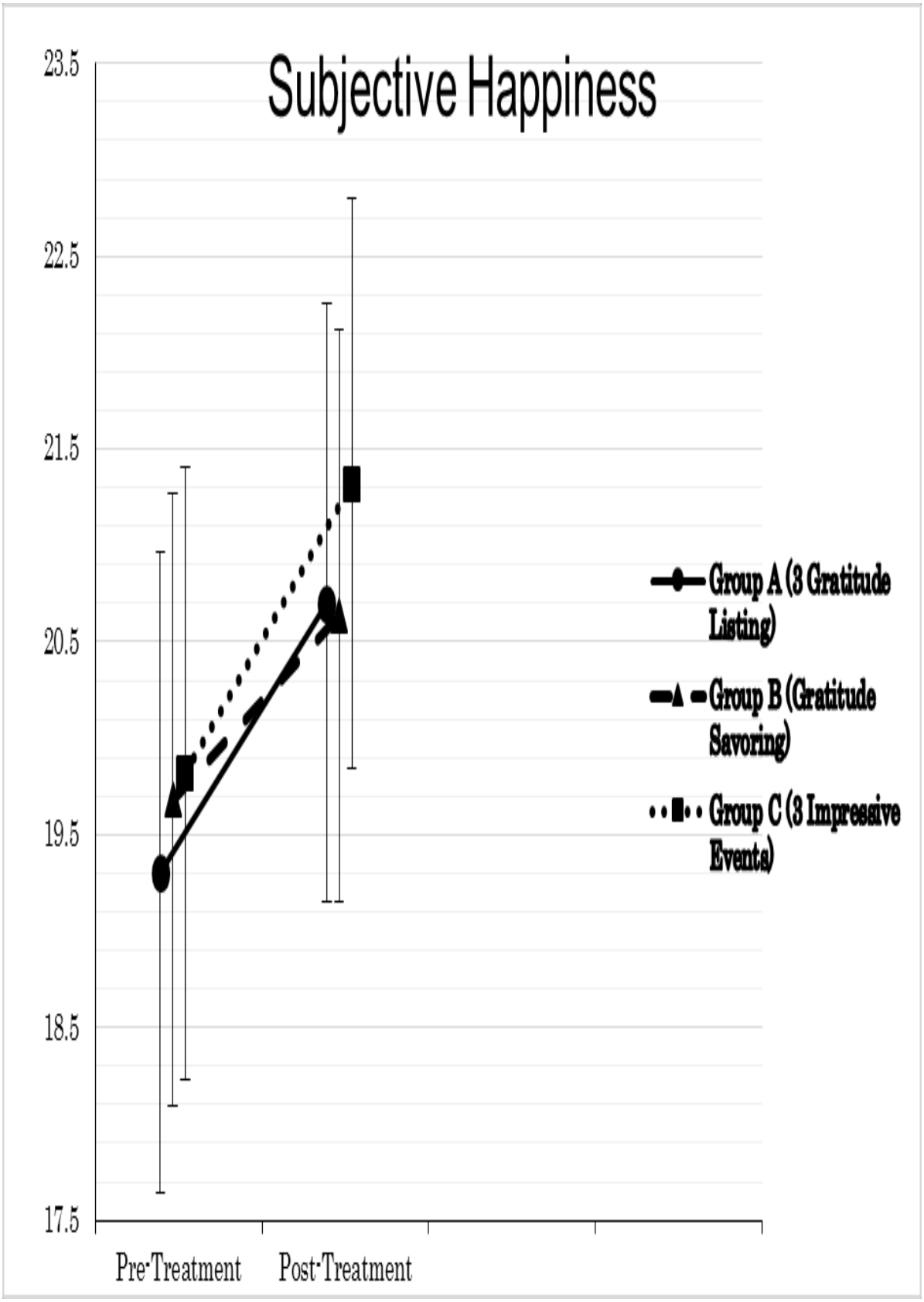

Figure 1. Changes in subjective happiness from pre-treatment to post-treatment. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals.

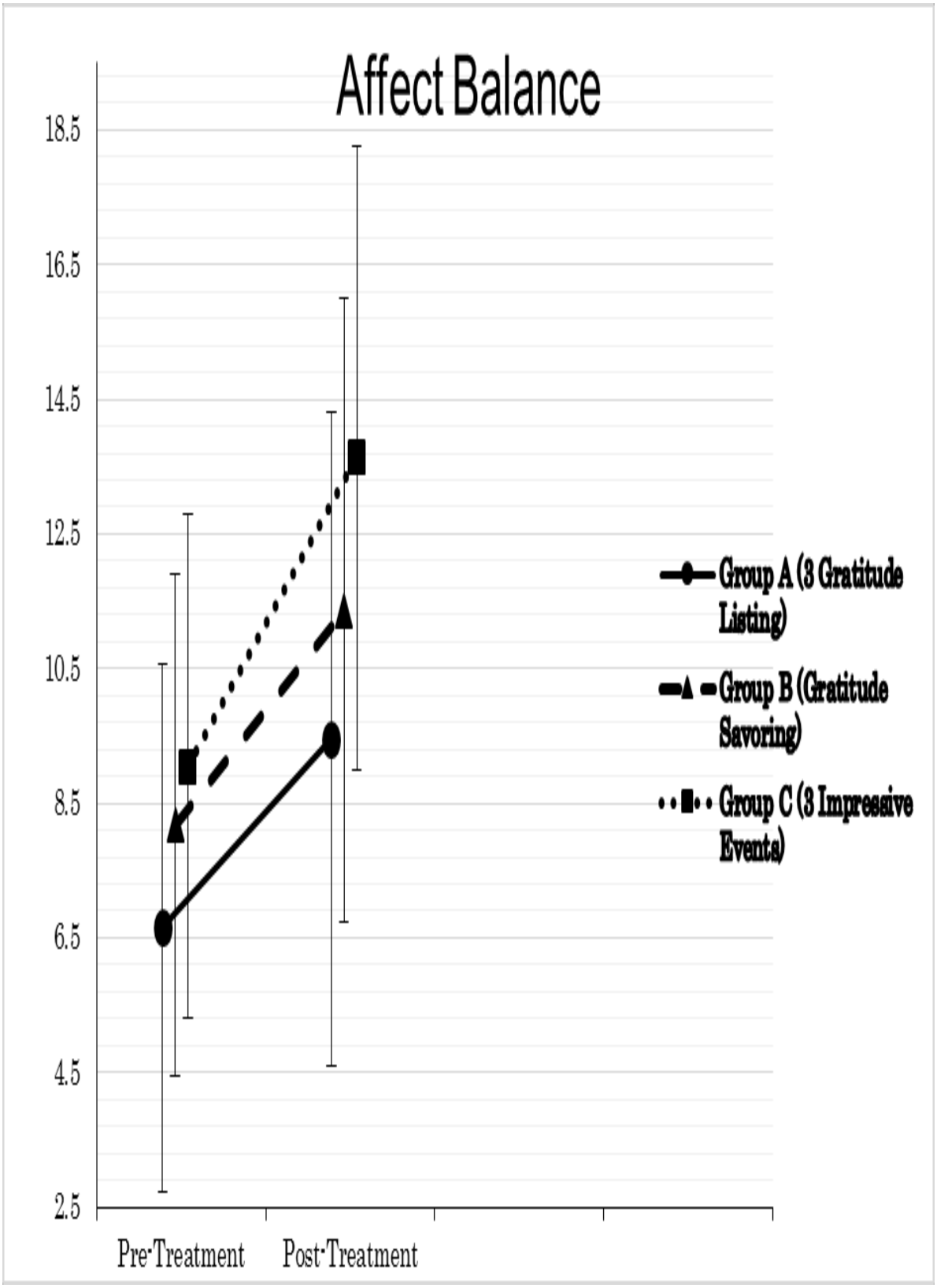

Figure 2. Changes in affect balance from pre-treatment to post-treatment. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals.

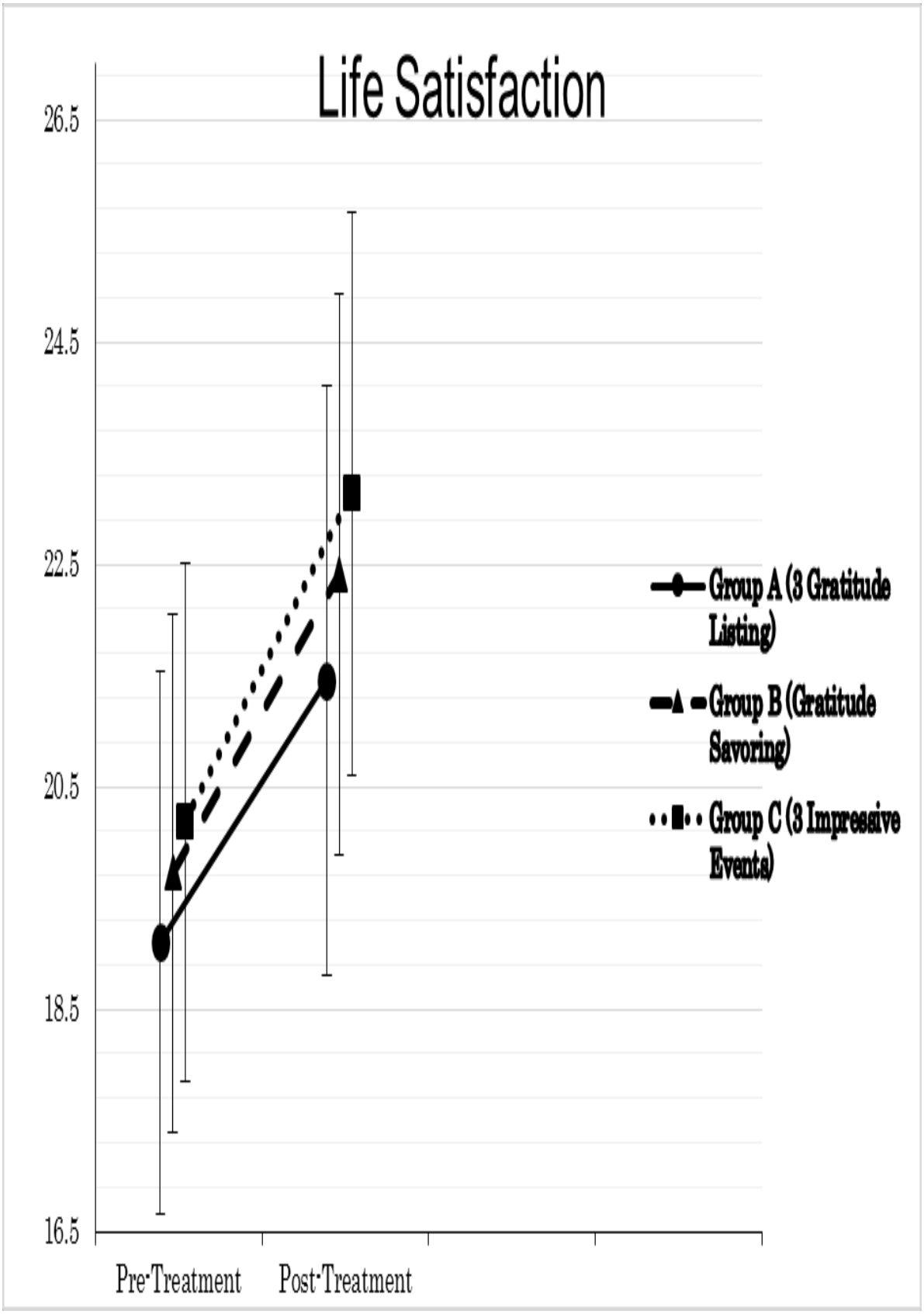

Figure 3. Changes in life satisfaction from pre-treatment to post-treatment. Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals.

Plaidejat a una dama a còr freg [1]: The Occitaniste Movement in France from the Third Republic to 1945

Michéal Thompson

Abstract: This paper focuses on the evolution and changes experienced by the Occitaniste movement in France from the French Revolution to 1945. A subsequent article will carry it forward to the present. Following a brief introduction to the Occitan language and its history prior to the Third Republic, the central role of Frédéric Mistral and the Félibrige movement in Provence sets the stage. The first period of the Third Republic was crucial to the history of Occitan and the Occitaniste movement. The relationship of Occitania to France and of Occitanisme to the state were shaped by the actions of the state especially in the realm of education, and in the reaction of the Félibrige and others to them. A fundamental division between eastern Occitania (Provençe) and western Occitania was reinforced at this time and was to have repercussions for the future history of the Occitaniste movement. The changes experienced both politically and socially during the early years of the twentieth century through the Second World War are then examined.

Introduction: L'occitan qu'es acquò?[2]

Occitan is a Romance language, which means that it is descended from Latin (Late or Vulgar Latin). Thus it is part of the large Romance Language family including French, Castilian, Italian, Catalan and numerous others. This large family of

[1] "Plea to a cold hearted lady" - all translations are by the author.
[2] What is Occitan? This is both the subject of the next few pages and also of a highly successful set of informational material produced by the Institut d'estudis occitans/Institut d'Études Occitanes (IEO) whose national office is at 11 carrièra Malcosinat, 31000 Tolosa.

languages is conventionally divided along geographic lines. Occitan is certainly (and obviously) a branch of the Western Romance group. Thereafter it becomes more contentious for reasons that will be discussed. For some linguists it is part of Gallo-Romance (hence linked to France and French) while for others its links are with Catalan and by extension Castilian so it is part of Iberian Romance. It also has clear linkages with Gallo-Italic, the languages of Northern Italy, such as Piedmontese or Romagnol. The arguments are as much political as they are purely linguistic[3]. Irrespective of these arguments about linguistic affiliations, Occitan developed as a language in what is now the South of France around a number of cultural centers. While Tolosa[4] (Toulouse) is usually given pre-eminence (though not by all!) other centers such as Bordèu (Bordeaux), Limòtges (Limoges), Pau, Avinhon (Avignon), and Marselha (Marseille) among others also had their part to play. While a "common language" may have coalesced around these various centers, there was obviously a degree of accepted variation from the beginning in Occitan, which was lacking in some respects in Castilian or French or even in Catalan. Occitan has always been pluri-centric.

A large part of the reason for this lies in the question of state formation. In the milieux of Feudal Europe, a pluri-centric language like Occitan was a unifying factor. It was also a high status language used and understood in many of the courts of Western Europe. William IX (1071-1127) was Duke of Aquitaine, Duke of Gascony,

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[3] At the level solely of Linguistics, the literature is very extensive. Major recent works which deserve consultation are: Pierre Bec, *Manuel pratique de philologie romane (Paris, 1970 & 1971);* Frederick B. Agard, *A Course in Romance Linguistics* [Two Volumes] (Georgetown, 1984); Peter Boyd-Bowman, *From Latin to Romance in Sound Charts* (Georgetown, 1980); and Joshua Rudder, *The Grammar of Romance* (New York?, 2012). Material specific to Occitan will be cited subsequently.

[4] Occitan names are given first, International (usually French) names are given in parentheses.

and Count of Poitou. Richard I (1157-1199) had all of these titles as well as being King of England. Both were prominent writers in Occitan. So, the "center of gravity" of Occitan was in the north and west of its current area. In fact, the language was often called Lemouzi(The language of the Limousin - bordering on France). William and Richard, alongside such poets (trobadors/troubadours) as Jaufré Rudel, insured that this was the case. In 1209 to 1229 (with a long aftermath) the Cathar Crusade eliminated the Limousin as a barrier and incorporated much of the Languedoc into the nascent Kingdom of France. Occitan only retained its high status in Béarn/Navarra in the southwest (until 1589), in the Comtat Venaisin (around Avignon and controlled by the Papacy) and in Provence (until 1486). Occitan thus never became a state founding language. It rapidly declined as a written language with the final blow being the Ordinance of Villers-Cotterêts in 1539 in which the French King Francis I legislated to abolish all languages but French in administration. Occitan was therefore set on a different trajectory from many of the other Romance languages[5].

Occitan remained the language of the people but it was a largely unwritten one. When contact was necessary with the State, then intermediary translators bridged the gap. Use of the language in traditional contexts (such as the Jocs Florals - Carnivals and poetry competitions) continued, but diminished by the year. A glorious but remote past, an unwritten language of the lower classes confronting an official state language in the present, and the looming possibility of extinction in the future - this was Occitan in 1780. Certain ecclesiastics advocated the use of "patois" for pragmatic purposes, such as Bishop Alain de Solminhiac (1593-1659) who trained preachers in the language specifically in his diocese of Cahors. This continuing concern is reflected in the life of Eugèni de Mazenod (1782-1861) who founded the

[5] Though somewhat dated, the best short general history remains: Pierre Bec *La langue occitane* (Paris, 1995 [6th edition]).

Oblats de Maria Immaculada in 1816 largely out of concern for "the poor who spoke only the Provençal language". It is perhaps noteworthy that in many of the apparitions of the Blessed Virgin Mary at this time (notably La Salette and especially Lourdes), the Blessed Virgin herself spoke Occitan[6].

Those who spoke it didn't even call it Occitan but "patois" or "patoué". This "patois" was much despised by French speakers and also by many of its users. The same word was applied to all of the non-French languages and dialects of the Kingdom of France. Occitan as a concept or a clearly differentiated linguistic entity had virtually disappeared but Occitan as a reality had not. In fact it was obvious that Occitan (or as they preferred, Patois) was the only viable way to communicate the ideas of the Revolution to its numerous speakers - overwhelmingly numerous in many areas. This is what they did, and there was a brief recrudescence of Occitan as a propaganda vehicle for the Revolution[7]. When they did write in Occitan however, they did not use the spelling, writing, or grammar standards of classical Occitan, rather they devised a range of idiosyncratic writing systems based on the phonology of French. However, temporary expediency aside, the goals of the French Revolution were just that, French, and all forms of "patois" had no place in it. The un-modernized somewhat ramshackle nature of the Kingdom of France had provided some shelter but that was not to last long. In 1789 the Revolution had begun and its consequences for Occitan as well as for France were to prove decisive. The clarion call was the report of Abbé Gregoire to the Convention in 1794[8]. Based on a survey and hence on concrete data, he made clear that France was not in fact French speaking. More than

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[6] See: Joachim Bouflet & Philippe Boutry *Un signe dans le ciel* (Paris, 1997).
[7] See: Henri Boyer et al *Le texte occitan de la période révolutionnaire* (Montpellier, 1989) and M. Carmen Alén Garabato *Quand le "patois" était politiquement utile* (Paris , 1999) - the latter concentrates on Tolosa (Toulouse).
[8] *Rapport sur la Nécessité et les Moyens d'anéantir les Patois et d'universaliser l'Usage de la Langue française*

50% of French citizens did not speak French at all and only 12% spoke it with any real degree of native speaker competence and exactitude. Instead most citizens spoke one of the 39 "patois" distinguished at the time. Obviously the Abbé Gregoire and indeed all of the supporters of the French Revolution believed in one national language and that it should indeed be French especially if the Revolution was to be effective, but it was to take some time for his wish to become a reality.

Occitan in the Nineteenth Century: Mistral and the Félibrige

The primary key to the spread of French (and the further demise of Occitan) was its use in education and the spread of education itself throughout the country and at all social levels. The political history of post-Revolutionary France insured that this was a slow and far from smooth process[9]. A succession of basically conservative administrations from the Bourbon Restoration through to the demise of the Empire of Napoléon III showed varying levels of commitment to furthering the cause of universal education but none, clearly, had it as a true priority. Part of the reason for this was unquestionably to placate the various conservative and/or monarchist leaders who were concentrated in much of the Occitan area and who hankered after the "gold old days" where the traditional provinces had a greater degree of autonomy[10]. The Catholic Church, for good reasons, was not exactly fond of the Revolution and its legacy. They also had a particular interest in education, what was taught and by whom and a significant degree of nostalgia for Royalism in many quarters as well. The existence of significant groups of Protestants in the Occitan areas (especially the

[9] The standard (and best) analysis is still the collection of essays: François Furet & Jacques Ozouf *Lire et Ecrire: l'alphabétisation des français de Calvin à Jules Ferry* (Paris, 1977).
[10] Brain Fitzpatrick *Catholic Royalism in the Department of the Gard, 1814-1852* (Cambridge, 1983).

Languedoc) heightened these tendencies in these areas as the Protestants were largely in favor of the Revolution, which had emancipated them from royal repression. This was not however a linguistic conflict as the Protestants had adopted French as the only official language of the church. The Catholic Church used French as the language of power but was more pragmatic in its use of Occitan, to which it was committed in practical terms (sermons and [perhaps] catechism) but was otherwise officially indifferent. Dogma mattered, the language in which it was taught less so[11]. There matters rested or at least only slowly changed until the advent of the Third Republic in 1871.

By the middle of the nineteenth century, the pluri-centric nature of Occitan and the absence of any contemporary linguistic center or linguistic standard had resulted in a clear division of the language into six principal dialects. These dialects could be increasingly subdivided down to the village level. At their edges they also shaded off into the next dialect. While some linguists would favor nearly infinite subdivision, a basic division into six was widely accepted. In the north: Limousin, Auvergnat, and Alpin (or Gavot), which was also used across the French border in the Occitan valleys of northern Italy. In the southwest, Gascon was dominant. In the center, Languedocien and Provençal were customary and they were also, coincidentally, closer to Medieval Occitan. A number of linguistic features underlined this division into six. A number of disputes about this division (among linguists) would continue for some time and indeed continue into the present: Alpin is often claimed to be a variety of Provençal (though not always convincingly) and Gascon is

[11] The relationship of the Catholic Church to Occitan and its usage remain to be examined. These questions have been explored for Breton [See: Fañch Broudic, *La pratique du breton de l'ancien régime à nos jours* (Rennes, 1995)] and for Sard in Italy [See: Raimondo Turtas *Pregare in sardo: scritti su Chiesa e Lingua in Sardegna* (Caglia, 2006)]. The author intends to publish an article on this question in the future.

often claimed to be a separate language altogether, as separate from Occitan in the west as Catalan is in the east. Most of these disputes can, of their nature, never be fully resolved though the admitted existence of Franco-Provençal on the one hand and the distinctiveness of Catalan on the other have at least established a geographical and linguistic limiting framework acceptable to all[12].

Frederic Mistral (1830-1914) was born into an Occitan speaking milieu and Occitan was his first language. Of necessity, this was one of the six recognized dialects (in his case Provençal). He founded an association of poets in Provençal called the Félibrige in 1854 to celebrate the use and beauty of the language. Founded in the reign of Napoléon III - who was Emperor from 1852 to 1870 - his intent was not literally "reactionary" (to reverse the past) but to accept the status quo and to attempt to ameliorate it in practical terms. His aim (and that of the Félibrige more generally) was to create a space for Occitan in a modern France, which was both, unitary (to reflect the heritage of the Revolution) and yet in some sense pluri-centric (to reflect both the pre-Revolutionary past and the actuality of the present). The Félibrige was not specifically monarchist (though many of its adherents were), nor Catholic (though most of its adherents were). Neither did it oppose the Revolutionary concept of a modern, unitary nation. Rather it was regionalist (though practically right wing) seeking for a space in France for the virtues (and languages) of the past to flourish in the pragmatic environment of the present. This explains its successes and its failures. It offered a respectable platform for Monarchists and others to integrate into the state and it was obviously favorable to the Catholic Church. And yet it did not

[12] The existence of Fracoprovençal (a Latin based language centered on Lyon) was first recognized by Ascoli in the 1870's. For a good summary see: Dominique Stich *Parlons francoprovençal: une langue méconnue* (Paris, 2001). For Catalan see: Antoni M. Badia Margarit *La formació de la llengua catalana* (Barcelona, 1991) and Joan Veny *Els parlars catalans* (Mallorca, 2002) which touches on the Occitan/Catalan relationship and also that between Catalan and Valenciano.

offer a challenge to the unitary French state and to concepts of social progress. In the world of Third Empire France it was both attractive and non-threatening. Its failures lie largely with it being non-practical. It was not a program to further the cause of Occitan in the schools or the workplace. There was no practical planning attached to the Félibrige, it was all poetry and no pedagogy. This was not enough in the harsher and more calculating world of the Third Republic and in confrontation with the real world of Occitan speakers.

It was, however, a platform that could embrace the range of language enthusiasts and yet was not obviously a threat to the Empire or even to the opponents of the Empire whose revolution had been thwarted[13]. The Empire, with its eclectic mix of nostalgia, clericalism, and the desire to rehabilitate France on the European and world stage was the perfect backdrop for the early Félibrige - impractical yet conciliatory. The Félibrige received a respectable, genteel hearing but no real action. The Félibrige (and Mistral in particular) brought Occitan into the salons of Paris. His lengthy poem *Mirèio* (published in 1857) was an instant success in these quarters. Taken up by Dumas, Lamartine, and others its blend of emotion, romance, and nostalgia was perfect for the court of Napoléon III and the Empress Eugénie. The fact that it was in Occitan, though distant recollections of the *trobadors* were positive, was seemingly irrelevant. Like Sir Walter Scott in the United Kingdom just a few years earlier, there was no intention of dealing with the contemporary existence and challenges of Occitan any more than there had been for Scots or Gaelic. It was a very socially acceptable form of Occitanisme, which was to culminate in the award of the

[13] On the early years of the Félibrige and Mistral's leading role see: Maria-Clàudia Gastou *Mistral abans Mirèio: cossi mistral prenguèt part a l'espelsion del felibrige e de l'armana provençau (1854-1859)* (Auriilac, 2012). For a good overview of the Félibrige from its beginnings to the First World War see: Philippe Martel *Les félibres et leur temps: Renaissance d'oc et opinion (1850-1914)* (Boudeaux, 2010).

Nobel Prize for Literature to Mistral in 1904. But by the time that he received his prize on behalf of a grateful French nation, times had changed for Occitan and even, to some extent at least, for Mistral and the Félibrige. After the glitter, France was to be a much more pragmatic state and the place of Occitan within it a far more contested one.

First, as Napoléon III left the international stage and the Third Republic took his place, what was Occitan? Mistral had written the language of his youth as he heard and experienced it. He had no real knowledge of classical Occitan or at least no desire to utilize it. He created an orthography based on that of French. It was realistic in terms of the spoken variety of Occitan to which he was used and it was of its nature more accessible to French speakers. His orthography, called as it should be *Mistralienne*, was based on the spoken language of Provençe. True to this, the language he wrote (and which the other Félibrigiens wrote) was labeled not as Occitan but as Provençal. Due to the prestige of the Félibrige, the language as a whole was labeled as Provençal throughout most of the years of the Third Republic[14]. While this might, conceivably, have led to Provençal being the prestige dialect and Mistralienne being the prestige orthography, such was not the case. The Third Republic was not interested in stabilizing Occitan, but rather it was specifically hostile to any attempts to do so. *Mistralienne* Provençal could not serve to unite against a common linguistic enemy but rather to divide the already divided ranks of Occitania. In the initial stages this meant writing Occitan in a variety of sometimes idiosyncratic "patouisant" forms. Of their nature, this would doom Occitan to being a

[14] As examples, the most indispensable studies of Occitan dialects in the early twentieth century are: Jules Ronjat *Grammaire istorique des parlers provençaux modernes* (Montpellier, 1930-1941) and the same author's *Essai de syntaxe des parlers provencaux modernes* (Macon 1913). they both cover the whole Occitan area not just Provençe.

folkloric enterprise where aging agriculturalists recounted their youths and farming practices. The Third Republic was committed to a present and especially an envisaged future in which Occitan had no real place. The challenge for the Félibrige was to reverse this and to secure that place.

The label Provençal was a particular and enduring barrier and, ironically, not a barrier intentionally created by Mistral or the Félibrige more generally. It was a barrier for the French state and a barrier for Occitan speakers as well. Mistral and the Félibrige were committed to France and to Provençal, they saw no real contradiction between them. But their conception of France and that of the mainstream of the Third Republic was a different one. Poetry was all very well and good, but what about Primary Schools? The Félibrige was suspect to the Third Republic, as its espousal of regionalism seemed to derogate from the unitary, centralizing policies of the state. While the implementation of a thoroughgoing French only policy at schools was subject to the pedagogical approaches of individual teachers and school inspectors, it was never much in doubt. The laws passed while Jules Ferry was Minister of Public Instruction in the 1880's, which made it clear that French and only French could be used to create French citizens, had underlined this. While these laws were designed for lay, state schools, they also shaped teaching in Catholic schools. Not that the Catholic Church was particularly favorable to Occitan or indeed to the Félibrige[15]. Doctrine was important, not the language that it was imparted in. It is debatable whether Church related school or State related schools were any different in their attitude to Occitan. The separation of Church and State aggravated the situation but perhaps fundamentally did not alter it, partly because Catholic schools continued and

[15] See: David Streight *Théodore Aubanel* (Saintes-Maries-de-la-Mer, 1996) in which the rigorous control over poetry written in Provençal by Aubrac [second only toMistral] by ecclesiastical authorities is documented.

partly because of the pre-existing attitude of the Catholic Church authorities to Occitan[16].

The response of the Félibrige and of Mistral was somewhat lack luster and certainly not assertive, though it became a little more so over time. In 1854 Mistral had the temerity to ask for "uno pichoto plaço au costat dou frânçes (a small space (for Occitan) alongside French) in the schools[17]. Even this was officially rejected for nearly forty years. The ideas of Frère Savinian (1844-1920) that Occitan could be used as a linguistic bridge to French were rarely considered by the Félibrige and, even in the modified form proposed by Bréal, were rejected by the Félibrige in 1890[18]. This began to change in the 1890's when elements of the Félibrige became more assertive and elements of the Laique opposition began to moderate their approach. Above all the Socialist politician and thinker Jean Jaurès (a native Occitan speaker) helped towards this goal. Slow and unassertive progress by the Félibrige led to little change and the rock of unbending French centralized ideas of the nation underlined this. The Catholic Church had other issues to explore and was linguistically inclined to be neutral. This was exacerbated by the separation between the Catholic hierarchy (upper to middle class French speaking careerists) and the parish clergy (locally recruited and therefore Occitan speaking, often from the more well off farmer and peasant class). The latter were severely weakened by the decline in vocations following the separation of Church and State and the loss of state revenue for the clergy[19].

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[16] The literature on Church-State separation in France is very extensive and there is no need to be exhaustive in a study of Occitanisme. Two essential sources are: Inédit *1905, la séparation des Eglises et de l'Etat (textes fondateurs)* (Paris, 2004) and Jean Sévillia *Quand les catholiques étaient hors la loi* (Paris, 2006). Other material is cited in previous works of the author.

[17] Michel Barris *Langue d'oil contre langue d'oc* (Lyon , 1978) p.53.

[18] See: *http://vidas.occitanica.eu/items/show/2072* and Barris (1978) p.57.

[19] See: Mícheál Thompson *The Geography of Recruitment to the Missions Etrangères de Paris: 1891-1941* (Miyazaki, 2001).

The perceived dilettantism of the Félibrige, while remaining the dominant discourse between Occitania (especially Provençe) and Paris, was increasingly challenged. In the same way that Jaurès seemed to offer some flexibility at the level of national politics, others (especially drawn from the ranks of practicing teachers) challenged it not only in Provençe but in other areas of Occitania especially Languedoc and Gasconha (Gascogne). In Languedoc Antonin Perbosc and Prosper Estieu made clear their concerns to both legitimate Occitan as a language (not a *patois*) and to insure it a place in the schools throughout Occitania. As Perbosc wrote: "Our real work is to unify the language and not just partially or artificially restore one of its dialects" - "a living Occitan language for the present, by fusing useful elements preserved in popular speech" and then using this in the school system[20]. Obviously, the beginnings of a fissure in the Occitaniste movement could be seen. On the one hand, the suppliant, largely accomodationist, Provençal based movement of the Félibrige and Mistral. It drew its support from the more rightwing, Monarchist, Catholic segments and concentrated on the folkloric rather than the practical and pedagogic. However, they had no traction at the national level (except for Jaurès perhaps) and had little interest in gaining it. On the other hand, a more pragmatic (in some ways) and pan-occitaniste movement was being formed largely outside of Provençe (Emile Ripert was the exception[21]) with the intention of rooting Occitan in the public life of French citizens in the area. The differences between the mainstream Félibrige and these other tendencies were very far from complete, at least in

[20] Antonin Perbosc in *Mont-Segur* November & December 1904. See also: Christian-Pierre Bedel *L'école et l'occitan en Aveyron/L'escòla e l'occitan en Rouergue* (Villefranche-de-Rouergue, 2013).
[21] Ripert went on to being the first-ever chair of Provençal Language and Literature at Aix-Marseille University in 1920.

Provençe. Ripert replaced Mistral after his death as a member of the Académie de Marseille in 1916 and demonstrated some markedly rightwing tendencies[22].

Outside of Provençe, in the Languedoc, the Félibrige was noticeably weaker (this was even more the case in the Auvergne, Gascony, and the Limousin). In the Limousin, the chief of the Félibrige (Abbé Joseph Roux 1834-1905) was resolute in his fostering of the language, but equally resolute in labelling it as "Limousine" and not Provençal as well as his refusal to use the Mistralienne orthography. He favored a classical orthography with some modifications to reflect the phonology of northern Occitan. In the Languedoc, the Félibrige was still the standard bearer for the rights of the Occitan language but the conservative political and social views of Mistral (not to mention the more modern rightwing ideas of Ripert) were far less so. In the Languedoc, while the folkloristic side of the Félibrige was still much in evidence, the politics were more likely to be pragmatic, radical and to the left of the spectrum. Jaurès and his style of populist socialism were acceptable here in a way that they were not in Mistral's Provençe. The key event, which made this clear, was the *révolte de vignerons* in 1907[23]. While a complicated series of events, the over-production of inferior wine in southern France alongside imported wine from Italy and Algeria and a variety of dubious practices had led to a virtual collapse of the viticulture industry in the Languedoc. Poverty and unemployment grew rapidly and the wine growers formed a significant, militant movement to reverse this and to assert the rights of the people. Virtually all of the vine growers were Occitan speakers. Protests culminated in a mass demonstration at Montpellier of 700,000 people. The mayor of Narbonne

[22] He spoke a eulogy at Mistral's funeral in 1914 in which he praised the Italian proto-Fascist Giuseppe Botta. He was also a prominent member of a delegation to Fascist Italy in 1920.

[23] For a good general overview see: Félix Napo & Rémy Pech *1907 la révolte des vignerons* (Paris, 2007).

(Ernest Ferroul) was a major promoter and a notable member of the Félibrige and Pierre Dévoluy (capoulié or Deputy Chief of the Félibrige) was extremely active. Even the Bishop of Montpellier (Anatole de Cabrières who was a Royalist, Legitimist, and member of the Félibrige) offered at least tacit support by opening the cathedral and the churches for the demonstrators to spend the night[24]. Mistral and the mainstream of the Félibrige in Provençe remained as detached as they could. In fact, despite Dévoluy's personal plea, Mistral refused to actively participate. This was perhaps understandable, populist workers movements had never attracted him or the Provençal Félibrige at large. His attachment to Royalism as a viable political option was only somewhat less nebulous. Mistral wrote a telegram to the demonstrators at Béziers, which perhaps encapsulated his feelings: "Long live Mother Earth and those who work it. Enough politics! Let's unite around Occitan"[25]. The *révolte de vignerons* was in the end resolved but the issue of Occitan was not, not least Occitan in the schools. The various political tendencies (centralism on the left and federalism on the right) continued to negotiate with each other and between various factions and extremities. Ideology and pragmatism shifted in weight but dominated the debate. Increasing industrialization had chipped away at the edges of Occitania either directly or through the system of migrant labor whereby significant numbers of the population (initially male but increasingly both male and female) became part of the labor force of Central and Northern France. Its effects were clear in areas such as the Auvergne and the Limousin as the nineteenth century came to a close. Relentless centralization of educational curricula underlined this. The pace of slow change was inexorable but it seemed like some times resistance was possible. Jaurès appeared to offer a way

[24] Gérard Cholvy *Le cardinal de Cabrières (1830-1921). Un siècle d'histoire de la France* (Paris, 2007).
[25] *"Vivo la terro maire e l'abitant que la boulego. Plus de poulitico! Unioun en lengo d'Oc*" quoted in Claude Mauron Frédéric Mistral (Paris, 1993). p.344

from the Left for Occitan and the younger Félibrige members (largely outside of Provençe) had been supportive. Noticeably Félix Gras (1844-1901) and Auguste Fourès (1848-1891) but they were dead before the *révolte de vignerons* would have offered them an opportunity for action. But Mistral and the bulk of the Félibrige (especially in Provençe) were not. The old white/red divide continued. Though Mistral had conceded the use of the word Occitan by the time of the *révolte des vignerons*, it only became part of the statutes of the Félibrige in 1911[26]. Jaurés continued the battle for Occitan in the schools with an article in *La Dépêche du Midi* in 1911 but its effect was minimal - too little, too late. Even the, there was marked opposition especially from other Socialists and Radicals such as Gaston Doumergue who resented all challenges to the unitary French state[27]. On the eve of the First World War, Jaurès was assassinated and much of the hope he had helped generate was lost. In 1914 the pace of change suddenly accelerated with the beginnings of the First World War. In four years, when it was over, the landscape of Europe had changed and so had that of Occitanisme.

From 1914 to 1945: Occitan and France in Turmoil

[26] "The term Occitanisme denotes the spiritual state of all those who aspire to serve Occitania: her language, her customs, her traditions, and who wish for her a greater independence in terms of politics, administration, and the economy" cited in Joan Larzac *Descolonisar l'istòria occitan: Tome II - l'enemic dins la clòsca* (Montpelhièr 1977). p.230

[27] Gaston Doumergue (1863-1937) was a long serving politician and twice Prime Minster. He helped shift the Radical Party further from the Left. He was also a native Occitan speaker. However, he wrote in reply to Jaurès: "France is one, there is only one France. Her thoughts, her feelings, her traditions are expressed through only one language: French" cited in René Jouveau *Histoire du Félibrige Tome 01 1876-1914* (Aix-en-Provence, 1970) p.407.

In 1914 the core of the Occitan world in France was still largely intact but the unidirectional process of change was very clear[28]. While much of the Limousin (and to a lesser extent the Auvergne) had entered the French speaking, industrialized world, even there much remained the same. What was true of the Creuse was not necessarily true of the Corrèze[29]. In the rest of Occitania, despite pockets of industrialization as in Carmaux and the general industrialization of viniculture, things remained much as before[30]. The First World War (1914-1918) mobilized millions of Frenchmen (and Occitans) into the service of the state. Those who did not directly serve were still indirectly involved in the war effort. This involved not only men but also women. The old agricultural world was irrevocably altered. There is a wealth of biographical and anecdotal evidence about change in the rural world of France and Occitania; in fact it is a large, albeit uneven, genre[31]. What is of interest is not the extent of change but its variability and, perhaps most importantly, the responses that it evoked. Mistral died in 1914. His world of "regionalism" based on monarchical, feudal privileges being resuscitated for the benefit of Occitan did not die with him but it retreated to its Provençal redoubt. A worthy inheritor was Baron Folco de Baroncelli who carried the standards of this aristocratic Félibrige into the 1940's especially by his obsession with the Camargue and its equestrian, bullfighting

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[28] The classic work is still: Eugen Weber *Peasants into Frenchmen: The Modernization of Rural France, 1870-1914* (Stanford, 1976) there are many substantial though less magisterial studies subsequently.

[29] Outstanding among the works dealing with religion (and indirectly) language in the Limousin are those of Louis Pérouas. Among his many publications the following are perhaps of most relevance: Louis Pérouas *Refus d'une religion, Religion d'un refus* (Paris, 1985) and *Le catholicisme en limousin aux xix et xx siecles a travers sa presse* (Treignac, 2000).

[30] See the classic work: Joan Wallach Scott *The Glassworkers of Carmaux* (Harvard, 1980). Carmaux was Jaurès's main area of political strength.

[31] As one, very popular, example among many see: Roger Boussinot *Vie et mort de jean chalosse, moutonnier des landes* (Paris, 1977). More outstanding, and poignant, are the various works of Marcelle Delpastre (Marcela Delpastre) in Occitan and French such as *Las vias priondas de la memòria* (Aurillac, 2001).

culture[32]. Outside of Provençe, Occitanisme was severely weakened as it dealt with the major economic, political, and social disruptions of France from the end of the First World War until 1940.

The First World War, in France at least, was a total war. When the war began there were about 13 million active male French citizens, approximately one in ten of those were killed or disappeared (1.3 million) a further 400,000 were wounded. Seven hundred thousand widows and more than a million orphans survived the war. Occitania was very far from exempt from this and it was scarred directly. This was especially the case because 13% of the male agricultural population were killed or injured and much of the Occitan speaking areas were economically based on agriculture[33]. The indirect scars were perhaps to prove of even greater significance. Of the eight million non-professional soldiers mobilized for the war, more than 15% died and a further 40% were wounded. The experience of this loss directly affected Occitania but its social impact went beyond loss. Those who had been mobilized and the returned had been forcefully or otherwise thrust into a monoglot French world. Despite the horrendous nature of the war for many, it was still a shock of realization as to the nature of France and the French state and their own role within it. They returned as French speakers with most of them accepting that this was the way that the future was going. This was not just a realization for men but for women also. The war had mobilized many women and had widened the horizons of many more. Shopping catalogues were to be found in even the most remote of villages, which served to spread both the French language and fashion especially among the female population.

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[32] See: Robert Zaretsky *Cock and Bull Stories* (Nebraska, 2004).
[33] See table in Jean Jacques Becker & Serge Berstein *Victoire et frustations 1914-1929* (Paris, 1990) p. 149.

The Catholic Church had also changed and was no longer to be relied upon to favor the interests of the old ideas of Royalism or Regionalism, though many continued to do so. Church state antagonism had centered around education and the social functions of the Church and thus had explicitly and implicitly involved the use of Patois[34]. It had culminated in the formal separation of Church and State and the rejection of the status quo of the Napoleonic Concordat of 1801[35]. This separation was brutally experienced in many areas and was to overshadow life in France, especially rural France, for at least fifteen years[36]. The First World War had changed this, the *Union Sacrée* symbolized the willingness of Catholics to fight alongside others for the French nation, both as soldiers and as almoners[37].

Finding a new postwar modus vivendi was not easy but it was clearly necessary for the greater good of both parties. The institutional church favored a pragmatic solution and with the passing of the old guard in the episcopate, this was more and more possible. Charles Maurras, the founder of the right wing *Action Française* movement was a member of the Félibrige and active in its interests. In this he was supported by prominent clerics such as Cardinal de Cabrières[38]. By 1921 the Cardinal was dead and by 1926 the *Action Française* was condemned by the Papacy[39]. While there was much resistance to the *Ralliement* in the Catholic Church in France as a whole[40], its specifically Occitan dimensions were muted to the point of non-existence. Maurras, though a Provençal *félibrigien,* was committed in his

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34 See Christian Sorrel *La république contre les congrégations* (Paris, 2003).
35 Bernard Ardura et al *Le concordat entre Pie VII et Bonaparte* (Paris 2001)
36 See Yves Bruley 1905, *la séparation des Eglises et de l'Etat* (Paris, 2004) et Jean Sévillia *Quand les catholiques étaient hors de la loi* (Paris, 2006).
37 See Nadine-Josette Chaline *Chrétiens dans la premiére guerre mondiale* (Paris, 1993).
38 Gérard Cholvy *Le Cardinal de Cabrières (1830-1921)* (Paris, 2007).
39 Philippe Prévost *L'église et le ralliement* (Paris, 2001).
40 André Laudouze *Dominicains français et action française: Maurras au couvent* (Paris, 1989).

opposition to the *Ralliement* by his vision of France as a whole of which Occitania (or rather Provençe) was just a part. The discussion of Occitan issues was muted in the 1920's and 1930's though it was never entirely absent.

Though Maurras believed that what worked for Provençe worked for France, it is noticeable that all of his postwar efforts were directed at the latter[41]. In the immediate aftermath of the First World War, there were several small scale efforts to put Occitan on the map and to gain a place for the language in the educational system. In Languedoc, the efforts of Antonin Perbosc (1861-1944) and Prosper Estieu (1880-1939) over fifteen years led to the creation of the *Escola Occitana* in 1919. This was a break with the royalist and clericalist world of the Provençal Félibrige in a somewhat left of center Populist direction. The hegemony of Provençal was specifically challenged ("our real work is to unify the language and not the partial and artificial restoration of one of its dialects")[42]. His idea was not even to start from the Classical Occitan of the trobadors but rather to "forge a new language, the living Occitan of our own day, by the fusion of different usable elements preserved in our popular languages"[43]. This initiative was taken up by Lafore in Gascony and even by Emile Ripert (1882-1948) in the heart of the Félibrige in Provençe. Their collective efforts were obviously met with less than enthusiasm by the core of the Félibrige, their reception by the French state and political parties however was hardly less frosty but it was much more decisive.

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41 Maurras "O aviá fach per Provença, e aquò serviguèt per França" quoted in Joan Larzac *Descolonisar l'istòria occitan T.ii* (Montpelhièr, 1977) p.216.
42 "La vertadiera toca es l'unificacio de la lenga, e non pas la restauracion partidenca et artificiala d'un de sos dialectes" *Mont Segur* 11:November:1904.
43 "Cal fargar la lenga novela, la lenga occitana viventa de nostre temps, per la fusion de tots los elements utiliizables conservats dins los parlars popularis" *Mont Segur* 12:December:1904.

The Third Republic after the First World War was, almost of necessity, weak and divided. The Radicals, Socialists, Communists, and various independents of the Left vied for power with over 30 Prime Ministerial terms of Office from 1919 to 1940. Occasionally, those of the Right got a short lived look in (such as the Occitan speaker Pierre Laval) who headed the National Bloc government for well under a year in late 1935. He was to achieve greater notoriety for his wartime efforts[44]. Both Left and Right were increasingly exposed to problems and challenges, which stretched beyond the national boundaries of France. Accordingly they became more and more internationalist in outlook and in policy decision-making. This left little time to consider "regionalist" issues such as that of Occitania. The Félibrige still dominated the language movement from its base in Provençe and seemed increasingly remote from the day-to-day struggle of individuals or even political parties. It was a period of quiescence for the movement, though many hoped for better times, and Maurras even promised them. His audience was largely unreceptive however and, with the spread of more internationalist and socialist ideas through out much of Occitania (less so in Provençe) his activities seemed quixotic at best and dangerously fascistic at worst. In most cases he could be dismissed as a demagogue of little relevance to the present and certainly to the future.

The advent of the Second World War shook France and Occitania out of its long malaise and, to some degree, returned them to a more pragmatic consideration of their condition. It also led to the return of old ghosts, old challenges, and a search for new solutions. The defeat of France in 1940 was, of necessity, interpreted differently by those who experienced it. The same applies to the subsequent division of France into two zones (one "occupied", the other "unoccupied"), with the exception of some

[44] See: Jean-Paul Cointet *Pierre Laval* (Paris, 1993).

coastal areas, "unoccupied France" was basically coterminous with Occitania. Surely, this represented an opportunity to be seized? Under a Conservative, Pétainist régime wasn't this was even more the case? The hopes of those on the Right seemed to have been realized and the centralist and internationalist vision of 1789 finally vanquished. Many embraced this vision, especially in Provençe[45]. The Provençal Charles Maurras and the Auvergnat Pierre Laval once again became influential. The Société d'études occitanes (SEO) was energized behind the Pétainist banner of "travail, famille, patrie" and tentative efforts were even made to introduce Occitan into the school system[46]. While there was some very limited success in 1942 and a growth of Occitan reviews for the élite, the time was short and the complicity of the Félibrige with the régime too obvious for many.

In November 1942, the postwar armistice line was abandoned and the Germans occupied all of France. Outside of Provençe, and even to some extent within it, the Pétainist régime was now experienced differently. Practical social disintegration and the daily deprivations of everyday life were omnipresent[47]. Of equal or greater relevance was the forcible recruitment (or attempted recruitment) of young men into the STO (Service du travail obligatoire), whereby 650,000 young men were sent by the Pétainist government to labor service in Germany. Those who so served from Occitania looked for a new model to express their cultural and linguistic situation from that of the Félibrige as did those who evaded such service and joined the armed *maquis* or Resistance. The SEO was discredited as to a large degree was the Félibrige outside of Provence. In the late summer of 1944 the Allies landed in Occitania with the active support of the *maquis* and the passive support of

[45] Robert Mencherini *Vichy en Provençe* (Paris, 2009).
[46] Philippe Martel *L'école française et l'occitan* (Toulouse , 2007).
[47] Robert Zaretsky *Nîmes at War: Religion, Politics, and Public Opinion in the Gard 1938-1944* (Pennsylvania, 1995).

much of the population. Marseille and Toulon were quickly liberated. The Pétainist/Félibrige experiment was over before it had barely begun.

The immediate consequences were obvious, the courts condemned Maurras to death, and Alibert was condemned as a collaborator, as were a number of others. The SEO was abolished and the IEO (Institut des études occitanes) was established in its place to represent Occitan linguistic and cultural interests. The focus had shifted away from Provençe to the other regions, especially the Languedoc, and the emphasis was no longer conservative but radical. Real change should not have to be asked for but should be there of right. The war had discredited the conservative (or even reactionary) Félibrige but it had also disenchanted many with internationalism and ideology as well. Now was a time for concrete practical action in the context of the French state. Returnees from the *maquis* and the STO were now staffing the schools, journals, and administration. It would be a different world, with different challenges, though the old controversies were far from forgotten.

英語教育の視点からみたアクティブラーニングと ICT 活用

松本　祐子

I. イントロダクション

学習指導要領の２０２０年改訂に向けて文科省では「何ができるようになるか、何を学ぶのか、どのように学ぶのか」という３つの大きな柱を中心に議論を進めている。特に３点目の「どのように学ぶのか」に関しては、課題の発見や解決に向けた主体的及び協働的学習を促進するための学習方法として、アクティブラーニングが推奨され、教育現場や研究者の間で大きな関心を集めている。アクティブラーニングの定義は多様だが、山地 (2014) はこれを「思考を活性化する」学習形態の総称であると捉え、様々な活動を通して「より深くわかるようになること」や「よりうまくできるようになる」ことを目指すものであるとしている (p. 1) 。従来の暗記型学習とは異なり、学習者は学んだ知識を深化させ、自分のものとして使えるようになることがアクティブラーニングを介して求められていると言える。

これと並行して推奨されているのが教育現場における情報通信技術 (ICT) の活用である。文科省は総務省と連携し、平成２３年度から２５年度にかけて「学びのイノベーション事業」という教育現場での ICT 活用に関する実証研究を行った。この報告では、実証校２０校（小学校１０校、中学校８校、特別支援学校２校）に関して約８割の児童生徒と教員が ICT 活用の授業を肯定的に評価したという結果が出ている (2012, p. 8)。従って今後更に学校教育における ICT 活用の促進が予測される。

本稿ではアクティブラーニングと ICT 活用という２つの教育的アプローチについて根本的な問いを提示する。つまりそれらがなぜ今必要とされているのか、まずその背景と利点ついて考察する。更に筆者が専門とする英語教育の観点から、アクティブラーニングと ICT を導入する際の課題について議論する。

II. なぜアクティブラーニングが求められるのか

この問いに対する答えを以下３つの視点から考えてみたい。第一に産業界からの要請が挙げられる。これは溝上 (2015, p. 7) が「トランジション課題」として指摘しているように、大学教育の成果、つまり大学卒業時に学生が身に付けている知識や能力が企業のニーズに合致していないという実情に起因する。経済産業省 (2006) は社会人として必要な力を「社会人基礎力」と定義し、そこには「前に踏み出す力、考え抜く力、チームで働く力」が含まれている。社会人として不可欠だとされるこれらの力が大学卒業時までに培われていないとすれば、おのずと大学教育を見直すことになる。実際、中央教育審議会大学分科会 (2008) は大学教育を通して身につけるべき「学士力」を以下４項目、「知識･理解、汎用的技能、態度･志向性、創造的な学習経験と創造的思考力」であると定義した。このように大学教育の目標が具体的に設定される中で、その目標に到達するために効果的だと考えられたのがアクティブラーニングである。学習者が主体的学びや協働的学びを経験することで、これらの力を習得することができると期待されている。

第二に社会的変化から生じるニーズが考えられる。政治・経済・文化など多方面に渡って国際化が進む中、国際共通語としての英語を使う言語能力だけでなく、文化的背景の異なる人々と共存していくための異文化間コミュニケーション能力 (Intercultural competence: Byram, Nichols and Stevens, 2001) も必要になってきている。更に ICT の発達に伴い、アクセスできる情報量もコミュニケーションの範囲も大幅に拡大した。このように急激に変化する社会にあって、必要な情報を迅速に取り入れ、客観的に分析･判断した上で、独自の意見を形成し正確に発信するという能力は非常に重要である。これまでのように定型知識を暗記するだけでは、多様で流動的な社会に対応できなくなっている。従って学んだこ

とを個々の状況に応用させる力を育てるためにもアクティブラーニングが必要とされる。

第三に認知心理学の見地から学習の効率化や充実化を考える時、アクティブラーニングは理にかなっている。Barkley (2015) によれば、通常学習者は認知システムとして自己のニューロンネットワークを利用しながら新しい情報を取り込む。それによって既存のネットワークが書き換えられ新しい接続が生まれることを学習と捉える (p. 76)。新しい情報が学習者の長期記憶に保存されるためには、その情報が既存知識と上手く統合され意味をなすこと (make sense)、そして学習者に関連があり意義を持つこと(have meaning) が重要な要件だとしている (p. 81)。情報を自己と関連付けて取り込むためには、そこに学習者の主体的な関与が不可欠であろう。従って主体的な学びを促進するとされるアクティブラーニングが有用となる。更に Barkley はアクティブラーニングを的確な動機づけと組み合わせることで相乗効果を生み出すことができると指摘する。そのためには、適度に難易度の高いタスクを与えること、学びの共同体的感覚を持たせること、情動・認知・身体全ての要素を含むホリスティックな学習を目指すことが必要とされる (p. 83)。この点においても、例えば複雑ではあるが学習者にとって有意味な問題を解決するために他の学習者と協力しあい、実践を通して様々な体験を得られるアクティブラーニングの学習形態は効果的だと言えるだろう。

以上３つの観点からなぜアクティブラーニングが求められるのかを議論してきた。次に現在の教育におけるもうひとつの潮流である ICT 活用についてその有効性を考えてみる。

III. なぜ ICT 活用が求められるのか

なぜ ICT 活用が教育にとってメリットをもたらすと考えられるのか、まず ICT の特長から見てみる。文部科学省 (2014) は ICT の特長を（１）時間的・空間的制約を越えることができる、（２）双方向性を持つことができる、（３）多様で大量の情報を収集・編集・共有・分析・表示することやカスタマイズすることができる、の３点としてまとめている (p. 6)。

上記３つの特長を英語教育と関連付けて考えてみよう。まず空間や時間の制約が無いため、海外との交流が非常に行いやすくなる。E メール、スカイプ、テレビ会議など様々な ICT を駆使して直接海外の英語学習者または英語使用者とつながることができれば、そこに英語を学習し使用する意義が生まれる。海外留学をしなくても教室にいながら所謂オーセンティックなコミュニケーションが体験できるというのは ICT 導入以前には考えられなかった大きなメリットである。

次に双方向性というのはコミュニケーションの基本であり、言語学習には不可欠な要素である。例えば ICT 活用により、教師はフィードバックを迅速に出したり、学習者から質問を受けたり、学習状況を観察したりすることができる。また学習者は協働作業を行ったり、お互いの学習成果を評価をしあったりすることが容易になる。

更に大量の情報を収集・編集・共有・分析・表示できるという特長は、教材の多様性をもたらす。個々の学習スタイル、興味関心、習熟度などにあった教材を提供できれば、画一的な教科書教材を使用した場合に比べ、学習者が学習内容を自己に関連付けたり、それを教室外学習へ発展させたりする意欲にもつながるだろう。

これらに加えて特筆すべきは ICT の記録性である。教師からのフィードバックや自己評価等を含む学習成果を段階的に記録することにより、学習者の課題

や今後の方針などが分かりやすくなる。またこれにより特定科目内の単元同士の関連性が可視化され、より包括的な学びのイメージが持てるようになる。先述のように学習は既存の認知システムに新しい情報を取り込んでいくプロセスであるから、個々の情報をネットワークに組み込む際のマッピングにも役立つのではないだろうか。

このように ICT 活用は教育の場面に様々なメリットをもたらし得る。これは英語教育のみならず他の教科でも同様であろう。この新しい技術を効果的な学習環境を作るために活用し、更にアクティブラーニングを通じて主体的学び、協働的学び、そして学習の深化を促進できれば、次世代教育への一助となるだろう。今後アクティブラーニングや ICT 活用は益々促進されると予測されるが、その一方で、導入に関する課題も視野に入れておく必要がある。そこで次のセクションでは、アクティブラーニングと ICT 活用それぞれの課題を英語教育の観点から議論する。

IV. 英語教育におけるアクティブラーニングの課題

現在日本の英語教育では主としてコミュニカティブ・ランゲッジ・ラーニング (Communicative language learning: CLT) の方針に従い、英語を使うことで英語を学習するというアプローチが促進されている。従来の文法訳読式教授法とは異なり、文法や語彙指導は最小限に抑え、主にオーラルコミュニケーションに力点が置かれた指導となっている。また英語インプットを増やすことを目的として教師は（主として）英語で授業をすることが求められている（高等学校は 2013 年から実施、中学校は 2020 年から）。これらの是非に関する議論は他稿 (Matsumoto, 2016) に譲るが、このような状況でアクティブラーニングを導入する際の課題について考えてみたい。

先に述べたようにアクティブラーニングの核心的要素には協働学習が含まれる。例えばそれぞれの学習者が持つ既存知識を共有し、活発な意見交換を通じて何らかの問題解決に取り組んでいく。またそのような学びの共同体を通じて高次の思考（分析、統合、評価）が促進される。アクティブラーニングの協働的側面から得られるこれらの学習効果は、学習者間の自由なコミュニケーションと協力が大前提となり、いわば「知」のチームワークだと言える。先述の「学士力」や「社会人基礎力」でも重要項目として挙げられていたチームワーク力だが、果たして英語使用を前提とする教室で充分に機能しうるだろうか？英語のみで与えられた情報をしっかりと理解し、その理解をもとに踏み込んだ議論を行うためにはかなりの英語力が必要となる。それが専門科目の内容である場合、既存知識に頼ることも難しい。従って英語の上級者を除く多くの学習者は、溝上 (2015, p. 45) が指摘するところの「浅い学習」、つまり与えられたタスクを自己と関連させたり発展させたりすることなくただ表面的にこなすこと、に従事する結果になりかねない。

もし英語学習にアクティブラーニングを導入して本当に学習成果を上げたいのであれば、そこに然るべき工夫が必要となる。例えば学習者の英語レベルや学習の目的を考慮しながら部分的に学習者の母語を活用するということが考えられる。協働学習の前提となる学習者間コミュニケーションを円滑に行うための英語表現や語彙を学習したり、学習内容に関する背景知識を学んだりする場面で、学習者の母語は非常に効率的なツールとなりうる。そのように段階的な準備を整えて初めて、英語による対話を通じた学びが可能になる。更に自らの英語使用を振り返ったり分析したりするメタ言語的活動も、英語のレベルによっては学習者の母語を使う方が効果的かもしれない。英語を英語で教えるというアプローチだけが先行し、学習者の実態を無視した英語使用の強制は決して良い結果をもたらさないと思われる。筆者は原則として、英語使用を下支えする言語的

知識の指導や背景知識の学習、および英語によるコミュニケーション活動の振り返りなどは、特に初級･中級レベルの場合、母語を柔軟に活用すべきだと考える。

V. 英語教育における ICT 活用の課題

英語教育の場面で ICT 活用によるメリットは先述のように様々あるが、その一方で留意すべき点もある。以下小学校における外国語活動を例に挙げる。現行では５年生と６年生を対象とする外国語活動だが、２０２０年からは教科となり検定教科書を使用して成績がつけられることになる。現在教科化に向けて様々な準備が行われているが、電子教材の開発もその一貫である。ネイティブスピーカーによる英語の発音、異文化理解を目的とした動画、カラフルな絵図を用いた語彙練習やゲームなど、小学生にとって分かりやすく親しみやすい工夫がなされている。教師にとっても教材準備の時間が短縮できて有り難いツールである。

しかしこの電子教材を使った教員養成課程の大学生による模擬授業を観察して気づいたことが２つある。ひとつは電子教材を操作するために教師の可動範囲が限られるという点である。通常教室の前方にテレビ画面があり、その横にコンピュータを接続して電子教材を操作するのだが、その間教師は生徒の中に入って活動の様子を観察することができない。電子教材の使用が頻繁になると生徒側から見た場合、教師がずっと川の向こう岸にいるような印象を受けた。また音声を流す場合もテレビ画面を確認しながら操作するため、生徒の顔よりもテレビ画面を見ている時間の方が長くなりがちである。言語学習の根幹が対話にあるとすれば、教師と生徒がお互いの顔を見ながら直接対話を行う活動がおろそかになってはならない。例えどれほど ICT が高度化しようと、それはあくまで学習のサポートであり学習の本質ではないはずだ。教師はその点をはき違えないよう留意すべきである。

もうひとつ気づいたことは、ネイティブスピーカーによる豊富な音声教材があるために、教師がそれに頼りすぎてしまう点だ。もちろんネイティブスピーカーの発音を聞かせることも大切だが、音声は学習者の状況を考慮することなく一定のスピードで流れてしまう。従って学習者の様子を見ながら、途中で切ったりスピードを変えたりするためには、やはり教師が充分に練習を積んだ上で自分の発音で生徒をリードしていくことが不可欠である。たとえそれが「完璧な」発音でなかったとしても、教師も１人の英語学習者として努力している姿を見せることは生徒にとって励みになるだろう。日本人教師が英語を指導する際に目指すべきは、V. Cook (2013) が指摘するように、ネイティブスピーカーになることではなく、優れた英語の使い手になることである。日本人教師がしっかりと練習して提示する発話モデルは、日本人の生徒が到達可能なモデルとして意味があると筆者は考える。会話にしてもチャンツにしても、音声教材に頼らず教師自らが練習・準備することで、どのポイントが難しいのか、どう工夫したら上手くできるのか、など指導上の具体的なヒントも得られる。また実際の教室で往々にして起こる機器の不具合にもこれによって対応できる。例え電子教材が全く使えない状況になっても、英語の授業が滞りなくできるよう教師は準備をすべきだと考える。

VI. まとめ

本稿では現在日本の教育で奨励されているアクティブラーニングと ICT 活用について、英語教育という観点から議論した。まずそれぞれがなぜ必要とされているのかその背景を考察した。アクティブラーニングに関しては産業界からの要請、社会的変化への対応、そして学習の効率化と充実化という３点を挙げた。ICT 活用に関しては、その３つの特長（空間的・時間的が無い、双方向性がある、多様で大量の情報を収集・編集・共有・分析・表示することやカスタマイズするこ

とができる）をもとにその利点を分析した。更に英語教育の現場でアクティブラーニングを導入したり ICT 活用をしたりする場合の課題も取り上げた。英語による授業の中でアクティブラーニングを充分に機能させるためには、学習者の母語使用を部分的に取り入れ準備を行うことが必要だと思われる。また英語授業の中で ICT 活用、特に電子教材を使用する場合の留意点として、教師と学習者の直接対話をないがしろにしないこと、教師が音声教材に頼りすぎないことを挙げた。今後もこのような議論を活発に行い、規定のアプローチのみに囚われることなく柔軟に、学習者にとって最善の学習方法を創り出していくことが必要である。

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人間の心の発達：患者の治療効果を高める臨床心理士育成教育への展望

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Psychological Support for Human Development: How to Develop Clinical Psychologists Who Can Increase Optimal Client Outcomes

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Abstract:

Japan has had high rates of suicide (over 30,000 deaths per year) and increasing major depressive disorders (from 433,000 in 1996 to 1116,000 in 2013)(Ministry of Health, Labour, and Welfare, 2014).It requires growing therapists who can enhance client outcome optimally. The aim of this paper is to review the history of psychotherapy research in the U.S. over 40 years and to identify significant factors of treatment, therapist-client relationship, and client factors which match interventions to enhance the effectiveness of psychotherapy research. As results, we introduce Systematic Treatment Selection (STS) as one of optimal training models since STS is an integrative model based empirically supported principles of therapeutic efficacy.

Keyword:

Psychological Development, Evidence-Based Intervention, Client-Therapist Matching, Therapist Training, Outcome-Process Research

厚生労働省の3年ごとに行われる患者調査によると、うつ病・躁うつ病患者数が1996年から2014年までに、43.3万人から111.6万人と、18年間で2.6倍に増加している（厚生労働省、2014）。2010年に長妻厚生労働相が発表したうつ病や自殺による経済損失（2009年の自殺とうつ病がゼロになったことを想定すると）が、2.7兆円になるという推定、又は、英国もうつ病患者が英国の国内総生産の2パーセントに及ぶ経済損失になるという推定から、日本経済へ及ぼす影響も大きい（OECD, 2009）。国際比較研究結果から、日本人はうつ症状が中度―重度になるまで病院へ行かない傾向があり、治療が必要な人がこれらの患者人数に含まれていないことへの考慮も必要である（OECD, 2009）。これらの傾向は、米国全土で行われたマイノリティ疾病調査におけるアジア人やアジア系アメリカ人も同じような報告がある（Abe-Kim, Takeuchi, Hong, Zane, Sue, Spencer et al. 2007）。このような増加する罹患率や経済損失への影響だけでなく、患者自身や患者を支える家族や友人の心の苦悩や自分自身を最大限に活かすことができない彼らの無力感や混沌とした心情を考えると日本においても、患者の治療効果を高める心理的介入が早急に求められていると言える。

さらに、下山らは、日本の臨床心理学は、1980年以降の深層心理学や力動心理学を中心とした事例研究が中心で、アセスメントによる体系的な分析や複雑な現状を客観的に把握することも反映した臨床心理教育や介入が足りないと警告した。このことは、深層心理や力動心理療法は、長期にわたる訓練や経験が必要だが、２年間の大学院での臨床心理士養成教育ではそれらを十分に修得することができず、聴くことの経験を中心に教育が行われないことを危惧しているという（下山、2008；下山・能智、2008）。さ

らに、北米における研究においても、ベテランセラピストが必ず治療効果を上げるという研究結果は見当たらず、むしろ専門的な教育を受けた大学院生の治療効果が高いことも知られている（e.g., Minami,Serlin,Wampold et al., 2008; Nyman, Nafziger, & Smith, 2010; Holt, Beutler, Kimpara, et al., 2015）。従って、専門的な技能の習得が日本のこれからの臨床心理士養成には不可欠であると思われる。

本論文では、現状の日本の臨床心理学が社会から求められているクライエントの治療効果を高める治療的介入という視点から、主に米国における 40 年の研究成果について概説する。これらをもとに、 総合的で系統的な専門技量の向上を目指す臨床心理士の育成について検討する。特に今回は、Systematic Treatment Selection (STS:心理療法の系統的選択)に焦点を当てることとする。

米国での臨床心理研究からの報告

米国では、600 種類以上の臨床心理介入方法（例えば、認知行動療法や短期力動精神療法）が氾濫している(Beutler, 2009)。米国心理学会臨床心理部門(Division12）は、これらの科学的根拠を提示する必然性から、1995 年以降から無作為化比較対照研究（薬物比較研究が用いる）を使って、150 種類以上の治療効果のある介入方法を提示している（e.g.,Chambless, 1993; 1995; Chambless & Hollon, 1998）。しかし、米国心理学会臨床心理研究部門(Division29)は、これらの有効な臨床心理介入方法の違いによる治療効果のメタ解析や再メタ解析の結果が、ゼロと報告している（Wampold, 2001 ; Wampold, Minami, Baskin, & Tierney,2002）。さらに、Wampold は、診断病名（例えば、大うつ病や不安症など）における有効な臨床心理介入方法による差は余りな

く、臨床心理士と患者の人間関係が及ぼす影響の方が臨床心理介入方法よりも大きいことを提示した（Wampold, 2001）。

Norcrossは、米国心理学会特別委員会の支援を受け、30年以上にわたる臨床心理士と患者の人間関係（例えば、治療同盟、セラピストの無条件の肯定的関心、セラピストの共感か患者に感知される共感など）が及ぼす影響の研究と治療介入によるアウトカム（治療効果）へのメタ解析を報告している。これらの報告は、臨床心理介入方法の違いがアウトカム（治療効果）へ及ぼす影響は10%以下、人間関係が及ぼす影響は、15-20%であると報告した（Norcross, 2002; 2011; Norcross & Lambert, 2006）。これらの報告もセラピストと患者の人間関係の大切さを裏付けしている。

多くの統合的心理療法を提唱する心理学者（例えば、多理論統合モデルのProcheskaや集学的治療のLazarus、あるいは、エビデンスから共通する要素を見つけるGarfieldらなど）.は、個々の特性や必要性に適合した療法－“Tailor treatment to the individual client”への心理治療介入の重要性を実証している。また、Beutlerは、個々の特性とそれに適合した心理介入が、アウトカム（治療効果）へ及ぼす影響の臨床研究を３５年以上行っている。それを統合的心理療法における**Systematic Treatment Selection (STS:**心理療法の系統的選択；Beutler & Clarkin, 1990)、2000年には、18の治療原則としてまとめている（Beutler, Clarkin, & Bongar,2000） 。さらに2006年には、うつ病、不安症、薬物障害、人格障害における治療原則を61にまとめた（Castonguay & Beutler, 2006）。特に、その後のメタ解析で、２つの個人の特性（抵抗と対処スタイル）とそれぞれに適合する心理療法（指示的か非指示的、行動か洞察に焦点を当てる療法）の違いがアウトカム（治療効果）へ及

ぼす影響が、51%と提示した（Beutler, Harwood, Kimpara et al., 2011; Beutler, Harwood, Michelson et al., 2011） 。これらの結果は、個々の特性に適合する療法が、治療方法の違いや人間関係が及ぼす影響よりも大きいことを明らかにするものである。

近年これらの２つの原則を含めた８つの STS:心理療法の系統的選択原則を取り入れた臨床心理の専門家育成プログラム（博士号課程の最初の臨床トレーニング）がある。これらの８つの原則は、アウトカム（治療効果）の堅牢性を大きく反映するだけでなく、心理療法のプロセス研究も含んだものである（Holt, Beutler, Kimpara et al., 2015; Kimpara, Burnet, Beutler, & Alsante, 2016；Howard, Moras, Brill et al., 1996） 。

臨床心理研究における無作為化比較対照研究への考慮

無作為化比較対照研究とは、同じ特性のある研究群を作り、特定の予防や治療介入がその他の治療介入よりも効果があるかどうかを評価するために、対象者を無作為に介入群と対照群に分けて、介入後を目的としたアウトカム（例えば、抑うつ症状、血糖値、血圧値等）を比較するものである。医療薬物の研究における、無作為化比較対照研究は、根拠の高い科学方法であり、臨床研究においても治療効果を評価する上における大切な科学検査方法であると言える。しかし、Wampold(2001)は、臨床研究における抑うつ群における 37 の違った心理療法（認知療法、認知行動療法、短期精神力動療法など）の効果は、ゼロであることを証明した。それは、1930 年代から Rosenzweig らが、一つの治療療法だけでなく、その他の治療療法も効果があるということを提唱し、Luborsky が最初に科学的根拠で証明した(Luborsky, Singer, & Luborsky, 1975)。これらを総称して、ドードー鳥の裁定と言われ、心理療法に差はないということを意味する。

Wampold は、翌年に再データ解析を行い、同じ結果を提示した（Wampold, Minami, Baskin, & Tierney, 2002） が、2001 年に、特定の治療法における共通して働くアウトカム（治療効果）への要因を提示した。2014 年、Laska と Gruman と Wampold は、治療診断名と治療療法による差がないことに対する科学的根拠を以下のようにまとめた。１）根拠のある治療療法効果はほぼ等しい、２）特定の治療療法は、抑うつ患者にも働き、不安症患者にも働く、３）治療療法効果のある療法は、治療無し群からは効果があるが、一般の治療方法効果と差がみられない、４）それぞれの治療理論の根拠が明確でない、そして、５）共通に働く要因の方が、特定の心理治療効果よりも治療効果が高い結果が多いとした。統合心理の共通要因に関する研究の中で、最も効果が高いものとして挙げられるのが、臨床心理士と患者による治療関係要因である（Budd & Hughes, 2009; Goldfried, 1980)。

治療関係要因の研究から

Norcross は、治療関係要因がアウトカム（治療効果）を研究した（Norcross, 2002; 2011）。そこでは、８つの治療関係を挙げている。それらの内容は、治療同盟、クライエントの認識するセラピストのエンパシー、セラピストの無条件の肯定的尊重、セラピストの純粋性（genuineness）、 クライエントの抵抗力に適合するセラピストの介入、ゴールに対する協力と同意、患者の機能レベルに適合する介入、グループ介入による集凝集性が主なものである。これらは、ロジャーズの治療関係の大切さと Wampold のメタ・再メタ解析を科学的に支援していると言える。次に、大切な要因として、これらの６つの内容は、1)患者による抵抗（Reactance Level）―外因に対して容易に抵抗力を引き起こされ、反対行動をとる。これらの患者は、患者による抑制やセラピストに

よる間接的介入からの効果がある（*d*=.82）。2）患者の行動変容変化のステージ（Stage of Change）―前熟考、熟考、準備、実行、維持ステージ。それぞれのステージでセラピストは、養育的な母のような関係から、矛盾を投げかける先生、そしてエキスパートとしてのコーチ的役割とコンサルタントのような介入方法からの高い効果がある（*d*=.70-80）． 3）患者の嗜好（Preference）－患者の嗜好を治療に考慮したかどうか。患者の治療の種類への考慮や役割、そして、セラピストへの嗜好を考慮した方が35のメタ解析の結果一貫したやや効果がみられる（*d*=.31）。さらに、母国語による介入の方がほぼ２倍の治療効果があると示す。4)患者の文化（Culture）－８つの文化的要素として、言語、患者の属性、 比喩、内容、概念、治療ゴール、治療方法と文脈。これらの８つの文化的要素を考慮すると効果がみられる（*d*=.46）。5)患者の宗教やスピリチュアリティ（Religion、 Spirituality）への考慮。患者の宗教やスピリチュアルに適合する治療介入は、やや効果が見られる（*d*=.33）。そして、6)患者のコービングスタイル（Coping Styles）－特性的な外向的か内向的コーピングスタイル。外向的なコーピングスタイルのある患者は、行動療法、内向的なコーピングスタイルのある患者は、人間関係や洞察療法に焦点をおくと効果がある（*d*=.55）。もう二つの要因は、アタッチメントスタイルと治療方法や患者の期待（Expectation）である。アタッチメントスタイルによる治療方法は、プラスとマイナスの結果がある。一貫するのは、安定型アタッチメント（Safety Attachment）の患者は、共通した治療効果がみられる（*d*=.37）。さらに、患者の心理療法に対する期待は、一貫した小さな治療効果が見られる（*d*=.24）。これらのメタ解析によるエビデンスは、単なる治療介入に偏る方法（*d*=0）よりも患者に適合する治療方法の大切さを明らかに提示した。

心理介入方法の論争を回避して統合心理学へ

Nocross と Beutler（2012）は、フロイトからスタートした理論による心理介入方法が 600 種類以上も存在し、どちらの理論が優れているかというイデオロギー（ideological）の 論争となっていくことを忠告する。上記に論じているように無作為化対照研究でアウトカムを比較した場合、Beutler と Forester(2014)は、大きく２つの問題点を指摘している。第一に、臨床心理における無作為化比較対照研究は、セラピストによる交絡変数（Confounding Factor）が含まれる。熟練したセラピストの効果を研究過程で軽視しているという。次に、診断名（抑うつ病、不安症など）による研究は、治療関係や患者に適合する治療選択、特に患者の文脈や背景（Context）を考慮する変容過程を無視している。Walmpold らの 30 年以上にわたる研究は患者や治療関係の要因の方からの治療効果が大きいと明示する（Castologuey, & Beutler, 2006）。これらのことが、ドードー鳥の裁定（無作為化比較対照研究による治療比較効果がゼロ）に影響し、統合心理療法への移行の必要性を言及する(Beutler & Forester, 2014)。

統合心理療法学とは、一つの理論で患者を治療する方法に満足しない心理学者が様々な科学的方法で理論の境界を越えて働く要因で、患者の治療効果（症状の減少とウェルビーイングの向上）をもたらす統合方法を総称している。それらの努力は、折衷的（Eclectic; Beutler, 1983）、合併的(Integrative; Wacherel, 1975)、収束的(Convergent; Goldfried, 1982)、多理論統合的(Trastheoretical; Procheska & DiClemente, 1982)、相違的(Differential; Frances, Clarkin, & Perry, 1984)、共通要因 （Common Factor; Raimy, 1975; Garfield, 1982）などである。Norcross（1987）は、これらの統合心理を４つのグループに分けている。1)技術的な折衷（Technical

Eclectic）は、最大限に治療効果が高まるよう、様々な理論から導かされる効果的なテクニックを相性の合う患者に適合させる介入である。2）合併（Integrationism）は、患者に治療効果のために二つ以上の理論から新しい理論を導きだすことである。 3）共通要因（Common Factor）は、すべての理論に同じように共通して効果のあるテーマや要因を導きだすことである。4）3)のように違ったモデルに共通して効果的に働く原則(Principle)であるが、それらは、適合する患者との治療効果の違いをもとに集約したものである。筆者が、ここで紹介するSTS:心理療法の系統的選択は、上記の１番と４番のグループをさらに統合したものである。

STS:心理療法の系統的選択とは

1990年からBeutlerは、ストレスに対応する患者の状態や特性のメタ解析の論文に着目して、特に患者の特性とそれに適合する介入が治療効果を高めるものを「原則」としてまとめている。理論ではなく、原則とすることによって、セラピストがその原則に合う様々な理論の中にあるテクニックを選択することができ、患者の最大限の治療効果を生むだけでなく、セラピストの柔軟性や熟練性も高めることができる。その後、抑うつと薬物依存患者の治療研究についての2000以上の科学的論文から導かされた15の仮説を立てた。500 人以上の患者に仮説研究を行い、その中の 13 の仮説が証明された。これらを10の原則にまとめ、8つの危機管理の原則（自殺念慮やリスクのある患者への対応）を含め、2000年に18の原則としてまとめた（Beutler, Clarkin, & Bongar, 2000)。さらにこれらの18の原則を実践に活用するために、“処方箋療法”（Prescriptive Psychotherapy：Beutler, & Harwood, 2000）も出版した。このモデルは、統合的アプローチだけでなく、セラピストが、患者の特性にどのように計画や実

践する方法を導く原則を用いる。これらの原則は、一貫した科学的エビデンスだけでなく、様々な理論を超えて活用することができる。

さらに、2006 年には、61 の治療原則になった（Castonguay & Beutler, 2006）。しかし、はじめから、これらのエキスパートによるこれらの 61 の治療原則を学ぶことは、実践的なトレーニングでは困難である。したがって、その後のメタ解析で、２つの患者の特性（抵抗と対処スタイル）とそれぞれに適合する心理療法（直接的か間接的、行動か洞察に焦点を当てる療法）の違いがアウトカム（治療効果）の 51%を占めることから（Beutler, Harwood, Kimpara et al.,2011; Beutler, Harwood, Michelson et al., 2011）、これらの２つの原則を中心とした８つの治療原則が誕生した。

STS：心理療法の系統的選択における８つの原則による臨床トレーニング

これらの 8 つの治療原則は、これまでに提示された 18 と 61 の STS の治療原則から重複するものを取り除き、治療効果へ最も大きく影響するものをまとめた。さらに、Howard と Orlinsky のプロセス研究から、最初の段階では、セラピストとクライエントの治療関係が、大きくアウトカムに影響することを考慮して、以下のようにまとめた。治療原則 1（リスクや過度レベルの症状への適合する治療）、治療原則 2（治療関係づくり）、治療原則 3（無条件の肯定的配慮)、治療原則 4（不和を修復する方法）、治療原則 5（患者の抵抗に適合する治療）、治療原則 6-7（患者の対処スタイルに適合する治療）、治療原則 8（患者の治療準備力に適合する治療）である。さらに、これらの８つの治療原則が、臨床心理士の育成（最初に臨床を学ぶ院生）へ無理なく活かせるような実践と治療計画のプロトコルが作成されている。米国の 2 年間のパイロットテストでは、臨床を学ぶ院生に対して、この８つの治療原則を取り入れて行った統制群に比べ、

担当したクライエントの150%以上の治療効果が高かった（Holt, Beutler, Kimpara et al., 2015；Stein, Beutler, Kimpara, et. al., under review）。

以上から、クライエントの治療効果を向上させる専門的技術をいかに短期間で習得するかという臨床心理士の育成課題について検討してきた。刹那的な方法でなく、人間の対処能力を最大限に活かしていくような総合的で系統的なエビデンスにもとづいた方法で心理臨床が行われることが望ましい。この点で、米国に於けるこれらの先行研究の成果に着目したことは、重要であっただろう。今後は、日本においても同様の研究発展が望まれよう。 多種多様なアプローチが考えられるが、筆者らは、クライエントの特性に適合した（Matching）治療原則のセラピスト養成プログラムを日本でもスタートし、このトレーニングによるクライエントの治療効果やセラピストの満足度を調査していくことから、日本でのこれらの先行研究の妥当性をまず検討していきたい。

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Problems and Opportunities in the MEXT Course of Study: A Response from a Teacher-Training Perspective

Anne McLellan Howard

Introduction

Ever since the introduction of English into the school curriculum in 1947, the Japanese Ministry of Education has been making periodic changes to the Course of Study in an attempt to improve the English abilities of the Japanese people as a whole. Some of these have been quite drastic, such as the introduction of native speaking assistant language teachers in 1987, or the addition of foreign language (that is, English) activities into elementary school. More changes are being anticipated to prepare for the Olympics in 2020, including more frequent English classes which start earlier in the curriculum. One of the changes that has garnered the most attention recently is the stipulation that English classes in high schools be taught in English, and in junior high schools that they be taught "in principle" in English. Despite these changes, grammar-based English teaching seems entrenched in Japan. While reasons and solutions are complex, teacher training programs can play a part in making curricular changes more successful in achieving their goal, and MEXT can support this.

This paper will discuss possible reasons for the disjunct between the goals of the Course of Study and the reality of the classroom. The entrance examination for university is one of the most frequently-cited reasons, and while it undeniably has an

impact on curriculum, the question of how to correct the problem is not so clear cut. Another source of discord could be that goals of practitioners differ from the macro-level goals that MEXT holds for English language education. Class size and other specific factors may have an influence as well. There is also the question of the feasibility and advisability of MEXT's goals. If the goals are impossible to meet this will have a negative effect on teachers, administrators, and students. It is necessary also to take a critical look at MEXT's English in English policy. Next, some suggestions for a response from teacher trainers will be suggested.

Communication in English became one of the goals of the Course of Study in 1989. Two years earlier MEXT had taken the enormous and rather expensive step of beginning the JET program, which brought young English native-speakers to Japan to teach in junior and senior high schools. Successive revisions to the Course of Study have reiterated the importance of changing the older, grammar-based curriculum to one which is designed to help students to eventually communicate in English. In 2003, the Action Plan to Cultivate Japanese with English abilities was formulated, which introduced English in elementary schools and established the Special English Language High [SELHI} Schools. The Action Plan also specifically mentions that English will be the medium of instruction and that teachers are expected to have sufficient English to teach in it. Despite the fact that communication has been mentioned in the Course of Study for such a long time, the best evidence suggests that grammar-based pedagogy remains the norm in classrooms. Gorsuch (1998) found yakudoku to be one of the main activities of the classroom. Yakudoku refers to the process of word-for-word translation of English into Japanese, followed by successive restating to conform more

closely with Japanese syntax (Hino, 1988, in Gorsuch, 1998, p.8□. She found that this leads to an over-reliance on Japanese as a language of instruction, as well as the class being basically teacher-fronted. Teachers in Gorsuch's study cited the entrance examination among reasons that they used this technique, although she points out that translation is not a skill measured on it (p. 27). More recent research shows little change. Sakui (2011) found that most classroom time was still spent on teacher-fronted activities such as grammar explanation and chorus reading. Nishino (2011) came to a similar conclusion.

Influence of the Entrance Examination

Many reasons are given for yakudoku and other grammar-based methods remaining so persistently in the face of repeated efforts at reform by MEXT. One of the most commonly-cited reasons is the entrance examination (Browne and Yamashita, 1995, Kikuchi, 2006; O'Donnell, 2005, Stewart, 2011, Saito, 2016). This was particularly true throughout the years when there was strong competition among students for places in a university, but it remains so today when circumstances have changed a great deal. Economic reasons may be part of the reason that the examinations remain so influential. Stewart (2011) remarks that ". . .institutional testing is a cash cow that must be milked. There is a huge testing industry in Japan that depends on the continuation of "examination hell" even now with more places in universities than applicants" (p.11).

However, the question of how and to what extent the entrance exam affects the adoption of CLT is more complex than it appears at first. It has for a long time been the

case that high school English classes alone were not sufficient to allow the student to pass the entrance examination. Brown and Yamashita (1995) found that the tests did not appear to be designed to measure only reading skills as covered in the normal high school curriculum. They come to the conclusion that it is more a measure of testwise-ness than language skills. Brown and Yamashita were writing at a time when the competition to be admitted to university was quite fierce, but similar results were found more recently (Kikuchi 2006), when some universities will admit any high school graduate. This means that passing the examinations still require some sort of extracurricular instruction beyond regular high school classes, and perhaps that what is being tested is not even English, per se. Guest (2008) in his comparison of the Center Test in 1981 and 2006, is much more positive about changes that have been made. Guest found that the later test is much improved, using a wide variety of tasks and putting greater weight on higher-order thinking skills. He concludes that any effect it has on the curriculum (the "washback effect") should be positive.

Both accounts show that there is no simple correspondence between the high school curriculum, or the way that high school teachers prefer to teach, and examinations which students may have to take. Although Brown and Yamashita (1995) and Kikuchi (2006) have a generally negative view of the entrance examination, and Guest's (2008) is generally more positive, the results show that teachers are either unable to adequately prepare students or that the expected washback from the improved university entrance examinations and Center Test has not materialized, and teachers are still teaching to a previous iteration of the test. Other research has shown, however, that even in schools where the majority of students do not intend to go on to university,

and thus do not need to pass entrance examinations, teachers avoid using CLT and prefer to teach a grammar-based syllabus (O'Donnell, 2005). Therefore, simply improving the entrance examinations may not have the directly positive effect that MEXT desires.

Differing Goals

There is also the fact that the goals of MEXT may differ significantly from goals at the local level. Teachers have to answer to other stakeholders: students, parents, and administration, more directly than they do to MEXT. This can affect the extent to which teachers and administrators "buy in" to the MEXT plan and take efforts to implement it. Barrett and Miyashita (2016) point out that the language of the Course of Study (in English translation) is designed to paint the new policies in a positive light, as it depends on schools and teachers to carry them. However, MEXT and schools may not be working for the same purpose. MEXT's policies follow the Abe administration's neoliberal goals at the macro-level, but local goals for schools and teachers might include fostering students' personal development (p.50). Kubota (2011 a & B) points out that the goals of the Course of Study include meeting the needs of corporate Japan for English speakers, as well as enabling individual Japanese people to improve their circumstances through their English skill. However, she finds that the goals of students of English (at an eikaiwa school) may be things such as personal growth or establishing an identity. In addition, the reality of the need for English in corporations may not be as great as is assumed. Kubota found that in the manufacturing industry in a medium-sized city in which she did research, only around 9.5% of the employees were estimated to use English regularly. In addition, her survey of Hello Work job

listings found only 1.4% of the listings for Tokyo required English. English may not be the key to success as it is portrayed either. Kubota found that gender and other factors may have more bearing on economic success of individual students (2011a). Teachers' and students' awareness of local realities and their differing goals may have a significant effect on the realization of curricular in individual school.

The Teaching Context

Aspects of individual teaching contexts can also influence the way that teachers teach. Student proficiency (Gorsuch 1998) or simply student preference (O'Donnell 2005) can affect a teacher's choice of whether to use teacher-fronted or more communicative methods, and whether English or Japanese should be used a medium for instruction. The large size of Japanese classes were also cited as a factor (O'Donnell 2005). A smaller class size is one of the tenets of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). More importantly, many teacher training publications as well as professional journals and other materials seem to take as a given that the size of the class will be smaller. This means that activities explained in such materials may not be feasible as written. The heavy burden of teacher administrative work (O'Donnell 2005) has also been mentioned. Without the time to explore a new way of teaching, it may be easiest for teachers to simply fall back on what they know.

Teacher training

The adequacy of teacher training to prepare teachers for a communicative curriculum has also been called into question. Gorsuch (1998) believes this a primary problem with implementing CLT. Kizuka (1997), Browne and Wada (1998) and

Kikuchi and Browne (2009) echo these sentiments. Browne and Wada found that most of the teachers they surveyed had majored in literature rather than linguistics. That those who majored in literature were dissatisfied with their preparation for a classroom is not surprising. However, even those who majored in linguistics believed that they were not adequately prepared, as the classes had focused more on historical linguistics. Although this study is almost twenty years old, we might expect that some of the teachers surveyed are still in the work force. Kikuchi and Browne, referring to Bailey et. al. (1996) point out that "in the absence of good pre-service training, teachers tend to fall back on how they themselves were taught in school as a student, a phenomena [sic] known as 'the apprenticeship of teaching'. It is possible that the severe lack of teacher training in Japan is a contributing factor to the lasting impact of the grammar translation method since grammar-translation is how most teachers learned English when they were students, their 'apprenticeship of teaching.'" (p. 175). Although it has been found that teachers do understand what CLT is according to MEXT (Sakui 2011, page 159) they may not be able to translate this knowledge into practice. Particularly, Sakui found, balancing grammar instruction with communicative activities was troublesome for these teachers, and frequently left them simply doing teacher-fronted grammar for most of the class. Another problem may be the English level of teachers. In 2006 MEXT found that only 50% of high school English teachers had attained its goal of a 550 TOEFL score (MEXT 2006 in Nishino and Watanabe 2008).

Feasibility of goals

It has been suggested that the goals of MEXT are unfeasible, which would have

an effect on how the curriculum is implemented. Hato, writing about the 2003 Action Plan, points out that it is not certain if MEXT's communication goals are actually achievable in the time allotted. Second language acquisition research is not clear on the number of classroom hours required for students to achieve certain levels of competence in communicating in English, and such work as has been done does not deal with such a large language distance as there is between Japanese and English (2005). Stewart (2011) believes that the goals of the 2008 Course of Study call for skills that the students may not even have in Japanese, such as exchanging arguments or considering different points of view in order to make a decision. Hato feels that "[f]or teachers who are pressured by time constraints regarding the highly ambitious goals to be achieved, it is not easy to take time away from [form-focused instruction], through which they can easily obtain immediate tangible outcomes, and allocate the time to classroom interaction that has no explicit target knowledge to be learned and hence no instantaneous perceivable effects" (2005, p. 45). Hato also questions MEXTs advocacy of the Eiken and other similar tests as a way of measuring students' proficiency, as these do not test communication skills. It has also been pointed out that use of the Eiken, which is closely tied to the MEXT curriculum, defines English as a school subject rather than something to be used for communication (Hashimoto 2009). Although MEXT (2003) stipulates that tests of communicative ability should be used, Hato points out that this is a very difficult thing to measure, particularly on a large scale.

English as a Language of Instruction

Another large question concerns one of the main points of the 2008 Course of Study, which is the use of English as a language of instruction. Although English as a

language of instruction has been accepted in the west as the optimal way to conduct a class, this is probably due to factors other than research evidence. Using English to teach English is frequently linked with CLT, as it is in the Course of Study, but an English-only class does not appear in the seminal literature of CLT, either positively or negatively (Cook, 2001). CLT does hold that input in the target language is of paramount importance, but this does not preclude using the first language (L1). Forbidding the use of the L1 in the classroom is associated more with older methods, such as the Direct Methods and Audio-Lingual Method.

In fact, in the U.S., historically the English-only approach to classroom instruction has fluctuated in popularity in accordance with political changes, not changes in pedagogy (Auerbach, 1993). Phillipson (1992) claims that on a world-wide scale the trend towards English-only instruction is connected with neocolonialism. Among the principles that arose in the 1950s and 1960s are English taught monolingually, by native speakers. This establishes the Anglo-Saxon countries (the "Inner Circle" Kachru, 1992) as the owners of English who control how it is disseminated to developing countries.

While English-only instruction as a matter of policy depends more on politics, there are some pedagogical benefits to increasing the amount of input in the classroom, which English as a language of instruction necessarily does. Ellis (1994) believes that access to "rich" input is a necessary condition of high-level English kills. However, use of the L1 has undeniable benefits which are lost when an English-only policy is enforced. The first is its use in scaffolding, either by the teacher or by a fellow student.

Scaffolding, in Vygotskyan theory, provides support for a learner until he or she reaches a level where she can perform the task independently. L1 use has also been found to be helpful in classroom management, as it alerts the students to the authenticity of the message. "Saying 'shut up or you will get a detention' in the L1 is a serious threat rather than practice of the imperative and conditional constructions" (Cook, 2001, p. 195). It is helpful for affective reasons, to make students feel comfortable and individually recognized. Some teachers in tertiary contexts with English-only policies feel positively about L1 use in the language classroom, for such reasons as efficient time use, rapport-building, and for helping students whose proficiency is low. Some teachers in the same context, however, felt that the L1 should not be used, citing the monolingual context outside of the classroom, and perceived student preference for an English-only classroom. (McMillan and Rivers, 2011).

These benefits are becoming more widely recognized and it seems to many observers that Japan is behind the curve in terms of modernizing English instruction. It may be that Japan is following the rest of Asia [Nunan, 2003], particularly Korea, which adopted English only instruction for all secondary education in 2004. It would be well to remember that Korea is having similar problems to Japan, with teachers feeling that English as a medium of instruction was impossible to implement due to students low proficiency, large class size, and the importance of English entrance exams (Jeon 2008).

Response of Teacher Education

Language teacher education in Japan has been criticized for being too theoretical, with a very brief term of practice teaching which does not allow the trainees to apply what they have learned (Kizuka, 2006). While teachers may have a theoretical grasp of the tenets ofCLT (Sakui, 2011), they may still have difficulty applying it in their local contexts, with added difficulties such as large classes, differing abilities in a single class, and the necessity of teaching grammar along with communication. Several things are required to help teachers deal with these: more clarity from MEXT, more focused pre-service training, and in-service training that is easier for teachers to obtain.

Hato (2005) shows that MEXT does not define CLT in the Course of Study or in related documents. This may be positive, as it allows schools and teachers to interpret it in a way that best fits their particular school or classroom. In fact, in some ways the Action Plan gave schools more freedom, as it no longer specifies goals for each grade level (Butler and Iino 2005). However, this leaves teachers without a clear way forward in deciding questions such as how much English or how much grammar to use in class. The English-in-English policy, for example, can leave teachers feeling guilty about their Japanese use (Hawkins 2015), although MEXT has informally acknowledged that some Japanese is condoned; for brief grammar explanation before a communicative lesson, for example (Tahira 2012). Similarly, MEXT-approved textbooks are grammar-focused while the curriculum explicitly focuses on communication (Glasgow and Paller, 2016). Another issue concerns the entrance examinations. Government-sponsored schools have now begun to include listening on their entrance examinations and TOEIC and TOEFL scores are now allowed to be submitted for admission. This indicates that MEXT is

attempting to use the entrance examination to effect positive washback, which is a valuable development. However, it may not be enough. Guest's (2008)examination of the Center Test suggests that the washback effect of previous changes would be positive, but there does not seem to have been any attendant washback. Washback alone has been found not to be sufficient to cause real pedagogical change (Anderson & Wall, 1993, in Hato 2005). Test changes need to be disseminated through teacher education. While freedom to shape CLT to fit local contexts is a positive thing, there are still mixed messages in the MEXT policy when taken as a whole.

Teacher education needs to provide teachers with the tools to adapt CLT to the challenges of their teaching context. One of these is large class sizes (Steele and Zhang, 2016). A large class causes various problems for the implementation of communicative teaching in terms of classroom management, assessment, and teacher workload. More seriously, as mentioned before, development of tasks can be challenging as most of the standard tasks for CLT are designed for smaller classes and are difficult to control in a larger class (Howard, 2008). Applying CLT techniques to a large class takes both experience and imagination. For this reason, CLT as it is taught in Western graduate schools may not be effective when attempted in Japan. Teacher training programs need to focus on how CLT can be applied in large classrooms, using, for example, the Teaching English in Large Classes Research and Development Network (TELC-net) for resources.

Another concern is maximizing the use of English while still using the L1 as a resource. As discussed above, teachers may tend to just have a vague idea that it is

best to use English as much as possible, but teacher training can include information so that teachers can use Japanese more purposefully. “Optimal first language use in communicative and immersion second and foreign language classrooms recognizes the benefits of the learner’s first language as a cognitive and meta-cognitive tool, as a strategic organizer, and as a scaffold for language development. In addition, the first language helps learners navigate a bilingual identify and thereby learn to function as a bilingual” (Turnbull & Daily-O’Cain, p. 183). Cook (2001) posits several factors to be examined when determining optimal use of the L1 in a foreign language classroom, such as efficiency, enhanced learning, and external relevance. The last refers to skills using both languages which may help the student in the real world, such as interpretation, for example. Students can be taught to evaluate various classroom situations to make rational judgments about which language to use.

While the English level of prospective teachers is obviously a concern, English used in the classroom is a particular genre (Mondejar, et.al, 2001; Freeman et. al., 2015; Cook, 2001; and, e.g. Sinclair and Coulthard 1975) and may not be adequately tested by a general proficiency test. Mondejar and colleagues suggest using benchmarks that specifically target skills such as giving instructions. A general course of English for English teaching (Freeman et. al., 2015) has been developed and it is hoped that this will lead to a wide range of teaching materials, including ones specifically targeted to the Japanese context.

MEXT has recently mandated in-service training session and re-certification, which could also be a a positive step if it is designed to respond to local demands.

Mondejar et.al., (2011) for example, suggest the creation of communities of practice for in-service teachers. This is something that has been created by teachers at a local level on their own initiative (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008). This would be much more effective if it were accompanied by a reduction in teacher workload, cited b as one of the reasons for difficulties in adopting CLT (O'Donnell, 2005; Sakui 2011). It has also been mentioned as a concern related to the teacher certification system implemented in 2009 (Jimbo, Hisamura, and Yoffe, 2007). Teachers have already begun to resist the obligation to supervise club activities, which is not stipulated in Monkasho but may be enforced by social pressure in individual schools. (Osaki, 2016). It is hoped that this will be followed be a serious re-evaluation of how teachers should be spending their work time.

Thus far, MEXT's many changes in policy cannot be considered to be a success, although the continuing drive to improve and modernize its educational system is a largely positive thing. Teacher trainers can target their instruction to help their students to deal with curricular changes in the best way for their own students. Trainers have the advantage of understanding local realities so that they can help trainees to apply communicative language teaching and English-only instruction to deal with these. Trainees can be given the tools to deal with a variety of situations in a way that benefits students best.

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Microeconomic Impact of Monetary Integration - The Case of Postal Services

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Abstract: The objective of this paper is to present potential threats and opportunities resulting from monetary integration to postal services rendered by national post operators. National post operators are subject to many regulations and requirements that make the market in which they operate far from perfect competition. National operators are granted a legal monopoly in many business areas. This is associated with many benefits. The EU policy, however, is heading toward sequential liberalization of the postal services market and this will be achieved in coming years. This liberalization will result in national post operators being subject to external competition from other EU member states. They are already competing with some international commercial logistics/courier service companies, but there will be a substantial change in the severity of competition in this market if the national post operators do not create an oligopoly, setting prices or market share. This paper develops a formal theoretical framework to show how an oligopoly in the EMU can efficiently substitute the monopoly on national postal services markets found today. The stylized fact advocated by the authors is that monetary integration facilitates an oligopoly structure rather than other market structures to replace the legal monopoly. Despite the hypothesis that removing the last barriers for economic integration by introducing a common currency facilitates monopolization, the specific features of postal services undermine it. This paper offers an alternative that could apply to other industries subject to similar regulations, especially those that were historically public sectors in the EU that

have been undergoing restructuring and privatization. Since this paper is theoretical, there are no data sets, nor is there quantitative analysis. The methods employ consumer and firm choice in a monopoly/oligopoly model with some modifications to reflect EU-specific features and the monetary integration consequences for postal service providers. The result is as follows: Oligopoly structure for postal services market represents the only efficient solution that satisfies boundary conditions at national and regional levels.

Keywords: postal services, monetary integration, common currency, common market, services.
JEL Classification: D21, E42, F33.

I. Introduction

The literature defines services in many ways. Smith (1776) perceived services as a non-production activity, and as a consequence, he did not recognize it as contribution to a nation's wealth. In the case of postal services, Smith was aware of the significance of these services in the economy. However, he assumed that this activity belonged entirely to the public services sector. Another view, by Stanton (1981, p. 441), focused on postal services as a separate activity of intangible nature that delivers tangible benefits.
When we define postal services, it is important to stress their communicative nature. Rendering these kinds of services is based on granting information flow from a sender to a receiver or receivers (Czaplewski, 1993, p. 35). Therefore, from a legal point of view, postal services are an agreement pertaining to sending and receiving, such as with letters, packages, money transfers, newspapers, or other objects in appropriate packaging (Górski and Dominiczak, 1982, p. 28-30). The market for postal services is a bundle of processes that helps providers (postal operators) and customers (individuals and institutions)

determine the characteristics of services. It also determines their quantities and prices under whatever current legal framework. This market includes intermediation, which is executed by postal operators on behalf of institutional customers (Panasiuk, 2003, p. 35). When one observes changes in the postal service market in Europe, it should be remembered that the driving forces are not limited to integration initiatives within European Communities. Another important group of factors consists of new telecommunication technologies that offer perfect substitutes for traditional postal services that are based on sending information. Modern developments in this market are diverse, but significant. To evaluate them in general terms, one can claim that they represent a previously unforeseen challenge for national operators. Countermeasures for emerging threats could be an interesting area of research for microeconomists. This paper aims to recognize the impact that monetary integration executes on postal services in the EMU. A simple interpretation leads to the conclusion that that the law of one price holds for some postal services in Europe. This is due to liberalization initiatives and the introduction of the Euro.

II. Segments of the postal services market

The postal service market has a multi-segment structure. It is therefore necessary to analyze each segment separately. In the case of universal postal services (meaning letters, packages with defined value, transfers, and other packages) there is one major entity: the national post operator. In many countries, this entity holds almost 100% of market share and provides a full range of services for individuals and institutional clients. This is actually a monopoly sanctioned by law that regulates the way postal markets operate. Activity in this particular market sector is an example of state intervention and interference in market processes. The influence affects also the market's organization and its supply

design. It has been standardized worldwide that governments impose certain obligations on the domestic post operator. On the other hand, national post operators benefit from restrictions imposed on all other businesses wishing to compete. This protection takes the form of restricted services that can be offered solely by national post operators. Therefore, there are really only a few areas in which national post operator services are supplemented by other enterprises.

Another segment of pre-defined quality parameters are courier services, in which speed of delivery is crucial. Here one could identify a competition between the national post operator and private enterprises that hold substantial market shares. When one considers the size of this market and the variety of services offered, one can conclude that supply side players are similar. Since they are dependent on each other in respect to revenue, postal production, investment, and advertising this segment is like an oligopoly (Panasiuk, 2003, p. 37).

The third segment of services for non-addressed printouts and direct mail is closest to pure competition. Despite the fact that national post operators have control over resources and infrastructure that allow them to offer complex services, there are many small and highly efficient competitors (Panasiuk, 2003, p.38). The area of intermediation is also subject to strong competition. National post operators can achieve economies of scale due to many outlets and full national coverage. This is the main reason why pensions and social benefits are delivered by this entity.

In conclusion, postal service markets are composed of several segments that can be separately recognized as the following structures: monopolies, oligopolies, monopolistic competition, and in some cases, pure competition – especially in the area of substitutive competition.

III. Substitutive competition in the postal market

The structure of the postal market is shaped by three levels of competition, as follows (Kopcińska, 1994, p. 144):

- Direct competition that covers current suppliers offering the same services Potential competition that refers to new entrants in the market
- Substitutive competition as an external threat to the current situation triggered by the introduction of alternative or substitutive products.

The representatives of substitutive competition are those enterprises that offer services different from those of post operators but that meet the same or similar needs (Informacja Pocztowa, 1994, p. 8). For traditional letters, such substitutive competition is represented by line phones, cellular phones, e-mail (Buko, 1998, p. 9). Fast development of substitutive electronic media and networks, such as international systems for document, data, and image transmission is of high influence on customer retention by post operators (Korczyński, 2001, p. 27). These are some reasons for change in the volume and structure of demand and supply of postal services.

IV. Main players shaping the postal services market

The entities that shape demand in the postal service market are individual customers (households), corporations, and institutions (mainly local and central governments and their agencies) (Panasiuk, 2003, p. 55). Demand generated by these three groups is diverse in terms of the quantity and quality of services needed. The supply side of this market is composed of two groups of players that render postal services (Panasiuk, 1998, p. 13):

- Public operators. Most often this is one entity (a state-owned company), but can also be several entities whose activities together comprise all the functionality of the public operators
- Other post operators. These are mainly private businesses providing services in just some segments of the postal services market.

This structure of the supply side of the postal market is a consequence of the legal framework and legal reach of state interference and intervention into the postal service market.

V. Regulation policy and the postal service market

Postal service markets are regulated in every country. National policies affect all enterprises providing postal services. States intervene in this market using many regulations, including (Panasiuk, 2003, p. 59-60):

- Separate acts regulating the functioning of postal service market
- Defining the range of postal services that are restricted (this area is subject to control of regulatory bodies)
- Creating regulatory bodies and entrusting them with rights to control restricted services, supervise their quality, and grant concessions
- Creating a public post operator as a separate business unit, which provides universal services that are fully accessible with public utility in mind. This results in special treatment, rights, and obligations for this particular entity.

Regulations of postal service markets are designed in order to protect the interests of customers. Therefore, all the above forms of intervention should support and maintain competition where competition is allowed. On the other hand, where monopoly prevails, regulations should support perfect competition to drive quality up and prices down. It is possible to evaluate deregulation initiatives in postal service markets. Deregulation is a special strategy based on removing previously imposed restrictions (Czaplewski & Panasiuk, 1999, p. 1). The postal service market used to be subject to regulations. Highly detailed restrictions were driven by political, military, and fiscal considerations. Changes that liberalized this market in the European Union are of significant importance for both customers and national providers (Gospodarek, 2003, p. 95-101).

VI. Liberalization of postal services market in the European Union

The aim of the European Commission in the postal sector is to foster a competitive environment. Freedom to do business and provide services is one of the pillars of the European Common Market (Ahlt, 1998, p. 33). The European Commission decided that postal sector liberalization is necessary for the creation of an intra-union postal service market wherein the benefits of the reforms would be shared by all EU citizens and enterprises.

EU-member states try to promote e-commerce and e-economy, making further development of postal service markets a necessity. Despite online purchases of goods, postal services handle transportation and delivery of these goods. Customers and online vendors are demanding an increasing quality of services, regardless of who the operator is. (Woicka, 2001, p. 41).

The European Commission implemented sequential liberalization of postal service markets. The phases designed and carried out thus far include the following:

- A review of postal service regulations in 12 member states with initial attempts to liberalize in 1992
- Introducing Directive 97/67/EC by the European Parliament and the European Council, stipulating common rules for developing the intra-union market for postal services and improving their quality in 1997. This initiative resulted in liberalization of letters weighing over 350g and a price for packages in the first weight section for the fastest delivery
- Introducing Directive 2002/39/EC by the European Parliament and the European Council in 2002, which triggered further liberalization of the segment for letters weighing over 100g in domestic and foreign delivery. This directive announced the liberalization of the segment for letters over 50g by 2006, and full liberalization by 2009 (Panasiuk, 2001, p. 1-2),
- Full liberalization for letters over 50g as of 2006
- Forcing some amendments for the latest Directive on July 11th to move full liberalization from 2009 to 2011. This was done by the European Parliament in 2007. In addition, new member states with complicated topography or consisting of an island or islands were allowed to use two-year transitory periods. By 2013, all EU member states would have to fully liberalize domestic postal service markets.
- The agreement on November 1st 2007 by Ministers responsible for transport and communication in EU-member states that full liberalization should take place no later than January 1st 2010. Countries in agreement included Hungary, the Czech Republic, Cyprus, Greece, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxemburg, Malta, Romania and Slovakia. They had the option to use a maximum two-year transitory period (Poczta Polska, 2007, p. 5-6).

It should be noted that in EU member states, public postal operators are obligated to provide services of a universal nature in restricted areas. These areas are determined according to a maximum letter weight in the monopoly segment (up to 50g) and a minimum fee. Only the public operator has the sole right to provide this service below this fee (Panasiuk, 2003, p. 46). Rendering universal services when competition increases is therefore problematic. This was resolved by EU states in two ways:

- A system of licensing was created in which an obligation to provide universal services was imposed on the public operator.
- A guaranteed fund with contributions paid into by all other (non-public) operators present at on a specific national market was created. This fund covers costs of providing universal services that exceed revenue generated by these services to public operators.

It is worth mentioning that restricted services are supposed to maintain and grant profitability of universal services. They are subject to special legal solutions that at the same time restrict competition (Kuczewska, 2003, p. 79).

The restricted services in the EU were defined with two parameters: price & weight. There is also quality to consider. What is important, however, is that postal law should set quality standards for universal services as well. The European Commission defines services that can be restricted. These include sending, processing, transporting, and delivering packages with correspondence domestically as well as just to the border for foreign post. Universal services are a subject of interest and influence to regulatory bodies in EU countries. As mentioned earlier, private postal operators in the EU can deliver packages weighing above 50g. The packages of lower weight are restricted and only deliverable by national post operators (Kuczewska, 2003, p.79). Due to monetary integration and EMU creation, there

are reasons why the law of one price holds for the market when packages weight above 50g.

VII. The law of one price for postal services in the EMU

On January 1st 1999, the monetary union came into existence for 11 EU countries, including Austria, Belgium, Finland, France, Spain, the Netherlands, Ireland, Luxemburg, Germany, Portugal, and Italy. Two years later, Greece became the 12th EMU member, and in 2007, Slovenia joined in. Other EU countries that adopted euro were Slovakia in 2009, Estonia in 2011, Latvia in 2014, and Lithuania in 2015. According to the Maastricht Treaty, every EU member state that meets all criteria can join the EMU. Three countries have a special opt-out for not becoming a member (Great Britain (already out), Denmark, and Sweden).

The emergence of an economic area exceeding the size of the USA and also using a common currency created unprecedented business opportunities. A chance for successful expansion to find new customers was a growing function of competitiveness. However, the bigger market means in the same time a stronger competition most often. This is true also in the case of postal services provided by national operators. The current situation offered new opportunities for expansion (Siemaszko & Żogała, 2004, p. 16-17).

One of the aims of the EMU regarding the postal service market was the removal of price differentials. This goal was in line with the creation of the common market and the goal of further fostering competition. However, the first years of the EMU witnessed less price convergence than expected. A lack of expansive retail networks was recognized as a main reason for unchanging price differentials (Glibowska et al., 2003, p. 7-8).

Post operators are a good example of large retail outlets networks and one can determine if the law of one price holds for this market or its segments. If there are no impediments to

trade and transportation costs are low (negligible), then the law of one price causes a convergence in prices for certain goods or services.

If the goods or services in question are tradable, then their prices in two (or more) countries are not independent. An extreme case is when these goods cost the same, regardless of where purchased. No barriers to trade and negligible transportation costs would allow for arbitrage if there is a difference in price. Two markets could offer the same good or service only if prices are the same. In real life they both exist. There are numerous impediments for trade and non-zero transportation costs, which cause a non-zero difference in prices for the same good or service in different markets. From a theoretical point of view, with economic integration, when all barriers are removed for activities in the common market, convergence of prices should be observed for goods and services.

Another possible situation arises when transportation costs and barriers to trade are low. Competition in the common market for EMU postal services drive prices down. The case investigated in this paper covers letters weighing over 50g, meaning they are also outside the restricted area of the national postal operator. This is because of strong competition and standardization. This latter feature is the main reason for expecting the law of one price to materialize. Table 1 presents prices for a domestic standard letter delivery up to 100g.

Table 1. Price for delivering domestic letters up to 100g in EMU countries

Country	2004	2005	2006
	Price in EUR		
Austria	**1**	**1**	**1**
Belgium	0.88	0.88	0.92
Finland	0.65	0.65	0.7
France	**0.77**	**0.77**	**0.77**
Greece	0.84	0.88	0.88
Spain	0.55	0.55	0.66
Netherlands	1.17	1.17	1.17
Ireland	0.48	0.48	0.6
Luxemburg	**1**	**1**	**1**
Germany	**1.44**	**1.44**	**1.45**
Portugal	0.48	0.49	0.5
Italy	0.9	0.9	1.5

Source: *Rozwój rynku usług pocztowych – K. Kruszyński, A. Stolarczyk: Raport półroczny nr 2 – Rozwój rynku usług pocztowych, Instytut Łączności, Warszawa 2006.*

As is noted, postal operators in France and Germany maintain competitive prices for economic letters up to 100g. French operators offer lower prices and attract customers previously using the German Post services. Prices of these two national markets are stable (2004 – 2006). The same is true for Luxemburg, Austria, and the Netherlands. The other countries converge to 1 EUR for this service. Finland, Spain, Ireland, and Portugal have increased the price. However, neighboring countries of France maintained somewhat lower

prices to compete with the French Post. From a customer point of view, this convergence of prices is beneficial. Prices for domestic letters up to 250g are presented in table 2.

Table 2. Price for delivering domestic letters up to 250 g in EMU countries

Country	2004	2005	2006
	Prices in EUR		
Austria	1.25	1.25	1.25
Belgium	1.32	1.32	1.38
Finland	1.1	1.1	1.1
France	**1.45**	**1.45**	**1.45**
Greece	1.66	1.73	1.73
Spain	0.89	0.9	1.91
Netherlands	1.56	1.56	1.56
Ireland	0.96	0.96	1.25
Luxemburg	**1.4**	**1.4**	**1.4**
Germany	**1.44**	**1.44**	**1.45**
Portugal	1.1	1.2	1.2
Italy	1.7	1.7	2

Source: *Rozwój rynku usług pocztowych – K. Kruszyński, A. Stolarczyk:Raport półroczny nr 2 – Rozwój rynku usług pocztowych, Instytut Łączności,Warszawa 2006.*

One can observe here even more benefits for customers with the convergence of prices in the EMU. The price is stable at 1.4 EUR in Luxemburg, France, and Germany. Austria, Belgium, Finland, and Portugal maintain stable prices, below 1.4 EUR. Table 3 presents prices for domestic letters up to 250g.

Shown in Table 3 is another competitive segment of the postal services in the EMU. The three largest postal operators in the EU maintain basically the same price. An interesting observation of two non-EMU members: Denmark and Sweden's prices can be formulated. In both cases the prices are the highest among the entire EU. Could this be a consequence of a lack of monetary integration?

Table 3. Price for domestic letter delivery up to 250 g in EMU countries

	2004	2005	2006
Country	Price in EUR		
Austria	1.25	1.25	1.25
Belgium	1.32	1.32	1.38
Finland	2	2	2
France	**1.45**	**1.45**	**1.45**
Greece	1.66	1.73	1.73
Spain	1.58	1.6	1.91
Netherlands	2.25	2.25	2.25
Ireland	1.44	1.75	1.75
Luxemburg	**1.6**	**1.6**	**1.6**
Germany	**1.44**	**1.44**	**1.45**
Portugal	1.1	1.2	1.2
Italy	1.8	1.8	2.2

Source: *Rozwój rynku usług pocztowych – K. Kruszyński, A. Stolarczyk:Raport półroczny nr 2 – Rozwój rynku usług pocztowych, Instytut Łączności,Warszawa 2006.*

The data presented above suggests that there could have been some weak form in the law of one price in EMU countries. When analyzing this relationship, it is reasonable to

consider the causes and consequences of the Balassa-Samuelson effect. This refers to the pace of increasing prices of non-tradables that tend to exceed the pace of increasing prices of tradables in a fast growing economy. As a consequence, unit labor costs in the service sector grow, causing inflation. This tendency is somewhat evident in developed economies, but can be clearly observed in emerging economies, where the real convergence takes place (Orłowski, 2007).

Conclusions

After analyzing markets for postal services in the EMU over the period from 2004 to 2006, several observations can be made. Postal service price data for the first five years of monetary integration was not available. Since it was associated with the introductory period of the EMU, the data can safely be discarded. There was a threat, however, that a strong convergence of prices could emerge just after the introduction of the common currency. There is no doubt that monetary integration in Europe facilitated comparability of universal service prices that are highly standardized. There are a few reasons for these price differences. The first conclusion about microeconomic impact of monetary integration on postal services is that it facilitated direct comparability of prices, and therefore also price transparency. As a consequence, due to liberalization of the EU postal market, a surge for intra-union competition emerged.

Despite the short (3-year) period covered by this study, a weak version of the law of one price can be recognized, since unification of prices to some extent in EMU countries can be observed. Over the 2001-2005 period, the value of postal services in the EU increased significantly. It grew faster than the GDP of the EMU. Therefore another conclusion can be formulated regarding the presence of an income effect. This faster growth was induced by increased competition that drove prices down and made EMU citizens wealthier in real

terms (they could buy more postal services relative to other goods and services). It seems reasonable to bind this effect with the observed boom for postal services in the EMU. However, financial results of national post operators are strongly positively correlated with business cycles, which should be good news for all national post operators in countries heading to EMU accession.

A concluding remark for national post operators in non-EMU countries is of a more challenging nature. This is that an increase in competition in the postal service market associated with monetary integration is a factor stimulating their development and growth.

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Active Learning and Critical Thinking Through Simulations in an Instructional Technology Classroom

Jason Adachi

Abstract

This paper describes broad course goals for IDS308 Educational Technologies and Techniques of Communication (ETTC) and two technology-related simulation activities intended to promote active learning and critical thinking. Centered on active engagement, real-world applications, and the promotion of an audience-oriented approach to presentation design, the course aims to provide future teachers with an understanding of how and when technology can be used to promote communication, and why a shift in attitude and perspective is important during the transition from "college student" to "professional."

Keywords: active learning, critical thinking, pedagogy, simulation, student engagement, technology

Introduction

Active learning and critical thinking have been at the core of Miyazaki International College's (MIC) approach to education since its founding in 1994. When MIC was awarded MEXT's University Reform Acceleration Program (AP) grant in 2014, the institution began to examine active learning pedagogy and critical thinking development more closely throughout the institution's various programs. In this spirit, the current paper describes two simulation activities in which active learning and critical

thinking mesh with course goals in IDS308 Educational Technologies and Techniques of Communication (ETTC), a 3rd year interdisciplinary studies course in MIC's School of International Liberal Arts. Although not a direct product of the AP Grant, this class has been structured around principles that align well with the grant's objectives. Centered on active engagement, real-world applications, and the promotion of an audience-oriented approach to presentation design, the course aims to provide future teachers with an understanding of how and when technology can be used to promote communication, and why a shift in attitude and perspective is important during the transition from "college student" to "professional."

De-emphasizing Technology in a Technology Course

Although ETTC is ostensibly a technology course, the detailed coverage of specific technologies has less priority in the classroom than the development of the reasoning skills necessary to match technologies to the needs of a given enterprise. The course has two overarching curricular goals: 1) to expose students to a range of technologies that may be of use to them in careers in either education or business and 2) to raise awareness of technical, visual design, and performance factors that can contribute to the effective communication of ideas. These goals are achieved through practical lessons like technology orientations and presenter development exercises (both technique and evaluation) as well as through coverage of more abstract material like educational standards, design principles, lesson planning, and administrative/pedagogical simulations. The selection of course content can vary somewhat from semester to semester as emphasis shifts with students' interests and needs, but the overall curricular goals remain

consistent.

In meeting the first goal, the most engaging and relevant lessons are the technology orientations. Students learn about the pros and cons of various "classroom" technologies such as video screens, interface devices (including electronic whiteboards and touch pen interfaces), video cameras, microphones, classical OHPs (overhead projectors), document cameras, and computer projectors. They learn not only how to operate these devices but, more crucially, how to best deploy these technologies in a given presentation situation based on the characteristics of the venue and the needs of the activity. For example, they learn how large a projected image should be for a given number of viewers in a room of a particular size; how to troubleshoot common problems associated with these technologies; and how the strengths and limitations of the technology can impact the kind of interaction a presenter can expect from the audience.

However, the amount of time spent on these orientations is relatively small. Instead, the focus for students in ETTC is on understanding and addressing the *functionality* provided by various technologies in the classroom. Notions like Moore's Law, the observation that computing power doubles approximately once every two years (Moore, 1965), make it clear that technology advances far too quickly to make the nuts-and-bolts mastery of any given technology an efficient proposition. In fact, considering that students in ETTC will remain in school for at least another full year, it is difficult to predict what new technologies will have evolved and what old technologies will have been rendered obsolete by the time students graduate and enter the work force. Thus, by

emphasizing how to think critically about learning about using technology, they are set up for greater, more universal success in our rapidly evolving world.

When MIC was founded in 1994, for example, overhead projectors (OHPs) were a basic and ubiquitous piece of classroom hardware. Since then, OHPs have gradually been almost completely phased out in favor of computer projectors which offer a comparable basic functionality to the classroom (displaying a large image to a group of people). Obviously, computer projectors can do more than just project a static image, but they represent the advance and evolution of a device that fulfills a specific pedagogical need. It would not be an efficient use of valuable class time for students to receive extensive training in the use of OHPs when these machines are likely to be unavailable or antiquated in a modern work situation. Conversely, a great deal of time spent on the latest model of computer projector could be equally problematic as differences between projector makers, constantly evolving features, and unknown availability throw a heavy dose of unpredictability into the equation.

Thus, while ETTC includes a broad survey of available technologies, more emphasis is placed on the needs of teachers and students (or presenter and audience) as guides to technology implementation planning, rather than allowing equipment availability to dictate what happens in a given presentation. In other words, an available piece of technology should not be used simply because it is on hand but because it is deemed to be the most effective means to achieve an objective. The positive effects of computer technology on learning — such as retention, motivation, and engagement value

— are obvious (Cox, 2015; Smaldino et el., 2015), but there are those who caution against thinking of classroom technology use as guaranteeing academic success (Bowen, 2012; Bowen, 2015; Canning-Wilson, 2000; Smaldino et el., 2015; Walker, 2015). By emphasizing pedagogical needs over the presence of the technology itself, ETTC tries to help students to recognize and avoid this pitfall.

Therefore, the second of the two overall objectives — raising awareness of visual design, technical, and performance factors that can contribute to the effective communication of ideas — is addressed in the context of presenter/audience needs. For example, how can various categories of technology facilitate different kinds of activities? How does visual design help a class/audience to more effectively understand the message? How can the way that technology is used affect participation and comprehension?

This is where the strengths of active learning and critical thinking in the classroom become most important for ETTC. It is one thing to know *how* to connect and use an HDMI document projector, but another thing entirely to know *when* to use it (or not). As Koehler and Mishra (2009) point out in their description of the TPACK (technology, pedagogy, and content knowledge) framework, "teaching is a complicated practice that requires an interweaving of many kinds of specialized knowledge" (p. 2). An understanding of the technology itself is only one component of what needs to be a much richer communication experience.

A Broader Understanding

There is a third goal in ETTC that is corollary to the other two but which is a step beyond: to promote an awareness of the application of technology from the standpoint of a teacher or administrator. To give students a chance to assume responsibility for technology use decisions, and to blend that with the first two course goals, simulations have been extremely useful. They help students to develop sensitivity to important factors in decision making that may be far beyond their own experiences and do so in a way that is engaging, cooperative, and competitive. The next sections will describe two simulations used in class, how they were used to promote student engagement and critical thinking, and student responses to the activities.

Simulation Activity 1: Founder's Day Problem-Solving Simulation

In this simulation, students are asked to find a way for a single presenter with a PowerPoint presentation to be seen simultaneously by audiences in two separate rooms on the 1st and 3rd floors of MIC's Building 2. The task seems straightforward but is deceptively complex. It requires students to propose a solution to a problem that a teacher might easily encounter but one that most students would find to be novel. Figure 1 illustrates the situation. There is no internal infrastructure that connects the media capabilities of the two rooms. While there is a built-in computer projector in the 3rd floor room, there is no AV equipment pre-installed in the 1st floor room at all. Students are informed that Wi-Fi is available throughout the building but that signal strength is not perfectly reliable and prone to brief interruptions.

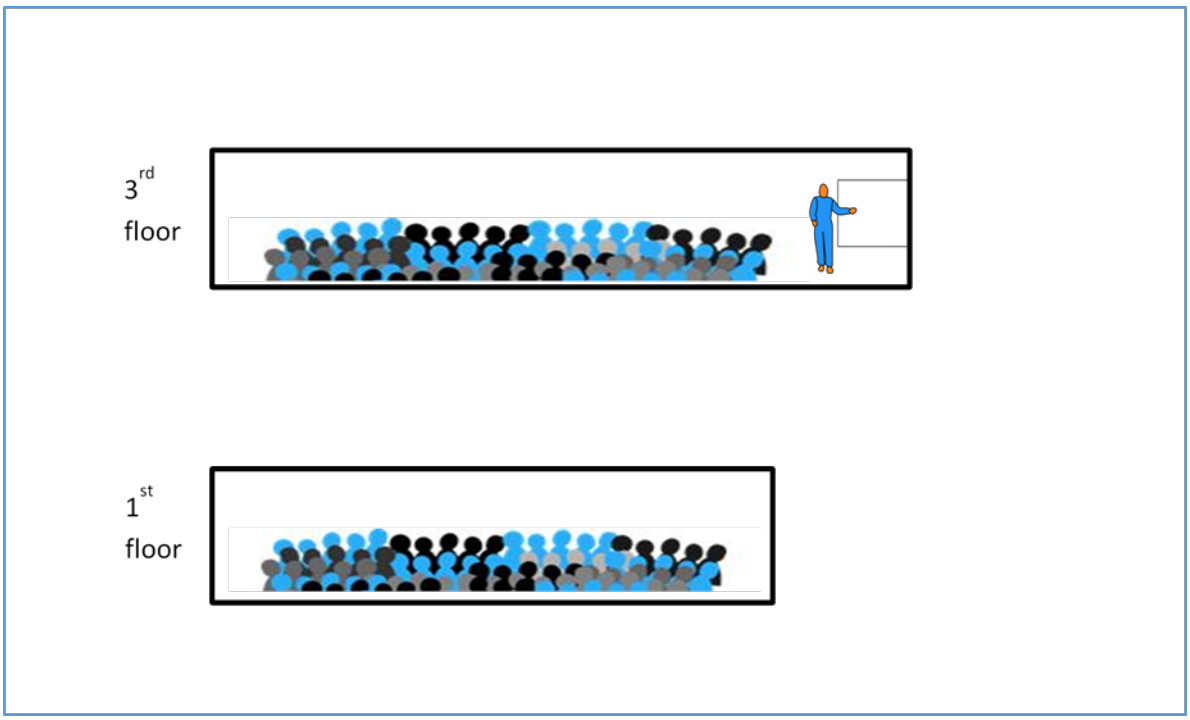

Figure 1. The problem in Simulation 1.

To solve the problem, students are encouraged to explore the advantages and drawbacks of various technologies that might resolve the situation. Some of the variables include room capacity, audio/video transmission, image size, computer synchronization, screen size, sound volume, tech management (human crew), audience placement/arrangement, venue, Wi-Fi reliability, and software options. Secondary considerations include cable management, inclement weather procedures, and reliable socket fastening.

The critical thinking aspect of the task requires that the student groups consider several different viewpoints simultaneously: presenter, 3rd floor audience, 1st floor audience, 3rd floor crew, 1st floor crew, and the 3rd floor moderator. Additionally, they need to become familiar with the capabilities of various available resources, weigh these

against one another, and propose a viable solution that will be judged against the proposals of other groups.

Student uniformly respond well to this task as it is very concrete and the scenario for the simulation is familiar enough that they can use their prior knowledge of the campus and the buildings to recommend solutions. Groups almost always initially suggest moving the activity to a venue large enough to accommodate all the participants in a single room. This is a good suggestion and well-worth considering. However, it is not without its own problems. The greater distance between the speaker and the audience would make it somewhat harder for people in the back to see either the speaker or the accompanying PowerPoint presentation without some additional measures being taken. In this case, an understanding of standard projection viewing distances as described by Smaldino (2001) helps students to determine whether the available resources are adequate for a larger room. While moving to a larger room is a good suggestion, it just sidesteps the problem. The real creativity comes when this option is removed. Once told that the venue must remain split as initially described, the groups' ideas start to become much more resourceful.

Sometimes groups consider online options such as Skype or live-streaming to get a video signal from one room to the other. Unfortunately, while this is also a good idea, students often do not consider the possibility of Wi-Fi signal loss or other circumstances that could result in Internet service interruption. While wireless connectivity is becoming generally more reliable, it is certainly true that problems still occur from time to time and

a dropped signal during a live event can mean disaster. All in all, with no easy means to recover from a dropped connection, the Internet option is less than ideal.

Another student suggestion is to record the speech in the primary room and show the video to the secondary room later. This solution has the drawback of requiring a delay between the two rooms. Since the presentation fills the entire time allotted on the campus schedule, there is not enough time to play the recorded presentation before classes resume.

A third common idea is to use a very long cable to connect a video camera in the primary room to a television in the secondary room by feeding it out the window, down the side of the building, and in through an open window. This comes with its own complications, but students are usually able to provide concrete ideas about how to make their suggestion work. One of the difficulties is that the presenter uses a PowerPoint presentation to illustrate his talk. While it is certainly possible to use a video camera to capture the image of both the speaker and the PowerPoint screen and then broadcast that to the other room. Doing so causes the screen text to become far too small to be legible. In a recent class, this limitation was identified by students in a group discussion. Subsequently, they renewed their efforts to brainstorm practical alternatives. Their final idea was to have the PowerPoint computer equipped with two monitor outputs. One monitor output would go to the computer projector in the first room and the other to the projector in the second room. The actual presenter would be the focus of a camera feed from room one to room two. This is illustrated in Figure 2.

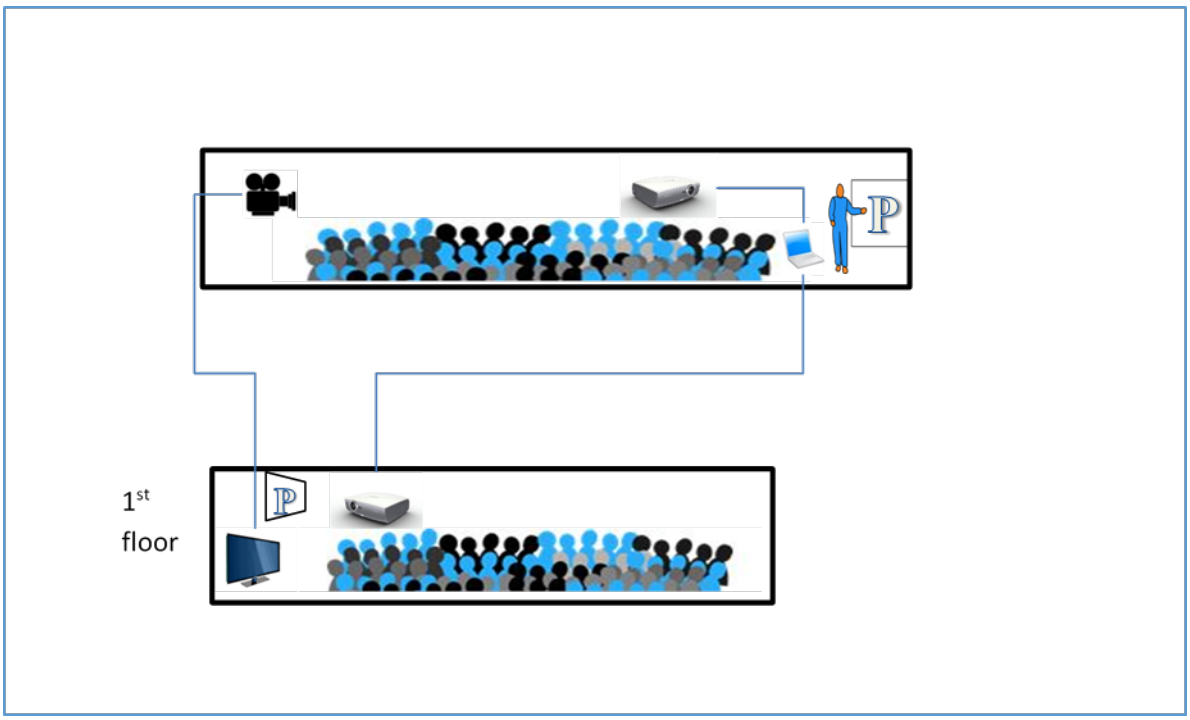

Figure 2. Student Solution to Simulation 1.

This solution is remarkably close to the solution that was used in the real-world event upon which the simulation was based. The only difference was that the PowerPoint presentation in the primary room was shown normally on a single screen. Instead of stringing an additional cable out of the window, a second person was seated in room two with a separate computer and projector. That person would click through the presentation along with the primary presenter. It is likely that the only reason the students did not think of this arrangement is that they were looking for a technological solution rather than a staffing one. Since they were not told that additional people were available to help staff the even, I do not take this to be a fault in their proposal.

As I said before this activity is very concrete and allows students to draw on their

prior knowledge to solve a real-world problem. They exercise creativity in their search for solutions and must conduct research into the capabilities of the technologies that they have at their disposal (e.g. streaming applications) to facilitate the success of the event.

Simulation Activity 2: Computing Resources

Unlike the equipment deployment scenario of Simulation Activity 1, Simulation Activity 2 focuses on the more abstract task of administrative planning using a real-world challenge as the basis for its scenario. Students assume the role of teachers in a school (i.e. MIC) that is looking to purchase computer equipment to support the academic program for the next few years. The choices under consideration are desktop computer labs, laptop computer labs, institutionally-owned tablet computers, student-owned tablet computers, student-owned laptop computers, or any other scheme that meets the computing needs of students, faculty, and administration. Student groups must research and consider the pros and cons of the various options, make a proposal, and defend the proposal against counter-proposals from other groups. In this simulation, the factors requiring consideration are much broader than in the first simulation and include cost to the institution, cost to the student, portability, security, convenience, the devices' base capabilities, expandability/updatability, warranties, built-in obsolescence, software availability, ease of use, responsibility for loss/damage/theft, and pedagogy. In addition, students were instructed to use case studies in their arguments by looking at ways that other institutions utilize their own computing resources.

Students create PowerPoint presentations to accompany the formal explanation of

their proposals. Each proposal is videotaped and is followed by a period of Q&A from the other groups. This phase of the exercise can result in lively debate as groups compare their ideas with those of others. The PowerPoint presentations are put onto the class Moodle page for reference and feedback, and the video recordings of the presentations are shared via Google Drive. The students evaluate their presentations as individuals and as a group and provide feedback to other groups to help them improve their own presentation skills. This feedback is guided by self-created presentation rubrics that students draft at the beginning of the ETTC course.

One of the interesting outcomes of this activity was that it underscores students' inexperience in planning for a context of responsibility larger than their own immediate needs. It also helped to hint at their transition from thinking like students to their thinking like institutional decision-makers. As students, their concerns revolved around factors such as cost to the student, portability, and convenience. They came to see a greater breadth of issues impacting their more complex macro environment.

For example, one group's suggestion was to allow students without computers at home to remove computers from a laptop lab for use outside of school. Clearly the intent here was to allow students who do not have the money for their own computer to use a school computer at home. From the students' point of view, this was a cost-effective and useful policy that addressed a student concern. It did not, however, meet the needs of the faculty. The group did not initially consider the fact that allowing students to remove computers from a designated computer lab could be a problem for scheduled classes the

following day if the equipment was not returned promptly (a pedagogical concern). It is interesting to note that even after this drawback was raised, suggestions intended to correct the flaw (such as imposing penalties for tardy returns) did not address the problem of how to cope with a room that suddenly had too few computers for a full class of students. Similarly, a group that had suggested that students bring their own tablet computers to school did not include a contingency plan for students whose tablets were broken, lost, stolen, or simply forgotten.

It helps to focus discussion by reminding students that simply purchasing technology resources does little to support the program unless the purchases meet academic needs. Cast in this light, certain options become more viable than others, but regardless of which option is deemed the "winner," the following needs seem to earn top priority from year to year:

- the ability to run Microsoft Office or equivalent
- the ability to browse the Internet
- the ability to store and transfer data easily
- low cost
- portability

In addition, the ability to customize the selection of software on the device was seen to be highly desirable. However, given a choice between pre-configured, institutionally-owned devices and customizable, student-purchased devices, students seemed to be more interested in saving money. Conversely, the notion that institutionally-

owned devices would ultimately result in the school being responsible for a large amount of obsolete technology years in the future (an administrative concern) has not been raised by any group of students to date. Clearly, developing the ability to understand a range of perspectives, both demographically and temporally, is a crucial skill, which we will continue to emphasize in the ETTC classroom and beyond.

Conclusions

Together, these two simulations seek to engage students in activities which require them to think creatively, consider opposing viewpoints, prepare persuasive arguments, construct effective displays of visual information, prepare verbal and written explanations of a proposal, evaluate proposals for strengths and flaws, monitor and evaluate their development as presenters, and consider problems that are beyond the scope of their own experiences. Through activities such as these, students blend all the broad goals of the ETTC as they compete with other groups and begin to think of simple problems for technology use from a broader, deeper, and more professional point of view.

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Benefits and Challenges in the Introduction of an E-Portfolio System: a PDCA-based Analysis

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Abstract

At Miyazaki International College, a Japanese EFL-based liberal arts college, we have instituted e-Portfolios in the School of International Liberal Arts as part of a MEXT Accelerated Program (AP, 高等教育加速再生プログラム) grant. This presentation reports on initial implementation from the anthropological perspective of the e-Portfolio Working Group leader. In this way it provides an action-research based study. Our e-portfolio initiative aims to help students analyze and visualize evidence for active learning. E-Portfolios are considered a disruptive technology affording critical thinking as well; these practices have always been part of our college's pedagogy. We are using open source software developed in Australia (Moodle) and New Zealand (Mahara) and used worldwide. Initially, the first-year students made Mahara e-portfolios integrated with our ten-year ongoing Moodle project; the implementation will expand to all four years in time. The PDCA (Plan-Do-Check-Act) business process management cycle is built into the AP grant project; this paper reports on our successes, failures, and planned improvements.

Introduction

"That's the wonderful and terrible thing about technology. It changes everything."

— Solomon Epstein (The Expanse)

This paper describes the development of Miyazaki International College's (MIC's) Mahara-based e-portfolio process as part of a MEXT Higher Education Accelerated Program (AP, 高等教育加速再生プログラム) grant from my perspectives as the e-Portfolio Working Group leader and as an anthropologist. It also provides an interim report, including materials from the first year summary submitted to MEXT. E-portfolio is one of four appointed working groups along with Active Learning, Rubrics, and Critical Thinking. At our institution, originally founded in 1994 as a Japanese EFL-based liberal arts college, we first instituted e-portfolios in the School of International Liberal Arts, and more recently in the newer School of Education as well. This paper reports on our first two years of implementation, focusing on SILA.

In this way it provides an action-research based study incorporating participant observation. Considering technological change and its interaction with cultural factors is an inherent part of the anthropological mindset; this project has increased my insight into how new tools are customized and used, ignored, or even rejected by members of a social group.

The PDCA (Plan-Do-Check-Act) business process management cycle is built into the AP grant project. Therefore, this paper will report on the successes, failures, and planned improvements to this ongoing implementation. As this project is full of first-time experiences for everyone involved, PDCA based thinking potentially reinforces a sense of process within an immediate feedback cycle when things don't go as planned. Realizing that we can observe problems with an eye towards improvement may lead to self-and other-directed compassion more than discouragement, while continually encouraging us to improve our approaches. The e-portfolio project encountered several unexpected developments. There have been many challenges, both inherent and emergent, that I mention to raise awareness for the sake of anyone who undertakes a similar project. I am grateful for the support I have received and for the many things I learned through this experience.

Why e-portfolios?

Globalization of tertiary education often entails an increase in accountability practices, attempts at standardization, and attention to other neoliberal concerns. Concomitantly, the need to elucidate the value of liberal arts education has risen in the face of criticisms that seek to reframe education towards business skill-oriented vocational outcomes. While Japan has taken a different path towards globalization of tertiary education than have Europe and New Zealand (Occhi 2009), we have seen a

similar increase in expectation of accountability regarding our educational practices.

Our e-portfolio initiative aims to help students analyze and show evidence for learning achievements and become more autonomous learners. We are using software that is open source and used worldwide: the Mahara e-portfolio developed in New Zealand, which integrates with our ongoing Moodle course management software project (Moodle was developed in Australia). E-portfolios afford active learning and critical thinking; in some contexts this may be considered disruptive. At MIC, however, these practices are inherent to our pedagogy. Indeed, two other WGs in our AP grant concern the documentation of improvements in Critical Thinking and Active Learning among their goals.

Mahara is an evidence-based portfolio, so assessors can gauge the extent to which portfolio page contents meet specific criteria based on the page creator's assemblage of previously done coursework, and the written reflections thereon. This is distinctly different from the *karute* 'record' based e-portfolio, often comprised of a scaled self-assessment graph, without any means to gauge its accuracy. Mahara use has been gradually implemented following the AP plan. For the most part, students find the software unproblematic. Mahara use is tied to the use of tablet PCs distributed to students upon matriculation. So although all students were able to attend Mahara orientations in fall 2015, only the first-year SILA students were obligated to use Mahara for year-end pages assessed by AP. Now as second-year students, that group has used Mahara in place of paper-based portfolios for assessment of their work during fall semester Study Abroad. As these students progress, e-portfolio use will eventually expand to include all four years of our BA program. Students can download their e-portfolios for archiving or for importation into another Mahara

portfolio system (i.e. hosted on another server).

Implementing 'disruptive technology' is disruptive

This project was my first opportunity for hands-on experience with Mahara, although I had been advocating for its adoption at MIC since 2011. Learning about how other Japanese universities were using Mahara at the 2011 MoodleMoot convinced me that our students would benefit from e-portfolios. At that time, however, our Moodle was housed in an offsite server, so we lacked the infrastructure support to incorporate Mahara. In the intervening years I continued advocating for Mahara, in part on an ad hoc committee on ICT expansion. The committee's findings were integrated into the AP grant proposal, and eventually we received MEXT support for implementation in 2014.

Having passed through many hands, the plan for implementing e-portfolios was in some ways over-determined in the AP document while many logistical aspects were completely absent. For example, it was not specified in the grant who would actually create the implementation guidelines and orientation materials for the e-portfolio system. The e-portfolio WG's specified tasks were simply to conduct initial orientations. However, the actual workload became much heavier for several reasons. Since the grant's beginning in 2014, I served not only as the e-portfolio working group leader but also as the technical leader, setting up the personas and workflow as well as creating orientation materials that would help us employ the software to meet the AP grant specifications.

The fact that I created the early materials also reflects in part the time lag in hiring the Assessment Officer, who was specified in the grant to be the head of the e-Portfolio Center. And, as an early proponent of Mahara I had strong internal motivation to see

the e-portfolio system succeed. My goal therefore expanded to create a system that would fulfill the AP plan, which specified that Mahara would be used as a tool for visualizing evidence of active learning outcomes without creating undue demands on students, faculty, or staff.

Working to minimize disruption and maximize integration

In designing the workflow it also seemed prudent to use capacities of Moodle and Mahara towards goals shared by the other working groups where possible. One of these was rubrics. The AP grant calls for e-portfolio pages to be graded by a rubric; using the rubric function of the Moodle assignment module was an expedient solution. Moreover, by incorporating this practice into faculty orientations, we could model such a grading strategy and potentially bolster the Rubric WG's efforts. Details of this workflow are outlined in Figure 1 and described below.

Among the five working groups, e-portfolio was one practice that had not been done before on the MIC campus. The closest behavioral practice we had in place was the tradition of paper-based portfolios prepared by Study Abroad students and mailed to campus at the end of the semester. Therefore, the AP implementation in which students were provided with tablet PCs and expected to create e-portfolios from their first year equated to a cultural change process on the campus. Change is an inevitable aspect of culture, but this change was deliberate, with specific intended outcomes described to some extent in the AP paperwork. As an anthropologist this was an ideal way to employ my skills in an applied setting.

Who does what? UX design as applied social theory

Some of the basic aspects of software implementation employ strategies emergent

from social theories; user experience design (UX) is one of these aspects. Thinking about how systems will be used by different users necessitates the analysis of roles and tasks. Goffman's (1959) theory of dramaturgy suggests that people inhabit various roles determined in relationship to others. These roles come with expectations held by selves and others for behavior, which can therefore be predicted to some extent. UX designing is aided by creation of personas (fictional persons) representing different user roles, their needs, and expectations. In our case the specified roles were Teacher, Student, and AP Assessment Officer.

We already had the Moodle course management software in use that allowed teachers to upload, save, revise, and reuse course materials. Any student work in Moodle, however, was erased at semester's end. Mahara allows that work to be imported with a single click by the teacher or student for safekeeping. Students can also upload files of other work to their e-portfolio in various formats, write in time-stamped journals, organize their work in folders and by tags, and create pages that can be shared publicly or by secret URL. As mentioned above, the portfolios are downloadable so that students can keep an archive of their work when they graduate. The ability enabled by Mahara for students to make connections between the various documents and other artefacts they create provides an opportunity for reflective and holistic thinking about learning. This potential was what I believed our students would find beneficial, not only in reviewing work done over a whole year, or over four years, but also during any course in the semester. While faculty use is not mandated by the AP grant, we wanted to encourage its use outside the AP grant as desired, just as voluntary Moodle use is a part of the everyday teaching repertoire. Teachers can use Mahara as a course tool. To encourage this all the students on campus in Fall 2015 were offered orientation while the first-year students' year-end portfolios would be

assessed for AP reporting purposes (see Figure 1). The on-site Study Abroad group also piloted e-portfolio use in Fall 2015 since they and the away group would be expected to create paper-based portfolios as is our custom.

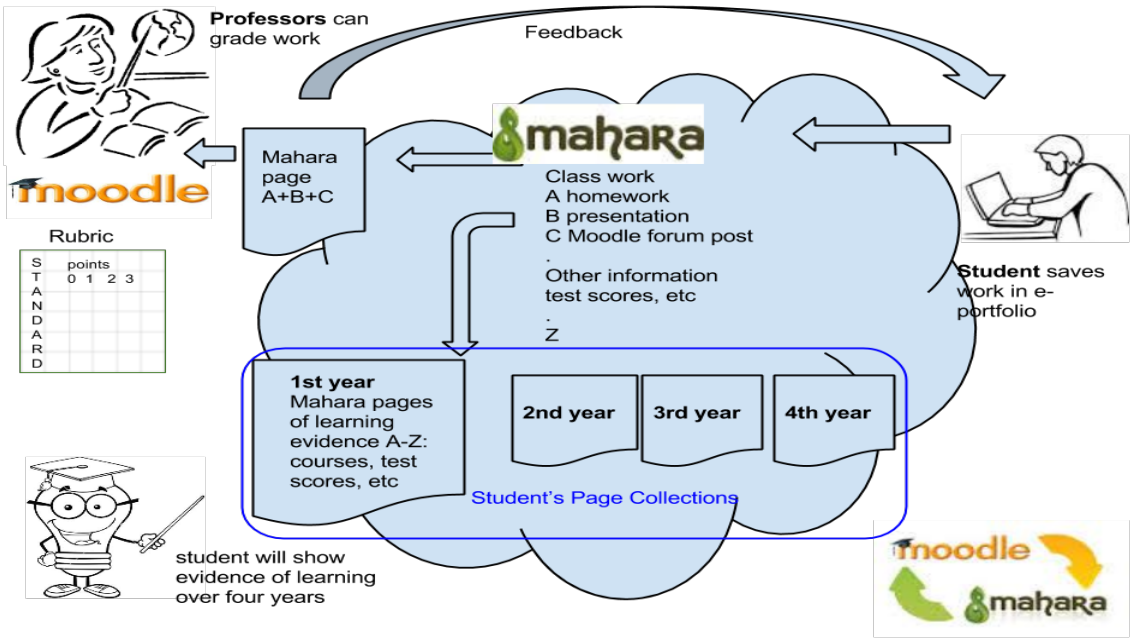

Figure 1. e-portfolio with Mahara and Moodle

E-portfolio contents can be downloaded by their users for archiving, e.g., on students' graduation. Mahara (and Moodle) contain a range of other worthwhile functions; however, for simplicity I only specified those necessary for the AP implementation. This schematic formed the basis of early orientations introducing the new system to faculty and others.

Our system uses existing Gmail login usernames and passwords. The workflow involves Mahara for input and creation of output e-portfolio pages, with submission of this work (as screenshots with the secret URL as a comment) into Moodle assignment modules for rubric-based grading. Though there was already a fledgling plugin available for installation within Mahara that suggested a different workflow, it

was yet untested by the global user community. Also, by using screenshots and secret URLs several problems are forestalled:

1. We must grade the e-portfolio pages by a rubric according to the AP specifications; submitting into the Moodle assignment module for rubric grading requires a file, which a screenshot is but the page link (secret URL) is not. We also benefit by using Moodle for reasons of the software integration with faculty's current practice.

2. The screenshot file has a time stamp with an image of the page at that time, to monitor whether the page is actually ready by the deadline. Without it, the page may change between the time the URL is shared and the assessor looks at it.

3. If a student submits the wrong URL (e.g., the URL in the address bar rather than the secret URL), the assessor can still tell whether the student did the page by the deadline and request the proper URL from the student.

4. AP will need multiyear evidence of page work for reporting and PDCA. Students are free to edit one previously created page rather than make another page and submit using the same URL, which removes all evidence of the prior page except the screenshot.

These and other aspects of the workflow attempt to combat possible problems various users may face. It was designed for robustness as well as simplicity. There may be some future adjustment of the workflow with technological changes and PDCA; however, this is the current rationale, created with the AP goals and current user proclivities in mind.

Figure 2 uses a different layout to display the expanded division of UX roles. This format includes more explicit specification of the expected tasks to be performed by

the different roles within the linked Moodle and Mahara software platforms. Again, these roles divide into Teacher (using Moodle based rubric grading), Student, and e-Portfolio Assessment Officer.

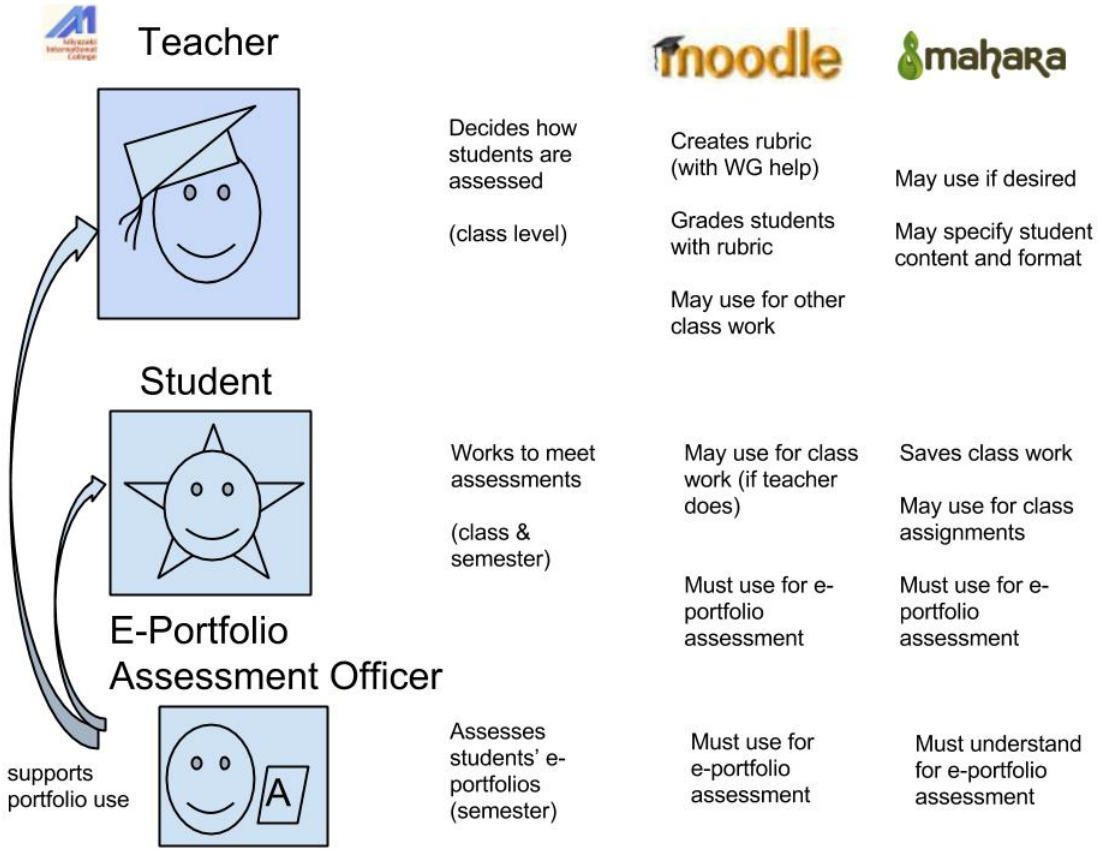

Figure 2. Basic roles/tasks for e-portfolio users

These roles were introduced to all concerned at WG meetings, orientations, orientation of the faculty, the vendors who installed the software and conducted initial orientations, and others concerned with AP. After these basic role expectations were developed, they proved useful in creating orientation materials to guide users to an understanding of the necessary software functions as it might have been. Furthermore, there are many examples of software orientation materials available thanks to Mahara's sharing ethos. I based our introductory page creation and submission workflow on the tasks listed in the AP workflow. Moreover, I drew inspiration from publicly available work by Mahara implementation staff around the world. I created

these pages and other orientation materials in the sandbox Mahara and later exported and uploaded to the official Mahara server. This preparation proved essential to the initial orientation that was delivered by the vendors once they had installed the software that all campus users could access.

Implementation and beyond: the flow of events

Because of logistical delays, we were half a year late of the expected implemented timeframe; however, we now have a working e-portfolio system that follows the AP grant plan. We provided several orientations for students and faculty, FD sessions, and a poster with workshop at the Active Learning Symposium. Orientation materials are currently housed in the Moodle section of the e-portfolio in a self-enroll course for anyone who wishes to create a trial e-portfolio.

The time flow of initial implementation went as follows: In April 2015, the anticipated start date, the AP leader was negotiating with vendors for setting up the system. In May, our ICT manager Anderson Passos set up a trial of Moodle/Mahara software on his personal server. Thanks to this, I was able to create a model of the e-portfolio system, with proof-of-concept results, interaction design personas for the various groups of users and their work expectations, and explanatory materials for the system workflow. The rubric materials were presented to the Rubrics WG in May; their editorial suggestions were incorporated. In July, I gave an overview of the e-portfolio system to first year students at tablet orientation and gave detailed instruction to the vendor for materials preparation.

The e-portfolio software was installed in late September just prior to the orientation date. This was far from ideal. Orientations for ILA students were held from October to

January, with weekly help desk time provided. Since the vendor's materials didn't match the specs for the e-portfolio system workflow, we created additional materials and distributed them to students. These are archived online with the other orientation materials.

Orientations for faculty were held in late September for all faculty with one session in English & one in Japanese, and again in late December in Japanese for the SEDU faculty. In November I led an faculty development seminar for SILA explaining the interface of new Moodle & Mahara with orientation on rubric building, and in January 2016, Adam Murray, Passos, and I held FD sessions on "Using e-Portfolios for Active Learning" that included an overview of the system and the results of the case study from the first-year ICT course.

By chance, we also stimulated faculty use of Mahara for their own contract renewal portfolio creation when the campus printers became inoperable just prior to the submission date in March 2016. In prior years, some faculty had submitted their re-appointment portfolios on CDs, so there had been precedent for paperless submissions. Administration agreed to allow Mahara page collections, knowing that these e-portfolio contents could be printed out if need be.

In 2016, we conducted orientations for first year students in the Introduction to Liberal Arts course and as well, to the second-years soon to engage in Study Abroad. Since the latter group were obliged to produce a portfolio of their efforts during the fall semester away, we orientated them to set up a Mahara page collection representing the separate sections of the portfolio that had been previously produced

on paper. During fall semester, the current AP office took on the e-Portfolio Center responsibilities and conducted end-of-year orientations for students.

Scholarship

The AP grant supported our engagement with scholarship on e-portfolio work as well as our presentation of findings from our project. This allowed us to bring resources to campus as well as to travel to a few conferences. Along with the new Mahara, we wanted to enhance understanding and engagement with Moodle. Towards this end we sponsored two iMoot conference events on campus to encourage faculty involvement in May and November. I attended the Mahara Open Forum conference at the Open University in Chiba in October. Materials from these events were made available to interested faculty and staff. Passos and Murray presented research papers on the trial implementation of Mahara in their ICT course at the IEEE Hi no Kuni Symposium at Miyazaki University in March 2016. Passos and I also gave presentations our e-portfolio research to the Conference on Global Higher Education June 2016 at Lakeland College Shinjuku. These presentations were warmly received and allowed us to network with kindred researchers at other institutions.

Challenges and Solutions

Our tasks as a WG, according to the AP plan, should have ended with the orientation, after which the e-portfolio management would take place in the e-Portfolio Center. We would have expected the development of year-end assessment measures to proceed from there. However, one need not be an anthropologist to observe that

humans do not always behave as expected. For one, the Assessment Officer during 2015-16 who was slated to run the e-Portfolio Center never engaged with the e-portfolio project to any significant extent. The AP Assistant was invaluable, though as a part-time worker could not make up for that lack of leadership in handling the e-Portfolio Center. Given the risk of failure of the e-portfolio project, I undertook the extra tasks, with the permission of the AP Leader. These circumstances expanded my workload considerably as de facto e-Portfolio Center head for 2014-15: creating assessment criteria and the pursuant set of orientation materials for the year-end assessment, orientating and assessing students' e-portfolio pages as well, and assembling data for the year-end report.

While engaged in these tasks, it became clear that holding orientations outside class time was important but ineffective in reaching all students. Instead of framing AP use of Mahara solely as an extracurricular activity, we wanted to deliberately infuse the curriculum with e-portfolio use. Passos trialed this initiative in his Introduction to ICT course during Fall 2015 and subsequently got faculty agreement to make the course mandatory. E-portfolio objectives were also included in the syllabi for two new first-year courses: Introduction to Liberal Arts and Introduction to Global Citizenship. These integrations of Mahara into the curriculum require in turn that faculty instructing the courses facilitate e-portfolio use in order for students to complete that requirement successfully.

Points to consider from this case study

Some of the problems we faced were logistic. Much of the challenges that emerged in this implementation are probably not unique to this case; at least the issues owing to the structural situation described here applied to the implementations of other WGs of

our AP as well. Anyone who undertakes leadership of an implementation such as this needs internal motivation and external support. Had I not received a partial course load reduction in order to take on e-Portfolio Center tasks in fall 2015, the project would not have been possible.

Other emergent problems were cognitively based. People tend to use their understandings of what is familiar to understand the unfamiliar, and Mahara use was no exception. Misunderstandings about the software prior to its installation emerged due to cognitive mapping of habits and functionalities from more familiar software and made various negotiations difficult, especially during the pre-installation period. Social norms for users that might be encouraged elsewhere in online interaction (e.g., the use of aliases or nicknames) had the potential to interfere with the logistical requirement for tracking users as specific members of campus community and had to be stopped. Overriding these habits with accurate information early on was important. Clear communication about what must be done and why is vital, while realizing user understanding is an ideal to strive for that may not be fully achieved.

In closing, I must say that the overall results so far are encouraging. Students have not found e-portfolio creation particularly difficult. Even without any curricular connection, first year students were able to create pages successfully. Now that Mahara use is better integrated into some parts of the curriculum, it is clear that the software can help students visualize the results of their active learning. That was the main goal of its use in the AP grant. I feel justified in having encouraged its adoption and am grateful for having gotten the support to implement it. I learned many things in the process of implementation, beyond the tasks described. Most of all I am grateful to my colleagues who gave advice, support, and succor along the way.

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Web resources

moodle.org

mahara.org

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