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Foreword

Soon teaching English as a subject in state primary schools will officially start in Japan. Concepts of language teachers will be changed because a large number of primary teachers start to teach English. If it goes well, I believe language teacher cognition research will be more necessary and helpful than ever. In such situations, I am deeply sorry that we have lost one sincere teacher researcher and teacher educator. This issue therefore should be dedicated to late Dr Takako Nishino who passed away at the age of 64 on Sunday, 10th September, 2017. I, chair of JACET SIG on LTC, would like to say many thanks to her great contribution to language teacher cognition research in Japan domestically as well as internationally. To this issue, she had already submitted her paper titled 'Sociocognitive Alignment in an EFL Classroom: A Multimodal Analysis of an Experienced Teacher's Practices' before her decease. She had wanted to post the paper to an international journal but unfortunately she couldn't due to her hospitalization. I do hope you will read her paper.

Language teacher cognition research, which has created some substantial traditions thus far for some 20 years in 2017, still has not solved any key problems, such as terminological problems, methodological problems and contextual problems. As for the terminological problem, the key term 'teacher cognition, cannot be generalized or commonized even among researchers who are interested in what teachers know, believe, think, learn and do. Borg (2003: 81) defines it as 'unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching—what teachers know, believe, and think.'   Dr Nishino gave a presentation at the LTC Seminar on October 22nd, 2016, when she proposed the necessity of the sociocognitive perspective or sociocognition in Language Teacher Cognition Research. She especially focus on the term 'alignment,' which is defined as 'the complex means by which human beings effect coordinated interaction and maintain that interaction in dynamically adaptive ways' and suggested that 'research should attempt to connect the notion of alignment to those frameworks in order to reveal what language teachers do in this respect in the classroom' (see her paper on this issue). May her soul rest in peace.

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Editorial: Student teachers' cognitions on learning disabilities

Shigeru Sasajima
Toyo Eiwa University

AILA congress in Rio de Janeiro in 2017

In July, 2017, I visited Rio de Janeiro to attend the18th World Congress of Applied Linguistics called AILA 2017, where I gave a presentation titled 'Language teachers' cognitions on language, culture and teacher development as complex adaptive systems,' which refers to how Japanese EFL teachers in secondary schools work in complex situations, compared to language teachers in other countries. I especially highlighted language teachers' *kokoro* (in the Japanese word connotating a hybrid concept including mind, spirit, heart, cognition and emotion) in such complex classroom situations, based on complexity theory (cf. Larsen- Freeman, 2010; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008).

Complexity theory, briefly speaking, attempts to explain complex phenomenon that is hard to explain by traditional theories or systems. It generally proposes that the systems act as a whole and are capable of undergoing transformation in order to adapt to a new environment. The presentation I had conducted at the congress focused on Japanese EFL teachers' cognitions on language, culture and teacher development, which are all grasped as complex adaptive systems (CAS)(Ellis & Larsen-Freeman, 2009). That is because I assume non-native English-speaking teachers or Japanese EFL teachers in Japan work in very complex educational systems where they cannot just teach English but also have to bear multiple burdens at school. While having thus far done research about language teacher cognition for the past 10 years and always thinking about teaching English in Japanese educational contexts as an English teacher and teacher educator for more than 30 years, I as a teacher researcher have realized that it is necessary to consider teachers, learners and their classrooms as complex entities or systems or CAS.

When touring around the city of Rio de Janeiro during the congress, I saw many street children begging or selling something to tourists and refugee-like poor people living in the areas called 'favelas' which are slums or shantytowns in Brazil. The congress was held at a beach hotel in the resort area, which clearly reflects the difference between the rich and the poor. Among the plenary talks in the congress, I was impressed by Marilda Cavalcanti, who is an applied linguist in Brazil, talking about marginal scenarios and minority fields in applied linguistics in Brazil, such as immigrants, refugees or disable or impaired people. Her

talk inspired me with some issues that have been less concerned with in language teacher education programs in Japan. In language teacher cognition research as well, researchers have not discussed marginal topics such as teachers' cognitions about learning disabilities or disorders in English classrooms.

Language teacher cognition on learning disabilities or disorders

Language teacher cognition (LTC) research, which has primarily been highlighted in this research group called JACET SIG on LTC, has covered a gradual diversity of research areas including beliefs, knowledge, identity, development, motivation, relationships with students, classroom issues, and education systems, all of which are related to EFL teachers or student teachers in Japan. Most EFL teachers in Japan work at secondary school now and should consider their students' educational development and have plenty of work to do at school since their primary duty is students' personality development. They are supposed to statutorily support any students including students with learning disabilities or disorders (LD), which can be one of the marginal issues for English language teaching methodology, although it certainly may be part of the main topics in the field of educational psychology or special education. Although LTC research is primarily concerned with applied linguistics and classroom research, it should be necessary to consider marginal and peripheral issues around EFL teachers' work. I would like to emphasize that LTC research should include any kind of teacher research.

There are a variety of definitions of LD in different disciplines actually, since LD is still a broad term. Here the following definitions or descriptions provided by British Columbia Ministry of Education (2011: p. 6) can be helpful to discuss LD in LTC research.

> Learning disabilities refer to a number of conditions that might affect the acquisition, organization, retention, understanding or use of verbal or nonverbal information. These disorders affect learning in individuals who otherwise demonstrate at least average abilities essential for thinking and/or reasoning. As such, learning disabilities are distinct from global intellectual disabilities.

The key point of this definition is that LD should not be intellectual disabilities and can just result from impairments in one or more processes related to perceiving, thinking, remembering or learning. Moreover, people with LD can vary and need the right support and intervention.

Learning disabilities are life-long. The way in which they are expressed may vary over an individual's lifetime, depending on the interaction between the demands of the environment and the individual's strengths and needs. Learning disabilities are suggested by unexpected academic under-achievement or achievement that is maintained only by unusually high levels of effort and support. And the definition continues:

EFL teachers especially need to understand LD and know what kind of support and intervention are required in their classrooms so that LD students should not have unexpected academic under-achievement and have appropriate achievement in learning English. Learning English as a foreign language may require some additional support for LD students, but most EFL teachers could not have any professional knowledge and skills in terms of what to teach in the classroom and how to teach English for their specific needs. Although they have already had general knowledge and skills of LD and how to take care of LD students individually by separating from other students in another room. It means that Special Needs Education (SNE) teachers are in charge of LD students exclusively. EFL teachers may not need to think about them.

Specific learning disabilities or disorders in Japan

For the past 40 years, I have worked as an English teacher at secondary school and university. Of course, I actually have experienced teaching to the students who probably had such disorders or some difficulties when learning English in the classroom. However, in many cases, they were not then specifically identified as LD learners and I often wondered how to cope with these cases appropriately due to less specific guidelines. As such, many teachers those days actually did not know much about how to teach students with LD in their classrooms, even if they had any knowledge about LD. Even if teachers had understood that some special care is needed for students with LD, they could not have known any specific guidelines or supports for specific learning disabilities or disorders (SLD), which means 'a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, that may manifest itself in the imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or to do mathematical calculations,' according to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in the US, which is a federal law that requires schools to serve the educational needs of eligible students with disabilities.

In Japan, SNE conventionally has focused on providing substantial and detailed education at special institutes and settings, such as special schools for the blind or the deaf, impaired schools, and special education classes. Now in many schools in Japan SLD students are learning in the *Tsukyu* education system, which refers to providing some supporting SNE classes separating from normal classes (cf. MEXT, 1994). However, most teachers do not always have any specific guidelines for how to support SLD students in the classroom even now. For example in English classrooms, EFL teachers are encouraged to teach English through English in their classrooms, but they normally teach to 40 students while considering teaching methods, materials, activities, and assessment at a time. It would be hard to see each student's personal property deliberately in such situations, so most teachers are liable to avoid any trouble or intervention to support SLD students to learn appropriately in the classroom and ask their colleagues to take care of them in some SNE classes. Although inclusive education is introduced to primary and secondary schools (cf. MEXT, 2012), I wonder if the actual support could not be active in real classrooms and teachers cannot support SLD students in their actual classrooms.

SLD in language teacher education and EFL teachers' cognitions in Japan

As for preservice teacher education in Japan, the basic knowledge and system of SNE have been taught in the teacher education curriculum. However, they seem to exclusively focus on the understanding of SNE and students who cannot cope with school activities including learning and disciplines. In most cases, student teachers could not study SLD elaborately unless they are individually aware of it. Actually in their 3-week teaching practicum, they could not know and experience what to teach and how to teach their subjects to SLD students in teaching practices.

In English language teaching or English language teacher education, I always wonder to what extent teacher educators and teachers understand these issues of SLD students in the classroom. Of course, teachers consider slow learners and their language learning aptitudes. However in many cases, English language teaching methodology has not focused on how SLD students need to learn English and what approaches are appropriate to them. Foreign language learning can be somewhat different from other subjects because the learning target is a different language from their mother tongue or Japanese, which means that teachers are encouraged to use English while teaching English according to the current trend of language learning based on Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). I assume these issues should be studied by teachers and student teachers who teach English in primary and secondary

school in Japan. It is necessary to discuss the issues of SLD in language teacher education, especially as the preservice teacher education stage.

Sasajima (2012) pointed out that EFL secondary school teachers in Japan work in more complex situations than language teachers in most developed countries and they feel worried about some dual burdens: teaching English and educating students through the whole school activities. He proposed the concept map representing the issues of school culture clearly as in the following diagram.
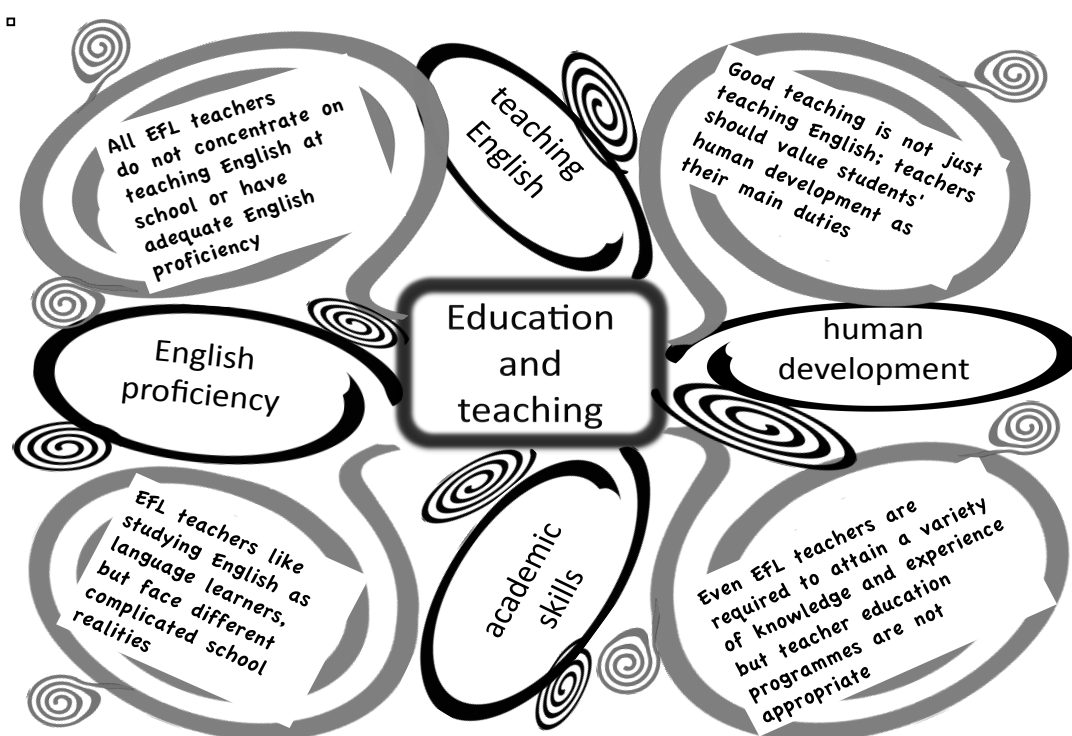
In the diagram, teachers probably say that *Kyoiku*, which means education in Japanese, is an indispensable key word even when teaching subjects in the classroom. According to the research, many EFL teachers seemed to have sacrificed their time to teach, care for and educate their students. As the society expects that schoolteachers should commit themselves to students' human development as well as academic development, they are worried about the dual burdens: school education and teaching English. In terms of educating SLD students in the classroom, they may feel responsible for what to teacher in English classrooms and how to teach English to them as well as other students together in rather large class with 40 students normally. The diagram shows how EFL teachers believe, think, know, do and reflect on when working as a schoolteacher in Japan. Of course, it is complex and dynamic, and it is not static or always changing due to each context or factor. We should consider these realities among teachers.

Sasajima (2012: 23) defines LTC as the term to describe these language teachers' beliefs, thoughts, knowledge, learning, and feelings as follows:

> LTC is a complex set of mental, social, cognitive and emotional processes (e.g. believing, thinking, learning, and knowing) in which language teachers engage in relation to their teaching activities. It is also the outcome of these processes (e.g. their beliefs, learning, assumptions, and knowledge).

Teachers are also researchers, so they are always aware of their inner world as well as their outer events. SLD therefore should be considered both in preservice and in-service teacher education programs as part of ELT methodology programs. That is because knowledge and experiences of SLD are essential for the current teaching techniques in practical language classrooms. SLD may not just be a topic for SNE, but can also be an important theme of learner variables as well. It should be studied as part of learner aptitudes or learner abilities, which are necessary to plan, do, check and act when teaching languages.

SLD: dyslexia, dysgraphia and others

SLD may be still a generic term, since the term LD itself can already include any kind of learning difficulties, such as slow and unmotivated learners, and it also takes time to identify LD. It is not so easy to diagnose what types of SLD students have. However, it is necessary to understand what types SLD EFL teachers should know. In order to clarify it, it is important to identify some common types of SLD that can affect the areas of reading and written expression, which are closely related to English language teaching (see National Center for Learning Disabilities (2014) for more details about each SLD).

First of all, **dyslexia** is the most common type of SLD that is associated with reading. Features of SLD in reading vary from person to person, but they have some common characteristics: 1) difficulties with phonemic awareness which is the ability to notice, think about and work with individual sounds in words; 2) phonological processing which involves detecting and discriminating differences in phonemes or speech sounds; and 3) difficulties with word decoding, fluency, rate of reading, rhyming, spelling, vocabulary, comprehension and written expression. Dyslexia is the most prevalent and well-recognized subtype of SLD. In most cases, it would be difficult to identify dyslexic students who learn English, which is different from learning Japanese.

Dysgraphia is also associated with SLD in writing and can affect written expression. It can appear as poor handwriting, difficulties with spelling, and trouble writing down thoughts on paper. Features of SLD in writing are often seen in people who struggle with dyslexia. Dysgraphia varies from person to person and at different ages and stages of development. The common characteristics include: 1) tight, awkward pencil grip and body position; 2) tiring quickly while writing, and avoiding writing or drawing tasks; 3) trouble forming letter shapes as well as inconsistent spacing between letters or words; 4) difficulty writing or drawing on a line or within margins; 5) trouble organizing thoughts on paper; 6) trouble keeping track of thoughts already written down; 6) difficulty with syntax structure and grammar; and 7) large gap between written ideas and understanding demonstrated through speech. Compared to dyslexia, dysgraphia can mainly affect handwriting in the classroom, so it is easier to see the signs of dysgraphia before learning English. In most cases, computers are helpful when learning English.

In addition, there are other associated types of SLD, which are all related to weak ability to receive, process, associate, retrieve and express information. They can also help explain why students have trouble with learning and performance and EFL teachers also need to understand them. Some types of SLD that teachers should understand are shown as follows:

- **Auditory Processing Deficit or Auditory Processing Disorder,** such as auditory discrimination, auditory figure-ground discrimination, auditory memory, and auditory sequencing

- **Visual Processing Deficit or Visual Processing Disorder,** such as visual discrimination, visual figure-ground discrimination, visual sequencing, visual motor processing, visual memory, visual closure, and spatial relationships

- **Non-Verbal Learning Disabilities,** such as troubles with math computation and problem solving, visual-spatial tasks and motor coordination, and reading body language and social cues

- **Executive Functioning Deficits,** which describes weaknesses in the ability to plan, organize, strategize, remember details and manage time and space efficiently

- **Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD)**, whose common signs are missing details, making careless mistakes, having problems sustaining attention in tasks or play,

failing to not follow through on instructions, avoiding tasks that require sustained mental effort, fidgeting and squirming while seated, getting up and moving around in situations when staying seated is expected, blurting out an answer before a question has been completed, and having trouble waiting his or her turn

SLD can actually represent different aspects of difficulties in real classrooms, so it might be hard to read their specific signs and symptoms. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) encourages teachers or student teachers to understand SNE, which is called *Tokubetsu Shien Kyoiku* in Japanese, and promotes it in regular schools as part of inclusive education. In regular schools, students with special education needs can have individual supports while learning in the regular classroom depending on the cases. As I mentioned, this is called the *Tsukyu* system. Many SLD students learn in this system, but the fact is that not all students learn through the *Tsukyu* system, so there can probably be a large number of students learning without any special or individual support. It is possible that there may be a substantial number of students who have not been identified or diagnosed as SLD, because it can comprise a broad range of learning difficulties. It means that teachers including student teachers can have burdens to teach their subjects while considering students with some possible SLD.

How student teachers understand SLD in their teacher education courses

In Japanese preservice teacher education, SNE or understanding SLD is taught to student teachers primarily through educational psychology or other related courses. In terms of English language teaching, teaching methodology courses do not specifically teach how to teach SLD students normally. In my own EFL teacher education experiences, I have not taught SLD as the primary topics. I am now teaching the following courses: ELT methodology classes, introduction of teaching professions, teaching practicum, and seminar on teacher practices. To be honest, I have not focused on the issues of SLD so often, although I have sometimes talked about the basic knowledge of dyslexia or ADHD as one of the education topics. Most student teachers have some knowledge about SLD, but it seems that they do not have any practical knowledge and skills for how to support SLD students.

Compared to the school or classroom systems in European countries where I have visited schools and observed language classrooms, the supporting system in Japan is considered to be rather complex and I assume each teacher's responsibility can be rather hard. That is because the education system and the teacher role in Japan are different from those in

Europe, where each teacher can focus on teaching in the classroom but does not have any additional work, such as the Japanese traditional unique pastoral care system, extra curricular activities and sports coaching. In such situations, teaching practices student teachers have to do for three weeks at least in their teacher education courses are very short and hard to understand many aspects of the educational activities including the SNE system and SLD students.

Accordingly I wonder to what extent student teachers are aware of SLD in their teacher education courses and the 3-week teaching practicum, and it is necessary to see how they think about SLD in the final stage of their teacher education courses. Finally I thus discuss student teachers' cognitions about SLD based on the teaching practicum that 11 student teachers experienced.

Student teachers' cognitions about SLD

I asked eleven student teachers who had had a teaching practicum at secondary school. On the whole, they all had good teaching practices for three weeks, whether their performances were good or bad. They taught two subjects: English and social study. They already had some basic knowledge about LD or SLD before beginning their teaching practicum, but their primary work naturally focused on teaching in the classroom. The purpose of teaching practicum is to have an experience of school activities, so they do not only teach their subject but also observe and do a variety of school activities as a teacher trainee, including SNE. During their teaching practicum, some of them took care of or taught LD students who need special care in the resource room. They were asked or suggested by teachers that they should call each LD student's name specifically in the classroom because he or she might not listen to them. Student teachers then learned that LD students need special care and are different from other students. However, you should make sure that those LD students are somewhat different from SLD students.

Student teachers did not have any preparation to teach English or social study to LD students, but it was actually not necessary in most cases, since LD students seemed to have an individual support either from a teaching assistant in the classroom or separately in their resource room. Their role was to take care of students or teach easy things to such LD students who lack in intellectual development, so they do not need to teach them in the resource room. On the other hand, when they taught to students in regular classroom, they exclusively focused on teaching to all the students. Even if they had SLD students in the classroom, they could not do anything to them. However, it seems that they just realized there

were some SLD students in the classroom. And they have learned that it would be hard for a teacher alone to teach SLD students together with other students and SLD students need to be always supported by a teaching assistant in the classroom.

One student teacher said based on her experiences at school that teachers are too busy teaching their subject and educating students as well as considering LD or SLD students who need special care. And she added that she could not do like those teachers did and SLD students should be taken special care of by the support of another teacher or with the systematic support such as the curriculum and the computer use. I assumed it might be difficult to see what kind of supports each LD or SLD student need and how different they are from other students. And it is important to understand that SLD students are not intellectually or emotionally impaired. Although student teachers had fair practical school experiences for three weeks, I am afraid they might have had insufficient awareness about SLD. Three weeks are very short in order for student teachers to understand the issues of SLD.

Necessity for language teachers' awareness of SLD

There has been less if any language teacher cognition research about SLD. At primary school or secondary school, teachers know that inclusive education is now being promoted and it seems that many teachers have positive attitudes about the promotion of SNE comprehensively in accordance with the MEXT policy, but I am afraid they are less aware of SLD in terms of classroom teaching, such as teaching English. For example, most English teachers cannot so easily identify who SLD students are or what type of SLD students develop when teaching English. In other words, they do not have time to think about SLD or cannot consider SLD students due to their busy schoolwork. In the current educational system in Japan, teachers have required knowledge about SLD, but they may not have appropriate time to assess and teach students who need some special care when teaching in the classroom. The current SNE policy in Japan tries to provide inclusive education for all students and promote the *Tsukyu* system in regular schools. It is a good policy, but teachers may not be aware of SLD students. Especially EFL teachers do not have any knowledge and skills to teach SLD students or students who need some special care, including students who cannot come to school or non-Japanese-speaking students. Therefore in the preservice teacher education program, the English teaching methodology course should include how to teach SLD students. If they do so, they will be able to consider SLD in practice and be aware of each student's personal characteristics and aptitudes.

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Sociocognitive Alignment in an EFL Classroom:
A Multimodal Analysis of an Experienced Teacher's Practices

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Abstract

This paper investigates how one experienced Japanese EFL teacher helps students align with their learning environment. A 3.5-minute classroom interaction video-recorded in a Japanese high school was analyzed using multimodal interaction analysis. Results show that: (1) the teacher uses signs, gestures, discourse markers, and the L1 to help his students align with the language being learned; (2) the students align with a chance to participate by recognizing the teacher's signals, including proxemics, pointing, and shifting gaze; and (3) the teacher enhances his students' emotional alignment with him by sharing jokes, using solidarity expressions, and revealing his own identity as a language learner. These findings suggest that experienced teachers use various teaching techniques and tools and that teacher education courses should provide opportunities for detailed classroom observations to uncover teachers' tacit pedagogical knowledge and skills.

Introduction

Research on teachers' beliefs and practices has developed remarkably since the 1980s. Having reviewed previous research, Borg (2003) coined the term "teacher cognition research" and presented his conceptual framework, which led to further expansion in research in both ESL and EFL contexts. Borg (2006, p. 1) then revised the term as

"language teacher cognition [hereafter LTC] research" and refined the framework to emphasize the fact that the classroom itself is part of the context. More recently, there have been a number of studies of LTC using broader conceptual frameworks, including sociocultural theory or activity theory (e.g., all 14 studies in Johnson & Golombek, 2011), complex dynamic theory (e.g., Feryok, 2010; Sasajima, 2012), and communities of practice (e.g., Nishino, 2012; Tsui, 2004). All the theories employed in these studies start from a similar standpoint, namely that language learning and teaching are dynamic processes wherein psychological and social factors interplay and influence each other.

The sociocognitive framework used for this study follows similar lines. According to a sociocognitive approach to SLA (Atkinson, 2002), social and cognitive aspects of language function interdependently along with various ecological elements and affordances.[1] This study reports from this sociocognitive perspective on how one experienced EFL teacher helps his students align to their learning environment. I begin by briefly explaining the sociocognitive perspective and then review previous research. Next, I present an excerpt from field data and analyze a 3.5-minute classroom interaction with the focus on the teacher's utterances and behaviors. Finally, based on this analysis, I make suggestions for LTC research.

Conceptual Framework: A Sociocognitive Perspective

A sociocognitive perspective was originally suggested as an alternative approach to SLA by Atkinson (2002). It claims that language learning is a sociocognitive phenomenon wherein psychological and sociocultural processes interplay in a complex and dynamic manner.

Three principles underlie this perspective (Atkinson, 2010a). The first is *inseparability*, which claims that language use is deeply integrated with our bodies and the environment. This claim is supported by embodied and extended views of cognition (e.g., Barselou, 2008; Smith, 2005; Wilson & Clark, 2009). Research on embodied cognition indicates that the

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[1] An affordance consists of a resource provided by the environment to a person or an animal, and if the person or the animal has the ability to perceive and use it, the resource can be used as a tool (Gibson, 1979).

cognitive work we do depends heavily on the state of our body, not just that of our brains, and research on extended cognition reveals that the physical, social, and cultural environment constitute our individual cognitive system. In other words, interaction between the body and the world strongly influences the cognitive process. Thus language use that involves cognitive work is integrated with our environment, including our bodies, other humans, signs, and tools.

The second principle is *adaptivity*. That is, language use is social action, which enables us to learn, teach, make friends, or love. To enable such social actions to become coordinated interactions, we constantly adapt to our complex and ever-changing environment. For example, in everyday conversation, we change our speech styles according to setting, topic, relationships between interlocutors, background knowledge, and linguistic competence.

The third and most important principle is *alignment*, an indispensable component of human interaction. Alignment is defined as "the complex means by which human beings effect coordinated interaction and maintain that interaction in dynamically adaptive ways" (Atkinson, Churchill, Nishino, & Okada, 2007, p. 169). Alignment takes place not only between humans but also between humans and things in the world. When we say we align with a tool such as language rather than with a person, we refer to the process by which we access that tool smoothly and manipulate it such that we can adjust to shifts in the demands made upon us by whatever task we are performing.

We can easily find alignment taking place in our daily lives. When a mother smiles at her baby, the baby smiles back. When many people walk along the street, ride an escalator, or squeeze onto a crowded station platform, they align with each other by keeping a certain distance and adjusting their behavior to that of others so that they interfere only minimally with each other (though the degree to which this occurs may vary across cultures). Likewise, in our language use, we align with our interlocutors in using turn-taking, intonation, back channeling, gaze, gestures, and facial expressions to attain and maintain coordinated interaction.

Although the three principles outlined above exemplify language use as described in Atkinson (2010a), the sociocognitive perspective draws no boundary between language use

and language learning (Atkinson, 2002), and this extends to the three foundational principles. That is, when learning language: (a) our mind, body, and the environment work interdependently (Principle 1); (b) we attune to changes in the environment (Principle 2); and alignment is crucial in order that learning may take place (Principle 3).

On this basis, it can be inferred that language teachers will help students' coordinated interaction with the target language by providing them with various affordances with which to align. This study therefore investigates how one EFL teacher facilitates students' alignment with the environment in the classroom. By doing so, it aims to uncover what language teachers could (or should) do in this respect to enhance students' learning.

Literature Review and Statement of Purpose

Recent research on language learning has investigated how teachers facilitate students' alignment in the L2 learning context. Atkinson et al. (2007) video-recorded EFL tutoring sessions in which a Japanese junior high school student learned the present perfect tense. Their analysis of the data revealed that the tutor used meaning-making signs (e.g., gestures, tone of voice) and artifacts (e.g., a worksheet and a pen) to facilitate the learner's alignment with the focal language form. Churchill, Okada, Nishino, and Atkinson (2010) analyzed the same data as in Atkinson et al. (2007) and reported that the tutor's symbiotic gestures[2] facilitated the learner's alignment with the new grammar form and prompted her participation in L2 learning. In a study-guided by sociocultural theory (e.g., Lantolf & Thorne, 2006), Smotrova and Lantolf (2013) observed instructional interactions in which teachers attempted to explain the meaning of English words to their students in EFL university classrooms in Ukraine. The authors found that speech-gesture units helped teachers and students co-construct the understanding of input and that alignment was observable in such joint meaning-making processes.

Those studies show that alignment between teachers and students facilitates learning. However, the first two studies were conducted as part of tutoring sessions. Only Smotrova

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[2] A symbiotic gesture is a gesture used along with talk, gaze, bodily orientation, and materials in the environment to highlight the focus of observation or learning (Goodwin, 2003).

and Lantolf (2013) investigated classroom interactions. In fact, little is known about how teachers enhance alignment in EFL classrooms.

However, a subset of classroom-based studies examined how teachers provide coordinated teacher-student or student-student interaction (e.g., Ohta, 2001; Sullivan, 2000; Toth, 2010). These studies do not use the notion of alignment but instead analyze the data by adopting similar concepts such as "scaffolding," "assisted performance," and "L2 assistance" (respectively) and investigate how teachers and students co-adapt to each other in the EFL classroom. However, these studies did not examine the participants' alignment with the tools and materials in their surroundings. Moreover, they mainly analyzed language and did not look into non-verbal behaviors. Thus, there is a need to delve into students' and teachers' alignment with both human and non-human affordances by observing both verbal and non-verbal behaviors.

Guided by a sociocognitive perspective, this study attempts to unveil the characteristics of teaching in an alignment-rich EFL classroom. My purpose is to investigate how one experienced Japanese EFL teacher enhances his students' alignment with their environment. To this end, I analyzed a 3.5-minute excerpt from a video-recorded lesson and discuss how the teacher facilitates students' coordinated interaction with himself, his language, and non-human affordances in the environment.

Method

Data collection

The focal participant in this study, Taro (pseudonym), is an EFL teacher at an agricultural high school in the central part of Japan. Taro reported that his students' average academic level was low and that many students had not studied English grammar or vocabulary in junior high school. Thus, he felt constrained to use a very basic textbook as it allowed the students to review the alphabet and the canonical word order of English. He also reported that it was difficult to use pair or group work because of the class management problems involved and that he generally gave teacher-fronted lessons. I selected him as a participant because: (a)

Taro and I belonged to the same teacher association so we could talk with each other openly; (b) he had a long English teaching career (25 years at the start of this study) and occasionally instructed a workshop in communicative teaching; and (c) he allowed me to video-record his lessons.

I observed English I, a required integrated 4-skills English course offered for first-year students, on three occasions from February 2006 to February 2007. I video-recorded the 50-minute lessons and took field notes during the lessons. I recursively watched the video-recorded data and took notes on the stages during which alignment took place. I then transcribed video segments particularly rich in alignment and analyzed them using multimodal interaction analysis (Atkinson, 2011; Norris, 2004, see below).There were 24 students in the classroom (17 males and 7 females, aged 15 to 16). The students were sitting in the four rows as assigned by Taro (see Appendix A). As the students were all under 18, the school's privacy policy did not allow me to video-record their faces. I therefore placed a video camera at the back of the classroom and a voice-recorder on the teacher's desk, which could catch only the voices of the students sitting in front. Thus, students' utterances and actions could not be transcribed comprehensively, constituting a limitation of this study.

Analysis

To investigate how Taro prompts alignment between himself and each student, between students, and with tools and signs in the environment, I employed multimodal interaction analysis (see Atkinson, 2011; Norris, 2004).Atkinson (2011, p. 152) defines multimodal interaction analysis as follows:

> This approach focuses on the use of complementary *semiotic resources* in performing sociocognitive action-via-interaction, including learning and teaching: (1) *language*; (2) *nonlinguistic vocal behavior*; (3) *gaze*; (4) *facial expression*; (5) *gesture*; (6) *head and body movement and orientation*; (7) *tools* (e.g., computers, grammar exercises); (8) *settings* (e.g., coffee shops, religious ceremonies); (9) *roles and relations* (e.g., expert-novice and family roles and relations, which are also power relations); and (10) *arrangements and practices* (e.g., participation frameworks, situated activity systems).

[italics in the original]

In this study, multimodal interaction analysis was conducted through the turn-by-turn sequential analysis of talk, gestures, and other semiotic resources in specific local and socio-historical contexts. This helps understand how the teacher facilitates students' alignment with human others and with the material environment.

Findings

According to my field notes, Taro's lessons generally consisted of three major sections: review, oral introduction, and choral reading and translation. Oral introduction is an activity in which the teacher explains the content of a passage in the textbook using the target language with the help of the chalkboard, pictures, gestures, and realia. I analyzed a 3.5-minute excerpt from one of Taro's oral introductions. The topic of the passage in the textbook he introduces is "Blue Whales," or "*shironagasu kujira*" in Japanese. In the excerpt, Taro asks a question designed to generate brainstorming and helps the students find the answers by letting them gradually align with him and with language resources such as interrogative sentences and the superlative form. I divide my analysis of the excerpt into three parts.

Excerpt - Part 1: Brainstorming for Oral Introduction (see Appendix B for the set of
    transcription conventions used)
01 T: first, ((raise right forefinger)) I want to start with a quiz. ((writes "quiz" on
            chalkboard)) quiz. <what-what is the biggest animal (.) on the earth.> what is the
            biggest animal on the earth. ((writes the question on chalkboard)) [Picture 1]
02 S1:   *animaru datte animaru biggu animaru.*
            'He said "animal." Animal. Big animal.'
03 S2:   *ookii no.*
            'The big one.'
04 T: what is the biggest animal on the earth. ((touches S3's desk and points to
            "earth")) earth.

05   S3:   earth.

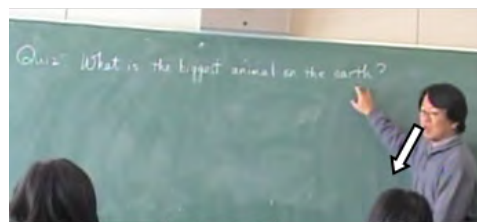06   T: earth *tte nan da.* ((gazes at S3))

[Picture 2]

'What's the earth?'

07   S3:   *chikyuu.*

'Earth.'

Picture 1   Picture 2

Taro begins Turn 1 with "first." This utterance frames his following speech act, namely a brainstorming for his oral introduction, and implies that students are going to take part in other activities following the brainstorming. As shown by Picture 1, Taro raises his right forefinger, which means "first." Then he utters "I want to start with a quiz" and writes "quiz" on the chalkboard. He uses the term "quiz" instead of "question," probably because the English loanword "*kuizu*" (quiz) conveys a playful nuance rather than a tool for educational assessment. When students hear the word "quiz," they are likely to feel less nervous and therefore become more interested. Then he says, slowly: "What is the biggest animal on the earth?" He repeats the question and writes it on the chalkboard. By so doing, Taro makes the question more accessible to the students, including those who may not fully understand his spoken English.

In Turn 2, Student 1 (hereafter S1) aligns with Taro's question by repeating part of his words. He says: "*animaru datte animaru biggu animaru*" (He said "animal." Animal. Big animal). Although referring to "big animal," S1's pronunciation has a heavy Japanese accent and sounds like "*biggu*" and "*animaru.*" Then in Turn 3, S2 coordinates with S1 by paraphrasing these two quasi-loanwords in Japanese as "*ookii no*" (The big one). The two students appear to pay joint attention to Taro's question and to co-construct the Japanese meaning of "biggest animal" step by step. In other words, S1's "*biggu animaru*" functions as an intermediate step from Taro's "big animal" to S2's "*ookii no*" (big one).

Having heard S2's utterance, Taro highlights another important word ("earth") in Turn 4. He repeats the interrogative sentence and the word "earth" and points to the word "earth" on the chalkboard. Here again, Taro draws the students' attention to the word. In Turn 5, S3 aligns with Taro by repeating "earth." Adjusting to S3's utterance, Taro then asks a question

in Japanese in Turn 6: "earth *tte nan da"* (What's the earth?), using the sentence-final auxiliary verb *–da* generally used in informal contexts such as conversations among friends and family members. This use of *–da* functions as a positive politeness strategy (Brown & Levinson, 1987) whereby Taro shows solidarity with his students. Therefore, Turn 6 sounds friendly and less authoritative, which is likely to enable the students to align with him emotionally. He then gazes at S3, signaling for him to answer the question (Picture 2). In Turn 7, S3 aligns with Taro's signal and answers *"chikyuu"* (earth) in Japanese. He effectively uses these embodied signs to draw S3's attention to the chance of participation.

In Part 1 of this excerpt, Taro thus asks a question and helps the students understand its meaning. In the next segment of the excerpt, Taro assists the students in arriving at the answer. Part 2 continues directly from Part 1.

Excerpt - Part 2: The Biggest Animal on Earth

08 T: *chikyuu da na:.* ((writes 地球)) *chikyuu joo de* (.)

   chikyuu joo de (.) *ichiba:n ookii doobutsu tte nani.* ((shifts gaze to S4)) *nani?*

   'The earth, right. On earth, what's the bi:ggest animal on earth? What is it?'

09 S4: *koko ni kanpei ga are ba.*

   'I wish I had the script!'

10 T: *kanpei nai.* ((smiles)) *kangae ro.* ((pretends to hit S2)) *kanpei nai.* ((Ss laugh))

   'There is no script. Think of it by yourself. There is no script.' [Picture 3]

11 S4: *kujira.*

   'the whale.'

12 T: *kujira. soo da na?* ((writes クジラ, walks over to S5, and gazes at S5)) *soo da na?*

   'Whale. Right. Is that so?'

13 S5: *kujira.*

14 T: *kujira.* ((points to S6))

15 S6: *kujira.*

16 T: *kujira. kujira.* okay, okay. *kujira.* ((underlines クジラ)) *>zoo toka yuu to omotta*

   kedo na.< kujira okay. what is *kujira* in English? ((points to クジラ and then S5))

   eego de kujira. what is *kujira* in English" ((walks to S7)) what is *kujira* in

English?

'Whale. Whale. Okay, okay. Whale. I thought you would say "elephant" or

something. Okay, whale. What is *kujira* in English? *kujira* in English....'

17   S7:   *kujira tte eigo de nan te yuu ka.*

'What is *kujira* in English?'

18   T: *un kujira tte eigo de nani?*

'Yeah, what is *kujira* in English?'

19   S7:   whale.

20   T: whale [yes whale ((writes "whale")) [[whale\

Picture 3

21   S8:   [*a::::*

'Oh::: [I see].'

22   S9:   [[*a::::*

    Part 2 begins with Taro's response to S3. In Turn 8, he utters a confirmation by saying "*chikyuu da na:*" (the earth, right). In this turn, Taro uses the auxiliary verb –*da* again. He also uses the final particle –*na:,* a masculine form of the particle -*ne*, which is used to seek agreement and maintain common affective ground (Ohta, 2001). Thus, Turn 8 is made to sound friendly and aims to elicit the students' agreement. Taro then writes "地球" (earth) on the chalkboard. He repeatedly says "*chikyuu joo de*" (on earth) and asks: "*ichiba:n ookii doobutsu tte nani*" (What's the bi:ggest animal?). Here, he confirms the meaning of the superlative and also highlights it by using the lengthened vowel /a:/ in "*ichiba:n.*" In other words, Taro facilitates his students' alignment with the superlative form. Then Taro shifts his gaze to S4 and partly repeats the question "*nani*" (what is it?).

    Suddenly, the sequence of talk changes in Turn 9. Instead of answering Taro's question, S4 makes a joke, saying "*koko ni kanpei ga are ba*" (I wish I had the script!). The word "*kanpei*" refers to a large piece of paper on which the script of a Japanese TV program is written and to which presenters can refer as they speak their lines. As the lesson is being video-recorded, S4 may be under the impression that he is being watched, like a TV presenter. His classmates laugh, and Taro plays along with the joke. In Turn 10, he responds

to S4 by saying: "*kanpei nai*" (There is no script). He smiles, and says "*kangae ro*" (Think of it by yourself). He also acts as if he is about to hit S4, using the kind of gesture one member in a comedy duo might use toward his partner (Picture 3). The imperative form *-ro* is a masculine particle generally used when a man orders a friend to do something. The inference is that Taro attempts to show solidarity with his students with his smiling face, use of the imperative form, and humorous gesture. Here again, Taro facilitates the students in aligning with him emotionally.

After Taro finishes playing along with S4's joke, S4 says "*kujira*" (whale) in Turn 11. This utterance is a response to Turn 8. That is, Turns 8 and 11 create an adjacency pair, and Turns 9 and 10 can be seen as an inserted pair. Here, it is important to note that Taro adjusts his utterance to an abrupt change in the turn sequence and thus maintains coordinated interaction. Equally important is the fact that although previous research revealed that classroom interactions are generally categorized as initiation-reply-evaluation sequences (Mehan, 1979), alignment can take place between teacher and students, especially the students also have a chance to initiate a sequence.

In Turn 12, Taro repeats S4's response "*kujira. soo da na?*" (Whale. Right?) and writes "クジラ (*kujira*)" on the chalkboard. Then he walks to S5 and gazes at him in order to prompt his response, and asks a question: "*soo da na*?" (Is that so?) with rising intonation. In Turn 13, S5 says "*kujira.*" In Turn 14, Taro repeats it and points to S6, who also says "*kujira*" in Turn 15. It appears that Ss 4, 5, and 6all recognize Taro's signals (i.e., shifting eye gaze, moving closer to a student, and pointing) and respond to him. In other words, Taro uses embodied meaning-making signs instead of making verbal requests, and the students all align with his signs.

In Turn 16, Taro repeatedly utters "*kujira*" and "okay," and underlines "クジラ" to draw the students' attention to the Japanese word. Then he quickly makes a joke, "*zoo toka yuu to omotta kedo na*" (I thought you would say something like an elephant). By so doing, Taro teases the students and at the same time highlights the focal animal *kujira* (whale) by rejecting another candidate, that is, the elephant. He also underlines the Japanese word on the chalkboard and helps students adjust their attention to it. He utters "okay" three times, which may have a similar function as a "sequence-closing third" (see Schegloff, 2007).

Moreover, although having kept smiling since Turn 9, Taro changes his facial expression after saying "okay," a discourse marker that reflects his intention to move on to a new topic.

Taro then starts a new sequence, asking the question three times: "What is '*kujira*' in English?" To make the question easier, he partly uses Japanese and says "*eigo de kujira*" (*kujira* in English). While doing so, he points to the word "クジラ" on the chalkboard and then points to S5. But as S5 does not answer, Taro walks over to S7. Then S7 says "*kujira tte eigo de nan te yuu ka*" (What is *kujira* in English?) in Turn 17. By repeating Taro's question in Japanese, S7 appears to attempt to show what is going on in his mind, namely searching for the English word for "*kujira*." That is, S7 verbalizes his thinking process out into the sociocognitive space between Taro and S7. Taro then aligns with S7 and says "*un*" (yeah), and repeats S7's utterance in Turn 18. Finally in the next turn, S7 recalls the word and utters "whale." In this way, Taro and S7 repeat the question turn-by-turn as if co-searching for the English word for "*kujira*."

It should be noted in Parts 1 and 2 that repetition probably has the function of achieving cooperative and co-adaptive interaction. For instance, the externalization of S7's thinking process in Turn 17 appears to lead him to construct intersubjectivity with Taro. As Tannen (2007) points out, "repetition not only ties parts of discourse to other parts, but it bonds participants to the discourse and to each other, linking individual speakers in a conversation and in relationships" (p. 61). In this case, the repetitions by Taro and S7 display their interpersonal involvement and coordination. Moreover, as discussed in Part 1, S1's partial repetition of Taro's utterance using English loanwords leads S2 to say the Japanese words. S1 partly repeats Taro, and S2 then makes a modified repetition of S1, thus jointly co-constructing the Japanese meaning through repetitions (Turns 1-3). As Larsen-Freeman (2013) points out, "the act of repeating results in a change to a procedure or system…true repetition does not occur in language production" (p. 194). It seems likely that although linguistic features such as syntax, lexicon, and pronunciation are slightly altered during repetition, through encountering similar meaning and form, language learners recognize these and comprehend and create meaning in order to attain their communicative goal. Repetition is thus highly sociocognitive behavior whereby interlocutors coordinate with others and co-adapt.

Also to be noted in Parts 1 and 2 is the fact that when Taro repeats S7's answer and writes "whale" on the chalkboard, S8 and S9 (subsequent to S8) overlap with Taro and say "*a::::* ( )" in Turns 21 and 22. It can be speculated that both show their understanding by uttering the beginning of "*a:::: sooka* (Oh:::: I see)." This implies that when S8 and S9 hear the word "whale," they suddenly recall the English word and utter "*a::::.*" It may be that the students' vocabulary knowledge is partly distributed in the environment: in literacy tools (e.g., dictionaries and online search engines), other texts (e.g., textbook passages and emails), and their experiences. Once their knowledge of the environment is stimulated by others-, it becomes an affordance, that is, the students are able to recall the word that has been already learned but has not come to their minds. Of course, our memories of prior experience and existing knowledge are in our minds, but they are also in the environment (Sparrow, Liu, & Wegner, 2011) and need to be activated by others (human or non-human) to function as affordances.

To summarize, Parts 1 and 2 show that Taro's verbal and non-verbal assistance enhances his students' alignment with him and with his spoken English. He uses gestures, repetition, and written language to help them understand the language being learned. He also employs solidarity expressions in the L1 and shares jokes with them, which enhances their emotional alignment with him. In addition, kinesics behaviors such as shifting eye gaze, pointing, and changing proxemics all result in prompting the students' participation. Finally, repetitions by both Taro and the students lead to their coordinated and co-adaptive interaction.

Taro continues to facilitate students' alignment and attempts to elicit more specific information in the next segment, Part 3, which follows directly from Part 2.

Excerpt - Part 3: The Biggest Species of Whales

23 T: okay (.) so, ((underlines "whale")) whale. (.5) but whale, *kujira tatte sa* ((moves his right hand alf a turn)) *ippai iru wake de, na<u>ni</u>* (.) whale. ((draws an oval beside "whale")) *na<u>ni</u>* (.) *kujira*. ((draws an oval beside "クジラ")) the biggest (.) whale has the name. ((draws a square around the oval and "クジラ")) *nantoka kujira* is the biggest. [Picture 4]

'… Speaking of whales, there are many kinds, so what [kind of] whales? What [kind of] whales.... The biggest whale is the…what…whale.''

24 S10: *satoo kujira.*

'Sugar whale.'

25 T: *nani? satoo kujira ama soo dana.*

'What*?* Sugar whale? Sounds sweet.'

26 S11: some *kujira*.

'Some whale.'

27 T: some *kujira. nandaka nanka amerikajin mitai jan.*

'Some whale. It's like, you know, you talk like an American, don't you?'

28 S12: *zatoo kujira.*

'Humpback whale.'

29 T: *zatoo kujira zatoo kujira zatoo kujira tte iru ne.* ((writes ザトウ)) *demo zatoo kujira* (.) it's (.) in English it's (.) *chanto ore shirabeta kara*, ((writes "humpback whale")) humpback whale. humpback whale is not the biggest. ((shakes head and draws cross above "humpback" and underlines "biggest")) not the biggest ((circles "est", then writes "一番大きい")) it's not the ((waves his right hand slightly six times)) biggest one. [Picture 5]

"Humpback whale, humpback whale, there is a humpback whale, right? But humpback whale, it's–I properly looked it up–"humpback whale" in English."

30 S5: *shironagasu* [*kujira.*

"Blue whale."

31 T: [((points to S5 and nods)) *shironagasu kujira.* ((writes シロナガス))

Turn 23 begins with "okay (.) so," a discourse marker employed when a speaker signals a transition to a new activity (Schiffrin, 1987). Underlining and pronouncing the term "クジラ," Taro confirms that the whale is the biggest animal on earth. However, he wants to elicit more specific information from the students. After a 0.5-second pause, he utters "but," which indicates that he is not fully satisfied with S7's answer. (Pomerantz, 1984). After the pause, as Taro is about to ask what kind of whale is the biggest, he moves his right hand

half a turn as if tracing the shape of a sphere (Picture 4). While doing so, he utters, "*kujira tatte sa ippai iru wake de*" (speaking of whales, there are many kinds, so). His gesture shaping a sphere in the air appears to symbolize a set and likely helps the students conceptualize the various kinds of whales in the set. He completes the question with "*na<u>ni</u> (.) whale*" (what [kind of] whales?) while drawing an oval beside the English word and with "*na<u>ni</u> (.) kujira*" (What [kind of] whales?) while drawing another oval beside the Japanese word. The pitch on the adjective "*na<u>ni</u>*" (with stress on the second syllable) differs from that of the interrogative pronoun "*<u>na</u>ni*" (with stress on the first syllable). Thus, "*na<u>ni</u> (.) whale*" likely motivates students to search for the right word for "*na<u>ni</u>,*" that is, the word that modifies "whale." In other words, by making the pitch change and drawing the ovals, Taro attempts to direct students' attention to "*nani.*" He then code-switches to English and says: "The biggest whale has the name" and "*nantoka kujira* (what *kujira*) is the biggest," and draws a square around the oval and around "クジラ." By so doing, he helps the students focus on "*nantoka kujira.*"

It is important to note that this kind of assistance, or scaffolding, is observed in the above-mentioned tutoring session (Atkinson et al., 2007), in which a junior high school student is learning the present perfect tense. In that study, the authors reported that the tutor utters: "have you ever *toka nantoka* (have you ever [blank blank])" (p. 175) and helps the girl focus on the past participle that will replace "*toka nantoka.*" Also noteworthy is the fact that Taro's drawing of ovals and a square synchronizes with his utterances "*nani*" and "*nantoka,*" respectively. Figure 1 shows how Taro utilizes the chalkboard in Turn 23, drawing the two ovals and the square in order to highlight the word to be searched.
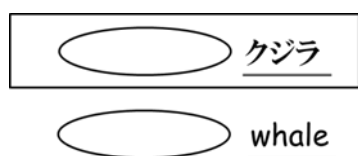

Figure 1. Words and Signs Written in Turn 23

Following the verbal and non-verbal assistance offered by Taro, four students, who seem highly coordinated with Taro and particularly engaged in the activity, voluntarily respond to his question. In Turn 24, S10, aligning with the upper oval, utters: "*satoo kujira*"

(sugar whale), with a pronunciation of the words that is slightly different from *zatoo kujira* (humpback whale). In the next turn, Taro does not reject the answer but instead makes a joke, smiling, and says: "*nani? satoo kujira amasoo dana*" (What? Sugar whale? Sounds sweet). Here again, he uses –*da* and –*na* in order to show solidarity with the students. S11 also aligns with the oval and voluntarily answers: "some *kujira*" (some whale). This utterance substitutes the English word "some" for "*nani*" or "*nantoka.*" By using the English word, S11 likely tries to say something closer to the answer Taro is expecting. Taro then coordinates with S11 by repeating "some *kujira*" and says: "*nandaka nanka amerikajin mitai jan*" (Some whale. It's like, you know, you talk like an American, don't you?). The sentence final particle –*jan,* the casual form of –*janai* (don't you), is generally used among young people. Employing this popular expression with a younger generation, Taro again shows solidarity while appearing to praise S11's use of English in order to encourage other students to speak out. Moreover, although the two students do not give the correct answer, Taro aligns with them by offering friendly and humorous feedback, which in turn prompts the students' alignment with him.

In Turn 28, S12 answers "*zatoo kujira*" (humpback whale), one of the biggest species of whales. In the next turn, Taro repeats the words twice and then says: "*zatoo kujira tte iru ne*" (There is a humpback whale, right?). After that, as he is about to say that a humpback whale is not the biggest, he starts with "*demo zatoo kujira*" (but the humpback whale). However, he may also consider that the students probably do not know the English word for *zatoo*. After a short pause, he provides additional information: "it's (.) in English it's (.) *chanto ore shirabeta kara* [I took care to look it up] humpback whale," and writes "humpback whale" on the chalkboard. Then he provides the main information, which is that "humpback whale is not the biggest." The subject of the Japanese clause is *ore*, a first-person singular pronoun used by males only in informal settings, so the students probably feel less social distance toward Taro. Moreover, he shows his identity as an L2 learner by telling the students that he did not know the English word for *zato* and had to look it up, which also shows solidarity with the students and enhances their emotional alignment with him.

In addition, Taro provides gestural and graphic scaffolding in Turns 29. As shown in

32

Figure 2 (numbers in parentheses show the sequence of Taro's writing), when repeating "*zatoo,*" he writes "ザトウ (*zatoo)*" on the chalkboard (1). Then, after telling the students that he looked up the word, he writes "humpback whale" (2), which synchronizes with the pronunciation. As the humpback whale is not the biggest, he draws a cross (3), underlines "biggest" (4), circles "est" (5), and writes "一番大きい (*ichiban ookii)*" (6), while saying "humpback whale is not the biggest." Each graphic sign and word written on the chalkboard corresponds to – and almost synchronizes with – Taro's speech. In addition, while repeating "it's not the biggest," Taro waves his right hand slightly as if denying something (Picture 5). These non-verbal signals play the role of helping the students comprehend his spoken English, and finally, he successfully elicits the answer, "*shironagasu kujira"* (blue whale) from S5 in Turn 30. Taro immediately aligns with S5, pointing to him and nodding. These actions overlap with Turn 30. Taro then repeats the answer and writes "シロナガス (*shironagasu*)" in the upper oval (7). Six turns after Turn 31, Taro elicits response "blue whale" from a student and writes "blue" on the chalkboard (8).
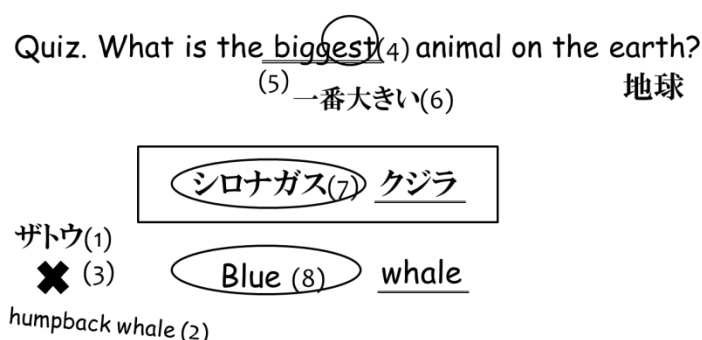

Figure 2. Words and Signs on chalkboard

Note: The numbers 1–8 in parentheses were added by the author.

Taro's effective use of the chalkboard and his use of gestures are also observable before Turn 29. As Figure 2 shows, Taro first writes "Quiz" and the question sentence on the chalkboard and asks for the Japanese word for "earth" (Turn 1). After S3's response, he writes the answer "地球 (*chikyuu)*" under "earth" and asks what the biggest animal on earth is (Turn 8). After S12 answers "*kujira,*" he writes "クジラ" (Turn 12). He underlines "クジラ" and asks for the English word for it (Turn 16). Repeating S7's answer "whale," he

writes "whale," underlines it, and asks what the biggest kind of whale is. Giving the hints "*nantoka* whale," "*nani kujira,*" and "*nantoka kujira,*" he draws ovals and a square (Turn 23). Taro's gestures shown in Pictures 1 and 4 correspond to his utterances "first" and "there are many kinds," respectively. Using the chalkboard and gestures, Taro helps students understand the meaning of his questions.

This process is similar to the finding in Churchill et al. (2010) that a worksheet and a tutor's symbiotic gesture facilitated the learner's understanding of the new grammar rule. In the present study, Taro's spoken language, his use of gestures, and the words and signs on the chalkboard co-work as affordances and enable the learners to understand the meaning. In other words, Taro's spoken English is made comprehensible with the help of signs that are both embodied and in the environment, which reveals the dual embodied and embedded nature of language teaching.

Figure 2 also indicates that over time, Taro's questions are attuned to the students' understanding. Taro's first question was: "What is the biggest animal on the earth?" However, in order to verify the students' comprehension, he asks in Japanese: "What's the earth?" After S5 answers "*chikyuu,*" he asks again in Japanese: "What is the biggest animal on earth?" Then, following S7's response "*kujira,*" he utters: "What is '*kujira*' in English?" As S7 gives the answer "whale," Taro further asks what kind of whale is the biggest and utters: "*nani* whale," "*nani kujira,*" and "*nantoka kujira* is the biggest." In parallel with these changes in the questions he asks, Taro writes words and signs on the chalkboard so that the students can align with the shift. That is, Taro's fine attuning to the environment (mainly students' reactions in this context) and his use of various affordances in the aligning process (e.g., gestures, language, and signs) prompt the students' alignment, which results in their engagement and voluntary participation in the activity.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate how one experienced Japanese EFL teacher enhances his students' alignment with their environments. I found that Taro, the teacher, utilizes various affordances in his classroom. First, in order to help his students

align with the language being learned, Taro writes English and Japanese words as well as signs on the chalkboard and uses gestures, discourse markers, and the L1.. Second, the students align with a chance to participate by recognizing Taro's signals, including changing proxemics, pointing, and shifting gaze. Third, Taro enhances his students' emotional alignment with him by introducing coordinated interactions such as sharing jokes, giving feedback, using solidarity expressions in the L1, and showing his own identity as a language learner. As a result, the students understand his spoken English, voluntarily participate in the interaction, and come up with the answers to his questions. It seems likely that learning is taking place as the students align with affordances in the world including tools, signs, and the teacher.

Obviously, Taro is not the only teacher who knows and uses these techniques, perhaps intuitively, in order to produce effective teaching. In this regard, Richards (2008) argues that it is necessary to make the nature of practitioner knowledge visible in order to theorize teaching practice. Fanselow (1977) claims that teachers can learn about teaching by analyzing descriptions that show how they and their students communicate both inside and outside the classroom. Atkinson (2010b) suggests that microanalysis of video-recorded learning situations will help teachers understand the learning process. Therefore, as an implication of this study, I would like to recommend that in addition to classroom observations, teacher education courses provide opportunities for viewing brief excerpts from video-recorded lessons given by experienced teachers with detailed analysis of both verbal and non-verbal behaviors in order to uncover the teachers' tacit pedagogical knowledge and skills.

Although this study has limitation (as the video camera had to focus on the teacher, I was unable to observe how alignment took place between the students), the results show the students' engagement in the activity and their coordinated interaction with the teacher. In the language classroom, teachers attempt to engage their students with interesting activities and lively presentations so that their classes will become more student-centered. Yet some may not be aware of how to do this at the concrete, moment-to-moment level. This study presented a detailed picture of what a teacher does to get students involved in a learning activity and found that coordinated interaction made the learning activity more interesting

and engaging. Thus, an implication of this study is that teachers should create alignment-rich learning environment by using various affordances (e.g., gestures, pointing,gaze, jokes, repetition, written signs, and the L1). As mentioned earlier, alignment is a means by which humans attain coordinated interaction, and this can make learners more deeply engaged in language learning.

This study is significant in that it investigates one teacher's verbal and non-verbal behaviors holistically from a sociocognitive perspective. While alignment is the key concept underlying the study, similar frameworks have been used and "zone of proximal adjusting (ZPA)" (Murphey, 2016) in recent research. For example, *soft-assembly* (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008) refers to individual's co-adaptation to each other during interaction based on the view that "when two individuals soft assemble using their language resources on a given occasion and then interact and adapt to each other, the state space of both their language resources changes as a result of co-adaptation" (p. 84). Similarly, Murphey's (2016) conceptualization of *zone of proximal adjusting* (ZPA), which derives from Vygotsky's (1978) *zone of proximal development* (ZPD), sees the ZPA as a space where not only do teachers adjust to the learners but learners themselves can also adjust and help each other because all have different abilities to contribute and with which to help others. According to those views and the sociocognitive perspective, cognition means "sociocognition" (Batstone, 2010) integrated with our bodies and the environment, and language teaching is an embodied and embedded practice. Future research should attempt to connect the notion of alignment to those frameworks in order to reveal what language teachers do in this respect in the classroom. This will contribute to the field of "language teacher cognition research" (Borg, 2006, p. 1), or what I would call "language teacher sociocognition research."

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Appendix A

Student Seating Arrangement
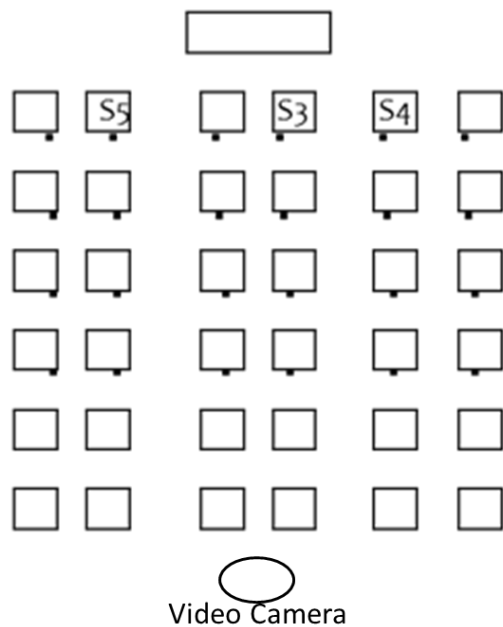
Note: Twenty-four students sat at desks marked with a small dot. Among the 13 students whose utterances are excerpted here, only three (S3, S4, and S5) can be identified in the video.

Appendix B

Transcription Conventions

The transcription symbols used in this study are as follows:

,	Non-final/continuing intonation followed by short pause
:	Phoneme lengthening
?	Rising intonation followed by pause
.	Final/falling intonation followed by pause
( )	Transcriber doubt (parentheses can be filled or unfilled)
(.)	Short untimed pauses
(.5)	Pauses timed in 10ths of a second
(( ))	Stage directions, i.e., description of non-linguistic event
[	Overlapping of one speaker's turn by another's
<No>	Talk that is slower than surrounding talk
>No<	Talk that is faster than surrounding talk
' '	Japanese-English translation
'…'	Japanese-English translation deleted because the original sentence is in English
<u>No</u>	Various types of voice quality such as emphasis or stress

Changing Views of EFL Teaching and Its Impact on Japanese English Teachers' Professional Development

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Introduction

Growing attention has been paid to second language (L2) teacher education among researchers and teacher educators in the TESOL field. One of the main topics of the literature in this area is what constitutes a professional knowledge-base for L2 teacher education programs (e.g., Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 2009; Yates & Muchisky, 2003). Viewing teachers as central in teaching, the empirical studies have actively explored topics such as teachers' prior knowledge, teaching beliefs, reflective practice, the issues of disconnection between theory and practice, and institutional culture. These studies have gradually revealed the complexity of L2 teachers' professional activities.

The research from this view of teaching, so called sociocultural perspectives, has had impacts on teacher education in the EFL contexts. For example, in Japan, some researchers have examined local Japanese English teachers' (JTEs) professional practice and their beliefs about English teaching and learning in relation to school and national cultures (e.g., Cook, 2012; Gorsuch, 2000; Kurihara, 2013; Lamie, 2001; Sato, 2002). However, the number of research on JTEs' learning to teach from sociocultural perspective still appears limited.

Ferguson and Donno (2003) discuss that there are three changes in EFL teaching which have affected EFL teacher education in the U.K. These are: 1) "changing views regarding the position of the native speaker," 2) "developments in ELT methodology," and 3) "changes in the theory and practice of initial teacher training" (p. 26). Although Ferguson and Donno pointed out these paradigm shifts more than a decade ago, they do not seem to have much affected the teacher education field in Japan.

In considering the reasons for this situation, it must be useful to take into account what issues and concerns JTEs have faced in English Language Teaching (ELT). In addition, given the circumstances in which the national government plays a crucial role of making

educational decisions in Japan, it should be also important to consider what area in ELT the authority attempts to promote.

This paper[1] first discusses the three shifting areas in EFL teaching that Ferguson and Donno (2003) pointed out. Then, it will examine what extent the scholarly discussion in these areas has had impacts on JTEs' teacher education. Finally, the paper concludes with some implications for their professional development.

Status and Roles of English Language Teachers

The majority of English language teaching professionals around the world are considered to be non-native English speakers (NNESs) (Braine, 1999; Canagarajah, 2005). Many researchers in TESOL and Applied Linguistics, therefore, have examined issues and concerns that NNESTs working worldwide face (e.g., Butler, 2007; Brains, 1999; Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999; Liu, 1999; Ozturk & Atay, 2010). In particular, NNESTs' perceptions of their status and roles as ELT professionals as opposed to native English speaking teachers (NESTs) have been prominently explored in the area.

As one of the initial studies on the topic, for example, Medgyes (1992) examines NNESTs' professional characteristics in comparison to NESTs, and found non-native teachers' perceived challenges in the use of English and teaching differences between NNESTs and NESTs. Most participants in the study, who are both native and non-native teachers, attribute their different teaching approaches to their linguistic differences. However, Medgyes points out NNESTs' strengths as successful language learners, including to "serve as imitable models," "teach learning strategies more effectively," "anticipate language difficulties," and "show more empathy to their students" (pp. 346-347). He emphasizes the importance to acknowledge the different roles in teaching practices between the two groups of teachers.

Seidlhofer (1999) further examines Austrian English teachers' self-perceptions as an important aspect of their professional identity. The participants in her study revealed that a primal component in their professional preparation programs was language proficiency which focused on "effective communicators" rather than "foreign language teachers." Although teachers acknowledged their strengths as non-native professionals, such as their shared L1 with students and L2 learning experiences, they also expressed their "feeling of ambivalence" (p. 241). Seidlhofer concludes that teacher education needs to play an important role to make EFL teachers recognize their assets as ELT professionals and to make use of them for their professional development.

Regarding English teachers' expertise, Medgyes (1992) makes a clear distinction between NNESTs and NESTs based on their linguistic competence (Samimy & Kurihara, 2006). However, some scholars argue that this distinction is simplistic to define L2 teachers' professional expertise (e.g., Canagarajah, 2005; Samimy & Kurihara, 2006; Liu; 1999; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999). For example, Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999) examine the perceptions of international TESOL graduate students as ELT professionals. The study reveals that they consider "who is more successful [native or non-native speakers] depends on learner factors, teacher factors, and contextual factors" (p. 141). They also view that, rather than the lack of native-like language proficiency, the English education curriculum and teacher education are more serious issues of EFL professionals. For educational implications, Samimy and Brutt-Griffler propose the re-examination of the "native speaker fallacy" (Phillipson, 1992, p. 185) in the TESOL programs and more focus on the concepts of "multidimensionality and expertise" than "nativeness or authenticity" in L2 teacher education (p. 142).

A more recent study, Moussu and Llurda (2008), summarize the research on NNESTs issues conducted in the past 20 years. Drawing on Canagarajah's (2005) view on the issues, they suggest re-examining the clear distinction between NNESTs and NESTs: "it simply did not apply anymore, not only because of the definition of the words but also because of globalization and the intense mix of cultures currently taking place in the postmodern world (p. 330).

Development of Appropriate Pedagogy

Another area in the TESOL field which has affected the EFL teacher education in the U.K. is "developments in ELT methodology" (Ferguson and Donno, 2003). There has been a growing concern about whether ELT pedagogy in the Outer and Expanding Circles needs to be re-examined due to the primary reliance on native speaker models (e.g., Cook, 1999; Jenkins, 2006; McKay, 2002 & 2003; Seidlhofer, 1999 & 2004) and an increasing awareness to develop "a context-sensitive, location-specific pedagogy" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 69).

Seidlhofer (1999), for example, discusses the "double" roles of EFL teachers when they face the contradictory demands between global claims and local conditions. She emphasizes that, as a mediator, teachers need to understand local teaching contexts, their students' expectations, the research development in their professional field, and the target language. Through a careful process of analyzing and mediating competing claims, teachers

can make local decisions. According to Seidlhofer, the double roles of non-native teachers are central for appropriate pedagogy in given contexts, and so the cultivation of their values and strengths for their double capacity need to be taken into consideration in teacher education.

From the English as an International Language (EIL) perspective, McKay (2003a) also discusses the relationship between L2 teaching and the local culture to develop "locally appropriate pedagogy" (p. 140). Drawing on Smith's definition of an international language as the separation of the language from any one culture (Smith, 1976, cited in McKay, p. 140), she particularly emphasizes that ELT educators need to recognize the cultural contents of materials relevant to the local culture, an appropriate pedagogy sensitive to local expectations, and values of bilingual teachers of English. McKay (2003b) goes on to argue that common assumptions in ELT pedagogy primarily informed by native-speaker models need to be re-examined to develop an appropriate pedagogy. In general, the ultimate goal of English language learning is assumed to achieve native-like proficiency of the language. However, given the circumstances in which bilingual speakers of English use the language in various ways within multilingual contexts for "intranational and international purposes," such assumption needs to be re-examined (p. 7). Moreover, McKay points out that the comparison of bilingual teachers with native speaker models is also problematic due to a poorly defined construct of the native speaker as the basis for judging teachers' pedagogic expertise (p. 8). Toward an appropriate EIL pedagogy, McKay suggests three assumptions: to recognize 1) the multiple ways in which bilingual speakers use English to achieve their specific purposes, 2) L2 learners' learning goals which would not be to acquire native-like competence, 3) the fact that English no longer belongs to any one particular culture and the needs to be culturally sensitive to the diverse contexts in English language teaching and learning.

The discussion over "appropriate pedagogy" has provided new perspectives for L2 teaching and learning in both the Outer and Expanding Circles. Scholars suggest that locally appropriate pedagogy requires professionals' thinking globally and teaching locally. In other words, to develop locally sensitive pedagogy, local teachers and educators need to play critical roles of making decisions of students' needs and interests relevant to the given contexts. As one of the roles of EFL professionals, they need to develop "doubleness" in order to negotiate various demands at the local and global levels (Canagarajah, 1999; Seidlhofer, 1999). This role of doubleness of non-native teachers suggests why native speaker models cannot or should not be applied to non-native teachers' professional expertise (McKay, 2003).

Shifting View of Teaching

The shifting view of English language teachers' (ELT) learning has also affected the EFL teacher education in the U.K. (Ferguson and Donno, 2003). In particular, the studies in this area have discussed the complex nature of teachers' profession. As one of the initial studies, Richards (1996), for example, discussed the critical role of teachers' personal principles or "maxims" in language teaching. He identified eight maxims in ESL teachers' classroom decision making in Hong Kong. These principles are learners' involvement with their interests, teaching planning and attempt to follow it, maintenance of order and discipline, encouragement of students' learning, accuracy of student output, efficient use of class time, conformity to the prescribed method, and empowerment through giving learners control (pp. 287-291). Richards concludes that, if personal maxims guide teachers' teaching practices, these principles need to be fully recognized and examined in teacher education programs to help teacher trainees' future professional growth.

Cheng (2002) further investigated the impacts of the social contexts, which is the implementation of a communicative English language test at the secondary school level, on English teachers' classroom practice in Hong Kong. In the exam, the previous oral components were replaced by "new task-based role play and group discussion" (p. 92). The findings suggest that a relative number of teachers reported positive attitudes toward the implementation of the new exam. However, the results also suggest that over the two-year period, teachers' practice behavior remained unchanged. They dominantly talked in the class rather than conducted more interactive and task-based teaching expected by the policy makers. From the cognitive-constructivist perspectives, Cheng emphasizes the need for conceptual change and teacher learning within the context of classroom practice.

In the Expanding Circle, Sato (2002) explores how JTEs learn to teach in the school context by closely examining the relationship between teachers' beliefs, their teaching practices, and the school culture. The findings revealed the complex relationship between teacher learning and the given school culture, and also the difficulties involved in teacher development due to realities that they faced in the institutional culture. The main themes that he found are "school norms and values," "tension between individual teachers' ideas and a hidden school goal," "a pattern of teaching," and "lack of teacher learning opportunities" (pp.51-52). Sato attributed these issues to teachers' uncertainty about how to teach, students' fixed views of learning, lack of students' motivation, different levels of students' English abilities, and lack of confidence in teachers' English proficiency. He also

points out that lack of opportunities for teachers' professional developments inside and outside school prevents them from developing their teaching beliefs and practices.

In the Outer and Expanding Circles, researchers have revealed the interwoven relationship between teacher beliefs, their teaching practices, and social contexts such as school and national cultures. Interestingly enough, however, teachers' beliefs and teaching practice are not always influenced by power of national cultures. Cheng's study especially suggests that, despite the curriculum innovation promoted by policy makers toward more communicative based approaches, teachers' actual practice did not change so much.

Discussion

The scholars in TESOL and Applied Linguistics continue to discuss the three areas of changes in EFL teaching which Ferguson and Donno (2003) pointed out: the status of NNESTs, the notion of appropriate pedagogy, and the shifting view of teachers' learning. Then, what impacts have these paradigm shifts had on actual teacher education for JTEs?

Due to the main goal of English education in Japan, which is to develop students' communicative ability in English (e.g., Tahira, 2012; Wada, 2002), the goals of teacher education and teacher development for JTEs seem to accord with this fundamental aim of the national curriculum. The governments' initiatives in hiring native speakers of English as assistant teachers since 1987 suggest that JTEs have been generally viewed with native speaker models (Jenkins, 2006). Although it is vital for ELT professionals to sharpen their linguistic knowledge as language teachers, to view part of their professional expertise based on native speaker models may create insecurity for non-native teachers due to their perceived lower English proficiency as compared to NESTs (Seidlhofer 1999). This would also be unproductive because of a poorly defined construct of native speakers as the basis of teachers' professional expertise (McKay, 2003).

The discussions about appropriate pedagogy from the English as an International Language (EIL) assumptions and about shifting views of teacher education have also offered new perspectives for EFL teachers' professional development at the theoretical level. However, these ideas have not been fully applied to actual teacher education programs for JTEs. Teachers tend to be viewed as a curriculum deliverer rather than a curriculum developer (e.g., Sato, 2002), although this does not always mean that teachers actually implement new curriculum (e.g., Cheng, 2002). In developing locally appropriate pedagogy, teachers need to play critical roles in negotiating various demands in the given contexts (Seidlhofer, 1999; McKay, 2003a & 2003b; Canagarajah, 1999).

Conclusion

The scholarly discussion over the three areas of changes in EFL teaching will offer useful implications for JTEs' professional development. At the theoretical level, the conceptual principles implicitly and explicitly employed in the teacher education field in Japan need to be re-examined. Common assumptions in English language teaching which are often informed by native speaker models, may limit JTEs' understanding of their professional expertise. To develop context sensitive pedagogy, what is needed would be alternative pedagogical models to native speaker models (Samimy & Kurihara, 2006). To do so, their professional expertise needs to be further explored at the institutional, national, and global levels. At the same time, more research on JTEs' learning processes in relation to their teaching beliefs and practice as well as social factors in their teaching contexts is necessary to better understand their dynamic ways of negotiating teaching practices (Kurihara, 2013). At the practical level, JTEs would get more benefits if they are provided opportunities to cultivate their role of doubleness in teacher education programs by discussing "not only the choices that they have to make but also the choices that they can make" (Seidlhofer, 1999, p. 240). Then, teachers can develop more context-sensitive pedagogy by taking into account learners' needs and interests at the local and global levels.

Notes

1. This paper, specifically the parts discussing status/roles of non-native English speaking teachers and appropriate pedagogy, is a partly revised version of an article titled Nonnative Speaker Teacher (Samimy & Kurihara, 2006).

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EFL Teachers' Interests and Beliefs as Determiners of Their Instructional Decisions in the Teaching of Pronunciation

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Abstract

In the teaching of English pronunciation, several studies have reported the neglect of pronunciation teaching. Among many factors, teachers' interests in pronunciation teaching and beliefs about pronunciation teaching have great impacts on the teachers' pedagogical decision whether to teach pronunciation. In this study, I investigated university-level English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers' interests in and beliefs about pronunciation teaching and what kinds of interests and beliefs can predict whether they teach pronunciation. Online survey results showed that most of the university-level EFL teachers are interested in pronunciation teaching and learning effective ways to teach pronunciation. Those who are highly interested in pronunciation teaching also teach pronunciation. Another aspect included in the analysis was teachers' beliefs. Those teachers who believe that teachers should learn the teaching of pronunciation and that teachers can facilitate learners' development in pronunciation tend to teach pronunciation. The results seem to reflect the struggles that teachers undergo due to lack of previous training in the teaching of pronunciation and emphasize the demands of education and training in the pedagogical pronunciation in the teacher training programs.

Introduction

Teaching practice in English language pronunciation has undergone a major shift in its trajectory. As communicative language teaching became the mainstream in the field of teaching English as a second language (ESL) or English as a foreign language (EFL), the shift from focusing solely on accuracy (i.e., audiolingual method, etc.) to communicative competence has influenced actual teaching practice. Along with the trend, the objectives of language instruction have shifted from the linguistic features themselves to the use of target linguistic features while engaging in communicative tasks in task-based language teaching

and while learning content in content-based language teaching. In addition to this shift, Jenkin's (2000) English as a lingua franca and world Englishes are widely known as terms that refer to English spoken with an acceptable level of proficiency despite the nonnative-like lexical, syntactic, morphological, phonetical, and phonological varieties (Seidlhofer, 2009).

This trend has had positive impacts on language teaching in general. First, English language teachers (ELTs) can focus on the features that interfere with communication as opposed to every single error that learners make in their English. In this way, learners can learn to communicate without being anxious about making errors and mistakes in English grammar and pronunciation. The positive effects of the trend, in fact, expanded to noneducational settings. For example, English speakers, especially nonnative speakers, have been increasingly tolerant of nonnative-like Englishes (e.g., Bradlow & Bent, 2002; Chiba, Matsuura, & Yamamoto, 1995) as they are aware of the increasing number of nonnative speakers around the world. In a sense, communicative language teaching and learning have influenced society as a whole, and ELTs have recognized the change towards communicative needs in language teaching.

However, the ELTs' tolerance of nonnative-like production among learners of English seems to have negative impacts on the learners' development of accuracy in English. Many ELTs seemed to have misinterpreted the term communicative language teaching and neglected the teaching of the linguistic aspects of the English language when they do not hinder communication (Karim, 2004; Littlewood, 2007; Thompson, 1996). In fact, practicing communicative language teaching does involve form-focused instructions that deal with the linguistic features, including syntactical and lexical errors that learners make commonly and repeatedly (Azar, 2007). In other words, today's ELTs must teach English and content or tasks at the same time to meet the demands of the current trend in language teaching.

Major Causes of Neglect in Pronunciation Teaching

The notion of English as a lingua franca has had a tremendous impact on language teaching, especially in the teaching of pronunciation. The literature in English as a lingua franca emphasizes the difficulties between nonnative speakers who do not share the same first language background because learners will more likely encounter interactions of this kind in the real world. Also, native speakers' English pronunciation is no longer the target norm of the teaching of English pronunciation. Although ELTs seem to recognize the

importance of incorporating this notion of English as a lingua franca into their teaching practice, it may be somewhat confusing for them to have a clear pedagogical goal in pronunciation teaching. That is, ELTs may struggle with knowing what pronunciation features should be treated to enhance communication among English as a lingua franca speakers.

The terms intelligibility and comprehensibility are also controversial for two major reasons. First, both intelligibility and comprehensibility are based upon listeners' perceptions, which largely depend on their familiarity with particular accents caused by speakers' language backgrounds. In fact, the Lingua Franca Core and the functional load principle, which are two major pronunciation teaching targets suggested by previous research findings, have quite a few differences (see Catford, 1987, and Jenkins, 2000, 2002 for details) as they are based on native speakers' and nonnative speakers' perceptions, respectively.

Second, pronunciation features that constitute intelligible or comprehensible speech production have not yet been clarified. A few studies have examined the pronunciation features that seem to influence intelligibility and comprehensibility (e.g., Isaacs & Trofimovich, 2012; Saito, 2011, 2014). However, sufficient empirical data have not yet been found to conclude what should be taught to achieve completely intelligible or comprehensible pronunciation. Despite the Lingua Franca Core's initial attempt to provide pedagogically sound, teachable, and realistic targets for pronunciation teaching, it seems to confuse ELTs who must make their instructional decisions on a daily basis.

In fact, previous studies that have investigated the practice of teaching English pronunciation around the world have revealed the common neglect in pronunciation teaching among ELTs (Baker, 2014; Burns, 2006; Burgess & Spencer, 2000; Foote, Holtby, & Derwing, 2011; Henderson et al., 2011; MacDonald, 2002; Murphy, 2011). One of the primary reasons for their neglect is a lack of training in the teaching of pronunciation. Many in-service ELTs have not been trained to teach pronunciation although they are willing to learn. Another reason is the discouraging learning outcome. Many ELTs have failed to teach pronunciation and therefore have not seen a noticeable improvement in learners' pronunciation. This underwhelming learning outcome has led ELTs to neglect pronunciation teaching, which seems true in many contexts in the world. However, in Japan, the practice of teaching English pronunciation, especially in tertiary-level education, has been underresearched.

Beliefs About Pronunciation Teaching

Although teachers' beliefs can be defined slightly differently depending upon the researchers, previous studies have commonly shown that teachers' beliefs have a strong impact on their instructional decisions (Borg, 2003; Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite, 2001). Therefore, to investigate the pedagogical decisions of whether ELTs teach pronunciation, teachers' beliefs should be taken into consideration.

There are several ways to investigate teachers' beliefs and teaching practices. Recently, many qualitative studies have been conducted to understand why what teachers believe reflects what they do in the classroom (e.g., Baker & Murphy, 2011). Such studies give great insight into in-service teachers at the time of decision making. However, from the interpretive research paradigm, a generalization of beliefs about pronunciation teaching among ELTs, which is one purpose of this study, cannot be achieved. In an attempt to generalize ELTs' beliefs about pronunciation teaching, teachers' stated beliefs are employed in this study.

Interest in the Teaching of Pronunciation

Teachers' interest in the subject matter has not been the center of attention. The main reason for the lack of research in teachers' interest in the subject matter is that it can be assumed that teachers are inevitably interested in what they teach. In fact, teachers almost always earn a higher degree in the field of study they teach. When teachers pursue a higher degree in the subject matter they would teach, they must be highly interested in it because, unlike primary or secondary education, tertiary education often requires a great deal of commitment to the field.

The case of ELTs is unique. Although the situation has improved, the general public has tended to assume that native speakers of English or those who are proficient in English can teach English. Many teachers who have not been trained to teach English, in fact, teach English in schools and other settings (Foote et al., 2011). In Japan, although Japanese teachers of English at secondary schools must earn a teacher's license from an accredited university to teach English, many non-Japanese teachers who teach at primary and secondary schools have not undergone any formal training in teaching English and therefore are not confident in teaching (Tahira, 2012) because those positions do not necessarily require a higher degree or credential in teaching English. ELTs are, in general, interested in teaching English, but their fields of expertise may vary.

Another aspect that may differentiate ELTs from other subject teachers is the wide variety of subfields of English language teaching. TESOL International Association, one of the largest international organizations for ELTs, holds an annual international convention to draw worldwide attention to ELTs. The program book for its international convention lists 52 content areas of the presentations given at the convention, ranging from grammar to pronunciation (TESOL International Association, 2016). It is inevitably impossible for all ELTs to be interested in all 52 content areas. However, ELTs usually teach all the skill areas related to the English language using the teaching approaches that the program implements. In other words, regardless of the ELTs' interest areas, they should teach the courses. In this sense, investigating the ELTs' interests in subfields—pronunciation teaching in this study— is vital to understanding their pedagogical decisions.

Research Questions

Although previous studies have investigated how teachers' beliefs reflect on their pedagogical decisions about pronunciation teaching in many contexts, few such studies have been conducted in Japan. At the university-level especially, EFL teaching is unique regarding the teachers' academic background and expertise, which may influence their interests in the teaching of pronunciation. Therefore, I designed this study to investigate: (a) university-level EFL teachers' interests in and beliefs about the teaching of pronunciation, and (b) what interests in and beliefs about the teaching of pronunciation can be predictors of their pedagogical decision to teach pronunciation or not.

Method

Survey Administration

An online survey was administered to university-level EFL teachers teaching in Tokyo. The parts presented in this paper were from three separate sections. First, whether the participants teach pronunciation in their daily teaching practice was answered in the section that dealt with the teaching practice. Next, nine statements were included to find out to what extent the respondents were interested in the teaching of pronunciation. Finally, the section that dealt with teachers' beliefs contained 15 statements. In the sections that dealt with teachers' interests and beliefs, the respondents were required to respond on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The questionnaire

items were developed based on Foote et al. (2011) and Dörnyei and Taguchi (2009) and piloted following the qualitative approach that the former employed in their study. The items had been piloted by five university-level EFL teacher-researchers and revised before administration.

Participants

In total, 92 university-level EFL teachers (47 female and 45 male) participated in the survey. Most of them are Japanese (58%), and the others are from nine different countries: the United States (16%), the United Kingdom (13%), Canada (3%), Australia (3%), New Zealand (3%), South Africa (3%), China (2%), the Philippines (2%), and Korea (1%). The participants had been teaching English, including both ESL and EFL, for 15.6 years on average, ranging from 1 to 38 years. All participants reported that they had earned a postgraduate degree.

Analyses

A binary logistic regression analysis was administered to examine whether the teachers' beliefs and interests can be a predictor to determine whether they teach pronunciation in their EFL courses. On the questionnaire, all nine items for finding out the respondents' interests and 15 items for their beliefs were entered as independent variables. The responses to whether they teach pronunciation or not were entered as the dependent variable.

The assumptions were met to proceed with the binary logistic regression analysis with the data collected. The response for the dependent variable is dichotomous. No outliers were found in the dataset used for this analysis. Besides, all correlation coefficients among independent variables were below 0.9, which is an acceptable assumption for administering the binary logistic regression analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012).

Results

Interests in Pronunciation Teaching and Teaching Practice

The nine questionnaire items that dealt with teachers' interests were as follows (see Appendix A for the actual questionnaire.):

1. I am interested in teaching pronunciation.
2. I would like to learn effective ways to teach pronunciation.
3. I am reluctant to attend professional seminars/workshops on pronunciation teaching.
4. I try to catch up with recent findings in pronunciation teaching.
5. I am uninterested in pronunciation teaching.
6. I would like to learn theories in pronunciation teaching.
7. I tend to emphasize pronunciation when teaching English.
8. I like finding teaching materials and textbooks for pronunciation teaching.
9. I am reluctant to teach pronunciation when teaching English.

Table 1

Teachers' Interest in Pronunciation Teaching

Item #	1 Strongly disagree (%)	2 Disagree (%)	3 Don't know (%)	4 Agree (%)	5 Strongly agree (%)	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	4.3	15.2	15.2	42.4	22.8	3.64	1.125
2	4.3	6.5	14.1	48.9	26.1	3.86	1.023
3	20.7	31.5	22.8	22.8	2.2	2.54	1.123
4	16.3	29.3	15.2	27.2	12.0	2.89	1.305
5	31.5	34.8	12.0	16.3	5.4	2.29	1.227
6	5.4	16.3	15.2	50.0	13.0	3.49	1.084
7	10.9	43.5	15.2	23.9	6.5	2.72	1.142
8	13.0	34.8	26.1	19.6	6.5	2.72	1.122
9	23.9	51.1	12.0	10.9	2.2	2.16	0.986

The responses for those items are summarized in Table 1. The responses indicate that most of the respondents are interested in pronunciation teaching (Items 1 and 5) and are willing to learn about pronunciation teaching (Items 2, 3, and 6). However, they are not necessarily interested in research on pronunciation teaching (Item 4) and finding teaching materials in pronunciation teaching (Item 8) and tend not to focus on pronunciation when teaching English (Item 7).

These responses were further analyzed with the binary logistic regression analysis to examine whether each of them can be a predictor to determine whether the respondents teach pronunciation or not. The results showed that Items 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, and 9 could be

predictors of whether they teach pronunciation in their English-related courses. The results from the binary logistic regression analysis for these six items are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2

Teachers' Interest in Pronunciation Teaching and Their Teaching Practice

Items	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for EXP(B)	
							Lower	Upper
Item 1	.973	.320	9.241	1	.002	2.646	1.413	4.954
Item 2	.680	.291	5.476	1	.019	1.974	1.117	3.490
Item 4	1.078	.401	7.204	1	.007	2.938	1.337	6.453
Item 6	.878	.313	7.853	1	.005	2.407	1.302	4.448
Item 7	1.172	.479	5.995	1	.014	3.228	1.263	8.248
Item 9	-.641	.309	4.297	1	.038	0.527	0.287	0.966

Note. B = the B coefficient value. S.E. = the standard error. Wald = the Wald chi-square test. df = the degrees of freedom. Sig. = the significance level based on p-value. Exp(B) = the exponentiation of the B coefficient. C.I. = the confidence interval.

Teachers' Beliefs About Pronunciation Teaching and Teaching Practice

The other factor included in the analysis of this study was teachers' beliefs. The questionnaire items in this section are the following (see Appendix B for the actual questionnaire.), and the responses to the 15 items are summarized in Table 3.

1. Teachers should know the English sound system to teach pronunciation.
2. Teachers can help learners improve their pronunciation.
3. Courses solely focusing on pronunciation should be offered in primary education in Japan.
4. Courses solely focusing on pronunciation should be offered in secondary education in Japan.
5. Courses solely focusing on pronunciation should be offered in university education in Japan.
6. When teachers are fluent English speakers (including native speakers), they know how to teach pronunciation.
7. Explicit explanation about the English sound system helps learners learn pronunciation.
8. Teachers can teach pronunciation without explicit knowledge about the

English sound system.

9. Teachers should learn how to teach English pronunciation.

10. Pronunciation teaching should be integrated into other skill courses.

11. Teachers should avoid correcting pronunciation errors.

12. Explicit explanation about how to produce each sound helps learners learn pronunciation.

13. Teachers should spend time in class to teach English pronunciation.

14. Teachers can help learners learn English pronunciation.

15. Having learners repeat native speakers' pronunciation is an effective way to teach pronunciation.

Table 3.

Teachers' Beliefs About Pronunciation Teaching

Item #	1 Strongly disagree (%)	2 Disagree (%)	3 Don't know (%)	4 Agree (%)	5 Strongly agree (%)	Mean	Standard deviation
1	2.2	5.4	3.3	59.8	29.3	4.09	.860
2	1.1	1.1	7.6	62.0	28.3	4.15	.694
3	15.2	29.3	22.8	21.7	10.9	2.84	1.243
4	15.2	28.3	23.9	23.9	8.7	2.83	1.210
5	14.1	28.3	27.2	23.9	6.5	2.80	1.151
6	30.4	50.0	12.0	5.4	2.2	1.99	.920
7	1.1	10.9	25.0	46.7	16.3	3.66	.917
8	10.9	33.7	25.0	22.8	7.6	2.83	1.135
9	1.1	6.5	15.2	50.0	27.2	3.96	.888
10	0	8.7	16.3	50.0	25.0	3.91	.873
11	7.6	57.6	21.7	9.8	3.3	2.43	.893
12	2.2	6.5	22.8	48.9	19.6	3.77	.915
13	2.2	12.0	34.8	41.3	9.8	3.45	.906
14	0	0	7.6	66.3	26.1	4.18	.553
15	2.2	7.6	27.2	54.3	8.7	3.60	.839

Most of the respondents believed that knowledge about the English sound system and about how to teach English pronunciation effectively would be important (Items 1, 6, 8, and 9). Most of them did not consider that standalone pronunciation courses should be offered (Items 3, 4, 5, and 10), but slightly more than half of them responded that some time in class should be allocated for pronunciation teaching (Item 13). Concerning teaching approaches, most of the respondents believed that explicit explanation of English

pronunciation could help learners learn pronunciation (Items 7 & 12), that error correction should not be discouraged (Item 11), and that repeated practice using a native speakers' pronunciation model would help improve learners' pronunciation. Finally, a vast majority of the respondents believed that pronunciation was teachable (Items 2 and 14). In short, the respondents commonly believe that teachers should learn to teach pronunciation effectively, and those teachers who know effective teaching methods can facilitate the learners' development of English pronunciation.

The results of the binary logistic regression analysis of teachers' beliefs and their pedagogical choice of whether or not they teach pronunciation showed that only two of the items could be a predictor of the decision. Table 4 summarizes the results of the binary logistic regression analysis. First, a belief that fluent speakers can be effective teachers can be a predictor of the respondents' decision whether to teach pronunciation or not. That is, those who believe that fluent English speakers know how to teach pronunciation effectively tend not to teach pronunciation. The other significant predictor found in the binary logistic regression analysis was related to teachability. Those who believe that teachers can help learners learn pronunciation tend to teach pronunciation. In other words, believing that pronunciation is teachable leads the teachers to the decision that they will teach pronunciation.

Table 4.

Teachers' Beliefs About Pronunciation Teaching and Their Teaching Practice

Items	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for EXP(B)	
							Lower	Upper
Item 6	1.287	.603	4.551	1	.033	3.623	1.110	11.824
Item 14	1.562	.689	5.131	1	.023	4.767	1.234	18.414

Note. B = the B coefficient value. S.E. = the standard error. Wald = the Wald chi-square test. df = the degrees of freedom. Sig. = the significance level based on p-value. Exp(B) = the exponentiation of the B coefficient. C.I. = the confidence interval.

Discussion

The respondents were highly interested in learning to teach pronunciation. Regardless of the field of expertise of the ELTs, they seem to be willing to learn about effective ways to teach pronunciation. Although this is beyond the scope of the purpose of

this study, the respondents' interests in learning to teach effectively can be explained in a few ways. First, as authors of several previous studies have argued (Baker, 2014; Burns, 2006; Burgess & Spencer, 2000; Foote et al., 2011; Henderson et al., 2011; MacDonald, 2002; Murphy, 2011), many ELTs have been struggling with teaching pronunciation mostly due to lack of training in the teaching of pronunciation. This lack of pedagogical training inevitably led to the teachers' lack of confidence and therefore their willingness to learn more about how to teach pronunciation effectively. Another possible cause of this interest level can be the very small number of standalone pronunciation courses offered at universities in Tokyo. Teachers must teach pronunciation in other skill courses, including speaking, listening, reading, and writing. In those courses, teachers cannot allocate a long time for pronunciation teaching. This trend of integrating pronunciation into other skills courses requires efficiency in pronunciation teaching.

Regarding teachers' beliefs, the findings were mixed. Many respondents believed that pronunciation was teachable, and those teachers who believed that ELTs could help learners improve tended to teach pronunciation. These results are rather positive compared to neglected pronunciation teaching often found in similar survey studies (e.g., Burns, 2006). The positive result of this study can probably be ascribed to the data collection method. As this study employed an online survey expecting a snowball effect, those who are interested in pronunciation teaching and possibly those who are educated regarding pronunciation teaching and learning participated in this study. It is unlikely that those who had been trained in pronunciation teaching would not believe in the effects of pronunciation teaching. On the other hand, the negative finding regarding the respondents' beliefs was in whether they taught pronunciation or not. More specifically, those who believed that ELTs should know the English sound system, those who believed ELTs should learn how to teach pronunciation, and those who believed that pronunciation should be integrated into other skills courses did not necessarily teach pronunciation. This result can be interpreted as follows: the ELTs who know effective ways of teaching pronunciation should teach pronunciation to help learners improve their pronunciation, yet the respondents may not consider themselves as ELTs who do know effective ways.

The results of this study should be treated carefully. As Borg (2006) explained, teachers' beliefs are dynamic and therefore change over time as they gain experience. The stated beliefs analyzed in this study were merely the beliefs at the time of the survey. The respondents may have slightly different beliefs even after completing the survey for this study.

Conclusion

The findings of this study showed quite positive results regarding teachers' interests in pronunciation teaching, but these results should be interpreted carefully. On a positive side, the majority of the participants showed relatively strong interest in the teaching of pronunciation and willingness to learn effective ways to teach pronunciation. It is also important to note that those teachers who are highly interested in pronunciation teaching tend to teach pronunciation. However, it is equally noteworthy that those who are not interested in pronunciation teaching tend not to teach pronunciation. In pedagogy, the decision of whether ELTs teach pronunciation or not should depend on whether learners need it or not. Therefore, how ELTs diagnose the learners' needs in pronunciation and how their diagnostic results are reflected in their teaching should be investigated in the further research.

In terms of teachers' beliefs about pronunciation teaching and learning, although the findings were also positive, the negative impact of their beliefs on pronunciation teaching should be concerned. The majority of the teachers agreed that ELTs should know effective ways to teach pronunciation, that pronunciation should be part of other skills courses rather than offered as a standalone pronunciation course, and that ELTs can help learners to improve their pronunciation. The results of this study showed that the respondents commonly recognize the importance of learning effective ways to teach pronunciation and to integrate pronunciation teaching into other skills courses. However, most of the items measuring teachers' beliefs were not strong predictors of whether they teach pronunciation. More specifically, even those who believe that ELTs should learn how to teach pronunciation and that ELTs can help learners improve their pronunciation do not necessarily teach pronunciation.

Implications for Teacher Training

The results of this study are rather encouraging in contrast to those of previous studies. As discussed earlier, the participants do not represent the overall teacher population in a similar context. Nonetheless, at least the results showed that ELTs in Japanese universities recognize the need to learn effective ways to teach pronunciation and that they believe they can help learners improve their pronunciation. In other words, education and training provided for preservice and in-service teachers would benefit the learners eventually.

On a positive note, most of the participants are highly interested in learning effective pronunciation teaching. When such training opportunities are available, those teachers should be notified. Unfortunately, some postgraduate level programs in teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) worldwide do not offer a pronunciation teaching component as a required course (Derwing, 2010). For those who wish to learn pedagogical pronunciation, a few solutions can be suggested. For one thing, the teaching of pronunciation should be offered at least as an elective course in postgraduate TESOL-related programs. In addition, more opportunities for professional seminars and workshops related to the teaching of pronunciation should be offered for in-service teachers. Finally, continuous efforts of those who work in the field of pronunciation pedagogy to disseminate up-to-date research findings with practical implications are strongly desired.

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Appendix A: A Questionnaire for Teachers' Interests in Pronunciation Teaching

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements about your interests in pronunciation teaching? Please indicate the level of your agreement using a 5-point scale. Please do NOT leave out any items.

	Please choose one that you think most closely represents your opinion about each of the items below.				
	1: Strongly disagree	2: Disagree	3: Don't know	4: Agree	5: Strongly agree
1. I am interested in teaching pronunciation.					
2. I would like to learn effective ways to teach pronunciation.					
3. I am reluctant to attend professional seminars/workshops on pronunciation teaching.					
4. I try to catch up with recent findings in pronunciation teaching.					
5. I am uninterested in pronunciation teaching.					
6. I would like to learn theories in pronunciation teaching.					
7. I tend to emphasize pronunciation when teaching English.					
8. I like finding teaching materials and textbooks for pronunciation teaching.					
9. I am reluctant to teach pronunciation when teaching English.					

Appendix B: A Questionnaire for Teachers' Beliefs About Pronunciation Teaching and Learning

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements about your beliefs about pronunciation teaching? Please indicate the level of your agreement using a 5-point scale. Please do NOT leave out any items.

	Please choose one that you think most closely represents your opinion about each of the items below.				
	1: Strongly disagree	2: Disagree	3: Don't know	4: Agree	5: Strongly agree
1. Teachers should know the English sound system to teach pronunciation.					
2. Teachers can help learners improve their pronunciation.					
3. Courses solely focusing on pronunciation should be offered in primary education in Japan.					
4. Courses solely focusing on pronunciation should be offered in secondary education in Japan.					
5. Courses solely focusing on pronunciation should be offered in university education in Japan.					
6. When teachers are fluent English speakers (including native speakers), they know how to teach pronunciation.					
7. Explicit explanation about the English sound system helps learners learn pronunciation.					
8. Teachers can teach pronunciation without explicit knowledge about the English sound system.					
9. Teachers should learn how to teach English pronunciation.					
10. Pronunciation teaching should be integrated into other skill courses.					
11. Teachers should avoid correcting pronunciation errors.					
12. Explicit explanation about					

how to produce each sound helps learners learn pronunciation.	68				
13. Teachers should spend time in class to teach English pronunciation.					
14. Teachers can help learners learn English pronunciation.					
15. Having learners repeat native speakers' pronunciation is an effective way to teach pronunciation.					

Exploring a Way of Incorporating a Japanese High School Teacher's Belief about English Teaching into Practice

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English teachers in many Japanese high schools are likely to be feeling on edge. This is because the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology Japan (MEXT) addressed the necessity of introducing non-governmental test systems, such as TOEFL, designed to assess four skills, into the National Center Test for university admissions starting in 2016 even though the MEXT saw the fact that the majority of students taking the test are at an A1 or A2 level in terms of the CEFR (MEXT, 2016) as a difficulty of applying the testing systems to the National Center Test. It can be said that the use of TOEFL to assess academic English abilities for the purposes of entry to American universities is a mismatch for the English proficiency level of most Japanese high school students—even though the importance of integrated English abilities has been widely discussed in view of growing globalization. In most cases, the government's decision has resulted in an increase in pressure on school English teachers related to reducing the gap between the reality of their contexts and the excessive expectations from the government.

In fact, Japanese high school teachers have experienced a number of challenges as a result of government policy. For example, Nishino and Watanabe (2008) point out that high school teachers have faced difficulties using communicative approaches due to lack of training and confidence, low English proficiency, and positive perceptions of traditional grammar-translation method for success in university entrance examination, while Japan's education policy has focused on practical English communication abilities. According to Kumaravadivelu (2012), the English language teaching profession has been conditioned by the impact of the increasingly globalized economy and culture, Western knowledge and traditions, top-down approaches in teacher education, and methods established by Western scholars. In that sense, it can be said that further focus on the specific contextual traits of ELT in non-Western countries and the autonomy of non-native English teachers in their teaching practices facilitate English education in Japan. However, the conditions of Japanese teachers of English tend to be marginalized in the Japanese government's decision, which is based on introducing innovative English education to cultivate learners' communication abilities in an effort to facilitate globalization. It is safe to suppose that

understanding the conditions under which Japanese teachers practice actual English teaching is at least as important as grasping the situation of students when it comes to the big picture of English education in Japanese high schools. Research on high school teachers' philosophies and teaching practices needs to be conducted. It is worth exploring high school teachers' beliefs and teaching practices.

Literature Review

Teachers' beliefs play a pivotal role in teaching practice. According to Freeman and Johnson (1998),

> [T]eachers' beliefs about teachers and teaching are instrumental in shaping how they interpret what goes on in their classroom. […] teachers' beliefs and past experience as learners tend to create ways of thinking about teaching that often conflict with the image of teaching that we advocate in our teacher education programs. (p. 401)

As they argue, one problem is a gap between teachers' beliefs as constructed through their individual experience and current trends in English teaching. In the case of English education in Japan, there is a very real possibility that beliefs that value university entrance exams will drive teachers to teach English skills to help students pass those exams, which results in inconsistency vis-à-vis the governmental objectives regarding English education.

Nishino (2009) conducted mixed method research on English teachers' belief about communicative language teaching (CLT) and practices in Japanese high schools. The results of her quantitative study revealed that teacher beliefs and classroom practices of CLT were influenced by university entrance examinations, contextual factors such as students' low proficiency, and teachers' education and training. On the other hand, her interview study found that all of the four participants held beliefs of both CLT and traditional teaching approaches. Additionally, they did not have a conflict with having those beliefs simultaneously. Rather, the interview study reported teachers' practices were subject to their teaching context. The reason why one of the participants used a traditional approach was that the participant believed memorization helped third-year students to prepare for university entrance examinations. It showed that teachers' belief system was constructed in their teaching context. However, school type, academic or vocational, was not a strong factor prompting the use of CLT in her quantitative research. According to her, a change in various

university admission opportunities led to the result. For instance, students could choose whether they would take those exams or not regardless of school type.

When it comes to English teaching practice in Japan, teacher confusion can be caused by Japan's top-down education systems. For example, teachers worry about successfully developing students' communicative abilities due to their lack of teacher training in this area (Nishino, 2009), the lack of confidence in teachers' English proficiency, and the pressure of societal expectations (Nagamine, 2014). Nagamine (2014) found that the beliefs of teacher participants were constructed socio-culturally through school history and culture and were affected by emotions aroused in interactions between them and their students or colleagues. As actual teaching settings consist of various complex elements, it is not always simple for a teacher to apply an established method in the classroom and achieve good results. Therefore, it is important to shed light on both teachers' beliefs and contextual factors in order to identify components surrounding teachers resulting in efficacious teaching. Nagamine (2014) suggests that a first step for improvement in English education in Japan would be to explore socio-cultural, pedagogical, and political aspects in teaching through the viewpoints of teacher practitioners; such an investigation could contribute to current understanding of what context-sensitive teaching practices are possible.

Context-sensitive teaching is associated with postmethod approach (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Postmethod pedagogy differentiates the characteristics of the teaching context from the various methods established by Western scholars. It encourages teachers to personalize theories of practice, giving consideration to "location-specific, classroom oriented innovative strategies" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p.33). With such approach, teachers are expected "to act autonomously within the academic and administrative constraints imposed by institutions, curricula, and textbooks" (p.33) and construct teaching based on pragmatism through "self-observation, self-analysis, and self-evaluation" (p.33). It seems that postmethod approach enables teachers to create context-sensitive teaching environments, objectively considering government decisions and theories established by the Western academic establishment.

However, Japanese socio-cultural aspects are one of factors to make it difficult for teachers to be autonomous practitioners of personalized theories. For example, Nagamine (2014) points out that for one teacher participant, negative emotions regarding his teaching performance were generated by pressure from a senior colleague who disagreed with his teaching style. Seniority in the Japanese context might challenge less-experienced teachers to resist school tradition. In addition, Sato and Kleinsasser (2004) reported that the teachers' collaborative work was regulated by school norms and values, finding that the norms conditioned not only what teachers taught but also how they taught. This shows that teacher

collaboration can restrict individual teachers from following their own intuitive teaching philosophy.

In this way, English education to fulfill governmental learning objectives has experienced difficulty in actual teaching practices. Although trends of university entrance exams, the impact of exams on teachers' beliefs and practices, and teachers' lack of confidence lead to the difficulty, it might be worth exploring other possible problems that teachers have by collecting teachers' voices. Since Japanese socio-cultural aspects are likely to sustain top down system, it is supposed that knowing what teachers really think and feel is a key to find problems in teaching practices. Therefore, this paper explores how a teacher can make sense of teaching practices, focusing on a Japanese high school teachers' beliefs regarding English teaching performance. Especially, this study addresses the following questions:

1. What beliefs does an experienced teacher hold regarding her English teaching practice?
2. What beliefs are incorporated into her teaching practice?
3. How do these beliefs are incorporated into her teaching practice?

Research Method

Participant

The participant was an English teacher at a high school that the researcher of this study had worked for before. Her name was Ai (a pseudonym). She majored in English literature at a junior college and majored in English and American literature at a university. She had worked as a quilt instructor in the United States of America for a year, as a caregiver on the U.S. military base for three years, and as a Japanese teacher in an elementary school in the U.S. military base for three years, which illustrates that she had a high level of English proficiency. She subsequently entered the English teaching profession in earnest in a private high school located in a suburb of Tokyo. At the time when the interview was conducted, she also had around three years' experience as a part time teacher at a senior high school. The school she applied to offers junior and senior high school programs, and she was put in charge of 22 50-minute-long classes a week for junior and high school students.

Data Collection and Analysis

The data were collected via an open-ended questionnaire about learning English and working experience and a semi-structured interview including not only her beliefs about English teaching but also actual teaching practices. The interview was conducted on Skype and two and a half hours interview data was collected. During the interview, she was asked to verbalize her teaching procedure. It was for an understanding of what she saw and felt in her actual classroom and for focusing on what affected her recognition of her teaching practice. All the data collection methods were conducted in Japanese, and the interview data were transcribed.

As far as data analysis is concerned, latent content analysis, which "concerns a second-level, interpretive analysis of the underlying deeper meaning of the data" (Dornyei, 2007, p.246), was used as a research tool for this study. In the analysis process, first, the interview data were read repeatedly. Second, parts related to the research questions were pre-coded. Third, the pre-coded data was reread and coded by such labels, as what she did in classroom, her belief of English teaching, her feeling and influence of the school culture on her practice. Statements belonged to two labels when those had two kinds of elements. The coded data was analyzed each label and among labels.

I used to work at the same high school as Ai; she talked to me about her teaching, and we often exchanged information at the time, which provided me with an impression that she was an assertive and responsible teacher. That perception may have influenced the analysis. However, to avoid subjective interpretation by the researcher of the interview scripts, the participant (Ai) checked the language of extracts from the scripts translated into English and her suggestions were reflected to the data.

Findings

Beliefs about Teaching and English Teaching

Ai had unique learning and working experiences that influenced her beliefs regarding teaching English. As for her learning experiences, when she could not communicate in an English-speaking situation at the age of 17, she questioned herself, asking: "What have I learned English for?" Her experience outside the classroom made her realize that her English education at school had not contributed to her communicative competence. She explained why she had become a caregiver as follows: "[The reason I

became a caregiver was] not that I wanted to become a caregiver but that I wanted to know the process of how children come to understand a language through the working experience" (Interview 12 June 2014). This excerpt illustrates that she had an interest in the mechanism of children's language acquisition. These events show that she was posing herself questions and trying to derive principles of language learning in practice.

Based on her experience, she recognized English as a practical tool and reported the following:

> I want them (the students) to have intellectual curiosity and wide antennas. If they have a tool like English, they can put up their own antennas. […] If they do not have their antennas, they cannot gain more information. […] They do NOT like English, it is part of my job to help them set up their antennas. […] I do not know what goals the other teachers have, but I think teachers should have such a clear vision as consistency, because it is an important key of teaching. (Interview 12 June 2014, Capitals show emphasis by the participant)

She had the belief that English is a tool to gain information. Her belief was associated with students' English use outside the classroom, which implies she assumed that students would use English in real life. Addition to it, she described English as a necessary tool for people with international perspectives.

> "If you want to be a person with international perspectives which is called, "Kokusaijin it is necessary to speak English. However, not the only language ability but also I keenly realized that they can not succeed in any countries unless they know their own culture or background such as Japanese culture as Japanese." (Interview 12 June 2014)

That is to say, her purpose of teaching was practical English intended to broaden students' vision for their future. When she talked about English skills that students needed, she referred to international context. She recognized speaking skills as an important factor to become a person who can introduce oneself to others from different background. It seems that she saw English as a tool to express oneself in multicultural context and her belief of teaching English was based on her learning experience outside of classroom.

The excerpt above shows that she consciously understood that teachers need clear visions. It can be supposed that her confidence as a teacher is reflected in her statement. In

sum, she held the belief that English should be taught in a practical way through her prior experience, and her vision of teaching was a factor that helped her to be a confident teacher.

Teaching Practice

The high school students that Ai taught were enrolled in three different courses—a general course; an academic-specialized course to prepare students for university entrance exams; and a vocational course. This means that her students' learning abilities and objectives were various. To focus in on one context where Ai taught English, the current study concentrates on her teaching in the general course. This course was selected because the students were expected to enter schools for professional training and universities depending on recommendations from the school or self-recommendation, so their learning was unlikely to be affected by university entrance exams. She described that the students "like copying what is written on a blackboard to their notebook, so do not sleep during the task," while they "would give up, looking up words in a dictionary (in the case of homework)" since they "cannot identify the contextual meaning of words in a text" (Interview 12 June 2014). Her perception of the students' learning attitude implies that the students' English proficiency and motivation were considerably low.

Her teaching responsibility includes four 50-minute classes covering vocabulary practice, reading comprehension, and grammar exercises. Routinely, every four classes covered a unit of the textbook. In the first session, she started with the day's point, which explains grammatical points at the beginning of the lesson. In the second session, she first taught them the meaning of words from the text, drawing their attention to any complicated spellings. Next, she had some students write the text on the blackboard. She checked whether their homework was done, walking around the classroom while playing the audio of the text. Then, she called on different students to read a sentence aloud and had the student call on another to translate the sentence into Japanese. In the third session, the whole text was translated, and she had the students do grammar exercises in the textbook. In the fourth session, the students took a vocabulary quiz, and then she had them check their answers in pairs. After that, she had the students create bingo cards for a review of the vocabulary from the quiz. Finally, she provided opportunities for the students to present their answers to the grammar exercises, which they did in the last session. This description shows that she used such traditional approaches as form-focused instruction and the grammar-translation method in the class. Activities to develop students' communicative

abilities were not reported in the routine, while pair work and games made her class learning-centered.

Her reported teaching performance was constructed with learning-centered approach. "Learning-centered" is defined as learning conditions that are informed by an understanding that "language is best learned when the learner's attention is focused on understanding, saying, and doing something with language" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p.27). According to Ai, "first, teachers should show the students that learning is fun. Second, I think to build trust between a teacher and students is very important. Based on building this respect and trust relationship, I can give them tasks." (Interview 12 June 2014).

This excerpt illustrates that she tried to cultivate learning autonomy. In terms of English teaching based on her beliefs, an oral presentation task was given at the end of the year. She not only engaged in standard teaching, employing traditional approaches but also in learning-centered approaches based on her own teaching philosophy, whereby she created a communicative classroom in accordance with her own beliefs about teaching English.

Process of Constructing Teaching Flow

When she constructed the teaching flow described above, she reflected on her experience and analyzed how she taught English. She described that:

> My task assigned by the school was to cover a textbook. That is a part of the curriculum and also the guideline from the Education Ministry. I guess it shows the teacher's ability such as how to teach the context (target) of the textbook and make an interesting lesson through my experiences following the curriculum. (For example,) I associate a word with an expression in daily conversation in order to use it as an example. Then, I can get students' attention, I think. (Interview 12 June 2014)

This excerpt shows how she followed school and governmental policy in her teaching. However, her adjustments based on her teaching philosophy and beliefs about teaching English are notable.

Although she appears to have been able to conduct teaching based on her beliefs by analyzing the textbook, she sometimes struggled with a colleague who disagreed with her teaching style. She shared the following story:

A co-teacher (full-time) who worked with me said "'your exam was difficult; I would make it much easier." So, I told her, "Then it would be pointless." The teacher replied, "I would make the test easier because third-year students' graduation depends on their grade for the first term" (Interview 12 June 2014).

This school used a standardized test that consisted of the same questions for all the classes in the general course, even if different teachers taught the classes. According to Ai, tests should assess how much effort learners make to understand in class; however, some teachers provided hints to help the students pass the test and required mere memorization to answer questions. In cases when other teachers had different teaching beliefs, teacher collaboration was a factor that hindered Ai from teaching coherently, based on her own beliefs.

Discussion

This study did not find a conflict between CLT and traditional approaches in the interview data, which agrees with the results of Nishino's interview study (2009). For instance, although Ai believed that speaking skills were necessary to become a person who can present own culture, her teaching practice included limited communicative teaching. Ai's teaching performance was not affected by university entrance exams as her students were in the general course and were therefore not required to take any. But, her teaching practices were more likely to be influenced by the students' low English proficiency and the textbook chosen by the school. Thus, Ai assigned easier homework that was adjusted to their level and taught conversational phrases, using vocabulary in reading texts in order to draw the students' attention. As she stated in interview, she created her teaching practice in accordance with the textbook chosen by the school and curriculum constructed by MEXT.

Ai also believed that teaching English has a role to arouse students' intellectual curiosity. She tried to attract the students' interest in a communicative way that she thought important. Although her teaching practice focused on reading comprehension through grammar-translation methods rather than CLT, having couple of beliefs might enable her to prevent from facing a conflict between practicing traditional approaches and ideal practicing of CLT. The textbook provided by the school mismatched their level, which resulted in a lot of support for reading comprehension and vocabulary development in

classroom work. As Nishino (2009) points out, contextual factors can be a key to conducting CLT.

Ai's learning experiences made her realize that English was a tool for communication, and she held beliefs about English teaching that were based on that idea. Although that is consistent with governmental objectives, the school conditions were not conducive to teachers' use of communicative activities. Rather, she maintained traditional approaches in her regular teaching practices. This example shows the necessity of practical teacher training and learning experiences, as Nishino (2009) suggests. Yet, in addressing the process of making sense of her teaching practice, she analyzed the textbook, contextualized her teaching practices, and incorporated communicative tasks. As discussed above, it seems that the minimized frequency of communicative tasks in her reported practices resulted from students' low English proficiency and motivation as well as the school traditions and students' lack of learning experience. Notably, however, low-level students tend to lack autonomy in learning. It is likely that she tried to encourage them to find learning interesting by using learning-centered approaches such as bingo games, thereby negotiating with students' characteristics in a frame of local context.

The interview data shows that Ai's colleague, who was full-time teacher, valued students' scores over learning outcomes as far as creating tests was concerned. An issue raised here is the efficacy of teacher collaboration, as investigated by Sato and Kleinsasser (2004). Standardized tests force teachers not only to keep pace with peers but also to have the same pedagogical objectives. The interview data shows that Ai had difficulty to incorporate her belief into classroom practice when standardized tests were mandatory and a co-teacher held a different educational perspective in terms of assessment.

Psychological factors also influence teacher beliefs (Nagamine, 2014), and in Ai's case, she appears to have confidence in her teaching performance and high level of English proficiency. As for the negative emotions pointed out by Nagamine (2014), the interview data do not reveal pessimistic emotions but instead indicate negative feeling toward the school employment system:

> "In Japan, a teacher's position is unrespectable. I feel like "temporary" even I worked so hard and no matter how I contribute this school. If part-time teachers are fired, they will simply lose their job. That's means there is no guarantee of employment insurance scheme (for part timers). (Part-timers are situated) in the lowest position." (Interview 12 June 2014)

This extract shows that she had anxiety about part-time teacher position. Although her tone did not sound pessimistic, she described the position as "unrespectable" and "the lowest". These words can lead to the assumption that teacher position differentiated jobs. Moreover, she reported "as a part-time teacher, I cannot teach how they should act in society, because there is a limitation for my position" (Interview 12 June 2014). This is not directly about teaching English but classroom management is one of teacher job. It is questionable that teacher position can decide what and how they can teach.

Conclusion

The participant was a confident English teacher, but she only partially practiced teaching based on her beliefs. In this study, two beliefs of teaching English were found. One is English should be taught to enhance students' speaking skills for their future. The other is English teaching should widen students' intellectual antennas. The two types of beliefs seems to support Ai's teaching practice even in encountering contextual difficulties.

Limitations on her teaching were imposed by contextual factors such as students' low English proficiency, standardized teaching caused by examination systems, and disagreements with colleagues over her teaching philosophy. However, it can be said that her English teaching under those circumstances was influence by a mixture of her beliefs and context-sensitive teaching. Notably, in making sense of her teaching, she analyzed teaching materials and observed students' reactions.

One limitation of this study is that it does not include school and classroom observations. Therefore, the contextual factors identified in the interview data are limited by what was reported. Therefore, it is necessary to collect further data in order to deepen understanding of actual teaching practices in high schools. As there are various contextual problems that in-service high school teachers in Japan are facing in order to develop students' communicative competence, contextual problems can be different in every school, classroom and teacher. Therefore, it seems that creating opportunities to share information with teachers regardless of types of schools and teacher positions and identify each teacher's contextual problems is a key to develop teaching practices based on their beliefs.

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教員養成スタンダードの視点に立った英語科教職課程履修生の学び　－非教員養成系・私立大学における省察と当事者の語りを手がかりに－

Learning Processes of Pre-service EFL teachers in Japan: From Teacher Education Standard Perspectives

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Abstract

本研究は，教員養成スタンダードと教育実習の位置づけの視点から，日本の非教員養成系・私立大学の英語科教職課程を事例として，教員養成に関わる当事者間の共有ツールとしてのポートフォリオ（J-POSTL）の活用と有効性を検討するものである。ポートフォリオの本質的な機能である「省察」を軸に，大学教員，実習校教員が履修生の「学び」の過程を共有し，相互に意見交換を行い，多様な教育環境へ対応しうる未来の教員を育てていく機会を持つことは極めて意義がある。本論では，国際的動向から見た教員養成スタンダードの現状を概観し，J-POSTL 調査から明らかになった履修生の学びの実態や，面接調査における彼らの教育実習に対する語りを考察する。

1．はじめに：研究の背景

　諸外国において教員の資質能力・専門性に関する基準・スタンダードの策定が進められる一方で，日本では，教員免許状取得のための必須要件，ひいては教員採用試験合格の判定・評価も明文化されていない。このことは，履修生，大学の指導教員，実習校の指導教員，教育委員会などが，「大学の教職課程で身に付けるべき力」や，「教職の専門性」に関する共通理解がないまま，それぞれの立場や考えで教員養成に関わっていることを示唆している。例えば，2014 年 4 月 1 日時点で教員免許状を取得できる大学は，中学校教諭・高等学校教諭の一種免許状（英語）で全国 306（国公立 89，私立 217）校，その定員総数は 72,656 名（文部科学省 2015a），また，普通教員免許状（外国語）の授与件数は，2012 年度が中学校 8,367，高等学校 8,435 であったが（文部科学省 2015b），近年の課程認定大学の増加にともない，教員免許状の授与数も増えているという状況において，教育内容・方法のバラつきは教員養成の質保証にとって大きな障壁である。

　教職履修生にとって，教育実習は小，中，高の教育現場を経験する特別な期間・時間であり，初めて実際の児童・生徒を相手に授業実践を体験する機会であると考

えられる。「大学生にとっての教育実習とは，大学で修得した学問の成果を，実践的経験をとおして主体的に再構築し，理論と実践の融合を図る場所であるといえる。」（森 2014：262）。それゆえに，この教育実習の際に，履修生の「学び」に関して，大学教員と実習先の指導教員の共通理解の欠如が浮き彫りになる可能性が大きい。教員養成系・国立大学法人における教職課程では付属の中学校・高等学校との連携が活発に進められている可能性が高いが，非教員養成系・私立大学の場合，履修生はそれぞれの母校で教育実習をすることが多く，履修生が一体，何を，どう学んできたかを実習校の教員が分からない（伊東・宮崎・小田 2015），あるいは履修生が大学の授業で学んだ内容や方法が実習校での実践経験で活かされないという現状もある（伊東 2016a, 2016b; 伊東・宮崎 2016）。

２．教員養成スタンダードの現状：パフォーマンス評価をめぐって

２．１　教員養成スタンダードとは何か

　日本において，後述の先行研究を含め，「教員養成スタンダード」という用語の公式的な定義は見当たらない。筆者の研究では「教員養成段階で教職履修生が身につけるべき資質・能力の規準（criteria）および基準（standards）」と定義することにする。

　英語科教職履修生が英語教員になるために身につけるべき資質・能力が様々な要素から成り立っているとすると，「教職としての資質・能力（人）」と「英語教員特有の資質・能力（英語運用能力，英語教授力）」の 2 つに大きく分類する見方がある（JACET 教育問題研究会 2012）。これら 2 つは，評価の考え方における規準（ノリジュン），つまり資質・能力をどのようにとらえるかという観点である。これに対して，それぞれの構成要素がどのくらい達成されているかを測るのが基準（モトジュン）である。規準は，資質・能力を測るための「ものさし」の種類であり，基準は「ものさし」の目盛りである。すなわち，「英語科教員養成スタンダード」とは，英語科履修生に求められる資質・能力の種類・内容，およびそれらの深さを測るのに必要な共通のものさしであると言える。

２．２　国際的視野による教員養成スタンダードのとらえ方

　教員の専門性に関して，諸外国では教員の資質や能力の規準・基準を開発し，養成，採用，研修の各段階の指標として活用する動きが見られる。1980 年代後半から 1990 年代の米国や英国で教員の資質・能力の開発が始まり，2000 年以降では国際的な流れとなっている。国立教育政策研究所（2017）の教員養成スタンダードの国際調査（平成 28 年度実施）によると，調査対象国において，養成段階の基準と

して教員の資質・能力スタンダードの活用しているのは，英国，オーストラリア，ニュージランド（教員資格取得），米国（教員免許），ドイツ（教職課程の編成），英国・米国（認定）である。英国，米国においては，養成，採用，現職の教職キャリア全体を見通したスタンダードが開発されている。

（1）米国の教員養成スタンダード

　米国のスタンダード教育改革は『危機に立つ国家（A Nation at Risk）』（1983 年）の出版が発端となり，「落ちこぼれゼロ法（The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001）」（2002 年）施行等によって，スタンダードを基礎にしながら，カリキュラムと指導，評価，アカウンタビリティ，専門研修などに一貫性をも持たせる教育システム作りの構想が推し進められた。教員の資質・能力スタンダード設定の動きの中の代表例として，「全米教職専門基準委員会（National Board for Professional Teaching Standards; NBPTS）」（1997 年），「州間新任教員評価支援コンソーシアム（Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium; INTASC）」（1992 年）がある。米国では，このような全米レベルの専門職組織によって教員の資質・能力スタンダードの開発が行われ，各州に適用されている。

　2011 年，INSTAC は「州間教員評価支援コンソーシアム（Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium; InTASC）」による基準として改定されたが，学習者の育成すべき能力と教科内容を示す，州共通基礎（以下コア）・スタンダード・イニシアチブ（Common Core State Standard (CCSS) Initiatives）（2010 年）と連動していると考えられる。InTASC による州コア・ティーチング・スタンダード（core teaching standards）は，"describe what effective teaching that leads to improved student achievement looks like（CCSS 2011: 3）"（生徒のより良い学習効果を導く効果的なティーチングがどのようなものであるかを示す）ものである。

　表 1 の通り，州コア・ティーチング・スタンダードは 4 つの一般領域のもと，全部で 10 の基準（基準 1～基準 10）で構成されている。さらに，各基準には下位項目として，パフォーマンス（Performance），不可欠な知識（Essential Knowledge），重要な素質（Critical Disposition）がある。

　井上（2012）によると，教育学者や教師にとって悪評と名高い NCLB 法が米国の教育界に与えた影響は大きく，教師教育を連邦政府の政治パワーによって行動主義的，結果主義的なベースに戻らせることになった。さらに，米国の教師教育の思想的基盤について，「今でもジェームス（William James）やデューイ（John Dewey）などの機能主義的，プラグマディズム的なルーツを持っており，また 20 世紀中盤からの実験心理学的考え方，特に行動主義（Behaviorism）の大きな影響を受けてきた」（井上 2012: 31）と述べている。

表 1．InTASC 州コア・ティーチング・スタンダード（CCSS 2011: 8-9 より作成）

○学習者と学習（The Learner and Learning）	
基準 1（Standard #1）	学習者の成長（Learner Development）
基準 2（Standard #2）	学習差（Learning Differences）
基準 3（Standard #3）	学習環境（Learning Environments）
○教科内容の知識（Content Knowledge）	
基準 4（Standard #4）	教科内容の知識（Content Knowledge）
基準 5（Standard #5）	教科内容の応用（Application of Content）
○指導実践（Instructional Practice）	
基準 6（Standard #6）	評価（Assessment）
基準 7（Standard #7）	指導計画（Planning for Instruction）
基準 8（Standard #8）	指導方略（Instructional Strategies）
○職務上の責任（Professional Responsibility）	
基準 9（Standard #9）	専門的学習と理論的実践（Professional Learning and Ethical Practice）
基準 10（Standard #10）	リーダーシップと協同（Leadership and Collaboration）

(2) ポートフォリオによるパフォーマンス評価：カリフォルニア州の事例

　次に，カリフォルニアの教員養成スタンダードにおけるパフォーマンス基準の例を紹介する。これは，米国の教師教育における上記の風潮に対抗した動きの中で起こった新しい評価システムであった。カリフォルニアでは，2006 年，州法（SB1209）によって，全ての教員養成プログラムの修了用件として，ティーチング・パフォーマンス評価（Teaching Performance Assessment; TPA）を義務づけている。TPA については，カリフォルニア州免許委員会（California Commission Teacher Credentialing; CCTC）による CalTPA があったが，それを不満とする州内の大学コンソーシアム（Performance Assessment for California Teachers; PACT）によって，2007 年に PACT による TPA がその代替えとして認められることになった。

　PACT はスタンフォード大学を中心とした NBPTS 直系組織であり，カリフォルニ大学，カリフォルニア州立大学，私立大学など，州内の全 31 校が加盟している（2017 年 8 月時点）。PACT は教師のパフォーマンス評価の中心に質的な要素（生徒の理解，話し合いの進め方）を取り入れることによって教師の質の検証・保証を担保することを目指している。PACT が開発した TPA では，（1）指導のための知識と技術（必修基本評価）（Embedded Signature Assessments; ESAs），（2）教育実習中の実践評価（指導評価）（Teaching Event; TE）の 2 つを評価の対象としている（伊東 2009）。ESAs の内容やエビデンス収集期間はそれぞれの大学によって異なるが，各履修生のケーススタディ，指導案や細案，生徒の取り組みに対する分析，教育実習の観察と省察，ポートフォリオなどが含まれる。TE は，教育実

習時における 3〜5 回（時間）の授業の詳細記録のことで，教科科目ごとに，学習
環境（Context for Learning），計画（Planning Instruction & Assessment），指導
（Instruction Students & Supporting Learning），評価（Assessment Student Learning），
省察（Reflecting on Teaching & Learning）の 5 つの TE 課題（TE Task）で構成され
ている。TE ハンドブックには，それぞれの課題に対応して，「行うこと（What to
do）」と「提出するエビデンス（What to submit）」が明示されている。

> The PACT performance assessments are subject-specific portfolios of teaching (called
> "teaching events") with a standardized set of integrated tasks that ask teachers to
> documents their planning, teaching, assessing, and reflecting around a series of lessons
> on a topic of their own choice (Chung 2008, 8).

　ポートフォリオによるパフォーマンス評価を特徴とする PACT について，総括的
エビデンス（summative evidence）とともに，形成的エビデンス（formative evidence）
を収集することによって，履修生と指導教員がともに履修者の学びの過程をモニタ
ーし，共有された情報を教員養成プログラムの改善に役立てることができると，
Chung-Wei and Pecheone は述べている（Chung-Wei and Pecheone 2010: 122-123）。
　現在，スタンフォード大学と全米教員養成大学協会（American Association of
Colleges for Teacher Education; AACTE）がパートナーシップを組むことにより，
PACT は全米バージョンの edTPA として他州でも導入され，InTASC と CCSS との
整合も図られている。また，PACT や edTPA の教育効果に加えて，大学教職課程
での課題や提案に関する研究も進められている（Pecheone and Chung 2006，Chung
2008, Guaglianone et al 2009, Hamel 2012, Gouraige 2016, Traver 2017）。

（3）パフォーマンス評価と教育実習
　2011 年 2 月，筆者は PACT 実践と教育実習のあり方を学ぶため，PACT 加盟大学
の 1 つであるカリフォルニア州立大学ノースリッジ校（California State University,
Northridge; CSUN）の教職課程プログラムの授業視察調査を行った（伊東（2011）。
公立小学校で教えるための「複数教科免許状（Multiple Subject Teaching Credential;
MS）」取得のための教職課程プログラムの概要をまとめると以下のようになる。
CSUN では教員養成を大学全体の問題としてとらえ，教育学部（CSUN），教育委
員会（ロスアンゼルス統一学校区; LAUSD），教育現場（学校区の小学校）による
三者パートナーシップを推進していた。
　CSUN では当時，5 種類のプログラムを開講し，その中で最も興味深かったのは
「複数免許－1 セメスター教育実習 5 年次プログラム（Multiple Subject Single-

Semester Student Teaching Traditional Program; MS-SSST Program）」である。カリフォルニア教員免許制度では，学士以上の学位を取得後に教職課程プログラムに入学するという5年次プログラムが一般的な従来型であり，教育実習（計16週間分）を2セメスターかけて行うのが基本である。これに対し，1セメスター集中型MS-SSSTの履修生は，教育実習中もCSUNで毎週1回（1:00pm-3:50pm）開講する「教育実習セミナー」に出席しなければならない。筆者はこのセミナーを視察したが，同じ小学校で教育実習を行っている4名の履修生が教育現場からセミナーに駆けつけ，指導教員とともに1週間の実践経験を共有し，話し合い，問題解決にあたりながら，PACT TE課題に取り組んでいた。このようなセミナーを可能にしたのは，CSUNコーディネータによって履修生達の教育実習先が選択・管理されるシステムが確立されていたからである。教育現場の経験を不可欠な要素ととらえるCSUNのMS-SSSTプログラムの教育実習には以下の特徴があった（伊東 2011: 8-10）。

・ 学生は2回の教育実習セミナー（各8時間）（計3単位）を履修登録することにより，教育実習とPACTへの支援を受けることができる。

・ 教育実習セミナーを通して，学習の「レッスン・スタディ（lesson study）」モデルに従事し，指導とピア・コーチング（peer coaching）の効果的な方法を研究し，全児童の学習ニーズを満たすことができる。

・ 終日の教育実習の経験において，学校スタッフと一緒に学校生活を送りながら全教科を教えながら，授業と日常生活の全ての場面に慣れ親しむことができる。

・ 教育実習中は大学とパートナー校から支援を受けることができる。

・ 教育実習セミナーの修了時には，複数免許教科免許状取得のための準備が整う。

　現在，スタンフォード大学と全米教員養成大学協会（American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education; AACTE）がパートナーシップを組むことにより，PACTは全米バージョンのedTPAとして他州でも導入され，InTASCとCCSSとの整合も図られている。また，PACTやedTPAの教育効果に加えて，大学教職課程での課題や提案に関する研究も進められている（Pecheone and Chung 2006，Chung 2008, Guaglianone et al 2009, Hamel 2012, Gouraige 2016, Traver 2017）。

３．日本の教員養成スタンダードの現状：教育実習の位置づけをめぐって

３．１　課程認可大学：教員養成系と非教員養成系
　日本において「教員養成スタンダード」は確立されておらず，教員の資質・能力をどうとらえて，それをどの程度まで身につけさせるかという解釈や理解，それに基づく教育実践は，それぞれの課程認可大学に任されているのが現状である。どの

課程認定大学で，どのような授業で学んだかに関わらず，単位の積み上げによる免許状付与を前提とし，教育実習を経て教職課程の必要な単位を取得した学生には教員免許状が一律に授与されることになる。戦後の教員養成の二大原則（大学における教員養成，開放制）および免許状主義は教育実習の形骸化，ひいては日本の教員の質的保証において重大な問題である。しかしながら，このような国の教師教育に関する制度設計の曖昧さに加えて，教師の専門性が何であるのかが明確にされないまま（八田 2008，姫野 2010，伊東 2016c），課程認定大学は「教職課程の質的水準の向上」（文部科学省 2006a; 2006b, 中央教育審議会 2015）を求められ，教職課程の改善・充実に向けた主体的な取り組みを余儀なくされているという矛盾を抱えている。

　この矛盾への対応については，教員養成系・国立大学法人による教員養成スタンダード開発を例としてあげることができるであろう（別惣　2013，別惣・渡邊 2012，別惣ほか 2012, 遠藤 2014）。教員養成スタンダード開発は，養成段階での教員の質保証に向けた国際的動向に鑑みて，教職および教員養成段階において求められる最小限必要な資質能力を同定し，明示化することを喫緊の課題とし，米国，英国，ドイツ，オーストラリア，韓国による先行事例などを参照して進められている。例えば，兵庫教育大学による小学校教員養成スタンダード策定では，全国の公立小学校等への大規模調査をふまえて，50 項目の資質能力を同定し，「学び続ける教師（3 項目）」「教師としての基本的素養（15 項目）」「子ども理解に基づく学級経営・生徒指導（14 項目）」「教科等の指導（14 項目）」「連携・協働（4 項目）」の全 5 領域の構造化を示している。これらのスタンダード構築の試みにおいて，大学ごとの置かれた状況によって学内運営体制などは大きな差異はあるが，教育内容上には一定の共通性が見られることも報告されている。兵庫教育大学教員養成スタンダード開発チームは，教員養成スタンダードに基づく教員の質保証を考えるためには，各校の様々な取り組みを複合的に採用し，より優れた学習支援体制構築を提唱した上で，（1）教員養成スタンダード開発に際して，その学問的正当性を確認する，（2）教員養成スタンダードの内容に関して，資質能力の幅広さや構造（階層），校種ごとの特性に配慮する，（3）学内の運営体制に関して，カリキュラム・マップ作成や e-ポートフォリオ開発など，学習支援体制の構築を進める（別惣・渡邊 2012: 20-21）の 3 点を注意事項としている。

　非教員養成系・私立大学はどうであろうか。戦後の教員改革の二大原則「大学における教員養成」と「開放制」のもと，教員養成系大学でなくても，教職課程の設置が可能となったため教員免許状が取れるようになり，教員免許取得者が急増した。これは大学と学生の双方のニーズによるものであるが，免許取得者のうち，実際に教員採用試験を受けて教育現場の教壇に立つ者は，教育養成系大学の教職履修

生に比べれば少数であることも事実である。では，なぜ多くの私立大学の学生が教職課程を履修するのか。早田・加澤（1994）は教職課程担当経験と観察に基づいて，履修生の動機やメリットと思われるものを 8 つ列挙し，彼らが教育実習体験を通して教育の役割についての理解を深めて自らの人生観や価値観，社会観や職業観の転機に導かれる可能性を指摘している。また，私立大学の教職課程の使命について，黒澤（2006）は「各大学の建学の精神を活かす人間形成の理念や方法を，教職課程の教育の根底におくべきであること」という教育課程教育観に基づき「特色のある資質・力量を兼ね備えた個性豊かな教師を教育界に送り出す」（黒澤 2006: 2−3）ことだと述べている。

　このような私立大学の状況は，履修生 1 人ひとりの学びの深さや広がりに大きく関わるものであり，教育現場での授業や職務に重要で不可欠となる，教員としての資質・能力の育成に直結するものである。それはまず，履修生にとって初めての教育実践の機会となる教育実習の場において，さらに，教職に就いた新任教員にとっては着任校において，どのような形や結果となって現れるだろうか。山﨑（2012: 246）によれば，私立大学には多種の免許・資格の取得可能性を掲げざるを得ないという固有の事情がある。教職課程は「つけ足し」ではないにせよ，教員養成系大学の教育内容とは様々な違いがあり，その違いは，学校現場への入職後の専門性（教職，教科内容）の脆弱さとして顕在化する。それはすなわち，新任教員達が自らの課題を指導教員や同僚，また教員研修によって乗り越えていくという，日本特有の「現場で教員を育てる制度と文化」（日本教育学会 2010; 10）が背景にあると考えられる。また，国際比較において，日本の教育実習期間が極めて短いという認識については，条件付き採用期間である初任 1 年間を「教育実習の 1 年間」として評価する見方もある（日本教育学会 2010; 17）。

３．２　非教員養成系・私立大学における教育実習の意義

　次に，非教員養成系・私立大学における教育実習の意義や意味について考えてみる。戦後，教員免許取得者の数が急増し，教育実習先の受け入れ先として履修生の出身校に依頼することが多くなったが。これは非教員養成系・私立大学では一般的な流れであり，教員養成系・国立大学の教育実習のあり方とは異なっている点である。

　日本の教育実習の始まりは，学制公布（1872 年）に伴い創設された東京師範学校の教授法の実施訓練が附属小学校で行われたことによる。それゆえに，教員養成系大学・国立大学法人の実習先が附属小・中・高校として機能してきた。教育実習の意義や諸問題に関して，国立大学法人の履修生を対象とした研究のうち，米沢（2007）はそれまでの先行研究をふまえて実施した回想的質問紙調査の結果から，

初等教育教員養成コース 3 年次生にとって，5 週間の教育実習には教育的意義（教職に対する構え，教授方法・技術の習得，教育現場の実践状況の理解）があるが，学級経営に関する基礎的力量の習得は困難であるという認識を明らかにしている。中田（2012）はショーマン（Shulman）の「教育的推論と行為のモデル（Pedagogical Reasoning and Action Model）」を用いて小学校国語科の「授業研究」を通した教育実習生の成長・発達の記録と分析を試みている。愛知教育大学の松井孝彦は教育実習について，「大学で学んだ教科や教職に関する専門的な知識，理解や理論，技術を，教育現場の実際に即して学び直す場である」（松井 2016: 51）と定義し，自身の一般校および付属中学校・高校での教育実習生の指導経験に基づき，知識が豊富で理論を確実に理解している学生ほど，実践的な能力を高めたが，教育実習の学びが十分でなかった学生は，教職の大変さだけを実感して実習を終えたように思われたと述べている。これらに対し，私立大学の教育実習について，前述の黒澤は「教育実習は，教職をめざす学生が，教師の仕事の実際に触れてみて，みずからの決意と適性とを最終的に確認するとともに，自己の人間的および学問的未熟さを自覚して，未来に向かってあらたな学習課題を発見するための経験学習の場として位置づけられるべき」（黒澤 2006: 3-4）ものであると主張している。

　確かに，教育実習を体験することは，その後の履修生の人生の選択や，自己の成長に関わる重要な教育の営みであろう。本論では，教員養成スタンダードと教育実習の位置づけの視点から，非教員養成系・私立大学の英語科教職課程における教育実習の意義や意味を再考してみたい。そのための手がかりとして筆者が着目しているのが，次に述べる J-POSTL の活用である。

4 日本の教職課程における学びの可視化：J-POSTL の活用と有効性を探って

4.1 J-POSTL：概要と構成

　J-POSTL とは何か―日本の言語教師を対象に作られた「言語教師のポートフォリオ（Japanese Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages; J-POSTL）」（JACET 教育問題研究会 2014）である。J-POSTL は欧州評議会による「言語教育実習生用ヨーロッパ・ポートフォリオ（European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Language; EPOSTL）」（Little et al 2007, Newby et al 2007）を日本の言語教育環境でも受容できるように翻案化したものである。「ヨーロッパ言語共通参照枠（CEFR）」と密接に連携している EPOSTL は，行動志向とコミュニカティブ・コンピテンスという同様の考えを基礎としており，言語教育の教員養成課程履修生に教職に必要な知識を考え，将来の教育者としての成長のための省察ツールとして用いられる文書で

ある。深澤（2014: 302）は，教師に求められる授業力を可視化し，その授業力を支える基本知識を省察するめのツールとして教育実習の振り返りに活用する有効性に言及している。

　J-POSTL は（1）個人履歴（自分自身について，記述式），（2）自己評価記述文（7 分野，全 96 項目，Can-do チェックリスト形式），（3）学習・実践記録（ドシエ，記述式）の 3 つの内容で構成されている。

(1) 個人履歴（Personal Statement）

　「自分自身について」は自由記述である。教職履修生が(1) 過去の英語学習経験，（2）教職課程や教育実習に対する期待や不安（3）英語教師の資質について考えるための内容となっている。

(2) 自己評価記述文（Self-Assessment）

　言語教師が達成すべき核となる専門能力として位置づけられている。7 分野（I〜VII）と下位項目のもと，言語教授に関する計 96 の能力記述文で構成され，各記述文には自己評価（1−5 の 5 段階評価）が付いている。教職履修生は，J-POSTL を継続的に使用し，計 3 回（J-POSTL を受け取った時，教育実習前，教育実習後）の自己評価活動によって，自らの到達度に対する意識を判断し，自分の成長の記録を可視化することができる。

　I　　教育環境（Context）

　II　　教授法（Methodology）

　III　　教授資料の入手先（Resources）

　IV　　授業計画（Lesson planning）

　V　　授業実践（Conducting a lesson）

　VI　　自立学習（Independent learning）

　VII　　評価（Assessment）

(3) 学習・実践記録（Dossier）

　それぞれの実施日，指導目標・実践事項，学習・実践内容の概要と生徒の変容，およびコメントを記述する。学習・実践の記録によって，自己評価項目について自分の判断の根拠や，判断が適切であるか否かを示すことができる。

４.２ J-POSTL 調査（2014 年度～2015 年度）：研究１，研究 2－1（伊東・宮崎・小田 2015，伊東 2016a；2016b; 伊東・宮崎 2016）

筆者は J-POSTL の実践的意義に着目し，2014 年度から 2 年間，私立 T 大学の英語科履修生（3 年次）を対象に J-POSTL を補助教材として導入し，彼らの教職課程での学びの過程を可視化するための調査を開始した。日本の教員養成において，教員養成スタンダードがない中，非教員養成系・私立大学の履修生は教職課程で何を，どう学んでいるのか。彼らにとって教育実習の体験はどのような意味を持つのか，教職の専門性をどのようにとらえて免許状を手にしていくのか。筆者は J-POSTL の実践的意義に着目し，2014 年度から 2 年間，私立 T 大学の英語科履修生（3 年次）を対象に J-POSTL を補助教材として導入し，彼らの教職課程での学びの過程を可視化するための調査を開始した。英語教師（栗原 2014），あるいは私立大学の英語科教職履修生の学びに焦点をあてた先行研究（Fujii 2013, Asaoka 2015, 高木 2015, 吉住 2015; 2017）は決して多いとは言えないため，本調査から現状の把握と問題の所在を明らかにし，新しい知見を得ることを目的とした。

（1）目的

英語科教職課程の履修生自身，大学教員，実習校教員の 3 者において，履修生の「学び」の過程を可視化するための「共通理解ツール」としてのポートフォリオ機能について検討する。教育実習前に，履修生達がどのように「行為のための省察」を行っているか，彼らの教育実習中・教育実習後の省察を共有する意義や可能性はあるのか。

（2）対象者と期間

2014 年度の私立 T 大学 3 年生 17 名を卒業時まで追った 2 年間の省察の記録を対象とした。T 大学で英語科教員免許状（中・高等学校一種）を取得するためには，文学部英語文化コミュニケーション学科（学部）あるいは文学研究科（大学院）に所属し，教職課程を履修する。教職に関わる科目としては，3 年次開講「英語科教育法 1」「英語科教育法 2」「英語科教材論」，4 年次開講「教育実習 1」「教育実習 2」が履修要件である。なお，教育職員免許法施行規則改正（2008 年公布，2009 年 4 月 1 日施行）に伴い，2010 年度以降，新設科目「教職実践演習（2 単位）」が教職課程の必修科目に位置付けられ（文部科学省 2012），「学びの軌跡の集大成」を把握するために「履修カルテ」作成が義務付けられたが，私立 T 大学の履修カルテは大学卒業の直前に 1 回のみ，他の科目と同じ用紙に提出する形であり，総括的エビデンス・評価の役割を果たしていないことも本調査を行う意義であると考えた。

（3）データ収集方法と手順

2014 年 5 月，J-POSTL（紙媒体）を「英語科教育法 1」「英語科教育法 2」「英語科教材論」の補助教材として，対象の学生に配付し，卒業時までの省察ツールとして使用を促した。J-POSTL を構成する 3 つの内容－（1）個人履歴，（2）自己評価記述文，（3）学習・実践記録－にそれぞれに回答することによって，自らの英語学習の経験，知識，実践を振り返り，教職に必要な資質能力について考える好機にするように指導した。また，卒業までの 2 年間の J-POSTL 回収手順についても説明した。J-POSTL は，2014 年度に 2 回（春学期と秋学期），4 年次の教育実習後に 1 回（2015 年度：秋学期），計 3 回にわたって回収した。多くの学生は 2015 年度春学期中（4 月～7 月）に教育実習を行ったが，全ての学生が教育実習に行き，「教育実習・事後指導」授業を終了し，さらに，卒業論文を提出した後に第 3 回目となった最後の J-POSTL 回収を実施した。

（4）データ分析方法

2 年間の 1 回目～3 回目（2014～2015 年度）によって得られた（2）の自己評価記述文（計 96 項目）の回答（5 段階評価）をフリードマン検定で有意差を確認し，以下の 4 つ（①～④）に分類した（伊東 2016b; 伊東・宮崎 2016）。表 2 は，「V 授業実践」に関する自己評価記述文への回答を分類した結果の例（①，②，③）をまとめたものであり，③に該当する項目はなかった。③については「I 教職課程」，「II 教授法」において，それぞれ項目 1 つが該当した（表 3）。

① 教育実習前と後で両方伸びた
② 教育実習前と後で両方伸びなかった
③ 教育実習前で伸びたが実習後では伸びなかった
④ 教育実習前で伸びなかったが実習後で伸びた

表 2．教育実習前・後の授業実践に対する自己評価（2014～2015 年度，4 年生）（伊東 2016b より作成）

①	教育実習前と後で両方伸びた
D-2	フラッシュカード・図表・絵などの作成や視聴覚教材を活用できる。(Friedman: $\chi^2(2)$ = 14.53, p = .00 < .05　1-2: z = -2.33, p = .020　2-3: z = -2.00, p = .046)
②	教育実習前と後で両方伸びなかった
E-1	英語を使って授業を展開するが、必要に応じて日本語を効果的に使用できる。(Friedman: $\chi^2(2)$ = 2.85, p = .24 > .05　1-2: z = -1.27, p = .206　2-3: z = -1.14, p = .253)

E-2	学習者が授業活動において英語を使うように設計し指導できる。 (Friedman: $\chi^2(2)$ = 13.56, p = .00 < .05　1-2: z = -1.89, p = .059　2-3: z = -1.89, p = .059)
④ 教育実習前で伸びなかったが実習後で伸びた	
C-2	学習者中心の活動や学習者間のインタラクションを支援できる。 (Friedman: $\chi^2(2)$ = 12.48, p = .00 < .05　1-2: z = -1.34, p = .180　2-3: z = -2.53, p = .011)
D-1	個人学習，ペアワーク，グループワーク，クラス全体などの活動形態を提供できる。(Friedman: $\chi^2(2)$ = 12.84, p = .00 < .05　1-2: z = -1.00, p = .317　2-3: z = -2.31, p = .021)

表 3.　教育実習前・後の教職課程と教授法に対する自己評価（2014〜2015 年度，4 年生）（伊東 2016b より作成）

③　教育実習前で伸びたが実習後では伸びなかった	
I　教育課程（Curriculum）	
B-3	学習者が英語を学習する動機を考慮できる。 (Friedman: $\chi^2(2)$ = 13.72, p = .00 < .05　1-2: z = -2.31, p = .021　2-3: z = -1.67, p = .096)
II 教授法（Methodology）	
B-3	学習者が E メールなどのやり取りを行うのを支援する活動を設定できる。 (Friedman: $\chi^2(2)$ = 14.52, p = .00 < .05　1-2: z = -2.49, p = .013　2-3: z = -1.09, p = .276)

(5) データ分析結果と考察

　2 年間の J-POSTL 調査からは，英語科教員養成に関して，教職履修者が何を，どう，どこで（大学授業，教育実習）で学んでいるのかという実態や課題の一端が浮き彫りになった。例えば，学習指導要領の理解に関しては大学授業と教育実習の両方を通して，学習者との関わりや指導スキルは教育実習を通して学ぶことが多い。履修生にとって英語での授業や，統合型スキルの授業は教育実習の際の課題である。大学の授業で扱えない領域や項目を実習経験から学ぶ可能性も高い。

　また，「英語の授業は英語で行うことを基本とする」とする高等学校学習指導要領（文部科学省 2008）については，中・高の教育現場での実情は様々のようであった。大学教員にとって履修生の学びの過程を知ることは，自身の授業改善のための振り返りを促し，大学の授業改善（教授法や授業運営に比重を置くシラバスへの変更等）は履修生の学びや自己評価にも反映することが示唆された。履修生の教科内容や授業運営に関する理解度に関して，大学（教職課程）と中学校・高校（教育実習）で共通理解を持ち，両者で履修生を育てていく重要性・必要性がある。

４．３ 面接調査（2015 年度）：研究 2-2

　J-POSTL 調査（2014 年度～2015 年度）の継続・追加として，任意参加で個別の面接を行った。表 4 は，J-POSTL 調査（研究 1，研究 2－1）と面接調査（研究 2－2）をまとめたものである。

表 4.J-POSTL 調査と面接調査（2014 年度～2015 年度）（研究 1，研究 2－1，研究 2－2）

研究 1	J-POSTL 調査（2014 年度）（教育実習前）（伊東・宮崎・小田 2015，伊東 2016a）			
	対象者	1 回目	「英語科教育法 1」（春学期）履修生	有効回答数 17
		2 回目	「英語科教育法 2」「教材論」（秋学期）履修生	
	対象項目	J-POSTL　（1）個人履歴，（2）自己評価記述文（7 分野 96 項目）		
研究 2－1	J-POSTL 調査（2015 年度）（教育実習後）（伊東 2016b；伊東・宮崎 2016）			
	対象者	3 回目	「教育実習 1」「教育実習 2」履修生	有効回答数 11
	対象項目	J-POSTL　（2）自己評価記述文（7 分野 96 項目）		
研究 2－2	面接調査（2015 年度）（教育実習後）			
	対象者	任意参加		参加人数 5

５　面接調査：概要について

５．１　目的

　本研究の目的は，私立 T 大学を事例として，非教員養成系・私立大学の英語科教職履修生の教職課程や教育実習に関する語りを通して，次の 2 点を明らかにすることである。
①履修生にとって教職実習の経験はどのような意味をもつのか
②ポートフォリオ（J-POSTL）は履修生の学びの過程を可視化し，当事者（大学教員と教育実習校教員）間の共通理解のためのツールとして有効であるか

５．２　調査の方法

　本面接調査の参加者，質問項目，分析方法は，以下の通りである。

（1）調査参加者

　表 4 で示したとおり，筆者らは 2014 年度から 2015 年度において，研究 1，研究 2-1 を行った。研究 2-1 に参加した 4 年生 11 名のうち，追加調査のための構造化インタビューに応じてくれた 5 名で，彼らを研究 2－2 の対象とする（表 5）。この 5 名は全て教員として進路が決まっていた学生であった。

表 5. 面接調査参加者（2015 年度，卒業間近かの 4 年生）

	学生	性別	教育実習	進路	インタビュー時間（分）
1	A	M	I 市立中学校	公立高校英語科教員	28：28
2	B	F	Y 市立中学校	公立中学校英語科教員	32：44
3	C	M	I 県立高等学校	期限付任用教員	45：42
4	D	F	S 市立中学校	臨時任用教員	46：57
5	E	F	S 市立中学校	私立校英語科特任教諭	53：12

　筆者らの研究 1 で用いた J-POSTL 調査（2014 年度）（伊東・宮崎・小田，2015，伊東 2016a）では，（1）個人履歴において，「自分自身について」を自由記述してもらったが，3 年生当時の彼らがどのように回答していたかを見てみる。まず，3 年生全員の回答による全体像については，「教職課程に対する期待」のトップ 3 は，「生徒の興味や関心を引く授業ができるようになりたい（9）」「様々な教授法を使い分けたい（7）」「その他（4）」。「実習に臨む前の期待」は「生徒とのふれあい（13）」「どのように生徒を引き込むか（5）」「その他（3）」であった。「実習に臨む前の不安」は，「英語を正しく教えられるか（自身の英語力）（9）」「生徒が興味関心を示してくれるか（7）」「生徒とうまくコミュニケーションが取れるか（4）」であった。

　次に，研究 2－2 の面接調査参加者 5 名のうち 4 名（無回答の学生 A を除く）に関して，3 年生当時の「教育実習の期待」と「教育実習の不安」の回答は表 6 の通りであった。

表 6. 面接調査参加者の教育実習前の期待と不安（2015 年度 3 年生当時）（伊東・宮崎・小田，2015 より作成）

学生	期待	不安
B	中学生に対しての授業ができること	自分の英語力が通用するのか
	先生の仕事を近くで見学できること	生徒の個性を理解し，それを活かすことができるか
	現役の先生からアドバイスがもらえること	想定外の状況などになった時に，最も的確な判断ができるか
C	生徒と触れ合うこと	生徒が自分の授業に興味をもってくれるか
	実際に教育現場で教えること	英語を正しく教えることができるか
		指導案通りに進めることができるか
D	塾でのアルバイトをやっているせいか，今まで多くの生徒とふれあってきた。当初はかなり緊張してしまい，固まってしまうこともあった（先生っぽくなかった）。しかしいまでは，前に比べると緊張感も減	塾に比べると，全校生徒の割合は断然に多いことになるので，「つまらない授業」をしてしまうのかが不安である。ペアワークやゲームなどの積極的な対応をしても，パターンが増えるため，その対処法が不安である。

	り，話の話題も増え，生徒も寄って くるようになったことで，多くの生 徒とふれあっていきたい。	
E	子どもとのふれあい	うまく教えられるか
	教える経験	他の人（教員，実習生，生徒）との関わり

（2）質問項目

　面接調査の質問項目は表 7 である。項目の選定については，筆者が本調査と同時に行っているオーストラリアの W 大学教職履修生への面接調査との比較を試みるために共通の質問項目を設定するようにした。オーストラリアと日本における学年暦や協力校の教職課程プログラムの様々な違いにより，W 大学の面接調査（2015 年 6 月〜10 月）が T 大学に先行するスケジュールになったため，面接調査の質問項目 1 −6 は英訳の形となった。また，本研究の目的のため質問項目 7〜9 を追加した。

表 7．面接調査の質問項目（2015 年度，卒業間近の 4 年生）

	教職課程，教職の専門性について
1	なぜ教職に就こうと思ったのですか
2	自分の教え方に最も良い影響を与えてきたものは何ですか
3	「良い教師」であることの，重要な特性は何だと思いますか
4	成功している授業実践（指導実践）にはどのような特徴があると思いますか
5	指導スキルを向上させるのに効果的な方法とはどのようなものだと思いますか
6	自分が最も得意／最も苦手とする（言語）教授の分野はどのようなものですか
7	「言語教師のポートフォリオ」を教職課程で使うことについてどのように考えますか
	教育実習について
8	教育実習，教職課程についてどのように思いますか（教職科目「英語科教育法 I ＆ II」「英語科教材論」で習ったことが，実際の教育実習で活かされたか）
9	自分の英語力についてどう思いますか（自分の英語力で実習は困らなかったか）

（3）分析方法

　面接によるインタビューデータをテキストマイニング（Text Mining Studio ver5.1 by NTT データ数理システム）によって分析し，その結果を質的な分析への手がかりにすることにした。テキストマイニングはデータマイニングの一種で，テキストマイニングに期待されるのは，この暗黙知を形式知に変換するプロセスである（服部 2010: 9）。また，テキストマイニング研究は，質的・量的の両方の性格をもち（表 8），探索的研究，仮説検証的研究，仮説生成的研究のすべてに有効である（いとう 2013: 475）。

　テキストマイニングは次の手順で行った。

① 面接調査の参加者 5 名分インタビュー（2016 年 2 月実施）の録音データを文字

に起こし，ワードファイル→エクセルファイルに変換後，1 本のファイルにまとめた。

② TMStudio で読み込み→分かち書きと係り受け→分かち書きデータのフィルタリングを行った。

③ 属性 C=カテゴリーとして，インタビューの質問項目（9 つ）に，「イントロ」「その他」を加えた。

表 8．典型的な質的研究と量的研究に対するテキストマイニングの位置づけ（いとう 2013：476）

方法	データ	分析方法
量的研究	数値（量的データ）	量的分析（統計）
質的研究	文字（質的データ）	質的分析
データマイング	数値（量的データ）	量的分析（統計）
テキストマイニング	文字（質的データ）	量的分析（統計）

６．面接調査：結果について

６．１ テキストマイニングによる分析

　面接によるインタビューデータ（5 名分）のテキストマイニングした結果の基本情報は，総行数は 1,614 行，平均文字数は 41.6 字，総文章数は 2,066 文，平均文字数は 32.7 字，延べ単語数は 14,202，単語種別数は 2,038 であった（表 9）。単語頻度解析については，一般名詞は，先生（238 件），英語（194 件），生徒（59 件），名詞ほかについては，良い（84 件），すごい（34 件），楽しい（32 件），多い（32 件）であった。係り受け頻度解析の上位を見てみると，最も多かったのは「英語」―「授業」（20 件），次いで，「教育実習」―「行く」（19 件），「授業」―「やる」（15 件）であった。

表 9．基本情報

項目	値
総行数	1614
平均行長（文字数）	41.6
総文章数	2066
平均文章長（文字数）	32.7
延べ単語数	14202
単語種別数	2038

　本面接調査では，テキストマイニングによる量的な分析ではなく，原文参照機能を活用した。テキストマイニングの原文参照機能は単語検索ができることに特長があり，必要な単語を効率よく検索することに優れている。他のソフトフェア（エク

セル等）の検索機能では，文字列検索（n-gram）しかできないが，今回使用した原文参照では，表記の揺れや活用形による語尾変化をクリアすることができた。

　例えば，面接者 MI（筆者）と学生 A，面接者 MI と学生 D，それぞれの面接のテキストデータに対して，キーワード「教育実習」を検索すると，原文を参照することができる（表 10）。対象データを選んで参照することもできるため，この検索機能は面接のやりとりや，回答の傾向を見るうえでも有効であった。

表 10. テキストマイニング原文検索「教育実習」：面接者 MI・学生 A・学生 D（検索結果の表を一部改変）

ファイルID	行ID	ID	Id all	Id person	S	C	n	Id school	QA	P	テキスト名	テキスト
1	13	13	13	13	男	8	学生A	2bbc ×× ××	q	MI:	text	どうでしたか，教育実習は。
1	14	14	14	14	男	8	学生A	2bbc ×× ××	a	A	text	え〜，やっぱりその，自分が，自分が，教育実習しに行く前に，想像していたのより，厳しい，って言うか，結構，辛い，思い出が残る教育実習になりました。
1	16	16	16	16	男	8	学生A	2bbc ×× ××	a	A	text	自分の，指導教員の人が，結構，厳しい人で，結構，自分のことを考えてくれて，その，僕が本当に教員になるなら，その，楽しい教育実習じゃなくて，自分のためになる教育実習をしてあげようって言ってたんですけれど。僕は，その，生徒と（笑），たぶん，僕の考えが甘かったんですけど，その，生徒と楽しくやって，３週間過ごせればいいなと思ってたんで，まあ，その点で，指導教員と粗利が合わなかったり，指導教員が厳しいなと思うことはありました。
1	1055	1055	1058	23	女	85	学生D	2bbc ×× ××	q	MI:	text	えーと，母校に教育実習に行った経緯，，，
1	1060	1060	1063	28	女	85	学生D	2bbc ×× ××	a	D	text	なんか，ちょうど２年生の暮れに，なんか，私が中三だった時の担任の先生が退職なされるということで，で，１年生の時から教育実習の話は聞いていたんで，で，それで，念のため３年生の時に，あっ，３年生になったら教育実習の，あの，申請とかっていうのがあるんで，じゃあ，混み合う前に，２年生のうちに，その先生に話を聞いておこうって思って，その，さいたま市立〇〇中学校，母校に，えーと，お願いに行きました。

６．２ 教育実習に関する回答

　質問項目 8「教育実習」の単語頻度による原文検索をかけて，全 5 名の回答の傾向を見た。彼らの語りから，教育実習の現状として「教育実習の意義」「大学授業の意義」「大学授業外の経験」「教育実習校との連携」の 4 つの概念が浮かび上がった。大学授業外の経験については，4 名が自分自身の塾講師の経験，さらに教員採用試験準備に通った塾やセミナーについて語っていた。以下に，回答例を引用しながら全体の傾向を示す。（　　　）内のアルファベットは学生，数字は各学生のデータ番号である。

(1) 教育実習の意義

・ え〜，やっぱりその，自分が，自分が，教育実習しに行く前に，想像していたのより，厳しい，って言うか，結構，辛い，思い出が残る教育実習になりました。（A-14）
・ そうですね，実際の現場の，は，で，模擬授業ではなく，，，，，本当に英語を学ぼうとしている中学生の前で授業ができたということで，ほとんど，あの，研修に近いような，，，，，この経験を活かして，中学校の先生になるんだなっていうような，訓練とかを，していただきました。（B-14）
・ はい。いろんな先生の授業などを見て，自分と比べてみると，まあ，全然違うなっていう風に感じましたし。（C-532）
・ そうですね。まあ，教育実習の英語に関しては（笑），あっと，結構，わりと壊滅的だなという風に思って（笑），へへへ（笑）。えー，なんだろう，受動態とか，あの，ing の使い方だったりっていうのを，あまり，そういうのを気にしないタイプだったんで，あの，，，。（D-112）
・ 英語の先生だったら，やっぱり，英語がたくさん，なんだろうな，，，，，使えて，楽しんだよって言うことを教えてあげられたらいいかなって言う風に思いましたね。なんか，実習行った時，結構，「使わないし」みたいな子が多かったので。「まあ，使わないかもしれないけど（笑），やったら楽しいんだよ」みたいな，こと。で，私がすごい，授業を聞いてて面白いなって言う先生は，自分がその教科がすごい好きで，楽しんでいるって言うことがあって，教えてくれる先生が，私はすごい聞いてて授業が楽しいなって思うので，私もそれは，自分が英語を好きで，みんなにも楽しんだよ，って言う気持ちで（笑），やれたらいいかなって言う風に思いますね。（E-252）

(2) 大学授業の意義

・ その模擬授業とかの，その授業，が，まあ，いろんな自分の指導の幅を広げるのに役立ったかな，って思ってます。(A-54)

・ とー，そうですね，まずあの，教授法,,,,，を知っていることによって，あの，先生，0 先生は，あの，教育，英語教育の専門の先生だったので，あの，やはりそういうことについて，えと，理解ができるということが一番良かったかなと思います。と，あとは，実際の学校の現場とは違うんですけれど，色々なパタンを知ったりとか，例えば，テストですとか，あと，授業方法とか知っていることによって，まあ，あの,,,,，準備が出来たかなと思います。(B-74)

・ （しばらく沈黙),,,,，そうですね（小声で),,,,，その，活動を増やすというところでは，あの，生徒同士のコミュニケーションを増やすというところでは，あの，T 大学の授業を参考に作ったところもあったので。はい，あの，活かされたと思うんですが。そうですね，教職,,,,　教職,,,,　そうですね，ただ，教職も勉強をしていたり，あの，大学の授業で教わっていたことは，頭に入って行ったんですけど，実際に行ってみると，結構，違う部分がありまして。(C-210)

・ そうですね，えー,,,,，（しばらく沈黙）教職で言いますと,,,,　まず，あの，校務分掌というのも教わっていたんですけれど，校務分掌。(C-212)

・ そうですね,,,,,　うーん，とにかく，M 先生の授業では中学生に対しては，なんか楽しくやりましょうとか，そういうお話しをなさることが多くって，あとは，あの，authentic material のお話もあったんですけど，あの，私は最初の授業の時，あの，中学生に対する最初の授業の時は，その，オーセンティック，オーセンティックなものをちょっと用いてみようかなっていう風に思って，その，ジブリの，あの，英語のタイトルをちょっと考えてみようっていうのをやったんですけど，本当にグループで，あの，考えさせたんですけど，本当に生徒たちは，すぐ，あの，なんか，関心のあること，興味のあること，だったりとかすると，本当に集中して考えてくださったりしてたので，あっ，authentic material, authentic material なのかどうかは，ちょっと分からないんですけど，あの，本当に興味の，興味，関心あることに関しては，本当に集中してやってくださるので，その面ではすごく役に立ったなーという風に思いました。(D-120)

・ なんか，なんか，行ってて，その実習に行って，何かが起きた時に，あっ，これ，ちょっと授業で習ったかも，とか，言うのは色々感じたことがあったり，あと，授業内で色んな，なんだろう，アクティビティを入れる時に，あっ，先

生，これでやってたな，みたいなのは役立ったりしたんですけれど，1 つ，その，授業内では，ティーチングプランを英語で書いてて，実習校では日本語で書かなきゃいけなかったので，ちょっと，やっていたのと全然違うなって言うのは（笑），ありました。（E-90）

(3) 大学授業外の経験

・ ま，4 年もバイトだったんで。結構，長い，ずっと 1 年生からやっていて。3 年間は同じ塾で，自分も 3 年生になって，まあ，結構，後輩とかできてきて，ま，プライドも芽生えてくるじゃないですか。で，自分がいて，一番教えるのがうまいんだって思ってきて。で，まあ，自分でもそれがダメだって分かってて，そうなっちゃうのが，天狗になっちゃうから，これじゃ，絶対，このまま成長しないなと思って。その，何でしょう，塾を変えたんですよ。バイトを変えたら，まあ，いろんな，自分より素晴らしい先生がたくさんいて，その人達から，いろんなこと吸収したりして，あとは，そうですね，それで，天狗になるのを防げたり（笑），自信過剰にならなかったり，はしました。（A-188）

・ それって，あの，自分が教職に，こう，火が点いたというか，1 番，こう，教職，教師を目指すんだって思ったのが，東京都の養成塾だったので。で，そこで，何が違かった，大学と何が違かったっていうと。（C-236）

・ とりあえず，私，あの，塾の講師もやっているので，とりあえず，さいたま市内の教科書全部統一なんで，全部教科書買い込んで。で，ワークは入手困難だったんですけど（笑），まあ，教科書だけ，まあ，あの，3 学年全部，買って，まあ，ペラペラめくったりとかっていう感じで，事前にやっていたっていう感じなんですけど。あとは，そうですね，模擬授業を結構，やらせていただいて，なんか，これ，自分で結構，機会を増やしていったっていう形なんですけど，あの，あの，自分の，わた，わた，私が，あの，塾講師をしている系列会社の方にお願いして，その，あの，T っていう，ちょっと,,,,,。（D-128）

(4) 教育実習校との連携

・ 自分の，指導教員の人が，結構，厳しい人で，結構，自分のことを考えてくれて，その，僕が本当に教員になるなら，その，楽しい教育実習じゃなくて，自分のためになる教育実習をしてあげようって言ってたんですけれど。僕は，その，生徒と（笑），たぶん，僕の考えが甘かったんですけど，その，生徒と楽しくやって，3 週間過ごせればいいなと思ってたんで，まあ，その点で，指導教員と粗利が合わなかったり，指導教員が厳しいなと思うことはありました。（A-16）

- えーと，今年度，，，来年度からはもうダメなんですけれど，今年度は自分で校長先生に掛け合うことができましたので，先生にお願いをして，で，えーと，了解を得たということを教育委員会に伝えて，それで，えーと，ちゃんと正式に，その中学校でできるということを教育委員会から，あの，もらいました。はい。(B-6)
- はい。えー，，，，まあ，1番は，あの，自分がお世話になっていた部活動の先生が，あの，実習先を決める時にはまず連絡して来いと言われたので，まず連絡したら，じゃあ，S高に来いということで。(C-28)
- 前，，，，，と，とりあえず，教育実習の前は，学年がとにかく，あの，ギリギリになるまで分からなかったので，，，，。(D-126)
- あっ，そのお願いをした時には，教育実習の担当の先生が私がいた時の数学の先生で，で，私のことも多分ほんのり覚えていてくださって，お話しさせていただいて，でも，実習に行った時には，いらっしゃらなかったんで，お会いしなかったです。(E-34)
- ちょっと練習できたら良かったかなと。私の先生，多分，普通は指導教官の先生が形式持ってたり，見せていただいたりとかするものだと思うんですけれど，結構，ベテランの先生だったので，「僕，作んないから，そういうの」みたいな感じで，あまり，こう，スタイルを見せていただけなくて。で，私が，結構，こう何回か，ってか，授業の毎に出してたんですけれど，多分，1回も見てなくて。で〜，一番最後の研究授業の時に，こう，5番，なんとかみたいな，タイトル，みたいなやつの誤字を違う先生に指摘されて，へへへ（笑い），「あっ」ってなるっていうことがあったので（笑）。まあ，ちょっと，その練習ができてたら良かったかなっていう風には思いますけど。(E-108)

６.３ ポートフォリオに関する回答

　J-POSTL を教職課程で使用することについて，質問項目 7「ポートフォリオ」の単語頻度による原文検索をかけて，全 5 名の回答の傾向を見ることにした。自分自身の学びの過程や成果を客観的に見る，学習の指標となるという意見があった。また，学生 E は大学所定の「履修カルテ」（自由記述式）と比較したコメントを述べている。

- そのなんか，教えるの，なんか，俺，自分はうまいと思ってて，でも，やっぱ，30 人，超える生徒の前で授業をするのは，まあ，難しかった，，，し，全然，ダメダメだなって（笑）っていうのは，で，それは客観的に見れて，そのポートフォリオで良かったなと思います。(A-77)
- （しばらくポートフォリオを見返しながら），，，，ポートフォリオの，この項目

　があることによって,,,,,　うん，と，まとめられているので，それを目指すということもできますし，あの，自分がもしできていなかったら，それに向けて頑張ろうというか，努力しようということができるので，あの，そういう面がポートフォリオはいいかな，って思いました。はい。(B-92)

・　あのー，そうですね，実習が終わった後に，「あっ，こういう意味があったんだ」っていうのを分かりましたし，自分の最初の評価があまりにも高すぎたとか（笑）。(C-484)

・　なんか,,,,,　なんか，自分がやった成果っていうのを確認する,,,,,。(D-172)

・　記入式だと,,,　何だろう，まあ，言い方ちょっとあれですけれど，都合のいいことだけ書けるって言うか，覚えてることだけ書けちゃうので，下がったこととか，あまり書きたくなくなる（笑），ると，書かないで済んじゃうので，こういう風にこう，自分がこう好まない項目もきちんと出てくると，付けられるのは大事だなって,,,,（笑），やっぱ。(E-144)

７．面接調査：考察について

７．１　非教員養成系・私立大学の教育実習

　前述のとおり，日本には，指導力向上は採用した教育委員会や学校での研修に頼るという，この国特有の制度と文化があるとされる。しかし，現職教員教育の重要性を認識した上で，筆者は「教職の専門性」のスタートは教員養成段階であると考える。また，諸外国とは異なり，教員養成スタンダードがないという日本の現状において，教員養成に関わる当事者達の間に「大学の教職課程で身につけるべき力」「教職の専門性」に関して共通理解や総意がないことは，「教職課程の質的水準の向上」（文部科学省 2006a, 2006b; 2012）への障壁である。

　現状に対する筆者のこのような問題意識を出発点として，本面接調査は非教員養成系・私立大学の英語科教職課程履修生が何を，どう学んでいるのかと言う問いに対して，私立 T 大学を事例として行った研究の 1 つである。その前段階である J-POSTL 調査（研究 1，研究 2－1）において，伊東・宮崎・小田（2015）と伊東（2016a）は大学教員と中学校・高校教員との間で共通理解を持ち，両者で履修生を育てていく重要性・必要性を問うたが，Fujii（2013）も，J-POSTL 使用と「省察（reflection）」促進に関する研究の中で，教員養成機関と教育実習校間の責任の分断には相互の密接な協力が重要であると述べている。

　以下に，今回の面接調査で浮かび上がった教育実習の現状に関する 4 つの概念（1）〜（4）についてまとめる。

(1) 教育実習の意義

　面接調査参加者 5 名のうち 4 名は，授業実践に直接的に関わる内容（教育現場での指導と人間関係全般）に関して「期待」と「不安」を教育実習前には言及していた。しかし，教育実習後には，それらを含む形で，教職課程や教育実習での学びを振り返り，教職に対する動機，決意，適性などを確認していたようである。私立大学の教育実習は教師の仕事の実際に触れる経験学習の場であるという黒澤（2006）の指摘通り，学生 C は校務分掌や同僚性との仕事の実情などのように，教職という仕事の種類や範囲を自分の目で確認し，その現実に対して意見を述べている。

(2) 大学授業の意義

　5 名の回答からは，教育実習では，大学授業で扱った学習環境や教授法・指導法に関する知識などが活かされたと判断している様子がうかがえる。模擬授業の経験も有益であった。しかし，大学での模擬授業の回数には限りがあり，2 年間の教職課程の中で数回程度の実践の機会という状況を考えると，大学授業における実践不足，それに伴う授業計画や評価などの領域の学習にも時間が取れないという課題が多く，それゆえに，現状のままでは，履修生達にとって意義のある大学授業を展開することには限界があるかもしれない。

(3) 大学授業外の経験

　教育実習での授業実践は，実際の中・高校生を目の前にして，自分の知識や技能を実際に試すことができるという点において，大学での模擬授業とは一線を画す貴重な経験である。その経験を塾という場に求めた履修生が面接調査参加者 5 名中 4 名もいた。塾講師として，あるいは教職採用試験準備のための塾やセミナーで，自ら実践の機会を作り出していたということは大変興味深い。このことは，高木（2015: 71）の研究において，塾等での指導経験や大学外での授業観察について述べた履修者がごく少数であったことから，自ら授業外の機会を活用して学びを深めようとする私立大学の英語科教職課程履修生が少ないという指摘とは異なっている。4 名の回答からは，必ずしも，塾等での経験が教育実習での経験が優位に働くわけではなく，その違い（授業目標の違い，生徒と教員との関係性の違いなど）に戸惑いを見せている様子も垣間見えるが，大学授業外でも積極的に学ぶという姿勢を持った個人だからこそ，教職に就くという結果を導くことができた可能性があるのかもしれない。一方で，非教員養成系・私立大学の免許取得（予定）者の中で，教職に就く 5 名のデータそのものの特異性とも考えられる。

（4）教育実習校との連携

　5名の回答からは，大学がシステム上，あるいは指導内容上ともに，教育実習校との連携に関して大きな課題があることが示唆される。私立大学の場合，履修生本人が自分で教育実習先を探してくることが多いが，5名もそれぞれの母校に交渉し，受け入れを許可されて教育実習を行ってきた。しかし，受け入れ側の体制も整っているとは言い難く，英語の授業についても，学校全体で指導目標が統一されておらず，実習担当の教員が指導案の書き方などを開示しなかった学生Eのような事例もある。また，「教室内の使用言語」は，大学授業と教育実習校との連携が図られていない顕著な例であることがうかがえる。高等学校学習指導要領（文部科学省2008）の「英語の授業は英語で行うことを基本とする」に従い，原則的にT大学では，中学校，高校の志望の違いにかかわらず，英語で授業をするように指導している。しかし，実際には，大学授業と教育実習校との間に「教室内の使用言語」に関する統一見解もなく，また，学生Bと学生Eの語りが示すように，教育実習校，さらには教育実習校の教員間によっても異なっていたことが面接の回答に示されている。前述のとおり，筆者らのJ-POSTL調査（2014年度～2015年度）において，自己評価記述文の回答（5段階評価）を分析した結果，「②教育実習前と後で両方伸びなかった」項目の1つが「V-E-1　英語を使って授業を展開するが，必要に応じて日本語を効果的に使用する」であった。この結果の背景には，大学授業と教育実習校において「教室内の使用言語」に関する考え方や実態のバラツキがあるのかもしれない。

・　はい。えー，1年生から3年生まで，えー，基本的に英語で指示する，のが基本の学校でした。（B-62）
・　基本的には日本語で説明するような形になってて。そうですね，私は，なんだろう，日本語で基本的にやって，でも，最後の研究授業の時に，違う先生，あの，指導じゃない先生に，もう少し英語が使えたら良かったねっていう風に，なんだろう，アドバイスをいただいたんですけど，私の指導教官の先生にはあまりそういう風には言われなくて，多分その先生は，結構，日本語で説明するのを推している方だったと思いますね。（E-70）

７．２　ポートフォリオの意義（活用と有効性）

　面接調査の質問項目7「ポートフォリオ」において，教職課程でのJ-POSTL使用について尋ねた。J-POSTL調査ではJ-POSTLを補助教材として用い，2年間で計3回の回収という形を取ったため，それ以外の状況で，J-POSTLをどんな目的で，どう使用するか，どれくらいの頻度やタイミングで活用するかは，履修生1

人ひとりに任されていた。面接調査参加者 5 名の語りからは，教育実習の前後では
ポートフォリオに対する意識や認識が異なり，J-POSTL を主に教育実習後の省察
（Reflection on Action）として用いたと思われる意見が散見された。教育実習前に
は十分に理解できなかった使用方法や自己評価記述文の内容・意味について，学生
C のコメントにも表れているように，教育実習に行くことで初めてポートフォリオ
使用の意義を理解できたということは，J-POSTL の有効性を示すものである。そ
の一方で，J-POSTL の活用について，教育実習前に使うことの可能性や意義につ
いて学生 A が提案するように，教育実践の経験が不足する履修者に対して，履修
期間全体を通して，いかにポートフォリオを意味・意義あるものにするかというこ
とが大きな課題である。

　ポートフォリオの本質的な要素は「目的を持って」「学習資料を収集し」「資料
に基づき学習者が内省・省察を行う機会を与える」ことであり，その機能・種類は
大きく 3 つある（Danielson and Abrutly 1997: vi-vii）。

①　経過・経緯：ワーキング・ポートフォリオ（Working Portfolios）

②　作品展示：ディスプレイ・ポートフォリオ（Display, Showcase, or Best Works
　　Portfolios）

③　評価：アセスメント・ポートフォリオ（Assessment Portfolios）

筆者らが使用した J-POSTL は，その原型である EPOSTL と同様に，省察ツールと
して，これら 3 つの機能と種類を持ち合わせていると考えられる。省察ツールとし
ての EPOSTL や J-POSTL の活用については，言語教師の教職課程で有効であるこ
とがすでに先行研究によって報告されている（Fujii 2013, 高木 2015, Mehlmauer-
Larcher 2015）。ワーキング・ポートフォリオに関しては，教師の成長を記録する
ツールとしてのポートフォリオの研究が足りないと考えた Antonek et al （1997）が
ヴィゴツキーの理論的枠組みを用いて，ワーキング・ポートフォリオが米国のある
大学の外国語教育プログラム教職履修生 2 名の成長と省察を促し，彼らの自叙伝
（autobiography）の役割を果たした事例をまとめた研究もある。

　筆者も，J-POSTL のワーキング・ポートフォリオとしての機能に着目している。
教職課程において，ポートフォリオを①履修生の学習過程・経過を見取るために使
用すること，②その内容を履修生，大学教員，教育実習校の教員が共有すること，
③教員養成スタンダードが確立していない日本において学習の指標として使用する
ことは，ポートフォリオが「共通理解のためのツール」あるいは「インタラクショ
ンのためのツール」として，教員養成に関わる全ての人々に理論的かつ実践的な枠
組みを提供するという大きな可能性を持っているであろう。

　J-POSTL の使用方法については，大学授業においては，全 96 項目全ての自己評
価記述文をチェックリストのように使うことを目的とする必要はない。 7 分野の中

から選択して焦点を絞り，下位項目に関して履修生の考えや深い記述を促すような課題を与えたり，履修生同士の話し合いの機会を持たせる，ひいては教員養成に関わる当事者間の理解のための機会を広げることがポートフォリオの本来の姿に即していると考える。

７．３　本研究の限界と課題・展望

　本研究は非教員養成系・私立 T 大学の英語科教職課程履修生を対象とし，2014年度に 3 年生 17 名（研究 1），2015 年度に 4 年生 11 名（研究 2-1）と 5 名（研究2－2）の協力を得て調査を行ったものである。研究 2－2 の 5 名については，3 年生次から J-POSTL を使用し，教育実習後の個別の面談調査に参加してくれた協力者であり，2 年間の調査期間の最終段階まで残ってくれた履修生であった。結果的に面接調査は T 大学卒業後，2016 年 4 月から教職の道に進むことになっていた 5名を対象とした。この面談調査の目的は，J-POSTL 調査から得られたデータの分析結果をふまえて，個別インタビューから得た履修生の語りを通じて，彼らの教職課程での学びをより深く理解することであった。今後につなげるため，本研究の限界および課題と展望を以下にまとめる。

（1）データ収集と分析方法（面接調査）

　面談調査では，質問項目を予め設定し，IC レコーダーでデータを録音しながら，筆者（質問者）と調査参加者（被質問者）の話し合いによって進める半構造化インタビューを行った。その理由は，調査参加者の持つ体験，知識，主観的理論，意味世界を引き出すことを目的とし，先に述べたように T 大学（日本）と W 大学（オーストラリア）の履修生を対象とした面談調査で共通の質問項目を設定することにより，教員養成スタンダード策定状況の異なる文脈での教職課程での学びの実態の把握を試みようとしたからである。しかし，実際のインタビューにおいては，質問項目，順序，形式を柔軟に変えながら話し合いを進めることを心がけたが，質問項目を重視するあまりに，「はい・いいえ」型質問や「なぜ」「どうして」型質問を多用し，オープンエンドな質問形式によって調査参加者の考え方の枠組みを十分に引き出すことができなかった可能性がある。また，データ量と分析方法の点においても，テキストマイニングによる量的な分析を活用することができなかった。そのため，今回の面接調査ではテキストマイニングによる原文参照機能を使い，参加者5 名の全体傾向として「教育実習の意義」「大学授業の意義」「大学授業外の経験」「教育実習校との連携」「ポートフォリオの意義」という 5 つの概念について言及するにとどまった。このことは，J-POSTL 調査（5 段階評価）から得られた数値，つまり「定量データ」のみでは把握できないような「定性データ」を彼らの語りか

ら読み取り，履修生の価値観，心理構造に関するプロセスの中身に近づくための一歩にしか過ぎない。今後は，本面接で使用した全 9 つの質問項目を含めたデータを分析対象とし，改めて分析方法を検討しなければならない。データのコードの追加・階層化・統合化を行い，履修生達の意味世界を理解するために，もっと深く，厚い記述が必要である。

量的研究においては「数量」や法則に還元することが求められるが，定性データを扱う質的研究では，一般性の保証よりも，人間の複雑な営みのありようや，教育現象の当事者達が作り上げている世界の理解を追及することを基本としている（関口 2013）。今回の面接調査では 5 名を対象としたが，質的研究法において何人のデータを取れば良いか。その問いに対して，時間を捨象せずに扱う「複線径路・等至性モデル（Trajectory Equifinality Model: TEM）」の実践報告の中で荒川・安田・サトウ（2012）が 1・4・9 の法則を提案しているので，今後の展望の参考として引用しておく（表 11）。

表 11. 「何人を対象にして話を聴くか」についての経験則とその利点（荒川・安田・サトウ 2012: 98 の表 1 を引用）

インタビュー対象者数	利点
1 人	個人の経験の深みをさぐることができる
4±1 人	経験の多様性を描くことができる
9＋2 人	径路の類型を把握することができる

(2) コア・カリキュラム

　筆者らの研究は，教員養成スタンダードと教育実習を視点から，2014（平成 26）年度に J-POSTL を使用した調査によって開始した。本論の 3 章で示したように，教育実習の位置づけをめぐる日本の教員養成スタンダードの現状が研究の背景となっている。その後，文部科学省・初等中等教育局は「教職課程コアカリキュラムの在り方に関する検討会」を 2016（平成 28）年 8 月に設置し，検討期間を 2016 年 8 月 19 日から 2018（平成 30）年 3 月 31 日までと定めた。本会は「教職課程で共通的に身につけるべき最低限の学修内容について検討することを目的としている」（文部科学省 2016）。英語教員については，東京学芸大学が文部科学省委託事業として英語教員の養成・研修コアカリキュラムの開発を行い，2017 年 3 月 27 日には教職課程コアカリキュラムの在り方に関する検討会（第 4 回）が開催され，2016（平成 28）年度報告書も公開された（文部科学省 2017, 東京学芸大学 2017）。

　このような国によるコアカリキュラム開発の動きや研究成果は，日本の英語科教員養成スタンダードの点において，大きな変化をもたらすものであり，筆者らが今後の研究や調査を進めていく際の指標や枠組みとなりうるものである。例えば，教

員養成の最低限の要素（minimum essentials）としてのコアカリキュラムの拘束力については，2019（平成 31）年度以降，大学の教職課程認定の際に参照される可能性がある。しかし，法令上，現行の「教育実習」「教職実践演習」は教科指定ではないため，英語科のコアカリキュラムの対象ではないという側面にも留意する必要があると考える。また，ポートフォリオ活用についてもコアカリキュラムでは明確化はされていない。

おわりに：今後の展望

　1980 年代に始まった米国のスタンダード教育改革は，それが教育のスタンダード化（standardization），画一化，マニュカル化に結び付くという問題点が指摘されてきた。その批判に対して生まれたのがポートフォリオ型パフォーマンス評価（Teacher Performance Assessment; TPA）である。カリフォルニア州，さらにはその他の州でも，教員や教員教育者の協力によって，専門性基準を提供するものとしてPACT の TPA や edTPA の開発と導入が進められてきている。Chung（2008）によれば，TPA は教職履修生の資質・能力を測る手段として有効であり，Schön（1983）の「行為の中の省察（reflection in action）」や Shulman（1987）の「教育的推論と行為（pedagogical reasoning and action）」の理論に根差しており，教授と学習の文脈（Situated Knowledge Theory, social constructive theory）および支援（ヴィゴツキーの ZPD）に関わるものである。近年の研究の中で，edTPA による教育の質の「予測妥当性（predictive validity）」を示す実証研究はないという見解も見られるが（Traver 2017: 2），数値では現れないような学習者 1 人ひとりの学びを見取る視点に立っていることが TPA や edTPA の特長であると言えるだろう。

　本論では，日本の教員養成に関わる当事者たちの間でも十分に関心があるとは言えない教員養成スタンダードに着目し，非教員養成系・私立大学の英語科教職履修生の学びの過程を可視化する試みについて報告した。教員養成スタンダードと教育実習の位置づけの視点から，言語教師のためのポートフォリオである J-POSTL を使用することによって，教職課程での学びの実態（研究 1，研究 2－1），面接調査（研究 2－2）を通して，彼らにとっての教育実習の意味や意義の一端が明らかになった。今後さらに，分析方法を検討しながら，収集したデータと向き合い，当事者の語りの理解に努めたいと考える。

　教育実習について，谷田（2015）はその性格から「研究的実習」と「入職見習い」という両義性を持ち，しばしば大学側からも実習校からも煩わしい厄介者のように扱われてきたと述べているが，筆者が授業視察を行った米国 PACT の実践例でも示したように，教育実習は，大学，教育現場（小，中，高の教育実習校），教育委員会の 3 者パートナーシップによって履修生の学びを支援するべき，重要な教育の

営みである。とくに日本の非教員養成系・私立大学の英語科教職履修生にとって，教育実習が果たす役割については抜本的な見直しのための研究と検討が必要である。

【謝辞】

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Peer-Review Policy

All submissionsare 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

Submissions should be made primarily by researchers who have given presentations at SIG conferences. Each submission is evaluated by two reviewers selected from among the SIG members. The reviewers make one of the following recommendations to the editorial board.

　　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.

査読規定

本研究集録では、査読を行なう。趣旨は次の 3 点である。

　　・論考の学問的な価値を高める

　　・ 恣意性を減らす

　　・ 誤りを減らす

原稿は原則研究発表者が投稿するものとする。なお、投稿原稿はいずれも
 編集委員が依頼した会員 2 名が査読を行い、採否を編集委員が決定する。
 審査基準は、

　　　A 採用

　　　B 書き直しの上採用

　　　C 不採用(書き直しの上再査読)

 査読員 2 名の意見が分かれた場合は、編集委員で最終決定する。