Moving Between Systems: Schema-Based Strategies for Transitioning Students from Secondary to Tertiary ESL Classrooms in Japan

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Abstract
Foreign teachers of English in Japanese universities typically aim to establish communicative, task-based, student-centered EFL classrooms in accordance to their modern SLA teacher training. On the other hand, most Japanese university freshmen have limited exposure to this type of classroom. Students are more familiar with traditional Confucian, teacher-centered classrooms that often focus on test prep, rote memorization, and grammar and translation methods. This context of Western systems interacting with Confucian systems is referred to by Liu and Fisher (2010) as "one community two systems." This paper describes the concept of "one community two systems" as it applies to Japanese university English communities. Differences between Confucian and Western classrooms are considered before focusing more specifically on English classroom differences. Schema Theory is then presented as a mechanism for considering students' situational expectations concerning English classrooms. Finally, schema-based strategies for transitioning students across systems are discussed. The strategies fit into two categories: fostering schematic "tuning" through awareness-raising discussions of educational expectations and utilizing aspects of pre-established educational schema in tertiary classrooms.

Keywords: transitioning strategies, schema theory, teacher training, Japanese university education

Introduction

In Liu and Fisher's (2010) discussion of pre-service English teacher training at a university in China, where top-down implementation of a Western pedagogical system was supplanting the traditional Confucian pedagogical system, the researchers explored tensions that arose and adaptations made within what they term a "one community, two systems" context. This terminology describes countless contexts where two educational systems meet. Implicit in the terminology is the idea that the two systems contain non-overlapping and possibly contradictory demands on the one community.

For a long time, the most obvious instantiations of similar "one community, two systems" contexts had been when East Asian students studied overseas in Western countries. As the students were coming from another educational system, they were operating under different assumptions concerning classroom norms and expected behaviors than their Western teachers. Naturally, a number of researchers have explored the difficulties students and teachers have had at developing appropriate cross-cultural competencies (Clark & Gieve, 2006; Durkin, 2008; Cortazzi & Jin, 1997; Major, 2005).

Asian students going overseas to study is not the only arena for such "one community, two systems" cultural negotiations. An increasingly prevalent context where two systems meet involves the importation of Western English as a foreign language (EFL) practices into otherwise Confucian systems. Littlewood (2007) discussed how Western pedagogical imports, specifically the use of communicative language teaching (CLT) and task-based language teaching (TBLT), have increasingly been mandated by top-down policy initiatives as countries hope to "increase the number of people in their population who can communicate effectively in English" (p. 243). Littlewood (2007) surveyed the research of a number of scholars ranging across East Asia in his discussion of culturally-driven student and teacher resistance to the imported system. In Japan, Bartlett (2017) discussed the misalignment between the communicative curriculum aims that Japan's Ministry of Education have prescribed for secondary schools and the continuation of an entrenched grammar and translation curriculum pursued by Japanese teachers.

This brings us to the "one community, two systems" context which is the focus of this paper: the educational challenges unique to the transition from secondary EFL classrooms to tertiary EFL classrooms taught by Western instructors in Japan. Transitioning from high school to university life anywhere in the world carries with it a number of social, motivational, and emotional challenges, but many Japanese students also must contend with considerably different English classroom systems from the ones they had grown accustomed to during secondary school. This transition may be destabilizing because students' long-held expectations about what defines an "English class" are significantly disrupted as students have to rapidly reposition their expectations about the teacher, their learning goals, appropriate student behavior, the language of instruction, educational material, learning and teaching style, and even class content. English is the only subject in Japan that undergoes such a dramatic discontinuity between secondary and tertiary settings, but implications of this transition are rarely acknowledged. This paper aims at raising teacher awareness so as to mitigate potential conflicts in this "one community, two systems" context. We

envision this goal as principally benefiting both students who are transitioning into university classrooms and teachers who may not be familiar with the educational backgrounds of their Japanese students, but hopefully even the most experienced English instructors or those in charge of new teacher orientation will garner some benefits. In the following pages, we will describe the gap between the two pedagogical systems, present Schema Theory as a framework for considering the difficulties associated with transitioning from experientially established classroom settings, and finally suggest a few strategies to university English instructors for segueing students between the two systems.

Foundations of Two Systems

There are several reasons why a discontinuity exists between secondary school and university English classes, but the most significant reason may be that each draws on its own pedagogical tradition: Japan's educational system is historically rooted in a traditional Confucian classroom, whereas university English classes taught by Western English instructors are generally informed by modern second language acquisition trends arising from a Western pedagogical system. Suzanne Scollon (1999) suggested that the seeds of these two systems were planted some 2500 years ago in the different teaching styles of Confucius and Socrates and that, although the winds of history may have bent the traditions' branches this way and that, certain key differences continue to leave their mark on classrooms today. Concerning the objective of education, Scollon suggested that Socrates aimed at revealing universal truths that resided within students using reason and critical thought; internal truths that were often critical of dogmatic thinking and traditions (pp. 16-18). Confucius, on the other hand, aimed at passing on the best of traditional Chinese wisdom that was meant to guide students' social behavior. Memorization and practical application of this externally situated traditional wisdom took precedent over critical interpretation. The practical repercussions that lead from these core differences ripple throughout every aspect of each pedagogical system.

Liu and Fisher (2010) examined a number of mutually incompatible differences that exist between Western and Confucian systems. Although Liu and Fisher were discussing education in China, Confucian teaching has deep roots in Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Taiwanese, and Vietnamese education that dates back centuries (R. Scollon, 2001). Japan's educational system may have had more influence from Western contact than some of these other countries, especially after WWII, but an analysis of the differences between Confucian and Western traditions remains appropriate for considering Japan's "one community, two systems" English learning context.

In order to moderate any allegations of Orientalism, essentialism, or otherwise promoting a post-colonial discourse, it should be noted that we are aware of the potential risks of using the terms "Confucian" and "Western." Importantly, we are not suggesting one system is superior to the other. They are being used as expressions of convenience, as they are frequently used in the literature to describe actual differences that exist between educational systems. No one claims that socio-cultural differences do not exist, and these are the terms often used to describe classroom differences. Furthermore, our fourteen years of combined teaching experience in thirteen different secondary schools in Japan allows us to recognize sufficient similarities with standard

presentations of Confucian classroom practices. That said, we want to stress that mapping these terms onto actual secondary and tertiary Japanese classrooms would locate classrooms on a range rather than in binary poles. That is to say, the following presentation of these seemingly dichotomous educational systems is designed to highlight their differences, but in reality each individual Japanese secondary class lies somewhere on the spectrum between the systems, though it is probably fair to say they typically share more commonalities with Confucian classrooms than they do with Western classrooms. On the other hand, our eleven years of tertiary EFL experience has informed us that classes taught by foreigners typically share more commonalities with Western classrooms described below.

Beginning at the basic level of teaching philosophy, Liu and Fisher (2010) suggested that the core concept of teaching is different between the two systems: with Confucian classrooms being teacher centered while Western classrooms are student centered. This leads to differences in teaching methods, with the Confucian method being a one-way, monologic stream of information passing from teacher to students while the Western system's method is one of multi-way, dialogic creation of knowledge through interaction among students and between teacher and students. Since the Confucian teacher's monologue assumes a top-down stream of unquestionable knowledge, the curriculum goals in such classrooms often relate to repetition and rote memorization of selected information, whereas Western classrooms are concerned more with bottom-up dialogues emphasizing creative manipulation and expansion of information. This means that testing in Confucian classrooms is often mechanical and rigid rather than formative, flexible and open ended. Finally, the mediating materials differ between systems; Confucian classrooms' focus on fixed knowledge leads to heavy reliance on textbooks and workbooks while Western classrooms' creative explorations incorporate cultural tools like music, games, personal stories, television shows, news reports, TED talks, and other internet content. In short, there are a number of dramatically contrasting aspects that define these two systems.

Secondary and Tertiary EFL Differences

In addition to the above systemic educational differences that Liu and Fisher (2010) identified, there are other differences unique to the Japanese EFL context. Several involve the high-stakes university entrance exam that students take at the end of their high school career, so some explanation about the test and its significance is in order. Japanese sociologists have suggested that Japan is a *gakureki-shakai*, directly translated as a "school history society." This means that by simply knowing the schools a student attended, especially the university, people immediately judge things like the range of the student's career prospects, future social prestige, and even seemingly unrelated qualities like moral character - after all they must be extremely disciplined and focused to get into better schools (Ryan, 2008, p. 32). The pyramid of school ranking serves as a social stratification mechanism, which can set students on a clear path to their "appropriate" place in the social hierarchy.

Because of the exam's significance as the gatekeeper to respected universities, high school teachers who have their students' best interests in mind tend to follow a "shadow curriculum" geared heavily toward test preparation (Aspinall, 2013, p. 75). This brings us to a major difference between secondary and tertiary EFL classes: secondary education's continued reliance on form-focused, grammar and translation

practices. University entrance exams generally test receptive knowledge, including sentence translation, difficult grammar rules, vocabulary, reading, and listening, but do not test communication. It is believed that the skills being tested are best gained through a grammar and translation pedagogical style that relies on rote memorization of vocabulary and grammar rules. For several reasons, not the least of which being the imperative to provide precise grammar explanations and to practice translation, high school classes are also typically conducted in Japanese. In contrast, conducting their classes in English, foreign instructors at the university level typically emphasize meaning-focused productive skills using CLT and TBLT. Instructors encourage subjective expressions of experience and personal opinions through writing and communication. The aim of fluency for means of self-expression often outweighs the requirement of precise grammatical correctness in tertiary classrooms. Therefore, freshman must adapt to these pedagogical differences as they move from a form-focused grammar and translation classroom taught nearly exclusively in Japanese to a meaning-focused, communicative classroom taught nearly exclusively in English.

Another noteworthy difference involves the classes' content itself. This fundamental aspect of any subject is rarely expected to change much from year to year, but many freshmen enter university English classrooms to discover considerable content differences from the classes they attended in secondary school. University entrance exam backwash means that the rules of grammar and the accumulation of vocabulary are the core aspects of secondary school English content. This focus on English grammar and vocabulary is also somewhat necessitated by the learning level of the students. By the time freshman enter university, however, they have often acquired enough language that teachers can begin using English as a medium to explore other content. Students suddenly find that much of the time previously dedicated to grammar and vocabulary is replaced by explorations of non-English related topics. This change in content may be a designed aspect of an English for specific purposes (ESP) program, or it may simply be that university instructors tend to introduce topics that they find interesting. This shift from English grammar and vocabulary to English as the medium for exploring other content is unique to modern language education and has no equivalent in any other subject Japanese students carry from secondary to tertiary settings.

A final difference worth mentioning involves Japan's use of foreign Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs). At the government's encouragement, thousands of native speakers are placed in public schools across Japan to "assist" Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs). These ALTs are typically the only contact with foreigners that students have in their school settings, so their relationship forms the foundation of future educational interactions with non-Japanese instructors. ALTs usually do not have a background in education, they are relegated to an "assistant" position with few meaningful responsibilities, and their use of classroom time is often dominated by games or other activities generally understood as a break from the serious business of test preparation. Consequently, foreign English teachers are not immediately given the same respect that a Japanese science or math professor would receive, for example. Unfortunately, these preconceptions may persist longer than necessary because the Western pedagogical system does not always resemble the "serious" test preparation system students are used to.

A brief, somewhat stereotypical, summary will help consolidate and highlight the contrasting points between secondary and tertiary English classrooms in Japan. Secondary school classrooms employ a teacher-centered, top-down approach to education, where the Japanese teacher passes down form-focused English grammar and vocabulary knowledge, typically in Japanese, in a one-way stream to the students, who are responsible for memorizing it by rote. Textbooks are also used to facilitate the grammar and translation style of teaching, with all efforts clearly aimed at a well-defined monumental goal of passing the university entrance exam. Finally, there may be a native speaker in the classroom occasionally, especially during breaks from serious learning, but he or she is clearly just an assistant.

In native-speaker led university classrooms, on the other hand, students experience a bottom-up approach where the foreign teacher is an expert resource and guide but the knowledge is often negotiated on the student level through communicative interactions and between students and the teacher. Though some grammar points or vocabulary may be emphasized, English is mainly used to explore content from a range of subjects with the help of resources like music, games, stories, television shows, news reports, TED talks, internet content, and so on. Finally, rather than rote memorization and translation, students are encouraged to creatively express their worldview through meaning-focused tasks, writings, and communicative exercises, which make up a series of small, low-stakes goals.

Descriptive, Not Prescriptive

Though it is tempting to resort to ethnocentric prescriptions regarding what modern TESOL programs consider to be "outdated" English classroom practices, our intention here is only descriptive. There are reasons why secondary English education is what it is in Japan. For starters, an educational system plays a formative role in any society and its stability is a reflection of its ability to effectively instill desirable normative cultural values, so the current system may hold social benefits. Furthermore, since nearly all licensed high school English teachers are Japanese, they are most familiar with, and consequently tend to implement, the educational style that they themselves experienced as students. Moreover, Japanese teachers typically begin their career immediately after university graduation and remain until retirement. When new teachers are hired, they enter a junior/senior or *senpai/kohai* relationship where they become junior *kohai* and are guided by a senior *senpai*. The senior instructs the younger English teacher in pedagogical practices that he or she learned decades earlier, which in turn were acquired from his or her *senpai*, and so on. The nature of this relationship with its largely one-way transmission of knowledge lends itself to a sort of stasis (Bartlett, 2017). Finally, this stasis is amplified by the fact that the all-important university entrance exams are tailored to test students who represent the ideal products of the current educational system. The test adapts to the system, which in turn adapts to the test in a feedback loop that resists change. Like an insect preserved in amber, the exam-focused "shadow curriculum" hermetically seals secondary English education away from evolving modern TESOL practices. In summary, the stasis is largely a product of several factors, including the Confucian educational system, the need for enculturation into accepted social norms, teachers' educations, the *senpai/kohai* relationship, and the practical requirement to prepare students for an exam designed within the system that it actively shapes in a feedback loop.

On the other hand, foreign English university instructors are most familiar with the Western pedagogical system and modern TESOL practices. Nearly all the foreign instructors have advanced degrees informed by modern TESOL practices. For the sake of job security and professional status, those who have not formally studied TESOL maintain a vested interest in learning the theories and practices of their peers. Furthermore, rather than holding permanent teaching positions, there is a high turnover rate as a majority of foreign university English instructors are on yearly contracts with a maximum limit of 5-years. Therefore, at universities one finds a steady flow of recent graduates and instructors who attempt to stay abreast with new EFL educational developments through ongoing research and conferences as a way to stay competitive in the job market. These factors converge to create evolving modern pedagogical classrooms that stand in stark contrast to the often static grammar and translation Japanese secondary classrooms.

To reiterate, we are not prescribing the use of modern Western pedagogic practices; especially their implementation where social enculturation does not create students ideally suited for optimal learning within the system, i.e. students who eagerly debate, refute, express opinions, question established thought, persuade others, and share personal stories in public (for discussion, see: Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). A number of researchers have commented on the mismatch and resulting difficulties of implementing CLT and TBLT in East Asia (Hu, 2005; Li, 1998; Littlewood, 2007; Rao, 1996). In the context of Japan, Samimy and Kobayashi (2004) examined sociocultural, political, and educational characteristics that hampered the effective application of CLT practices, and ultimately suggested CLT practices should not be pursued in their current formulation. On the other hand, with so much support for CLT and TBLT in the TESOL community, East-Asian governments and institutions might be right in pushing for their implementation. Rather than wade too far into prescriptive debates, however, our point is to acknowledge the descriptive fact that most foreign tertiary teachers currently employ different TESOL practices than are found in secondary classrooms.

Conceding these differences leads to the question of how to transition students most effectively in Japan's "one community, two systems" context. Since the educational differences Japanese freshmen are confronted with are deeply entrenched and show no signs of receding, the onus is on university English instructors to consider measures to facilitate the transition. At its core, the difficulty involves how students' past situational experiences inform their expectations of behavior within a context that expects them to think and act in a manner disconnected from their previous experiences. One useful framework to explore this common phenomenon that will also serve while considering transitioning strategies is to understand the problem as a misalignment of university freshmen's inveterate English learning schemata.

Schema Theory

Schema Theory was advanced in the fields of psychology and education by British psychologist Frederic Bartlett (1886-1969). According to Bartlett (1932), schemata are cognitive constructs used to help anticipate and navigate situational contexts based on the organization of past experiences into generic guiding concepts. These constructs are like evolving templates that are subconsciously superimposed on a situation, the function of which is to reduce the cognitive load that would be required

if one were to instead continuously analyze and evaluate each and every social and material aspect within the situation. Cognitive theorist David Rumelhart (1980, pp. 33-34) details the extent of schema's functionality by suggesting that "schemata are employed in the process of interpreting sensory data ..., in retrieving information from memory, in organizing actions, in determining goals and sub goals, in allocation of resources, and generally, in guiding the flow of processing in the system". In short, schemata make situations more predictable by relying on past experiences to aid with ongoing cognitive processing.

An example may help illustrate how schemata use past experiences to aid information processing and increase phenomenological predictability. Consider the following discussion of a *soccer game* schema while mentally mapping it onto an analogous *English classroom* schema. As a soccer player interacts with the game over time, he notices the other players, the ball, and other aspects of the game behave in predictable, affirmative ways. These predictable aspects are formulated, strengthened, and stored in his memory as schemata. Therefore, when the soccer player walks onto a field, even a new field to meet a team he has never played, his established *soccer game* schemata allows for a generic understanding of the game's sequence of events, the general rules and goals of the game, the imperatives barked at him by the coach, how his and the opposing teams' players are likely to move, the speed and energy required to traverse distances, the general movement of the ball, and so on. These generic situational templates stored in the memory are unconsciously accessed to allow for an ongoing interpretation of the flow of events in the *soccer game* schema setting.

The utility of schemata lies in their ability to facilitate cognition when situations are sufficiently similar to past experiences. However, they can also be detrimental when unexpected differences arise. Imagine being the same soccer player arriving at a stadium only to find that, although the field is the same size, the normal goals have multiplied into smaller goals that are sprinkled around the field, the coach rarely gives advice unless asked and occasionally runs out and joins the teams during play, the ball is slightly oblong, and many of the rules have changed. Despite this, everyone around him is still calling the game "soccer." In such a bizarre situation, the player would naturally feel disoriented and carry aspects of his past experience into the new game. It is easy to imagine that, despite the radical change in the game, initially the confused player would erroneously predict aspects of the game as he intuitively applied strategies previously associated with success. These expectations would inevitably lead to a suboptimal performance - as we suggest it does with *English classroom* schema. A guide with a knowledge of both the old and new games would be an invaluable resource in facilitating the transition.

The relevant take away is that schemata for a situation are, for better or for worse, automatically applied to similar situations, but it is worth considering how these mechanisms have been shown to affect people's ongoing experiences. For example, researchers have demonstrated how schema can cause memory distortions through either omission or inclusion (Anderson & Pichert, 1978; Bartlett, 1932; Gilboa & Marlatte, 2017). Brewer and Treyens (1981) conducted an experiment that highlighted both outcomes. They had undergraduate participants (N=86) briefly sit in what they were told was a graduate student's office while waiting to participate in a research task. Unbeknownst to the participants, the room was actually a space filled with items designed to test the influence of schema on unintentional memory. The

participants were removed from the space and asked to recall as much as possible about the room. Their recall tended to omit items that were in the room but did not fit into pre-conceived schemata of a graduate student office, like a picnic basket or wine bottle, but included items, like books, pencils, and coffee cups, that were not in the room. The researchers conclude that either schema-based information is integrated into and distorting our ongoing perceptions or it is a framework utilized during recall that influences our memory after the experience. Either way, schemata distort experience when expectations do not match ongoing episodic phenomenon.

To summarize, schemata are situationally organized templates that help us anticipate and behave within similar situations, but they can also lead to suboptimal performances when applied to new situation that are sufficiently dissimilar to the ones in which they were formed. Therefore, when considering the "one community, two systems" context described in this paper, a smooth transition from secondary to tertiary English classrooms can be conceived of as a process of refining or utilizing existing schemata. The following section provides a few strategies for aiding this transition.

Strategies for Transitioning Students

The strategies suggested below are divided into two categories: evolving toward a new schema and utilizing existing schema. Since there are many commonalities between secondary and tertiary classrooms such as the presence of teachers, students, a focus on English, institutional learning settings, homework, study material, and so on, the first category promotes a modification of students' already existing schemata through a process referred to as *tuning* (Rumelhart & Norman, 1978). Though there can be resistance to the process, tuning involves the continual elaboration and refinement of schema "to make them more in tune with experience" (Rumelhart,1980, p. 52). The second category, utilizing existing schema, suggests ways to ease students into tertiary EFL classrooms by exploiting existing schemata that do not interfere with the implementation of modern TESOL practices. Whereas the goal of the first category is acclimating students to new classroom practices, the second mainly involves the continuation of familiar practices for transitional ease and effective classroom management.

Schema tuning is a natural and inevitable process that occurs whenever situational expectations are not met, but there are ways to expedite the process (Nishida, 1999). Students anticipate university to be different from high school, so they begin as vigilant observers. Their awareness, however, will wane over the first few weeks as they settle into routines, so early tuning interventions hold greater benefits. Norris (2004, p. 28) suggests that teachers should begin by being "very clear about class rules, grades, and absences," and they should "be consistent in sticking to those rules." As schemata are essentially future-predictors, setting steadfast rules about future expectations effectively tunes schema. In addition to covering class rules, frank discussions about acceptable behaviors are also suggested. Directly contrasting acceptable behavior within the two systems, as well as examining relevant cultural differences helps maximize such discussions. We have found success in framing these group-explorations around questionnaires that provided immediate data feedback concerning past and present expectations, to provide relevant and targeted tuning. As lower level students may not be capable of engaging in the above tuning strategies, it

may be worth using Japanese if possible or at least preparing a worksheet in Japanese explaining rules and expectations while providing a follow-up quiz. It is important to establish acceptable behavior from the beginning, but periodic reminders may also be necessary as dramatic changes do not manifest in one discussion. In short, tuning strategies revolve around mindful awareness of student and teacher classroom expectations, so anything teachers can do to achieve that end will facilitate students' transitions.

The second category of strategies involves utilizing existing schema for transitional continuity and classroom management. An example involves the use of titles. Leading from their sociocultural background, foreign English teachers may encourage students to use their given names believing that it promotes good rapport and a relaxed atmosphere (Gudykunst & Nishida, 1994, p. 50). Unfortunately, this may not be the result. Japanese high school students may not know their teachers' given names, and if they do, few would consider using them alone as a form of address. If multiple teachers have the same last name, some might allow the use of first names, but always accompanied by the title *sensei*, meaning "teacher." Students are socialized to use correct titles, so incorrect use could lead to social criticism or awkwardness (Gudykunst & Nishida, 1994, 50; Goffman, 1967). Since titles are socially significant, we suggest using titles such as Mr., Ms., or professor, at least at the beginning of the semester, especially for teachers that have class management issues. Not only do students resist using first names without titles, the use of titles establishes and clarifies boundaries through the affirmation of a familiar schema.

Teaches can take advantage of another classroom schema by using well-defined opening and closing English phrases. Within Japanese secondary classrooms, openings and closings are clearly signaled using formulaic expressions and actions. During every class, students react to a series of commands starting with "*kiritsu*" *(order!)* causing everybody to quickly stand at attention; "*rei*" *(bow)*, leading to a respectful bow; and "*chakuseki*" *(take your seat)*, resulting in everybody sitting at attention. This defines a clear boundary, unequivocally communicating to students through language and ritual that the class is beginning. Western teachers coming from outside this tradition tend to use comparatively vague language or gestures to signal openings and closings. Defining and utilizing clear, repetitive openings and closings in university classrooms can draw on thoroughly conditioned schema to establish well-defined boundaries between socializing time and learning time, which reduces student role disorientation and helps maintain order.

A familiarity with the workings of secondary classrooms helps when brainstorming strategies in this category. Though space here is limited, some other brief examples of schema-supported strategies we use include facilitating social engagement and "volunteering" through the use of rock-paper-scissors, encouraging students to check their answers with those around them prior to calling on individuals, making students socially or quantifiably accountable for nearly everything asked of them, and tolerating a degree of chatter after instructions and between tasks. Importantly, these strategies do not interfere with modern TESOL practices, but do help maintain order and add a degree of continuity.

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to raise awareness of the difficulties inherent to Japan's "one community two systems" EFL context. The differences students encounter while transitioning from secondary to tertiary EFL classrooms can be traced to various historical, cultural, institutional, and educational sources. Though neither system is likely to change anytime soon, a detailed understanding of the existing differences allows foreign tertiary instructors to consider possible strategies they can use to more effectively transition students to their classroom's pedagogical system. A number of schema-inspired transitioning strategies have been suggested for tuning schema toward desired behavior and for utilizing existing schema for the sake of transitional ease and classroom management. This topic has rich research potential for anyone interested in tracking the results of transitioning strategies, for those wishing to explore how institutions address this gap while orienting new hires, or for researchers interested in either teacher or student perspectives on the transition. The gap between Japan's secondary and tertiary EFL classrooms will remain for some time, but we are confident that future researchers will find ways to facilitate transitions between the systems.

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