

JACET 言語教師認知研究会 研究集録 2015



Language Teacher Cognition Research Bulletin 2015

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はじめに

さて、昨年の「はじめに」に、「... 次の目標は、言語教師認知の国際学会を日本で開くことである」と書いたが、その後1年が過ぎ、あまり事はうまく進まない。理由はいくつかあるが、主な点は、言語教師認知(language teacher cognition)という分野が、それほど注目されない地味な研究である点であり、言語教師がかかわる教育のインフラのような役割をしているからだろう。つまり、この分野に興味を持つ人が携わる「英語教育」では取り上げにくく、必要だと感じて、何をどう探求するかはやはり分かりにくい。ましてや、英語教師が求める「明日に役立つ授業のアイディア」にはつながらない根本的な内面的な課題を扱うのでなおさらである。

この研究会は8年目を迎えた。それなりの活動を続けている。2015年になり、会の性格も少し変わりつつある。英語教育自体の研究手法の課題を教師の研究だけに限らず解決していく必要があるようだ。それは、2015年5月30日に外国語教育質的研究会と共催で実施された「英語教育における質的研究ワークショップ」への期待が物語っている。今後はそのようなニーズを取り込んだ研究への発展が期待されるべきだろう。

言語教師認知という研究はこの会の発足で広がった。その目的はほぼ達成したと言える。本研究集録も5号となり、編集に携わる江原氏と志村氏に感謝したい。また、査読に快く関わっていただいた査読者の方の丁寧な対応にも心からお礼を言いたい。ますます本研究会に関心を持ち、言語教師認知の研究を発展させていきたい。

2015年12月1日

JACET 言語教師認知研究会代表 笹島茂

本研究集録の刊行にあたりお断り

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言語教師認知研究会記録 2014 年 10 月～2015 年 7 月

JACET 言語教師認知研究会 第 20 回 研究発表会

日時：2014 年 10 月 25 日（土） 2 時～5 時

場所：早稲田大学 早稲田キャンパス 11 号館 912

1. 吉原令子（日本大学）「Narratives of Feminist EFL Teachers' Beliefs and Practices」
2. 都築千絵（立教大学）「Students' Self-reflection and Teachers' Motivation」

JACET 言語教師認知研究会 第 8 回懇談会

日時：2015 年 1 月 24 日（土） 1 時～5 時

場所：早稲田大学 26 号館 多目的講義室(B104)

笹島茂（埼玉医科大学）「言語教師認知の研究のこれまでとこれから」

西野孝子（神田外語大学）「言語教師認知研究のアプローチと今後の展望」

小嶋英夫（弘前大学）「英語教員志望生・現職英語教員の自律と認知」

中村香恵子（北海道科学大学）「小学校教師の言語教師認知研究」

栗原ゆか（東海大学）「現役英語教員の学びの過程とその要因：海外研修を例に」

志村昭暢（北海道教育大学）「教員養成課程学生における言語教師認知」

伏野久美子（東京経済大学）「協同学習と教師の信条の関係：今後の展望」

江原美明（神奈川県立国際言語文化アカデミア）「研修内容の転移に係わる英語教師の認知」

長嶺寿宣（熊本大学）「なぜ英語教育改革はうまくいかないのか？」

JACET 言語教師認知研究会 第 21 回研究発表会

日時：2015 年 4 月 25 日（土） 2 時～5 時

場所：早稲田大学 早稲田キャンパス 26 号館（大隈タワー）702 教室

1. Paul Underwood（東洋英和女学院大学）「Integrating Grammar Teaching with Communicative Work in Japanese 'Academic' Senior High Schools」

2. Gregory Paul Glasgow (明海大学) 「Conducting English classes in English in Japanese High Schools: Teachers' Cognitions and Policy Implementation」

JACET 言語教師認知研究会・外国語教育質的研究会（共同開催）英語教育における質的研究 ワークショップ

日時: 2015 年 5 月 30 日(土) 1 時～5 時 45 分

場所: 東洋英和女学院大学 六本木キャンパス 大学院 201 教室

柳瀬陽介(広島大学) (聞き手 笹島茂) 「質的な実践研究における非合理性・自己参照性・複合性」

高木亜希子(青山学院大学)(課題設定) 「質的研究における reflexivity(再帰性)について考える」

宮原万寿子(国際基督教大学)(コーディネーター) 「A dialogue on theoretical and methodological issues in narrative studies」

飯田 敦史(群馬大学)(コーディネーター) 「Literacy Autobiographies as Research: Theoretical and Methodological Issues」

東條弘子(順天堂大学)(コーディネーター) 「教室談話分析の方法と実際」

武田礼子(青山学院大学)(コーディネーター) 「会話分析で英語学習者の発話を分析する」

JACET 言語教師認知研究会 第 22 回研究発表会

日時: 2015 年 7 月 25 日(土) 2 時～5 時

場所: 早稲田大学 早稲田キャンパス 3 号館 404 教室

1. 石原紀子(法政大学) 「Teacher development through a narrative approach to teaching intercultural communication and pragmatics」
2. 飯田 敦史(群馬大学) 「Second language poetry writing as reflective practice in the teacher-training program」

〔巻頭特別論考〕 教職とは何か？

笹島茂（東洋英和女子学院大学）

教師認知の研究の背景

言語教師認知の研究を実践する上で、少し考えてみたいことがあり、ここに本研究会の代表として書かせていただきたい。それは、本研究会の活動を通じて常に考えてきたことであり、私が本研究会を発足した動機でもあるからだ。ここで述べたいことは、本研究会に参加する多くの人が携わる教員養成の問題であり、日本の教員養成システムや教師の職務のことと関連する。つまり、言語教師認知の研究が対象とする教職という基盤について整理したい。教職という文脈なくして、教師認知の問題は語れないし、さらには、言語教師認知の問題を語っても意味がないからである。

言語教師認知の研究は教師認知の研究の一部であるが、言語教師という括りが大切であるとして、言語教師認知として探求してきた。しかし、言語教師認知だけを取り上げて議論することは、日本の文脈では特にむずかしいと実感している。そこで、切り離すことなく、「教師のこころの研究(*teacher kokoro research*)」（笹島, 2013）として、英語教師の認知の問題を考えるようにしてきた。たとえば、文法指導について教師はどう考えて指導するのかというリサーチにおいて、SLA 研究の枠組で考察しても限界がある。教師がかかわる状況を考慮し、多様の要因を含めて考察する必要があるだろう。

Borg (2003, 2006)の言語教師認知の要素とプロセスの図が示すように、教師認知は、それ以前の学習経験、教職課程の学習、学習状況、教育実践など多様な要因が互いに影響しあって構成される。そのように構成される教師が抱える信条・信念、知識、学習、経験などを総合して捉えた包括的用語が教師認知である。教師のこころの研究は、Borg が示した直線的な因果関係により教師の認知プロセスを考えるのではなく、それをさらに複雑に考えることを意図している。日本の英語教師は相当に複雑な状況で英語を教えていると考えるからである。

このような点を背景として、本研究会発足当時から考えていることをここでまとめておきたい。それは、日本の教職課程が抱える問題であり、さらに言えば、教職システムの問題であり、教育の問題とかかわるからだ。特に、言語教育にそのひずみが現れている気がする。「Every teacher is a language teacher （すべての教師は言語教師）」(cf. Bullock, 1975)という言葉、近年の教育現場でよく耳にする。多言語多文化を反映した状況に後押しされた考え方であり、今日の言語や文化の多様性に対応し、言語教育を言語学の伝統から拡大させている。日本の文部科学省でも、「言語活動の充実」を推進し、国語だけではな

く、すべての教科で言語活動を活性化させることをねらいとしている。しかし、ここには、上記のような観点は欠落し、多様化する言語状況に対応しているとは言い難い。

ここで述べることは、教育研究の中ではあまり議論されることはないようだ。つまり、主要なテーマではなく、隙間の問題だからである。教師として教育に携わっているかぎり、実体としての教職の問題は避けては通れないはずなのであるが、教職、あるいは、教育職員としての教員の職務があいまいなまま今日に至っている。背景には、日本の教育学(education)と教科教育学(pedagogy)との学術的な関係性の問題があり、また、初等中等教育における教員養成システムと明治以来の学校教育活動の伝統文化の問題があり、日本における教師という複雑な職能の問題がある (cf. 古屋, 2000)。これらの問題が、言語教育あるいは言語教師の研究では触れられないことが多く、さらには、教育学においても言語教育という観点があまり意識されずに展開されてきたと考える。

教職課程と教師認知

まず、教職課程を整理しておこう。日本の教職課程は、大学等において提供され、「教科に関する科目」「教職に関する科目」「教科又教職に関する科目」で構成された科目群のうち必要な単位を履修し、その単位を修得することにより、教員免許状を授与されるというシステムである。英語の場合、「教科に関する科目」は、英語学、英米文学、英語コミュニケーション、異文化理解という4つの領域にかかわる科目を履修する必要がある。これらの科目が、中高の英語教師としての知識や技能とどうかかわるかは、個々人の問題であり、指導する側はあくまでその分野の専門家であり、教職をどの程度意識しているかは必ずしも明確ではない。言語教師認知の研究において大きなトピックである教育実習は、「教職に関する科目」の一部であり、「教科に関する科目」ではない。英語教育、応用言語学、第2言語習得などは「教科にかかわる科目」であるが、「教職に関する科目」に位置付けられる教科教育法と密接に関連する。

しかし、だれもが疑問に思う点がほとんど議論されることはない。たとえば、英語において、「教科に関する科目」が、果たして英語学、英米文学、英語コミュニケーション、異文化理解という4つの領域だけで満たされるとは考えにくい。現実と乖離していることは、教職を目指す学生でも理解するはずである。実際には、多くの教職課程で、英検が準1級、TOEFL-ITPが550点、TOEICが730点以上などの英語力を基準として設定している。文部科学省もそのような英語力のレベルを教師に課しているのが実態である(文部科学省, 2011)。そのような教科に関する知識や技能については、他の教科で設定することはないが、教科の知識や技能に関しては、当然ながら重要であることは暗黙の了解となっており、カリキュラムには反映されていない。

「教職に関する科目」は、理論的な内容が多く、座学的な要素が強いが、「教科に関する科目」に較べれば必要な内容は整えており、他国の教職課程のカリキュラムと較べても必要な内容は揃えている。また、最近では実践的な内容も多く含まれ、現場実習なども充実している部分もある。その面からすれば、教職課程は、教科指導というよりは、教育全般にかかわる職務を理解することのほうが優先されているカリキュラムと言えるだろう。しかし、他国の教職課程の多くが教育実習(teaching practices)に多くの時間をかけているのに比して、日本は3週間程度と短い。多くの国の教育実習の主たる目的が「教える(teaching)」ということの実践的技能の習熟にあるのに対して、日本はその主たる目的を学校教育全般の理解に置いており、必ずしも教科指導が主ではない。

その実態は多くの関係者が理解しているとおおり、期間も短く、各関係者の自助努力により運営され、教職課程における位置付けがあいまいなままである。その中でも最近では、各自治体によっては組織的に対応し、その後の採用にまでつながるシステムを工夫しているケースもある。しかし、世界的には、教育現場での「教える」ことの知識と技能の習熟を目的とする実習を重視する教員養成システムの流れからすれば、以前として問題を置き去りにしていると言わざるを得ないだろう。

「教科又教職に関する科目」は、教科か教職の科目の余剰分を各自が補えるということであり、必要に応じて履修できる。いずれにしても、「教科に関する科目」「教職に関する科目」「教科又教職に関する科目」という構成は、教職課程のシステムが、各教科の専門については当然の知識と技能があることを前提としたカリキュラムであり、その知識と技能は、各教育委員会や学校が実施する教員採用試験で確認されるものとする。つまり、教職課程は、教師として最低限の力量があることを示す指針として教員免許状を発行しているのである。しかし、その免許状は各教科を「教える」に適したことを示すものではなく、「教育職員」として教育に携われる最低限の資格を証する免許状となっている。

教育職員としての教師は、このような教職課程を修了することで「教える」ことに対する自信はおそらく得られないだろう。事実、各国の外国語教師の認知の調査の比較(Sasajima, 2012)では、日本の英語教師は最も「教える」ことに自信がないということを示している。これは、教員の主たる仕事が教科を「教える」ことだけではなく、学校の教育活動全般にわたるということを示している。その一方、何を「教える」のかという点にも教員は迷っている点が予測される。つまり、学習指導要領で示される教育目標や内容とは異なる多様の学習の実態があり、そのことが教師のこころの形成に影響を与えている。それは教科を「教える」ことを主たる仕事としている教師と、学校教育全般に携わることを主たる仕事としている教師とは、当然異なる知識を持ち、思考をし、意思決定をし、評価している。そのような複雑な教師のこころを理解するためには、教職課程全般にわたり、

どのような学習が行われているのかを知ることが重要であろう。

教員としての教師

一般的に、教師の仕事は何かを「教える」ことであり、教師は「先生」とも呼ばれる。日本文化のもとでは、ある意味尊敬を含んだ意味合いで使われ、法令に規定される「教育職員」としてのいわゆる「教員」とは異なる。しかし、教師認知あるいは教師のこころの研究の対象の多くは、この「教員」である。日本の教員は、その職務内容や教職課程からして、欧米の教師認知の研究の枠組では扱いにくい部分も扱わざるを得ない内容を含む。より複雑になり、その複雑性を複雑なまま理解する必要があるので、教師のこころとして捉え、教師認知と区別した。

たとえば、英語教師は、日本の枠組では英語教員として中学校や高等学校に教諭として勤務する。英語教師は、あくまで「〇〇中学校教諭あるいは教師（教員）」「〇〇高校教諭あるいは教師（教員）」として英語を担当する。校務分掌として、学級（ホームルーム）担任、学年主任、進路指導担当、バレーボール部顧問などと割り当てられる。生徒からも保護者からも、「英語の先生」「担任の先生」「顧問の先生」などと呼ばれる。英語教師として採用されても、英語という教科だけを教えているわけにはいかないという実態がある。欧米で展開する「教える」ことに特化した教師認知の研究とは、その目的や手法において区別する必要があるだろう。

多くの国でも、多かれ少なかれ同様の校務分掌はあるが、教科を教える以外の仕事が多すぎるのが日本である。これは PISA 2012(OECD, 2014)の調査でも明らかにされている。しかし、問題はそのような量的な仕事量だけではなく、質的な教員という職務のあり方にある。日本の教職システムを理解する場合、この点を見落とすことはできない。また、このような教職の実態をノイズとして排除した調査研究は現実にはあまり意味をなさない可能性がある。

複雑な教師の仕事

日本の英語教師のこころの研究の調査(Sasajima, 2014)によれば、単に英語教師の認知を理解しようとしても、英語教師の感情を含んだ認知のプロセスは、英語を教えることだけでは捉えられないという報告がある。たとえば、日本の英語教師は、「英語を教えることと教師として様々な仕事をするに悩む」という教師認知の一つの特徴を示した。このような英語教師のこころはかなり複雑で、単に日本の学校教育システムを改善すれば解決するという問題ではないことも分かった。つまり、何かの現象には何かの原因があるという単純な因果関係では説明がつかないのである。しかし、それは、複雑性適応システム(CAS:

complex adaptive systems)として説明がつく。あることが発端となり、発達し、変化し、ある状態に帰結する。そのある状態がアトラクター・ステーツ(attractor states)として現象となって現れる。そのアトラクター・ステーツは、一定ではなく、また変化し、形を変える。そのようにすべての現象が複雑に関係し、一見すると混乱しているように見えるが、システムとして動いている。

教師の仕事は複雑である。科学的な検証を経たカリキュラム、指導方法、学習方法、教材などの知見は当然必要であるが、それだけでは十分ではない。多様な学校教育システムに対応する実践的な教職課程の提供と明確な教職のあり方が必要であるが、これまでの教職の歴史を振り返ると、おそらく早急には無理であり、当分変わりようがない。教職課程も、従来の教師の経験をもとにした知識と技能を受け継ぐ達人モデル、調査研究のデータをもとにした科学的アプローチモデル、教師の省察を重視した教師の成長モデルなど、いくつかのモデル(cf. Wallace, 1991)があるが、教科を「教える」ということに特化している場合は、このモデルに従うことで、教師の成長は促されるが、学校教育活動全般を考えた場合、そう簡単には進まないだろう。このような教師教育のモデルは、日本のように複雑な教師の職務を考えると、必ずしも省察モデルが望ましいとは言い切れないかもしれない。

教師のこころの研究

教師のこころの研究(teacher *kokoro* research)は、そのような複雑な教職を考慮しようと考えている。学校、授業、教師などの教育を複雑性理論(complexity theory)で捉えることにより、教師の自律性を高めることと、学校における教師と生徒の関係性の自律を促し、学校教育全体を動的な複雑適応システム(CAS)として見るのである。複雑性理論の定義は多様であるが、「自己組織化(self-organization)」という用語に象徴されるように、「生き残るために、変化、進化、適応、発達するしくみのこと(a theory of change, evolution, adaptation and development for survival)」(Morrison, 2008: 16)と説明できる。本来は、従来の研究パラダイムでは説明できない、あるいは、再現可能な検証方法では対応できないものを、複雑なものは複雑なまま全体として受け入れるという考え方から始まった。多様な学問領域で発展を続け、教育においても、少しずつ受け入れられてきている。当然、教師のこころの研究にも、それは応用可能であり、従来の科学研究パラダイムでは解決がむずかしい問題を複雑適応システム(CAS)として捉え、教師が主体的に判断するよりどころとする。

その点を踏まえて、教職を理解する上では、教師のこころを研究することが重要だと考えている。教員の仕事を理解するためには、法律の理解、学校システムの理解、社会と学校などの地域コミュニティの理解、教育課程の理解、校務分掌の理解など、仕事内容など

を量的に理解するだけでは足りない。一般的に、教師が最も考慮しなければならないのは生徒の学習の発達であるが、日本の場合はそれに加えて、「人格の完成」という目標が設定されている。教育基本法の第1条（教育の目的）がそれを規定しているからである。

「教育は、人格の完成をめざし、平和的な国家及び社会の形成者として、真理と正義を愛し、個人の価値をたつとび、勤労と責任を重んじ、自主的精神に充ちた心身ともに健康な国民の育成を期して行われなければならない」

教育の目的を「人格の完成」としていることには異論を唱える人はあまりいないが、果たしてどれだけの人がこの「人格の完成」を適切に理解しているかは甚だ疑問である。おそらく「人格の完成」についての答えはないだろう。プロセスの問題であり、どう考えるかは、教師の裁量である。教師の考え方を押し付けるものであってはならないにもかかわらず、やはりどこかで道徳的な態度をとらざるを得ない。しかし、このようなすべての教育活動のプロセスを複雑適応システム(CAS)として理解するのである。

教職をどう捉えるか

教職は、教育(pedagogy)を考える上では中心的課題である。しかし、日本の教職は、学校教育活動の多様な面を柔軟に取り込んで多様で複雑なかたちで発展した。教師としては教科を「教える」ことが職務の中心であるが、教員としては、教科を「教える」だけにとどまらず、学習指導、学級（ホームルーム）経営、生活指導、進路指導、部活指導、委員会活動、学校行事など、多様な活動に携わる。教職には、大きくこの二つの職務があることを理解する必要があるが、それぞれは密接に関連して展開することを忘れてはならない。

しかし、教職課程では、そのような複雑な仕事を理解することは不可能に近いし、また、そのような複雑に発展した教職の実態をそのまま受け継ぐこともよくないことである。教職の実際は、多くは教師の個々人のボランティア的な仕事で構成されているからだ。たとえば、部活動がそうである。部活動自体が教職課程の一部として主体的に取り上げられることはないが、社会的には大きな位置付けとなり、教員としてもやり甲斐のある活動である。部活動を熱心に指導することは、教員の教育活動のすべてにかかわるので、教員にとってはなおざりにはできない活動である。しかし、部活動指導は決して教師の主たる職務ではない。

文部科学省は、教員に求められる資質能力を次のように説明している。いつの時代も教員に求められる資質能力として、1) 教育者としての使命感、2) 人間の成長・発達についての深い理解、3) 幼児・児童・生徒に対する教育的愛情、4) 教科等に関する専門的知識、5)

広く豊かな教養を掲げ、それにもとづく実践的指導力を要求している。また、今後特に求められる資質能力として、6) 地球的視野に立って行動するための資質能力、7) 変化の時代を生きる社会人に求められる資質能力、8) 教員の職務から必然的に求められる資質能力を求めている。かなりの内容を教員に求めていることが分かるが、教員養成や研修の中でそのような資質能力を培うシステムが機能しているかどうかは疑問だろう。あまりにも過剰な要求をしている可能性があり、過剰な要求であるがために、結局「絵に描いた餅」となっているのではないだろうか。

日本の教職の内容は、理想と現実、あるいは、教職課程の中で学習することと現実の間に相当の開きがある。驚くことに、それは教員志望者も教員も関係者も了解済みのことであり、これまでの伝統の中で、いままでと変わらない教育活動が良きにつけ悪きにつけ続いている。教職課程は、教員免許取得のための儀礼的なプロセスに過ぎず、教員として採用されるためには、それに必要な知識と技能を教職課程のカリキュラムとは別に、それぞれのニーズに応じて準備するのである。

そのような状況の中で活動する教師のこころを理解し、「教える」ことにかかわる知識や技能の育成に教職課程の目的を設定することが基本であろう。現実の教職は状況により複雑で、その場に応じて判断し、適切に対応する能力が必要となるので、教育実習などの現場体験の場を拡充すべきである。しかし、現在のように教員に過度な職務を要求しているかぎり、本来は「教える」ことに特化すべき教師の専門性を生かしきれないだろう。情報化、グローバル化する現在、教師の専門性はもっと優先されるべきであるが、教員としての多様な職務への対応は、多忙感を与え、じつくりと「教える」内容や「教える」方法などに対する研修時間が不足し、試験などを中心とした指導に終始しがちである。教員を取り巻く状況は、教育を重視する国と比べても劣っていると言わざるを得ない。

現在の日本の教職制度については問題も多いが、その効率性においては世界でも群を抜いている。教員は実によく機能している。しかし、教育の質という面からすると形骸化し、機会均等という面から格差が生まれている。公的教育環境は決して自慢できる教育内容を提供していない。教員養成は常にその質の維持を求められるべきであるが、「教える」あるいは「学ぶ」ということを教職課程でもより専門性を重視して見直される必要があるだろう。たとえば、外国語が英語だけに特化していることは他国と比して問題である。また、英語であれば、「教科に関する科目」において、英語学、英米文学、英語コミュニケーション、異文化理解という4つの領域を柱とすることは、現状にあっているとはいえない。さらには、中学校や高等学校での教科の区分も現代社会には相応しいものと言えるかどうかとも検討する必要があるだろう。

「教育は国家百年の計」と言われ、日本の教育は世界にも誇れると考えられて久しいが、

それを支える教職は、一人ひとりの教員の教育者としての使命感によって成り立っている。しかし、政策的には、教員を管理する方向に動き、教員一人ひとりが自律的に教育に携われる環境を提供できているかどうかは疑問だ。もちろん教員にも問題はあるだろう。しかし、問題の所在は、適切な「学び」を児童・生徒に提供することであり、彼らの「人格の完成」を支援することである。決してある方向に導くことではない。教職課程も教職のあり方も、教師のこころを理解し、あるべき姿を再度見直す必要があるのではないだろうか。

まとめ

言語教師認知の研究を、英語教師のこころの研究を基盤に、より複雑に考察することとして、教職を考えた。日本の教職はかなり複雑に構成されており、それに対応する教職課程にも問題があることを指摘した。欧米の教職課程が「教える」ことに特化しているのに対して、日本の教職課程は、教育学を中心として教科を「教える」ということよりも、「学び」を総合的に考える傾向にあり、教科教育と教育学の連携が薄く、また、実践の場となる教育実習があいまいな位置付けとなり、省察を重視する教職課程は推進されているものの、省察する機会が必ずしも十分とは言えず、教職課程にかかわる大学教員と現場教員の連携も有効に機能しているとは言い難い点を指摘した。

教師認知の研究は、「教える」ことを大前提として教師の信条・信念、知識、思考を考察しているが、教師のこころの研究は、それに加えて、その背景となる教職全体の状況も研究の対象とすることの必要性を提案している。理由は、教職全体の理解がないかぎり、教師のこころは正確には分からないからである。日本のように複雑な教職では特にそうであるが、どのような状況でも総合的に教師の探求はなされる必要があるだろう。

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PAC 分析を利用した小学校外国語活動指導観の可視化 — 英語教育専攻学生の分析を中心に —

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1. はじめに

小学校で外国語活動が正式に導入され、小学校 5 年生、6 年生で年間 35 時間の授業が実施されている（文部科学省, 2008）。外国語活動は授業ではなく、領域としての扱いのため、教員養成課程において外国語活動に関する科目が必修とされていない大学や小学校の教員養成課程の学生全員に授業を開講するための教員が十分に配置されていないなどの例も多く見られる（本田, 2015 ; 松澤, 2015）。次回の学習指導要領の改訂において、小学校 5, 6 年生での教科化が検討されていると共に、外国語活動を 3, 4 年生で実施することが検討されている（文部科学省, 2014）。今後の外国語活動の教科化に向け、高い英語運用能力と指導技術を持つ教員の養成が急務であり、小学校と中学校や高等学校の英語の教員免許を取得している専科教員の養成も必要であろう。

このような小学校における英語教育の大きな転換期において、これから教師を目指している教員養成課程の学生はどのような考えで外国語活動の授業を指導していくのであろうか。Borg (2003)において、言語教育をより理解するために、言語教師がどう考え、何を知り、何を信じているのか、そして何をしているのかという認知プロセス、すなわち言語教師認知を知る必要があることを指摘している。また、笹島・ボーグ(2009)では教師認知を明確にすることは教員養成の重要な部分であり、教師認知を認識する機会は教師学習プロセスの重要な部分であると指摘している。志村(2014)では教員養成の段階で言語教師認知の一部が形成されていることを示しており、教員養成段階での学生の言語教師認知を知る必要があるのではないだろうか。

本稿では英語教育を専攻とし、小学校と中学校英語両方の免許状の取得を希望している教員養成課程の学生に、言語教師認知の中でも小学校外国語活動に関する指導観についての調査を行った。その際、これまでの研究において、質問紙調査を用いた言語教師認知の研究が多く行われてきたが、本稿では指導観の可視化のために、内藤(1993)が開発した質的研究と量的研究双方の利点を合わせた用分析手法である、Personal Attitude Construct (PAC)分析を用いて分析し、その特徴を明らかにすると共に、PAC 分析が教員養成課程の学生の指導観の分析への妥当性も検証した。

2. 先行研究

2.1. 質問紙による言語教師認知研究

笹島・ボーグ (2009) は言語教師認知の質を特定することを目的とした質問項目を、Horwitz (1988) による学習者の信条を測定するための質問紙である、Beliefs About Language

Learning Inventory (BALLI)を基に作成した。その質問項目を用いて、日本人の中学校、高等学校の英語教師 62 名、スコットランドの中等教育の外国語教師 81 名を対象とした質問紙調査を行ったところ、外国語指導の難しさや英語圏の文化を教えることの重要性等の項目について、日本とスコットランドの教師では異なる言語教師認知の特徴があることが示された。

志村・中村(2012) では、小学校教師 93 名と中学校・高等学校英語教師 94 名について、笹島・ボーグ(2009) の 33 項目から 18 の項目に精選し、調査を行ったところ、小学校教師は「理想的教師像」が高く、中学校・高等学校英語教師は「言語形式重視」、「英語指導への自信」が高いことを示した。小学校と中学校・高等学校英語教師との特徴の違いについて、小学校と中学校の授業形態や研修方法の違い、指導目的や学習指導要領の目標の違い、教員養成の方法の違い、英語指導における目標の違いなどが影響していることを示した。

教員養成段階の言語教師認知の特徴についての研究として、志村 (2012) は、笹島・ボーグ(2009) の 33 項目のうち、現役教師ではない大学生でも回答可能な項目を中心に 22 項目に精選したものをを用いて英語教育を専攻する教員養成課程の学生 76 名と、中学校・高等学校英語教師 94 名を対象とした質問紙調査を行い、その特徴や違いを検討した。結果は教員養成課程の学生と中学校・高等学校英語教師の言語教師認知には統計的に有意な差が見られ、学生は「理想的な教師像」、「教員養成」に関する項目が高いという特徴が、中学校・高等学校英語教師には「英語指導への自信」に関する項目が高いという特徴が見られた。志村・岩渕 (2013) は、教員養成課程に所属する大学生について、小学校教育を専攻する大学生 48 名と英語教育を専攻する学生 38 名について、言語教師認知の比較を目的として、笹島・ボーグ (2009) の 33 項目について、小学校教育を専攻する大学生も回答可能な 19 の項目に精選し、調査を行った。結果は小学校教育専攻と英語教育専攻学生の言語教師認知の一部に統計的に有意な差が見られ、小学校教育専攻学生は「人間形成」が、英語教育専攻学生は「授業への自信」、「大学授業の影響」、「言語形式」が高い傾向にあることを示した。この結果は、志村・中村 (2012) で行った、小学校教師と中学校・高等学校英語教師の言語教師認知の特徴とほぼ一致しており、小学校教師と中学校・高等学校英語教師の言語教師認知の違いが教員養成の段階で形成されている可能性が示された。

2.2. PAC 分析を利用した研究

PAC 分析は内藤 (1993)で開発された研究手法で、当該テーマに関する自由連想、連想項目間の類似度評定、類似度距離行列によるクラスタ構造のイメージや解釈の報告、実験者による総合的解釈を通じて、個人ごとに態度やイメージの構造を分析する方法である(内藤, 2002)。PAC 分析は臨床心理学での分析手法であったが、最近の研究ではマーケティング(マクロミル, *n.d.*)や日本語教育の分野など幅広い分野で利用されている。小澤・坪根・嶺肩 (2011) は日本語教育分野の研究で行われた PAC 分析の流れを以下のように示している。

- ① 調査協力承諾書への署名依頼
- ② 連想刺激文の提示
例) あなたにとって「いい日本語教師」とはどんな教師ですか?
- ③ 連想語の書き出し
- ④ 連想語の重要度順への並び替え
- ⑤ 連想語の類似度の評価 「1: 非常に近い」～「7: 非常に遠い」
- ⑥ クラスタ分析 (Ward 法, 平方距離), デンドログラム作成
- ⑦ デンドログラムに基づくインタビュー
- ⑧ 各連想項目のイメージ評価 (+, 0, -)

(小澤・坪根・嶺肩, 2011)

丸山・小澤(2007)は PAC 分析の特徴として、連想文を自由に書かせることにより参加者の自由な発想を制限しないことや連想文間の直接的なイメージをクラスタ分析で分析することから客観性が高まること、デンドログラムを見ながら参加者が解釈を報告できるなど参加者が中心とした分析であると指摘している。PAC 分析を行う利点として、内藤 (2002) では少人数でも要因やメカニズムを発見できる可能性を持った「個」への新たな科学的アプローチの一つであるとしている。また、丸山・小澤(2007)では研究者と参加者が共同で作業を行うことにより、研究者が予測しなかった変数が出ることも指摘している。また、PAC 分析の結果を基に質問紙調査の項目を作成し、新たな量的研究につなげることも可能であるとしている(丸山・小澤,2007)。

言語教育分野での PAC 分析を利用した研究としては、山田(2014)は日本語教師 2 名を対象に教師のビリーフの変化の要因を比較するために、3 年間のインターバルにおいて PAC 分析を用いて教師の役割観の変化について比較した。結果は初期に形成されたビリーフが強く残る傾向が見られ、教員養成教育は重要であることとビリーフは研修による新知識の導入など外的要因で変化することが示された。河合・中村・三ツ木・佐野(2015)では大学の英語教育を専門とする教員 9 名に対して英語教師の役割に関するビリーフを分析したところ、自身の研究分野やこれまでの教師としての経験等が授業での役割に関するビリーフに影響していることを示した。

3. 研究課題

以上のような先行研究を踏まえ、英語教育を専攻している教員養成課程の学生 3 名について、小学校外国語活動授業に関する授業観について PAC 分析を用いた調査を実施し、以下のような研究課題を設定した。

- (1) PAC 分析により教員養成課程学生の小学校外国語活動指導観に関する言語教師認知を明らかにすることができるか。

(2) 教員養成課程学生の小学校外国語活動指導観に関する言語教師認知にはどのような特徴が見られるのか。

(3) 教員養成課程学生の小学校外国語活動指導観に関する言語教師認知形成にはどのような要因が影響しているのか？

4. 研究方法

4.1. 参加者

本研究では英語教育を専攻する教員養成課程の学生の小学校外国語活動に関する授業観を明らかにするために、北海道内にある教員養成系国立大学の英語教育専攻学生3名を参加者とした。全員が全員小学校1種と中学校・高等学校英語1種免許を取得予定で、2年次に小学校外国語活動に関する科目(2科目)を受講している。表1は参加者3名の学年と将来の希望校種類、卒論のテーマならびに備考である。Aさんは4年生で小学校教員を志望しており、4年次に2週間小学校での実習を経験している。また、卒業論文のテーマとして、小学生の英語学習に関する動機づけを選択している。BさんはAさんと同じく4年生であるが、3年次に1年間イギリスに留学しており、専門科目等は3年生と同じ科目を履修している。中学校教員を志望しており、卒業論文のテーマとして Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) に関する研究に興味を持っている。Cさんは3年生で小学校教員を志望しており、卒業論文では小学生への語彙指導に関する研究を選んでいる。幼稚園の頃に3年ほどアメリカで生活していたことがある。

表1 参加者の特徴

氏名	学年	希望校種	卒論テーマ	備考
Aさん	4	小学校	動機づけ	4年次に2週間小学校での教育実習経験あり
Bさん	4	中学校英語	CLIL	3年次に1年間海外留学(実質3年生)
Cさん	3	小学校	語彙指導	幼稚園の頃海外で生活

4.2. 分析方法

分析には内藤(1993)で開発されたPAC分析を採用した。PAC分析の手順として、まず参加者全員に協力承諾書への署名依頼を行い、連想刺激文の提示を行った。連想刺激文は「小学校外国語活動の授業であなただけが大切にしたいことは？」という内容で、その後15

程度の連想語の書き出しをさせた。その際、連想した順に Excel のシートに入力させた。例として、図 1 に A さんの連想語を提示した。

1. ジェスチャーを用いて指導をする。	6. 電子黒板を用いて指導をする。	11. アクティビティを多く取り入れる。
2. できたときに児童を褒める。	7. 音声教材を用いて指導をする。	12. グループ活動を多く取り入れる。
3. イラストを用いて指導をする。	8. 英語の歌を歌う。	13. ペア活動を多く取り入れる。
4. 正しい発音で指導する。	9. Hi, friends! を利用する。	14. ネイティブからのインプットを増やす。
5. インタビュー活動を多くする。	10. 写真を用いて指導をする。	15. ネイティブとの英語のやり取りを増やす。

図 1 A さんの連想語（連想順）

次に、参加者で連想語の内容の交流を行い、自分の連想語に付け加えたい項目があれば追加させた。本研究の参加者は教員経験がなく、連想語を書き出す際にその種類が少なくなることが懸念されたため、連想語を増やすことを目的として連想語の交流を行った。次に、追加した項目を含めて連想語を自分が重要だと思う順番に並び替えさせた。例として、表 2 に A さんの連想語を重要度順に並び変えたものを提示した。

表 2 A さんの連想語（重要度順）

順位	連想語	順位	連想語
1	正しい発音で指導する。	12	電子黒板を用いて指導をする。
2	インタビュー活動を多くする。	13	音声教材を用いて指導をする。
3	ジェスチャーを用いて指導をする。	14	英語の歌を歌う。
4	できたときに児童を褒める。	15	Hi, friends! を利用する。
5	イラストを用いて指導をする。	16	絵本の読み聞かせをする。
6	写真を用いて指導をする。	17	チャンツを用いて指導をする。
7	アクティビティを多く取り入れる。	18	ワークシートを利用する。
8	グループ活動を多く取り入れる。	19	児童の間違いは気にしない。
9	ペア活動を多く取り入れる。	20	黒板をきれいに書く。

次に、連想語の類似度を評価するために縦軸と横軸に連想語の重要度順に配列したマトリックスを作成し、項目間の類似度を「1: 非常に近い」～「7: 非常に遠い」の 7 段階で評価し、記入させた。表 3 は A さんの連想語間の距離を記入したマトリックスの例である。その後、マトリックスに記入されたデータでクラスタ分析（Ward 法、平均距離）を行い、デンドログラムを作成し、クラスタに分類した。図 2 は A さんのデンドログラムの例で、5 クラスタに分類した。最後に、分類されたクラスタを基に、参加者に半構造化インタビューを行い、クラスタが分類された理由や影響を及ぼしたと思われる要因や感想について研究者が質問を行った。

表3 Aさんの連想語間の類似度の距離（7件法）

連想語重要順	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
1	0	5	4	2	5	5	5	5	4	7	6	5	6	5	3	6	5	2	2	2	2	5
2	5	0	5	4	3	3	5	6	6	4	5	3	3	2	4	2	3	5	6	2	2	5
3	4	5	0	5	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	2	2	4	5	6	3	2	5	4	6	6
4	2	4	5	0	5	5	7	7	7	6	6	4	4	5	5	5	5	4	6	2	5	4
5	5	3	5	5	0	5	6	6	6	4	4	6	6	3	3	7	3	7	3	6	2	4
6	5	3	5	5	5	0	6	6	6	4	4	6	3	3	6	7	2	7	2	7	3	4
7	5	5	5	7	6	6	0	6	6	5	5	4	4	6	3	4	4	6	6	2	4	4
8	5	6	5	7	6	6	6	0	6	6	6	4	4	6	5	4	3	6	6	2	6	5
9	4	6	6	7	6	6	6	6	0	6	6	5	5	5	5	3	3	6	7	4	5	4
10	7	4	6	6	4	4	5	6	6	0	6	3	3	3	5	7	5	3	6	2	7	2
11	6	5	6	6	4	4	5	6	6	6	0	2	2	6	6	6	5	2	6	3	6	4
12	5	3	2	4	6	6	4	4	5	3	2	0	6	6	6	6	6	4	6	3	5	2
13	6	3	2	4	6	3	4	4	5	3	2	6	0	7	6	5	5	2	6	3	3	3
14	5	2	4	5	3	3	6	6	5	3	6	6	7	0	6	6	4	4	7	4	5	3
15	3	4	5	5	3	6	3	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	0	5	5	3	7	5	6	3
16	6	2	6	5	7	7	4	4	3	7	6	6	5	6	5	0	5	3	6	6	6	3
17	5	3	3	5	3	2	4	3	3	5	5	6	5	4	5	5	0	2	7	7	5	3
18	2	5	2	4	7	7	6	6	6	3	2	4	2	4	3	3	2	0	6	2	2	2
19	2	6	5	6	3	2	6	6	7	6	6	6	6	7	7	6	7	6	0	4	2	2
20	2	2	4	2	6	7	2	2	4	2	3	3	3	4	5	6	7	2	4	0	2	2
21	2	2	6	5	2	3	4	6	5	7	6	5	3	5	6	6	5	2	2	2	0	1
22	5	5	6	4	4	4	4	5	4	2	4	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	1	0

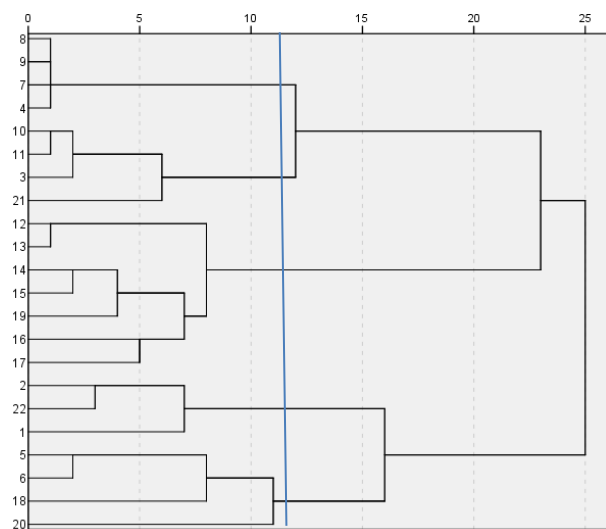


図2 Aさんのデンドログラム

5. 結果

5.1. Aさんの授業観

Aさんの連想語の類似性についてクラスタ分析を行ったところ、5クラスタに分類された（表4）。第1クラスタは「イラストを用いて指導をする」、「写真を用いて指導する」などの項目で構成されているため、「視覚教材の利用」と名付けた。第2クラスタは「イ

インタビュー活動を多くする」，「正しい発音で指導する」などの項目で構成されているため，「発話重視」と名付けた。第3クラスは「電子黒板を用いて指導する」，「絵本の読み聞かせをする」，「チャンツを用いて指導する」などの項目で構成されているため，「聞く・話すの指導」と名付けた。第4クラスは「ネイティブからのインプットを増やす」，「ネイティブとの英語のやり取りを増やす」などの項目で構成されているため，「外国人との会話」と名付けた。第5クラスは「グループ活動を多く取り入れる」，「アクティビティを多く入れる」などコミュニケーションを志向した英語指導で多く行われている内容で構成されているため，「コミュニケーション重視」と名付けた。

以上のように，Aさんの小学校外国語活動に関する授業観として，「視覚教材の利用」，「発話重視」，「聞く・話すの指導」，「外国人との会話」，「コミュニケーション重視」という5つの特徴が示された。

表4 Aさんのクラス分析の結果

クラス	クラス名	順位	連想語
1	視覚教材の利用	5 6 18 20	イラストを用いて指導をする 写真を用いて指導をする ワークシートを利用する 黒板をきれいに書く
2	発話重視	2 22 1	インタビュー活動を多くする。 地域の英語に堪能な人材を確認する。 正しい発音で指導する
3	聞く・話すの指導	12 13 14 15 19 16 17	電子黒板を用いて指導をする。 音声教材を用いて指導をする 英語の歌を歌う Hi, friends! を利用する 児童の間違ひは気にしない 絵本の読み聞かせをする チャンツを用いて指導をする
4	外国人との会話	10 11 3 21	ネイティブからのインプットを増やす。 ネイティブとの英語のやり取りを増やす ジェスチャーを用いて指導をする 教師の演技力
5	コミュニケーション重視	8 9 7 4	グループ活動を多く取り入れる ペア活動を多く取り入れる アクティビティを多く取り入れる できたときに児童を褒める

5.2. Bさんの授業観

Bさんの連想語の類似性についてクラス分析を行ったところ，5クラスに分類された（表5）。第1クラスは「リーディング活動を多くする」，「ライティング活動を多くする」などの項目で構成されているため，「読み・書きの指導」と名付けた。第2クラスは「海外の紹介をする」，「発表後の拍手」など，国際感覚を養わせるような項目で構成されているため，「国際志向」と名付けた。第3クラスは「ジェスチャーを多用す

る」，「授業の終わりに自己評価をさせる」，など実際に外国語活動の授業から学んだと考えられる項目で構成されているため，「外国語活動の授業から学んだこと」と名付けた。第4クラスは「アクティビティをする」，「グループ活動をする」などのコミュニケーションを施行した授業でよく用いられる指導方法の項目で構成されているため，「コミュニケーション重視」と名付けた。第5クラスは「スピーキング活動を多くする」，「CDを使用してネイティブの発音をきかせる」など外国語活動の中心的な技能である聞く・話すに関する項目で構成されているため，「読み書き指導」と名付けた。

以上のように，Bさんの小学校外国語活動に関する授業観として，「読み・書きの指導」，「国際志向」，「外国語活動の授業から学んだこと」，「コミュニケーション重視」，「聞く・話すの指導」という5つの特徴が示された。

表5 Bさんのクラスタ分析の結果

クラスタ	クラスタ名	順位	連想語
1	読み・書きの指導	13	リーディング活動を多くする
		14	ライティング活動を多くする
		10	語彙を提示する
		11	板書きれいにかく
		16	絵と一緒に単語を教える
2	国際志向	8	海外の紹介をする
		19	地域の英語に堪能な人材を活用する
		9	発表後の拍手（学級の雰囲気）
3	外国語活動の授業で学んだこと	18	ジェスチャーを多用する
		20	英語の歌を歌う
		15	Hi friends を使う
		17	授業の終わりに自己評価をさせる
4	コミュニケーション重視	12	日本人の英語のつまずきやすいポイントを教える
		2	アクティビティをする
5	聞く・話すの指導	3	グループ活動をする
		4	スピーキング活動を多くする
		5	正しい発音で指導する
		7	ALT と会話させる機会を多くつくる
		1	リスニング活動を多くする
		6	CD を使用してネイティブの発音をきかせる

5.3. Cさんの授業観

Cさんの連想語の類似性についてクラスタ分析を行ったところ，5クラスに分類された（表6）。第1クラスは「知的好奇心をくすぐる教材を用いる」，「子どもの興味を引き出す」など学習者の動機づけを高める工夫に関する項目で構成されているため，「動機づけを高める要因」と名付けた。第2クラスは「電子黒板を用いて指導する」，「絵や写真などの視覚的な教材を用いる」など，視覚教材に関する項目で構成されているため，「視覚教材の利用」と名付けた。第3クラスは「正しい発音で指導する」，「英語のリズムに慣れさせる」，など英語の音声面の指導についての項目で構成されているため，「聞

く・話すの指導」と名付けた。第4クラスは「できたときに児童を褒める」，「授業の終わりに自己評価をさせる」など外国語活動の授業観察から得た知見と思われる項目で構成されているため，「外国語活動の授業で学んだこと」と名付けた。第5クラスは「グループ活動を取り入れる」，「場面を設定する」などコミュニケーションを志向した授業で用いられる活動で構成されているため，「コミュニケーション重視」と名付けた。

以上のように，Cさんの小学校外国語活動に関する授業観として，「動機づけを高める要因」，「視覚教材の利用」，「聞く・話すの指導」「外国語活動の授業から学んだこと」，「コミュニケーション重視」という5つの特徴が示された。

表6 Cさんのクラス分析の結果

クラス	クラス名	順位	連想語
1	動機づけを高める要因	17	絵と共に文字も提示する
		21	知的好奇心をくすぐる教材を用いる
		1	子どもの興味を引き出す
		16	他教科で学習したとことと結びつけて指導する
		8	英語絵本の読み聞かせをする
2	視覚教材の利用	20	海外の紹介をする
		24	電子黒板を用いて指導する
		2	絵や写真などの視覚的な教材を用いる
		11	黒板をきれいに書く
3	聞く・話すの指導	6	正しい発音で指導する。
		12	指導者は英語の正確さに気をつけて指導する
		5	スピーキング活動を多くする
		18	チャンツを取り入れる
		23	英語のリズムに慣れさせる
		13	英語の歌を取り入れる
4	外国語活動の授業で学んだこと	19	リスニング活動を行う
		3	できたときに児童を褒める
		9	英語の間違いを訂正しすぎないようにする
5	コミュニケーション重視	25	授業の終わりに自己評価をさせる
		14	ペア活動を取り入れる
		15	場面を設定する
		4	ゲームを取り入れる
		7	グループ活動を取り入れる
		22	Hi, friends! を利用する
		10	ジェスチャーを多用する

6. 考察

前節において，3名の英語教育を専攻する教員養成課程の学生における小学校外国語活動の授業観に関する言語教師認知の特徴を示した。本節ではクラス分析の結果を参加者に提示して行った面接調査を基にその理由を考察する。

6.1. 大学授業の影響

3名の指導観の特徴に、大学の授業が影響していると思われるものがいくつか見られる。Aさんの第2クラス「発話重視」は授業中に英語でインタラク션을行いたいことや早いうちに正しい発音を定着させたいは英語教育理論を外国語活動の授業に応用したいという考えが表れている。同様に第4クラスの「外国人との会話」もネイティブのインプットを増やし早いうちから本物の英語に触れさせたいことや、ジェスチャーを使用することにより、英語で伝えられないときのストラテジーの指導など、英語教育の理論を応用させたいというビリーフが働いていると思われる。第3クラス「聞く・話すの指導」は絵本の使用、歌やチャンツの使用、電子黒板を利用する、児童の間違いを気にしないなど2年次に学んだ小学校英語に関する専門科目の授業で学んだ内容である。また、これらの項目は附属小学校等での外国語活動授業の見学や自身の教育実習での外国語活動指導の経験も影響しているとも考えられる。

Bさんの第1クラス「読み・書きの指導」は現在の学習指導要領では重視されていない内容ではあるが、今後の教科化に向け導入が検討されている内容である。このような内容を小学校外国語活動の専門科目で学んでおり、そのことがこのクラスタとして表れたと解釈できる。

Cさんの第1クラス「動機づけを高める要因」については、知的好奇心をくすぐる教材を用いる、子どもの興味を引き出すなど、子どもたちを英語ざらいにさせないため動機づけを高める必要があることを小学校外国語活動の専門科目で学んでいる。

したがって、3名の英語教育を専攻する教員養成課程の学生の小学校外国語活動に関する授業観には大学の授業が影響していることが示された。

6.2. 外国語活動授業見学や実習の影響

3名の指導観の特徴の2つ目として、外国語活動授業見学や実習が影響していると考えられるものがいくつか見られた。Aさんの第1クラス「視覚教材の利用」はイラストや写真を利用することで文字を使わなくとも英語の意味を理解させることができ、大学の小学校外国語活動の専門科目でも学んでいる内容ではあるが、附属小学校の研究大会での外国語活動授業の見学や2年次に行った附属小学校での外国語活動の実習、4年次の教育実習で実際に外国語活動の授業を行うことで生じた要因であると考えられる。

Bさんの第3クラス、Cさんの第4クラス「外国語活動の授業で学んだこと」はAさんと同様に附属小学校の研究大会や2年次に行った附属小学校での外国語活動の実習を通じて学んだ内容であると考えられる。

以上のように、3名の英語教育を専攻する教員養成課程の学生の小学校外国語活動に関する授業観には外国語活動授業見学や実習が影響していることが示された。

6.3. 学習指導要領の影響

3名の指導観の特徴の3つ目として、学習指導要領が影響していると思われるものが見られた。AさんCさんの第5クラス、Bさんの第4クラスはいずれも「コミュニケーション重視」である。これは小学校外国語活動の目標のひとつである「コミュニケーション能力の素地を養う（文部科学省, 2008）」が影響していると考えられる。コミュニケーション能力の育成については、大学の英語教育の授業でも強調されている内容であり、小学校・中学校・高等学校での学習指導要領でも重視されていることも理解している。また、Aさんの第1クラス「視覚教材の利用」や3名に共通している「聞く・話すの指導」はいずれも小学校の学習指導要領で求められている内容であり、このことから、外国語活動の指導観に学習指導要領が影響していることが示されている。

したがって、3名の英語教育を専攻する教員養成課程の学生の小学校外国語活動に関する授業観には学習指導要領が影響していることが示された。

6.4. 個人の経験の影響

Bさんの第2クラスの「国際志向」は外国語活動の授業を国際理解に役立てたい、本物の英語を教えたいなどが理由としている。Bさんは3年次に1年間英語圏への留学を経験しており、その経験を授業に活かしたいと考えており、そのことが影響していることと考えられる。また、第5クラスの「聞く・話すの指導」では正しい発音を指導したい、ALTとの会話の機会を多くしたいと考えており、その理由として正確性を小学校でも高めたいと考えていた。しかし、現在の外国語活動では正確性は求められておらず、これも留学した際に正確な英語を使えることの重要性を感じた経験が影響していると考えられる。

CさんもBさんと同様に、第3クラスの「聞く・話すの指導」では正しい発音を指導したい、正確さに気を付けて指導するなど、正確性を重視した指導観を持っている。児童の英語使用の正確性は大学での授業や外国語活動の実践ではあまり重視されていないが、自身の子どものころの海外での経験から正確性を重視していると考えていることが影響していると考えられる。

以上のように、2名の英語教育を専攻する教員養成課程の学生の小学校外国語活動に関する授業観には個人の経験、特に海外での経験が影響していることが示された。

7. 結論

本稿では英語教育を専攻する教員養成課程に在籍している3名の学生対象としたPAC分析の手法を用いた小学校外国語活動の授業観についての言語教師認知の調査を実施し、その結果を分析することにより、以下のことを明らかにした。

研究課題1の「PAC分析により教員養成課程学生の小学校外国語活動指導観に関する言語教師認知を明らかにすることができるか」と研究課題2の「教員養成課程学生の小学校外国語活動指導観に関する言語教師認知にはどのような特徴が見られるのか」について、

PAC 分析を用いて個々の学生の授業観の特徴を明らかにし、それぞれの学生の授業観について、コミュニケーション重視、聴く・話す重視、視覚教材の利用等の特徴が見られることを示した。研究課題3の「教員養成課程学生の小学校外国語活動指導観に関する言語教師認知形成にはどのような要因が影響しているのか」について、大学授業、外国語活動授業見学・実習、学習指導要領、個人の経験の4つの要因が見られることが示された。

本研究の結果により、志村 (2014) で指摘していた、言語教師認知が教員養成の段階で形成されるとの指摘について、その内容を示すことができたと考えられる。また、大学での授業が学生の授業観に影響していることや、大学での英語教育に関する専門科目での内容が授業に直結すると考えられることから、その内容の精選と小学生の発達段階に合わせた適切な指導方法について扱うことの重要性が求められるのではないかと。更には外国語活動の見学や実習が授業観育成に影響していることから、多数の外国語活動の授業実践に触れることや小学校での実習の機会を増やす必要があるのではないかと。

本研究では3名の学生の分析しか行っておらず、すべての教員養成課程の学生がこのような授業観を抱いていると判断することは難しい。今後はこの結果を基に質問紙項目を作成し、より多くの学生の指導観についての調査を行いたい。また、今回調査した3名の学生が将来教師となり、どのように授業観が変化していくかについて、経年的な変化について、PAC 分析を用いて分析を行いたい。

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小学校外国語活動における教師の Codeswitching

—L1 使用に着目して—

長田恵理（國學院大學）

1. はじめに

小学校を訪問し、現職教員の授業を観察してアドバイスをする機会がある。校内研修の場で「どのくらい英語を使えばいいのですか」と聞かれることがよくあり、「私は英語が苦手です。英語で授業が出来ればいいのですが、つい日本語を使ってしまう」と、外国語活動の時間に日本語を使うことに罪悪感を抱く教員すらいる。

現行の『高等学校学習指導要領解説 外国語編』には、「英語に関する各科目については、その特質にかんがみ、生徒が英語に触れる機会を充実するとともに、授業を実際のコミュニケーションの場面とするため、授業は英語で行うことを基本とする。その際、生徒の理解の程度に応じた英語を用いるよう十分配慮するものとする」(文部科学省, 2010: p.43)と書かれており、次期学習指導要領では、中学校でも「授業を英語で行うことを基本とする」ことになるようである(文部科学省, 2013)。では、2011 年、小学校 5, 6 年生において必修となった小学校外国語活動ではどうであろうか。

小学校外国語活動の目標はコミュニケーション能力の素地を養うことである。コミュニケーション能力の素地とは

1. 言語や文化に対する体験的な理解
2. 積極的にコミュニケーションを図ろうとする態度
3. 外国語の音声や基本的な表現への慣れ親しみ

であり、中・高等学校の外国語科で目指すコミュニケーション能力を支えるものである(文部科学省, 2008)。「授業を英語で行うこと」という文言は用いられていないが、コミュニケーション活動を主体にしていることから「明示しなくても授業は英語で行われているであろう」という前提があるのかもしれない。そうでなかったとしても、スムーズに「英語で行われる授業」に接続していくためには小学校でもそれ相応に「授業は英語で」行われるべきであると考えられても不思議ではない。

『高等学校指導要領解説』(文部科学省, 2010)には日本語の使用が考えられる場面として以下の二つが挙げられている。

「言語活動を行うことが授業の中心となっていれば、文法の説明などは日本語を交えて行うことも考えられる」(p.44)

「教師の説明や指示を理解できていない生徒がいて、日本語を交えた指導を行う場合であっても、授業を英語で行うことを基本とするという本規定の趣旨を踏まえ、生徒が英語の

使用に慣れるような指導の充実を図ることが重要である。」(p.74)

外国語活動の場合は明示的に「文法の指導」をすることはないため、前者には当てはまらない。後者については、英語によるコミュニケーション能力が発達途上にある児童にもあてはまる。上記に照らし合わせれば、時には日本語を交えつつ、なるべくたくさんの英語に慣れ親しむ機会を与えるべきだということになる。ではどの程度の英語に触れさせれば十分なのであろうか。

第二言語習得研究(SLA)の知見から、多量の、良質で理解可能なインプットが外国語学習には必須であるというのはどの指南書にも書かれていることである。ほとんどの子どもたちにとって教室環境が唯一の第二言語に触れられる場所である EFL (English as a Foreign Language)環境ではなおさら、インプットの量を確保することの重要性には疑問の余地がない。発達段階から考えても「英語を知らず、日本語も BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills: 日常で使われる平易な伝達表現能力)レベルである幼児、児童を対象とした英語教育では遊び、環境的文脈、ジェスチャーなどを手掛かりに英語だけで教えて BICS レベルの英語力を育てるべきであり、日本語が必要な内容を教えること自体がこのレベルでは意味がない」(吉田&柳瀬, 2003: pp.74-75)。一方で、まさか英語を教えることになるとは思っていなかったら多くの小学校教員にとっては英語だけで授業を操るのは簡単なことではない。そこで、「英語だけでやることに執着して間違った英語を聞かせてしまうより、自信のある表現だけ英語を使い、あとは日本語にしましょう。」(久埜他, 2006)というエールが送られる。他方、「できる限り英語を聞かせてあげるべきなので、視覚教材などを用いて英語で容易に伝えられるなら、英語を用いるのがよいが、活動方法の説明や異文化理解に関することなど複雑なことは日本語でしたほうがよい。」(松宮, 2011; 2013)と L1/L2 をうまく使い分けることを推奨する手引書もある。

指導法からみた L1 使用はどうであろうか。「コミュニケーション能力の素地を養う」という目標を達成するのに適した指導法のひとつにコミュニカティブランゲージティーチング(CLT)がある。CLT では正確さよりも流暢さが重視され、それゆえに L2 のみで行うというイメージがあるが、Larsen-Freeman(2000)は、「学習者はコミュニカティブな活動だけでなく Teacher talk を通して第二言語を学ぶので、できるだけ L2 を用いるべきではあるが、理にかなった L1 の使用は許される」(p.132)と述べている。発達の最近接領域(ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978: 86)は、一人でできるレベルと、大人など自分より能力の高い者の協力を得てできるレベルとの間にある領域のことであるが、外国語活動に当てはめた場合、学習者は教師の支えとクラスメートとの協働によってより大きな力を発揮しながら言葉を学んでいく。教師の L1 使用は、支えとなるためのツールの一つ、つまり「理にかなった L1 使用」ではないだろうか。そこで本研究では、外国語活動の談話分析と教員のインタビューを通して Teacher talk における Codeswitching の実状と教員の意識を調査し、理にかなった L1 使用について検討する。

2. 先行研究

まず、日本における教師の Codeswitching についての研究であるが、外国語(英語)が長らく必修授業として行われてきた中高大での研究はあるが(e.g. Shimizu, 2006; Norman, 2008), 小学校現場での codeswitching についての研究は多くはない。Osada(2011)は小学校1年から6年までの学級担任(HRT)14名に「L1/L2の使用についてどう考えているか」について調査した。結果、もっと英語を使いたいと考えているが英語力に関する自信のなさから使用が妨げられている教員がいる一方で、L2だけでは児童が理解できないのでL1を使用する必要があると考えている教員もいた。同時に調査対象校の5年生22名の児童に対し「担任教師と日本人英語講師(JTE)のL1/L2使用についてどのように考えているか」についても尋ねた。その結果、調査対象児童の半分以上が「授業のほとんどを英語で行う」ことを希望しており、教員は児童の英語理解力を過小評価している可能性があることが示唆された。このほか、Codeswitching自体を研究対象にしたものではないが、外国語活動における Teacher talk 研究のなかでL1使用について触れている高木&粕谷(2013), Eguchi (2011, 2012)などがある。

海外の研究でL1/L2比率やL1の機能・用途、それを用いる理由を調査している場合も高等教育現場が多い(e.g. Duff & Polio, 1990; Polio & Duff, 1994; Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie, 2002; Macaro, 2001, 2005; Kim and Elder, 2005; Littlewood & Yu, 2009; Forman, 2012)。これらの研究から、教員によってL1/L2の割合はかなりの差があることがわかる。また、時間節約のためといった授業運営にかかわるものや教師自身もしくは学習者のL2運用能力によるものなど一定の理由があぶり出されているが、「どうするのがよい」かについては結論付けられていない。ハンガリーのNagy(2009)は数少ない小学校現場でのL1使用に焦点を当てた研究であり、カリキュラム改訂により Focus on forms が主流であった授業から CLT で教えることを教員が求められていた時期に、コミュニケーションな授業が行われているかどうかという観点からL1の量や質を調査したものである。ハンガリー語は日本語と同じ膠着語であることやコミュニケーションな授業を目指している点で、日本の実情に共通するものがあると考えられる。研究の結果、行われていた授業はコミュニケーションには程遠く、教員による差はあるもののかなりの量のL1が用いられていた。L1使用の理由は外的なもの(カリキュラム、学校からの期待、試験、時間節約、ハンガリー語と英語の言語間距離など)と内的なもの(教師由来、学習者由来、コンテキスト由来など)が見られた。

以上の研究から、学校種に関わらず、また国内外で共通して、L1使用は教員と学習者の英語力や学習内容に関係があること、指導に関するビリーフに起因し、教員の個人差が大きいことがわかる。その一方で、授業内のやり取りの分析と教員の意識を照らし合わせた研究はほとんどない。

3. 研究

3.1 研究課題

前述したように、日本の小学校現場での L1 使用についての研究は現在までのところほとんどない。そこで、本研究では、実際にどの程度の英語と日本語を使って授業が行われているのかを観察し、また、どのような用途で使用され、日本語使用に関して各教師はどのように考えているのか実態を調査したいと考えた。本研究の研究課題は、以下のとおりである。

- Q1. L1 の使用割合は教員間、授業内容においてどのように違うか。
- Q2. L1 はどのような用途で使われていて、どのような特徴があるか。
- Q3. それぞれの教師は L1 使用に関してどのように考えているか。

特に L1 の使用割合と機能・用途については、日本のコンテキストと類似点のある Nagy(2009)との比較を中心に結果を考察していくことにする。

3.2 研究対象

研究対象は 5 つの授業である(表 1)。C 校は関東の小さな市にある公立小学校で、筆者が出張授業で訪問し、ALT とのティームティーチングを行った授業である。D 校も別の県の小都市の公立小学校であるが、市に雇われている日本人講師(JTE)と ALT, 担任の 3T で指導が行われていた。E 校はさらに別の県の農漁村部にあるが、JET プログラムを通して雇用している ALT と小学校教員との TT である。E 校は大阪府の郊外に位置し、学校裁量で JTE を採用して担任教師と TT を行っていた。最後に、G 校は大都市にある私立の小学校で、英語はすべて日本人の専科教員が指導していた。

表 1. 研究対象となった授業

学校	立場	指導者		学年	指導形態
C	JTE	Ms. E(筆者)	公立	4 年	TT
	ALT	Ms. S			
D	JTE	Ms. Y	公立	5 年	TT
	ALT	Mr. R			
	HRT	Mr. A			
E	HRT	Mr. D	公立	5 年	TT
	ALT	Mr. M			
F	JTE	Ms. H	公立	6 年	TT
	HRT	Mr. I			
G	英語専科	Ms. M	私立	5 年	単独

*Ms.は女性の、Mr.は男性の指導者である。

3.3 研究方法

2 言語の量の比較にはこれまでいくつかの方法が使われてきた。英語と似た構造を持つ言語の場合、単純に語数を比較することができるが、日本語は膠着語であり、「語」レベルで比較することは困難である。言語構造に関係なく比較する方法として、それぞれの言語が使用されている時間を測って比較することが考えられるが、これをするためには多くの時間を必要とする。代わりに Polio & Duff (1990) は 15 秒サンプリング(15 秒ごとにどちらの言語が使われているかを計測)、Macaro (2001) は 5 秒サンプリングを採用している。この場合の問題点は、例えば 15 秒毎に使われている言語を計測する場合、それ以外のところで使われている言語がすべて切り捨てられるため、極端な場合、少数言語のほうが見落とされてしまうということである。志村・白鳥・目時 (2008) では以下に示す Amounts of Instructor Japanese and English Use (AIJE) という方法を考案した。例えば通常、

英語	I / like / dogs. (3 語)
日本語	Watashi / wa / eigo / ga / suki / desu. (6 語)

のように、言語によって同じ意味を表していても語数が違うが、以下のような数え方で言語構造の違いによる問題を回避しようと試みている。

数え方 1 文節で区切る

例)	日本語	Watashi-wa / eigo-ga / suki-desu. (3 語)
	英語	I / like / English. (3 語)

数え方 2 計算式を用いる

日本語 (AIJE による語数) = (各 AS-Unit の総語数) - (助詞・助動詞の数)

英語 (AIJE による語数) = (各 AS-Unit の総語数) - (前置詞・冠詞・助動詞の数)

本研究では、Nagy(2009)の語数カウントにも近い数え方 1 に準じて、英語は単純に単語数、日本語は文節に区切って一塊を 1 語とカウントすることにした。

コーディングについては、1960 年代から the Foreign Language interaction (Flint) System(Moscowitz, 1968), The Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) observation scheme (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995), The Functional Language Alternation Analysis of Teacher Talk(FLAATT) framework (Kim & Elder, 2005)など様々な方法が開発されてきた。Nagy(2009)は Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie(2002)を修正したカテゴリーを用いているため、本研究でも同様のカテゴリーを援用してコーディングし、結果を比較する。

表 2. Nagy(2009)のカテゴリー

Translation	書き言葉 L2 を L1 に訳す
	話し言葉 L2 を L1 に訳す
Meta-linguistic use	L2 forms を説明したり, L1 forms と比較したりする
	L2 の発音を説明したり, L1 の発音と比較したりする
	L2 のつづりを説明したり, L1 のつづりと比較したりする
Question	Information question 発話を引き出す, あるいは Display question
Instruction	動作が直後に続くような指示 のちの動作を期待するような指示
Information	生徒の答えを繰り返すか評価するようなフィードバック 足場掛けによる支援を含め, 今起こっていることについて話す 過去または未来について話す
Affective response	謝罪・しつけ・賞賛・励まし・冗談
Teacher's reaction to student request in the L1	L1 での生徒の要請への教師の反応
Metacomment or aside	教師の独り言
Marker	Good, now, well などに代表されるディスコースマーカー
Outside the lesson frame	授業以外のことについての語り
Cannot be coded	コーディングできない, はっきりしない部分

各授業はビデオ撮影したデータを書き起こし, 志村・白鳥・目時 (2008)の数え方 1 を用いて L1/L2 の比率を測るとともに, コーディングを行い, 機能・用途について調査した。また, 筆者の授業を除く D, E, F, G の授業で中心的役割を担っていた日本人教員 Ms. Y, Mr. D, Ms. H, Ms. M に授業後直接またはメールで日本語使用についてインタビューを行った。

4. 結果と考察

4.1 L1 の使用割合

表 3 は, 各授業の全語数, L1 使用語数, 及び L1 の全語数に占める割合を表したものである。

表 3. L1 の使用割合

学校	教師	総語数	L1 語数	L1 の割合
C	Ms. O(JTE)	1461	330	22.6
	Ms. S(ALT)	121	17	14.0
	合計	1582	347	21.9
D	Ms. Y(JTE)	1686	744	30.6
	Mr. R(ALT)	756	18	2.3
	Ms. A(HRT)	49	40	44.9
	合計	2491	802	32.3
E	Mr. S(HRT)	1407	518	36.8
	Mr. M(ALT)	688	4	0.6
	合計	2095	522	24.9
F	Ms. H(JTE)	1425	232	16.3
	Mr. I(HRT)	187	90	48.1
	合計	1612	322	20.0

*G 校については、英語のみで行われていたため、表には表していない。

Nagy(2009)の研究対象は初級者クラスと中級クラスの 2 レベルに分かれており、すべて英語専科が指導している。初級者クラスでの L1 使用は 15.8～93.8%と幅があり、8 授業の平均は 57.9%であったのに対し、中級者クラスでは 14.6～47.6%で 8 授業の平均は 29.2%であった(p.137)。本研究の結果は合計を見た場合、0～32%のばらつきで、Nagy(2009)の研究と比べると中級者クラスの平均値のほうに近い比率である。Nagy の研究では初級者クラスが文法説明や読み書きの際にかなりの L1 が使用されていたのに対して、中級クラスではコミュニケーション場面がより多く見られたようである。外国語活動においては読み書きや文法説明はほとんどないため、活動内容の類似により Nagy の中級クラスの値に近かったことが考えられる。

一方、4 つの授業の中で他に比べて D の授業の L1 使用が多くなっているが、これは指導法の違いによるものかもしれない。D は CLIL の単元の最終時であり、深い思考を求められる内容であった。BICS 状況の場合や具体的な事物を用いて伝えられる場面では日本語を使用する必要はないが、生徒が理解できるレベルの英語が使えない場合や CALP(Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency：アカデミックな場面で用いる表現形式)的状況の場合は『日本語』が内容理解のための具体的支えとなる(吉田・柳瀬, 2003: 36-37)ことから、本時では日本語が多くなっていたのではないかと考えられる。

4.2 L1 の機能・用途

表 4 は、日本語発話のない G 校を除く 4 授業の L1 での発話を合算した発話数および全発話数に対する L1 発話の割合を、Nagy(2009)の同項目と比較したものである。分布の差が分かるようにグラフでも示した(図 1 参照)。この結果から、本研究の授業では Nagy(2009)に比べて Translation の割合が多く、Information が 2/3～1/2 と少ないことがわかる。Translation に

については、英語ターゲット文の和訳をするといったものではなく、ALT の言ったことを和訳する、或いは、自分が言った英語を和訳するといった **Teacher talk** の一環として通訳的な働きが見られたことによると考えられる。これはすべての授業が単独である Nagy(2009)に対して、本研究では G 校を除く 4 校の授業がすべてティームティーチング(TT)であることにも関係している可能性がある。一方、**Information** には **Feedback** や **Scaffolding** が含まれるが、前述したようにハンガリーではもともと文法等の説明に重点が置かれており、ハンガリー語での説明が多いことから **Information** が全体の 3 割前後を占めている一方で、日本の外国語活動は文法を明示的に説明することもないため、そこまで複雑な活動をしていないということの表れではないかと考えられる。なお、Nagy(2009)における **Cannot be coded** は前述のとおり、聞き取れずはっきりしないものを分類しているが、本研究でははっきりと聞こえていても上記カテゴリーに分類できないものも含めた。

表 4. 本研究(Osada)の L1 機能と Nagy(2009)との比較

L1 use	Osada		Nagy (elementary)		Nagy (intermediate)	
	utterances	%	utterances	%	utterances	%
Translation	55	12.4	112	4.3	62	5.2
Meta-linguistic use	15	3.4	47	1.8	27	2.3
Question	85	19.2	453	17.5	181	15.2
Instruction	83	18.7	541	20.9	211	17.8
Information	84	19.0	823	31.8	439	37.0
Affective response	14	3.2	120	4.6	82	6.9
Teacher's reaction to student request in the L1	31	7.0	153	5.9	46	3.9
Metacomment or aside	24	5.4	54	2.1	17	1.4
Marker	22	5.0	153	5.9	45	3.8
Outside the lesson frame	4	0.9	49	1.9	20	1.7
Cannot be coded	26	5.9	80	3.1	58	4.9
Total	443	100.0	2585	100.0	1188	100.0

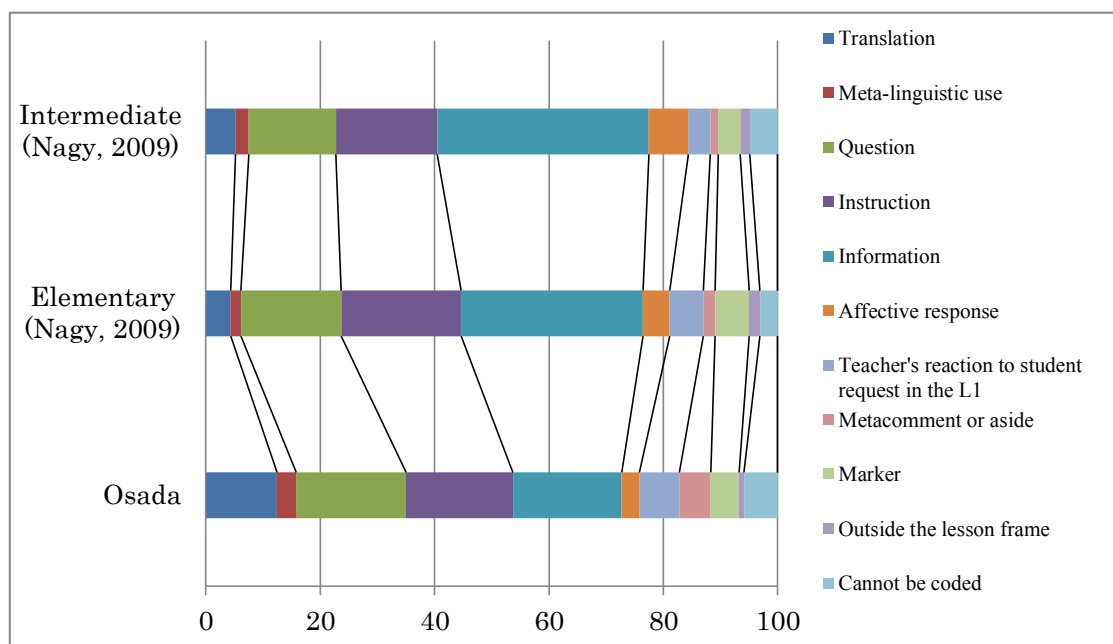


図 1. 本研究(Osada)と Nagy(2009)における L1 発話機能の比較

4.3 教師の L1 使用に対する考え

ここでは、どのように日本語が使われているかを抜粋で示すとともに、それぞれの教師が L1 使用についてどのように考えているのかを示す。

Mr. S は 3 年間の海外滞在経験がある中堅の担任教師である。英語に対する訳として日本語を使うのではなく、日本語と英語を使い分けている様子が読み取れる。

Excerpt1:

- 1 Keita: I like black. (スクリーン上の黒色をクリック)
- 2 ALT: Very good.
- 3 Keita: I like black cap. (スクリーン上の少年の頭に黒い帽子をかぶせる)
- 4 HRT: じゃあ, next. 続けてください。
- 5 Keita: I like red. Red T-shirts.
- 6 ALT: Good job.
- 7 HRT: And shoes.
(スクリーンに映っている少年の足に靴を履かせる)
- 8 HRT: じゃあね, 選んでもらったものを上から順番に,
- 9 じゃあね, Repeat after Keita-kun.
- 10 順番に言っていきますよ。
- 11 Keita: I have black cap.
- 12 HRT: あ, I have はいいいです。Black cap だけで。
- 13 Keita: Black cap. Red T-shirts. Black pants.

国語科が専門である Mr. S は、教師からのインプットがとても大切だと考えており、80% は英語でやることが理想だが、自分の英語力や児童の実態を考えると現状では不可能であると述べた。例えば、4 行目の「続けてください」は教室英語の一つである Go ahead.と言

っていい場面であり，ジェスチャーと共に言えば子どもが理解できると考えられるが，とっさには出て来なかったことが考えられる。一方，8～10行目にかけては「順番に言うよう」しきりに指示しているが，日本語ですら繰り返しているということは英語で言っても子供たちには伝わらないであろう，という意思決定のもと日本語を用いていると想像される。

次の事例は Ms. Y である。Ms. Y の L1 使用は指導法に依るものだという。「CLIL は Translanguage を大切にします。なぜなら，EFL 環境で発達していく教育のアプローチなので。そこが Content-based と大きく違うところのひとつなんです」。Translanguaging は特定の理由を持って秩序立てて Codeswitch をすることであり (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010)，例えば語彙や概念リストといった L1 を含む教材を使用して CLIL 言語つまり L2 での指導を支える。この授業では clean-dirty の対義語が学習項目の一つとなっており，Excerpt2 では clean の意味を確認している。197 行目では児童から日本語による答えを引き出したいことに加えて What does “clean” mean? と英語で尋ねたところで質問の意図を理解できないという教育的判断から，日本語で質問をしたのではないかと考えられる。

Excerpt2:

- 191 JTE: Yes, icebergs. Especially a-----ll the places 全部の場所が very clean.
 192 ALT: Yes, clean.
 193 JTE: Clean.
 194 ALT: So, this room, this room is clean.
 195 JTE: This room
 196 ALT: (聞き取れない) this desk is clean.
 197 JTE: Clean ってみんなどういう意味だと思う？
 198 LL: きれい
 199 JTE: Wonderful. So, the forest is (児童に言うように促しながら) clean.
 200 OK, let's say,
 201 ALT: So, clean.
 202 LLL: Clean.
 (中略)
 280 JTE: Yes. Clean ocean changed into ... like this.
 281 LL: きたない。
 282 ALT: Yes, in Japanese we say きたない。
 283 But in English we say ...
 284 JTE: (絵が反対だったので)反対？ こっちだ
 285 Sota: ダ，ダ
 286 Kana: なんでこんなにきたないの？
 287 JTE: 汚いってみんな言ってくれたね。
 288 How do you say きたない in English?
 289 ALT: We say dirty.
 290 JTE: Dirty.
 291 LLL: Dirty.
 *LL: 複数名の児童 LLL: クラス全体

一方，288 行目では英語を引き出そうとしているため，英語で質問している。結果的には子供たちから答えが出てきてはいないが，この言語選択にも教師の指導の意図が表れている

と推測される。インタビューではこのほか、児童の注意を引くために L1 を使うこともあると述べていたが、今回のデータにはそのような場面は見られなかった。

次は Ms. H である。Ms.H は長く児童英語教室を営んでおり、地域人材として小学校でテーマベース(Theme-based)の授業を行っていた。英語教室ではほぼ英語だけで授業をすることを信条としているが、「40 人のクラスで、いろいろな子がいる中で全部を英語でやれば辛いと感じる子がいるだろうと思うと日本語を入れたほうがいい」と考えていた。また、以下の抜粋から注目すべきは、テーマベースながらフォームにも着目(Form-focused)している本授業で、キーワードの一つである **Strong** は児童が日本語で言ったものを受けて英語に直しているのに対し、ここで教え込まなくてもよいと思われる名詞に関しては日本語そのままを使用していることである。Excerpt2 と同様、教師の教育的意思決定により、L2 と L1 をとっさに使い分けていると考えられる。

Excerpt3:

- (児童や担任教師が出した日本語での意見を紹介しながら)
- 501 JTE: ビタミン E Yes. 注射, くすり
502 Medicine. Medicine. Mmm. We need medicine to keep us, ...how?
503 どうなふうにするように?
504 HRT: Mmmmmm.
505 Yuta: Please open the fourth card on the right.
506 JTE: Fourth card. Strong.
507 Koji: つよなる!
508 Mio: (聞き取り不能)
509 JTE: Is it OK?
510 Mio: でも(聞き取り不能)
511 わからん。
512 Yuki: No.
513 JTE: Healthy or strong?
514 どっちやろ。

最後に、School G の英語専科教員である Ms. M は帰国子女である。学校の教育方針が Teaching English in English(TEE)であり、日本語は一切使われていなかった。

- 11 T: Sachiko. Yeah. This is my first name.
12 Sa—Chi—Ko. Yes.(名前を板書) So, S A C H I K O.
13 And, ... (前の児童に)Sorry. I don't have an extra. (と言って見せてもらう)
14 Yeah. So, first please write your first name here.
15 (シートを見せながら指さして)
16 So, (自分を指しながら)my first name is Sachiko.
17 What's your first name, Ms Suzuki?
18 P: In English?
19 T: In English, ... Yes, yes.
20 Eri: Eri.
21 T: Eri? Eri. So please put Eri here. Yeah? In alphabet, yeah?
22 Yeah, first name. First name, here. (もう一度用紙を指して)

23 Everybody, put your first name in English. Only first name. Only first name.
 24 Saki: 先生。 ローマ字の・・・
 25 T: Yeah. Small, or big. It doesn't matter. (どちらか、というように手振り)
 26 Ok, what's your first name?
 27 You can put (大文字だけで自分の名前を書く)... This is OK too.
 28 This is OK. This is OK. (黒板に書かれた文字を順に指して)
 29 It doesn't matter. But please put your first name.
 30 (机間巡視) OK, what's your first name?
 *P: 校長(参観中に参与)

勤務校の教育方針だけでなく、幼少時に英語だけの世界で生き抜いた経験のある彼女は、子どもの可能性を信じているようであった。「本校でも『英語がわからない』とぼやく子がいらないわけではありません。でもそんな子供が私の英語で『わかった!』と経験し、『聞いていればわかる』を実感してもらえばそんな不安も払拭できている気がします。」また、彼女の授業は確かに英語のみであったが、ふんだんにジェスチャーを用いることで、理解可能なインプットになるような工夫が随所に見られた。

5. まとめ

5.1 結論

RQ1 の「教師はどのくらいの割合で L1/L2 を使用しているか」については、日本人教員に限って言えば 0~48%と幅があった。しかし、ALT と HRT, HRT と JTE といった組み合わせによる一授業あたりとすると 20~32%となり、TT で合わせて「どれくらい」という調整が無意識に起こっているのかもしれない。また、Nagy(2009)との比較から、活動内容によってこの割合が変化することが推測される。

次に、RQ2 の「L1 はそれぞれどのような機能・用途で使われているか」についてである。結果から、特にとびぬけて多くの割合を占めている項目はなかったが、Nagy(2009)との比較においては、通訳機能としての Translation がやや多めであり、また、単純な活動が多いためか Information の項目に当てはまる発話が少なかった。

RQ3 「教師は L1 使用についてどのように考えているか」に関しては、「学校のポリシーに合わせる」ほか、教師のビリーフとして、指導法への信奉も含め「教師としての学びの中から」「自分自身の経験から」といった Borg(2006)のモデルに示されるような意見が見られた。しかしこのようなビリーフは曲げることもあり、その原因は「自分の英語力」であったり、「クラスの実態による日本語を使わざるを得ない状況」であったりした。

本研究における実際の教室内のやりとりや教員の意識調査の結果から、L1 を使用することにより児童の理解を助け、次の活動へと授業を進めていく効果はあるようである。一方で言語使用だけに頼らず、ジェスチャーを介するなど視覚的情報を与えて児童の理解の足場掛けをし、多量の英語を聞かせる工夫の余地があることも本研究から示唆される。

5.2 教育的示唆と今後の課題

「英語は英語で」は日本語による文法説明に多くの時間を費やしてきたこれまでの英語指導法の反動であり、また、たくさんのインプットを与えることが言語習得につながるという SLA 理論からきているものと思われる。しかし、吉田・柳瀬(2003)は EFL の場合は ESL(English as a Second Language)や EOL(English as an Official Language)と『質的』に違う方法を取り入れる必要があると述べている。また、Cameron (2001)は「教員は責任を持って選択をするべきである。どの言語を使うのかの選択は結局のところ、学習機会を最大限引き出すためのものである」(p.213)と記している。ところが、特に現職の小学校教員においては、英語の指導について教員養成課程で学んでいない場合がほとんどで、「どの場面でどのくらい英語を用いるのが『学習機会を最大限に引き出す』のか」の判断基準を持たないことが多い。また、その判断基準を持ったところで言いたいことを言い表す英語力がなければ使うことができない。さらに、言語情報だけでなく、視覚情報も用いて伝えることでより多くの英語のインプットを与えられるので、そうするための指導技術も必要であろう。したがって、このような判断基準を持ち、その基準を満たす英語表現能力や英語指導力を身につけられるような教員研修・養成が求められる。今後、さらに多くの教室談話の分析をし、どのような英語表現力が必要とされているのかについての研究をして、教員研修に貢献したいと考える。

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教員としての自己－省察ツールとしての絵－¹

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1. はじめに

学習オートノミー育成や教師教育などの研究分野では、省察そして省察過程の重要性がすでに指摘され、学習者の省察を促すポートフォリオの開発や活用に関する研究のみならず (Burrell, Miners, Nantz & Torosyan, 2009; Shimo, 2008)、近年では教員養成課程でも省察を基軸としたカリキュラム開発や授業が実践され (高木, 2014; 武内, 2013)、省察を重視したアプローチがさらに注目されている。そして、新保・長倉 (2013) は「PDCA (Plan-Do-Check-Action) サイクル」を基盤に、省察を中核とした授業実践力向上のための方法論を具体的に提示しているが、授業実践においてはメタ認知的な分析が十分に行われないうことや省察が個人活動に終始してしまう点を課題として挙げている。そこで本稿では、事例研究として日本の中学校熟練英語教員の生徒の英語学習態度への認識に関する分析を行い、本研究の調査手段として用いた絵の省察ツールとしての可能性について考察する。

2. 事例研究：Hayashi (2010)

本研究対象は、日本の中学校英語教員 1 名（田中先生、仮名）である。田中先生は関東地方の私立中高一貫校の英語科専任教員（女性）で、同中学の英語科主任も務めている。また調査当時は中学 3 年 A 組のクラス担任であり、選抜クラスである 3 年 B 組の英語授業も担当する教員歴 18 年の熟練教員である。本研究では生徒の英語学習態度に対する教員と生徒の認識の関係性を明らかにする目的で、3 年 B 組に在籍する生徒（42 名）も調査対象としたが、本稿ではフォーカスグループインタビューへの協力が得られた 3 名の生徒のデータを分析した。

3. 調査方法

田中先生の生徒の英語学習態度に対する認識を理解するために、アンケート調査および半構造化インタビューを実施した。生徒の認識についてはアンケート調査の他にフォーカスグループインタビューも行い、その一環として絵を描かせる活動も取り入れた。近年では言語教師認知の研究分野でもインタビューの一環として絵を調査手段に用いる研究も多く (Borg, Birello, Civera, & Zanatta, 2014; Kalaja, Dufva & Alanen, 2013 など)、中学生を対象にした本研究でも英語や英語授業に対するイメージなどを自由に描かせることで、生徒一人ひとりの英語学習に対する認識を詳細かつ具体的に明らかにすることができると考え導入

¹本稿は JACET 言語教師認知研究会（第 19 回研究発表会）に於ける発表の要約である。発表では、Hayashi (2010) の事例研究の一部を提示し、参加者とともに自身の授業および教員としての自己に関する協働省察を試みた。研究内容の詳細については、Hayashi, C. (2010)を参照されたい。

した。

4. 分析方法

インタビューデータの分析についてはグラウンデッド・セオリー・アプローチ (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) の手法を用い、オープンコーディングとカテゴリー化を行った。生徒の絵については、Di Leo (1970) と Machover (1949) の分析方法に従い、描かれた絵の内容、大きさそして配置などの観点から多角的に分析した。また、分析結果については内的信頼性を高めるため、もう一人の研究者に再分析を依頼した。

5. 結果・考察

5.1 教員としての自己

インタビューデータから田中先生の教員としての自己は「英語教師としての自己」、「クラス担任としての自己」、「自覚している本来の自己」の3つから成ることが明らかとなり、それぞれの自己を French and Raven (1960, Levin & Shanken-Kaye, 1996 より引用) の”Authority Bases” (権威のベース) の観点から分析した。全部で4つのベース (expert, coercive, referent, legitimate) から成る Authority Bases は他者との関係の築き方を示す一つの指標となり、本研究ではこの観点から田中先生と生徒の関係性を明らかにした。

まず、田中先生の1つ目の自己は英語教員としての自己である。田中先生はインタビューの中で次のように述べている。

指導プランというものがある程度自分の頭の中にあって、それはどんな子供 (生徒) にも適用できと思っています。中学生にとって一番良い文法指導の方法と順番をわかっています。(中略) 私の息子の出来が悪かったので、生徒が理解できないところがわかるんです。息子が英語で躓いているところを近くでみていたので、生徒が問題を解く前に重要なポイントに的を絞って、文法指導ができるんです。

英語学習方略や文法指導の専門家 (“expert”) であると自覚している田中先生は、さらに続けて英語学習のプロセスに於ける自身の役割を「リーダーである」と答え、「生徒を正解に導く指導が重要である」と語っている。そして、授業内で生徒の動機を高めるには「アメとムチを使い分け、成績の良い生徒には褒め言葉を与え、成績の悪い生徒には居残りをさせ課題を与える」と賞罰の与え方も具体的に説明し、“coercive” としての自身の在り方についても言及している。

2つ目はクラス担任としての自己である。インタビューではクラス担任としては「母親になることもあり、何か問題が生じた場合には生徒と一緒に問題解決に努める」とし、生徒と寄り添いながら生徒との信頼関係を構築する”referent” としての自身について説明している。また、学生の呼び方については「授業内では生徒のことを『さん』付けで呼びます。でも、休み時間や生徒を呼び出す時は意識的に呼び捨てにしています」と述べている。つまり、生徒に対する態度や接し方を授業内外で意識的に変え、授業外では生徒とより近い

立場で生徒の意思を尊重しながら、生徒一人ひとりの成長を見守りたいという生徒への優しい思いが窺える。

3 つ目は田中先生が自覚している本来の自己である。インタビューで田中先生は自身の性格について、「実は臆病で内気で根暗です」と自己分析し、自身の学生時代の経験を振り返りながら当時の教員や大人に対する不信感について触れ、「教員として自身のありのままの姿で生徒と接したい」と述べている。

5.2 教員を取り巻く環境の影響

5.1 で明らかとなった田中先生の3つの自己の形成および表出については、田中先生を取り巻く環境が大きく影響していることが明らかとなった。田中先生は英語教員として障害だと感じるものに「同学年の教員との関係」と「中学校と附属高校の教員からのプレッシャー」の2つを挙げている。田中先生の勤務校は中高一貫の進学校であること、また田中先生自身が中学3年生の進学クラスの英語授業を担当し、さらに英語科主任を務めていることで「[中学校でも]大学受験も視野に入れた英語の指導を附属高校の教員からも求められ、そのプレッシャーをひしひしと感じている」と述べている。そして、「英語は[大学受験には]重要な科目であることを生徒にも伝える必要がある」と語りながら、英語教員として生徒の英語力を効果的に高められるような指導を行い、さらに附属高校の教員からの高い期待に応えることが使命であると田中先生自身強く認識している。

また、同学年の教員との関係に言及しながら、クラス担任としての障害についても触れている。特にクラス担任としては、「生徒指導や授業運営では、私の個人的な判断よりも学年や学校としての判断に基づいて対応を求められることが多く、他の教員と足並みを揃えなければならない」と自身の中に存在するジレンマについて触れている。このように、田中先生の語りからは田中先生を取り巻く環境、特に縦横からのプレッシャーやジレンマが3つの自己と深く関係し、それぞれの自己の形成や表出に影響を及ぼしていることが示された。

5.3 生徒の認識：絵の分析

次に、田中先生の認識を生徒の描いた絵の関係から分析する。3名の生徒には田中先生の英語授業を振り返り、印象に残っていることを絵で描くように指示した。

まず、生徒Aの絵（図1）では、田中先生は黒板の前に立ち、無表情で板書内容を指差しながら説明する姿が描かれている。Aさんは自身が描いた絵について、以下のように説明している。

みんなが間違いやすい所とかを例題に出して、「ここは気を付けて！」みたいな、「印をつけて！」みたいなことを田中先生が言っているところです。

（第1回フォーカスグループインタビュー）

図 1: A さんの絵



英語学習方略の専門家であり生徒の間違いやすい個所を熟知している田中先生が、生徒自身が実際に問題を解く前に予め間違いやすいところを指摘し、田中先生がインタビューで語っていた「正解に導く指導」を実践していることが示されている。また、A さんの絵では、大きく描かれた黒板や教壇とともに、田中先生の長い腕と大きな手が強調されて描かれているのが特徴である。長い腕と大きな手は「権力・支配」の象徴であり (Di Leo, 1970; Machover, 1949) 、A さんの絵からは、英語授業が教師主体の授業であることが読み取れる。

同様に、生徒 B の絵 (図 2) でも田中先生は教壇に立ち、教科書を片手に黒板を指差しながら説明をしている姿が描かれている。

生徒が田中先生の説明を聞いているところを描きました。先生は答えを教えてくれて、生徒はそれを聞いている。もしわからないことがあれば、先生に聞いて、先生が答える。

(第 1 回フォーカスグループインタビュー)

図 2: B さんの絵

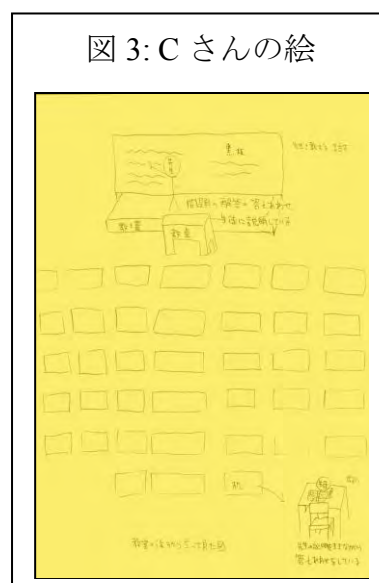


Bさんは知識を一方的に伝達する教員と、それをそのまま受け入れようとする生徒との間の力関係の隔たりについて触れている。さらに、分からないことがあった場合には教員に解説を求めると述べ、生徒同士の教え合いや学び合う協調学習を通した主体的な学びの機会が少ないことが推察できる。Bさんの絵では田中先生は教科書を持って黒板の横に立ち説明をしているが、田中先生以外誰も言葉を発さず生徒の視線は黒板と教員にのみ向けられている。また、生徒については前列2列目までに座っている14名の生徒のみが描かれているが髪型や姿も皆同じであることから、生徒個々の存在や個性よりも同じ一群であることが強調されていると考えられる。

図3は生徒Cの絵である。

生徒は黒板に書いてある正解を見ながら、自分の答えを確認しています。田中先生は説明をしていて、先生は生徒がちゃんと理解できるように説明している。生徒は間違ったところをメモして、それを忘れないようにしている。

(第1回フォーカスグループインタビュー)



Aさん同様、Cさんのコメントからは学習過程よりも間違いをせずに正解を出すことへの高い意識が読み取れる。またCさんの絵で描かれている人物は教室の隅に座っている生徒と教壇に立っている田中先生のみであり、Bさんと同じように他の生徒の存在は全て机で描かれ、生徒同士のインターアクションの少なさが窺える。そして、唯一描かれている田中先生と生徒1名の間にも明らかな距離があり、Cさんが英語授業を教員と生徒の一对一のやりとりで、知識は教員から生徒への一方的に伝達されるものであると認識していると考えられる。以上のように、生徒3名の描く絵はいずれも「エキスパート」としての田中先生の姿であり、田中先生が語る「英語教員としての自己」と合致していると解釈できる。

6. 終わりに

本研究では中学校英語熟練教員に対するインタビューデータにより、教員としての3つの自己が提示され、それぞれの自己の形成や表出には教員を取り巻く環境が深く関係していることが明らかとなった。またインタビューに加え、絵を調査手段として用いることで絵の中の人物の大きさや配置などから、生徒の認識および教員の認識との関係性がより詳細にまた具体的に示された。

絵を調査手段に用いた研究については、子どもを対象としたものがまだ多いが(Mulligan & Griffin, 1992 など)、本研究では対象者の年齢に関係なく、絵の分析を通して言葉では表出されない潜在的な心理も読み取れることが示され、省察ツールとしての絵の可能性が示唆された。調査手段および省察ツールとしての絵は、今後ますます注目され幅広く活用されるものとする。

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Enhancing Teaching Practices through Teacher Collaboration: Case Studies of Secondary School Teachers in Japan

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INTRODUCTION

In Japan, team-teaching between Japanese teachers of English and native English speaking teachers started under the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) program in 1987 to develop Japanese EFL learners' communication abilities (Miyazato, 2009). According to the Council of Local Authorities for International Relations (CLAIR) (2010), the number of assistant language teachers (ALTs) participating in the JET program has gradually increased over the years. Since 1987, more than 60,000 participants from 63 countries have participated in the program (CLAIR, 2010). Given the circumstance in which team-teaching has been extensively conducted in public elementary and secondary school settings in Japan, it is critical to examine the complexity of teachers' practices of co-teaching and the contextual factors affecting their instruction. By especially highlighting individual Japanese teachers' experiences, histories, and goals as well as their interactions with social contexts such as school administrators, colleagues, students, professional development opportunities, this study explores the effective co-teaching practices conducted by two pairs from different high schools in Japan.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical orientation framing this study is Vygotskian's sociocultural theory. This theory views learning as a social, cultural, and historical activities which are interconnected with individual mental processes (e.g., Lantolf & Poehner, 2008 & 2014; Vygotsky, 1978). Based on this sociocultural theory, Freeman and Johnson (1998), for example, proposed a framework for the knowledge-base of L2 teacher education in the L2 teacher education field. According to them, this framework consists of three interconnected areas: (1) "teachers as learners of language teaching" concerning how teachers learn to teach, (2) the influence of "the social contexts" such as sociocultural and historical aspects of schooling, and (3) "the nature of the activity of teaching and learning" including teaching beliefs, classroom instructions, knowledge of the subject matter, and language learning (pp. 406-407). Freeman and Johnson (1998) argue that it is important to understand these areas in order to develop an effective knowledge-base

of language teacher education.

Recently, there have been a growing number of studies from sociocultural theory in the field of L2 teacher education (e.g., Lantolf, 2000; Johnson & Golombek, 2011). Although they have revealed the complex nature of teachers' learning to teach, up to today few studies have been conducted in the contexts of EFL, especially regarding teachers' co-teaching. Thus, based on Freeman's and Johnson's framework, this study aims to better understand the nature of Japanese high school teachers' learning to teach, in particular when they engage in team-teaching activities.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions addressed were as follows:

1. What are the teaching practices of Japanese high school teachers who team-taught with native English speaking teachers?
2. What factors have influenced their co-teaching practices?

METHODOLOGY

Naturalistic Case Study

We conducted a naturalistic case study to “come to understand and interpret how the various participants in a social setting construct the world around them” (Glesne, 1999, p. 5). By using a naturalistic paradigm for the study, we gained access to the meanings, constructs, and perspectives of the participants through in-depth and long-term interaction with them.

Participants

To select research participants, purposive sampling was employed to develop the case “from which we can learn the most” (Stake, 1994, p. 243). The participants in this study were two teaching pairs. One pair consists of a Japanese male teacher of English named Suzuki-sensei and a male English teacher from the U.S. named Ken-sensei, while the other pair a male Japanese teacher of civics named Tanaka-sensei and a male English teacher from the U.K. named Mike-sensei. These participants' names are written under pseudonyms. The first pair worked for a public high school (School Y) located in the suburb of a small city in Japan. School Y extensively developed the new educational reform in English language curriculum after it was designated as Super English Language High School (SELHi) by the Japanese government (MEXT). SELHi is one of the projects that the MEXT has promoted to “nurture Japanese citizens who can use English” (MEXT, 2004). Therefore, the main

goal of the English curriculum at school was “to develop high practical English communication skills, especially expressing yourself, through English education and international understanding” (School Y, 2004). The observed class was titled Communication 4, the highest level of communication courses, and was offered to the 12th graders in the 2005 academic year. Suzuki-sensei taught English for six years at School Y. As the head of the SELHi program and the English department, he was leading Ken-sensei. Suzuki-sensei studied English education in the U.S. from 1998-1999. At the time of data collection, he was further studying in a distance education TESOL MA program in England.

The second pair worked for a private high school (School F) located in the suburban area of a major city in Japan. The educational goals of School F are to produce outstanding individuals who can contribute not only to Japanese society but also the world. The observed class was an elective civics course titled “Global Studies in English” in the 2004 academic year. Then, Tanaka-sensei taught Civics for seven years at School F, not counting a three-year period studying abroad, from 1998 to 2001. He studied English in the U.S. and Canada for the first year and entered into a master’s program at one of the major universities in Canada. He learned World Studies during his master’s program and obtained his master’s degree in 2001. Mike-sensei majored in modern languages (French and Spanish) as an undergraduate at one of the top universities in the U.K. After he graduated from the university, he taught English, French, and Spanish in various countries. Mike-sensei began teaching English in September 2004 at School F. According to Mike-sensei, he was assigned to this course because he was available to teach the team-teaching classes according to his timetable for the academic year.

Data Collection

We employed three data-collection methods: participant observation, interview, and documentary analysis, all of which allowed us to “understand the world from the subjects’ points of view” and “unfold the meaning of peoples’ experiences to uncover their lived world” (Kvale, 1996, p. 1).

The two lessons (including one self-report in which Suzuki-sensei was asked to answer the questions about his teaching practice) taught by the first pair were observed and so were the seven lessons by the second one. We utilized participant observation to see two pairs’ practices of co-teaching from the points of view of insiders (our research participants) (Yin, 1994). During the observations, we played the role of “peripheral membership” by mainly sitting in the back of the classrooms and taking field notes on

the participants' teaching practices (Angrosino & May de Perez, 2000).

Individual formal and informal interviews with the teachers were conducted. The formal interviews (two interviews with Suzuki-sensei, three with Tanaka-sensei, and two with Mike-sensei) were mainly semi-structured, in that guiding questions were predetermined. However, we also asked questions that emerged during the interviews. The formal interviews were all audio-taped and transcribed later. The informal interviews took place occasionally when teacher participants were available. The informal interviews were either unstructured or semi-structured. We noted anything we talked in our field notes. The interviews with Japanese teachers were done in Japanese and those with native English teachers in English.

We also collected documents related to the study. The documents "frequently reveal what people will not or can not say" (Eisner, 1991, p. 184). Throughout the study we collected any documentation related to two pairs' practices of co-teaching such as books, syllabi, lesson plans, textbooks, handouts, and other teaching materials.

In School Y, qualitative data were collected during two terms (mainly from August to March) in the 2005 school year, and in School F during two terms (from October to March) in the 2004 school year.

Data Analysis

We hoped to develop a theory grounded in the data rather than find the data to match a theory in order to better understand the practices of co-teaching in two pairs' contexts. In order to achieve this goal, we employed a constant comparative method. We analyzed the data inductively, in that we did not start to find data to prove or disprove a predetermined hypothesis, but attempted to discover categories, themes, or theories from the data or "grounded in the data" (Strauss & Corbin, 1994, p. 273). Moreover, we started and ended data analysis at the beginning and the end of data collection, respectively. The simultaneity of data collection and data analysis allowed us to collect data that was more relevant to research problems and modify the methods of keeping field notes for more effective data analysis.

In order to establish the trustworthiness of this study, we employed a reflexive journal, peer debriefing with other researchers/doctoral students who were familiar with qualitative research and the fields of our research areas (teacher education, English education, and global education), triangulation of research methods and data sources, member checking with our research participants, negative case analysis, and thick description.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

First Case: Suzuki-sensei and Ken-sensei

In all of Suzuki-sensei's lessons observed, he taught with a native English speaking teacher in order to achieve the main goal of the English curriculum, which was "to develop high practical English communication skills, especially expressing yourself, through English education and international understanding" (School Y, 2004). Although it was not always a smooth path for him to fulfill the goal, he actively used resources available to him, in particular a native teacher, and constantly received linguistic support from the ALT. Although both Suzuki-sensei and Ken-sensei knew that they could "take part in partner's role(s) any time" (Follow-up interview: 11/8/2005), the former generally organized each lesson and managed the activities, and the latter played a role of promptly providing students with feedback on their speech and reports. The following are typical examples:

Suzuki-sensei gave his nine students a topic of impromptu speech, *My dream*, and asked individual students to talk about their dreams for 30 seconds (Field note, 10/27/2005). During the speech, Ken-sensei constantly gave the students comments in English (e.g., "You are the strangest person. Why do you want to do that?") and paraphrased and corrected their English. When asked the reason behind the use of these practical tools which are impromptu speech and team-teaching with native English speaking teachers, Suzuki-sensei emphasized the importance of creating "natural communication environments" to support students' English development. He further explained that "[this course] requires us to promptly react to students and he [Ken-sensei], who is a native speaker and also good at responding to them, plays the major role for that" (Follow-up interview: 11/8/2005).

Suzuki-sensei then asked the students to present their opinions in group regarding a role of the Budget Department of new country called "Amazonas." They reported which items on the lists (e.g., agriculture; national guard; education) received what percentage of the budget and the reasons behind the decisions. While Suzuki-sensei was drawing a table on the blackboard and visually showed the similarities and differences among each group's responses, Ken-sensei continued to comment on the student's responses (Field Notes, 8/27/2005)

Other than assistant language teachers, Suzuki-sensei drew on various available resources which eventually provided him to implement this team-teaching, including the U.S. teacher education program where [he] was exposed to "natural English" (Mr. Suzuki, Follow-up interview: 10/26/2005). However, he also encountered challenges such as students' hesitation to an "interaction" due to their sensitivity to their own

English mistakes (Mr. Suzuki, Interview: 3/23/2006). To solve the problem, he first let his students engage in speech and reports to achieve the original goal of the SELHi curriculum which is “interaction in English.” (Mr. Suzuki, Interview: 10/27/2005). Suzuki-sensei further commented that the topics of impromptu speech came from the actual essay of the past university entrance examinations (Interview, 10/27/2005). Therefore, he implemented the teaching tool to also meet the school responsibility to prepare students for the exams.

Second Case: Tanaka-sensei and Mike-sensei

Global Studies in English (Global Studies) was a two credit-hour elective civics course for 12th graders. The learning goals of this course focused on students’ recognition of the values of each individual and her/his social, cultural, family background; knowledge on interconnectedness of social issues; attitudes of learning about different cultures; imagination of the viewpoints and feelings of different people; and initiatives to create a more equal society. In order to achieve these goals, Tanaka-sensei and Mike-sensei implemented various learning activities in class. Mike-sensei was mainly expected to deal with anything in English, such as organizing activities and facilitating discussion in class. Tanaka-sensei, Mike-sensei, and Global Studies students usually discussed the global issues that they learned by reflecting on their own international and daily experiences. The following was an example.

On November 12, 2004, the students discussed discrimination issues in Japan and around the world.

Mike -sensei: Do you know anyone suffering from discrimination around you?

Student #1: Handicapped people.

Mike-sensei: How are they discriminated against?

When the student did not respond to the question, Mike -sensei asked him:

Mike-sensei: Is it easy for people riding wheelchairs to enter facilities like restaurants in Japan?

The student shook his head to indicate “no.” Then, Tanaka-sensei asked the class, “How about gender?” Another student mentioned that there is discrimination in terms of income and job promotion, in that few women become politicians, and a woman cannot become an empress. Mike-sensei asked “how about prime minister?” After thinking about former prime ministers in Japan, the students concluded there had been no female prime ministers in Japan. In addition, Mike-sensei asked if there are jobs that people are expected to do because of their gender and whether they were happy with the notion

that “men work outside, while women work inside the house.” When students were asked to raise their hands to show whether they were happy or unhappy with this, the majority of students said they were happy with it. After that, the students discussed their opinions about this concept. During the discussion, Tanaka-sensei asked an international student (from Germany) about gender issues in Germany. Then, Mike-sensei mentioned the fact that it is essential for people in England and Switzerland to have a double income in order to survive. After that, Tanaka-sensei asked students if there is racism in Japan. Most of the students agreed there was. Tanaka-sensei also asked:

Tanaka-sensei: In what form does racism exist in Japan?

Student #2: My parents discriminate against Chinese people, Korean people, and Black people.

Student #3: People such as the Ainu people, the Ryukyu people, and the *Eta* (literally “abundant filth”) or *Hinin* (non-person) suffer from discrimination.

At the end of the discussion, Mike-sensei talked about his home country, saying that discrimination existed in England, in that there used to be signboards that said “No Blacks, no Irish, no dogs.” Mike-sensei continued to say that these signboards are illegal now. (Field Notes, 11/12/2004)

Tanaka-sensei expected that students would recognize the fact that the issues are not just something that happens outside Japan, but are serious issues within Japan. Therefore, one of the goals stated in the syllabus for Global Studies clearly indicated learning about the connections of social issues to their own lives.

Teachers’ perception of students’ learning about global issues was another strong contextual factor on what to teach. For example, Tanaka-sensei believed that his students needed to develop their knowledge and skills to be able to take action in solving global issues, as well as to succeed in their careers.

I would like them to develop ‘powers’ in the fields that they pursue. If they want to become teachers, I want them to develop instructional knowledge and skills...The point is that when they pursue various fields and face problems, such as when someone asks for help in foreign countries, I want them to become the kinds of people who hold out their hands without any hesitation within the limits of what they can do. (Mr. Tanaka, Interview: 11/29/2004)

It was natural for Tanaka-sensei to have students think about their future careers, since Global Studies was for twelfth-grade students who would graduate the following

March and go to universities or vocational schools after graduation. He also expected them to take action on issues or for people who were suffering around them.

In addition, teachers' and students' daily experiences were a major factor for the class discussion above. The students talked about discrimination in Japan; Mike-sensei talked about gender issues in England; one international student from Germany was asked about discrimination in Germany. In this sense, Tanaka-sensei and Mike-sensei attempted to connect global issues to local issues that involve situations in different countries.

CONCLUSIONS

This study aimed at exploring how two paired high school teachers in Japan conducted team-teaching in different subject areas (English and civics) and the factors affecting their instructional practices. The effective team-teachings of these cases were made possible because of the support of government (e.g., JET program, SELHi program); school (e.g., policy, curriculum, exam preparation); the availability of teaching partners (e.g., assistant language teacher); professional development opportunity (e.g., MA program); high commands of English language by Japanese teachers; teachers' perceptions of students' learning; and teachers' and students' daily experiences. In other words, as sociocultural theory suggests, the teachers' team-teachings were rooted in their experiences and the goals they had as well as their interactions with social contexts available to them. The following diagram shows the dynamic nature of these contextual factors.

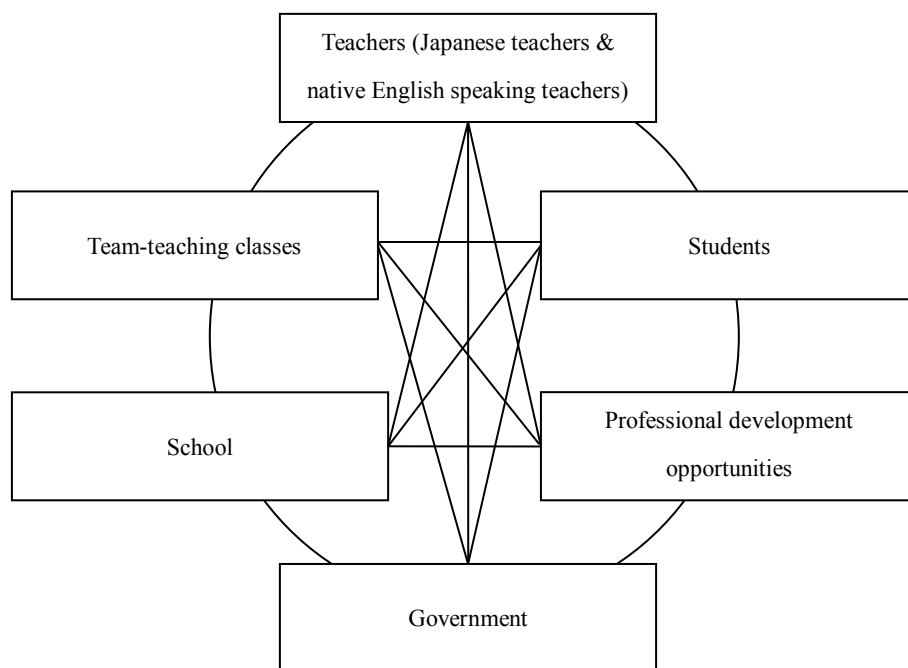


Figure 1: The contextual factors of the two team-teaching cases

As the diagram shows, the two team-teaching cases created active interactions between pair teachers and students by discussing familiar topics (my dream in case 1 and discrimination and racism in case 2). In order to effectively implement such practices, supports from social environments such as government and school are essential. For example, the school supports including its policy and curriculum allow teachers to develop and implement syllabi involving team-teaching. It is also necessary for both Japanese and native English speaking teachers to develop pedagogical tools such as their skills of team-teaching and the nature of students' learning through professional development opportunities. In sum, team-working across different levels (e.g., government, school, classroom, teachers, and students) is a key for successful team-teaching practices.

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Effect of Student Self-reflection on Teacher Motivation

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Abstract

This study examines the relationship between student self-reflection and teacher motivation. In order to gain a better understanding of this relationship, a questionnaire was sent to 14 teachers of an English e-learning class at a private university. All teachers followed a unified syllabus to teach the e-learning class, so they were accustomed to reading their students' self-reflection after every class. The questionnaire asked the participants how their motivation was influenced by a set of ten comments; these comments were a composite of the type of remarks students generally make during self-reflective activities. The results show that roughly half of the students' self-reflective comments had some bearing on teacher motivation. Moreover, reading positive self-reflective comments related to the class content motivated 80.5% teachers on average and demotivated none of them. The results also showed that five participants enjoyed reading self-reflective comments from students. In conclusion, student self-reflection could be an good tool for helping teachers stay motivated.

Key words: teacher motivation, student self-reflection, e-learning, learner autonomy

Introduction

Student motivation is often discussed in schools, and chief among any teacher's objectives is motivating students. Teacher motivation, however, can easily be taken for granted, drifting low on the list of a given institution's priorities, even though more inspired teachers by and large enjoy greater success in the classroom (Praver and Oga-Baldwin, 2008). When the author taught an English e-learning class at a private university, it was found quite

motivating to read the self-reflective comments that the students were required to write as part of every lesson. These comments were primarily designed as a means of encouraging students to think about their own progress. A broader, secondary aim was to develop a stronger sense of autonomy. While this system of self-reflection was implemented for the students' benefit, it was enjoyable for the author to read and respond to their comments. In fact, this became a source of motivation for the author when teaching the class, despite the presence of factors that could be frustrating such as having to deal with about 180 students seated in five different computer rooms. This experience made the author wonder how teachers can overcome, or deflect, certain logistical and administrative obstacles and stay motivated in the classroom.

Literature Review

Motivation is often classified into two main categories: intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Ryan and Deci (2000) explain that intrinsic motivation “refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable,” while extrinsic motivation “refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome.” If these definitions are applied to teacher motivation, intrinsic motivation will include a teacher's satisfaction with her student's achievements as well as her genial classroom interaction with them. By contrast, extrinsic motivation comes from factors outside the classroom, such as salary and job security.

Tsutumi (2014) examined 12 Japanese EFL university teachers in Japan to explore factors in their motivation and found that “Japanese university EFL teachers tend to seek intrinsic needs and wants, such as autonomy, self-growth, and seeing students' growth through daily interaction in English classes.” (p.121) On the other hand, Sugino (2010) sought sources of demotivation among 97 language teachers of college-level courses in Japan. She examined 37 items and found that five out of the top seven issues that demotivate college

teachers are related to student attitudes as evidenced by statements such as “when students use cell-phones” and “when students sleep in class.”(p.221)

The motivational process is complex for workers (Steers and Porter, 1991), but the study by Morgan et al (2007) indicates that positive frequent events which occur in a close environment, such as a classroom, have a motivational influence on teachers. When student self-reflection is integrated into the classroom routine, and when teachers have to read about 180 self-reflective comments from their students every week, the process would constitute precisely the sort of recurring event described in the literature noted above.

Study

Research Questions

This study focuses on the relationship between teacher motivation and student self-reflection. The following research questions are posed:

1. Is a teacher’s motivation influenced by reading her students’ self-reflective comments?
2. If the teacher’s motivation is influenced by her students’ self-reflective comments, which types or styles of self-reflection truly influence teacher motivation?

Participants and Data Collection

In 2014, a survey was sent to 14 Japanese teachers who have taught an English e-learning class at a private university. The English e-learning class is required for all first year students in all departments, and the number of female students is slightly larger than that of male students. For the students, it is the only English class which focuses on their input of English such as listening and reading skills, while other required English classes focus on their output such as discussion, presentation, and writing skills. Another difference between the e-learning class and other required English classes is that Japanese is used in class, so it is taught by Japanese teachers. For the e-learning class, students in the same department are

divided into two different classes depending on their English level.

English e-learning classes are taught by full-time teachers. The participants in this study have worked full-time for the university under a fixed term contract for a maximum period of 5 years. They teach about 75 percent of the e-learning classes every year. They cover a wide age range, from those in their thirties to those in their fifties, and among them four teachers are male. These participants followed a unified syllabus which required them to have students write self-reflective comments at the end of each lesson, which meant each participant was already familiar with regularly monitoring their students via self-reflection. The survey was sent to the participants' e-mail addresses as a Google Form, and their responses to the questionnaire were collected anonymously online using Google Forms. The aim was to help them answer as honestly as possible, since they were all colleagues of the author. The reply ratio was 100%.

Contents of the Survey

The first section asked the participants to imagine that they had read ten different self-reflective comments and judge whether their motivation in teaching the e-learning class “would go up,” “wouldn’t be affected,” or “would go down.” These ten comments were chosen based on preliminary research conducted by the author using self-reflective comments from 175 students of her students for 14 weeks during the spring semester, 2013. It was found that the students’ comments could mainly be classified into negative and positive categories, with respect to their own English skills, their performance in relation to the class content, and what they were able to achieve in class. In addition, there were more than a few questions to the teacher. Thirty-three students, 19% of the class, asked at least one question in their self-reflective comments inquiring about their assignments, the teaching materials, or how to learn some specific skill. It is likely that the participants had read very similar comments written by actual students enrolled in their e-learning classes. See Appendix A for the survey,

followed by an English translation.

The ten self-reflective comments chosen to represent the student self-reflection are classified as follows:

1. “I was sleepy.” → Short negative comments
2. “Today I was able to focus on the task, so I got a perfect score on the quiz.” → Positive comments on what the student was able to do
3. “I found the news site introduced today interesting.” → Positive comments on the class content
4. “I could not listen to the connected sounds” (provided you covered the connected sounds in class.) → Negative comments on the student’s English skills, related to the class content
5. “Shadowing made me understand the contents of the reading material better.” → Positive comments on the student’s English skills related to the class content
6. “Can I do my semester assignments at my own pace?” → Question to the teacher
7. “I did not have enough time to finish the reading section during the TOEIC today.” → Negative comments on the student’s performance related to the class content
8. “I think I can gradually read without going back to read over again and again.” → Positive comments on the student’s improvement on English skills related to the class content
9. “I lack knowledge of vocabulary, so I don’t understand the meaning, which is hard.” → Negative comments on the student’s English skills
10. “I could not focus on the class.” → Negative comments related to the student’s class attitude

The second section of the survey asked if participants found reading student self-reflection “enjoyable” or “troublesome” or whether it provoked a different emotional response altogether. A “free comments” space was provided for those who chose the latter. The survey was conducted in Japanese as it was exclusive to native Japanese speakers, and because student self-reflection in the actual course is always conducted in Japanese.

Results

Table 1 shows the answers that participants (Teacher A to Teacher N) chose for their

motivational changes after reading the students' self-reflective comments 1 to 10.

Table 1
Students' Self-reflective Comments and Their Effect on the Teachers' Motivation

		Student' self-reflective comments									
Participants (Teacher A to Teacher N)		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	A	-	↗	↗	↗	↗	-	-	↗	↗	-
	B	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	C	-	↗	↗	↗	↗	-	↗	-	↗	-
	D	-	↗	↗	-	-	-	↘	-	↘	-
	E	-	↗	↗	↗	↗	↗	↗	↗	↗	↗
	F	-	↗	↗	↘	↗	-	-	↗	-	-
	G	↘	↗	↗	↘	↗	-	-	↗	-	-
	H	-	-	↗	-	↗	↗	-	↗	-	-
	I	-	↗	↗	↗	↗	-	-	↗	-	-
	J	↘	↗	↗	-	↗	-	-	↗	-	-
	K	-	↗	↗	↘	↗	-	-	-	-	-
	L	-	↗	↗	-	↗	-	-	↗	↗	-
	M	↘	↗	↗	-	↗	-	-	↗	-	-
	N	↘	-	↗	↘	-	-	-	↗	-	-

↗ : Motivation would go up ↘ : Motivation would go down - : Motivation wouldn't be affected

Regarding Research Question 1, *Figure 1.* shows the number of self-reflective comments chosen by each participant for three categories: "Motivation UP," "Not affected," and "Motivation DOWN" based on the data shown on Table 1. Though one participant (Teacher A) answered that reading student self-reflection had zero impact on her or his motivation, the remaining participants answered that reading certain self-reflective comments had some bearing on their motivation. Seven teachers, which is 50% of the participants, found that no student self-reflection lowered their motivation.

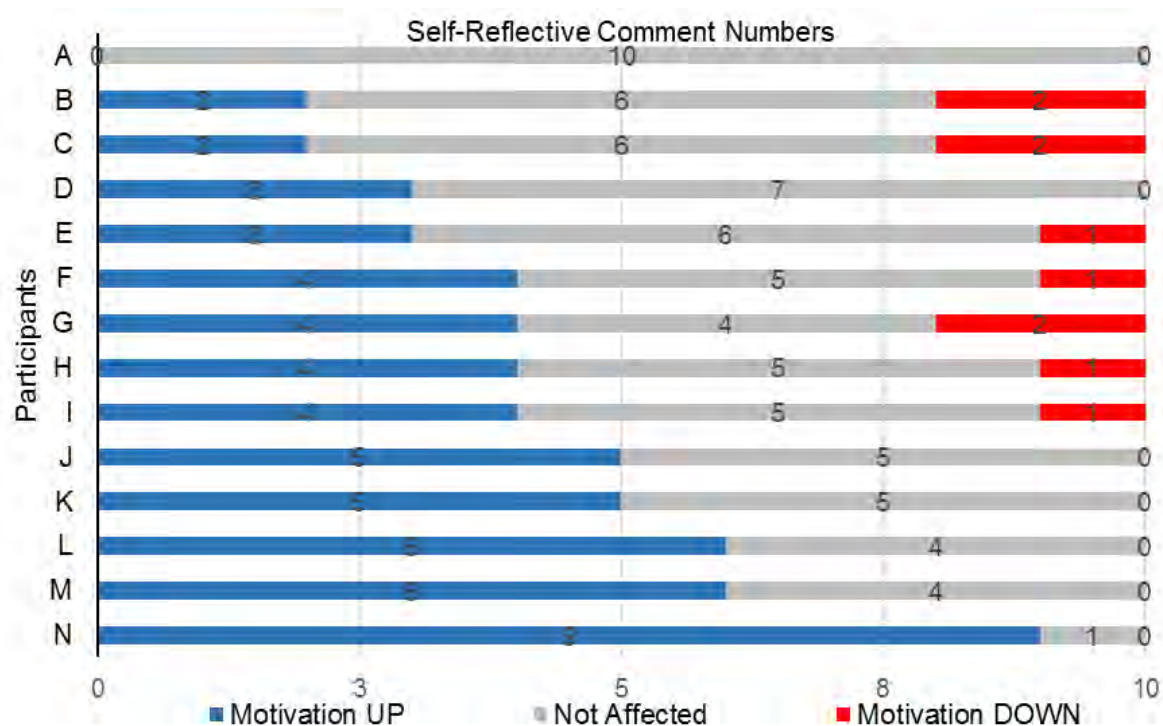


Figure 1. Teacher motivation and reading student self-reflection, by Teacher A to Teacher N

As for Research Question 2, based on the data shown on Table 1, Figure 2. illustrates which self-reflective comments affected the participants' motivation, as well as whether the nature of the effect was positive, negative, or neutral. It was found that a short, negative comment was likely to bring the participants' motivation down (1), while positive comments

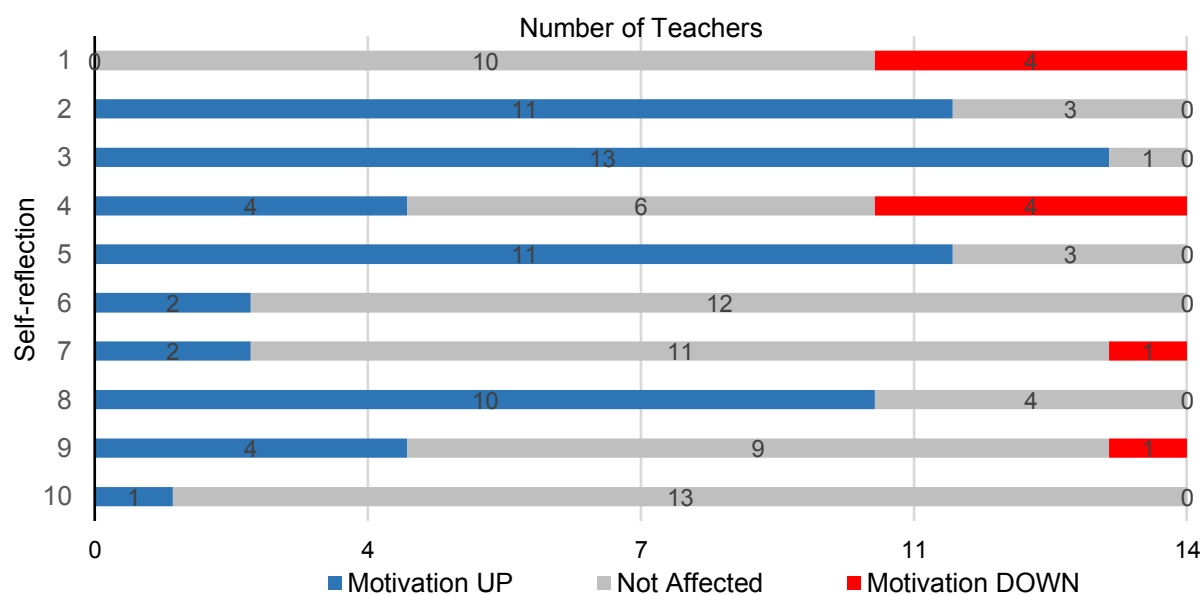


Figure 2. Teacher motivation and reading student self-reflection, by self-reflective comment 1 to 10

related to the class content always brought their motivation up (2, 3, 5, and 8) when they affected teacher motivation. When the students' self-reflective comments were negative but related to the class content, their performance, or their English skills, some of the participants' motivation levels went up, while that of others' went down (4, 7, and 9). Students' questions to a teacher as part of the self-reflection activity motivated two out of 14 participants (6). Finally, even comments betraying students' negative attitudes towards the class motivated one participant (10). As a whole, when the tenor of the students' self-reflection was negative (1, 4, 7, 9, and 10), participants' motivation increased by 15.8% and decreased by 14.4%, on average. When it was positive (2, 3, 5, 8), however, participants' motivation increased by 80.5% on average and did not decrease at all.

Finally, regarding emotional response to reading student self-reflection, five teachers chose "Enjoyable" and two teachers chose "Troublesome." The rest of the participants, seven teachers, chose to write free comments to express undesigned responses in greater detail. The following are the answers to the question in Section B.

Teacher A: Reading self-reflective comments from students is slightly troublesome but essential in understanding/monitoring individual student performance because there are too many students to observe individually during the lessons.

Teacher B: Enjoyable.

Teacher C: Troublesome.

Teacher D: It is not meaningful to read self-reflective student comments because of the difficulties inherent in dealing with individual students in large classes.

Teacher E: It is interesting to read students' self-reflective comments.

Teacher F: Enjoyable.

Teacher G: Troublesome.

Teacher H: Enjoyable.

Teacher I: While it isn't exactly fun, it is very important to read students' self-reflective comments since they serve as the only form of direct contact with individual students.

Teacher J: Troublesome. However, it does provide the only opportunity to communicate with students in this course, so it is enjoyable as well.

Teacher K: It is useful in understanding the students.

Teacher L: Enjoyable.

Teacher M: If there are not too many student reflections to read, I can enjoy it.

Teacher N: Enjoyable.

Discussion

These findings indicate that the impact of student self-reflection on teacher motivation varies according to the individual teacher, just as each teacher's individual interpretation, impression or validation of their students' self-reflective comments differ. For instance, the reactions to self-reflective comment 4, "I could not listen to the connected sounds (provided you covered the connected sounds in class)," were at significant variance: this comment motivated four participants and demotivated four others, while six of the participants' motivation levels remained unaffected by it. Naturally, if a teacher regards this manner of student self-reflection as a reference point and a challenge to come up with more effective ways of teaching "the connected sounds," it can be motivating. However, if a teacher takes it as disappointing, or a failure on her part, it could obviously lead to loss of motivation or lower morale.

On one hand, student self-reflection that is positive and related to the class content is generally motivating. Brief, negative statements, on the other hand, such as self-reflective comment 1, "I was sleepy," could be de-motivating for teachers. However, regardless of how specific comments are interpreted, it is apparent that, on balance, more teachers view student self-reflection as a source of motivation, rather than as a source of anxiety or declining motivation.

Finally, more than a few participants mentioned that they try to understand and communicate with their students via methods of self-reflection since those who teach a large number of students at the same time use a CALL system, and it is difficult to observe these students individually. This would suggest that teachers, understanding the benefits of student self-reflection, deploy it as a teaching tool.

Limitations

Limitations of this study include the number of participants and the self-reflection comments themselves. Moreover, the results could not be connected with the teachers' more individual or personal experiences of teaching this course, as the data was collected anonymously. In addition, the English e-learning class used in this study is markedly different from what one would commonly regard as a "regular" English course. After all, it could easily be argued that student self-reflection has greater value in e-learning than in other types of courses. In e-learning, it could be the sole tool available to teachers seeking familiarity with a large number of individual students. The findings in the present study therefore might not apply to more conventional face-to-face English courses. Finally, teachers' attitudes towards this course were not addressed or explored, so they remain an unknown; these attitudes might have some fundamental effect on their motivation in, or approach to, teaching it.

Conclusions and Future Study

The study suggests that teacher motivation tends to be affected by reading self-reflective comments from students. Positive self-reflection related to the class content seems to have greater impact on motivation. Having students develop self-reflective skills is also considered beneficial in encouraging learner autonomy. If consistent student self-reflection is, in fact, beneficial for teachers too, it would be worth allotting a certain amount of lesson time

for activities of a reflexive nature. For instance, asking students to write about areas they wish to improve or understand more clearly would guide them towards writing a positive comment related to the class content. As suggested above, this type of regular, positive commentary would likely result in maintaining or raising teachers' motivation levels.

It would be interesting to conduct a similar study using a regular, face-to-face course, such as a reading or writing class, with a more manageable number of students, and then compare the results with those revealed by the present study. In that case, it would be advisable to have participants go into greater detail as to the reasons for their answers. In doing so, one could analyze the many factors involved, including those related to teachers' attitudes, and thereby form a more comprehensive picture of teacher motivation and self-reflection.

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Appendix A

Survey sent to participants using Google Forms on internet

英語 e-Learning における学生の Self-reflection について

Section A. 以下の Self-reflection を読んだと想像して下さい。

教師として、e-Learning を教える motivation に影響はありますか？

*必須

1. 眠たかった。*

- ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が上がる
- ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が下がる
- ☐ ☐ 自分の motivation には影響なし

2. 今日は集中できたので、小テストが満点だった。*

- ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が上がる
- ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が下がる
- ☐ ☐ 自分の motivation には影響なし

3. 今日紹介してもらったニュースのサイトは面白いと思った。*

- ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が上がる
- ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が下がる
- ☐ ☐ 自分の motivation には影響なし

4. リスニングでくっついた音が全然聴き取れない。(その日の授業で連結音を扱ったとして。)*

- ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が上がる
- ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が下がる
- ☐ ☐ 自分の motivation には影響なし

5. シャドーイングをやると、内容の理解が深まった。*

- ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が上がる
- ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が下がる
- ☐ ☐ 自分の motivation には影響なし

6. 指定教材以外は、自分のペースで進めてもいいのですか？*

- ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が上がる
- ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が下がる
- ☐ ☐ 自分の motivation には影響なし

7. 今日の TOEIC テストはリーディングで時間が全然足りなかった。*

- ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が上がる
- ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が下がる
- ☐ ☐ 自分の motivation には影響なし

8. だんだん返り読みをしないようになった気がする。*

- ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が上がる

- ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が下がる
 - ☐ ☐ 自分の motivation には影響なし
9. 語彙が足りなくて、意味がわからないのでつらい。*
- ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が上がる
 - ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が下がる
 - ☐ ☐ 自分の motivation には影響なし
10. 集中できなかった。*
- ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が上がる
 - ☐ ☐ 教師として motivation が下がる
 - ☐ ☐ 自分の motivation には影響なし

Section B. 学生からの self-reflection を読むことは *

- ☐ ☐ 楽しい
- ☐ ☐ 面倒
- ☐ ☐ その他:

送信

Survey sent to participants using Google Forms on internet, translated into English

Students' self-reflection in English e-learning class

Section A. Imagine you read the following self-reflective comments from students in your e-learning class. Would your motivation go up, not be affected, or go down?

1. I was sleepy.

- ☐ My motivation would go up.
- ☐ My motivation would go down.
- ☐ My motivation would not be affected.

2. Today I was able to focus on the task, so I got a perfect score on the quiz.

- ☐ My motivation would go up.
- ☐ My motivation would go down.
- ☐ My motivation would not be affected.

3. I found the news site introduced today interesting.

- ☐ My motivation would go up.
- ☐ My motivation would go down.
- ☐ My motivation would not be affected.

4. I could not listen to the connected sounds (provided you covered the connected sounds in class.)

- ☐ My motivation would go up.
- ☐ My motivation would go down.
- ☐ My motivation would not be affected.

5. Shadowing made me understand the contents of the reading material better.

- ☐ My motivation would go up.
- ☐ My motivation would go down.
- ☐ My motivation would not be affected.

6. Can I do my semester assignments at my own pace?

- ☐ My motivation would go up.
- ☐ My motivation would go down.
- ☐ My motivation would not be affected.

7. I did not have enough time to finish the reading section during the TOEIC today.

- ☐ My motivation would go up.
- ☐ My motivation would go down.
- ☐ My motivation would not be affected.

8. I think I can gradually read without going back to read over again and again.

- ☐ My motivation would go up.
- ☐ My motivation would go down.
- ☐ My motivation would not be affected.

9. I lack knowledge of vocabulary, so I don't understand the meaning, which is hard.

- ☐ My motivation would go up.
- ☐ My motivation would go down.
- ☐ My motivation would not be affected.

10. I could not focus on the class.

- ☐ My motivation would go up.
- ☐ My motivation would go down.
- ☐ My motivation would not be affected.

Section B. Is reading students' self-reflective comments interesting/enjoyable, troublesome, or "other"?

- ☐ Enjoyable
- ☐ Troublesome
- ☐ Other

A Case Study of a Feminist EFL Teacher's Belief and Practice

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Abstract

In this study I explored one Japan-based feminist EFL university teacher's teaching beliefs and practices. I employed a qualitative narrative study approach by triangulating multiple methods such as open-ended questionnaires, interviews, a classroom observation, and e-mail communications. The teacher's narratives were analyzed within the framework of feminist pedagogical theory. The feminist teacher taught about gender roles and stereotypes in a straightforward way, which evidenced a linear relation between her teaching beliefs and practices. The findings also revealed that she valued the application of feminist principles both to the question of how to teach and to that of what to teach. Finally, I briefly discuss implications of feminist teaching in TEFL in Japan.

Introduction

Since the mid-1990s, attention has been paid in the TESOL field to the impact of gender on ESL/EFL learning and teaching (Norton & Pavlenko, 2004). Feminist ESL/EFL pedagogues have asserted that incorporating gender issues into ESL/EFL teaching is important for raising the consciousness of all students toward gender equality and justice (see Benesch, 1998; McMahon, 1997, 2001; Saft & Ohara, 2004; Simon-Maeda, 2004b; Vandrick, 1995, 1998; Yoshihara, 2010, 2011). Along with feminist pedagogues' assertions, I hold that teaching about gender-related topics is both needed and appropriate in ESL/EFL classrooms, in particular, Japanese EFL classrooms. According to the Global Gender Gap Report (2014), Japan ranks 104th out of 142 countries on the gender gap index scale. Although Japan ranks at the top on women's literacy rates and life expectancy, it ranks very low in employment and political representation; at 83rd on women's labor force participation, 112th on legislators, female senior officials and managers, and 126th on women in parliament. Under these circumstances, it is important not only to teach about gender-related topics but also to take into consideration how to incorporate feminist approaches into EFL classes in Japanese universities.

I investigated one American feminist EFL teacher who has been teaching English in Japanese universities for over 15 years. I explore how the feminist EFL teacher practices feminist teaching in relation to her feminist identity and teaching beliefs. Although I explain what feminist pedagogy is in the next section, feminist teaching is not only teaching about gender-related topics but also more diverse teaching practices. Feminist pedagogical theory helps me analyze her feminist teaching practices. The results of this study may contribute to a better understanding of feminist teaching in both TESOL and TEFL in Japan.

Review of the Literature

Characteristics and Methods of Feminist Pedagogy

My analysis of the data draws upon the characteristics and methods of feminist pedagogy provided by numerous feminist pedagogical theorists in women's studies (Briskin & Coulter, 1992; Crabtree, Sapp, & Licona, 2009; Maher & Tetreault, 2001; Parry, 1996; Schniedewind, 1981, 1987; Shrewsbury, 1987; Tisdell, 1998). The term *feminist pedagogy* first appeared in Fisher's "What is feminist pedagogy?" in *The Radical Teacher* in 1981, where she defined feminist pedagogy as "teaching which is anti-sexist, and anti-hierarchical, and which stresses women's experience, both the suffering our oppression has caused us and the strengths we have developed to resist it" (p. 20). The key concepts include voice/voices, safety, empowerment, consciousness-raising, and social change.

Because of the influence of the second-wave feminist movement, feminist pedagogy values the individual voice as a learning component (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986; Briskin & Coulter, 1992; Crabtree et al., 2009; Maher & Tetreault, 2001; Tisdell, 1998). Voice means the awakening and ability of women to speak for themselves, to bring their own questions, and to express their responses, connected to their personal experience. For women coming to voice, feminist educators are concerned about creating a safe environment (Belenky et al, 1986). In a safe environment in the classroom, students discover their own voice, maintain a sense of self, and accomplish certain ends, which leads to empowerment (Shrewsbury, 1987).

As feminist pedagogy is also influenced by Freire's (1996) critical pedagogy, it values critical thinking skills and social actions to create a better society (Shrewsbury, 1987). To stimulate social change, feminist teachers regard highly the building of a

learning community. Mutuality with others in the community extends not only to a community for social change and action but also to solidarity and sisterhood (Shrewsbury, 1987; Weiler, 1991).

To accomplish goals of feminist pedagogy, there are techniques and methods that can be used effectively in feminist classrooms proposed by Schniedewind (1987) and Parry (1996), which include journal writing, jigsaw reading, group work, group projects, discussion, role playing, and contracting for grades. As Crabtree et al. (2009) noted, feminist pedagogy is “not only *what* we teach but also about *how* we teach” (p. 2, italics in original). Even though feminist educators might use gender topics, if they are teaching in traditional ways such as top-down teaching or lecture style teaching, they are missing an important opportunity to help students to come to voice and to feel empowered. At the same time, they may fail to take advantage of a chance to raise awareness and consciousness and to build a community for solidarity and social change.

Feminist Pedagogy in TESOL

Focusing on feminist pedagogy in the field of TESOL, the work of Vandrick (1994, 1995, 1997, 1998, 2000) is the primary source. In her 1994 article, she agreed with the principles of feminist pedagogy such as equality, ethics, and social justice provided by numerous feminist scholars’ works (e.g., Ellsworth, 1992; Luke, 1992; Shrewsbury, 1987; Weiler, 1988, 1992). Vandrick (1994) stated:

Feminist pedagogy is not a specific set of practices; each classroom, each teacher, each group of students, is different. Teaching that has been informed by feminist pedagogy can and does take many forms, as such a consciousness infuses the teaching in many major and minor ways. (p. 84)

Schenke (1996) similarly noted, “feminism, like antiracism, is ...not simply one more social issue in ESL but a way of thinking, a way of teaching, and most importantly, a way of learning” (p. 158). As both of these feminist TESOL scholars noted, feminist pedagogy is not simply teaching about gender-related topics but also teaching a way to organize thinking within a feminist framework.

Vandrick (1995, 1997) made the concrete suggestion that ESL educators should not only use readings and discussions on women’s issues in classes but also teach

according to feminist principles such as using gender-neutral language and expressions, paying equal attention to female students, and introducing extracurricular activities related to women's issues. She noted that feminist ESL teachers avoid gender stereotyping, false generics such as "he," and gendered job titles from a perspective of gender equality. She also urged feminist ESL educators to call on female students as often as male students because one feminist practice is to give women students more voice. Furthermore, she advised that feminist teachers can provide students with information about women's studies programs, lectures, and films on and off campus about women's issues or women's lives to raise feminist awareness and consciousness and work for social change. Thus, even if feminist ESL teachers do not teach about gender topics specifically, they can still use many forms of feminist teaching in major and minor ways to raise consciousness about gender equality and justice.

There are some important empirical studies that looked at the use of women's issues as a topic in ESL courses in the United States. Benesch (1998) reported on a university ESL course in which she was a teacher-researcher and taught about anorexia. Through her own teaching practice, she found that some female students looked deeply at the causes of anorexia and examined anorexia as being related to cultural constructions of femininity. This provided evidence that students developed critical thinking through learning about women's issues. Frye (1999) and Rivera (1999) also explored ESL classes for working-class Latina women in a community education setting in the United States. Both researchers used feminist pedagogical approaches, including valuing women's personal lives, creating a safe environment, raising gender consciousness, and promoting changes in immigrant women's lives. Throughout her class, Frye found that the women students examined their lives as Latina women, raised gender awareness, and developed solidarity. For example, her students offered one another rides to class, shared childcare, and brought food to class. Similarly, in Rivera's study, her Latina women students benefitted from a heightened consciousness about gender which led them to social actions such as fund-raising to help the ESL program survive.

Case studies in EFL also offer an array of approaches to feminist language education in Japan. Casanave and Yamashiro (1996) edited *Gender Issues in Language Education*, which is a collection of articles on gender issues and topics in foreign language education in Japan, including critical thinking and pedagogy, feminist teaching,

feminist analysis in research, and authored narratives. In this collection, one interesting article that looked at a feminist teacher's practices was written by Beebe (1996). She believed that language itself is biased and political and that sexist language is an appropriate topic to import into language classrooms to raise students' awareness of sexist features of English. By mentioning that teachers do not have to search for an interesting gender topic to bring into language classrooms, she presented one lesson to raise awareness of sexist language and discourse with a worksheet on avoiding sexist language because language itself is interesting. She discovered that this lesson taught students about gender-neutral language and expressions while making teacher authority less salient. Additionally, the lesson could contribute to the building of a community of learners in the classroom by sharing knowledge and finding sexist language and discourse through the collaboration of students and teacher.

Simon-Maeda (2004b) as a teacher-researcher taught a feminist course in a women's junior college in Japan. The course introduced a variety of topics: gender and language, sexism in textbooks, the media, and fairy tales, sexual harassment, and domestic violence. Throughout the course, she found the course to be effective in helping her junior college students develop awareness of gender inequality in linguistic, cultural, and social contexts. Similarly, Saft and Ohara (2004) found that students developed critical consciousness about gender issues in Japanese society by conducting a study of teaching about gender topics in a Japanese university. As a teacher-researcher I also conducted a study on teaching about domestic violence in my two EFL college classrooms by using theme-based language instruction (Yoshihara, 2010). I found that by learning about the gender topic (domestic violence) students did not simply raise awareness of gender (in)equality but also corrected their misconceptions and stereotypes toward domestic violence, gained new knowledge about the causes of domestic violence, and finally attempted to express their own opinions to solve the problem.

These empirical studies focused on teaching about gender-related issues in the ESL/EFL classroom, raising gender awareness and consciousness, and empowering students. However, little attention has been given to understanding how an EFL university teacher became a feminist, what teaching beliefs the teacher has, and how the teacher practiced feminist teaching according to her own feminist identity and beliefs. The holistic exploration of a feminist EFL teacher leads to a deep understanding of

feminist teaching practices.

Research Method and Participant

Data Collection

For my research, I employed narrative inquiry as a methodological tool. Narrative inquiry has been used to highlight feminist teachers' beliefs and practices (e.g., Bloom, 1998; Maher & Tetreault, 2001; Lather, 1991; Ropers-Huilman, 1998) and as a strategy for investigating ESL/EFL teachers' professional identities, beliefs, and practices (e.g., Casanave & Schecter, 1997; Morgan, 2004; Nagatomo, 2012; Simon-Maeda, 2004a; Tsui, 2007). My data, which was collected between 2011 and 2013, includes an open-ended survey, interviews, a classroom observation, course materials, and exchanges of e-mail communication. It also includes my own field notes and research journals.

I conducted three person-to-person interviews and Skype interviews totaling 2 hours and 32 minutes audiotaped from Sarah (pseudonym) by the researcher (me), three e-mail exchanges, and one classroom observation (90 minutes). Follow-up interviews were conducted by e-mails and Skype. Even though I did not record our conversations, we had several hours of private conversations before the interviews, after classroom observation, and over lunches.

Data Analysis

I transcribed the recorded interview data but did not transcribe the classroom observation data because they were used in conjunction with the interviews and the course materials to substantiate my findings and as a reference point for subsequent interviews. To find thematic elements (categories) across the case, I followed Riessman's (2008) thematic analysis: familiarization with data, identifying common thematic elements, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing the final report. Riessman did not focus on thematic coding segments but on the importance of sequence and detail for interpretive purposes. By following her thematic analysis, I established conceptual categories that became the thematic strands, with special attention to principles of feminist pedagogy.

The Research Participant

The participants in the previous study in Yoshihara (2014) were nine feminist language teachers who had been teaching EFL for roughly 6-27 years in Japanese universities (three white American women, one white American man, one British woman, three Japanese women, and one Japan-born Korean woman). For this article I singled out Sarah (pseudonym) because her practices were outstanding and provided a clear idea about what feminist teaching is. Furthermore, the focus of one individual is appropriate for narrative research and leads to in-depth analysis and understanding of individual lives, though additional cases would be helpful in developing the notion of feminist pedagogy here (Atkinson & Sohn, 2013; McAlpine, Amundsen, & Turner, 2013).

Sarah was a 53-year-old American EFL teacher in Japan when I conducted this study. She had worked full-time in a university for several years. She was born and grew up in California, the United States. She was raised by a single mother who worked all her life and a grandmother whom she described as a strong woman. She was influenced by both her mother and grandmother. Her mother was a role model in terms of a woman who worked all her life and raised a child as a single mother. She went to a university in California and majored in Spanish and Linguistics. She worked at a company for five years in California after graduation. However, she wanted to do something different. Her independence and curiosity led her beyond the United States. She found a teaching job in Japan and taught English in an English conversation school for two years. Although she liked Japan, she wanted to see more of the world. Therefore, she moved to Spain and taught English at a conversation school for another eight years. She returned to Japan and got a job of teaching in an English conversation school in Japan. She started a master's program in the United States through a computer-based program online in TESOL while she was in Japan, because she wanted to get a better job such as teaching English at the university level. After she got her master's degree, she has worked part-time and full-time at the university level in Japan.

Sarah unquestionably identified herself as a feminist. When I asked her how she became a feminist, she mentioned the 1970s, when she was growing up in the United States. She was influenced by women's books and music in the 1970s. One book she remembered most was *When God Was a Woman* written by Merlin Stone. She said that although the book was related to anthropology, it made her think of the position of

women in religion and history around the world. She also mentioned that women's music in the late 1970s in the United States influenced her developing feminist identity very much. Because of the women's movement in the 1960s, women's music bloomed in the 1970s. She really liked the songs sung by Cris Williamson and Holly Near who were American feminist singer-songwriters and pioneers as visible lesbian political activists in the 1970s, because their songs encouraged and praised women. During her college life in the late 1970s, although she did not have a lot of interaction with feminists in terms of the involvement of women's movement, she went to various meetings and events, had a lot of liberal women friends and gay friends, and often visited a women's bookstore. Through these interactions, she gradually developed a feminist consciousness.

Findings

In this section, I first introduce her teaching beliefs regarding her feminist identity as well as other aspects of her teaching philosophy. I then focus specifically on her classroom practice that I observed.

Sarah's Teaching Beliefs: Teaching for Critical Thinking

In her teaching beliefs, Sarah highlighted her efforts at developing the students' critical thinking skills and building a safe environment, as well as teaching about gender-related topics. In an interview, she explained,

I want them to understand even just a little bit that there are other worlds outside and other worlds are these social issues that they are a part of even though they've never considered it before. (...) So, like raising awareness of what we have, being grateful for that, don't take it for *atarimae* (granted). But then maybe making a step further, taking the step further and doing something about it. That's called activism. (Interview, 2012/03/26)

Sarah wanted her students to question "*atarimae*" (the taken-for-granted matters) and commit to social actions if possible. Specifically, she encouraged students to participate in extracurricular activities. She introduced AIDS day walks, women's day on March 8th, nuclear protests, and hunger fast strikes to her students. She also organized concerts

with her students for charity and collected pencils and notebooks to send to an orphanage in Guatemala.

Sarah was also concerned about creating a safe learning environment. She thought that a safe environment in the classroom provides students with an opportunity to express their opinions about sensitive, difficult, and controversial gender-related topics in lessons in a non-threatening way, which she explained as follows:

I mean hopefully it's a safer environment, which is another thing to create a classroom to talk about these issues [gender and other sociopolitical issues]. A lot of times, especially university students can't talk about these things. How many times have I read on the questionnaires at the end of the semester? "Thank you. I never had a place to talk about these things." Even just creating that safe environment, I think it's meaningful, right? (Interview, 2012/03/26)

She believed that a safe environment would make students less tense and nervous when she introduced difficult and controversial gender topics in her classroom. Such safety seemed to help her students actively engage in classroom activities and develop critical thinking skills. For her, developing students' critical thinking skills and creating a safe environment in the classroom are inseparable in the way she practices feminist teaching.

Reflecting Teaching Beliefs in Classroom Practices

Sarah invited me to her English conversation class, which was an elective course for students majoring in international cultural studies in her university (Classroom observation, 2012/06/04). There were 21 second-year students (four male, 17 female) in the classroom. The class met once a week for 90 minutes for fifteen weeks during the first semester. In this course, Sarah used materials that she created and made her own syllabus. The lesson that I observed was about gender roles and images.

In the first ten minutes, Sarah gave a small quiz about a homework assignment that required students to watch one video clip on TED.com, "Hanna Rosin: New data on the rise of women,"¹ which was related to the day's lesson (gender roles and images).

¹ Hanna Rosin is an author of the book, *The End of Men*. In 2010, Rosin gave a TED talk on the emergence of women as a powerful force of the American workplace by showing women actually surpassing men in several important measures.

After that, she started to talk about the story of “Momoko” in English. As Momotaro was a famous Japanese children’s story, she changed the gender of the main character from a boy (Momotaro) to a girl (Momoko) and told the revised story to the students. Then, she asked students to retell the story in English in pairs. She drew attention to pronouns *he/she*, *his/her*, *him/her* to students. Students started to retell the story in English while switching the gender of the main character and spent about ten minutes doing this activity in pairs. Then, she asked students in English how they felt about this activity and if they had had any difficulty in retelling the story because of the gender switch. As there was no response from students, she asked students to talk about this in English in pairs. She presented some students’ comments such as “It felt strange” and “It was confusing” and told her students how she felt when she retold the story herself.

She then moved on to the main part of the lesson. She first showed a few minutes of a photoshop video clip in which a woman had her make-up and her hair done and became the sexy icon of a poster. She explained the last phrase “No wonder our perception of beauty is distorted” during the video by supplying easier English terms such as “no surprise,” “our idea,” and “is twisted” to help students understand the meaning of the sentence. Then, she had students make five-person groups and do activities from a discussion sheet for gender that she made (Appendix). In the discussion sheet, each student chose one of the sub-topics that she provided such as (a) what are gender roles?, (b) gender and identity, (c) gender and economics, (d) trafficking, (e) photoshop beauty, and (f) gender roles in other cultures. Then each student thought of the point he or she wanted to make about the sub-topic. Each also had to think of two reasons why he or she chose the sub-topic. Then, she had students discuss this in English in groups. In this group work, students shared the sub-topic that they had chosen, the point that they wanted to make, and the reason why they had chosen the sub-topic. She gave students 25 minutes to do this group work. During the group work, she joined some of the groups in turn and made a few comments to facilitate discussion.

Following this, she stopped the group work and showed another short video clip about the image of beauty. Then, she gave a short lecture about sex, gender, sexuality, and a variety of family styles in English by using Power Point text slides for 10 minutes. After that, she had an open discussion with all of the students for the rest of the class time. Students voluntarily made a big circle for discussion and Sarah joined the circle.

She encouraged students to make any kinds of comments about gender roles and the lesson that she had taught. There was quite a long silence until students voluntarily spoke up. To encourage students to express their opinions in classroom discussion in English, she stepped back and did not call on students. For the same reason she did not tell her personal opinions, either. Students gradually made comments about gender roles and expressed their childhood experiences in relation to gender roles. During class discussion, she sometimes made comments, asked questions, and facilitated the discussion. In the last few minutes, she summarized the class.

During class time, she did not use Japanese at all, even though she is highly competent in the Japanese language. She used only English in the classroom; however, she did not force her students to use only English. The students voluntarily used English in her class. In her classroom practice, she used a lot of pair and group work. After the classroom observation, I asked her why she used pair and group work a lot in her classroom. She told me that she used to use a teacher's lecture, but she realized that a teacher's lecture did not promote student awareness about the issues nor did it develop critical thinking among students (Personal communication, 2012/06/04). She found that discussion and group work helped students to raise their own awareness of the issues and to develop critical thinking through her teaching experiences. For this, she carefully prepared a discussion sheet about the topic that she taught.

I also asked her how she felt about the rather lengthy silence at the beginning of the class discussion. She said that as students needed time to organize what they wanted to say and express their opinions in English, teachers needed patience (Personal communication, 2012/06/04). She continued to say that when students felt comfortable or safe to speak up, they started to express themselves in the classroom (Personal communication, 2012/06/04).

To summarize her classroom practice, she tried to raise students' interests about gender-related issues and develop questions about gender roles and stereotypes, which can develop students' critical thinking. She also promoted students' engagement in classroom activities and self-expression. To do so, she used pair and group work and class discussion. She believed that whether students actively engaged in classroom activities including group work and class discussion depended on how safe students felt in the classroom. Therefore, she valued a safe environment in the classroom to develop students' critical thinking skills.

Discussion

To summarize, Sarah's feminist teaching, as I have portrayed it, features at least three important elements: (1) teaching about gender topics; (2) teaching through non-traditional methods and approaches; (3) connecting learning with activism.

Over two decades ago, Vandrick (1994, 1995) asserted that readings and discussions on gender issues in ESL classes were important. Sarah believed that teaching about gender topics in EFL classes is important, so she taught about gender roles and stereotypes in a straightforward way in her class. In particular, teaching about gender topics in Japanese university EFL classes, although still rare, is meaningful. As I mentioned earlier, the Global Gender Gap Report (2014) showed that Japan ranks 104th out of 142 countries on the gender gap index scale. It ranks very low on women's labor force participation, female senior officials and managers, and women's participation rate in parliament. Under these circumstances, a young generation of women in Japan can have more opportunities to learn about gender topics and be encouraged to take their place in society. It is also beneficial for male students to learn about gender-related issues and learn English according to feminist principles because they might understand male privilege and their own gender-biased behaviors. Therefore, teaching about gender issues in Japanese university EFL classrooms is very beneficial and meaningful for both female and male students.

Second, as well as the content of what educators in Japan teach, the process by which educators teach must be considered in feminist pedagogy (Parry, 1996; Schenke, 1996; Vandrick, 1994). Feminist teaching aims to help students discover their own voice, feel empowered, raise awareness and consciousness, and build a community for solidarity and social change. As Sarah mentioned, awareness is not stimulated by teachers' lectures but emerges from interactions among students and interactions between teacher and student. In Japanese university EFL classrooms, grammar translation methods, examination-oriented teaching methods, and teacher-fronted teaching approaches are still widely practiced (Kuno, 2007). To oppose these traditional methods and approaches, feminist EFL university teachers in Japan could consider introducing journal writing (Fisher, 1981; Parry, 1996), problem-posing teaching (Freire, 1996; Parry, 1996; Shor, 1992), and group work (Parry, 1996; Schniedewind, 1987) according to feminist principles.

Third, Sarah valued the importance of social actions as well as critical thinking

skills and encouraged her students to engage in social actions outside the classroom. Like Dewey's progressive educational theory, feminist educators try to connect classroom activities to students' lives outside the classroom. Schniedewind (1987) suggested that feminist educators encourage students to attend workshops, conferences, and events supported by feminist organizations whether or not they are held on campus. Engaging in these activities can be a good opportunity for students to learn skills for building feminist networks and forming support systems (Schniedewind, 1987; Rose, 2009). It can also provide students the opportunity to develop feminist consciousness and engage in personal and social change as well as feminist research and praxis (Rose, 2009; Webb, Allen, & Walker, 2002). Similarly, Vandrick (1995) suggested that feminist ESL teachers can encourage students to attend gender-related events on and off campus such as conferences, lectures, films, and women's group meetings. She also suggested that teachers can tell students about women's studies programs or classes on campus and about specific women professors who are experts in their fields.

Feminist pedagogy in EFL teaching in Japan concerns both the issue of how to teach as well as that of what to teach. It is difficult (indeed, almost impossible) to offer an ideal set of feminist EFL practices because each teacher, each student, and each classroom is different. However, feminist EFL teachers must critique traditional teaching methods and approaches and seek new and innovative teaching mechanisms to raise students' awareness of gender equality and justice.

Implications for TESOL Research and Practice

It is important to gather feminist ESL/EFL teachers' teaching practices and examine their feminist teaching to reconfirm and reframe the concept of feminist pedagogy in a new light. The sampling of narratives offered by Sarah illustrates one aspect of feminist pedagogy in TESOL. Researchers ought to consider delving into the teaching lives of feminist ESL/EFL teachers in different countries and institutions. Each case study will go beyond the particular case and contribute to the collective and local knowledge of feminist pedagogy in the TESOL field. I look forward to reports of feminist pedagogy in variety of ESL/EFL settings so that we can better understand the ESL/EFL classroom as a site of gender politics.

My suggestion for ESL/EFL teachers is to choose gender-related topics that they feel comfortable with and competent to teach. They do not need to use a difficult and

challenging gender topic if they feel unconfident to teach about the topic. Even if teachers do not teach about gender topics in a straightforward way, there are several ways to incorporate feminist perspectives into the lesson. As Sarah practiced, ESL/EFL teachers can bring in women's films, talks, and video clips that are related to the lesson. To get useful information and materials for teaching about gender-related topics in EFL classes, I also suggest that ESL/EFL teachers join study groups and associations such as IGALA (International Gender and Language Association), GALE (Gender Awareness in Language Education), REN (Rainbow Educators' Network, and WELL (Women Educators and Language Learners). As Sarah pointed out in an interview, she got useful information and materials for teaching about gender-related topics in EFL classes from such groups.

Feminist teaching falls under the umbrella of Dewey's progressive teaching, Freire's critical pedagogy, global education, human rights education, and humane education. However, what distinguishes feminist teaching and these other teachings is whether an educator has feminist ideas and teaches with conscious adoption of feminist ideals. Feminist teaching has an anti-sexist, anti-oppressive, anti-racist, and anti-heterocentric view and is one approach to be considered in both TESOL and EFL teaching in Japan.

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Sarah's Handout

A comparative study of Non-native English speaking teachers' and learners' beliefs about the "ALL ENGLISH" class

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Abstract

This study will explore teachers' (NNEST: Non-native English speaking teachers) beliefs and university students' beliefs about using only the target language (TL) in the classroom. There is a Japanese-English word (an English word coined in Japan), namely "ALL ENGLISH," which does not mean TL-use only in Japanese EFL context. This study focuses on that point and conducted a quantitative and qualitative research originally, to identify any differences between the teachers' beliefs and learners' beliefs about only using the TL in the classroom. In this paper, the results of the quantitative section are reported. As participants, 54 teachers at universities and 234 university students responded to a five-point Likert-scale questionnaire that added six more questions to the original BALLI: Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (Horwitz, 1985). The results of the descriptive analysis and exploratory factor analysis showed 1) the majority of the learners' had positive attitudes toward the TL use only in class, and 2) the teachers and students had different expectations about TL use because of the teachers' strong beliefs about L1 use.

Keywords: belief, NNEST, university students, BALLI, TL use only

1. Introduction

English Teachers have many different sets of beliefs about language teaching that may strongly affect learners' beliefs. Despite the importance of reflecting on teachers' beliefs and their application in the classroom, few studies have been conducted, especially in the EFL environment (Borg, 2003). This is because there are various definitions of beliefs, which make it difficult to research, and there are several related factors as well. However, considering the present situation in Japanese English education, many schools including high schools and even junior high schools are fielding requests from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT, 2009) to conduct English classes in English. We should pay attention to the beliefs about the psychological aspects related to learners' motivation, behavior, and strategies. There are many methods of teaching English in the EFL classroom. Conducting classes using either English only or L1 use depends on the teachers' decision, which is based on their beliefs. Although many strategies have been developed and improved for learners in the research literature, the final scaffolding for the students is provided by the teachers. Therefore, comparing the teachers' and learners' beliefs about TL use only in the class is essential for classroom practice, although individual teachers have their own views based on their experiences. This research examines how different they are and what other factors of learning English are related to them. This study is a comparative study and aims to contribute to the literature on teacher and learner beliefs.

2. Literature Review

The term “beliefs” is ambiguous, therefore, defining beliefs is always a controversial issue because of the lack of common ideas among researchers. Several terms have been used to refer to beliefs. Pajares (1992), a cognitive psychologist, called beliefs a “messy” construct and explained that “beliefs are seldom clearly defined in studies or used explicitly as a conceptual tool, but the chosen and perhaps artificial distinction between belief and knowledge is common to most definitions: Belief is based on evaluation and judgment; knowledge is based on objective fact” (p. 313).

In the educational field, overall, the definition of general beliefs itself is complex; however, studies about beliefs have been conducted. Since it is difficult to reach a consensus on the definition of beliefs, researchers should focus on a specific belief related to their topic, and they should indicate this in their research. This study follows this idea and takes the definition from Pajares (1992) about belief as the working definition in this paper.

In the field of second language acquisition, studies about beliefs have gradually increased since the 1990s, and most of these studies appeared after 1996 (Borg, 2003). Borg (2006) examined over 180 studies on teacher beliefs published up to 2006 in a wide range of first language (L1), second language (L2), and foreign language (FL) contexts. He also outlined chronologically the emergence of this tradition of inquiry and the key perspectives, concepts, and findings it has contributed to the study of teaching (p. 5). In his study, he suggested that it is necessary for us to understand what teachers believe, what they know, and their attitudes and feelings because beneath the behavior there are beliefs, knowledge, and related constructs that influence what teachers do

There has been a variety of studies about beliefs. McDonough (2002) indicated in his study that teachers have discrepancies in terms of their aptitude for teaching and learning for themselves. In this study, the EFL teachers learning another language preferred the orthodoxies in methodology as learners, although they had different views about conducting classes as teachers. Loewen et al. (2009) examined beliefs about grammar instruction and error correction using a mixed-methods approach and showed disagreement between teachers’ beliefs and learners’ beliefs. Levine (2003) showed that TL use and learners’ anxieties did not show a correlation rate in his study. Many teachers hold an anti-TL use only opinion in the classroom, since they think teaching with a TL-use only approach may increase learners’ anxieties.

Since around the nineteenth century, the tendency of avoiding L1 use for language teaching had spread among researchers (Krashen, 1982; Hawkins, 1987). Cook (2001) showed, two groups emerged: the “ban the L1 from the classroom” group and the “minimize the L1 in the classroom” group. During this period, the L2 is seen as positive, and the L1 is negative and seen as not something to be utilized in teaching but to be set aside (Cook, 2001, p. 404). Starting in the beginning of 1990s, research on using L1 in the classroom gradually increased. Macaro (1997) described how the L1 could be used more positively in the classroom through a questionnaire-based study with language teachers and learners. Additionally, Duff and Polio (1990) explored university classrooms. They examined the ratio of L1 use by teachers in FL classrooms, the factors related to the use of L1 and the L2, and teachers’ and students’ perceptions and attitudes regarding the use of L1 in the FL classroom at six universities in the U.S. The results showed the ratio of L1 use and L2 use was on average around seventy percent, and remarkably, the use of L2 by teachers in the class varied from ten percent to a hundred percent. They indicated that the role of teachers’ English proficiency was a factor that influenced the amount of L2 use in classes. Now that we know that L1 use improves efficacy, learning, naturalness, and external relevance (Macaro, 1997; Franklin, 1990; Polio and Duff 1994), the functions of using the L1 can be contrasting L1

and L2 forms, providing metalinguistic cues, among others. Finally, Cook (2001) argues that it is time to open a door that has been firmly shut in language teaching for over a hundred years, namely the systematic use of L1 in the classroom. This is a global trend regarding the L1 use in the classroom in SLA field, which seemed to be opposite from Japanese situation.

In terms of the research in Japanese EFL environment, although there are few studies, it is also a controversial issue about using only the TL in English classroom. (Carson & Kashihara, 2012; Ford, 2009; Meyer, 2008; Ozaki, 2011). According to this research, even in Japan, there seemed to be two conflicting views between non-native English speaking teachers (NNEST) and native-speaking English teachers (NEST). NNESTs are likely to oppose the L2 use only approach in the class while NEST are supportive. This tendency should be examined in more detail in the Japanese socio-cultural context such as the EFL environment. Moreover, this study explores the learners' beliefs and expectations towards using only the TL in class compared with the teachers' beliefs.

3. Methodology

3.1 Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to focus on the meaning of the Japanese-English phrase, "ALL ENGLISH" in the Japanese socio-cultural context and shed light on the teachers' and learners' beliefs about the TL use only in the class. This present study assiduously explored the qualitative and quantitative data in order to be one of the contributions on beliefs research in EFL environment. . The following research questions were posed and explored in this paper:

- 1) What type of beliefs do learners and teachers have regarding only using the TL (English) in the class?
- 2) What differences in expectations or discrepancies among learners and teachers about TL use only in the class are there, if any?

3.2 Participants

The participants for this study include teachers and university students. The total number of teachers was 54 (male: 15, female: 39) and that of university students was 234 (male: 76, female: 157, not indicated: 1).

The teachers are non-native English speaking teachers (NNEST) working at universities either full time or part time. These teachers take charge of various class subjects not only the specialist subjects but also the language subjects (Table 1). They were mostly experienced teachers who have teaching experience at universities of more than five years. Table 2 shows the details of the teachers' experiences.

Table 1. Teachers' class subjects

Subjects	Number of people	Subjects	Number of people
Reading	18	Practical English	17
Writing	6	General English	19
Listening	4	Interpretation/ Translation course	3
Speaking	2	Methods in Teaching English	4
Grammar	7	Others (linguistic etc.)	4
Qualification course (TOEIC, TOEFL, EIKEN)	32	*Total number is more than 54 due to the allowance multiple answers.	

Table 2. Teachers' teaching experience

Teaching experience	Number of people
less than 1 year	3 (5.6%)
Between 1 and 3 years	5 (9.3%)
Between 3 and 5 years	2 (3.7%)
Between 5 and 10 years	11 (20.4%)
more than 10 years	32 (59.3%)
No response	1 (1.9%)

***N* = 54**

The university students included freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior students at a university of foreign studies, although the departments were not only English-related departments but also other foreign language departments. They were chosen randomly in the same university. Now that they were the students at a university of foreign studies, they had experienced taking an English only class by either NESTs or NNESTs since they entered the university. In order to show their English proficiency level, their TOEIC scores are shown in Table 3. A fifth of the participants had never taken the TOEIC or other qualification tests.

Table 3. University students' English qualification

TOEIC score	Number of students
< 300 points	9 (3.8%)
300-399	37 (15.8%)
400-499	76 (32.5%)
500-599	27 (11.5%)
600-699	23 (9.8%)
700-799	8 (3.4%)
800 points ≤	5 (2.1%)
Never taken	49 (20.9%)

N* = 234*3.3 Instruments**

Horwitz (1985, 1987) developed the questionnaire BALLI (Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory), consisting of 34 question items, for examining learners' beliefs. This comparative study added six more questions to the original BALLI, which were related with the TL use only in the class and the understanding of the Japanese-English word "ALL ENGLISH" in the class. The questionnaire in this study consists of 40 question items in total. The participants were given this slightly adapted BALLI after class, and the data were collected on the spot. They responded using a five-point Likert-scale, ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). They also provided some background information about themselves.

The original BALLI was designed to survey learners' beliefs in five categories. However, the questionnaire for this study contained six categories: **the difficulty of language learning** (items 3, 4, 7, 16, 28, 33); **foreign language aptitude** (items 1, 2, 11, 17, 26, 34, 37, 38, 39); **the nature of language learning** (items 5, 9, 13, 19, 23, 29, 31); **strategies of communication and learning** (items 8, 10, 14, 15, 20, 21, 22, 25); **learner motivations and expectations** (items 27, 32, 35, 36); and **additional questions related to the "ALL ENGLISH" class** (items 6, 12, 18, 24, 30, 40). Since the purpose of this research was exploring the teachers' and learners' beliefs about TL use only in the class, the researcher added these questions in order to speculate the relations with other categories.

Additional questions by the researcher were as follows:

No. 6: It is important for learning to be conducted with TL use only in the class.

No. 12: Teachers should use TL in the class as much as they can.

No. 18: Learners should use TL in the class as much as they can.

No. 24: Using L1 in the class (Japanese) means depriving the learners of opportunities to use TL.

No. 30: The Japanese-English word "ALL ENGLISH" classes means 100% TL use in the class.

No. 40: While taking the "ALL ENGLISH" class, it is difficult to understand the contents of the lesson.

Although the original BALLI was written in English, the questionnaire for this study was written in Japanese since the participants were all Japanese students. The researcher created the additional questions in Japanese and the other questions were translated from English into Japanese. (Appendix 1) The translation was checked in the pilot study to secure the validity.

3.4 Procedure

The questionnaire originally consisted of three parts: (a) background information, (b) 40 Likert-scale items (quantitative section), and (C) open responses about the “ALL ENGLISH” class (qualitative section).

During the fall semester in 2013, the researchers collected the learners’ and teachers’ data by distributing the questionnaires. Most of the teachers’ data were collected by mail or e-mail, except a few, and all of the responses were valid ($N = 54$). Regarding the university students, they took advantage of the break time after class to fill out the questionnaires, and since their responses were collected on the spot, all questionnaires were valid ($N = 234$). To be sure, there were some invalid answers for both groups of participants such as skipped questions or double-marked answers. In that case, the researcher invalidated them for each question but not for all answers. Therefore, the number of responses for each question depends on the number of valid answers.

The quantitative data were analyzed statistically by means of the SPSS program including descriptive analysis, Spearman’s rank correlation coefficient, and factor analysis. Results for research on beliefs are a nonparametric measure of statistical dependence between two variables; thus, the Spearman’s rank correlation coefficient was chosen in this study. An exploratory factor analysis was utilized to identify the underlying factors for the learners’ and teachers’ beliefs. The Cronbach alpha indicated the data reliability for both learners and teachers was .74 (learners) and .71 (teachers), respectively. These results were valid in terms of internal consistency and sufficient instrument reliability for conducting a factor analysis because they were above the .07 level.

4. Results and Discussions

4.1 Descriptive Analysis

Both Figures 1 and 2 show the mean score and *SD* for the teachers and learners in the distribution for the question items, respectively. The levels ranged from 2.0 to -2.0, from strongly agree to strongly disagree, in this questionnaire. Thus, level zero means neutral in this figure. In addition, another style of descriptive analysis that shows the *Mean* and *SD* for each additional question regarding the TL use only in the class is presented as follows:

Table 4. Descriptive analysis for teachers

Item	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
No.6	-.39	.899
No.12	.74	.836
No.18	1.28	.656
No.24	-.46	.719
No.30	.31	1.146
No.40	.24	.910

Table 5. Descriptive analysis for students

Item	Mean	SD
No.6	.24	.910
No.12	1.20	.737
No.18	1.35	.614
No.24	.26	.950
No.30	1.00	.874
No.40	.15	.910

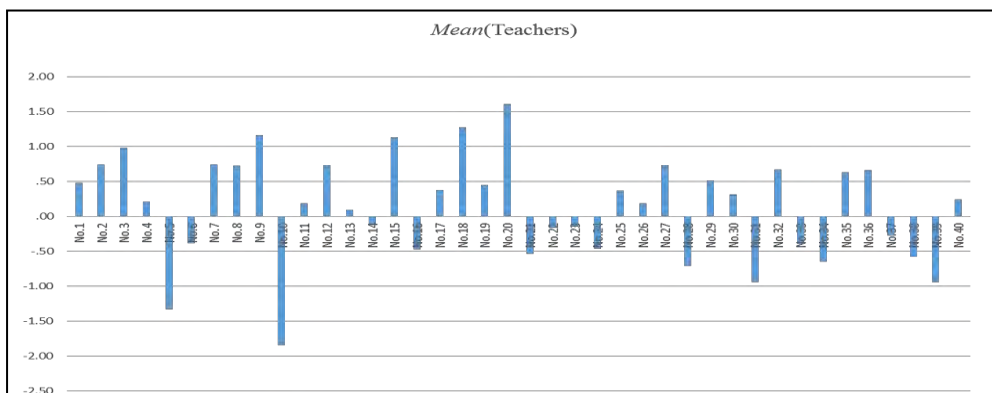


Figure 1. Teachers' means for each item
 *2=strongly agree, -2=strongly disagree.

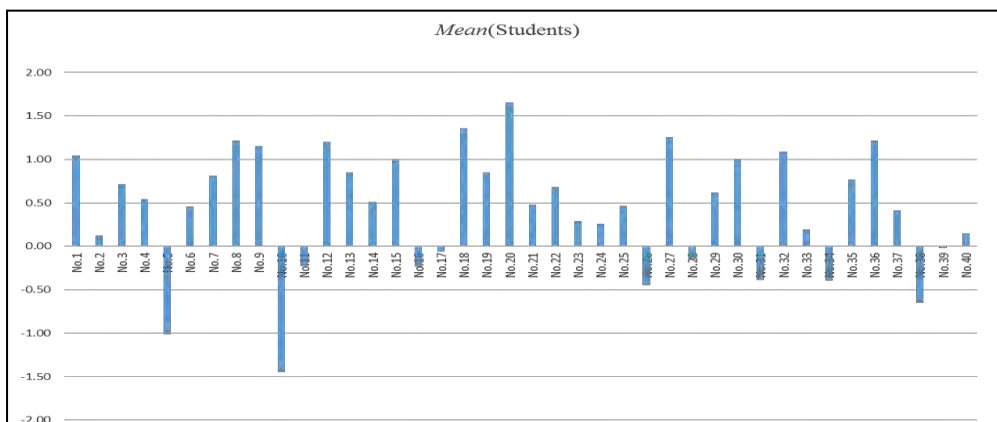


Figure 2. Students' means for each item
 *2 = strongly agree, -2 = strongly disagree.

Comparing the above figures, there are ten items that show the opposite tendency between teachers and learners. They are:

No.6: *It is important for students in the classroom to be taught using only the target language.*

No.11: *It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.*

- No.17: *I have a foreign language aptitude.*
 No.21: *I feel self-conscious speaking a foreign language in front of other people.*
 No.22: *If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be hard to get rid of them later on.*
 No.23: *Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning many grammar rules.*
No.24: *L1 use in the classroom means depriving the students of opportunities for target language use.*
 No.26: *Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.*
 No.33: *It is easier to read and write this language than to speak and understand it.*
 No.37: *People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.*

Of these items, question No. 6 and 24 were “ALL ENGLISH” related items that were added by the researcher for this study. These teachers had negative perceptions about both No. 6 and No. 24; in contrast, the learners answered these questions positively. Interestingly, the university students in this study prefer to use TL or have it used with them more than their teachers thought. Furthermore, while the learners’ data showed a *Mean* of .26, a *SD* of .95, and a *Variance* of .90 concerning item No. 24 (*L1 use in the classroom means depriving the students of opportunities for target language use.*), the teachers’ respective data showed a *Mean* of .46, an *SD* of .72, and a *Variance* of .52. This result may be interpreted to mean that the teachers of these participants have stronger beliefs than the university students do regarding L1 use in the class because of the narrower variance range and negative mean score.

There were also different tendencies for the other eight items between the teachers and learners. The mismatches in beliefs appeared to be caused by various reasons which should be reported in the following qualitative survey. As one of the hints for those reasons, Polat (2009) suggested that non-native EFL teachers (like the participants in this study) tended to avoid CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) and content- or task-based instructional practices, instead embracing grammar-based teaching because of performance anxiety and lack of confidence in their L2 proficiency (p.238). This might explain the unmotivated attitude toward TL use only in the class practices in this study as well, because these teachers were also NNEST (non-native English-speaking teachers). Indeed, most of the teachers have their own explanations why they use L1 in the class. However, considering that NNESTs are also TL learners, we must understand this point from the NNEST’s perspectives in an EFL environment. This should be a different situation, even though the same “ALL ENGLISH” classes are taught by NESTs (native English-speaking teachers) in Japan.

Although it was not an opposite tendency, regarding the question No.12 which asked about teachers’ TL use in the class, there seemed to be certain difference between teachers’ and learners’ beliefs. These teachers showed the lower motivation for their own TL use compared with the learner’ TL use. This point also should be specially mentioned as the feature of these teachers’ beliefs.

4.2 Factor Analysis

An exploratory factor analysis was conducted in order to identify the underlying factors and compare them with the teachers’ and learners’ beliefs. Initially, all 40 items were subjected to a principal components analysis with Promax with Kaiser Normalization, which converged in three iterations. The factor extraction method was unweighted least-squares. There were two factors extracted for teachers’ beliefs with eigenvalues greater than 1, accounting for 79.1% of the variance. Table 6 displays the factor loadings for the two factors.

Table 6. Factor loadings for teachers' beliefs

	Factor Loading Matrix	
	Factor	
	1(Strategies)	2(Aptitude)
No. 14	. 747	-. 165
No. 31	. 698	. 123
No. 23	. 644	. 053
No. 25	. 426	. 041
No. 26	-. 079	. 716
No. 34	. 068	. 600
No. 35	. 031	. 521

Extraction: Unweighted Least Squares Method.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

For this factor analysis, regarding the teachers' beliefs, factor 1 was labeled as the **strategies for foreign language learning** by the researcher. Originally, item No. 14 (*If I heard someone speaking the language I am trying to learn, I would go up to them so that I could practice speaking the language*) and No. 25 (*It is important to practice in the language laboratory*) belonged to the category of **strategies of communication and learning** in BALLI. The other two items, No. 23 (*Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning many grammar rules*) and No. 31 (*Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from Japanese*), belonged to the category of **the nature of language learning**. Since these four items ultimately refer to the strategy for language learning, the strategy of how we should learn foreign languages reflected these teachers' beliefs. Teachers think a lot about language learning strategies when they formulate their beliefs.

The other factor was labeled **foreign language aptitude**, which contains item No. 26 (*Women are better than men at learning foreign languages*), No. 34 (*People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages*), and No. 35 (*Japanese think that it is important to speak a foreign language*). Although item No. 35 belongs to the **learner motivation and expectations** category in the original BALLI, the content of the question might be categorized in the **foreign language aptitude** category, similar to the other two items.

Among these items, no item was related with the "ALL ENGLISH" class. Thus, the teachers' beliefs in this survey do not reflect a strong perception about the issue of TL use only in conducting the class (Table6).

In contrast, there were four factors extracted for the university students, which contained the items related to the "ALL ENGLISH" class (Table7).

Table 7. Factor loadings for learners' beliefs

	Factor Loading Matrix			
	Factor			
	1(General belief)	2 (All English)	3 (Motivation)	4 (Accomplishment)
No. 26	.564	-.018	.043	.016
No. 34	.558	.068	.110	.025
No. 38	.549	-.122	.173	-.028
No. 31	.508	.046	-.124	.074
No. 23	.478	.041	.061	.135
No. 10	.433	.199	-.202	-.064
No. 18	-.205	.673	.059	.025
No. 12	.043	.564	.061	-.080
No. 30	.086	.510	-.075	-.069
No. 24	.193	.498	-.102	-.007
No. 14	.135	.118	.615	-.055
No. 7	.146	-.172	.537	-.205
No. 20	-.173	.155	.419	.143
No. 36	-.109	-.052	.348	.232
No. 37	.068	-.145	-.170	.647
No. 8	.064	.032	.097	.388
No. 19	.322	.054	.056	.338

Extraction: Unweighted Least-Squares Method.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in seven iterations.

First of all, factor 2 was labeled as **supporting the ALL ENGLISH class**. This category contained items such as No. 18 (*Students should speak (output) in the target language as much as possible in the classroom*), No. 12 (*Teachers should speak (output) in the target language as much as possible in the classroom*), No. 30 (*"All English" in the classroom means 100% TL use*) and No. 24 (*L1 use in the classroom means depriving the students of opportunities for target language use*). Since these items were all additional questions created by the researcher, these learners clearly showed their interest in TL use only in the class in terms of their beliefs.

Then, factor 1 was labeled as **general beliefs for foreign language learning**. This category contained item No. 26 (*Women are better than men at learning foreign languages*), No. 34 (*People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages*), No. 38 (*Japanese are good at learning foreign languages*), No. 31 (*Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from Japanese*), No. 23 (*Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning many grammar rules*), and No. 10 (*You should not say anything in the foreign language until you can say it correctly*). In contrast with factor 2, these participants also hold the traditional way of thinking about the language learning, which showed the inconsistent and unstable beliefs.

Factor 3 was named as **motivation and strategy for language learning**. It includes

items No. 14 (*If I heard someone speaking the language I am trying to learn, I would go up to them so that I could practice speaking the language*), No. 7 (*I believe that I will ultimately learn to speak this language very well*), No. 20 (*It is important to repeat and practice often*), and No. 36 (*I would like to learn this language so that I can get to know its speakers better*).

Finally, factor 4 was named as **the image of accomplishment for language learning**. It contains item No. 37 (*People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent*), No. 8 (*It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent accent*), and No. 19 (*Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words*). These learners seemed to hope to become intelligent English speakers with excellent accents and large vocabularies. This finding was obtained from the content of each question item and the image for these learners' goals for foreign language learning. Table 19 shows the factor loadings for the learners' beliefs.

5. Conclusion

This study focused on the comparison of teachers' and learners' beliefs about the "ALL ENGLISH" class through a quantitative analysis. The following two research questions were addressed:

- 1) What type of beliefs do learners and teachers have regarding using only the TL (English) in the class?
- 2) What differences in expectations or discrepancies among learners and teachers about TL use only in the class are there, if any?

In terms of these research questions, the descriptive analysis showed the learners' positive beliefs about only using the TL in the class. In contrast, the results also showed teachers' subtle or moderate negative beliefs.

Regarding the second research question, the results from the descriptive analysis showed different expectations about the "ALL ENGLISH" class between teachers and learners. The university students in this study expected TL use in the class more than the teachers thought should happen. In addition, the teachers seemed to have slightly negative perceptions compared with learners regarding using only the TL in the class, as shown by the narrower variance range and negative mean scores in the data. This result clearly indicates that each group had different expectations.

Additionally, factor analysis identified the underlying two factors of the teachers' beliefs, which were **strategies for foreign language learning** and **foreign language aptitude**. In comparison, four factors were identified for learners: **general beliefs for foreign language learning**, **supporting the ALL ENGLISH class**, **motivation and strategy for language learning**, and **the image of accomplishment for language learning**. This factor analysis indicated the differences between the beliefs of the two groups, and only learners identified the "ALL ENGLISH" factors as related to their beliefs.

6. Implications

This study investigated teachers' and university students' beliefs about using only the target language (TL) in the classroom. According to the descriptive analysis, teachers' beliefs were rather negative about TL use only in the class, which meant these teachers tend to think much of the importance of L1 use and feel difficulty in using TL appropriately in the class. This point should be explored in the following qualitative analysis. However, as long as many learners expect the TL use only in the class, teachers could try to use TL in some more situations. As the researcher showed the different expectations and discrepancies among the

participants, the future argument on TL use only in the class issue should include the perspectives of both teachers' and learners' beliefs.

Besides that, according to the factor analysis, the teachers' beliefs of the participants in this survey do not reflect a strong perception about the issue of TL use only in the class. In contrast, there were four factors extracted for the university students, which contained the item related to the "ALL ENGLISH" class. This factor was named as supporting the ALL ENGLISH class. Furthermore, it should be specially mentioned that another factor was named as the image of accomplishment for language learning. These learners were conscious of the image of accomplishment for language learning as their beliefs. Although teachers think carefully about language learning strategies when they formulate their beliefs, factor analysis did not show the factor related with the image of accomplishment for language learning. Therefore, we may suggest that teachers should take these learners' expectations and beliefs into consideration while thinking of the strategies for their classroom practice.

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Appendix 1
日本語版アンケート

以下の質問に5つの選択肢の中から適当と思われるものを選んでください。

- (A) 強くそう思う (B) 思う (C) どちらでもない (D) 思わない
(E) 絶対にそう思わない

No.	質問項目	回答
1	外国語学習は大人より、子供にとってのほうが簡単である。	
2	外国語の才能を持って生まれた人達がいる。	
3	言語によっては他の言語より簡単に学べる言語がある。	
4	私が今現在学んでいる言語（英語）は、 (A) 非常に難しい (B) 難しい (C) やや難しい (D) 簡単 (E) 非常に簡単	
5	私が今現在学んでいる言語（英語）は、日本語と同じ構造である。	
6	学習者にとって授業は目標言語（英語）のみで全て行われることが重要である。	
7	私は最終的にはこの言語（英語）が大変上手に話せるようになると信じている。	
8	良い発音で外国語を話すことは重要である。	
9	外国語を話すためには外国の文化を知ることが必要である。	
10	正確に話せるようになるまでは外国語で何も言うべきではない。	
11	一つの外国語を話せる人にとっては、更にもう一つの言語を学ぶことは簡単である。	
12	教師は授業で目標言語（英語）をできるだけ多く使用するべきである。	
13	外国語は外国で学ぶほうがよい。	
14	私が学んでいる外国語を話している人がいたら、その人の所に会話練習のために行く。	
15	外国語の意味が分からないときは推測して考えてもよい。	
16	もし誰かが1日に1時間言語学習に取り組んだ場合、どれくらいの期間で流暢になれると思うか。 (A) 1年未満 (B) 1－2年 (C) 3－5年 (D) 5－10年 (E) 1日1時間の学習では流暢にはなれない	
17	私は外国語の適性がある。	
18	生徒は授業で目標言語（英語）をできるだけ多く使用するべきである。	

19	外国語を学ぶことはたいてい新しい語彙を多く学ぶことである。	
20	何度も繰り返し練習することは重要である。	
21	他の人の前で外国語を話すことは照れくさい。	
22	初期の頃に間違いを許されていたら、その誤りを後になって取り除くことは難しい。	
23	外国語を学ぶことはたいてい文法のルールを多く学ぶことである。	
24	授業内での母語（日本語）使用は、生徒たちの目標言語（英語）使用の機会を奪っていることになる。	
25	LL ルーム（ラボ）で練習することは重要である。	
26	女性は男性よりも外国語学習において上手である。	
27	もし私が英語を上手に話せたら、それを使う多くの機会があるだろう。	
28	外国語を話すことは理解するより簡単である。	
29	外国語学習は学校での他の教科を学ぶこととは違う。	
30	“オール・イングリッシュ”の授業とは100%目標言語（英語）を使うことである。	
31	外国語を学ぶことはたいてい日本語から英語に訳をすることである。	
32	もし私が英語を上手に話せたら、良い仕事に就く手助けとなるだろう。	
33	言語を読んだり書いたりすることは、話したり理解したりするより簡単である。	
34	数学や科学が得意な人は外国語学習が苦手である。	
35	日本人は外国語を話すことは重要であると考えている。	
36	英語圏の人々をよりよく理解するために、英語を学びたい。	
37	二言語以上話せる人は頭がいい。	
38	日本人は外国語学習が得意である。	
39	学習すれば全てのひとが外国語をネイティブ・スピーカーのように話せるようになる。	
40	“オール・イングリッシュ”の授業では授業内容の理解が不十分になる。	

Classroom practices for teaching global awareness: A case study of three native English speaking teachers in a Chinese high school

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Abstract

Developing intercultural communicative competence has been emphasized in China's educational policy and foreign language curriculum. Recent international conferences highlight the importance of intercultural communicative competence and global citizenship, and research suggests that teacher education will key to developing intercultural competence in the highly diverse and globalized world of the next 25 years. To date there is little research on Chinese English teachers' beliefs and practices related to intercultural language teaching. To cultivate international talents in high school, students must develop global awareness and intercultural communicative competence while learning English, fostering the traits necessary for them to become global citizens. This qualitative case study was conducted at the Sino-Canadian program in a Chinese high school. It focuses on three Canadian English teachers and explores the teachers' classroom practices related to global awareness. The three teachers use different teaching methods to develop students' global awareness, including reading about global and local issues in an English newspaper, performing Christmas classroom activities, and teaching drama class. The study finds effective teaching methods, and explores effective intercultural teaching approaches that policy-makers and teachers can use to develop global talent in high schools. It will also help teacher trainers to design effective teacher education programs for intercultural language teaching.

Keywords: global awareness, intercultural communicative competence, teacher cognition

Introduction

Since 2010, the Chinese Ministry of Education has developed global awareness and international talent, presented in “The National Guidelines for Medium- and Long-Term Educational Reform and Development (2010–2020)” (Ministry of Education, 2010). To cultivate international talents in high school, it is necessary to develop learners’ global awareness and intercultural communicative competence through English learning, cultivating them to become global citizens.

Global awareness refers to possessing an open mind while actively seeking to understand cultural differences, making connections between the local and the global, and developing the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to participate effectively in the globalized world as a global citizen. Teacher cognition is defined as what teachers know, believe, and think (Borg, 2006).

Several studies have been carried out on teachers’ attitudes related to global learning (Clarke & Drudy, 2006; Development Education Association (DEA), 2009; Ipsos MORI, 2009; McCutcheon, Knipe, Cash & McKay, 2008). Clarke and Drudy (2006) showed that pre-service teachers were not in a position to adequately meet the needs of students in diverse classrooms. The Development Education Association (DEA) (2009) showed that although teachers expressed confidence in discussing general global issues, many were not confident when teaching about complex global issues such as environmental sustainability or international poverty. Ipsos MORI (2009) showed that teachers believed it is important to teach global learning in schools, that schools should prepare pupils to deal with a fast-changing and globalized world, and that most of the teachers agreed that thinking about how teaching contributes to making the world a better place motivates them to continue teaching.

McCutcheon, Knipe, Cash and McKay (2008) showed that the majority of teachers agreed that it was important for pupils to learn about the global dimension in school, and three-quarters of the teachers in their study reported that they were aware of aspects of the global dimension in the revised Northern Ireland Curriculum.

Byram's (1997) model of intercultural communicative competence was the theoretical foundation of intercultural language education. However, Byram (2009) later noted that the model does not suggest "links of dependency or interdependency among the competences", and that because it "does not specify in every detail the intercultural speaker, the prescription of how learners should develop is limited" (p. 325). Houghton (2010) explained that "the model was generated by theory and has not been reconsidered and revised in the light of empirical studies based on teaching practices that were inspired by or build upon the original concepts presented in the model" (pp. 197-198). Consequently, Houghton indicated that the teachers who wanted to develop intercultural competence in language classroom did not know how to teach intercultural competence and organize intercultural activities to meet objectives. Because of this gap between theory and practice, Houghton (2012) and Yamada (2012) conducted action research to explore critical awareness in foreign language education. They both explored how critical cultural awareness can be taught in foreign language classes and how critical cultural awareness emerges. Yamada (2012) found that foreign language education as such could develop criticality to some extent, even without targeted instruction. Houghton (2012) developed the Intercultural Dialogue Model to structure the course of learning to promote intercultural dialogue in foreign language education.

In China, some studies have examined teachers' beliefs about intercultural communicative competence in foreign language education (Han, 2010; Han & Song,

2011; Zhou, 2011). Han (2010) conducted a quantitative study of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' perceptions of culture teaching in secondary schools in Xinjiang in China. Han found that "teachers' devotion of time to culture teaching is less than the time devoted to language teaching though they express their willingness to teach culture in language classroom" (p. 288). Han and Song (2011) conducted a pilot study to investigate Chinese university teachers' cognition of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) in an EFL context. They found that the teachers' conceptualizations of ICC and its relevance to English language teaching were ambiguous. Intercultural teaching was limited because the teachers were not familiar with specific aspects of the target culture and the intercultural elements in the teaching materials. The authors suggested that the teachers needed intercultural encounters, teaching materials, and professional development for intercultural teaching. Zhou (2011) investigated Chinese teachers' beliefs and self-reported practices related to intercultural competence teaching and found that the participants' beliefs about intercultural teaching influenced their teaching practices. Their results suggest that intercultural language teaching approach is necessary for in-service teacher training.

To date, we only know about the importance of developing students' intercultural communicative competence and global awareness as emphasized in Chinese educational policy and in the foreign language curriculum. There is little empirical research available on foreign language teachers' actual teaching practices in the classroom in China. EFL teachers' practices related to global awareness still require in-depth exploration. Although the above researchers have investigated teachers' beliefs about intercultural competence in China, all of their research has been quantitative, and qualitative exploration of actual classroom practice has not been undertaken. Furthermore, teachers' beliefs about global awareness in EFL

classes have not yet been widely researched in China.

To address this gap in the literature, Jing (2013) explored global awareness in China through interviews and observations, focusing on one senior high school's English teachers. The present paper is a part of this research trajectory. The purpose of this qualitative case study is to explore practices regarding the global awareness of foreign language teachers at one senior high school in Henan Province, China, and to answer the specific research question: What are the teachers' classroom practices related to global awareness?

Methods

Site and sample

The research was performed at one of the highest-performing high schools in Henan Province, China, including both the regular high school department and the International Education and Teaching Department ("International Department"). The regular high school department had 15 classes in each grade, and each class had about 60 students. There were a total of 24 English teachers. Each grade had about 10 teachers.

The International Department was established in 2003 to cultivate talented students who can adapt to intensive competition and enter a world-renowned educational institution. The international department includes the Sino-Canadian and the Sino-Japanese programs. In 2010, these two international programs had 24 classes, 26 native speakers, and approximately 800 students. The Sino-Canadian program had 18 classes and approximately 600 students. The Sino-Japanese program had six classes and approximately 200 students.

In 2003, the Canadian Nova Scotia education department and the Henan education department signed a cooperative agreement that authorized this high school to run the Sino-Canadian dual certificates and dual languages teaching program, henceforth referred to as the Sino-Canadian program. The classes are taught by Canadian teachers using original textbooks from Canada. When students finish the course, they receive Canadian and Chinese diplomas which allow for the opportunity to apply for enrollment in any university in the English-speaking world. There are three grades, and every grade has six classes, from class A to class F. At the time of the study, every class had about 35 students. There were four English classes every week taught by 24 native English-speaking teachers, and every grade had two English teachers.

The participants in the study were six native-English-speaking teachers from the Sino-Canadian program. In this paper, I analyze three Canadian native English teachers' classroom practices.

Data collection and analysis

I used classroom observation as a data collection method. I also interviewed the teachers after each classroom observation. When I observed the Christmas class, drama class, and novel class, I attended the classroom activities. I observed the international program a total of 16 times and observed 10 teachers. Every lesson was 40 minutes. I observed the newspaper teaching class four times and the drama class twice (see Table 1). I also observed two Canadian English teachers in grade one, three Chinese teachers' English classes, and two Canadian English teachers' Christmas classes. I performed all observations in November and December 2010. I also observed teachers' meetings for this program six times. I focused on three Canadian

Table 1
Summary of Classroom Observation Data.

Participant	Gender	Teaching methods	Time	Date
C1	Male	English newspaper	4	2010/11/25 2010/11/26 2010/11/29 2010/12/20
C2	Male	Christmas	2	2010/11/29 2010/12/1
C3	Female	Drama	2	2010/11/29 2010/12/1

(“C”) teachers for classroom observation, coded C1, C2, and C3. Each teacher had a different teaching style and teaching method. These three Canadian teachers’ teaching methods can stand for intercultural teaching and global learning at every grade in the international department. I used both qualitative data analysis software NVivo 8 and analysis by hand for observational data. I also used grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006) to analyze classroom observation data. First, I conducted open coding by going through all classroom teaching data, including videos, audio, pictures, and field notes. I then created several categories to organize the open coding data. Finally, I summarized three themes about teachers’ teaching practices related to global awareness: English newspaper reading, Christmas class, and drama class.

Results

The three Canadian English teachers (C1, C2, and C3) had different classroom practices and used different teaching methods to develop students’ global awareness. C1 developed students’ global awareness by reading about global and local issues in an English newspaper. C2 developed students’ global awareness through the study of Christmas. C3 developed students’ global awareness in drama class.

Developing students' global awareness through reading an English newspaper

I observed C1's class four times and found that his teaching approach includes multiple steps. First, he initiated group discussions using group assignments that he drew on the blackboard. Students read the newspaper "21st Century Newspaper", a popular, high-quality English newspaper in China, and they filled in a handout that C1 created. They could use dictionaries to look for new vocabulary. The group members discussed the handout questions together in English. Second, C1 asked the student groups to answer the handout questions and he gave them feedback.

Every group chose one member to answer the question. Third, students wrote and submitted their diaries every week, and C1 read them and gave feedback. C1 liked to play background music in the classroom, believing that the music makes the students feel relaxed and enjoy the reading. When I interviewed him at his home, he said that he liked to play music and to watch music TV shows at home as well.

I observed one of C1's lessons on November 25, 2010. It was the first lesson in the morning. The purpose of the class was to develop students' oral English abilities and global awareness through reading about global issues in the English newspaper (November 3, 2010 edition). Global issues here is used in the widest sense, global issues topics include: world musicians, peace and war, international relationships, global environment, food safety, world culture, habits and customs, sports, world cultural heritage, the Olympics, the development of the computer, wild animal protection, music, energy problems, global warming, and world economy. When the students had difficulties, they would look up words in the dictionary. They used both paper dictionaries and electronic dictionaries. Twelve students were not in the classroom because they were taking a math exam. C1 called everyone's name and he

divided the class into four groups. Each group had four or five students. The students began to read the newspaper at 8 AM, and then they did the exercises in the handout.

Selected articles were provided from the newspaper, including: “IT ‘Wonderkid’”, “Time for Population Control”, and “Swiftly Seeking a True Love”. The reading materials were all about global issues. C1 also included local issues in the handout. C1 then assigned students to groups.

I attended one group discussion. At the beginning, the students were a little nervous. I kept quiet and did not disturb their discussion. This group included three girls and one boy. One boy gave me his newspaper, and he shared one with his partner. The students’ reading speeds were almost identical.

When the students had difficult questions, they would discuss them together. Sometimes they discussed in Chinese, perhaps because they could understand the questions more quickly than when discussing in English. I moved between different groups and observed each group’s discussion. I found the discussion was inadequately internationally orientated. The students were mainly focused on the exercises. During the class, C1 told me about his teaching syllabus.

In this class, the students read about global issues in the newspaper and did reading practice in the handout. They discussed the questions with partners in their group. The teacher introduced local issues. The comparison between global issues and local issues developed students’ global awareness and critical awareness. Because the teaching materials were about global issues, the students were able to learn more about the wider world.

All three global issues topics were about culture and were actual issues in global society. The teaching materials were able to help students learn about other cultures and acquire global knowledge.

In the handout, C1 designed four reading activities. The students read the newspaper and then wrote the answers in the handout. The first reading passage was based on the newspaper section “the buzz” and was about China and the world. For examples of short reading sections from “the buzz” (see Appendix A and B).

Appendix C shows a short story of Steve Jobs in reading passage B. C1 designed some questions for the reading passage:

1. Who is Steve Jobs?
2. Name Apple’s new CEO and state where he previously worked.
3. What was Steve Jobs regarded as?
4. Name the college that Steve Jobs graduated from.
5. In a commencement speech, what did Jobs encourage students to do?

C1 began to discuss the handout with students after they finished the reading. C1 was able to develop students’ global awareness by asking critical questions. C1’s questions were not limited to the reading materials—he also asked questions related to global knowledge. These challenging questions made students think critically and globally. The following is an example of an interaction between C1 and his students taken from recorded observations.

C1: Okay, look at the first one in B... Pelagia, who is Steve Jobs?

S1: The co-founder and CEO of Apple.

C1: Name Apple’s new CEO, and where did he previously work? Let’s go.

Who is it?

S1: John Sculley.

C1: John Sculley. Where did he previously work?

S1: Pepsi-Cola.

C1: What is Pepsi-Cola? A drink. Yao Ming drinks Pepsi-Cola.

C1: Okay. No. 3, No. 3.

S1: He was regarded as a source of motivation and inspiration by youth.

C1: Does anybody here see Steve Jobs as a source of motivation and inspiration?

S: Yes.

C1: Yeah, many people would like to be him. Yeah, he was regarded as a source of motivation and inspiration.

C1: Alan. No. 4, 4. Name the college that Steve Jobs graduated from.

S2: He graduated from Stanford University.

C1: Did he graduate from there?

S2: No.

C1: No, he was a college dropout, he never graduated from it.

S: Haha...

C1: Go back to page four. What is he saying?

C1: The first line, he is a college dropout, just like who?

S: Bill Gates.

C1: Just like Bill Gates... college dropout, never graduated from university or college.

S3: Bill Gates graduated from Harvard.

C1: In a commencement speech, what did Jobs encourage students to do?

Let's go... over here. What did Jobs encourage students to do?

S4: Jobs encouraged students to follow their heart and intuition.

C1: Yes, follow your heart and intuition. Now, last year, in the article in the paper, they had an interview with a Chinese guy—who is the Chinese guy who studied Chinese Google?

S: Oh...? Google?

C1: Li Wei. Yeah, Chinese Google.

S4: Chinese Google?

S5: Li Kaifu.

S6: No.

C1: Okay, anyway, that guy said the same thing. “Do what you enjoy doing; do what you enjoy.” That is why he made his money. He did what he likes to do. That is something he wants to do. Okay?

Reading passage C in the handout was “Time for population control?” It discussed the time-sensitive need for population control in China. The middle paragraphs introduced the population situation in large cities in China. Appendix D shows one part of this reading. At the end, the article asks: “What do you think? Should large Chinese cities seek to control the size of their population?” Yes and no were given as options, and three reasons were given to support the arguments.

In the handout, C1 asked five questions:

1. Give some of the reasons the article lists for having population control.
2. What was the population of Beijing earlier this year?
3. Who has put forth plans to control urban population?
4. In your opinion, is Zhengzhou doing enough to deal with its population growth? Explain.

5. In your opinion, do cities need to put controls on their population growth? Why?

C1 designed Question Four based on a local issue. Because the school is located in Zhengzhou City, C1 designed the question to ask about population control in Zhengzhou. In the group discussion, students were very interested in this question. C1 asked questions to develop students' critical global awareness by comparing the global and local issues. For example, C1 asked, "What do you think about the population in Zhengzhou?"

The examples provided above demonstrate C1's approach to global awareness teaching. He used the "21st Century Newspaper" to introduce global issues and foster intercultural knowledge on topics including slimming drugs, final polls for the United States president, Steve Jobs' biography, and China's population control problem. C1 developed students' critical thinking, which is an aspect of global skills under the framework of global awareness. The classroom discourse related to the reading passage on Steve Jobs illustrates one way that C1 developed students' global attitudes. He mentioned Jobs' speech to encourage students to follow their heart and intuition. C1's class practice supported the teachers' beliefs about the objectives of foreign language education: to develop students' global awareness and to educate them to be global citizens.

Developing students' global awareness through Christmas

I observed C2's lessons three times. These lessons were all about Christmas. Christmas had not yet come, and all of the Sino-Canadian classes began to prepare to celebrate Christmas. Each Christmas class would be evaluated in the term scores.

Christmas class was only one day long. The students prepared the class, and the teacher celebrated with the students. The students bought Christmas trees, hats, red cloth, colorful lights, and candles. They decorated the classroom very beautifully. I attended three classes' Christmas activities and documented them with photos and videos.

I will describe the approach to Christmas used by Class #20 of Grade Three. C2 wore a Christmas hat and red clothes. All of the students wore red Christmas hats. "Merry Christmas" was written on the blackboard. There was a big television in the front of the classroom. The television was playing a Christmas carol. The students watched the screen and sang the Christmas carol.

The students were divided into six groups of five students, with each group occupying one row of the classroom. Students sang the Christmas carol row by row, with each row standing up, singing their line and sitting down again very quickly. The students sang the song for about four minutes, after which the teacher and students applauded.

The class was decorated interestingly, with many colorful paper footprints on the floor close to the window. The footprints were lined up in a row that extended to the back of the classroom. A big blackboard on the wall in the back of the classroom displayed a picture of Santa Claus, a Christmas sleigh, and two deer, and there was a

row of Christmas trees with colorful lights. Many photos from students' travel were posted on the walls.

C2's Christmas lesson demonstrates how global learning activities can develop students' global awareness. During the preparation for Christmas, students learned about Christmas, and they also developed global attitudes like openness and tolerance. In the Christmas lesson, they developed their English language skills when communicating with their Canadian teacher. C2's Christmas classroom practices supports teachers' beliefs about the importance of global awareness and the relationship between global awareness, language, and cultural learning in the curriculum.

Developing students' global awareness through drama class

I observed two drama classes in the Sino-Canadian program. I had heard from the teachers of the Sino-Japanese program that the drama class was very interesting. The students liked it and gave high evaluations. The drama class is an intercultural experience that can develop students' intercultural communicative competence.

The lesson described occurred in the No.10C class of grade three on November 29, 2010, held at the Art and Sports Center. I observed and videotaped the class with permission. The classroom was very big—the size of a basketball court. The drama class lasted for 80 minutes rather than 40 minutes, and drama lessons occurred only once weekly.

There were 30 students and four teachers in this class. One teacher was a Chinese teacher, and the other three were Canadian English teachers. C3 was the drama teacher, and the other two teachers were observers. C3 and the Chinese teacher

taught the drama class together. The Chinese teacher was a teaching assistant who helped the Canadian teacher when she had trouble in the classroom. Because C3 was about to become the chief of the Sino-Canadian program and would therefore no longer teach drama, the two young Canadian teachers attended the class to learn how to teach drama.

C3 taught “Cinderella”, a fairy tale known worldwide that is very popular in China. The drama class followed four stages. First, C3 explained the drama background and taught a song, “Did She Mention My Name”. Second, C3 told the story of “Cinderella”. Third, the students practiced performing the drama in groups. Fourth, each group acted out the drama. At the beginning of the class, all of the students brought chairs and sat in one corner around the teacher. C3 stood at stage right. I stood to the left of the teacher and students to observe and document the class.

To start, C3 explained the drama’s background and taught the class a song, giving each student a handout containing the song’s lyrics. C3 posted a note on the wall. She discussed literary devices such as metaphor, simile, hyperbole, and subtext. She gave an example: “the cherry lips, and lips like cherry”. She also explained how to use hyperbole and subtext. After explaining the drama, C3 taught the song sentence by sentence. Then she asked the students to find the simile, exaggeration, and subtext in the song.

After C3 explained the drama’s background, she said that she would tell a story for dramatic performance. All of the students moved to the middle of the classroom and sat around the teacher in a circle. C3 told the story of “Cinderella”. C3 said that the story was a little different from the one that people widely known, and that it comes from Canadian folk history. C3 said that Cinderella’s mother died and was buried in the garden. Her stepmother was not kind to her. C3 asked the students,

“Do you like this story? Or do you not like it?” Each student listened to the story carefully and took notes.

When C3 finished the story, she asked the students to select a scene and to act it out. The students were divided into eight groups of on average four students. One Canadian teacher attended a group and played the role of Cinderella. The students began to practice the scenario while C3 walked up and down the classroom and gave them guidance.

The eight groups performed their scenes one by one, and I filmed their performances. While one group performed, the other students watched. The students gave warm applause for the exciting performances. C3 gave guidance and evaluated groups on the side. Sometimes C3 interrupted students’ performances and asked questions such as “What do you think of the role? And what are you imagining when you play this role?” C3 listened and explained the roles. In one group, C3 interrupted the students’ performance and asked the other two students in the group, “How did you design the plot?” Then C3 again asked the students who were acting, “What do you think?” Five groups performed before the end of the class; the other three groups were to perform their scenes the following week.

In this class, C3 taught drama knowledge and reviewed it using a song. The song made students respond positively, be highly motivated, and enjoy attending the drama activity. Students acquired cultural knowledge through the story of “Cinderella”. During the drama performance, the teacher developed students’ critical thinking skills by asking students to describe their attitudes and thoughts about the roles.

Discussion

I conducted this case study of three Canadian English teachers in the Sino-Canadian program at a high school in Henan Province, China. The purpose of the study was to explore how these teachers develop students' global awareness through classroom practices. The three teachers used different teaching methods to develop students' global awareness. C1 developed students' global awareness through reading about global and local issues in an English newspaper, C2 developed students' global awareness through Christmas, and C3 developed students' global awareness in drama class.

Teachers and students require global awareness, and reading about global issues in an English newspaper is a common and effective way to learn about a wider world and develop global thinking. A 2010 survey of the general public in the UK on behalf of the Development Education Association (DEA) by Ipsos MORI (Hogg & Shah, 2010) found that the media is by far the most important place for people to learn about global issues outside of school. They found that TV programs and newspapers are the most common sources of information on global issues outside of school. They also found that "regularly reading, listening, or watching media about global issues encourages an outward-looking attitude, and they are very important ways for people to learn more about these issues" (p. 3).

In this case study of these three Canadian English teachers, C1 used the 21st Century Newspaper in English class; he also created a handout for every class. In his class, the English newspaper was the most important source for high school students to learn more about global issues. Those students at the Sino-Canadian program who regularly read English newspapers about the wider world had significantly greater

global awareness and intercultural critical awareness about a wide range of issues. Through group work and interactions with teachers, the students were able to develop their global awareness.

Group dynamics is an effective approach to develop students' global awareness, and all three teachers in this study used group dynamics in the classrooms. Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) suggested that changing the placement of chairs is often able to enhance learning. The placement of chairs and desks has a substantial influence on the classroom. Seating arrangements should suit different activities. The teacher can make an interactive class by changing the furniture arrangement. Desks can be moved different ways to provide a semi-circular seating structure, a circular seating structure, ad hoc clusters of chairs/desks, or to remove desks entirely (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003).

In the three cases discussed here, the teachers frequently changed the arrangement of the furniture. C1 liked to use ad hoc clusters of chairs/desks. This kind of arrangement is useful for small-group activities. C1 was not present in the students' primary group communication. Instead, the students grouped together and discussed the questions. C3 also used this spatial arrangement to teach drama techniques and acting performances. However, when C3 told the students the story, the seating arrangement was circular. Sitting in a circle could help foster interpersonal attraction and involvement; it makes everyone feel friendlier than in other arrangements.

Canadian teachers and Chinese English teachers used seating differently. In the regular high school department, I observed that the Chinese teachers did not usually organize the classroom according to group dynamics. Their regular teaching method was based on teacher-centered teaching, and the furniture arrangement was a traditional forward-facing teacher-fronted seating structure. This is appropriate if

communication is planned only between the English teacher and the whole class. However, Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) pointed out that this spatial structure has several disadvantages from the perspective of group dynamics: “it creates inequality among students, it enforces teacher-dependency, and it is an obstacle to group processes” (p. 80).

Songs and music can relax the students and make them enjoy learning. Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) gave some general musical recommendations that the teacher can follow to choose soft background music: “no music when the teacher is talking; soft music at the beginning of pair or group work, stopped when the teacher wants to call back the attention to the front of the room; very soft classical music for reading or solitary seat-work” (p. 87).

In the three classes discussed here, songs and music played an important role in developing students’ global awareness. C1 was good at using music in the class, and C1’s musical choices followed Dörnyei and Murphey’s recommendations. C1 chose the music and songs that the students liked. This is a good way to acquire global knowledge. It motivated students to enjoy the discussion of global issues in the English newspaper class. In C2’s class, students sang a Christmas song together. Each classroom played Christmas songs during the Christmas classes. Students learned about the culture of Christmas and developed their English language skills and communicative skills. In C3’s class, in order to help students to understand some of the features of drama, including simile, exaggeration, and subtext, she taught students Gordon Lightfoot’s song “Did She Mention My Name”. Students acquired drama knowledge by singing the song.

Drama class was very well received in the international department, and C3 developed students’ global awareness in drama class. Fleming (2004) emphasized that

teaching and learning through drama is a valuable form of intercultural education. He summarized five overlapping ways that drama can promote cultural and intercultural awareness: “use of drama in the modern language classroom, making theatre in a foreign language, exploring cultures through theatre traditions, exploring other cultures through ‘process’ drama, [and] looking at one’s own culture through drama” (p. 114). C3 used drama to teach students English and to develop global knowledge. The students explored different characters’ psychological states in the story of “Cinderella” through roleplaying. C3’s drama class promoted global skills such as language skills, communication skills, and critical thinking skills.

The findings correspond well with Byram (1997) and further support the concept of critical culture awareness. Group dynamics are an effective way to develop students’ global awareness, and all three Canadian English teachers took advantage of group dynamics in the classrooms. My findings therefore support Dörnyei and Murphey’s (2003) group dynamics theory and Fleming’s (2004) five ways to develop intercultural awareness.

Conclusion

The primary purpose of this study was to explore the practices of foreign language teachers related to global awareness in one Chinese senior high school. In the international department, teachers developed students’ global awareness by researching and discussing global issues in the English newspaper, Christmas class, and drama class.

These three teaching methods are valuable for global learning. They could be taught to other English teachers at the study high school to develop global awareness.

Group dynamics, songs, and music were key ways that the teachers promoted global and intercultural awareness.

These findings have implications for curriculum design, teacher professional development, and English teaching course material development. I hope that it can help teachers to think about global awareness in addition to language skills. I hope this study also will help school leaders emphasizing global awareness to organize more global learning activities inside and outside of school. It could also help policymakers to consider the concept of global awareness based on teachers' beliefs and practices.

This study was a qualitative case study, and it only focused on one senior high school's English teachers in China. A quantitative study of teachers' global awareness beliefs such as a large-scale survey study could be conducted to provide a more general perspective on Chinese EFL teachers' beliefs about global awareness.

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Appendix A. Example article “Slimming drugs” employed by Teacher C1 for English language education

Slimming drugs

Fifteen slimming drugs, including Qumei and Aoquqing, have been recalled as recent research indicates that they contain an ingredient which could lead to increased instances of heart disease and strokes. The ingredient, sibutramine, is commonly found in slimming medications and acts by altering the body’s metabolism. The Food and Drug Administration (FDA) in the US banned the substance in early October.

Slimming drugs. (November 3, 2010). *21st Century Newspaper*, p. 2.

Appendix B. Example article “All but certain” employed by Teacher C1 for English language education

All but certain

Final polls indicate that the American Democrats are “all but certain” to lose control of the House of Representatives as well as see their Senate majority slashed in the US midterm elections on November 2. Democrats and Republicans go head-to-head for all 435 seats in the House of Representatives as well as 37 Senate seats and a further 37 governor’s seats. The economy and President Barack Obama’s healthcare reform plan form the election’s main battleground.

All but certain. (November 3, 2010). *21st Century Newspaper*, p. 2.

Appendix C. Example article “IT ‘Wonderkid’” employed by Teacher C1 for English language education

IT ‘Wonderkid

Steve Jobs, 55. The co-founder and CEO of Apple

“Innovation distinguishes between a leader and a follower.”

College drop-out Steve Jobs lured John Sculley away from Pepsi-Cola to serve as Apple’s CEO. Jobs asked him: “Do you want to sell sugar water for the rest of your life, or do you want to come with me and change the world?”

The “wonderkid” of Silicon Valley was known for pulling off seemingly impossible feats. He gave the world the first successful, mass-produced personal computer (PC), the Apple, and reinvented it years later by creating the Mac.

He made a successful business out of creating PCs that were not only user-friendly but were also aesthetically pleasing. He was regarded as a source of motivation and inspiration by youth.

Check out: Stanford University Commencement Speech, 2005. Jobs encouraged students to follow their heart and intuition.

Fan view: “Apple was at death’s door when Jobs came back. Few people were willing to take a risk with it. But he stood out. He always dares to make changes.”

Luo Bi, 27, a senior director in Walmart, Shenzhen, China

IT ‘Wonderkid’. (November, 3, 2010). *21st Century Newspaper*, p. 4.

Appendix D. Example article “Time for population control?” employed by Teacher C1 for English language education

Time for population control?

Many of China’s large cities are bursting at the seams. They are afflicted by rapidly growing populations and limited space.

There are too many cars for the roads, too few parking spaces, and growing demands on public transport, water, electricity and the jobs market.

Earlier this year, Beijing announced that its population had reached almost 20 million, a full decade earlier than estimated.

Time for population control? (2010, November 3). *21st Century Newspaper*, p. 7.

査読規定

- 1 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
- 2 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。

編集後記

言語教師としての生活は、期待されていることと自分のできることとのせめぎ合いの中で、不完全な自分と対話を続けることであるように感じます。日々苦労を重ねる言語教師の心の動きと教育実践について洞察を得ることは、教師と教師を取り巻く社会が協働するために不可欠であると言えます。こうした洞察を得る機会を与えていただいた、論文著者の皆様、査読者の皆様、研究会の皆様にあらためて御礼を申し上げます。 (江原)

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