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# Foreword

Welcome to the new issue of *Language Teacher Cognition Research Bulletin*, a peer-refereed journal of the JACET SIG on Language Teacher Cognition. This specific issue of the journal, whose inaugural issue was published in 2011, introduces a new editorial policy (and hence a new format) and includes papers that were presented at our SIG research meetings/conferences during the 2016 and 2017 academic years. As the Chief-Editor of this journal, I am deeply grateful to the contributing authors and all editorial board members for creating this issue together.

This issue begins with a paper by Mayumi Asaba reporting on part of her doctoral research into teacher expertise in L2 teaching. She discusses major research findings of an experienced EFL teacher, focusing on the teacher's knowledge of learners (e.g., holistic knowledge of class dynamics as a result of perceiving the class as a group with individually-bound shared knowledge) as a crucial component of teacher's expertise. The second paper by Larisa Kasumagić Kafedžić, Paula Pickering, Alma Žero, and Jason Nagel describes outcomes of student-teacher led action research in which intercultural communicative competence (ICC) evaluation frameworks were used. Based on the results of data analyses, they maintain that their four-week project enabled the participants to improve their ICC. They also discuss the reasons why further training of student co-teachers would be needed to develop age-specific strategies and activities that promote ICC. Additionally, Atsuko Watanabe, Yuko Iwata, and Masuko Miyahara in the third paper describe findings of their study supported by a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research (KAKENHI) (C). They examine the feasibility of an English teacher education program in which teacher educators and their students in the program can all benefit from mutual learning experiences through reflection.

In closing, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to Dr. Shigeru Sasajima, former SIG Chair (currently an honorary SIG member), who worked for 10 years, from the inauguration of this SIG up until the end of the academic year 2017, pulling this journal together and creating a solid foundation for us. Finally, profound appreciation goes out to all esteemed SIG members who participated in our research meetings/conferences and shared their excellent work in the academic year 2018. You all helped to make my time as SIG Chair an edifying and rewarding experience.

Toshinobu Nagamine, Ph.D.  
Chair, JACET SIG on Language Teacher Cognition

# SIG Activity Records

General research theme as of 2018:

Theory and practice of language teacher cognition research in Japan

<p><b>2018 3/17 Sat</b> 2pm - 5pm</p> <p>第34回 JACET SIG 言語教師認知研究会 研究発表会</p> <p>場所：熊本大学</p>	<p>1. 研究発表 「英語教師の資質の分析」 渡辺 敦子（文教大学） 秋山 朝康（文教大学） 大場 博幸（文教大学）</p> <p>2. 研究発表 「実践知の言語化に関する一考察：リフレクション活動へのアプローチを探る」 長嶺 寿宣（熊本大学） 藤枝 豊（共愛学園前橋国際大学） 飯田 敦史（群馬大学）</p>
<p><b>2018 6/23 Sat</b> 2pm - 5pm</p> <p>第35回 JACET SIG 言語教師認知研究会 研究発表会</p> <p>場所：熊本大学</p>	<p>1. 研究発表 「Reconceptualizing Research on Language Teacher Cognition in Teacher Development Through Praxis: Cases in Practice」 Terry Laskowski（熊本大学） 武上 富美（立命館慶祥高等学校）</p> <p>2. 研究発表 「セルフアクセス・センターにおける学生スタッフ開発と学習者オートノミー」 松岡 弥生子（國學院大學）</p>
<p><b>2018 11/17 Sat</b> 2pm - 4pm</p> <p>第36回 JACET SIG 言語教師認知研究会 研究発表会</p> <p>場所：熊本大学</p>	<p>1. 研究発表 「言語教師認知研究における物語様式と二人称的アプローチ」 柳瀬 陽介（広島大学）</p>

<p><b>2019 1/26 Sat</b></p> <p>2pm - 5pm</p> <p>第 3 7 回 JACET SIG 言語教師認知研究会 研究発表会</p> <p>場所：文教大学越谷キャンパス</p>	<p>1. NVivo 12 のデモワークショップ 木村 裕三（富山大学）</p> <p>2. 研究発表 「Reflection in pre-service teacher training: Theory and practice」 Robert MacIntyre（上智大学）</p>
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SIG Website: <https://jacetlrc.jimdofree.com/>

# Knowledge of Learners in Expert Second Language Teaching

Mayumi Asaba

Temple University, Japan

## Introduction

Understanding what entails expertise in L2 teaching is essential to understanding how to best facilitate effective classroom practices and teacher development (Richards, 2010). There are mainly two key aspects crucial to expert teaching. One is a distinction between experts and experienced nonexperts (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1993). The other is that the definition of expertise differs depending on the cultural context (Tsui, 2005). Although there are a few studies that examined aspects of teacher expertise in the L2 field (e.g., Farrell, 2013; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Tsui, 2003), there is no research to this day that has focused on EFL teachers nor on the characteristics that underpin expertise. Therefore, this case study of an EFL teacher in Japan examines one of the characteristics of expertise, knowledge of learners, and its effect on teaching students at a Japanese university.

## Previous Research

Teacher knowledge has been a key concept in previous expertise studies in teaching (e.g. Berliner, 1994, 2001, 2004; Freeman, 2002; Gatbonton, 1999, 2008; Tsui, 2003; Turner-Bisset, 1999). One of the main kinds of knowledge that experienced teachers possess is pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). According to Shulman (1986), pedagogical content knowledge focuses on the teachability of specific content and includes knowledge about content, pedagogy, curriculum, and learners. That is, it is knowledge related to how to teach a target content in the most effective manner. Thus, someone who has a rich PCK can successfully select and utilize illustrations, examples, explanations, and demonstrations to teach a topic while considering its level of difficulty.

The importance of PCK has been reported in several studies of expertise (e.g., Hattie, 2003; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Richards, 2010; Tsui, 2003). Richards, Li, and Tang (1995)

compared teachers with different levels of knowledge and suggested several important characteristics indicating pedagogical content knowledge. First, teachers who have rich PCK demonstrated a deeper understanding of the content and were able to present it in different ways. Second, they considered students' perspectives by proposing a lesson that was learner-centered and meaningful to students' feelings while meeting their needs and abilities. Accordingly, Farrell (2013) discovered in the reflections of three experienced teacher participants evidenced that their thinking centered around their knowledge about learners. They considered various aspects of students, such as their needs and motivations, which are influenced by multiple contextual factors.

Knowledge of learners is an integral aspect of PCK (Turner-Bisset, 1999). For example, Tsui (2003) suggested that Shulman's conception of PCK includes knowledge about learners. This knowledge consists of a combination of what students already know or misunderstand about the topic and how best they learn the topic. Similarly, Johnston and Goettch (2000) defined teachers' knowledge about learners as "knowledge of learners" and its function as "teachers' beliefs about how learners learn and what they know affect their pedagogical strategies" (p. 455). Based on the analysis of classroom observations and interviews of four experienced ESL grammar instructors, they discussed how knowledge of learners played an important role in teaching. First, the teacher participants evaluated students' comprehension of the class based on their observations of students' facial expressions or reactions and their production of certain grammar features. Moreover, knowledge of learners allowed them to understand students' perspectives. For example, the teachers emphasized that it was essential to teach forms in grammar classes to their students. They justified this approach based on their knowledge of their adult students, who had already been exposed to English education in their home country and preferred to conceptualize various grammar points. It is evident that their knowledge about students' perspective had a significant impact on how they approached teaching. Furthermore, one of the qualities that Richards (2010) pointed out about competent teachers is that these teachers have abilities to create classes that reflect students' perspectives, meet their needs, and incorporate their feedback. It is evident that knowledge of learner is an essential component of PCK.

One factor to consider in studying teacher expertise is the influence of context (e.g., Berliner, 2001, 2004; Bullough & Baughman, 1995; Ennis, 1994; Hattie, 2003) because conception of expertise is different in each context. Accordingly, Tsui (2005) explained that a culture influences the perception of expertise (See Geertz, 1973; Kluckhohn, 1971 for more

discussion of culture). Berliner (2001) supported this point by comparing teaching to other domains, such as sports and defined teaching expertise as culturally sensitive, even to a specific time in a culture.

Findings from an exploratory study I conducted (Asaba, 2015) reported differences in perceptions about what constitutes expertise between two participants of different backgrounds. When these participants, who were teaching at Japanese universities reflected on a teacher that they had as a learner and identified as an expert, they discussed different aspects of teaching that influenced them in positive ways. One of the participants, who was from the United States, described the manner that his math teacher used to make the topic interesting and relevant to students' lives. This in return, enhanced his interest and motivation to study the subject. On the other hand, the other participant, who had mostly received education in Japanese school settings with the exception of her Master's program in the United States, discussed the strong emotional bond she had developed with her expert teacher. This bond was created from her personal interactions with the teacher and the extra assistance she received as an international student in the United States.

Even though it is difficult to make generalizations about cultural expectations for teachers based on this small-scale study (Asaba, 2015), the findings concur with the argument made by Tsui (2005) that the prominent aspect of teaching in Japan is about building interpersonal relations, such as demonstrating emotional commitment to students. Additionally, Shimahara and Sakai (1995) claimed based on their comparative research of two cultures that whereas Japanese teachers focused on building trusting and personal relationships to enhance students' academic motivations, American teachers focused more on being an authority, more capable of delivering subject related knowledge to students. In conclusion, cultural context plays a vital role in determining characteristics of expertise.

Another aspect that is integral to expertise studies is the distinction between expert teachers and experienced teachers. Although these terms were previously used interchangeably in some research (e.g., Berliner, 1994; Cumming, 1990), experience does not automatically make someone an expert (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1993; Hatti, 2003; Johnson, 2005; Tsui, 2003, 2005). Despite this fact, establishing a criterion that clearly distinguishes two types of teachers is difficult. Palmer, Stough, Burdenski, and Gonzales (2005) conducted a meta-analysis of research focusing on expert teachers who taught students from kindergarten to 12<sup>th</sup> grade and found inconsistencies among criteria that these studies relied on in selecting expert participants. They instead suggested a new criterion, which evaluates different aspects of



teaching, such as recommendations from multiple people and evidence that indicates the influence that the candidate had on students' achievement. However, using this criterion can be problematic in some teaching contexts, such as in Japanese universities where classroom observations rarely happen or there is no mandate for students to take standardized tests.

On this basis, this study explores what kinds of characteristics indicate expert teaching specific to the context of Japanese universities. I chose to focus on university teachers because there has been little research focusing on expert teachers at this level, especially in EFL settings. Even though having knowledge related to teaching is considered integral as reflected in most of job advertisements on Japan Research Career Information Network (JREC-IN), there is a lack of empirical research on this topic. Furthermore, rather than selecting an "expert teacher" and describing their characteristics, I instead examine characteristics of expert teaching by focusing on an experienced teacher. That is because there is no currently agreed upon criteria that I can use to select expert EFL teachers in this context. The research questions are the following:

1. What characteristics of expert knowledge does an experienced EFL teacher have at a Japanese university? Specially, what kind of knowledge of learners does this teacher have?
2. How does an experienced EFL teacher incorporate expert knowledge into practice?

## **Methods**

### **Case study**

In order to investigate characteristics of expertise, I utilized case study methodology. Case studies allow for examining participants in the most naturalistic environment and with real time contextualized phenomena (Casanave, 2015; Hatch, 2002; Yin, 2014). Moreover, expertise is context specific (Berliner, 2001, 2004; Bullough & Baughman, 1995). As Flyvbjerg (2006) explained "context-dependent knowledge and experience are at the very heart of expert activity" (p. 222). That is, the act of expertise can be only brought to light when teachers are in their own teaching context: teaching their subject by using their selected materials with their students in their classroom. In addition, triangulation of various data sources that are integral to teachers' lives, such as interviews that document participants' beliefs about teaching, classroom observations, a collection of artifacts that they created and used, and discussions among students about their teachers would provide a holistic view, which is important to understand teaching expertise. Therefore, in order to describe characteristics that reflect the

true nature of teaching, I used case study as a method of inquiry.

### **Selection of participants**

In order to select participants, I used and modified criteria suggested by Palmer et al., (2005) that included four aspects of expertise, such as education, experience, recommendation, and evidence of the effect that the teacher has on student performance. First, rich teacher knowledge should be reflected in a particular teaching domain by a degree or certificate. Therefore, I established the minimum educational requirement based on job descriptions listed on the job search site often used by researchers in Japan, JREC-IN. As suggested by the job descriptions of the majority of universities, I required candidates to have a Master's degree or higher in TESOL, Education, Applied Linguistics, or related areas.

Second, the criteria required candidates to have more than three years of teaching experience in a specific content area and in the particular teaching context. Therefore, I established the guideline for candidates to have more than three years of EFL teaching experience in a context where I planned to collect data. Finally, it was essential that candidates' knowledge and skills to be verified by those who knew them well, such as supervisors, colleagues, and administrators. I sent emails to 30 teachers who were in a supervising position at 16 universities in the western part of Japan to inquire about teachers that they considered excellent and could recommend for my study. The email message explained the purpose of my study and asked them to provide names of candidates along with reasons as to why they considered the candidates to be effective teachers.

In conclusion, I selected four candidates who fit these criteria. All four candidates were given an explanation of my study in oral and written form, and they all agreed to participate in my study. In this paper I present a preliminary report on part of my data from my dissertation study, which involved four cases of experienced teachers at Japanese universities. I only focus on one of the four participants, Alex (all the names in this study are pseudonyms) whose research findings I presented at the Language Teacher Cognition seminar in 2017.

### **Main participant: Alex**

Alex was an EFL instructor at Oka University (pseudonym), which is a large private university located in the western part of Japan at the time of data collection. He is a native speaker of English, has a Master's degree in TESOL, and was in the process of getting his doctoral degree from a university at the time the data was collected. He began teaching part time at a Japanese university in 2009. In 2010, he started working full time as a limited contract teacher and got

promoted to an unlimited contract in 2013 at Oka University where I gathered the data. He was recommended by a program coordinator based on his observation of Alex. He described Alex as someone who established great rapport with his students and was a dedicated teacher who spent many hours preparing his lessons.

My positionality with Alex was that I knew Alex prior to data collection. First, we had been teaching in the same university. Even though we worked in different departments, we sometimes discussed campus-wide projects. Additionally, we were in the same research group for two years. My positionality had both negative and positive influences. Negative aspects included Alex's knowledge about my research area about teaching expertise. He knew I was seeking to find excellent teachers, which may have influenced him to feel extra pressure to participate in my study. I attempted to overcome this problem by providing details of my research (Labaree, 2002) and by visiting his classes multiple times to help him get used to my presence in the classroom. My positionality also had a positive effect. As an insider (Taylor, 2011), I was able to begin my research based on mutual respect and trust with Alex. My personal relationship with him on a research team helped me to easily gain access to his classroom and assure him that the purpose of my research was not to evaluate him but to learn how he approached his classes.

## **Data Collection**

I conducted classroom observations, interviews with Alex, and focus groups with his students. In addition, I collected artifacts, such as syllabi and course materials he created and used in the observed classes. I observed two courses that he was teaching in the spring semester of 2016 at Oka University. One was a four-skills course, and it focused mainly on improving students' speaking and listening skills through various tasks and projects, such as presentations, creating a class magazine, and parties. The other was a study abroad preparation course, which was created and managed by Alex. He created this course hoping to provide the necessary assistance for students who planned to study abroad. Both courses had students of different majors and ages. The former course had 27 students, and the latter course had four students. For each course, I observed a 90-minute-lesson on four occasions throughout the semester, which added up to a total of 12 hours. I took detailed field notes during observations, including the types of activities and projects students were given and how they were reacting to them and with each other during the lesson. All the classes were video-recorded upon permission. The video recorder was placed at the back of the class in order to capture Alex, who was often in front of the classroom. Occasionally, I moved the camera as Alex walked around the classroom

to interact with students individually.

I conducted an interview with Alex on five occasions based on the framework of the three-interview series by Seidman (2006). I conducted the first one prior to the semester where the classroom observations took place in order to learn about his background. Additionally, I conducted an interview to ask him about the observed class immediately after three of the classroom observations. Finally, there was a final interview following the completion of the semester. I asked questions related to the past semester in addition to experiences and events that he considered significant in his career of teaching. The total interview time was approximately five hours. Furthermore, I conducted two focus groups with his students from the observed classes. A couple of students, who volunteered to participate from each class discussed their experiences in the observed classroom and how they thought their experiences influenced their ideas about learning English for a total of two hours in Japanese. I audio-recorded all the interviews and focus groups upon permission.

## **Data Analysis**

I used both deductive and inductive approaches to analyze the data. A deductive approach includes relating the data to characteristics described in previous research (Hatch, 2002; Yin, 2014). Therefore, I compared characteristics described in previous expertise studies to the ones observed in my data for similarities and differences (Yin, 2014). Specifically, I focused on knowledge that Alex demonstrated because previous researchers (e.g., Gattbonton 1999, 2008; Johnston & Goettch, 2000; Richards et al., 1995; Tsui, 2003) emphasized its important effect on expert teaching. Therefore, I categorized the data by different types of knowledge, such as pedagogical content knowledge and knowledge of learners. For example, descriptions about each activity was included in PCK and Alex's comment on students were categorized under knowledge of learners.

I also took an inductive approach where I organized segments of data by connecting them for a meaning pattern (Hatch, 2002). This approach allowed me to be open to the data that were reoccurring. Based on my analysis, categories such as class-oriented knowledge, individually-bounded knowledge, and creating and facilitating a learning community were generated. Additionally, I combined different categories. For example, I included creating a learning community under knowledge of learners as he used his knowledge of learners to effectively create a community within the classroom.

In order to find themes, I examined the interview and focus group data. I transcribed the interview data where Alex discussed aspects that were related to certain themes I mentioned

above. I summarized other parts that were less relevant, such as where he was repeating similar ideas or went off topic. I also treated the student focus group data in a similar way. Second, I triangulated the interview data to other data sources, such as video recordings and field notes from classroom observations and artifacts to look for evidence that supported or contradicted the interview and focus group data. Finally, I selected certain quotations that I used in this paper and translated them from Japanese to English.

## **Findings and Discussion**

I will report the type of knowledge Alex possessed and how he incorporated the knowledge into teaching. Specifically, I discuss Alex's knowledge of learners and how he utilized it to create a learning community. Alex's rich knowledge of learners was one of the most salient characteristics he demonstrated and the way he maximized the use of his knowledge of learners in his teaching was intriguing. Alex's rich knowledge of learners was reflected in his discussion about students during interviews and classroom observations. There were mainly two levels of his knowledge of learners, and it was holistically and individually-bounded.

### **Knowledge of learners**

**Class-oriented knowledge.** Alex's holistic knowledge of learners was related to his knowledge about the class. It included understanding students' comprehension of the class, predicting how busy or tired students were, and measuring class dynamics. First, he used several methods to assess students' understanding of the class. For example, he monitored their quality of work by walking around the classroom, went over answers together as a class, and reviewed important points immediately after providing an explanation and reviewed it again in the following class. One technique he used to check students' general understanding as a class was to ask them to raise their hand for the answer choice they selected after they had already worked on a given exercise and checked their answers in pairs. This technique was especially beneficial for the four-skills course, which had approximately 30 students because it allowed him to "get a feel for the group understanding (by including) everybody's voice and opinion" (Week 12) while saving him time.

Moreover, Alex checked students' understanding of the key points of the lesson at the end of the lesson and in the subsequent lessons. This was reflected in a lesson from the four-skills course I observed on Friday during the third week. The main goal of the lesson was to help students understand the structure of a presentation, especially the introductory part. During the post-observation interview, when asked about whether he thought students achieved this goal, he responded this way:

At the end (of the lesson), when I did the quick check, everybody was saying (the answer), bang, bang, bang, bang, so they knew it. They had it. Whether they still have it on Monday is a different question, but if I ask them again on Monday, then that will just reinforce it.

- Week 3

By reviewing key points at the end of the lesson, he not only checked students' understanding, but also used it as an opportunity to emphasize and review an important point.

Finally, Alex ensured students understood the important aspects of the lesson by putting more responsibility onto the students themselves. He described an activity where each student in a group of four or five created and asked a few questions about the lesson to each other. Alex explained benefits of the activity:

They're being reviewed on the information, but more importantly, they have to read through the book to actually make questions, so...(they) have to identify what the key points are to be able to make questions. Rather than me asking them questions and then finally making them memorize it, it's far better to do this other way.

- Week 3

This is another example where he checked students' understanding while providing them with an opportunity to reinforce their knowledge about the content. Additionally, he enhanced students' involvement by providing a sense of responsibility and autonomy. This is one of the characteristics of expertise described by Farrell (2013), who found that by involving students in the process of making a decision, his experienced participants attempted to make their students feel more responsible for their learning.

The way Alex utilized his knowledge of learners to check students' understanding relates closely to what was reported in the study about experienced ESL teachers by Johnston and Goettsch (2000). When examining the construction of knowledge of learners, the researchers found that one of the central aspects of knowledge demonstrated by experienced teacher participants was assessing students' understanding of a particular grammar point. Particularly, these teachers relied on students' production of a target grammatical feature to determine the level of their understanding instead of simply checking students' receptive knowledge on a test. Similarly, Alex relied not only on students' receptive knowledge, but also on his knowledge of students' productive knowledge to assess the nature of their understanding. He did this by assigning them a task to create questions where they had to not only look for information but also discuss with each other in the process. Additionally, he used other evaluation means such

as presentations to assess their understanding instead of a written test.

Second, Alex was well aware of how tired and busy students were at different times of the semester and how that affected their performance. For example, his comments from the interview I conducted in the 12<sup>th</sup> week during the 14-week-semester supports this point. He explained he had gone into the classroom with the expectation that most of the students from the study abroad preparation course would not be prepared for their presentation scheduled on the last day. It was due to a combination of his previous teaching experiences in addition to observations of the students he had taught prior to this lesson that helped him predict that students would be too tired or busy to do work outside the classroom. He said, “I saw a couple of students in the (previous) class, like there was one girl, she was just dead on her feet. I know she probably hasn’t slept because she’s doing assignments”. He continued, “My other class this morning, there was about five or six students, they were the same way, they are busy, which is why I try to ease their workload a little bit at this time of semester” (Week 12).

As Alex’s comment supports, based on his knowledge about the energy level of students at this point of semester, he had designed his courses while taking students’ schedule into an account. He justified reasons for giving a lot of assignments in the study abroad preparation course in the beginning of the course in this way:

Right now is when they're not so much (in other courses). Then later in the semester they're gonna be really busy with all of their other courses. So they can do all the hard work now, and later on it's gonna be easy for them. - Week 3

His consideration to reduce the amount of assignments was also reflected in the course materials such as the syllabus for the study abroad preparation course. The course pack he developed for the course consisted of 14 units for one semester. Whereas the first eight units focused on a different topic, the latter six units only covered two topics. He explained that he had intentionally planned this design where the workload got less intense as the semester proceeded. It is evident that his knowledge of learners extended beyond his own classroom and included the increasing workload students would get from other courses. He used this knowledge to make appropriate adjustments to his own classes.

The fact that Alex incorporated his knowledge about students’ tiredness into teaching is an indication of his expertise. When he taught at a university for the first time, he realized how tired his students looked toward the end of a semester and how it affected their learning

negatively. Based on this experience, not only did he redesign the structure of his classes and materials, but also developed an activity where students recorded detailed accounts of what they did on each day for one week so that they realize how to spend their time more efficiently. Whereas some teachers may put the blame onto the students for their lack of time management, Alex engaged in critical reflection of the issue, in which he sought fundamental issues of the problem by putting himself in their shoes. This process eventually helped him look beyond the surface of the problem. Reflecting on previous experiences for the future is often referred to as reflection on action, a concept proposed by Schön (1987). Several researchers have noted that this act of critical reflection, which helps people solve fundamental issues, is a key to developing expertise (e.g., Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1993; Farrell, 2013; Tsui, 2009). In fact, Tsui (2003) found that her expert participant's conception about teaching and learning was continuously influenced by her critical reflection on her experiences. On the other hand, another participant, who was identified as an experienced nonexpert did not engage in such reflection; therefore, her conception rarely changed.

Finally, Alex demonstrated his rich knowledge about the overall classroom atmosphere. He developed this knowledge by observing students' seating patterns, observing their interactions, and examining immediate feedback. When describing the class dynamics of the four-skills course, which had 27 students, he said "they (the students) are happy with each other" (Week 11). It was based on his observation of his students who "often sit down next to different people" every week. Furthermore, he referred to an incident that reflected general class dynamics. It happened right after students had just completed a group discussion during the 11<sup>th</sup> week in the four-skills course. Students were working on an exercise in a textbook in a group that Alex had randomly assigned them. Following the completion of the task, he provided details of the final project. This project required groups of students to choose one fairy tale, make a different ending to the story, and act out the story by video recording it. Up until this point, groups were always randomly created. However, for this project, he asked the students whether they wanted to choose their own group members or stay in the same group to work on the final project. It was because Alex felt "now that they know each other very well, I thought I'd give them the option of choosing to be with people that they wanna do the project with rather than being forced to work in their group" (Week 11). Even though the majority of students said that they wanted to choose their own group, most groups ended up staying in the same group. He speculated on the reasons for this:

Most of the groups they were in, there was a lot of laughing happening, and a lot talking,



so I think they are pretty happy to be with the people they are with, in the majority of cases. I noticed one group where...the communication isn't that good. - Week 11

This reflects the fact that he was closely paying attention to the level of students' interactions, and these observations influenced further decision-making, such as providing more autonomy or support.

Additionally, Alex relied on feedback from students to assess how they were generally doing in the class. One way he did this was to assign his students to write a participation sheet at the end of the class every week. Students were given a chance to reflect on the class and their performance in this sheet by answering questions, such as how much they thought they used English and how active they were in class. Consequently, this participation sheet not only helped him receive feedback from students but also provided students an opportunity to self-assess their own performance for further improvement.

In conclusion, the characteristics that Alex demonstrated where he centered his courses around students closely relates to the descriptions of highly competent teachers by Richards (2010). In addition to having knowledge about learners as a group, experienced teachers also have knowledge targeted at individual students (Tsui, 2009). Alex also demonstrated these two aspects of his knowledge of learners.

**Individually-bounded knowledge.** Alex's knowledge of learners was not only focused on students as a whole but also individually-bounded. His knowledge about individual learners provided several benefits, such as making students feel valued, motivating students to actively participate in the class, and making a personal connection with them. His rich knowledge was reflected in the fact that he had remembered all his students' names early in the semester, effectively utilizing students' strength and weaknesses, and understanding personal experiences students had in class.

First, Alex hoped to make them feel valued in class by demonstrating his knowledge about each student's names. In order to memorize their names, after the first day of class, he printed out a picture of each student's face and name, which he later put up in his cubical where he could see them easily. He also carried a folder that contained their information with him to the class and referred to the information until he completely memorized everyone's name, which usually took a month. He explained, "at the beginning I have to refer to the photos, but I try really hard to memorize all their names (but)...I often remember their names before they

remember each other's names" (Week 12).

Alex emphasized knowing students' names was essential for successful teaching. Calling students by their name was important "because it makes them feel like 'oh, I'm not just a nameless face, just not another student'" (Week 11). In fact, two students from the four-skills course focus groups discussed the positive impact this had on them. When describing what they remembered well from Alex's class, both students recalled their second lesson where he had called each student by their name. They explained that his remembering their names first not only helped them remember their classmates' names but also raised their motivation for the class. Commenting on Alex learning students' names, Tomomi said, "I could tell how much he wanted to get to know us, and how actively he was engaged (with the class). His attitude gave me a chance to actively participate in the class rather than being passive" (FG 1, Tomomi). By being called upon by her own name, she added "I felt he was talking to me (individually) rather than just generally. He made me feel 'Wow, he knows me, my name, my face'" (FG 1, Tomomi). It is evident that the extra effort Alex went to remember and call students by their own name had a positive impact on students.

The other positive aspect of knowing students by their name had on students was that it allowed them to play an active role in class. He explained, "it makes so much easier if you can remember their name and call on them by their name, there's nowhere for them to hide" (Week 12). In fact, he sometimes called on students' names to ask them to share answers rather than going over answers together as a class. When asked how he decided which method to use, he explained:

Sometimes people have the answer, but they don't wanna talk or they won't talk unless they are asked .... I also know which students probably know the answer, so I don't ask them unless nobody is answering, in which case I'd rather the students generate the answer than I have to repeat it. If it comes from them then they are more likely to remember I think.

- Week 3

He continued:

I keep a mental record of who I've asked previously, and keep trying to ask someone new, every time, unless I'm worried about time, in which case, I just want somebody to come up with an answer. So I'll ask somebody who I think probably knows.

- Week 3

This demonstrates three important aspects of his knowledge about individual students. One is memorizing students' names helped him involve all the students in class. Second, he had rich knowledge about students' proficiency. He relied on students with high proficiency to provide correct answers when he was running out of time to help the class go more smoothly. Finally, his knowledge about each student went beyond merely remembering their names. He knew each student's general disposition as seen by his comment about using his individually-bounded knowledge to help shy students speak up. He also discussed using his knowledge about students' personality when putting students into groups, explained in the following passage:

I keep trying to put them (shy students) with people that I think will draw them out from the shell a little bit. So if there's a really quiet person, I'll try and put them in a group with somebody who is a little bit of a natural leader.

- Post-semester

He developed his knowledge about individual students by first remembering their names, identifying their knowledge about English, and recognizing their personality.

Furthermore, Alex had rich knowledge about experiences that students had in class on individual basis. This was evident in our final interview, when we looked at the class magazine that his students had created in the four-skills course. In this magazine, each student had a page to contribute at the end of one year. Alex gave them a template for students to fill out, such as basic information about themselves, their best and worst experiences in the class, and their future goals. They also had a section where they wrote a message to their classmates and future students in that class. He compiled a magazine by putting together all the pages into a PDF file and shared it with students, so "they can remember who each other are, ten years down the line" (Week 12). He also used it to show students who would be enrolled in the same course in the following year so his current students would have authentic audiences.

While discussing the magazine, Alex went over each page and talked about individual students in depth. For example, he looked at one page where a student discussed how much she enjoyed one presentation she gave in the first semester. He provided details of an episode where she started crying just before giving a presentation because "she really wanted to do a good job, but not everybody else in the group had the same kind of an application" (Post-semester). He ended up giving them an extra week, which she described as something she appreciated on her page in the magazine. He also talked about one student who had pneumonia during the

semester as someone who had an “awesome attitude, tries really hard” (Post-semester). He also talked about other students, such as someone who likes German better than English and someone whom he got upset with because this student kept forgetting to follow his instructions about how to set up a presentation. The fact that he had a story to tell about each student in a class of 27 students reflected his rich knowledge for individual students.

Finally, Alex’s rich knowledge about individual students helped him make a personal connection with students. It was evident from students’ comments that they had developed a close relationship with Alex. For example, Io from the four-skills course described the relationship by saying, “we are a teacher and students, but he was someone who would build a personal relationship with each one of us” (FG 1, Io). Students in the study abroad preparation course also shared a similar perspective. Ai and Shinya discussed how he was different from other English teachers who “draw a line between teachers (and students)” (FG 2, Ai). They explained that he was someone “who had students’ perspectives (and that) he would always pay attention to individual students” (FG 2, Shinya). The strong affection they felt for Alex was clear from comments that focus group students made, such as “I feel loved by him” (FG 2, Ai) and “I think I am gonna cry when I read his (page from the magazine)” (FG, Tomomi).

The perceptions Alex’s students demonstrated about Alex are similar to what has been revealed in previous research. Tsui (2003) found that the students from her expert participant’s class demonstrated their positive experiences with the teacher. For example, one student explained that her relationship with this teacher was more like a friendship and that she felt comfortable sharing her personal problems with the teacher. Consequently, this type of positive relationship with the teacher enhanced students’ motivation to study English as indicated in a comment by Io, who said “It is a class I look forward to going to every time” (FG 1, Io).

In conclusion, Alex demonstrated his rich knowledge of learners in two different ways. First, it was class-oriented, which means he had general understanding of the students as a class. Also, his knowledge of learners was individually-bounded. That is, Alex indicated his knowledge about individual students, which he used to maximize students’ participation and learning. In the following section, I discuss more in detail about how he incorporated his expert knowledge of learners into his own teaching practices to facilitate effective L2 teaching and learning.

## **A Learning Community**

**Establishing a community.** One of the most important aspects of knowledge of learners was the way Alex utilized it to create a learning community. He did this by demonstrating his individually-bounded

knowledge about students. This included remembering students' names and making personal connections. This in return provided them with a sense of acknowledgement that they were an important member of the community. He also used his class-oriented knowledge of learners to build a culture where "people are free to say anything without being mocked for it, an open friendly atmosphere" (Week 11). He emphasized that "everything (he did in class) was constructed to make that happen" (Pre-semester). For example, he implemented "a lot of activities designed to promote that closeness and to help them get to know each other" (Pre-semester). He did this by randomly putting them into a new group each week by using cards. He explained it this way:

in the first couple of weeks, wherever they sit, I'll get them out of their seat as quickly as possible and move them into groups. So they don't get too comfortable next to one person all the time. And they get to meet new people. - Post-semester

Io explained the benefit of this system by saying in the beginning of the semester "though we did not know each other because Alex assigned us into a group by using a card, (I was able to) talk to everyone constantly" (FG 1, Io).

Alex scaffolded steps to create this community "right from the beginning all the way through, especially in the beginning of the semester" (Post-semester). This is reflected in the activities he designed where students were able to "start to understand each other and to get to know each other...where they are talking about themselves" (Post-semester). One of them was a self-introduction presentation where students gave a presentation about themselves in the beginning of the semester. Then students narrated their self-introduction by video-recording themselves, which was later uploaded onto a YouTube site created especially for this class. This allowed students to view the videos and learn more about each other. Another activity was a time audit activity where students kept records of their daily life for a week. Although the main purpose was to make students aware of how they spent their time, it also served as an opportunity help students get to know more about each other. Students did this by sharing personal information, such as what kind of part time job they had or club they belonged to.

Finally, Alex used parties during class time, which he called "themed lessons", at different times of the year to facilitate active student participation in the community. In the four-skills course that spanned an academic year, there were seasonal events, such as Halloween and Christmas, but there were also other types of events proposed by the students. For example, students wore a high school uniform to one particular lesson or were dressed in only white clothes on another occasion. He explained that these events "...are not waste of time. It's a

bonding activity, which is useful for them. It may not improve their English as a result, but it improves their ability to work together over a semester, or two semesters” (Post-semester). In fact, 24 students out of 27 students either put a picture from one of the events in their profile photo or described their positive experiences that they had in the themed lessons in the class magazine. The comments included “My best experience was of course many parties!” and “My best experience is the fantastic parties.” The two students from the focus groups also shared a similar opinion. Tomomi described the positive effect of parties by saying “It’s not that our regular classes are too hard, but we were like ‘Okay, let’s push ourselves until the Halloween party’, you know. It gave us sort of a chance or it became our goal.” (FG 1, Tomomi). Io also explained how that helped them create a sense of community by referring to an ice-cream party. She explained Alex approved a suggestion made by some students in the class to eat an ice cream while watching a video they had created as one of the major projects. She described this experience that “It felt like we had a part in creating a class” (FG 1, Io). It is clear he had different approaches to help create and maintain a community, which was well-received by the students.

**Function of the community.** This community of learning served several important functions. First and most importantly, it helped all the students to feel comfortable with each other. Second, it helped motivate students to communicate. Finally, the community played a vital role in facilitating students’ language learning.

Alex believed providing students with an environment where they felt at ease with each other was important for several reasons. First, it enabled students to work and help each other more easily. This was especially important for the skilled-based course. Unlike the study abroad preparation course that only had four students, it was not feasible for him to constantly monitor and offer individual assistance to all the students in this course. In addition to the challenge of class management, he also believed in the importance of students helping each other. He explained that students of different backgrounds can effectively help each other if “you put them together and you let them play on each other’s strength” (Post- semester). He continued to emphasize the necessity of creating a learning community in this way:

They create a class culture where people expect to learn, they expect that others will help them and that they will help others that they are working together and consider the group effort for the benefit of everybody. So when you've got that kind of positive dynamics, learning becomes much easier.

- Post-semester

In fact, he considered group work to be a necessary aspect of language learning because “they (students) get to apply what they’ve already learned” (Post-semester). He implemented collaborative activities and projects in both courses I observed. As evident in the previous example, he described the positive class dynamics because “most of them are happy working with almost anybody else.” (Week 11). A learning community where every person was responsible and willing to help each other in the process of learning was an integral part of his classes.

A second aspect about this community is related to enhancing students’ motivation to communicate with each other. Although the four-skills course focused on helping students improve all four skills, Alex explained that he had designed the course so that students mainly worked on developing their communicative skills. When justifying the reason for this, he referred to his previous experience teaching in Japanese public high schools where he felt a lack of focus on teaching communicative skills. He claimed that especially “the public system, students were not getting any communicative skills, (so) when I came into the university system, I thought what they are missing is the ability to speak and listen. So that's where I put the focus on.” (Pre-semester). Furthermore, he thought there was a close link between the quality of classroom atmosphere and student communication. He said, “I think it's really important that they develop communicative aspect and that's why bonding is important so they have something to talk about” (Pre-semester). He created a community where students found it meaningful to communicate with each other without feeling forced. For example, a student from a study abroad preparation course, Shinya, explained his experience preparing a presentation he gave in English. He said, “...I thought about how best to communicate what I learned from my research with everyone...I thought hard about how to best communicate (to others)” (FG 2, Shinya). Io, one of the students from the four-skills course, shared a similar view. She described her experience of communicating with her classmates as the following:

It was not just surface level of English. It was like we really wanted to talk to each other, so we tried our best to express (our thoughts) by using English. If we are simply having a conversation, I would let go of many things by saying things like ‘I see. Yes, yes, um, um, um’, but I would actually ask back like “What? Do you mean by that?”. Everyone was like that.

- FG 1, Io

Tomomi agreed with this view by saying, “Like, it was not an obligation that we had to use

English. It was good that (we spoke in English) in more of a voluntary manner.” (FG 1, Tomomi). These comments illustrate two important points. One is that he successfully created a community where members actively interacted with each other. The other is that their communication was done in English, the target language, which is an ultimate goal for many EFL instructors who subscribe to communicative teaching.

The final point of how a learning community enhanced language learning is related to the manner in which Alex successfully established an environment where students relied only on English. When discussing key events in his life that influenced his view of teaching English, he reflected on his experience at one of the universities he had taught previously as a part time teacher. The program he worked in at this university had a policy where all the faculty members and students were to use only English for communication. In fact, he signed a contract that required him to follow this policy not only inside, but also outside the classroom. Until that point, according to him, “I was a bit skeptical about it (using only English), not that it was not good but that it could actually work based on my experience with high school students” (Pre-semester). He explained that in fact even the teachers did not consistently follow this rule for reasons such as lack of confidence. However, in this program, “they have made it work, and it was really effective, so I became very convinced that using English only in classroom was an effective way of teaching students in a Japanese university” (Pre-semester). He also described students, who have been in this environment for a few years as those who made “definite jumps in their English ability” (Pre-semester). This experience influenced his overall approach to teaching English at Oka University as well.

Alex used several approaches to successfully implement this policy with his students. First, he implemented a penalty fine for students’ use of Japanese in his class. Every time they were caught using Japanese in the classroom, students needed to pay 100 yen, which Alex collected and used to buy snacks for the party on the last day of the semester. He introduced this policy on the first day of the semester and collected approximately 1,000 yen over the course of 42 lessons. He explained the positive effect of this policy was that students used less and less Japanese as the semester progressed. This was reflected by the fact that the majority of fines were collected in the first couple of weeks of the semester. Additionally, focus group students from the four-skills course supported this point. When students were asked about how they felt about this policy, they discussed how surprised they were at first. Tomomi described her initial concern that he would be collecting 1,000 yen in each lesson, to which Io responded, “Yeah, but we really did not need to speak (in Japanese) as much after all” (FG 1, Tomomi). When



discussing factors that helped students to only use English, this penalty system was identified in a comment by Io that “no one wanted to pay 100 yen” (FG 1, Io). Moreover, Tomomi explained the importance of her sense of belonging to a community. She stated, “In the beginning, I thought it would be a little bit hard to speak in English. I was worried like what if people cannot understand me. But that was the case for everyone” (FG 1, Tomomi). Io agreed with her, “Yeah. Because everyone was at a similar level...we were at the same place in terms of what we understood and did not understand, so a sense of embarrassment disappeared (as the semester went on)” (FG 1, Io). This demonstrates two important aspects. One is how this penalty system successfully functioned as an external factor with punitive consequences. The other was an internal factor where students perceived themselves as a member of the community. This community provided them with an environment where they felt safe to use English without worrying about making mistakes.

The other aspect of creating an environment where everyone was expected to use only English is related to the culture that members shared in this community. Io discussed the sense of value their classmates had about using only English:

There was no one who tried to change the atmosphere by using English after we heard (the class would be in) all English...If (there is someone) that speaks English among all the hard working people, you know, (we would feel like) who are you? ... Everyone was sincerely trying to speak only English. There was no one who made (us) feel bad. So that was good.

- FG 1, Io

When describing the overall atmosphere Alex had created, both Io and Tomomi agreed that he had tried to make the process of learning English fun. Tomomi said, “I think he tried to increase the opportunities to use English, and he tried to teach us how to enjoy it. I think the theme was to enjoy” (FG 1, Tomomi). Io responded to her by saying, “It felt like learning English in the process of making friends (and)...Even if it was with a mistake, we should not be scared of speaking (English)” (FG 1, Io). This was followed by a remark from Tomomi who said, “we just try and speak it, and if we cannot understand it, then let’s try to understand each other together.” (FG 1, Tomomi). They also described how classmates continued to talk to each other in English even outside the classroom. The culture he created in the community to use English as the main language was successfully received and carried on by the students.

This community Alex created was one of the most important characteristics of expertise in

the context of Japanese universities. Kitayama and Markus (1994), who analyzed the relationship between culture and emotion discussed the important role that culture plays on creating people's positive and negative feelings. They argued that though there are individual differences, Japan is considered to have an interdependent culture where self is interdependent with the social context one is in. Specifically, people in this culture view themselves "not to become separate and autonomous from others but to fit-in with others, to fulfill and create obligation, and in general, to become part of various interpersonal relationships" (p. 97). It is evident that in this cultural context, positive feelings occur from feeling a sense of belonging to a community where all the members feel safe and motivated to share and work toward a common goal.

## **Conclusion**

This case study examined characteristics of expert teaching demonstrated by an experienced EFL teacher at a Japanese university. First, as described in previous expertise research, the participant possessed rich knowledge of learners about the class as a group. His knowledge centered around understanding students' perspectives. For example, he checked student comprehension of the lessons in multiple ways, made decisions based on various aspects of students' lives, and paid close attention to the dynamic of the classroom. Second, his knowledge of learners was individually-bounded. His knowledge about each student provided several benefits. For example, by remembering students' names, the participant made each student feel that they were an important part of the class, which consequently maximized their active participation for class. Additionally, his individually-bounded knowledge helped him conduct classes more effectively and build a meaningful relationship with each student.

The manner he used his knowledge of learners to build a learning community was intriguing. He did this by scaffolding various steps, such as designing and implementing activities where students got to know each other at a personal level. He also provided students with a sense of responsibility to take part in decision-making, such as creating groups for projects and also deciding activities in themed lessons. Based on students' reflection, this community played an important role in lowering students' affective filter, enhancing their motivation to interact with each other, and most importantly, to maximize the positive effect of their second language learning.

There are several limitations for this study. First, this study focuses only on one participant. As I described earlier, this is a part of a dissertation on four cases of experienced

teachers I am currently conducting. This preliminary report on one case, which was based only on within-case analysis does not unveil a wide range of teaching experiences. Therefore, investigating characteristics of not only one participant but also three other participants will allow me to pinpoint more accurate and holistic pictures of expertise in teaching. Related to this point, this study only focuses on one particular context of Japanese universities. Based on the conception that expertise differs in each cultural context, studies that examine other teaching contexts is necessary. Second, this study only focuses on one aspect of teacher knowledge, such as PCK, especially focusing on knowledge of learners. The previous literature discusses the complex construction of teacher knowledge indicating expertise. It is necessary to examine what other types of knowledge experienced teachers have and how this knowledge affects the act of teaching. Finally, this study only focuses on a state of expertise. Bereiter and Scardamalia (1993) and Tsui (2003) suggest the importance of viewing expertise as a process. Thus, examining the developmental process of expertise is important. Even though I attempted to examine how Alex's reflection on action affected his teaching, longitudinal studies that closely investigate the developmental process of expertise will shed more light on this field.

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# Development and Assessment of Intercultural Communicative Competences of Primary Students in Informal Learning Contexts

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## **Abstract**

This research report describes student-teacher led action research in which intercultural communicative competence (ICC) evaluation frameworks were used to try to determine whether primary students participating in an informal educational program using democratic teaching, human rights and empathy in Bosnia and Herzegovina improved their ICC.

Interpretation of data collected in baseline and endline surveys and focus groups revealed that the four-week project allowed the primary students to improve their ICC, but suggested the need for further training of student co-teachers in developing age-specific strategies and activities that promote ICC. The challenge of conducting research on ICC in a short, dynamic, informal educational environment suggested the need to formulate more age-specific questionnaires better capable of measuring ICC and the wisdom of incorporating qualitative methods for collecting rich data on ICC. The project has already used this research experience to take both of these steps in its subsequent teaching and research.

Key words: intercultural communicative competence, informal learning, Bosnia-Herzegovina

## **1. Introduction**

In a post-conflict society whose formal political and educational systems are divided, can a collaborative project between a U.S. university and a Sarajevo non-governmental organization (NGO)—the Bosnia Project—that uses informal learning to promote intercultural communicative competences among children measurably improve their levels of ICC? The research presented in this paper explores different aspects of developing and assessing intercultural communicative competences of primary school students in the Bosnia Project, which was implemented in Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia and Herzegovina. During the activities implemented in the summer of 2015, action research<sup>1</sup> was conducted on children who were involved in the Bosnia Project. This paper employs prominent frameworks for evaluating children's intercultural communicative competences (ICC) in the context of the Bosnia Project. A key research goal was to determine to what extent the children who participated in the project developed or improved their ICC.

## **2. Socio-Political and Education Context for the Bosnia Project in Post-Conflict Bosnia and Herzegovina**

The Bosnia Project takes place in a polarized political context. The US-led negotiations in Dayton, Ohio resulted in peace accords that created a Bosnia and Herzegovina that largely recognized the “facts” created on the ground by ethnic cleansing and the war.<sup>2</sup> The Dayton constitution enshrined ethnicity in most political institutions, developing an unwieldy configuration of a collective Presidency which guarantees representation of Bosnia's three constituent nations: Bosniaks, Serbs and Croats. Territorially, Bosnia and Herzegovina is divided into two powerful entities: Republika Srpska (RS) and the Bosniak-Croat Federation, and the Brcko District. The RS is relatively centralized, while the federation is composed of ten cantons with substantial autonomy (Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina, 1995), resulting in 12 ministries of education.

As a result of perceptions of an unresponsive political system (UNDP, 2009), economic

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<sup>1</sup> Research was supported by the College of William and Mary's Global Research Institute.

<sup>2</sup> Nearly 98,000 people were killed during the 1992-5 war and over 2 million were displaced (Tokača, 2013).



struggles and the legacy of socialists and nationalists' efforts to capture civic activity, few (18 percent of) citizens report participating in NGOs (Nixon, 2009). Youth in Bosnia and Herzegovina are often pessimistic about their future (Millennium Development Goals, 2012). In 2015, more than one-quarter (27.7%) of young people in Bosnia and Herzegovina aged 15-24 were neither in education, employment nor training (World Bank, 2017). Youth seek quality education, better access to non-formal education programs and greater involvement in decision making.

Compared to politicians' rhetoric and policies, citizens express a greater willingness to move toward co-existence and reconciliation (Pickering, 2007; UNDP, 2009). As a measure of tolerance among citizens, only 8 percent of Bosnian respondents in a 2007 survey expressed unwillingness to live next door to someone of another religion (Prism Research, & Pickering, 2007). The Bosnia Project hopes to deepen tolerance among youth in Bosnia and Herzegovina, to provide access to informal education and to bolster their capacity for engagement.

Numerous studies have described the negative impact of the war on education. Researchers and international practitioners have pointed out the crucial relationship between education and reconciliation (Minnow, 1998; Smith & Vaux, 2003; Unicef Innocenti Research, 2009). Initiatives in post-conflict situations increasingly have recommended educational reform and engaging children in their work (Paulson, 2011). Nonetheless, Bosnia and Herzegovina's complex and unresolved challenges have left the educational system open to influence more by politicians than by education scientists and practitioners.

New perspectives among those engaged in European social policy suggest the role of education should be promotion of social cohesion and peaceful coexistence, which is relevant for Bosnia and Herzegovina, as it seeks European integration. If this vision of education is embraced by Bosnia and Herzegovina, education could encourage a society that shows solidarity, peace and interpersonal understanding. In this context, Bosnian society is capable of overcoming the negative consequences of the post-war socio-economic stagnation, massive social trauma, marginalization, self-centeredness and social exclusion. In such a society, emerging democracy is a way of life, or as Dewey put it "associative living" (Breidbach, 2003) based on community, communication and interdependence.

### **3. The Bosnia Project**

The Bosnia Project was conceptualized in 1998, when a group of competitively selected Bosnian

university students traveled to the College of William and Mary in the U.S. to attend a conference on post-war challenges in the Balkans and to participate in a course. Upon her return to Bosnia and Herzegovina, one of the Bosnian students developed and initiated the project idea in Zenica. After collaborative planning in Zenica, a partnership was formalized and began working in 1998. The Project emphasized teaching the English language to primary-school children participating in the NGO Sezam's activities, which focused on psycho-social support, healing and peaceful upbringing for the children and families who experienced emotional trauma during the war.

The Project continued its free English immersion summer program for children aged 8 to 14 in Sarajevo in 2010 under the title the *ABC Project*,<sup>3</sup> as a partnership between the NGO Creativus<sup>4</sup> and William and Mary. The children learn about language and the issues of peace building, nonviolence and social justice through an integrative approach rooted in the principles of communicative, humanistic and intercultural learning. William and Mary-selected students and Creativus-selected University of Sarajevo students in Education and English Teaching volunteer as student-teachers who run a 4-week summer program. The co-teachers use creative media such as film-making, photography and role playing to provide children with the opportunity to express themselves. Throughout the project, relationships are developed on a personal and professional level; the participants build on intercultural exchanges even after the program. Bosnian students put into practice teaching pedagogy theory and build their soft skills, while William and Mary students benefit from having lived, taught and learned in Bosnian culture.

Intercultural exchange programs or one-time intercultural events, including the ABC Project, are critical examples of "associative living" within informal education initiatives and extra-curricular activities. They provide students with opportunities to participate in decision-making processes, negotiate and communicate with other cultures, bring arguments to consider other people's arguments and exercise their own rights and freedoms without impairing other people's rights and freedoms. Such educational opportunities are based on experiential learning, active participation, membership, collective negotiation, critical thinking, role-playing, problem solving and community involvement. As an integral part of such intercultural encounters, culture is understood as a specific way of thinking, reflecting, acting and feeling

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<sup>3</sup> ABC Project: American and Bosnian Collaboration Project.

<sup>4</sup> CREATIVUS Youth Center for Communication and Creative Learning, a community youth development organization based in Sarajevo, <http://www.creativus.ba/>

about one's own actions and the actions of the others. This includes conscious and underlying perceptions and explanations of the world, values, language, beliefs, faiths, ideologies and world views. Culture is also considered a phenomenon open to continuous development, which is a comprehensive and dynamic approach to culture.

#### **4. Intercultural Learning and ICC**

Literature on ICC is diverse and often intersecting. However, scholarship on the topic takes on three goals: defining ICC, providing structural frameworks for evaluating ICC and studies that employ these models of assessment. Literature on ICC informs this study of ICC in the context of the ABC Project.

Within the field of Modern Foreign Language Education, many scholars and practitioners across the globe acknowledge that the teaching and learning of a language ought to include the teaching of culture from an “intercultural perspective” (Liddicoat, 2008; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013 as cited in Crozet, 2017). Scholarship's definitions diverge on the ability versus the adaptability of communication. For Lazar, Huber-Kriegler, Lussier, Matei and Peck (2007), ICC is the ability to interact effectively with people from cultures that we recognize as being different from our own, knowing that cultures simultaneously share and differ in certain aspects, such as beliefs, habits and values. Our study uses this definition but is informed by other, complementary definitions. For example, Alred and Byram (2002) describe the capability to modify behaviors, knowledge and attitudes as key to being open and flexible to other cultures. Alred and Byram's prescription for being “open and flexible” goes hand-in-hand with Lazar's “ability to interact effectively.” These concepts guide our attempt to measure both abilities to interact and how, if at all, that ability changes over time. The importance of viewing culture as an “expandable fifth skill,” which is not just tacked on to the teaching of listening, speaking, reading and writing, should be in accordance with the understanding that language as social practice needs to treat culture as the core of language learning. Furthermore, cultural awareness as the factor enabling language proficiency (Kramsch, 1993) is yet another aspect of viewing the importance of culture integrated into language curriculum. In this approach, cultural content can work simultaneously as a fertile ground for developing language skills, values and knowledge, but it also provides room for developing other skills such as critical thinking, conflict resolution, or negotiation.

There is a lack of consensus on how to evaluate intercultural competency. Byram (1997) provides five categories for assessing ICC, also known as “savants.” These include attitudes

(savoir-être), knowledge (savoir), skills of interpreting and relating (savoir comprendre), skills of discovery and interaction (savoir apprendre/faire) and critical cultural awareness (savoirs' engager). In comparison, Canale and Swain (1981) argue communicative competence is based on *attitudes*, *knowledge* and *skills*, in addition to linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse components. To build off Byram's and Canale and Swain's frameworks for assessment, Lazar (2007) classifies into high, medium, or low levels the assessment of ICC attitudes and knowledge dimensions.

ICC *attitudes* imply curiosity and openness as well as readiness to see other cultures and the speaker's own without being judgmental. The required *knowledge* is related to the social groups and their practices in one's own country, but it also involves the general processes of societal and individual interaction (Byram, 1997). The *skills* include abilities of interpreting and relating, discovery and interaction, as well as critical awareness (Byram, 1997).

In language education, learners must mediate between two or more cultures. Interacting effectively across cultures means negotiating between people based on both culture-specific and cultural-general features that is on the whole respectful and favorable to each (Lazar et al., 2007). Learners benefit from being committed to turning language encounters into intercultural relationships (Guilherme, 2000), which requires attributes such as empathy, flexibility, curiosity, openness, motivation, tolerance for ambiguity and a willingness to suspend judgment (Fantini, 2000).

Many applications of the different theoretical frameworks provided by Byram (1997 as cited in Lazar et al., 2007) and Lussier (1997, 2003, as cited in Lazar et al., 2007) have taken place in a classroom setting on compulsory and higher education levels all over the world. However, there is a lack of scholarship on ICC in non-traditional learning settings, including service learning projects like the ABC Project. Schroeder et al. (2009) argue that the rarity of rigorous assessments of international service-learning projects' impact suggests further research is needed to improve positive impact.

## **5. Research Methodology**

The main goal of the action research applied in this project is to determine whether the experience of participatory English language learning and intercultural co-teaching in an informal setting would further promote intercultural competence and responsiveness. Since action research is a process of concurrently inquiring about problems and taking action to solve

them, it is a sustained, intentional, recursive and dynamic process of inquiry, in which the teacher takes an action—purposefully and ethically in a specific learning and teaching context, and with the aim to improve teaching and learning (Pine, 2009). This should be considered challenging in the context of an educational system in Bosnia and Herzegovina that is often divided within a society undergoing post-conflict recovery, where educational reforms have been marginalized and neglected for a long period of time. Thus, its educational system lacks essential changes in the approaches to teaching and understanding of the learning process. The Project seeks to set an example in which action research as a methodological approach will be seen as change research designed to achieve specific and measurable changes for improving the teaching practice and supporting student-teachers as reflective practitioners. It is therefore critical to recognize that this methodological approach assumes that student-teachers, who develop the lesson plans and run the program, are the very agents of the educational reform. The process of the research in this context should also be seen as the form of empowering student-teachers to “own professional knowledge because teachers—through the process of action inquiry—conceptualize and create knowledge, interact around knowledge, transform knowledge, and apply knowledge” (Pine, 2009, p. 30). The project also seeks to set an example for children to reciprocally learn to understand and respond to American and other cultures by using the intercultural competences in the context and in relating, discovering and interacting with other children in the group and with the co-teachers.

Each of the three dimensions—attitudes, knowledge and skills of ICC—covers different aspects of learning. Consequently, the methods of assessment vary accordingly to evaluate the students as efficiently as possible. We also use multiple methods to assess ICC dimensions, which scholars of ICC have endorsed (Deardorff, 2006). For this research we used surveys with children and student teachers to assess different aspects of ICC before their involvement with the ABC Project. The same surveys were used at the end of the program, along with focus groups with the children and structured interviews with student teachers.

This paper focused on the results of one group of research participants: the children who participated in the project (91 children)<sup>5</sup>. The information on the children’s and students’ ICC profile was gathered with the use of two instruments—the culture log (Lazar et al., 2007), which was adapted for the focus groups and interviews and the profile diagram (Lazar, 2012).

The study’s baseline and endline surveys (Appendix I) were designed by student-teachers

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<sup>5</sup> This research was approved by the College of William and Mary’s Protection of Human Subjects Committee, PHSC-2015-05-15-10393.

to measure the change in ICC made by students over the duration of the summer program. The questionnaires consisted of twenty-one statements within the dimensions of Intercultural communicative competence in order to evaluate the students' progress of knowledge, skills and attitudes. Students were given a 5-point Likert scale to express their level of agreement or disagreement. The statements included various life situations that they may or might have encountered, with an emphasis on their skills and attitudes to adapt or deal with the given situation.

These instruments are based on students' self-reflections of their attitudes, knowledge and skills, which were then analyzed and interpreted using the descriptive assessment log which determines low, medium, or high ICC according to Lazar et al.'s (2007) evaluation framework (Appendix II). Low competency for attitudes and knowledge includes ethnocentric attitudes and the ability to communicate only basic facts about another culture, respectively. On the opposite end of the spectrum, learners with high competencies can express their knowledge in multiple ways and self-reflect, as well as provide a nuanced view on cultural differences. A medium level of attitudes and knowledge includes the descriptions referring to some concrete knowledge about cultural facts and gradually building on and modifying information required, but still seeking additional information about products and practices, traditions and values of other cultures. By employing such methodology, this paper seeks to shed light on assessing ICC in the unique context of service learning and community youth work as a form of cultural exchange.

This is particularly important in Bosnia and Herzegovina, where English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers have few opportunities to expose children to authentic cultural and linguistic contexts with native speakers.

## **6. Research Results and Analysis**

Though the survey data cannot determine the causal impact of the summer program, the baseline survey data and our tracking of individual students' ICC survey scores between the baseline and endline help us understand the progress made in ICC during the summer program. Focus group testimony of students complement the surveys' findings, helping us better understand the program participants' ability to put into practice ICC attitudes, knowledge and skills.

### **6.1. Survey Analysis of Primary Students**

If we evaluate the surveys on a per question basis, a plurality (52%) of students experienced no change in ICC competency. There were three questions—5, 15 and 20, where a significant plurality of students improved their competencies. Almost 50% of students improved on one measure of ICC attitudes, question 15, which asks whether a student regards “customs and habits of other people [as] different from the norm.” This improvement probably reflects the ABC Project’s emphasis on intercultural learning, by encouraging co-teachers to include a week’s worth of lessons learning about and respecting other cultures.

Conversely, question 4, which seeks to measure whether students are comfortable in situations where they work to resolve conflict, had the highest regression rate at about 30%. This statement seeks to understand students’ ICC skills, which may be the component of cultural competence most challenging for youth to develop. This regression might indicate the necessity for the summer program to reemphasize interpersonal conflict resolution and adaptation, and teach it more effectively after raising the feelings of discomfort in the process of teaching. This could be a way of operationalizing some of the specific strategies for improving students’ ICC. Alternatively, some of the baseline responses might reflect what the students expected the teachers to consider the "correct" or socially desirable answer, particularly if they had little prior direct experience in communicating with other children with whom they had a conflict. In this sense, regressions on these questions might not indicate a lowering of intercultural communication competency during the ABC Project, but instead point to the beginning of the development of skills needed to navigate complex and diverse social situations that the student directly encounter. Whereas a breakdown of communication is usually considered a failure in FL teaching, in intercultural learning it can be viewed as the beginning of a process that can lead to re-organization of experience (Kubaneck-German, 2000).

Another way to examine individual level changes is to measure overall score changes per student from baseline to endline surveys rather than per question. Overall, nearly 60% of students experienced increase in their endline survey scores, though nearly 30% of students experienced a decrease. The students’ mean score on the endline is higher than on the baseline, suggesting improvement during the project. A paired t-test that compares the means from the baseline and endline survey scores found that there is a statistically significant difference between the endline and baseline means (Appendix III).

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if the change between the endline and baseline scores was different for the four different classes, which were organized by age (Table 1). Though the average differences between the endline scores and the baseline scores suggest

that students in the oldest class (Class 4 in Table 1) made more progress in ICC than students in the younger classes, this test revealed there was no statistically significant difference between the classes.<sup>6</sup> Challenges to the survey data include its small sample size—only 49 children completed both surveys, and the wide variation in the children's scores, resulting in high standard deviations (Table 1). The latter suggests that children may not have fully understood the questions.

Table 1: Summary Statistics for Children Participants:

	Average Age of children completing both surveys	Number of Girls	Number of Boys	Average Improvement out of total possible improvement	Std. Deviation of Improvement out of total possible improvement	Total students enrolled in all classes
Class 1, ages 7-9	9.0	9	4	.005	.064	26
Class 2, ages 10-11	10.9	9	4	.009	.274	27
Class 3, ages 11-12	11.7	7	3	.037	.067	14
Class 4, ages 13-14	13.6	6	7	.063	.159	24
TOTAL	11.3	31	18	.028	.168	91

## 6.2. Focus Groups Analysis

To get a richer understanding of children's ICC, we conducted four focus groups, organized by age group of the children. Twenty-six students aged 7-9 were in the first group, 27 students aged 10-11 in the second group, 14 students of 11-12-year olds were in the third group and 24 students aged 13-14 were in the fourth group. By eliciting discussion and behavior from and among the children, these focus groups provide a more in-depth window into the students' understanding and practice of intercultural communicative competences than do multiple-choice responses on the survey questionnaire. The focus groups were conducted at the project location, the International Center for Children and Youth in Sarajevo.

In each of the groups, children were presented with culturally specific events and

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<sup>6</sup> There was no statistical difference between classes as determined by a one-way ANOVA ( $F(3,43) = .71, p = .549$ ).



situations through different age-appropriate photos that they were supposed to describe (Appendix IV). Each group was given instructions at the beginning of the session with the emphasis that an intercultural experience can be one they had with someone from a different country or it can be an experience with someone from another cultural background in their own country. It might be, for example, someone they met from another region, someone who speaks a different language or someone from a different religion or ethnic group. One of the authors then led children through a discussion in the format of a structured interview. A second author recorded student responses and systematically observed behavior. The obtained data was transcribed prior to the analysis. Each focus group lasted for 45 minutes with 15-minute breaks between the groups, i.e., four hours altogether.

The focus group questions emphasized different aspects of intercultural experiences and events. The children were asked to reflect on those intercultural encounters, describe them, reflect on their feelings and behaviors with regard to differences and connect these reflections with learning in the ABC Project. We analyzed the testimony and behavior of the four focus groups of children by applying Lazar et al.'s (2007) analytical framework for different levels of the components of intercultural communicative competences, i.e., attitudes, skills and knowledge (Appendix II).

### **6.3. Attitudes: Focus Groups with Children**

In response to questions about the situations and events that we presented to them, all the children showed respect to others as equal human beings while they patiently listened to each other's arguments. Overall, they expressed attitudes that are non-judgmental and open-minded. Most of the children expressed no fear of speaking in front of their peers.

Classes 1 and 2 (Table 1) were comfortable with describing their strengths and weaknesses. They accepted that they were not sure where the children in the pictures are from and they asked for help when needed. One 7-year-old student expressed surprise at some people having difficulties (apart from the language) while communicating with people from other cultures: "Why should there be any difficulties?"

Almost half of the children showed first impressions and awareness of gender roles, which is in terms of ICC culture-specific as well. "The boys won the match and the girls congratulate them." The older children (Classes 3 and 4 in Table 1), especially the girls, emphasized gender equality in discussing the capacity of children to win the football match. They were the first to mention mixed teams instead of boys vs. girls.

Classes 1 and 2 (Table 1) interacted positively, although they failed to ask each other about their opinions and to interact with each other. They mostly talked to the interviewer. Classes 3 and 4 (Table 1) mostly reacted to each other's statements and opinions. Furthermore, only the two older groups showed confidence to challenge and to be challenged—they were not afraid to disagree with their peers and to suggest alternatives during the discussion. They also showed awareness of social and peer judgment and inability to overcome insecurity or fear that may arise during intercultural and other interactions.

Classes 1 and 2 (Table 1) felt that all of the individuals in the pictures had in common the fact that "They're human. Friendship brings them together." They showed a strong sense of empathy; they could relate to and share other people's feelings. "There are many Roma children at my school and most children do not accept them because they talk and look differently. We should acknowledge that we are all the same." Classes 1 and 2 (i.e., the younger children) also focused more on humanitarian issues, such as charity in Asia or poverty in Africa. Additionally, they showed a great sense of open-mindedness. "We should always try to show our traditions, how we live, our institutions and our culture—we should set a good example and leave a good first impression." These sentiments are norm-related too. On the other hand, Class 4 (i.e., the oldest group) showed a strong sense of empathy by relating to and sharing other people's feelings as long as their own were not negatively affected.

The natural tendency to satisfy the need for belonging was reflected in the children's discussion. "We all feel lonely and bad when excluded. It's the same for people from different cultures. When I was little, I was ashamed of my mother because she is from Sudan and everyone looked at her in a different way. I always try to accept others... but, in the end, it's better to be in a group than left alone.... It is exactly for that reason that people join the majority."

#### **6.4. Skills: Focus Groups with Children**

Most of the children in Class 1 (Table 1), i.e., the youngest group, mentioned that they depended on their parents during intercultural situations, asking them clarifications and help. And yet, they felt very comfortable when meeting someone who speaks English, which they perceive as something in common. "Luckily, we have a common language—English." They showed hints of multiperspectivity and looked for information and help when needed. However, they failed to consider other perspectives, expressing only their own point of view about their personal experiences. At this age, they still did not question interpretations offered by

authority. They also did not give clear arguments for their viewpoints, which reflects lack of critical thinking but still a positive attitude to learning and growing. The children failed to make sure that their message was clearly understood and to express their point of view in connection with both conflicting and complementary opinions.

The 10-14 year-old children (Classes 2, 3 and 4 in Table 1) made sure their messages were clearly understood and listened attentively to each other. They looked for and clarified shared needs and expectations. They also showed a great sense of collaboration; they focused both on the interviewer and each other during the discussion, actively exchanging ideas and opinions. They also identified problems to be solved and actively participated in finding solutions. Most showed multiperspectivity through their active search for information using a variety of sources, particularly the Internet. They also showed a high level of empathy and solidarity. “I once read about a 26-year-old man in South Korea with a rare disease who must feel really lonely.” Only the oldest group (Class 4 in Table 1) questioned interpretations offered by authority.

The oldest group is also the only one where several students did not react supportively to their surroundings or to others’ emotions. The following example depicts how both the student who seeks to justify his use of language and the other students’ non-reaction indicated their levels of ICC skills, which are the teaching moments critical to be embraced and worked through as part of ICC teaching. One student exclaimed “nigger” while looking at the African boy (Appendix IV). “It’s OK if you don’t mean it in a negative sense. Anyway, if a black person was to visit our country, everybody would look at him in a strange way since we do not have such peoples here.” Others apologized when noticing any differences in skin color in the presented pictures (Appendix IV) for fear of being called racist.

## **6.5. Knowledge: Focus Groups with Children**

Class 1 (Table 1) showed a certain lack of knowledge about other cultures, norms and rules, roles of political and social actors and belief systems. This is expected, since these are achieved through higher-thinking skills such as cross-cultural analysis and evaluation of complex socially accepted norms that children develop later. Children naturally develop in sequential stages from concrete to abstract levels of thinking. Since they learn through first-hand and concrete experience, particularly through structured play (Brewster, Ellis, & Girard, 2003), it was difficult for some children to participate more actively in discussions and more abstract analyses of certain concepts and ideas. Bruner’s notion of scaffolding and modes of learning

would imply that children should be physically involved and perform actions when learning, and work with different kinds of visual and symbolic representations of new concepts so they are firmly contextualized (Brewster, Ellis, & Girard, 2003).

Nevertheless, class 1, i.e., the youngest group, mentioned a wide range of countries while the 10-11 year-olds (Class 2) focused on several countries according to specific information they learned from the pictures. “This girl is from Great Britain since she’s a redhead.” The oldest group (Class 4), on the other hand, showed greater prior knowledge about cultural differences and similarities, belief systems and worldviews. Only the two older groups (Classes 3 and 4) considered both verbal and non-verbal messages. They showed awareness that words and body language may have different meanings in different contexts. They also used their prior knowledge to make connections between culture and language learning, mentioning those who forgot their native language while living in foreign countries. They recognized that existential questions such as our contribution to our community, our role as individuals in the lives of others and our future plans were important aspects of life. Furthermore, they showed knowledge about the role of individuals and institutions by realizing that schools should teach about diversity and acceptance. They mentioned bullying instances based on individuals’ personal characteristics. And yet, they failed to understand that the world views and beliefs people hold are not static and that culture is a dynamic process. It is still questionable whether the children recognize that world views and belief systems influence but do not determine a person’s or a group’s identity.

While the children from the youngest group (Class 1) laughed at the idea that children in Asia touched the boy’s hair because it is red, and thus lacked understanding of different perspectives, they still showed solidarity and a sense of belonging on a global level. “Why should we perceive someone as different at all?” The oldest children (Class 4), on the other hand, were influenced by and aware of discrimination, stereotypes and racism, which they implied by giving examples and expressing a sense of hopelessness about change.

## **7. Final Remarks and Conclusions**

### **7.1. Lessons about Implementation**

This study of the ABC Project’s efforts to use principles of democratic teaching, human rights, empathy and tolerance to promote ICC reveals lessons for implementing research on ICC frameworks in informal educational settings. The researchers experienced several challenges

related to the short time frame during which the research needed to be conducted. The summer program occurred over four weeks. Ideally the baseline survey would have been conducted on the first day of the program and the endline survey on the final day of the program. However, logistical demands and the need to obtain written parental consent meant that the baseline was not conducted until the fourth day of the program for three groups and the fifth day of the program for one group. The time needed to describe to the students the nature of the baseline survey and how long it would take them to complete it was underestimated by the researchers. This was particularly the case for the youngest age group, whose children struggled to understand the questions, even though they were adjusted to their age. The youngest asked their Bosnian co-teacher for interpretations and needed substantially more time than was allotted for them to complete the baseline. This meant they needed to re-start the survey on the fifth day of the program, which essentially cut down to three weeks of the period in which the students could improve their ICC. The number of questions about the survey asked by the younger students suggests that many of them, even after obtaining help from their Bosnian co-teacher, most likely did not fully understand some of the questions. This complicated using survey results to measure their progress in ICC and instead urged attention to their participation in focus groups.

Time pressure also affected the endline survey. Because the last day of the program was devoted to a presentation of films and performances for the students' families, the endline was conducted on the program's next to last day. This was a busy time for students and co-teachers, who were preparing for the Project's final ceremony.

## **7.2. Explaining Research Results**

During the 4-week informal educational environment, students improved their level of ICC, according to statistical analysis of the difference between the baseline and endline scores. However, the fact that there were large standard deviations in the average survey score per class strongly suggests one or several of the following: The first is the need to either develop a questionnaire better capable of accurately capturing children's ICC or completely change the methodology of capturing emergent interculturality, especially with younger children, by focusing on the use of frameworks for qualitative research for intercultural awareness in a young learner context (Kubaneck-German, 2000). The second is the need to develop activities that more effectively encourage the development of ICC. Further research and teaching will build on these suggestions and incorporate information on the number of summers that

children have participated in the Project, seeking to understand if repeated participation more effectively encourages ICC development.

In the data gathered from the focus groups in comparison to their survey responses, a certain inflation could be noticed with regard to the younger students' enthusiasm and appreciation of universal principles of tolerance and empathy. Younger participants acknowledged a sense of solidarity with those culturally different and indicated a willingness to take risks, which is crucial for intercultural understanding and tolerance. Yet, while the younger children (Classes 1 and 2) saw few issues in differences, the older ones (Classes 3 and 4) pinpointed them. The oldest group seemed hopeless in that many of them have already been subjected to or witnesses of certain social injustices, especially due to their parents' war experiences and transgenerational transmissions of war traumas. This seemed to lead to an overall rejection of universal principles of human rights and collective disbelief. In addition, there appeared to be a contrast between students' improvement of particular dimensions of ICC, as measured by the surveys, and their overall disbelief and pessimism, expressed in focus groups, about improving intercultural competences and democratic principles in the difficult real-life environments of post-conflict Bosnia and Herzegovina or the world, in general. These viewpoints of older children expressed at their approach to adulthood bear negative consequences.

However, these mixed attitudes and skills also open the door for children with good mentorship to reexamine their attitudes and find specific examples in their microcosms where empathy, democracy and tolerance could be valued. Ideally, teachers could facilitate a revival of the children's enthusiasm for and appreciation of cultural differences by providing challenging yet comprehensible positive real-life examples and activities. They could also restore students' hope in their daily lives, which is important in the pedagogy of working with children in post-conflict societies. Additionally, the teachers might have to re-think their patterns of observation as these have most likely been influenced by the learner image of the communicative approach which favors an active, spontaneous and talkative learner (Kubanek-Germanm, 2000). This is because the approach usually considers breakdowns and failures in communication as negative, while in intercultural leaning they can be viewed as the foundation stones for the process that can lead to reflection and reorganization of the experience.

The results help in further development of the project and a shift in focus. It seems as though project activities have been guided by narrow objectives. However, this research suggests the project could be more effective if the overall project goals of promoting ICC were

used as a foundation on which to build specific strategies, techniques and activities. These should be adjusted to the socio-emotional and cognitive development of children in order to better encourage participants to take an active role in confronting divisive elements, social injustice and discrimination; to promote human rights; and to understand culture as a dynamic multi-dimensional process in Bosnia and Herzegovina and in the world. Even though the project was small in scale and led by university students, the research provides ample ground for further development and investigation into the issues of teaching ICC and global education themes as a part of non-formal language pedagogy. Despite the fact that relevant theories and foreign language teaching approaches have recognized ICC as an important element in language education, additional strategies, specific activities and culture-specific approaches need to be further developed in order to support student-teachers in their newly assumed roles as intercultural mediators.

One of the main findings is that co-teachers need better structured instruction on how to teach culture-specific and global education topics supported by relevant teaching tools in order for the children to become more aware of the fact that culture is a dynamic process subjected to many influences. How we talk about sensitive topics and contested narratives in the teaching and learning context should become a critical focus of the teacher preparation for teaching ICC to children of different ages. The teachers are not always well equipped, and student-teachers in that respect need even greater pedagogical support to know how to engage children of different ages in meaningful conversations, and to create spaces for seeking out to listen to those who hold opposing views, have different levels of language proficiency and have different experiences from our own. Teachers are educators and they need skills, values and knowledge themselves to know how to support children in disagreeing with the others in a respectful manner.

A next step could be to use action research to clarify the reasons for the variation in improvement in children's ICC and to apply such a framework for practitioners to improve teaching and learning in their own context. The participatory and reflective aspects of action research could help student-teachers become more aware of their own teaching practices rooted in the principles of intercultural pedagogy. It could also help both children and student-teachers improve their intercultural competences over time. Current research results also encourage more sustained collaboration between student teachers on development of active lessons and more in-depth action research and the development of a Practical Guide on Teaching Intercultural Competence in Non-formal Contexts, on which the authors are working. Such a

guide seeks to identify activities effective for promoting ICC at different age levels and for training future generations of student-teachers in their work with and mentoring of future generations of children.

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**Appendix I: Baseline and Endline Survey Questionnaire, based on Profile Diagram  
(Lazar, 2012)**

	Strongly disagree	Slightly disagree	Un-decided	Slightly agree	Strongly agree
1. I find unexpected and unfamiliar situations enjoyable					
2. I help other members of the group solve problems in ways that appeal to the other group members.					
3. I clearly state my position when a problem occurs and someone criticizes me.					
4. I adapt my working approach with others to avoid conflicts.					
5. When confronted with problems within a group, I prefer to remain passive and let others solve the conflict.					
6. I am alert to the ways in which misunderstanding between people might arise through differences in speech, gestures and body language.					
7. I like to understand and get the meaning of any misunderstandings in the groups I work with.					
8. I try to come to an agreement when I am speaking with other members of the group.					
9. I like to do some research in advance and get some information when I plan to meet other people from other countries.					
10. I normally foresee the possible difficulties and obstacles before an intercultural encounter.					

11. When working with other people, I like to suggest solutions, ideas, common objectives.					
12. When working with other people, I inform them about facts and about my own experiences related to the matter.					
13. When I am involved in group work, I try to examine the connections between different approaches and ideas.					
14. I enjoy finding out more things about other people's values, customs and practices.					
15. I regard other people's customs and practices as different from the norm.					
16. I prefer to impose my point of view in a group discussion: sometimes it is important to dominate and clearly impose your will.					
17. I try to understand and imagine other people's thoughts and feelings.					
18. I find it very difficult to see a situation through another person's eyes.					
19. I seek to reconcile the tensions in a group, when they arise.					
20. I check to see if the group members agree with each other and try to clarify different points of view.					
21. When I'm entitled, I seek recognition and get everybody's attention.					

**Appendix II: Lazar et al. (2007) describe the ICC competences in terms of three levels (low, medium and high).**

**(a) Assessing intercultural "knowledge/savoirs"**

Levels	Descriptors of ICC competence
Low	<p>The student can produce in writing very simple descriptions and identify limited specific and general cultural facts related to collective memory, human life styles (dress, food, family relationships) or societal systems (education, economy, government). The student can speak more generally about some aspects of culturally determined acts of behavior, can use and explain some words and expressions related to different fields of social interactions.</p> <p>The student tends to understand cultural facts intuitively, based on a general simple mental checklist comprised of collective memory, human life styles and societal systems.</p> <p>When questioned, the student applies cultural stereotypes.</p>
Medium	<p>The student possesses some concrete knowledge about cultural facts and can gradually build on and modify the information acquired.</p> <p>The student can speak and explain more concretely different aspects of culturally determined acts of behavior, can compare with his own experience, local and national traditions; can use more words and expressions related to the respective field, can comment for example on some proverbs, songs, expressions related to it.</p>
High	<p>The student has accurate knowledge of both general and specific cultural elements (including sociolinguistic conventions for language use) and has developed a variety of learning strategies ranging from reflective observation to active experimentation.</p> <p>The student can speak about, explain, comment and analyze all learned cultural differences comparing them in depth with his own experience and local and national traditions; can understand, compare and analyze from intercultural point of view proverbs, songs, sayings, acts of behavior and so on from an intercultural point of view.</p>

**(b) Assessing intercultural skills "know-how/savoir-faire"**

Levels	Descriptors of ICC competence
Low	The student can participate in conversations in different culturally determined situations with some standard expressions without comparing, analyzing and critically reflecting on them and tries to explain them without critically analyzing and without incorporating cultural variables into the analysis.
Medium	The student, in different culturally determined situations, can participate in conversations more freely, i.e. expressing, comparing and analyzing differences, with some critical reflection; and is able to cope with them to a certain extent. The student is able to analyze the situation objectively. The student is able to understand the variability of verbal and non-verbal behavior within the target cultural community to a certain extent but doesn't try to recreate an alien world view and doesn't reflect upon how the culturally different person might be construing events.
High	The student can participate in conversations in different culturally determined situations absolutely freely expressing, comparing, analyzing and critically reflecting on differences. The student can appropriately use in conversations different proverbs, sayings and expressions in different intercultural contexts. The student is able to cope easily with unexpected situations and is able to recreate an alien world view and easily recognizes how one's world view is culturally conditioned. The student can easily manage the stress associated with intense culture and language immersions (culture and language fatigue). The student clearly expresses verbal and non-verbal behavioural flexibility.

**(c) Assessing intercultural attitudes "Being/Savoir-être"**

Levels	Descriptors of ICC competence
Low	The student experiences intercultural situation with difficulties and then tends to adopt a defensive approach. The student shows some sensitivity but also shows ethnocentric attitudes and perceptions and expects adaptation from others. The student manifests tolerance to some culturally determined behaviour

	acts. The student demonstrates a degree of cultural awareness but still tends to be influenced by cultural stereotypes due to a passive attitude towards other cultures.
Medium	The student manifests “mixed” attitudes to culturally determined acts of behaviour. The student starts to accept intercultural ambiguities as challenging, showing openness and interest towards others. The student sometimes takes the initiative in adopting other’s patterns; tends to see things and situations from the other’s point of view. The student demonstrates openness to other cultures, accepting and being sympathetic to other beliefs and values. The student has no profound argumentation of his own position in terms of his own attitude regarding cultural differences
High	The student enjoys observing, participating, describing, analyzing, and interpreting intercultural elements and situations. The student argues well his own position toward different culturally determined acts of behaviour. The student expresses a sense of alterity, i.e. is able to reflect on what a person from a different culture would really feel like in such a given situation. The student expresses empathy toward representatives of different cultures. The student manifests respect for otherness, other beliefs and values. The student tries to take the role of a mediator in intercultural encounters, manages ambiguity, and offers advice and support to others, recognizing how one’s world view is culturally conditioned.

### Appendix III: Statistical Analysis of Children's Surveys\*

Table A1: Test of the difference in the means from the baseline and endline survey\*\*

Paired t test

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
baseline	47**	.7488897	.017678	.1211945	.7133057	.7844738
endline	47	.7931318	.0133433	.0914772	.7662731	.8199905
diff	47	-.044242	.019088	.1308608	-.0826642	-.0058198
mean(diff) = mean(baseline - endline)				t = -2.3178		
Ho: mean(diff) = 0				degrees of freedom = 46		
Ha: mean(diff) < 0		Ha: mean(diff) != 0		Ha: mean(diff) > 0		
Pr(T < t) = 0.0125		Pr( T  >  t ) = 0.0250		Pr(T > t) = 0.9875		

The above analysis indicates that at the .05 level, we can reject the hypothesis that there is no difference between the mean of the endline and baseline score.

\*Though 49 students filled out both surveys, box plots revealed two outliers among the students. These two outliers were removed and the resulting t-test and one-way ANOVA analysis (footnote 5) are conducted with the 2 outliers removed.

\*\*Here, the baseline and endline score are calculated as the total progress (or regress) made by a student out of the total possible progress that could be made in the survey



## Appendix IV

### FOCUS GROUP PROTOCOL

#### Adapted from *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters for younger learners* (Council of Europe, 2009)

Instructions: This autobiography helps you think about a specific intercultural experience or encounter that was important for you — it made you think, it surprised you, you enjoyed it, you found it difficult, etc. You do this by answering a sequence of questions about this experience. An intercultural experience can be one you had with someone from a different country or it can be an experience with someone from another cultural background in your country. It might be, for example, someone you met from another region, someone who speaks a different language, someone from a different religion or ethnic group.

#### Introductory exercise

*How many people have you met and spoken to today? Were you meeting any of these people for the first time?* If you haven't met anyone new today, you probably will tomorrow because, if you think about it, you are meeting new people all the time. These people may be adults, a new teacher, a friend of your parents, or someone serving you in a shop. Or they may be children like yourself, a new child in the class, someone you meet in a playground, or a friend you make on holiday.

When you meet new people you probably start to notice things about them straightaway: What do they look like? What do they sound like? Where do they come from? Do you like them or not? etc.

#### Picture exercise – an encounter



1.



2.a.



2.b.

*What do you think will be the first thing they notice about each other?*

*Do you think they will notice something different about each other or something the same?*

*Do you think they are happy to meet each other or not? Why do you think that?*

*Are they going to find each other easy to talk to? What might they talk about?*

*Do you think they will make friends or not? Why do you think that?*

# 大学と大学院の連携による教員養成モデル：教師教育者、教員、学生三者の発達を目指して

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## 要旨

本研究は「大学と大学院の連携による教員養成モデル：教師教育者、教員、学生の発達を目指して」と題した科学研究費基盤研究（C）の助成を受けて行った研究報告である。本研究では教師の成長を教職課程に在籍する大学院生のみならず、その学生が履修する授業を担当する教師教育者、二者と同じ大学の英語教育プログラムで教鞭を取っていた現職教師との三者が相互的に振り返ることにより、教師としての成長を目指した。振り返りの場として大学院生による現職教師の授業への参与参観、授業後の面談、オンラインジャーナル記述が行われた。振り返りへの従事が大学院生のみならず教師教育者、現職教員にとっても困難であったその点を分析し、自己エスノグラフィーから再帰的に考察を述べ、最後に振り返りを促すためのいくつかの具体的方法を紹介して本稿を結ぶ。

## 1. はじめに

自己の実践を吟味し、教師としての成長を目指す「振り返り」は教員養成の一つの確立された方法となった。国内でもその傾向はみられ、『英語教員の英語力・指導力強化のための調査研究事業』における「外国語（英語）コアカリキュラム」、また『教職課程コアカリキュラム』の中でも振り返りの実践は授業改善におけるひとつの重要な段階として言及されている。さらに新学習指導要領の中では学習者による「振り返り」の重要性が言及されている。しかし、教育現場では振り返りが必ずしも導入、実践されているという訳ではないようだ。その理由は、まず、振り返りの概念の曖昧さに起因する。何をどのように振り返ればよいのか、振り返りとは曖昧で、掴みどころがないという印象がついて回るようだ。さらにその実践的な研究の少なさも一因として挙げられる。長

期的研究の例、特に教員養成課程の学生が対象の例は少なく、振り返りは現実的な実践なのかという印象を与えているようだ。さらに振り返りの実践・研究は指導教官が学生を、教師教育者が現職教師を導く、または研究対象にするという構図が見られ、力関係で弱い立場の者が振り返りの対象となり、振り返りが力の不均衡がある関係の中で行われているように見受けられてしまう。その結果、振り返りとは一方向的な行為であるという印象を与えてしまうのではないか。また、振り返りがある特定の授業のため、研究のために行うものであり、教師の成長に結びつく実践であるという説得力があまりないのではないか。

本研究はこのような状況を鑑み、始動した。本研究では教師教育を大学全体の単位として捉え、大学院と大学の共通英語プログラムの連携により教師教育者（大学院の教員）、現職教員（共通英語プログラムの教員）、教員養成段階の学生（大学院生）の三者の成長を目指した。三者はそれぞれが教師認知を振り返り、2年間という長期にわたり、三者間で相互的に関わり合い、振り返りを通して、複眼的視点を涵養することにより、三者それぞれが成長することを目的とした。

本稿では先行研究、本研究の紹介、そして本研究に参加した教師教育者、現職教員が省察により自己の体験を叙述する自己エスノグラフィーから再帰的に考察を述べる。最後に振り返りを促すためのいくつかの具体的方法を紹介して本稿を結ぶ。

## 2. 先行研究

本稿はそのデータ分析において先ず、教員養成段階の大学院生の振り返りに焦点を当てたが、前述の通り、振り返りに関する先行研究において教員養成段階の学生を対象にしたものはあまり多くない（Yoshimoto-Asaoka, 2015; Nagamine, 2007）。それは教員養成段階の学生は教えるという実践の場を持っておらず、また経験の少ない教員養成段階の学生にとって振り返りを行うことが困難なことだと思われるからだろう（McIntyre, 1993）。

一方、教職課程中の学生の教師観、授業観に対してよく言及されるのが Lortie (1975) が唱えた「観察の徒弟制」である。Lortie は教職課程にある学生は自分が生徒として何千時間も受けた授業の経験を有しており教師として教壇に立つ前からすでに教師像が形成されていることを指摘した。しかし「観察の徒弟制」の限界は学習者が観察しているのは授業だけであり、授業の目的設定、事前準備や事後の分析等観察はしておらず、教育的枠組みから教師の行動を理解せずに

(Lortie, 1975)、不正確、不適切、不十分 (Laboskey, 1993) であることだ。さらなる問題点は個々の学習者は「観察による徒弟制」により学んだ知見に無自覚であるがゆえ、その知見を分析することがないことだ。また、興味深いことに教職課程の授業等で学んだ理論・実践法が「観察による徒弟制」で得た知見と相反する場合、授業で学んだ理論、実践法を排除する可能性があると言われている。つまり Borg (2004) が指摘する通り、「観察による徒弟制」により形成された授業方法は直感的、模倣的で (Lortie, 1975)、安全な結果を保証する処方箋となり (Buchamann, 1987)、

授業中に何をすべきか決断できない、また何をすべきか不確かな状況に見舞われた際に頼りとなるデフォルトの方法として確立されてしまうのである (Tomlinson, 1999)。

教職課程在籍時から内在化された自己の「観察による徒弟制」に気づき、授業を全体的な教育的枠組みから捉え、理解、分析することを学ぶためには振り返りが有用であると言われている。

## 2.1. 振り返りの概念

振り返り (リフレクション) に関する先行研究で必ずと言ってよいほど述べられるのが振り返りという概念の曖昧さ、そしてそれゆえの多様な定義、解釈である (Farrell, 2018; Jay & Johnson, 2002; Rodgers, 2002; Tamai, 2016)。それは振り返りという概念と、物事を思い出すという我々が日常行っていることとの違いが明らかではないからではないだろうか。さらに振り返りの定義は何を学習として見なすか、成長として見なすかにより異なる (Ghaye & Lillymann in Ghaye, 2011)。最近の意味の構築は社会的になされるという社会構成主義による解釈のもと、振り返りを他者とのやり取りの中から構築されるものと捉える定義もすくなくない。本研究では三者の振り返りがひとつの焦点となっている。そこで振り返りを他者との関係性の中から涵養されるものとした定義を幾つか紹介したい。

Jay and Johnson (2002) は振り返りを「個人的そして協同的」な過程だと定義した。

Reflection is a process, both individual and collaborative, involving experience and uncertainty. It is comprised of identifying questions and key elements of a matter that has emerged as significant, then taking one's thoughts into dialogue with oneself and with others (p.76).

Rodgers (2002) も当時、流行りのように行われていたリフレクティブ・プラクティスの定義を明確にし、振り返りのひとつの要素として“Reflection in community” (p.856)を挙げ、他者を行うことの重要性を述べている。

Watanabe (2016) も自己との、そして他者との対話の重要性をリフレクションの定義の中で次のように述べている。

the activity of looking back over one's actions, thoughts, written and spoken ideas, feelings, and interactions, all with the goal of making new meaning for oneself, an activity conducted in dialogue with the self and with others (p.47).

また Mann and Walsh (2017) は dialogic reflection という表現を用い、振り返りにおける相互性の重要性を述べている。

We note the importance of the ‘give-and-take’ in the dialogue, where interactants seek clarification, demonstrate understanding or approval, and even disagree.

Dialogic reflection (中略) has enormous potential, since it allows reflections to be co-constructed through talk; put simply, professional learning is enhanced through interactions with both peers and more experienced professionals (p. 193).

最近の振り返りの定義の中に「他者との協同」の概念が入っているものが多くみられる。しかし多くの研究事例で「他者との協同」の振り返りは学生間または同僚間で起こり、それを分析するのが研究者であることが多い。その振り返りを「指導している」とされる教師、または研究を行っている研究者の立場はどうなのだろうか。Finlay (2002) が述べる通り、質的研究において研究者は「データ収集、選択、解釈において影響力の強い個人」であり、また研究は「研究参加者、研究者、そして両者の関係性における共同の成果物」である。

最近、また、さらに質的研究を行うにおいて研究者の再帰性 (reflexivity) の重要性が唱えられている。Berger (2013) は研究者の再帰性を次のように定義した。

the process of a continual internal dialogue and critical self-evaluation of the researcher’s positionality as well as active acknowledgment and explicit recognition that this position may affect the research process and outcome (p. 220).

この定義に見られる通り、再帰性とは研究において研究者自身の立場 (positionality) が研究やその結果に影響を及ぼすことである。本研究ではそこからまた一步踏み出し、研究者が自身を研究者としてのみならず、研究の一参加者として再帰的に振り返ることも試みた。

## 2. 2. 振り返りの過程

先述の通り、振り返り、リフレクティブ・プラクティスの多様性は定義においてみられるが、振り返りの過程においては共通認識があるようだ。本研究で振り返りについて述べるにあたり、そのような共通の認識のあるモデルを提示したい。Korthagen et al. (2001) の ALACT モデルはその名称が示す通り、振り返りの 5 つの局面について述べている。

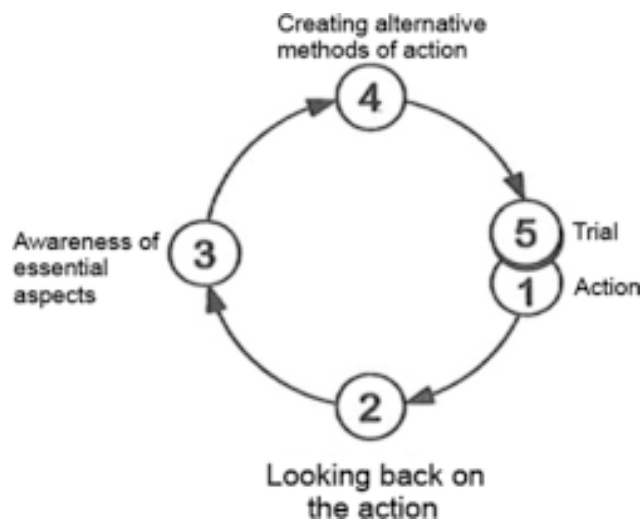


図1：ALACT モデル

ALACT モデルは振り返りの循環的特徴を表しており、さらに行為後の振り返り（looking back on the action）から、自分の行為に対する気づき（awareness of essential aspects）、その気づきからの異なる実践を行うこと（creating alternative methods of action）が述べられている。

### 2.3. 振り返りの層

次に、振り返りの層についての見解に言及し、振り返りにおける description の重要性を述べたい。振り返りの層とはここでは振り返りにおける個人の従事の仕方、挑み方を表現している。Jay and Johnson（2002）は振り返りの層を descriptive, comparative, critical とあらわした。descriptive は、授業における様々なことを叙述する問題設定であり、comparative は、その問題を自己の視点とは異なるものも含めて、様々な視点から考えること、そして critical は、多様な視点から問題を吟味した後に発見したことを基にある決断、選択をすることを意味している。Critical は、教育現場における様々な問題を教育現場における歴史的、社会政治的、そして道徳的な視点から鑑みる重要性をも説いている。

Farrell（2015）の層も descriptive, conceptual, critical の三種類から構成されている。Descriptive は、教師が自分の実践を叙述することであり、“What do I do?”、“How do I do it?”という自問を通して、叙述が行われる。Conceptual では、“Why do I do it?”という質問を持って、教師は自己の実践の裏付けとなる理由を自己に問う。そして critical では、教えるという行為を教員の視点のみならず、学習者、学校、共同体など様々な視点より鑑みることを指している。

Watanabe（2016）は振り返りを5つのタイプに分類し、description は、自己の考え、行為を口頭や記述により言語化、外化する行為であり、この言語化することが振り返りの初歩的な一歩であると述べている。また Watanabe（2017b）はジャーナル記述についてジャーナルを書いた個人からジャーナルという別の個体が作り出されること。つまり言語化することにより自分の考えが自分

とは別の存在（客体）となり存在すること。それゆえに自己（主体）がジャーナルという別個の存在（客体）を見る際に客体化が容易になると述べている。**Confirmation** は、自己の考え、行為を再認識することであり、*hansei*（反省）は、自己の行為における、また今後の改善における自己の責任を認識すること、**reinterpretation** は、自己の考え、行為を再解釈すること、**awareness** は、自己の考え、行為に対する気づきを指していると著した。

上記に挙げられた振り返りの層は、必ずしも一定方向に段階的に体験されるものではないが、共通しているのは **description** が最初の層として挙げられていることだろう。**Description** は口語、記述による全ての外化を指している。しかしそれにより軽視されるべきではない。**Tripp**（1993）が述べるように、**description** を通して潜在的に自己が抱いている考え、ビリーフなどが外化（言語化）されることがある。そしてジャーナル記述のように自己とは別の存在物（客体）が産出されることにより、自己（主体）は自己の経験、考えを客体化することが可能となり、再解釈などに繋がると言われる。

以上、先行研究で述べた通り、本研究の意義として教員養成段階の学生の振り返りを探求すること、振り返りの対象が研究参加者だけではなく研究者も再帰的に自己を振り返ること、また振り返りにおける **description** の重要性についても再考していることが挙げられるだろう。

### 3. 研究計画と方法

本研究の主となる目的は教師教育者、現職教員、教員養成段階の学生という三者の連携により、教員養成段階の学生のみならず、教師教育者、現職教員の三者の成長を目指し、その発達過程を追い、教員養成の新しいモデル構築を目指すものである。特に本章では振り返りを通し、省察力を養い複眼的な視点を涵養することで、互いに成長していくための過程を研究計画、方法の点から述べる。

本研究は教師教育者、現職教員、教員養成段階の学生の省察力の発達過程を合計2年間追った（データ収集からその後、行われたデータ分析のための話し合いの場も含む）。発達過程の分析には量的研究、実証主義的研究による計測が不可能な言葉、文章及び行為に含まれる「意味」の解釈が必要なため、質的アプローチ、特に自己の体験を叙述するオートエスノグラフィー的

（**autoethnography**）な視点から再帰的に考察を進めた。研究手法としては授業観察、面談、オンラインジャーナル記述を採用した。面談とジャーナル記述はデータ収集法であると共に前述三者の発達を促す省察の場となり、これらの「振り返りの場」のデータを分析し（**Watanabe, 2017a**）、そこから見えてきたことを検証し、いつかの「フレーム（frames）」（**Warwick & Maloch, 2003**）を特定した。以下、研究計画、方法、分析手順の概要である。



### 3.1. 研究対象者

研究対象者は教師教育者 1 名（Z）、英語教育プログラムの現職の英語教員 2 名（X、Y）、教員養成段階の大学院生 4 名の三者であった。学期初めに教師教育者の授業を履修している大学院生の中から参加者を募り、4 人（A さん、B さん、C さん、D さん）の参加希望があった。

参加者のプロフィール：

#### A さん

同大学で学士号を取得後、大学院に進んだ。研究参加時は大学院生でありながら E 市の高等学校で英語講師として教鞭を取っていた。高校時に大学受験のために猛勉強をして希望の大学に合格した。

#### B さん

都内の某大学から学士号を取得後、本大学大学院に進んだ。学士論文のテーマはパウロ・フレイレであった。教師になりたいと思ったきっかけはブラジルの移民を言語面をはじめ社会面でもサポートをしたいという気持ちからであった。

#### C さん

13 歳で母親の勧めで英語圏に留学し、中学・高校は全寮制の学校で学んだ。中学校から大学まで計 10 年間、海外の英語圏の国で学ぶ。その後に本大学の大学院に入学した。中学校から英語が母語の国で学んでおり、英語を外国語として教えてもらった経験があまりなかった。年齢の低い学習者と接しながら教師になりたいと考えた。

#### D さん

同大学で学士号を取得後、同大学の大学院に進んだ。日本語教師になるための勉強をしていた。研究参加時は、大学院の勉強のかたわら、都内の中華学校で日本語を教えていた。

教師教育者、現職教員のプロフィール：

#### 教師教育者 Z

当時は、同大学の英語教育プログラムの主任だった。専門は、英語教育（応用言語学）と社会言語学である。データ収集時、大学院の英語教育法（実践）を担当し、履修していた 4 人の大学院生（A さん、B さん、C さん、D さん）に研究計画を説明し、研究に協力してもらった。英語教育法の授業では、教師認知やリフレクティブ・プラクティスについて書かれた本を院生と読みながら、ディスカッションをした。自分も含め、皆で自分たちの教師認知について振り返りを授業で行った。また、現職教師 X や Y の授業の視察や参加で気づいたことを一緒に振り返り、ディスカッションを行った。A さん、D さんは実際に講師として高校や中華学校で教えていたので、教える悩みや生徒についての思いを皆で話し合い、共有することも行った。

### 英語教育プログラムの現職の英語教員 X

当時は同大学の英語教育プログラムで 18 年ほど教鞭を取っていた。本人は大学生になるまであまり勉強が好きではなく、中学校では進学する気もなく受験勉強をせず、高校時には自分の興味のある科目、英語、世界史などしか勉強をしなかった。学士号、修士号、博士号を海外の大学から取得した。博士論文のテーマは日本の現職英語教員の振り返りについてである。本研究では大学院の学生 A さん、B さん、C さんが X が担当する授業に参加し、その後、面談を行った。面談では普段、自分が授業をするにおいて迷う点などをまだ学生である彼らに尋ねることができとてもよい機会となったと感じていた。

### 英語教育プログラムの現職の英語教員 Y

現在（2018）も同大学、英語教育プログラムで教鞭をとっており、当時の同大学での教員歴は 10 年ほどであった。同大学の卒業生でもあり、中学校課程以外は海外で教育を受ける。修士号と博士号は英国の大学院で取得した。学習者のアイデンティティ、情緒的要因であるエモーションと言語習得の関係を探求した研究が博士論文の主なテーマであった。また、質的研究方法論についても発表や出版を多数している。この研究では D さんと授業観察や面談、ジャーナル交換を主に行った。この研究を通して、振り返りが教員育成、発達の過程の中で果たす重要性をあらためて思うと共に、振り返りが学生や教員にとっていかに難しいことも再確認した。

## **3. 2. 研究計画**

主なデータ収集手法は面談、ジャーナル記載及び授業観察であった。面談は半構造化インタビュー（Gubrium & Holstein, 2002）を採用し、IC レコーダーに録音後、業者に文字起しを委託した。尚、倫理的見解からデータ収集は音声のみとした。データ収集期間は 2015 年 9 月から 2 学期間であった。ジャーナルは Google doc における共有ドキュメントへの記載となり、教師教育者、現職教員、教員養成段階の学生の三者で共有された。授業観察は参与観察（participant observation）及び非参与観察（non-participant observation）（Brown & Dowling, 1998）を研究当初は予定していた。

大学院の授業を履修していた 4 名の教員養成段階の学生は振り返りの場として現職教師の授業観察、授業後の面談、オンラインジャーナル上へ記載を行った。下記がそれぞれの活動概要である。

### **3. 2. 1. 研究対象となった主なる活動**

1 学期目：

学期初めに教師教育者の授業を履修している大学院生の中から参加者数名を募り、教師教育者、現職教師、教員養成段階の学生の3名が1チームとなり、1学期間、次の活動を繰り返した（表1）。これらの活動は三者の省察による教員認知の発達を迫るための重要な過程であった。

	活動	複眼的視点
1.	教員養成段階の学生は教師教育者の大学院の授業に週1回出席	学生:学生 教師養育者:教師教育者
2.	現職教師は教師教育者の大学院の授業に1回非参与観察	現職教師:学生、同僚
3.	大学院生は現職教師の大学の英語の授業に週1回参与観察	大学院生:学生 現職教師:教員
4.	大学院生と現職教師は授業後、面談を通して授業について省察	大学院生:学生 同僚 現職教師:教員、教師教育者 同僚、研究者
5.	大学院生は教師教育者と現職教師と共有のジャーナル記述により授業について省察	大学院生:学生
6.	教師教育者と現職教師は其々、大学院生の記述にコメント及びジャーナル記述により省察	教師教育者:教師教育者、研究者 同僚 現職教師:教員、教師教育者、 研究者

表1: 1学期間の三者の活動

2学期目:

2学期目となる冬学期の大きな活動としては現職教員と院生による週1回のティームティーチングであった。これは複眼的視点からの教員養成及び「観察による徒弟制」から解放され、教員認知の発達に大いに寄与すると考えていたが、研究倫理上の様々な課題と直面し、実現にいたらなかった。

### 3.2.2. 教師教育者、現職教師担当の授業概要

教師教育者担当の大学院授業:

大学院の授業「英語教育法研究 II」は、「英語教育法研究 I」で英語教授法の理論を学んだ言語教育専攻の大学院生を対象に開講されている科目で、英語教授法の実践としての様々な指導法について学ぶことを目的とする。科目の性質上、講義だけでなく、授業参観や模擬授業などの演習を行う。この授業の教材としては「リフレクティブは英語教育をめざして一教師の語りが拓く授業研究」（吉田・玉井・横溝・今井・柳瀬，2009）を使用し、特に「リフレクティブ・プラクティス：教師の教師による教師のための授業研究」（玉井健）の章を中心に輪読し、リフレクティブ・プラクティスとは何かについて大学院生たち自身の経験を踏まえながらディスカッションを毎回行った。大学院生にとっては、リフレクティブ・プラクティスという考え方そのものが新しいことであり、理解することが難しかったので、大学院生の中高大学時代の経験や現在の経験（2名が公立高校などで臨時教員として教えていた）を振り返るということを実際にやってもらうことで、リフレクティブ・プラクティスへの理解を深めるようにした。教師教育者自身も率先して自分の中高大学時代や教員になってからの実践を振り返り、大学院生と共有した。大学院生のリフレクティブ・プラクティスへの理解が増した後半は、大学院生が現職教師の授業に参加し、自分たち自身が実践したこと（グループ・ディスカッションへの参加など）や実践できなかったことについての振り返りも行った。

現職教師担当の授業概要：

大学院生が参与観察した現職教員の英語の授業は1、2年生を対象にした大学の基盤教育の一環である英語教育プログラムである。大学の理念であるリベラルアーツ精神に基づき、全人的教育の育成を目標としたカリキュラムである。大学院生が観察した授業はこのプログラムの中核をなす授業の一つ、精読の授業と2年生が履修するアカデミックライティングの授業である。

### 3.2.3.1 学期間の三者の活動

研究方法としては基本、三者による面談、オンラインジャーナル記載、授業観察の三種類である。図1の1学期間の三者の活動を図式化したのが図2である。

大学院生は教師教育者の教科教育法の授業に参加して振り返りの理論について学び、授業中、ディスカッションをし、教師教育者が担当するこの大学院授業を現職教師は非参与観察した。又、現職教師の教える大学の共通英語プログラムの授業を大学院生は週1回非参与観察し、授業後、両者は面談を行い、授業について話し合い、さらに、オンラインジャーナルを通して、大学院生、現職教師、教師教育者は授業について学んだこと、感じたことを記載した。このように様々な「振り返りの場」（space）を創ることができ三者の成長の過程をより浮彫りにすることが可能となった。

## 4. 分析方法と手順

上記の三者間の「振り返りの場」に加え、この研究の特徴は、教師教育者と現職教員の3名の話し合いから造られたもう一つの振り返りの場である。3人は教員歴、教員教育歴、英語学習者としての経験や知識も様々であったため、収集された生データをまずは各自で検討し、研究目的を念頭にいれながら、それぞれの「気づき」を記述した。この「準備段階」での目的はおおよそどのような「事柄」が出てきているかの見当をつけるためである。準備段階を経てから、その後、三段階におよぶ省察の場を経て、お互いに意見を交換する過程で、協同的かつ、複眼的視点を養うことが可能となった。下記、図2でその変遷を辿る。

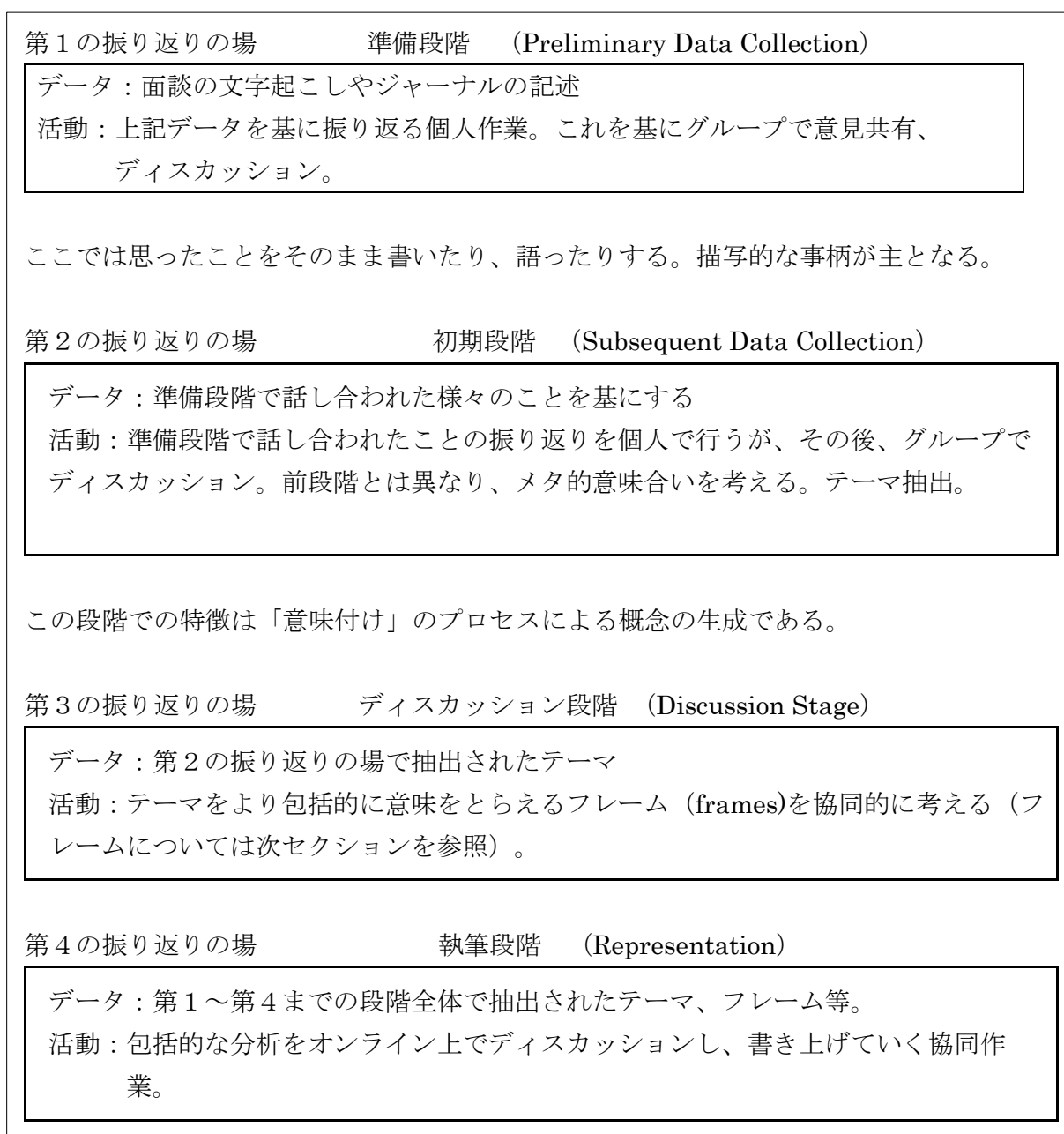


図2：分析の変遷：4段階の振り返りの場

この4つの段階は決して直線的に進むプロセスではなく、前後することもあった。目の前のデータを見て、読んで、解釈するという個人的な活動から、それをさらに3人で話し合うことにより、複眼的視点かつ、様々な側面からの視点を涵養することとなった。複眼的視点を当初は教師教育者、教師、大学院生、または教師、研究者、同僚等一人の個人の中での様々な側面と捉えていたが、一個人の視点でも研究時の視点、研究終了直後の視点、研究終了一年後の視点と多様な時間的な軸により複眼的視点を涵養することができることが示唆された。

## 5. ディスカッション

上記で紹介した分析方法により、いくつかのフレーム (frames) (Warwick & Maloch, 2003) が浮かびあがってきた。フレーム (frames)とはテーマ (themes)とは違い、データをより包括的に捉え、例えば単に「学生の振り返り」というよりも、「学生の振り返りの難しさ」のようにテーマのコーディングするときよりは、大きくくり (枠) で捉えることである。この中でも顕著であったのは振り返りが難しいということであった。これは教員養成段階にある大学院生のみならず、教師教育者及び現職教員についても言えることであった。以下、この「振り返りの難しさ」を複眼的立場、個人的、そして二者間における振り返りを通して個々が様々な視点から検証し浮かび上がってきたフレームを記す。

### 5.1. 「学生」の振り返りの難しさ

学生の振り返りの難しさは、現職教師が担当していた授業を振り返ることにおいて、また自分の教師認知に対してのようであった。データ分析の結果、前者に関してはメタ認知的に授業を見ることが、後者に関してはその叙述が困難なようであった。

教師教育者Zは毎週の大学院の授業で大学院生たちと、彼らが参与観察した現職教師X、Yの授業に関して振り返りを行い、現職教師は授業後に彼らと面談を行ったが、授業をメタ認知的に見るのは困難であるような様子が見て取れた。彼らの振り返りには共通したいくつかの特徴があった。

一つは目に見えてわかりやすいことが気になり、その一方、授業をしている教師の意図などはあまり気にならないということであった。たとえば、大学院生が参与観察したXの授業における関心はR君という頻繁に遅刻してきて授業中にスマホをいじっている一人の学生に集中した。授業後の現職教師Xとの面談で毎回R君のことが話題にあがり、XはR君以外のことも彼らに尋ねたが、彼らからはR君についてのコメントが多く、Xに対して、なぜもっと厳しくしないのかと疑問に思っていたようだった。また教師教育者と大学院生間の話し合いでも、毎回、R君の話でもちきりであった。

第2週のジャーナルでAさんは「自分の体験にばかりとらわれずに、授業観察したい」と書いている。また同じ第2週のジャーナルで、Bさんは、「もっとメタ的に授業を見るべきだった」と書いている。AさんもBさんも授業見学に際し、自分の体験にばかり捉われずにメタ的に観察したいと思っている。しかし、現実には、AさんもBさんも授業の中の一人の学生の言動に注意が向いてしまい、俯瞰的にメタ的に授業を見ることができていない。たとえば、第3週のジャーナルでBさんは、R君の授業態度が気になること、注意しないXの忍耐強さ・寛容さに驚いたと書いている。またAさんも同じ週のジャーナルで、スマートフォンを操作するR君への対応が論点であると述べている。

上述したように、目に見えてわかりやすいこと（この場合はR君の言動）が気になり、その一方授業をしている教師の意図などはあまり気にならないということに加えて、同大学の同英語教育プログラムの経験者であったAさんは学生間のディスカッションの活発さを効果的な授業の尺度として解釈していたようだ。面談で現職教師Xが大学院生たちにその日の授業の感想を尋ねると「今日はディスカッションが比較的盛り上がっていた」、「なぜディスカッションが盛り上がらないのか」ということに頻繁に言及していた。

さらにDさんは授業観察後の現職教師Yとの面談で、グループ・ディスカッション中での学生の日本語使用の多さを指摘した。原則として日本語使用禁止となっているこの英語プログラムの中で、なぜここで教員がすぐに注意を促さなかったのかということが気になっているようであった。

新任教師は授業の運営（classroom management）に注意が向く（Onafowora, 2005）とよく言われるが、それは教員養成時の大学院生についても言えるであろう。講義や授業の中で目に見えてわかりやすいこと興味が行き、なぜ教師が注意をしないのかその意図を考えるに思いが至るよりも教師は学生に注意をすべきだと感じていたようだ。学生が教師の指示に従う、また学習者間のやり取りが活発なのはもちろん望ましいことだが、学生の学習は様々な場面で様々な方法で起こっている。教師教育者Zが振り返りで大学院生たちに気づいてほしいと願っていた現職教員X、Yの授業全体の構成や意図、授業展開などには大学院生は関心を持たなかった、もしくは気づいていなかったようだ。

大学院生達がメタ認知的視点を涵養していなかったのは、現職教師の授業についてだけでなく、自分自身に対しても言えることだった。それは自分を批判的に見るということのみならず、自分の強味についても同様であった。Cさんは、中学、高校、大学と英語圏で学び、一人で苦労しながらネイティブ・スピーカーに囲まれて英語を習得し、口癖は「自分は英語学習者の経験がない」だった。現職教師の授業でグループ・ディスカッションに参加しても、「L2学習者の気持ちがわからない、どうサポートしてよいかわからない」と話し、難しさを訴えていた。しかし、教師が必ずしも学生たちと同じ経験をしている必要はないし、そのようなことは不可能である。自分の英語学習歴を振り返って（教師としての）自分の強さは何かを把握し、現職教師の授業のグループ・ディス

カッションという場で何ができるのかを考え実践すればよいのであるが、当時のCさんにはそれが困難なようであった。第4週のジャーナルでCさんは「peer review をするのがすごく苦手で自分がアドバイスできるようなことはないのではないかといつも思う」と書いている。また、Aさんも「私もCさんの意見に同意します。プロフェッショナルではない素人の自分がアドバイスしていい立場にあるのかいつも悩んでしまいます…」と書いている。AさんもCさんもグループ・ディスカッションで自分たちには何ができるか、学生にはない自分たちの強みはどこにあるのかがわからず、戸惑っていたようである。

Korthagen et al. (2001) が述べているように、教師教育者が実習生が今後のキャリアにおいて直面するすべての種類の状況に適応できるように彼らを養成することは不可能である。だからこそ、大学院生（実習生）は、振り返りを通して自身の経験から学ぶ力を身につけなければならない。教師というのはいつも教壇に立って授業をしているわけではない。面談、クラブ活動、修学旅行など様々な場面で、俯瞰的にその場の状況を把握し、自分のその場での役割を理解し、実践しなければならない。そのためにも振り返りで自分の教師としての強さ・弱さを把握する力が必要なのである。しかし、それは容易なことではなさそうであった。

また彼らは自分の言動の不一致や言語と行動の乖離に気づかない傾向があるようだった。たとえば、Aさんは、大学院の勉強のかたわら、公立高校で講師として英語を教えていた。現職教師の授業に関する面談やジャーナルでは、R君の言動について言及し、なぜ注意しないのかと現職教師Xに尋ねている。しかし、高校での自分の授業では、「寝ている生徒やスマホをいじっている生徒がいたら1度は注意するが、それ以上はしない、勉強するかどうかは生徒の自己責任である」とジャーナルに書いており、現職教師との面談でも同様なことを話している。この二つの言動の矛盾に本人は気づいていなかったようだ。

また、大学院生たちの振り返りから見えてきたことは、自分の学生時代が評価の尺度となることだ。自分が学生であった時代、状況、環境と、現在の自分が参加している大学のクラス、または自分が教えていたクラスとは異なるのだが、それに気がつくこと、また、気がついても別の視点から目の前の学習者を見ることは、容易なことではないようだ。

前述のAさんは参加した授業でディスカッションが盛り上がらないと言っていたが、それは常に自分が学部生だった際の授業と比べていた結果であろう。Aさんはジャーナルで「自分の体験にばかりとらわれずに、授業観察したい」と自分の経験が判断の基準になっていることは気がついているようであったが、そこから自由になることは困難なことのようであった。Dさんが、学生がディスカッションで日本語を使っているのが気になったのも自分の大学生としての体験を判断の基準としていたからであろう。

またCさんは英語もまだままならない時に家族とは離れ海外の学校に留学生と学んだ経験を持つ。Cさんは苦勞して努力して英語を身につけ、学んだ自分の経験から、努力しない学生、勉強に



意欲がない学生には厳しく思ってしまう気持ちを述べている。Cさんの場合も、自分がイギリスで行った努力を基準に学生を見ているのがわかる。

Dさんは中華学校中学一年生に日本語を教えているが、自分が大学時に学んだ経験からグループワークを肯定しており、中華学校の先輩先生からのグループワークは難しいのではという反対を押し切り、実施してみたが、クラスに大混乱をきたしたという。しかしグループワークの他の方法を考案し、試すことはなく、自分の大学の授業のグループワークがデフォルトとなり、それ以外のグループワークの方法は考えられなかったようである。つまりDさんは Korthagen et al. (2001) の述べる「行為の選択肢の拡大」(creating alternative methods of action) に至らなかったということだろう。

Lortie (1975) は個人が何千時間も学習者として授業に参加し、無意識のうちに自分の中に形成された「授業と言うもの」、「教師と言うもの」というイメージを「観察の徒弟制」と言ったが、大学院生も学習者として自分が体験したことが授業、教えることの「真実」となり、その考えに囚われ、そこから自由になることが困難であるようであった。「観察の徒弟制」から身につけた考えは個人に多大な影響を及ぼす。そこから自由となるまず第一歩として、振り返りは重要な役割を担うのであろう。Dさんは、中華学校で生徒をうまく指導できていないと悩んでいたようだ。Dさんは他の先生の授業の様子と比べながら、担当している小6のクラスがうるさいのは、自分がなめられているからだと自分の教師としての力量不足に悩むDさんの様子が伺える。「何か」を「感じている」がそれを分析、または十分に言語化できず、そのため本来ならそれが振り返りの大事なポイントとなるとところを見過ごしてしまっているようであった。Nagamine, Fujieda and Iida (2018) “felt sense -combination of emotions, awareness, intuitiveness, and embodiment”(p. 145)、つまり情緒的要因、特にエモーション(emotions) が振り返りに作用していると述べている。Dさんは中華学校の小学6年生が大変「元気」で、時には授業妨害になり、その結果、教師として「不安」に感じ未熟である自分を責め、単に、教師として自分が未熟であることとして、なぜ不安に感じるかの俯瞰的視点がない。Aさんはなぜスマホを弄っている学生を注意しないかと聞かれても自分でもよくわからないと言いながら、それについて考えること、回答していることを避けているようであった。

しかし、大学院生たちが自分でメタ的視点を獲得することも少ないながらあった。以下のジャーナルは、第4週にBさんが書いたものである。

最初の週から気になっていた男子生徒（遅刻したりスマートフォンをずっと見ていたり）と同じグループになった。ディスカッションやピアレビューをしているとこちらの話をきちんと聞いてくれるし、話を振るときちゃんと発言してくれたので、真面目な子だと感じた。頭ごなしに叱ったりせず、まず生徒のことをよく知るべきだと思った。

ずっと授業態度が気になっていたR君と一緒にグループ・ディスカッションやピアレビューをして、この学生が真面目な学生であること、第一印象だけで学生を判断してはいけないことにBさんは気づいたのである。Bさんは、現職教師Xとのインタビューでも同様の気づきについて述べている。以下は、現職教師Xの授業に参加してから第3週目に行われたインタビューの記録である。

B 先々週ぐらいからずっと気になっていた子とグループ、一緒になったんですけど、思ったよりとても真面目な子だったなと思っていて。

X 真面目？

B 真面目というか、ちゃんと真面目になるときは真面目になるんだなっていうか、ディスカッションするときも、こっちが意識して目を見て話したせいか分からないんですけど、ちゃんと目を見て意見とか、答えも返してくれたし。

X そうですか。

B だから、すごく印象は変わりました。その子に対しては。

X そうですか。なるほどね。

B 話してる間は、全然携帯もいじくらなかったし。

X そうですか。

B そうですね。きょうの印象として大きかったのは、そこですかね。

X そうですか。この間ジャーナルでも書いていましたから、私も気になって、どういうふうアプローチしようかなと思っていて、きょう、私ちょっと意図的にBさんに同じグループに入っていたいたみたいな感じで、私もなるべく、きょうは私、自由な時間があったので。

B 結構一対一で。

X そう、彼が携帯見てるときは、見たりとかしていたんだけど、そうですか。

B そうですね。やっぱり私は先生としてではないので、彼にとっても友達とはちょっと違うし、先生とも違うんだけどもっていう立場だったから、やりやすかったのかもしれないですね。友達ほどではないからあれだけど、先生とも違う、先生だと言うこと聞かなきゃいけないとか、そういう形式的な縛りっていうか、しがらみあるじゃないですか。ちょっと斜めな立場から入ったから、彼にとっても新鮮だったのかなっていう気はあって。

X なるほどね。

B 私のほうでも、私が先生だったら注意するだろうなとかって思うぐらいだったんで。

Bさんは、問題児だと思っていたR君と同じグループで活動したことで、R君が思っていたより真面目な学生であることに気づいたと述べている。また、大学院生である自分の役割に気づいてい

る。先生とも友達とも違う自分が学生にとって新鮮であり、学生にとってはやりやすい相手であることに気づいている。

現職教師Xの授業に参加し始めたころのBさんは、授業に遅れてくるR君の言動が気になって仕方がなかったようだが、授業見学が終わった時点でのインタビューでは、授業や学生について俯瞰的な見方を述べている。

次のインタビューでは学期の終盤で授業に来なくなってしまい、最終課題やプレゼンテーションもしなかったR君について現職教師XとBさんが話している。Bさんは、現職教師Xの学生に歩み寄るような姿勢が嬉しい学生もいるはずだと述べている。しかし、学生によってはもっと厳しくした方がよい学生もいるだろう、もしかしたらR君はそちらの学生だったのかもしれない、と述べている。また先生と学生との距離が近いこの英語教育プログラムのやり方が、良い方に働く学生とそうでない学生がいるのではないかと述べている。授業に遅れてくるR君に対し、もっと厳しくした方がよいのではないかと言っていた最初の頃のBさんとは異なり、現職教師Xの授業のやり方の良さに気づき、また学生に歩み寄る姿勢がうまく行く場合とそうでない場合があるのではと全体を眺めて述べている。一人の学生に注意が行っていた始めの頃と比べ、現職教師Xの授業や学生の態度を俯瞰的に眺めることができていることがわかる。

B 大学生なので、やっぱりしっかり個人の責任というか、自己責任でっていう部分がやっぱり大きくなるのかなっていう気がします。

X そうでしょうね。せつかく少人数だから、できれば各学生の学習の様子、過程を見ていきたいと思うけれども、もう自己責任ってところもあるんでしょうかね。

B そうですね。あるかなって思います。

X 一度書いてくださったジャーナルに、私が学生に歩み寄るような姿勢、それに甘えてしまうような学生もいるかもしれないって書かれてたから、きっとそういう学生もいると思うんですよね。

B 難しいところですけどね。でも、絶対それがうれしい生徒さんもいるはずなので、真面目にやっている子とかは特に。

X そうですね。

B 普通の大学の授業あるじゃないですか。ああいう授業の先生との距離感って、結構、遠いものがあるなって思ってた、それに比べると、やっぱりこの英語教育プログラムの先生ってすごく親身になって、少人数っていうのもあるのかもしれないんですけど、だから、その距離感がいいほうに働く生徒もいれば、そうじゃない生徒もいるっていう感じなんですかね。

大学院生が振り返りに従事することが困難であるようであったと上記で述べたが、ALACT モデルに言及すると、授業参観で体験したこと、自分が教える授業について reflective observation（振り返り）はできるものの、「概念化」（abstract conceptualization）、俯瞰的に自己の行為、考えを見るところまで至らなかったようであった。さらに「振り返り」（reflective observation）をして特に問題を感じない場合などは「行為の選択肢の拡大」（creating alternative methods of action）にも至らないようであった。また現職教師 X、Y の授業に参加参観した場合と自分の授業、自分の教師認知を振り返る際に何が困難であるか少し異なっているようであった。前者は俯瞰的な視点を持って授業を見ること、後者は何を感じているか、何に不安を抱いているか、その言語化が難しいようであった。

## 5.2. 教師自身の振り返りの難しさ

この3年間の研究を振り返ると、「振り返り」の難しさには二つの点があるように思う。第一点は、教師の卵である院生たちに振り返りに従事してもらうこと、またそのサポートをすることの難しさである。前述したように、院生たちに振り返りに従事してもらうことは予想以上に難しかった。そして第二点は、教師自身の振り返りもそう簡単ではないことである。データ収集時の2015年から3人の共同研究者は何度も何度もデータを見ながらディスカッションを重ねることにより振り返りに従事し、3年たった今、ようやく気づいたこともある。これらの経験から、振り返りは、サイクルを往還し、少しずつ見えてくるものだということが示唆される。教師自身も振り返りには時間がかかることが明確になった。

2015年秋に研究を開始したときは、教師教育者 Z は、振り返りという概念を知らなかった院生たちに振り返りとは何かを授業で教えることで精一杯だった。教科書を皆で輪読しながら、その内容を理解させ、院生たちのこれまでの学習歴を振り返らせることに追われていた。しかし同時にこれだけ教えたのだから院生たちは「自然に」振り返りができるようになるだろうとも考えていた。

それがゆえに、2015年当時の教師教育者 Z は、現職教師 X、Y の授業視察に行き、学生たちのグループ・ディスカッションに参加した大学院生たちが、遅刻してきた学生の態度といった細かいことばかりに気を取られ、授業全体の構成や教師の意図などに気づかないこと、授業全体を俯瞰的に見ることができないことに正直内心ではいらだちを感じ、どうして教えたのに振り返りができないのだろうと思っていた。結局、授業の最後まで、大学院生たちは視察・参加した授業に対する振り返りをすることができずに終わってしまった。

しかし2018年になった今、振り返ると、院生で教師の卵だった彼らが、俯瞰的に現職教師 X、Y の授業を振り返ることはかなり難しいことだったのだとようやく気づいた。また新米教員だった数十年前の自分を振り返っても、最初から授業を俯瞰的に見ることはできていなかったことに気づいた。すなわち、2015年当時の教師教育者 Z は、自分自身の振り返りも十分にできていなかった

のである。教歴 30 年以上の教師として大学院生たちに対峙はしていたが、教師の卵である大学院生たちの状況は新米時代の自分自身であることに気づいていなかった。その結果、大学院生たちの振り返りのプロセスを俯瞰的に見ることができず、彼らがどうして振り返りがうまくできないかの理由に気づいていなかった。その結果、大学院生たちの振り返りをうまくサポートすることもできていなかったのである。教科教育法の授業担当者として大学院生たちに振り返りの重要性をわかってほしい、そして現職教師 X、Y の授業への参加・視察で実践して欲しいと思うあまり、大学院生たちの振り返りの困難さに気づいていなかったし、十分なサポートもできていなかった。教師教育者としての役割を演じることができていなかったのである。言い換えれば、教科教育法の担当者として、授業の目的の達成には注意を向けていたが、教師教育者としての役割への注意が足りなかったのかもしれない。教師自身もいくつかの役割を同時に行う必要があるし、柔軟性も必要であるが、それは容易なことでない。

現職教師もジャーナル、インタビューデータ分析およびディスカッションを通して研究に従事していた当初よりも、多くのことが見えてきたと感じている。研究の一環である授業後の面談は、現職教師にとっては授業に参加した大学院生と話す機会となり、自分が今まで疑問に思っていたがなかなか他者に尋ねることができなかったことを尋ねる絶好の場であった。大学院生からのコメントが全ての学生の見解を代表するものではないが、「学生」の視点からのコメントに現職教師は励まされたり、考えたりする機会が与えられた。そして大学院生にたいして「同僚」の視点からのコメントも望んでいたが、彼らに「同僚」の視点を持つことは必ずしも容易なことではなかったことが今になってわかる。上記の教師教育者の振り返り同様、彼らを同僚としてサポートすることができなかった、彼らを振り返りに導くこともできなかったことを今になって実感している。

大学院生をサポートすることができなかったのは教師教育者、現職教師が教師教育者、としての役割を演じることができなかったということも示唆する。本研究のひとつの狙いは様々な視点を通してからの複眼的視点の涵養であり、現職教師 X、Y、Z も研究者、教師教育者、同僚等の役割を演じることを目的としていた。しかしデータ分析から大学院生たちを振り返りの段階において「概念化 (abstract conceptualization)」のような俯瞰的、メタ認知的視点を持つように導くことができなかったことがわかる。例えば、A さんが X の授業ではスマホを弄る R 君が気になっていても自分の授業では注意をしないという矛盾について現職教師 X や教師教育者 Z の関わり方である。ジャーナルやインタビューデータの分析から A さんに対する質問が遠回しであり、A さんには質問の意図が伝わっていないように感じられる。当時は大学院生達のことをまだあまりよく知らず、遠慮をしていたこともあるが、X や Z が教師教育者としての役割を認識できていなかったとも言えるだろう。矛盾のない個人はいないであろう、しかし、矛盾に気がつくことは彼らの教員としての成長へと繋がるのではないだろうか。そのためにはもう少し直接的な質問の仕方をしてよかったであろう。また同様に自分は L2 学習者のサポートができないと言って、自分の教師としての強みに気づ

いていなかったCさんに対しても、当時の教師教育者Z、Xは同様に十分なサポートができていなかったことがうかがえる。

研究を始めて3年立ち、その間、3人の共同研究者X、Y、Zが何度もディスカッションをし、当時の様子を反芻し、ジャーナルやインタビューデータを何度も見返しながら、自分自身も振り返りのサイクルを何度も繰り返すことで、以前気づいていなかったことにようやく気づいている。大学院生だけでなく、教師自身も振り返りのサイクルを繰り返すことで学びが深まる。また、共同研究者たちとディスカッションすることが振り返りの大きな助けとなることがわかった。

## 6. 教育的示唆:振り返りへと導くための提案

振り返りの概念を授業で導入したからといって、学習者が振り返りに従事するとは限らない。本研究で明らかになったのは大学院生達が振り返りに関して困難だったのは自分の教師認知や自分の気づきなどを「言語化できなかった」こと、さらに俯瞰的な視点を涵養することであった。言語化がなければ Korthagen et al. (2001) の言うところの「本質的な諸相の気づき」には繋がらないであろう。ここで、振り返りの第一歩である言語化を促すために、また俯瞰的な視点を促すために具体的な方法をいくつか紹介したい。

### 6.1. 面談時における質問を多様化する

#### 様々な視点を促す質問をする

単に「事実」や情報を尋ねる「何をしましたか?」、「何を感じましたか?」という質問のみならず「それはどういうことだと思いますか?」など自己を俯瞰的に見ることを促す質問をすることは有用であろう。本研究の面談では「何をしましたか」、「何を感じましたか」という質問により大学院生が自分が授業を行う、または授業に参加した際に感じたこと、気づいたことを中心に話を進めていった。しかしこれらの質問のみでは自分の感じていたことを一方向からしか見なすことができないのではないかとと思われる。これは前述した Farrell (2015) の振り返りの層にとける conceptual では“Why do I do it?”という質問から教師が自己の実践の裏付けとなる理由を自己に問うことと繋がる。

#### 自分ができることについて具体的に質問をする

たとえば、Cさんに対し、13歳から英語母語話者に囲まれて英語のサポートもなく、一人で英語を学んだ自分の経歴を振り返るような質問をし、その過程でもしどのようなサポートがあれば英語習得がもっとスムーズだったかを考えさせるような質問である。その当時の自分が欲していたサポ

ートを今なら自分が学生たちに与えることができるのではないかと気づきを促し、英国で一人で英語を学んだ自分の教師としての強みはどこかに気づくように導くようなことである。

## 6.2. 参加者が自分のデータを読む

参加者にジャーナル、インタビュー等自分のデータを読む機会を与えるのも自己の実践、考えを俯瞰的に見ることに繋がるだろう。例えば、Aさんにジャーナルやインタビューを書き起こしたものを読んでもらい、Xの授業を受けている学生がスマホをさわっているのに対し、なぜ注意しないのかと言っているのに対し、自分が教えている高校で生徒がスマホをいじっている場合、一度は注意するがそれ以上はしない、後は自己責任であるとしている。自分の言ったこと、書いたことを読んでもらい、自己の矛盾等に気づいてもらうのも一つの案である。

## 6.3. 様々な振り返りのアクティビティを導入する

異文化コミュニケーション・トレーニングで使われている DIE メソッド（八代、荒木、樋口、山本、コミサロフ、2002）の導入

実際に起こったこと(D, description) とそれに対する解釈 (I, interpretation) や評価 (E, Evaluation)を分けることを奨励する。叙述と解釈、評価を分けることで、他者の視点に気づき、他者の解釈を俯瞰的に行えるように促す。

たとえば、大学院生たちが授業中の態度が気になるとしばしば言及していたR君についてだが、彼らはR君について言及するとき「授業にジュースを飲みながら、悪びれずに遅れてきた」、「授業中スマホをいじっているやる気のない」などと、「悪びれずに」とか「やる気のない」といった解釈を入れて言及していた。R君の授業中の言動を解釈を入れずに、彼の言動をまず叙述させることで、自分たちの解釈や評価だけでなく、R君の側から見た彼自身の解釈や評価はどういうものかについて考えさせるのである。

叙述 「授業にジュースを飲みながら遅れてきた。」

院生の解釈 「授業に遅れてきて態度が悪い」

R君の解釈 「ちょっと遅れただけ。」

院生の評価 「やる気がない。」

R君の評価 「皆も時々、遅刻している。ちょっとくらいの遅刻はどうってことない」

叙述 「R君がスマホをいじっている」

院生の解釈 「スマホをさわって遊んでいる」

R君の解釈 「単語の意味がわからないのでスマホで調べよう」

院生の評価 「やる気がない」

R君の解釈 「単語を調べたり、僕は一生懸命勉強している」

R君の言動を叙述、解釈、評価に分けて振り返ることで、院生たち側からの解釈や評価だけでなく、R君の側からの解釈や評価を考えることができる。その結果、自分たちが気づかなかったR君の事情や思いに気づくことができる。上記の例が示している通り、DIEは自己に対する振り返りというよりはむしろ他者の言動を振り返る際に自身を俯瞰的な解釈へと導く一方法ではないかと思われる。

#### 模範としている先生について他者と一緒に振り返る（観察の徒弟性からの脱却を促す）

非常勤講師として教壇に立っていたAさん、Dさんは、授業やインタビュー、ジャーナルの中で、大学で自分が実際経験した語学の授業の進め方や教科教育法で習ったやり方が通じないので、高校時代や予備校時代の先生で模範とする先生の教え方を踏襲していると答えていた。Aさんは、授業中寝ている生徒に注意はせず、勉強するかしないかは自己責任だと言って、聞いている生徒たちだけに向かって授業をしていた高校時代の先生の教え方を真似していると言っていた。注意しても騒がしい生徒に日本語を教えているDさんは、予備校で習った先生の教え方にならって教えていると答えていた。まさに「観察の徒弟制」が見られた。

「観察の徒弟制」からの脱却には、大学院生たちに、高校時代や予備校時代の自分が模範としている教師について、どこに惹かれているのか、何がその教師の強みなのかを考えさせる。その上で、その教師が教えていたコンテキストと大学院生が講師として英語や日本語を教えているコンテキストは同じなのかを質問する。また模範としている教師の教え方の弱点についても考えさせる。すなわち、自分たちが観察したのは、授業だけであり、授業の目的設定、事前準備や事後の分析等の観察はしておらず、教育的枠組みから教師の行動を理解していないゆえに不正確・不適切・不十分であることに気づくことを促す。

## 6.4. Thinking at the Edge(TAE)などのストラテジーを導入する

感情を言葉に表すことは容易でないことが多い。Thinking at the Edge (TAE) は心理学者の Gendlin (1978) が提案したもので、「感情」を言語化へと導く手段の一つである。Nagamine et al. (2018) によると Tokumaru (2011) はこれを次のような3段階及び5つのステップに分け、徐々に言語化を試みることができる。



	Part 1 (Step1-5)	Part 2 (Step 6-9)	Part 3 (Step 10-14)
Purpose	Speaking from the felt sense	Finding patterns from facets	Building theory
Form	Grasp form, deepening form, etc.	Pattern extract form, Intersect form, etc.	Term relating form, Term searching form, etc.
Result	One's own sentence	Multiple patterns	Conceptual system

図4：TAE 概要 (Nagamine et al., 2018)

それぞれのステップにワークシートが付随され、興味深いのはそれを使って感情を言語化する活動を多くすることにより、自分の「感情」を他者に的確に伝える「トレーニング」が可能となることである。

## 7. おわりに

この研究の目的は、「はじめに」で述べた通り、教師教育を大学全体の単位として捉え、大学院と大学の共通英語プログラムの連携により教師教育者（大学院の教員）、現職教員（共通英語プログラムの教員）、教員養成段階の学生（大学院生）の三者の成長を目指すことであった。三者それぞれが教師認知を振り返り、2年間という長期にわたり、三者間で相互的に関わり合い、振り返りを通して、複眼的視点を涵養することにより成長することを目的としたものであった。「ディスカッション」で書いたように、2015年秋から冬にかけて行った院生との授業や院生が参加した授業見学、授業参加とその前後に行ったインタビューやジャーナル、またその後の follow-up を分析した結果、大学院生の振り返りの難しさが明らかになった。具体的には大学院生たちが、見学、参加した現職教師の授業を振り返ることや、自分自身の教師認知について振り返ることが困難であることがわかった。また教師教育者や現職教師たちも大学院生たちを振り返りに従事させることに困難さを感じ、うまくサポートすることができないでいた。また教師自身が振り返ることも決して容易ではなかった。

それでは、大学院生、教師教育者、現職教師の三者が互いに関わり合うことで、振り返りが起こらなかった、つまりメタ認知的視点を持たなかったのだろうか。そういうことでは決してない。まず、教師教育者と現職教師の教師三人は、2015年から今日まで三人で何度も話し合いを持ち、自分たちの研究について語り合い、振り返りに従事した。その結果、2015年当時は気づけなかったことに気づくことがしばしばあった。また教師三人は、ジャーナルやインタビューデータを何度も

読み返すことで、一人でも振り返りを行ってきた。それによって気づいたことも多々ある。教師自身も振り返りのサイクルを繰り返すことで学びが深まった。また共同研究者たちとディスカッションすることが振り返りの大きな助けとなった。

教師教育者、現職教師間での話し合い、データ分析に約2年を費やし、研究実施当時、またデータ分析の初期段階では自分達もデータをそして自分達の経験をメタ認知的に捉えていないことを痛感した。そこで、本研究が終了して約3年経ち、当時の大学院生だった研究参加者から話を聞いてみたいと思う気持ちが強くなった。そして2018年の夏にBさんとDさんからフォーカスグループとして話を聞くことができた。

院生たちが2015年当時から3年経ち、社会人として当時のことを振り返ってもらった。彼らも3年前に気づけなかったことに今、気づいたこともあるようである。

本研究、本研究の分析、論文執筆、そしてまだデータ分析は行っていないが、本研究後のフォーカスグループを通して以下のことが言えるように思う。

「振り返り」には終着点はなく、また個々が自身の営みの中で意識的、無意識的に行う実践であるということ。例えば、ある時、ある物事をメタ認知的に見る視点を涵養したからといい（例えばKorthagen, et al.の abstract conceptualization）、その後、全てのことをメタ認知的に見ることができるになるといった実践ではなく、様々な事象に対して、様々な振り返りの往還を繰り返しながら進んでいく。そしてそれが教師の成長ではないかと考える。

さらに振り返りの機会が **empowering**（啓蒙的）であるということ。個々の実践者を知識の所有者、その知識を振り返ることにより成長を遂げられる実践者という認識（Watanabe, 2016）において振り返りは **empowering** であると言われているが、そのみならず振り返りの機会が **empowering** なのであろう。意識的に振り返るという行為は自己の実践、考えをメタ認知的に見る、そして現在自己が置かれた場所における自己の実践・解釈を教師生活という自己の長期的な体験・経験の中でのひとつの点であるということを認識する機会である。この機会を与えられることにより、個々が自己の実践、考え方を俯瞰的に、そして異なる時間的軸を通して見直すことができ、過去の自己から自由になる機会なのであろう。

院生たちと一緒にこの3年間の研究を振り返ってみて、振り返るという行為に終わりはなく、時間を越え、場所を越え、何度も何度もくり返し従事する行為なのだと改めて実感した。院生、教師教育者、現職教師の三者が互いに関わり合うことで、振り返りを行ったこの研究は、まだまだ途上であり、これからも振り返りは続くのだと改めて確信した。

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## Information for Contributors

*Language Teacher Cognition Research Bulletin*, the refereed journal of the JACET SIG on Language Teacher Cognition, welcomes theoretical and empirical research articles and research reports that have been previously presented at our SIG research meetings/conferences (within two years).

Research areas of particular interest include (but are not limited to) the following:

- language teacher cognition
- language teacher emotions
- teacher research
- reflective practices
- teacher development
- teacher education
- Overviews of research and practice in related fields

The authors are requested to follow the latest edition of the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (APA).

## Editorial Policy

Different rhetorical styles of writing are accepted. Manuscripts that do not follow the required APA style will be rejected in the initial screening phase. All submissions are peer-reviewed for the following purposes:

- To enhance the academic and educational value of the study
- To reduce bias and error
- To ensure the accuracy of the information

Each submission is reviewed and evaluated by two reviewers selected from among the SIG members. The reviewers make one of the following recommendations to SIG Journal Chief-editor.

A: Accept

B: Accept after revision

C: Do not accept (Peer-review after revision)

In the event that the reviewers' evaluations differ, the editorial board members make a final decision.

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