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はじめに

これまで多くの言語教師とかかわってきた。いつも思うことだが、「あなたは
何をしているのですか？」と問われると、「英語の教師です」あるいは「大学で
教えています」「英語教育を研究しています」と答えるだろう。「言語教師です」
と答えることはほとんどない。これが英語になると、「I' m a language teacher.
I have been teaching English for more than 35 years.」など言うことはふつう
である。

本研究会の活動のおかげで「言語教師認知」という用語はある程度定着した
ように思う。本研究集録もこれで4刊となった。今回は6論文を掲載してある。
それぞれ研究会で講演および発表していただいた内容をもとに査読を行い、掲
載した。英語教育では論文と言えば統計処理がつきものとする傾向がいまだ
に主流であるが、やはり「なるほど！(aha moment)」があることが一義的であ
ると思う。その意味で本研究集録はその目的にかなっている。内容的に必ず
しも言語教師認知の研究という枠組ではないが、狭い意味での「研究のための
研究」というスタンスを取らないで始めた研究会の趣旨に沿って、言語教師に
かかわる諸相を理解するにはいずれも貴重な論考である。著者の方にはお礼を
述べたい。

この5月に『言語教師認知の動向』（開拓社）を本研究会の有志により刊行で
きた。本研究会を発足した際の目的はほぼ達成することができた。そろそろ代
表も交代の時期かと思うが、もう少しやらせていただきたい。

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。「言語教師認
知」ではテーマが狭くなる可能性があるので、「Teacher Research in English
Language Education（英語教育における教師が行う研究）」というテーマで開
催したい。夢物語でしょうか？

2014年10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

- 各論考は、発表や懇談会の内容にもとづいて記されている。そのために、原著論文、研究ノートなどの内容を含んでいる点を了承していただきたい。つまり、同様の研究内容が別に掲載されることがあるが、著者の判断にゆだねる。
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- 本研究集録は、ウェブに掲載して公表する。引用の際はウェブアドレスと引用年月日を明記していただきたい。

本研究集録査読者

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言語教師認知研究会記録 2013 年 10 月～2014 年 7 月

研究会のテーマ

日本における言語教師認知研究の理論と実践の確立と実態調査

研究発表会開催記録

第 15 回 研究発表会

日時：2013 年 10 月 26 日（土） 2 時～5 時

場所：立教大学 12 号館地下第 2 会議室

1. 清水公男（木更津高専）

「英語教師の力量形成に関する事例研究-授業分析から見えるもの」

2. 坂本篤史（星城大学）

「授業研究における教師の学習過程：授業後協議会に着目して」

第 16 回 研究発表会

日時：2014 年 1 月 25 日（土） 2 時～5 時

場所：聖心女子大学

1. 恒安眞佐（宇都宮大学）

「Practical activities based on students' personality」Workshop

2. 宮原万寿子（国際基督教大学）

「Emerging Self-Identities: Foreign Language Learning, Experiential Capital and Emotions- A Narrative Oriented Study」

第17回 言語教師認知研究発表会（特別講演）

日時：2014年4月19日（土） 3時～5時

場所：立教大学(池袋キャンパス) 14号館502教室

Riitta Jaatinen (Tampere University, Finland)

「The Finnish School and Research-based Teacher Education- A Case Study of a Finnish Teacher Education Programme」

第18回研究発表会

日時：2014年5月24日（土） 2時～5時

場所：早稲田大学

早稲田キャンパス 11号館-802教室

1. 上野育子（関西学院大学大学院生）

「NNESTs' and Learners' Beliefs about All L2 Use in English Classes」

2. 荊紅濤（早稲田大学）

「English Teachers' Classroom Practices regarding Global Awareness in a Chinese High School」

第19回 研究発表会

日時：2014年7月26日（土） 2時～5時

場所：早稲田大学 早稲田キャンパス 11号館 802

発表者

1. 長田恵理（国学院大学）

「Teachers' Codeswitching in Elementary School English Classrooms」

2. 林千賀（獨協大学）

「教員としての自己：事例研究に基づく省察」

Implementing Research Orientation and Integrating Curriculum in Teacher Education—A Case Example of Foreign Language Teacher Education in a Finnish University¹

Riitta JAATINEN
School of Education
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Finland

Abstract: This article provides an insight into language teacher education in Finland and foreign language teacher education at the University of Tampere, in particular. In the first part, I give a brief account of what research-based teacher education is in the Finnish context and why we have adopted research orientation. In the second part, I present the theoretical underpinnings behind the foreign language teacher education at the University of Tampere. In the third part, I describe what a portfolio is, why we should adopt the use of portfolios in teacher education, and what types of portfolios exist. I will also describe what a student teacher's portfolio usually consists of and how it is used in our teacher education program. In the fourth part, I give an account of the structure and content of the process where student teachers are guided and supported toward autonomy through personal research projects. Both the portfolio and personal research projects integrate the foreign language teacher education curriculum.

Keywords: Research-based teacher education, foreign language teacher education, portfolio, teacher development, teacher autonomy.

1. Introduction

The origin of research orientation in Finnish teacher education can be traced back to the beginning of the 1970s when the responsibility for providing education to prospective teachers was transferred to universities. Teaching at that time was publicly acknowledged as an academic profession with a research knowledge base. The next significant change was in 2005, when Finnish universities adopted a two-tier system of the Bologna Process with the combination of a three-year bachelor's degree and two-year master's degree. (Niemi and Jakku-Sihvonen, 2006, p. 35.) The reform processes in Finnish teacher education have been slow (Hansén and Forsman, 2009). Today, the basic qualification of a subject teacher in

¹ The article is based on two of my previous articles concerning foreign language teacher education in Finland: (1) Jaatinen, R. (2013) Narrative portfolio in foreign language teacher education, published in E. Ropo & M. Huttunen (eds.) *Puheenvuoroja narratiivisuudesta opetuksessa ja oppimisessa*. Tampere: Tampere University Press, and (2) Jaatinen, R. (2014) Student teachers as co-developers in foreign language class – a case study of research-based teacher education in Finland. The article is offered to be published in *Naruto University Bulletin*, Japan.

Finland is the master's degree including 60 ECTS² of teacher's pedagogical studies, which are included in both bachelor and master programs.

Subject teacher education is guided by the notion that teachers are experts in both educational science and their particular fields of teaching. The master's degree of those who want to become subject teachers typically contains one major subject (120–150 ECTS), two minor subjects (each of them at least 60 ECTS) and a master's thesis in the major subject. The studies provide broad competence for working as a subject teacher at various levels of the educational system. The teacher's pedagogical studies comprise one minor subject in the master's degree program. They consist of basic studies in educational science, studies in subject-specific didactics as well as supervised teaching practice in school. The basic studies in educational science are mainly included in the bachelor's degree while the studies in subject-specific didactics, subject-specific research studies and teaching practice form part of the master's degree. (Niemi and Jakku-Sihvonen, 2006, p. 39; see also Kansanen, 2008; Sahlberg, 2011.) The teaching practice in school is supervised by both school and university teachers, and it comprises one third of the pedagogical studies, i.e. usually 20 ECTS.

In this article, I provide an insight into foreign language teacher education and how it is implemented at the University of Tampere. First, I explain what research-based teacher education means in our context and why we need research orientation. Secondly, I give an account of the main theoretical concepts that have guided our work in FL teacher education. In the two final parts, I describe how portfolios and personal research projects are used to guide student teachers in research-based work and thus toward being autonomous professionals. It is argued that portfolios and personal research projects work as integrating tools in the foreign language teacher education³ curriculum.

2. Research-based teacher education

The research-orientation in Finnish teacher education has been advocated using several grounds and reasons. Finnish teachers are said to be very autonomous professionally, i.e. teaching often means making independent and also ethical choices and thus, taking individual responsibility (Teacher Education in Finland, 2014). Teachers have to possess the most recent

² 1 ECTS (European credit transfer system) equals 25–30 hours of student work.

³ Hereinafter 'FL teacher education' instead of 'foreign language teacher education'.

knowledge of the subject(s) they teach and internalize their pedagogical action which is founded on both research knowledge and reflected experience. Based on a thorough understanding of human growth and development, different cultures and values, they have to be able to transform the subject and their pedagogy in relevant ways to benefit different learners and students from various cultural backgrounds. In addition, teachers need to have knowledge and skills in designing curriculum and learning environments, using and developing methods and strategies of teaching and evaluating their students, and developing the school and themselves as professionals. Furthermore, teachers have to be familiar with the educational institutions as well as non-formal educational settings in society. (Darling-Hammond, 2010, pp. 170–173; Niemi and Jakku-Sihvonen, 2006, pp. 41–42; Teacher Education in Finland, 2014; Westbury et. al, 2005, pp. 475–485.) Coping in the teaching profession nowadays presupposes collaboration with students, colleagues and multi-professional networks in school and society, both of which are in a constant state of change. All of these qualifications make the profession very challenging and its research-orientation a necessity.

The research-based teacher education presented in this article involves the idea that we guide and support student teachers to learn to *use* and *produce* research-based knowledge in their work. We focus on developing thinking processes and cognitive skills used in research, such as critical thinking, an investigative attitude toward the work and professional confidence. Educational theories, research methodologies and teaching practice integrated with the aforementioned play an important part in teacher education and are seen to promote teachers' professional growth. According to the teacher education curriculum at the University of Tampere (see Curricula Guides, School of Education 2012–2015) theoretical knowledge, experiential knowledge from teaching in schools and reflection on such knowledge serve the purpose of developing the student teachers' own *didactic/pedagogical in-practice theory* and thus guide them toward professional autonomy. The purpose is to teach student teachers to design, conduct and present research on education. In the teaching profession, they learn to give theoretical, research-based reasons for what they are doing and why and evaluate the consequences of their teaching and education, i.e. they become conscious of what they are doing in the classroom. It is believed that the advanced pedagogical thinking skills ensure that teachers master curriculum design, teaching and evaluation processes and develop themselves as teaching professionals. (Curricula Guides, School of Education 2012–2015.)

There are various methods developed to implement research-based teacher education in Finland. In our FL teacher education we use such “tools” as

Portfolio

Reflection

Integration (of theory and teaching practice in curriculum) and Inquiry

Dialogue (supervisory Discussions individually and in groups)

Experimenting at school (personal research projects based on teaching experiments).

Although all of these conceptual tools are discussed in this article, I will concentrate on describing our means of implementing research-based FL teacher education from two selected viewpoints: portfolio and experimenting, i.e. personal research projects.

3. Theoretical considerations underlying research-oriented FL teacher education

In this section, I discuss a few theoretical concepts that, in my opinion, speak in favour of the research-based approach and that have guided our research and development work in the FL- teacher education at the University of Tampere.

‘Socio-constructionism’ helps us comprehend and conceptualize how learning to be a teacher takes place. According to the theory of socio-constructionism, the world can be known only through the conceptual and linguistic structures of one's own culture, which is mediated to us by significant others. Learning is then social and the language and its concepts important, because it opens up the world to us and we shape our reality through social interaction and language. Consequently, learning takes place through social interaction and cooperation with others. (Berger and Luckman, 1966, p. 151.) All learning (also to become a teacher) is explorative, creating and restructuring conceptual and linguistic structures to change oneself, culture and society in a constant process. Such explorative learning shares the goal of the research process based on *‘sociocultural theory’*, the purpose of which according to Wertsch (1995, p. 56), is “to understand the relationship between human mental functioning, on the one hand, and cultural, historical, and institutional setting, on the other”. (See also Lantolf and Thorne, 2006.)

Essential in learning to be a teacher is the development of a teacher identity. ‘The

narrative approach helps us understand this process. A core argument of the narrative approach is that people constitute their identities through telling stories/narratives of themselves, their environments, their lives. Through narratives, people explore, create and re-create selfhoods, their identities. (Bruner, 2002, p. 85; see also Ropo and Huttunen 2013.) Developing one's teacher identity takes place through a similar research process. Making and responding to interviews, writing field notes or journals of one's observations, telling stories of one's experiences and interpreting them are typical methods of the narrative approach as well as methods of research-based teacher education. Stories told or written in a community interact and mix – they are interdiscursive and overlapping. (Cotterill and Letherby, 1993, p. 77; see also Ropo, 2009, pp. 142–143.) Thus, each development process in teacher education becomes collaborative, a mutually constructed story of the development of a student teacher, her or his peers, supervisors and significant others.

Managing in the teacher's profession today, in the Finnish education system in particular, presupposes 'autonomy' (Jakku-Sihvonen, 2006; Sahlberg, 2011; Teacher Education in Finland 2014). According to Jiménez, Lamb and Vieira (2008, p. 1), autonomy can be defined as “competence to develop as a self-determined, socially responsible and critically aware participant in (and beyond) educational environments, within a vision of education as (inter)personal empowerment and social transformation”. David Little (2001; 2004) states that learners should develop in themselves capacity – for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making and independent action (2001, p. 4). Kohonen (2007) presents characteristics of such education that promote growth toward autonomy. According to him learning to be a teacher is based on the student teacher's commitment and active knowledge construction process with others in various environments. It is cooperative and collaborative and thus best taking place through dialogue and reflective practices. The cognitive-emotional processes, such as thinking, memorizing, and managing emotions are important organizers of all of the tasks that we perform. They enable conscious planning, goal setting, sustaining future-oriented problem solving activities, monitoring, assessing and managing progress on learning, i.e. the skills that help student teachers toward autonomy and self-direction in studies, work and life. (Kohonen, 2007; see also, Kaikkonen and Kohonen, 2012.)

In Finland, the core goals for foreign language teaching are included in the concept of 'language education'. Language education covers the field of issues a learner faces when getting familiar with different languages. According to Kaikkonen (2004), it is associated with the development of the learner's language identity and plurilingualism. Essentially consisting

of the attribution of meanings to the world and its phenomena, language is seen as an inseparable part of an individual's existence in the world. The concepts of language, culture and identity are closely intertwined with each other. In FL teacher education, student teachers are encouraged to inquire into not only teaching and learning languages but also into more extensive issues, such as multicultural and/or intercultural education and human growth both as individuals and in communities. (Jaatinen, 2007, 2013; Kohonen et al., 2001; Kaikkonen, 2004; Kaikkonen and Kohonen, 2012; Kohonen, 2005; 2007; 2009; see also CEFR.)

The concepts 'socio-constructionism', 'sociocultural theory', 'narrative approach', 'teacher autonomy' and 'language education' work as signposts and guidelines in our FL teacher education. In the following two sections, I will discuss two important 'tools' with which student teachers of languages are guided and supported toward language educators and autonomous professionals. They are *portfolio work* and *experimenting*, i.e. *personal research projects*.

4. The portfolio in implementing research-based FL teacher education

Why a portfolio?

According to Jones and Shelton (2006, pp.18–19), "*Portfolios are rich, contextual, highly personalized documentaries of one's learning journey. They contain purposefully organised documentation that clearly demonstrates specific knowledge, skills, dispositions and accomplishments achieved over time. Portfolios represent connections made between actions and beliefs, thinking and doing, and evidence and criteria. They are a medium for reflection through which the builder constructs meaning, makes the learning process transparent and learning visible, crystallises insights, and anticipates future direction.*" Our application of portfolios corresponds to the definition by Jones and Shelton, which comprehensively covers the main processes of portfolio work. Our FL teacher education portfolios, combined with supervisory discussions, are used to save, guide, monitor and evaluate conceptions, actions and growth processes during student teachers' pedagogical studies. The student teachers collect and produce narrative material, which they reflect upon, analyze, evaluate, select, present and "publish" by providing well-grounded reasons and motives for their choices and actions. (Jaatinen, 2013.)

According to Niikko (2001) there are four types of portfolios in teacher education: a

collection of a student teacher's pieces of work - *a dossier*, a chronologically arranged collection of a student teacher's work to show her or his progress during the studies, her or his development – *a personal development portfolio* or *a process portfolio*, or a compilation or composition of the items that are to be used for evaluation – *an assessment portfolio*. At the end of the studies or when applying for a job, student teachers can produce a portfolio with which they are able to present their in-practice theories, show what their goals concerning teaching work are, what they are able to do (teacher competence), which skills they are good at, etc. and prove themselves with samples taken from their portfolios. Such a portfolio is called *a presentation portfolio*. (Niikko, 2001, pp. 12–19.)

The portfolio implementation in our FL teacher education is a combination of these four types. We emphasize student initiative, autonomy, personal development and individual choices (dossier, process portfolio). However, student teachers are required to produce a presentation portfolio that is needed for the final evaluation of their pedagogical studies (assessment portfolio, presentation portfolio). (Niikko, 2001, pp. 12–19.) In their discussion or dialogue with the university lecturer at the end of studies our student teachers are asked to select items/examples from a range of their completed work, interpret and assess their progress during their pedagogical studies, and illustrate their progress with samples from the portfolio. Such evaluation helps student teachers assess their own goals, their growth, strengths and weaknesses in becoming a FL teacher.

The portfolio is a pedagogical tool used during the student teachers' pedagogical studies. Through narrative writing, student teachers are able to express their personal voices and become heard by their supervisors and peers, i.e. other student teachers (see Bruner 1996, p.39). The portfolio teaches an approach of how to act as a teacher. It teaches student teachers important "methods" of how to work as a FL teacher, such as collecting (teaching) material, analyzing and classifying, evaluating and filing, monitoring and evaluating their work and development as a teacher, narrating, i.e. making their work visible and transparent to other people, and collaborating with other students and fellow workers. In the European context, both the European Language Portfolio and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages - the two documents that provide European language teachers with important guidelines for teaching - take for granted that FL teachers possess the abovementioned skills and qualities (CEFR, 2001; ELP, 2011).

Many recent studies have shown that newly qualified teachers need support and mentoring in the induction phase (Ruohotie-Lyhty, 2011). It is possible to alleviate their workload beforehand. For this purpose, the teacher student's portfolio contains a personal, in-practice theory, samples of different lesson plans, syllabus plans, tests, authentic assessment, plenty of teaching materials, reports, essays and articles on didactics and education, reflections of what to pay attention to in particular, photos, pictures, videos, CDs, games, i.e. whatever the student teacher has developed and collected during his or her pedagogical studies.

Making memories matter. The portfolio is also a personal memoir, personal memories of one's pedagogical studies, a certain special period in one's life with its people, events, etc. Memories are part of our identities and reflecting on them promotes lifelong learning and develops us as human beings (Ropo & Gustafsson, 2008, p. 52). In the Finnish education and degree system, the year of a teacher's pedagogical studies in the master's degree program is very different from the other years at the university. It is the first experience with the future work. For many, it is the year that changes and develops them the most as human beings and therefore, it is unique and worth filing in the portfolio.

Contents of the portfolio

The FL-student teachers' portfolios are typically thick and rich folders containing CDs, DVDs, digital items, or combinations of these. Individual and/or collaborative tasks and projects are open-ended. They consist of compulsory tasks such as

Learning assignments that integrate didactical studies/language education and teaching practice. They are given at the beginning of each period of teaching practice. The assignments are of such themes as analyzing curriculum thought, observing and internalizing student-centered activities, personal language learning stories, conceptions of man, learning and teaching, job descriptions of a FL teacher at different stages of the Finnish educational system, analyzing one's position with children and young people, in a student teacher group and in supervisory discussions, critical reading, experiences of creative activities and notions on inclusion in language class, etc.

Student teachers' own lessons (10 x 75 min.) during their teaching practice. Reported, reflected on and evaluated + documented lesson plans, and the materials they produced for each lesson + peer assessment and the supervising teacher's assessment.

Seminar paper based on the teaching experiment and other material from the personal research project.

Experiences and materials from the teaching practice outside university teacher training school.

Teacher's work at school (other than language lessons) documented and with personal reflective comments.

Report at the end of the first teaching practice which is based on inquiring into the student teacher's own work and progress at school (including self-evaluation and personal goals for the next semester).

Reflective essay at the end of the pedagogical studies which is based on inquiry into the student teacher's own work and progress at school (including self-evaluation and his/her own teaching philosophy/in-practice theory at the end of the pedagogical studies).

Follow-up discussions, articles, etc. concerning school and educational issues in the Finnish society and globally through different media.

Table of contents (portfolio must be organized).

Name for the portfolio showing the personal nature of the portfolio and describing the process of becoming a teacher.

The FL student teacher's portfolio also consists of individually chosen and/or optional tasks such as

Writing a blog, discussing and commenting on other student teachers' blogs.

Everything that a student her-/himself wants to file, save, remember, utilize, exploit e.g. good and "bad" materials, drafts, plans, brochures on study visits, etc.

Good ideas and thoughts, significant experiences and things learned from various environments and discussions.

Feelings and sensations, observations and impressions.

Everything that demonstrates the student teacher's own interests and her/his teaching philosophy/in-practice theory.

Visualization, aesthetics, and creativity, pictures, photos, videos, colors, fonts, etc.

Various written and oral open-ended narrative assignments are used to help student teachers guide, control and evaluate their development in becoming FL teachers. Some assignments are personal but many require reflection in groups or with a supervisor. Thus, the portfolio can be understood as the production of texts and assignments, individually and collaboratively, in various combinations of students, teachers and significant others.

The portfolio in use

The compiled material in portfolios can be exploited in various ways. They are considered the sole property of each student teacher; it is not returned (as such) to be evaluated or marked. Students use their portfolio to reflect on their learning, the development

of their teacher identity and their feelings and experiences; they monitor and develop themselves, their studies and teaching practice. The portfolio is a story or stories (narratives) about the student teacher. It is an autobiographical source for setting personal goals during and at the end of the studies. The portfolio is a way for student teachers to acquire material needed during supervisory, evaluation and feedback discussions with the university lecturer(s) and supervising teachers at the student teaching school. Consisting of various types of autobiographical and narrative texts, the portfolio is a rich source for writing reports and reflective essays during pedagogical studies. The student teachers are encouraged and guided to refer to their portfolio regularly, during and between the periods of teaching practice and at the end of the pedagogical studies in particular. The portfolio is also used for collecting samples of one's work and progress for the benefit of other student teachers and for sharing with peers what each of the student teachers has developed and learned. At the end of the pedagogical studies, the portfolio is used to compile a presentation for evaluation and to apply for a teaching job, to move on into the working world.

Narrative writing through different types of assignments included in the portfolio is a good way to enhance and develop teacher identity. In their writings, student teachers transform experiences into themes and subjects that afterwards can be discussed and reflected upon together. When writing about their experiences, the student teachers look at themselves "from a distance"; interpret, analyze and thus, clarify their conceptions of themselves, their teacher identities. They constitute themselves as teachers, and therefore their readiness to encounter other teachers, students and their parents, etc. Both free-form and guided writing about their experiences is a form of self-inquiry. Such writing develops their ability to see and understand themselves and their actions better. (Jaatinen, 2007, pp. 68–69.). Thus narrative writing becomes as van Manen (1989, p. 238) has written, "[...] a kind of self-making or forming. To write is to measure the depth of things, as well to come to a sense of one's own depth."

Integrating curriculum through the portfolio and reflection

A large and vital part of teachers' pedagogical studies is the teaching practice, with a group of professional teachers at the student teaching school and a lecturer from the university as supervisors. The theoretical studies in the university and the teaching practice in school are organized in short periods and intervals in the curriculum. The purpose of this so-called "zip"

principle is to help student teachers and their supervising teachers benefit from the theoretical studies in teaching practice and vice versa, to integrate theory and practice. The contents and the program of the teaching practice are agreed upon in each student's individual study plan. The plan is in a constant process of evaluation and adjustment during the students' teaching practice by means of their personal portfolio, supervisory discussions and collaboration. Student teachers use personal development portfolios to save, guide, monitor and evaluate their experiences and growth processes, and to integrate them with theoretical conceptions during the pedagogical studies as Figure 1 below shows (Jaatinen, 2013, p. 114; see also Fernsten and Fernsten, 2005).

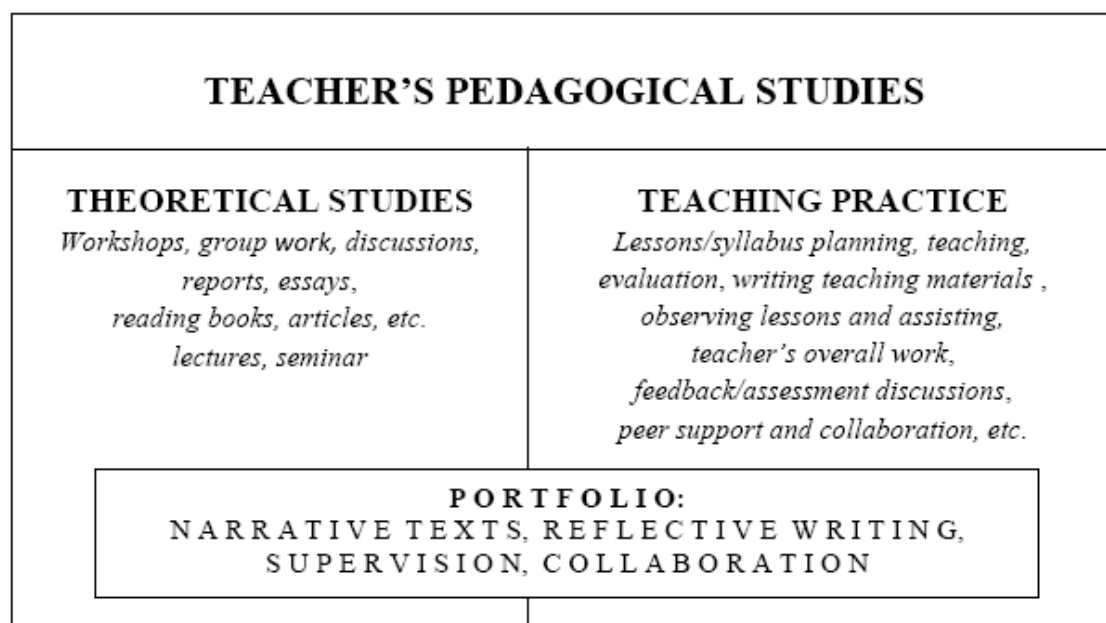


Figure 1. Portfolio integrating theoretical studies and teaching practice

Reflection included in the portfolio work plays a significant role in the process described above. It enables understanding through the transformation of experience by constructing a bridge between practical experiences and theoretical knowledge in learning situations. It enables student teachers to see themselves anew. (See van Manen, 1995.) Student teachers must learn to pose relevant questions and goals, act to reach the goals, reflect on themselves and their daily actions at school and develop their work based on that. To succeed in this process of teacher education, student teachers need skills in storing or recording what they have faced, acted, experienced and understood, as well as skills in dealing with the material and drawing conclusions. They have to act and experiment, observe and record the expe-

rienced, reflect and conceptualize it (see Dewey, 1938; Kolb, 1984; Schön, 1983), and, of course, share the entire process with their peers and teachers. Consequently, the significance of the portfolio and reflection on learning to be a teacher lies in the interaction and integration processes of theoretical and experiential knowledge.

5. Personal research projects in implementing research-based FL teacher education

Why inquiry and experimenting?

As stated earlier in this article, teachers must be capable of working autonomously in the Finnish educational system. Finnish teachers are not inspected or controlled, they are trusted (Sahlberg, 2011; Teacher Education in Finland, 2014). They must participate in writing a school-specific curriculum, decide what materials and methods they use, plan and carry out curriculum-based evaluation, and so on. In the changing circumstances of school and society, they therefore have to possess capacity for decision-making on their own and with their colleagues (Jiménez, Lamb and Vieira, 2008; Little, 2001; 2004). All of this makes their position autonomous but also demanding. Our opinion is that without a research-oriented approach, coping and succeeding in the teaching profession in today's Finnish society is difficult. Therefore, inquiry is an integral part of the entire educational process in the pedagogical studies; the conceptions of the human being, learning and knowledge are critically reviewed and discussed to provide student teachers with useful ingredients to construct their own professional growth. The art of experimenting new things in teaching provides student teachers with a significant and useful tool for continuously developing themselves as teachers. We believe that teachers who are willing and capable of enhancing their knowledge and professional competence also take into account the students' needs as well as the demands that arise from changes in society. (Curricula Guides, School of Education 2012–2015; Sahlberg, 2011, p. 83).

Student teachers as researchers

Since the core prerequisite for implementing research orientation in teacher education is the integration of theoretical knowledge with pre-service experiences from school, we have

included a new study unit in our teacher education program. In it, student teachers carry out personal research projects during their teaching practice at school, which are combined with a research-oriented dialogue with those who participate in the program. In the process, the student teachers are seen as developers in teaching and education together with their supervising teachers and university lecturer. This requires respect for the uniqueness of every participant and everyone's differing views as well as commitment to research, research-oriented dialogue and collaboration.

The personal research projects are a part of the course called *Teacher as a Researcher* (5 ECTS) and are part of the student teachers' master's studies. The responsibility for implementing the course lies with both the university lecturer and the supervising teachers at school. The description and competence-based objectives of the course in the curriculum are as follows:

The course emphasizes the research manner in teachers' work. The aim is to support both a subject teacher's identity development and understanding of the continuum between pre- and in-service education. The course consists of a seminar (2 ECTS) and teaching practice emphasizing experimentation (3 ECTS). Students research, develop and practice. They implement a practical teaching experiment or development project. Thus, they acquire abilities to develop themselves as teachers, their teaching and school work.

The objective of the course is to provide student teachers with

- ability to develop their teachership and act as teachers who research and develop their work.
- understanding that the school is a learning and developing organization and the abilities to participate in developing the curriculum and ordinary development projects of a school.
- competence in carrying out a research-oriented teaching experiment, designing and implementing a small-scale teaching experiment or development project, reporting on its results and evaluating the adequacy of their reasoning and conclusions.
- skills to analyze and understand the interaction of theory and practice in teaching and education.
- skills in designing and implementing teaching that promotes human growth.
- understanding of the diversity and individuality of learners as a resource in teaching and education and skills in differentiating teaching.
- ability to engage in collegial support and participate in multi-professional collaboration.
- understanding of the importance of the continuum between pre- and in-service education in becoming professionals and being aware of the options for continuing education in their field.
- interest in following discussions of current interest in education and the ability to evaluate their actions and that of their community in relation to the discussions.

(Curricula Guides, School of Education 2012–2015.)

The student teachers themselves explicate the development tasks or problems for their

personal research projects. Although the purpose is also to develop the practical processes of teaching and education in school in general, the emphasis is on each student teacher's development. The purpose is above all to empower the student teachers' autonomous action during their pedagogical studies and also to develop language education in school in collaboration with them, as well as to learn from each other.

Integrating curriculum through personal research projects

In our FL teacher education, we decided to integrate the *Teacher as a Researcher* (5 ECTS) course with three other courses into one module (20 ECTS in total) to expand the research orientation to cover the entire learning process during one semester. Consequently, the course is not a distinct or isolated course, but combined with the courses *Subject Didactics* (workshops), *Subject Didactic Research* (lectures and seminar) and *Advanced Teaching Practice* (in school). The four courses form one process in which the student teachers are engaged during the final period (semester) of their pedagogical studies before receiving teacher qualification. Figure 2 shows the order and core contents of the integrated process.

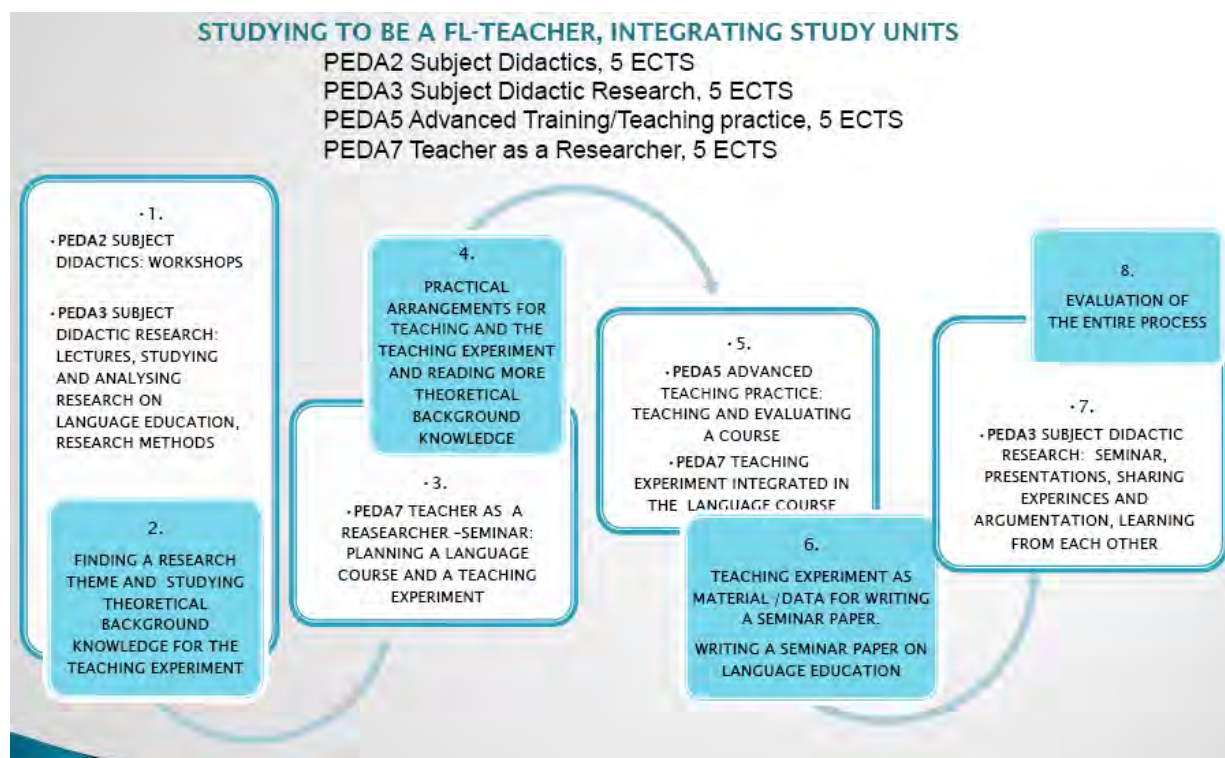


Figure 2. Studying to be a FL teacher, *Teacher as a Researcher*

The white blocks in Figure 2 illustrate the courses and the activities contained in them, the shadowed blocks describe the ways in which the courses are linked to each other, and the arrows show the direction in which the entire process progresses. The contents and activities of the courses are, of course, partially overlapping. The evaluation of the process is carried out during the process, although the final evaluation is implemented at the end of the module as shown in the figure. Implementation and evaluation of the module are based on the joint responsibility and collaboration of the university lecturer in language education, the supervising teachers at school and the student teachers, i.e. their collaboration and work in teams.

6. Discussion

In this article I have discussed two methodological implementations in research-based teacher education: portfolio and experimenting, i.e. personal research projects. They are introduced in this article as methods of guiding student teachers toward autonomy, developing foreign language teaching in school and integrating the teacher education curriculum. Although our experiments have shown a great deal of strengths in FL teacher education, we are very much aware of the needs to develop and further improve our practices.

Portfolios in FL teacher education consist of numerous texts and assignments being private or semiprivate sources for inquiry, reflection and discussion and showing the student teachers' development in in-practice theory and competence as a FL teacher. The portfolio process is supported by supervisory discussions and collaboration with the student teacher's supervisory teacher at the teacher training school, the other student teachers in the student's supervisory group, and the supervising lecturer in language education at the university. Portfolio work, although considered as a precious tool, may also become tedious and time-consuming. Writing, reflecting and self-assessment can take endless time. Difficult, even sensitive aspects of personality and relationships in teaching practice may arise, and therefore a functional supervisory relationship with student teachers and mutual trust are necessary, not to mention enough time and possibilities for face-to-face discussions. Reading portfolio texts is a challenge in itself. Interpreting and reacting to these texts is delicate and demands the reader's thorough self-inquiry and ethics of readership.

The purpose of the personal research projects is to empower the student teachers' autonomy during and after their pedagogical studies and to develop language education in

school in collaboration, as well as to learn from each other. The student teachers are seen as developers in teaching and education together with their supervising teachers and university lecturer. This requires respect for the uniqueness of every participant and everyone's differing views as well as commitment to research, research-oriented dialogue and collaboration, which, of course, is time-consuming, requiring a great deal of arrangements based on the common will and flexibility of the staff in both organizations, in the school and university.

The two teacher education processes presented here, portfolio and personal research projects, integrate the FL teacher educational curriculum. In addition, they add to the understanding of how research-based teacher education can be implemented in practice. Utilizing portfolios in teacher education and involving student teachers in real research and development projects in school are considered ways to guide student teachers toward becoming autonomous professionals and language educators who are capable of developing themselves and their teaching in a changing school and society.

I have discussed both portfolios and personal research projects more thoroughly in separate articles (Jaatinen 2013; 2014). The text of the current article consists of the contents and sections of both of them and for that reason may seem somewhat fragmentary, disconnected and even superficial to the reader. Therefore, if the portfolio and personal research projects are of greater interest, I warmly recommend reading the two original articles to gain a more comprehensive view of our development work in the FL teacher education at the University of Tampere, Finland.

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Emerging Self Identities: Foreign Language Learning, Experiential Profile, and Emotions

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Abstract

Grounded in social constructivism and poststructuralist theory, this study explores identity in relation to the learning of English in a foreign language context, namely, Japanese university students studying English in Japan. The research problematizes the current dominant emphasis on the social dimension of identity in Applied Linguistics, and calls for more focus on the psychologically-oriented aspects of the language learner's identity. Drawing on the concept of possible selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986) with the theories of situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and imagined communities (Anderson, 1991; Norton, 2000) as its main frameworks, the study proposes ways to close the gap between the social and the psychological dimensions of identity construction. In particular, Dörnyei's notion of ideal L2 self (2009) is employed to examine how learners in this context construct their identity in the present through imagining their future selves participating in communities of English users and how emotions are implicated in the process.

Introduction

The increasing interest among theorists and practitioners to examine the relationship between language acquisition and identity from a sociocultural perspective stems largely from what Block (2003) identifies as the social turn in second language acquisition (SLA). This phenomenon has inevitably created opportunities to move beyond the essentialist view of identities as static, unitary and fixed, towards a more social constructivist and poststructuralist understanding where identities are viewed as multifaceted, fluid, and emerging in interactions with others in a range of contexts (Block, 2007; Norton 2000, 2013; Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2003). However, I problematize the current dominant emphasis on the social dimension of the poststructuralist understanding, and call for a more balanced approach between the social domain and the psychologically-oriented aspects of a language learner's identity. I maintain that identities are not merely products of one's response to the environment, but that they are conditioned by and from what the individual brings into their

interactions within a certain discourse. Grounded in the concept of situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and imagined communities (Anderson, 1991; Norton, 2000), the study explores ways to close the gap between the social and the psychological dimensions of identity construction by focusing on emotions and the experiential profile of the learners. In particular, I draw on Dörnyei's notion of the Ideal Second Language (L2) self (2009) to examine how learners in this context construct their identity through imagining their future selves participating in communities of English users and how emotions are implicated in the process. Past studies have centered mainly on what kind of identities develop, but in this study, I focus on how and why, and in what contexts the students construct their identities, and how the affective dimensions are implicated in this process. I approach this subject by taking a participant-relevant perspective in the form of a narrative where the aim is to investigate learners' language experiences from their perspective (Casanave, 2009). It traces the identity development of learners studying English at a liberal arts college in Tokyo by obtaining first-hand accounts of their language learning experiences mainly through talks with the participants. The study reports how learning a language can often turn into subjective experiences by focusing on the following three research areas (Table 1) that were based on the findings of the pilot study:

Table 1 Research Inquiries

<p>1) The learners and their past English language learning experience.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What are their English language learning experiences? ● What kind of affective relationship have learners formed in the process of their learning? ● How do they make sense of these experiences in descriptive and evaluative terms?
<p>The learners' relationships with and orientations to English.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● How do learners see the English language (e.g. as language of work; as language of leisure)? ● Do learners see themselves as learners of the language or users or both? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What kind of affective state do learners ascribe to learning English
<p>The learners views of themselves as English users in the past, present and future context.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● How do learners view themselves as English users over time and in different contexts? ● What are the affective factors that have shaped their views?

These three broad areas of inquiry serve as guidelines to address the main question of this study: how and in what ways is the affective dimension implicated in the construction of the identity of a language learner?

Overview of Theoretical Frameworks

Situated learning, imagined communities and the Ideal L2 self

The view of learning a language as a social phenomenon acknowledges that learning a language is not merely a process of acquiring knowledge, but that it often involves a discursive reconfiguration of one's identity (e.g. Lantolf, 2000; Pellegrino, 2005). A sense of self is closely tied with language learning where learning is contingent on the interplay of various forces that emerge from the individuals themselves as well as from their external framework.

Learning understood in terms of identification and participation is central to Lave and Wenger's (1991) concept of situated learning. Learning occurs in relation to the community of practice whereby learners gradually shift from a legitimate peripheral position towards a more fuller participation through aligning practices with those who are considered as experts in that particular community of practice. Here, with new forms of participation comes a transformed identity.

Having its roots in the workplace, applications of the theory of situated learning and community of practice in educational settings have apparently not come without criticism (Jewson, 2007). One of the notable arguments has been to enrich the concept of community by extending the idea of community especially with reference to language learning in a foreign language context (Haneda, 2006). Kanno and Norton's (2003) construct of imagined community allows us to extend the idea of community both spatially and temporally. The central tenet here is how imagination mediates agency in constructing learners' identities as learners strive to come in alignment with their imagined communities. As Dörnyei succinctly explains the crucial aspect here is that imagined communities are "constructed by a combination of personal experiences and knowledge (derived from the past) with imagined elements related to the future" (2005: 98). Currently there is a growing body of studies that have explored how future visions of learners participating in imagined communities can have considerable influence on learners' learning trajectories (e.g. Murphey & Arao, 2001; Ryan, 2006). However, few studies have focused on the discursive space that is created as an individual moves towards his/her attempt in coming to alignment with one's imagined

communities, and how emotions¹ and the experiential are intertwined in the process. For this purpose, I now turn to another complementary source to this study, the Ideal L2 self as proposed in Dörnyei's theory of the L2 Motivational Self System.

Dörnyei's L2 Motivational System (2009) is based on the theoretical notion of possible selves introduced by Markus and Nurius (1986) and Higgins (1987) in the field of psychology. It is composed of three dimensions, the Ideal L2 self, the Ought-to L2 self, and the L2 Learning Experience. The Ideal L2 self is the image of who we wish to become; the Ought-to L2 self is the "attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcomes" (2009: 29); and, finally, the L2 Learning Experience relates to motives generated in the learning environment. By imagining a desired future self, visions of their ideal self images are realized by alignment to their aspired selves. An interesting aspect to this research is how emotion appears to be a critical component in understanding the motivational properties of the possible L2 selves. For instance, Dörnyei postulates that one's motivation to learn a language stems out of the discrepancies between one's current L2 self and the future L2 self that one aspires to achieve. The discomfort caused as a result of the gap forces an individual to take action in order to reduce that feeling of discomfort.

However, how do learners form their ideal self in the first place? Do all learners possess images of their Ideal L2 self? Can learners' future images change over time? If so, why? Is there a learning environment conducive to the formation of ideal possible selves? How are emotions and the experiential profile factored into the process?

To explore these questions, I underscore the relevance of the third component, the L2 Learning Experience. In my view, what occurs in this discursive space is the most distinctive feature of Dörnyei's L2 Motivational System (2009). The L2 Learning Experience is concerned with the actual learning process (e.g. positive learning histories, language related enjoyment or liking, personal satisfaction, language learning activities inside or outside of the classroom, etc.). It is based on the premise that a learner's initial desire or motivation "to learn a language does not come from internally or externally generated self images, but rather from successful engagement with the actual learning process" (Dörnyei 2009: 29). This requires a more detailed examination of this

¹ Drawing on researchers such as Pavlenko (2005, 2013) or Imai (2010), „emotions“ are understood in this study as a social construct that can mediate language learning and participation in diverse ways.

component since it will be useful in offering an account of what actually takes place in the discursive space as learners strive towards their Ideal L2 selves as well as providing us with helpful insights as to how the emotional dimension could be implicated in the process of the formation of the self. This study will show how an individual's past L2 learning experience to date can factor into their short or long term perspective in their language learning processes.

The Context

Six students, all volunteers, going through their first year of their two-year English language curriculum participated in the study (Table 2). The research site, a private university located in the suburbs of Tokyo, aims to build a global community where a diversity of people from various ethnic and religious backgrounds gather together. This institution is also famous for its bilingual identity, and, in Japan, the graduates and alumni are regarded by the general public as being fluent and well-versed in the English speaking language and culture. English is used on a daily basis as a means of communication not only in classes, but also in the daily lives of the students and faculty alike.

The university has several college-wide courses that are required components for all students, and the English Language Program (ELP) is one of them. Students, for whom English is a second language, must study English intensively for the first two years. The main focus of the program is designed to teach English for academic purposes with a focus on critical thinking. The curriculum is further complemented by a study abroad program referred to as the Study English Abroad (SEA) Program. The first and second year students are able to take part in the six-week program during the summer break at various universities located in the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, New Zealand and Australia.

Table 2 Participants' profiles (names are pseudonyms)

Name (F=Female M=Male)	Past English Language Learning Experiences	Experiences Abroad Episodes before college
Sayaka (F)	From Pre-K	Yes (two week study abroad program)
Maki (F)	From Pre-K	Yes (international school in Bangladesh for three years)
Megumi (F)	From Pre-K	No
Yui (F)	From elementary school	No
Hinako (F)	From junior high school	No
Takehiro (M)	From junior high school	Yes (two week study abroad program)

The Study

Methodology: Narratives

The nature of my research inquiry requires me to examine the experiences of my participants and listen to their voices from their perspective. This called for a methodology that would allow me to be sensitive to the learners' account of their experience. A narrative approach appeared to be particularly suited to probe into the inner complexities of my research participants. Following Bruner (1990) and Clandinin & Connelly (2000), I understand narratives are fundamentally stories of experiences. In the experience-centered approach, narratives are the means of human sense-making: human beings create meaning from their experiences both individually and socially. Life is storied in a way that people make sense of who they are and others are as they interpret their past in terms of their current lives and self as well as their future lives. Most importantly though is the fact that narratives are not only about people telling their past experience, but also how individuals understand those experiences, and how they ascribe meanings to those actions (Clandinin, 2007). Understanding narrative as experience also implies that narratives are simply individual productions, but also include a social dimension as well. Personal experiences need to be grounded in the light of the participants' wider social and historical context (Riessman, 2008).

Data collection design and methods

The principle way of collecting the main data was via a series of interviews with my participants over a period of approximately one year. The data are complemented by other tools such as the participants' weekly reflections, and weekly e-mail exchanges

during their six week study abroad program during the summer. My reasons for opting to focus on oral interviews was because my participants' descriptions of their language learning trajectory were not only based on retrospective after-the-fact accounts, but also their ongoing experiences as they took part in their university's first year English language program. The research design was thus ongoing which permitted me to evaluate and adjust the tactics during the months in which the fieldwork was carried out.

The form of interviews employed in this study is semi-structured and the language used in conducting the interviews was Japanese. The participants were given choices, but none opted for English. All of the interviews were audio-taped and transcribed in their entirety using a simplified transcription style. In terms of practicality, translations from Japanese to English were prepared for selected sections during the course of the analysis. The transcripts were translated by the researcher. In order to increase accuracy, these transcriptions were reviewed and cross-checked by a bilingual colleague for any errors or omissions. Discrepancies were discussed, and a more accurate translation was presented as the final product.

Data Analysis

In analyzing data, the common trend in much of the recent narrative based research is its heavy reliance on thematic analysis. Critics such as Pavlenko (2007) point out the absence of transparency and rigor in analyzing narratives by presenting major problems that appear to dominate the thematic approach to narrative analysis. On the other hand, as Riessman (2008) forcefully contests, there is a general misconception that the thematic approach appears to be rather simple, intuitive and straightforward. Using Riessman's (2008) typology of four different ways of dealing with narrative analysis (i.e., thematic analysis, structural analysis, dialogic/performative analysis, and visual analysis), Block (2009) contends that there is a need to "negotiate an appropriation of Riessman's thematic and structural approach as they move towards a dialogic/performative approach" (2009: 342). It is necessary to examine what is said against how participants position themselves and how they are positioned in the course of interaction, which should then be considered at a broader level where the what is related to larger social constructs such as identities or social groups (Block, 2009). For this purpose, I found it helpful to combine Riessman's approach to narrative analysis with Ollerenshaw and Creswell's Three-Dimensional Space Narrative Structure (2002), and developed a six-step procedure for analysis (Miyahara, 2012; 2014). The guiding principle throughout is that data is a product of interaction between the participants and

me, their interlocutors, or the social milieu. The process presented here did not always occur in a linear fashion as the steps overlap. Quite often I found myself moving back and forth in a cyclical manner.

Findings and Discussion: Weaving the Threads Together

In this section, I first present an overview of the stories of the participants in line with the three core questions that address the overarching question of this study mentioned earlier.

While the individual's learning trajectory of each of the six participants was unique, three distinct patterns emerged in the way that their past experiences and, in some cases, the future visions of themselves interacted with their current learning environment that influenced the formation of their Ideal L2 selves:

Pattern 1: Learners who have already established their Ideal L2 self prior to entering college (Sayaka and Yui).

Pattern 2: Learners who formed their Ideal L2 self in their new college environment (Megumi and Maki)

Pattern 3: Learners who were not able to generate a substantial image of their Ideal L2 self prior to entering college nor in their new English mediated learning environment (Hinako and Takehiro)

In what follows, I attempt to weave together the main findings that emerged in the course of this research. I will discuss the stories of my participants that appear to exhibit similar themes and show how their narratives contribute to the formulation of responses to the three areas of inquiry guiding this research.

Learners' past English learning experience

The six diagrams that follow attempt to highlight the significance of how past language learning experiences factor in with their present learning environment to authenticate, reinforce, transform, develop or generate images of the learners' future selves. In general, one's past learning has been considered to be an influential factor in one's learning process, but there has been little research done as to how, why and in what manner past learning impacts on language learning as a whole.

Sayaka's and Maki's stories:

Figures 1 and 2 exemplify Sayaka's and Maki's stories in terms of their Ideal L2 selves. Both Sayaka and Maki had clear visions of becoming active participants in an international community of English speakers prior to entering college that were created largely by what their contextual resources, particularly their immediate family background and their educational resources offered them.

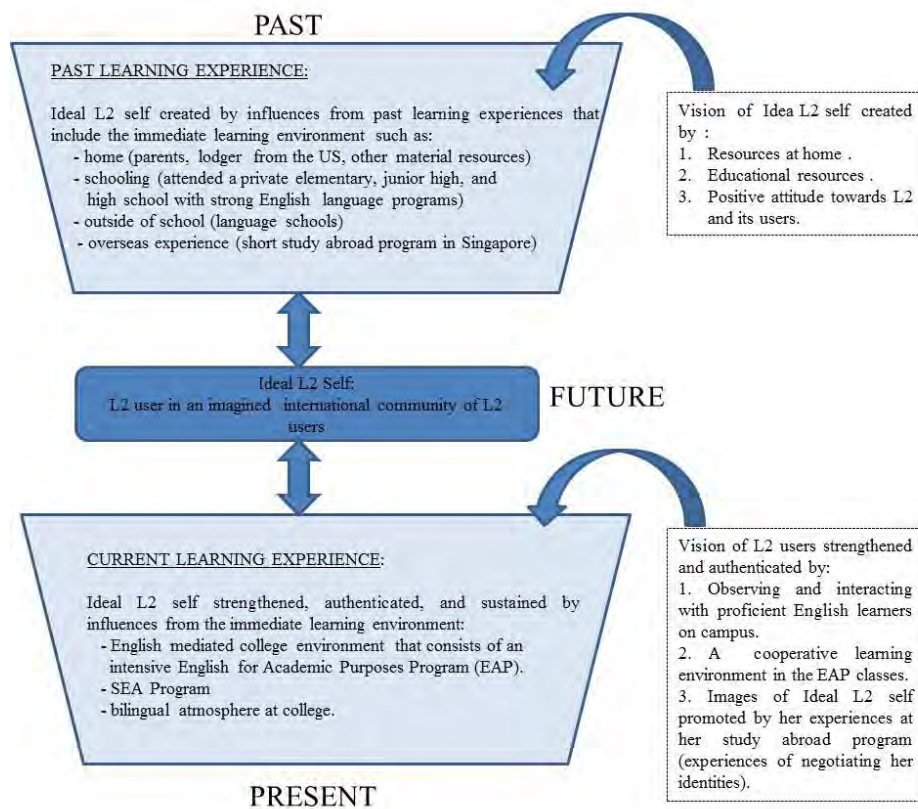


Figure 1: Sayaka's Story

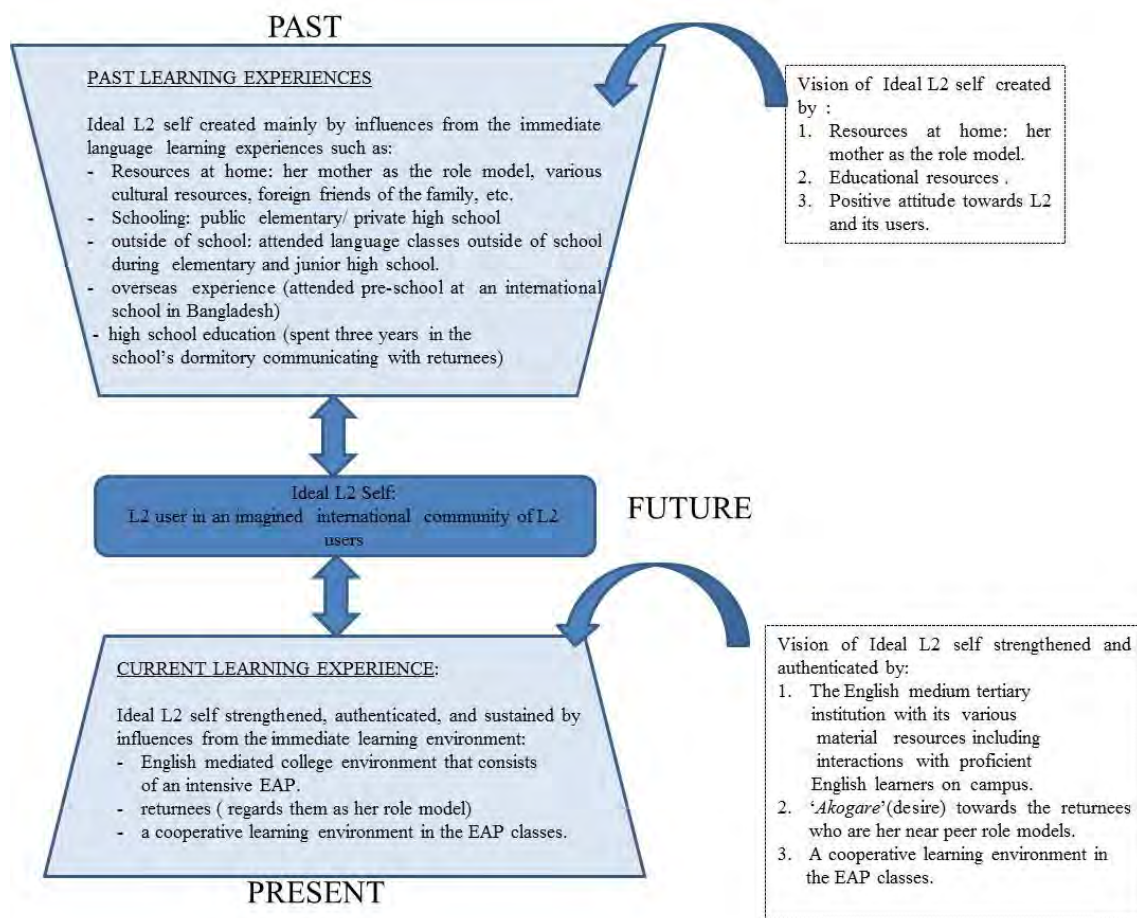


Figure 2 Maki's Story

However, it is necessary for individuals to strengthen the visions of their successful L2 selves as realistic and attainable in order to activate the desired self and also for the future self to serve as an impetus for learning. The English-medium tertiary institution had no doubt contributed to sharpening the visions of Sayaka's and Maki's Ideal L2 selves (Excerpt 1), but the affordances and the resources that were provided to substantiate or personalize their possible selves were quite different.

Excerpt 1

With foreign students coming in from various countries, on campus, I could talk to them in English. I really felt that here I am, using English! It was a great sense of accomplishment! (Maki)

For instance, in Sayaka's case, the bilingual and bicultural learning environment at college had strengthened her vision of her Ideal L2 self, but nevertheless, on several

occasions, she developed ambivalent feelings towards her language learning in her new surroundings. The most prominent examples are Sayaka's experiences of setbacks during her six-week summer study abroad program when her identity clashed with her Columbian peers. However, she turned linguistic constraints into a facilitative learning environment by revealing her agency (Excerpt 2). In an attempt to negotiate her position in class with her Columbian peers, she relied on her Japanese identity. By drawing on her personal experiences of the Japanese culture, she tried to open and maintain a conversation with her peers during breaks and after classes. The rapport that she was able to build with her peers contributed to creating a favorable position in the classroom.

Excerpt 2

I talked to them outside of class. I knew that if the topic was different I could express myself, so we talked about Japan. You know, Japanese customs and food. I wanted to be acknowledged and accepted by them. I didn't want them to think I was an invalid with nothing to say. We got along very well. I thought this made a difference in class. They started to ask me questions in group discussions. I was happy. Even after returning to Japan, I communicate with them through Facebook or emails. (Sayaka)

A crucial feature of Sayaka's episode above is the link she makes to her identity and to her emotional disposition. Her story is a forceful example that illustrates the interrelationship between emotions and identity in the formation of her Ideal L2 self. It shows how both positive and negative emotions can contribute to forming learners' future selves. In other words, not only do positive emotions impel learners to take actions, but also negative emotional experiences such as frustration could become psychological resources for development.

As for Maki, the conception of her Ideal L2 self as a competent English user in an international community was also sharpened by her new environment. Maki actively engaged with her new learning context that provided abundant social learning resources (e.g. overseas students, returnees, and proficient language users). Providing models for learners to emulate is an effective way to authenticate or substantiate their future possible selves (Higgins, 1998). The returnees she met on campus were very influential near peer role models (Murphey & Arao, 2001) who contributed to the co-construction of Maki's visions of her future desired self (Excerpt 3). This is a vibrant example where exposure to English from an early age and meaningful interactions in an English-using environment developed at the interface of the past and present allowed her to authenticate her future possible self.

Excerpt 3

I have a strong *akogare* (desire) (Piller & Takahashi 2006) for English, and the returnees. I see them talk in English like native speakers on the trains and in town. I tried to mimic their pronunciations. They are cool! I try to even dress and act like them sometimes. ... I want to major in international studies. I am particularly interested in development work for NGO, and perhaps, someday, hope to go to developing countries to help out as my mother does. (Maki)

Megumi's and Yui's Stories

Meanwhile, by focusing on the stories of Megumi and Yui, we witness how they generate or develop their future visions of their desired L2 self. The following two diagrams of their learning trajectories, Figures 3 and 4, represent how past learning experiences build up to create images of a desired future self. Here, again we observe how the past could function as an impetus for the present and future.

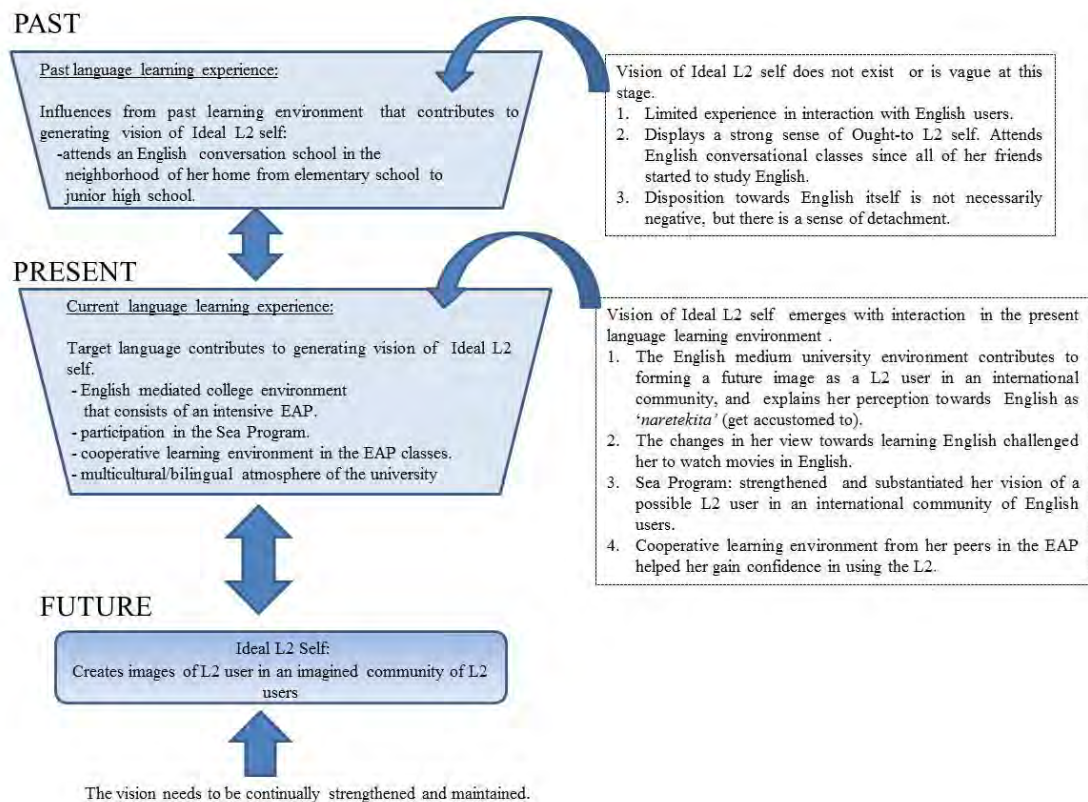


Figure 3 Megumi's Story

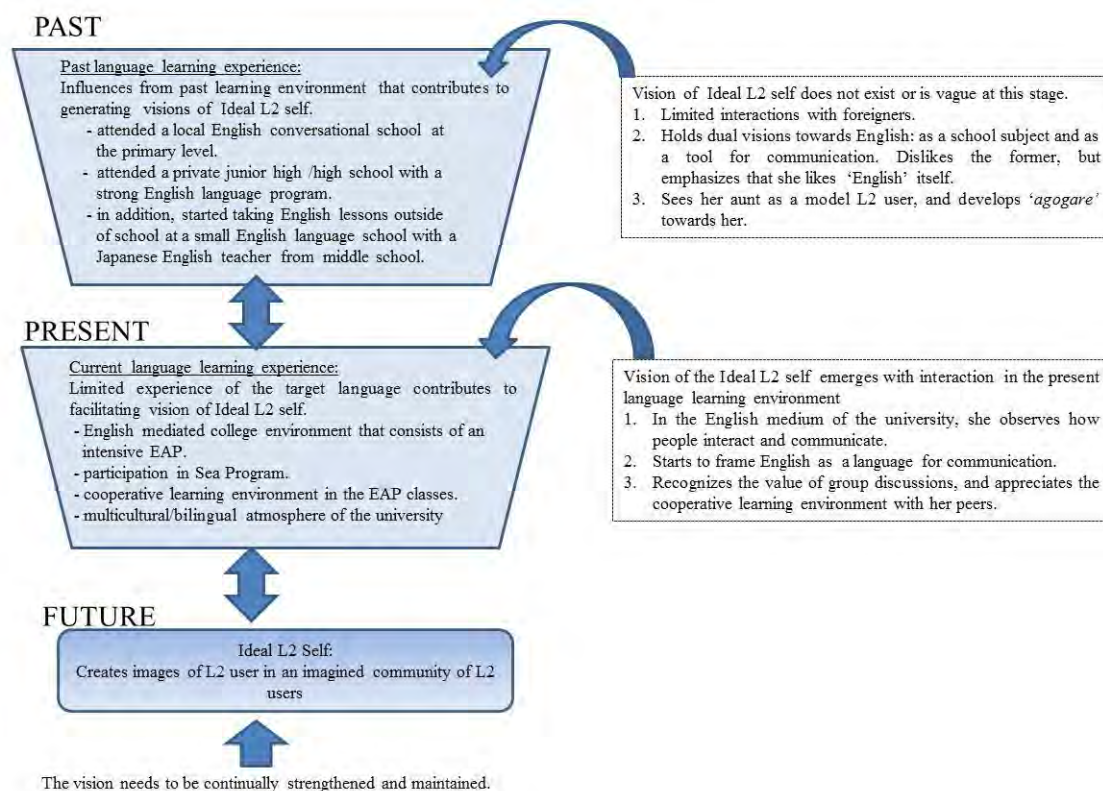


Figure 4 Yui's Story

Like Sayaka and Maki, both Megumi and Yui had received early English education by attending classes at local English conversation schools. However, there is an overall tone of detachment as Megumi and Yui talk about their English learning experiences. For instance, they started to learn English at private language schools largely in line with the vast majority of their friends. The fear of being left out by their peers appears to have threatened them (Excerpt 4). There is a strong sense of obligation to study English for both participants here as they are told, especially by their parents, that English will be an effective instrumental tool for their future life.

Excerpt 4:

A foreigner would come to our pre-school and we would sing songs and play games. Learn words by repeating after the teacher like „fish, fish, fish“. I don't think I could speak English, but that was OK for me. I just wanted to be there because it was a way to be with my friends. We all took the same English lessons. (Megumi)

However, a major transformation towards their learning occurs when they become immersed in the English-medium university environment. The presence of returnees and the international students provided ample opportunities for them to interact in a

meaningful manner with their peers and teachers. In the bilingual and multicultural learning environment of this institution, Megumi and Yui gradually start to perceive themselves as English users. It is also possible that this new environment revived the enjoyable memories of using English that they had previously experienced outside of their formal school contexts. In particular, Megumi's developing sense of affinity towards English and learning English as well as her increased perception of herself as an English user made her more agentive in her behavior. This is exemplified by the fact that she starts to challenge herself by watching foreign movies in English, and applying for the SEA Program (Excerpt 5).

Excerpt 5

I am trying to watch foreign movies without subtitles. I'm sort of interested in acting, so it's also good for my acting. I think watching American movies is good for language learning. You watch it many times, and after a while, you start to feel you are a part of it. ... My first month here has prompted me to apply for SEA Program. (Megumi)

As for Yui, the new learning environment has enabled her to consolidate the image of her English-using self. This increased sense of herself as an English user in a bilingual and multicultural context has enabled her to become more tolerant of her perceived limited English, and she feels that she is now able to contribute more to class discussions (Excerpt 6). By reframing her perception of herself as a English-user, Yui is able to interpret her past learning experiences and find potential abilities with and uses of English in the future.

Excerpt 6

It was a surprise to find out that there are a lot of variations in English. When you listen to overseas students talking to each other or amongst themselves, there are different kinds of pronunciation. But the most interesting point for me was it was OK – fine to have a different pronunciation. Communicating was more important than speaking with native like pronunciation. (Yui)

Hinako's and Takehiro's stories

At the opposite end of the spectrum are the stories of Hinako and Takehiro. Figures 5 and 6 respectively, outline Hinako's and Takehiro's learning trajectories. Contrary to Sayaka and Maki, they lacked any clear visions of their future L2 selves prior to entering college, and more importantly, forming their desired L2 self did not come as easily as it did for Megumi and Yui.

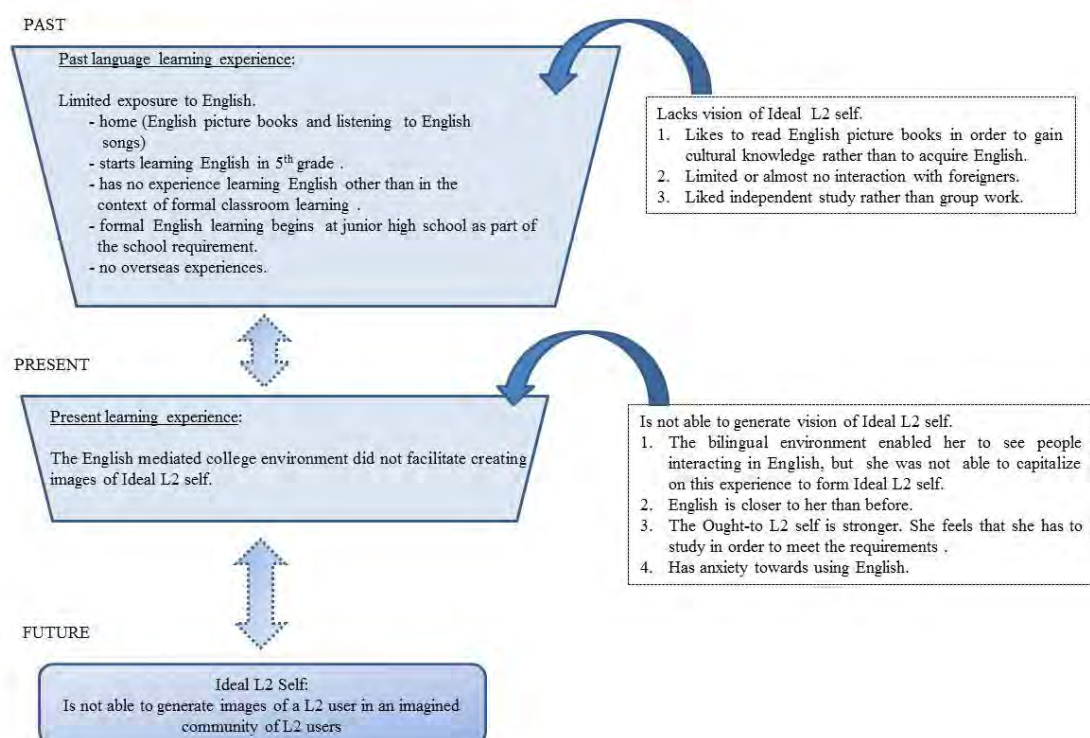


Figure 5 Hinako's Story

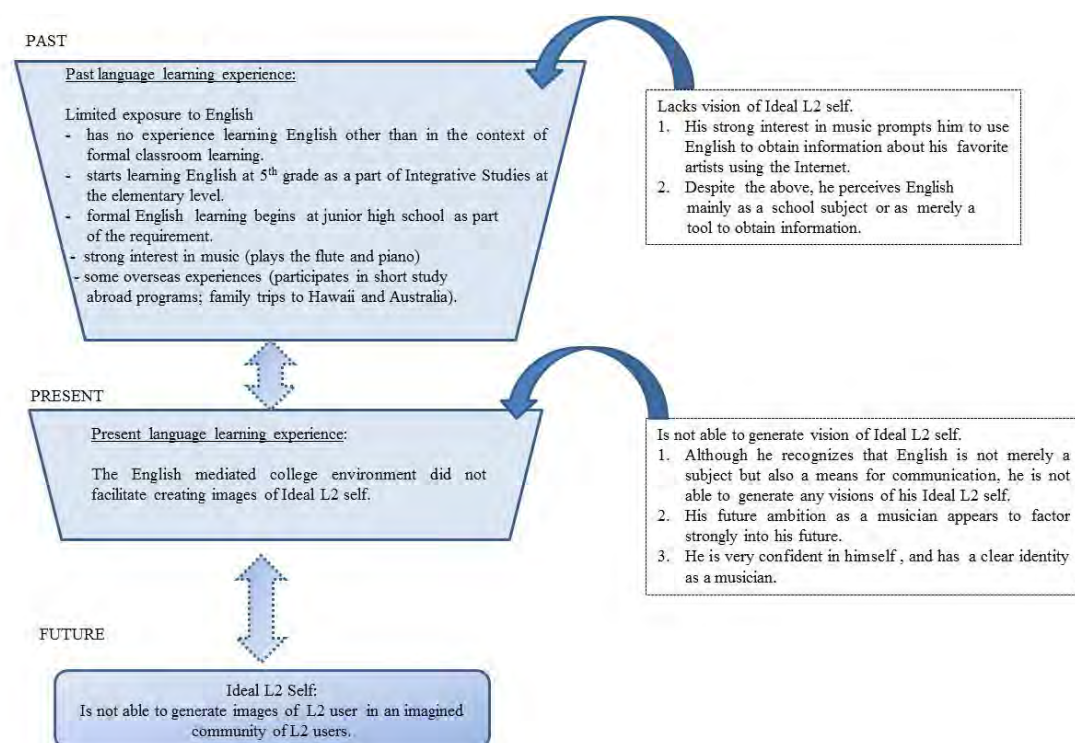


Figure 6 Takehiro's Story

The striking differences in Hinako's and Takehiro's past learning experiences compared to the other four participants is that neither Hinako nor Takehiro received early language education to the same extent as the other four participants. With limited exposure to English and fewer opportunities for interactions with its users, it was difficult for them to visualize their L2 using self.

Learners' relationship and orientations to English

Next, I will discuss the participants' stories in terms of their relationship and orientation to English. English in Japan is still very much perceived as a foreign language where the Japanese language prevails virtually in all domains of life. In spite of the current trend of globalization, visualizing an active self in an international community does not come easily. It is now an established notion that how learners conceptualize the target language has major implications for the entire language learning process (Ushioda, 2011; Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009; Yashima, 2009). Whether learners see themselves as merely learners studying the target language as a school subject or regard themselves to be language users interacting with English speakers in a global community becomes a crucial issue.

The stories of Sayaka and Maki show that they had access to a variety of learning resources both inside and outside of formal schooling including abundant contextual support, which were all instrumental in imagining themselves as future users of English. Moreover, the emotional disposition towards English and learning English was overall positive for both Sayaka and Maki. This is illustrated by their display of strong affinity for the target language as well as their identification as English users functioning in global contexts, where English is perceived as a lingua franca rather than as a language belonging to a particular Anglophone community.

By contrast, Megumi's and Yui's conception of English, and their understandings of themselves as English users were quite the opposite from that of Sayaka's and Maki's at the outset of the academic year. It was not until their experiences in the English medium environment at college that they were finally able to see themselves as English users. By broadening their perception of English to include the Outer Circle Norm (Kachru, 1985), they realized that the English which they strive for does not necessarily have to be characterized by a certain Anglophone community.

Conceptualizing English in this manner increased the learners' potential to develop

and sharpen their vision of their Ideal L2 self. Images became more realistic and more achievable, and, in turn, prompted them to become more proactive in their learning. For instance, as we have observed in the previous section, they encouraged Yui to take a more active part in the discussions with her peers in the classroom. She realized that she did not need native-like fluency for the content of her opinions to be valued. Repositioning herself in this alternative discourse of English increased her participation in group discussions, which also lead to the sharpening of her emergent Ideal L2 self. By reframing themselves positively as English users in the discourse of English as an international language in a global community, they were able to strive towards their aspirations to become active participants in an international community of English speakers, where native speaker norms were not a prerequisite. Positive emotions allow learners to become proactive learners and also respond flexibly to their social environment at any given moment.

As for Hinako and Takehiro, it was difficult for them to form visions of their Ideal L2 selves. Both participants appear to recognize the value of English and view mastery of English as a valuable goal as there is a strong sense of obligation to study English here. For them, success in English equates with obtaining good marks at school. Although their conceptualization of English somewhat alters as they become exposed to the all English medium of the university instructional practices, and also as they engage in meaningful interactions with their peers and teachers, these interactions did not appear to have influenced the emergence of their future L2 selves (Excerpt 7).

Excerpt 7

On campus, I meet many non-Japanese people talking to one another in English on the subjects like what to have for lunch or where to go after classes. I hear people answering their mobiles in English, joking in English, and even quarreling in English. In classes, we have to discuss in English, we listen to lectures in English, we take notes in English, and write papers in English. It's a totally different ball game for me. You find yourself almost on a different planet. It is sort of refreshing to see English used this way. But at the same time, I was afraid whether I would be able to survive in a place like this. (Hinako)

Learners' views of themselves as English users over time and in different contexts

As the findings related to the third research question overlap in certain respects with those for the first and the second questions, my discussion here is brief. The main theme underlying all three questions is how learners' language learning trajectories intersect with their current learning as they strive towards their future desired selves. We have

observed how individual past language learning experiences influence the present and visions for the future. We have also seen that the present and the future can have an impact on the past. Emotions are intricately implicated in the way that learners perceive their experiences, and how these perceptions have an effect on their experiences of their self concept. Struggles and negotiations may also guide emerging dispositions and the affective state of the learner since they promote particular response patterns which express or inform their identities (McCaslin, 2009). Conflicts are always a part of an emerging self. The stories of the six participants reflect how the socially mediated nature of emotions emerges through complex interactions among social, individual and contextual processes. By linking identity formation and emotions, we are able to bring into focus more long-term developmental processes and personal trajectories of learners' language experience to the fore.

Proposing Two Types of Profiles

The three distinct patterns of the participants' trajectory towards forming (or the opposite) their Ideal L2 selves bring me to propose two prototypes of profiles.

Table 3 Proposing Two Types of Profiles

Profile A: Possesses a clear vision of Ideal L2 self	Pattern 1: Ideal L2 self is established	Sayka and Yui's stories
Profile B: Does not yet have a clear vision of Ideal L2 self	Pattern 2: Able to generate Ideal L2 self. Pattern 3: Generating Ideal L2 self is minimized.	Megumi and Maki's stories Hinako and Takehiro's stories

Profile A

Profile A is representative of the first pattern (Sayaka and Maki) where learners already have a clear vision of their Ideal L2 selves. Having been exposed to the bilingual college environment, their new learning experiences interacted with their previous learning experiences to reinforce, enhance and maintain their visions of their L2 selves. Since learners have their own unique learning histories with their particular biographical background, the manner in which they perceive their affordances as well as how they personalize them in response to their learning opportunities vary from learner to learner.

Profile B

Profile B illustrates the second and the third patterns where learners do not yet have a clear image of their Ideal L2 selves prior to entering their new learning context. The obvious difference between the second and the third patterns is that while learners in the former group were able to generate their Ideal L2 selves in response to their new language learning environment with learners in the latter group, their visions of their Ideal L2 selves were minimized, and appear to have functioned only to support a different, more dominant self. What then are the main factors that appear to contribute to the differences between these two patterns? One interesting feature that emerged was how previous learning experiences could affect learners' views and attitudes towards their subsequent learning.

I would like to shed light on this issue by drawing on Patterns 2 and 3. Megumi and Yui, representatives of learners of Pattern 2, with a history of learning English in childhood, were apparently helped by this experience in forming their identities as L2 users. Prior to entering college, English was learned mainly in the context of formal schooling, where learners' views about English were more as a school subject or for exams. However, the English mediated college environment revived their awareness of English as a means of communication as they learned the language through using it. Learners' perceptions of the target language changed as they had more opportunities to interact with others in the language being learned. This enabled them to develop more readily a sense of their English using selves and to find the link between the real world and their learning.

On the other hand, with the participants represented in Pattern 3, the L2 self is minimized to the point that the learners are not able to form clear visions of their Ideal L2 selves. As is evident in the stories of Hinako and Takehiro, learning the target language by using it in a meaningful manner in their new college environment raised their awareness of English as a tool for communication and increased their sense of an English using self to a certain extent, but it was nevertheless not enough to influence their capacity to visualize their L2 possible selves. This leads me to suggest that there may be a threshold in learners' capacity to generate or form substantial images of their Ideal L2 selves.

Concluding Remarks

The study sought to unravel the role of emotions and experiential profiles of learners studying English as a foreign language by drawing on the concept of possible selves, the theories of situated learning, and the imagined communities as its main frameworks. In order to close the gap between the social and the psychological dimensions of identity construction, this study employed Dörnyei's construct of the Ideal L2 self. By exploring the discursive space that constitutes the L2 Learning Experience, the study illustrates the transformative and developmental nature of the Ideal L2 self where both positive and negative emotions can affect learners' responses and ability to negotiate their social environment. The Ideal L2 self is generated by the past, present and future where emotions and the experiential are intertwined in the process. The important point is, however, not how one constructs, maintains or realizes one's Ideal L2 self, but how visions of the future are used in the construction of oneself.

Note:

This paper is an adapted version based on Miyahara, M. (2014) „Emerging self-identities of second language learners: Emotions and the experiential profile of identity construction“. In K. Csizer and M. Magid (eds.) *The Impact of Self-concept on Second Language Acquisition*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

<http://www.multilingual-matters.com/display.asp?isbn=9781783092369>

Please refer to this chapter for an extended discussion of the subject.

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The Importance of Students' Individual Differences: Personality

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INTRODUCTION

There is a well-established set of individual differences (ID) factors that have been found to influence learning outcomes (Ellis, 2012). Also, students learn languages differently and such IDs are one of the important factors for successful learning. There are various kinds of IDs related to classroom settings: language aptitude, learning styles, motivation, anxiety, personality, willingness to communicate, learner beliefs, and learning strategies (Ellis, 2008). Among these variables, this paper focuses on personality and it is an overview that includes definitions, theories, and instruments.

1 Overview

Individual learner difference (ID) factors are dynamic: “[...] the various factors interact with the social and cognitive processes involved in learning in different ways, at different times, and in different kinds of instructional activities” (Ellis, 2012, p. 19). Most of the ID variables are related to a complex and rather diverse body of research within the field of psychology (Dörnyei, 2010).

Dörnyei (2010) defines IDs as: characteristics or traits in respect of which individuals may be shown to differ from each other. There are various ID factors: language aptitude, learning styles, motivation, anxiety, personality, willingness to communicate, learner beliefs, and learning strategies. Dörnyei (2009) summarized three major sets of learner factors: (a) cognitive factors including language aptitude and working memory, (b) affective factors including language anxiety and willingness to communicate, and (c) motivational factors.

Among various kinds of ID factors, personality is focused in this paper. It overviews the individual learner differences of personality including its two instruments; Yatabe-Guilford (YG) Personality Inventory and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI).

2 Personality

2.1 Overview of personality

Ellis (2008) defines personality as follows:

Personality is generally conceived of as composed of a series of traits such as extraversion/introversion and neuroticism/stability. It constitutes a factor believed to account for individual differences in L2 learning (p. 975).

In addition to Ellis, Dörnyei (2010) defines personality as whole character and nature. The “big five” model is a solid model and the dominant theory in psychology regarding personality (Ellis, 2001; Dörnyei, 2010). The five dimensions of personality are: (1) openness to experience, (2) conscientiousness, (3) extraversion-introversion, (4) agreeableness, and (5) neuroticism-emotional stability.

Table 1: The five dimensions of big five

Components	High score	Low score
Openness to experience	imaginative, curious	conservative, conventional
Conscientiousness	systematic, meticulous	unreliable, aimless
Extraversion-introversion	sociable, gregarious	passive, quiet
Agreeable	friendly, good-natured	cold, cynical
Neuroticism-Emotional stability	worrying, anxious	calm, relaxed

(Dörnyei, 2010, p. 15)

These five dimensions are measured by analyzing responses to self-reports or questionnaires such as the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), or the Yatabe-Guilford Personality Inventory (Ellis, 2001).

2.2 Extroverted and introverted traits

Among these five dimensions of big five, extraversion/introversion, and neuroticism/stability are the dominant traits known as the “big two” (Ellis, 2001; Brown et al., 2002; Brown, 2007). More specifically, the extraversion-introversion dimension has been researched the most frequently (Dörnyei, 2010, Dewaele and Furnham, 1999).

Brown (2007) defines an extroverted person as one who is deep-seated needs to receive ego enhancement, self-esteem, and a sense of wholeness from other people. An introverted person, on the other hand, is defined as the one who derives a sense of wholeness and fulfillment apart from a reflection of this self from other people.

Much of the literature has indicated that extroverts are better language learners. Brown (2007) suggests that extroversion may be a factor in the development of general oral communicative skills, which require face-to-face communication. Dewaele and Furnham (1999), confirm that extraversion affects speech production: “[...] extraversion does affect both L1 and L2 speech production” (p. 509).

As for the Japanese settings, Wakamoto (2000) conducted a study of university students in Japan and found the extroverted students were more likely to make better use of learning strategies than the introverted ones. Also, Robson (1994) conducted a study of English learners in Japan in order to measure personality using the Yatabe-Guliford Personality test (YG test) and participation in oral English classes. He found that extravert and emotionally stable learners were more active and willing to participate in classroom activities compared to introverts and neurotics.

Of course, there is an opposite opinion. Ehrman (2008) conducted an explanatory study and found that the best language learners tend to have introverted personalities. Based on Dewaele and Furnham (1999), this finding probably resulted from the following descriptions of the behavior of a highly extraverted and highly introverted person: the typical extravert is sociable, has many friends, and does not like reading or studying by him/herself. On the other hand, the typical introvert is a quiet, retiring sort of person and more fond of books rather than people. Brown (2007) adds that introverts may have the patience and focus to attend to learning language.

Also, regarding the Japanese settings, it has been theorized that neurotic traits

can be a positive factor in test-taking and that extrovert traits can be a negative (Midorikawa et al., 2008). For instance, Busch (1982) examined the relationship between extraversion and higher levels of proficiency for learners in Japan. The study found that introverts were actually more proficient than extroverts in terms of their pronunciation even though Busch originally predicted that the extraverts would be more proficient language learners.

As a result, it is not clear that extroversion or introversion helps or hinders the learning of an L2. Thus, Skehan (1989) states that “we may need to accept that both extroversion and introversion have their own positive features, and that an extreme either way is likely to work against some aspects of target-language development” (pp. 104-105). To accept students’ individual difference, personality, is such an important point.

3 Instruments

3.1 Yatabe-Guilford Personality Inventory (YG)

The YG Personality Inventory is based on the work of Guilford. He and his colleagues examined the correlations between typical items on extraversion-introversion and neuroticism-stable tests (Brown et al., 2002). The YG is composed of these 12 traits and each one has ten questions for a total of 120 items.

1. Depression,
2. Emotional Instability,
3. Inferiority Complex,
4. Nervousness,
5. Lack of Objectivity,
6. Lack of Cooperativeness,
7. Disagreeableness,
8. General Activity,
9. Easy-Goingness,
10. Extroverted Thinking,
11. Dominance/Controlling, and
12. Social Extroversion.

The participants are required to choose one among: (1) yes, (2) no, and (3)

uncertain. (1) as well as (2) are scored two points and (3) is scored one point for a possible zero to 20 points per trait. The six neurotic-stable traits are from 1 to 6, and the other six extravert-introvert traits are from 7 to 12. There are 10 items for each scale.

After more than a decade of piloting and revising, the final version of the Yatabe-Guilford inventory was translated into Japanese by Yatabe and other psychologists in 1957. Nowadays, in Japan, this method is seen as one of the most effective ways to measure personality. Many companies in Japan, for example, have administered this test to get familiar with new employees and to use it as a screening test.

3.2 Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

The Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) was developed from Carl Jung's theory of psychological and is used to describe different personality types (Myers et al., 1998). Ehrman (2008) states that this questionnaire is used by educational psychologists, counselors, and organization development specialists. Dörnyei (2010) adds the MBTI is currently the most often used personality type inventory in the world and this is also true of the L2 field.

The use of the term "indicator" does not refer to traditional scales ranging from positive to negative. Rather, every type can have positive or negative effects in a specific life domain (Dörnyei, 2010). This approach is similar to learning styles. According to him, the MBTI has often been used in L2 studies as a learning style measure.

There is 123-item glossary and four bi-polar scales: (1) extraversion-introversion, (2) sensing-intuition, (3) thinking-feeling, and (4) judging-perceiving. The MBTI requires people to choose and decide on one pole of each of the four preferences. These scales combine into 16 possible four-letter types, such as ENFP.

Here is a brief summary of the four dimensions:

(1) Extraversion (E)-Introversion (I)

An introvert prefers working alone. An extrovert prefers working in a team.

(2) Sensing (S)-Intuition (N)

A sensor follows a step by step approach. An intuitive thinker likes to be drawn by abstract possibilities.

(3) Thinking (T)-Feeling (F)

A thinking person prefers decisions made in an impersonal, logical, objective manner. A feeling person will make decisions based more on personal values, relationships, and the feelings of others.

(4) Judging (J)-Perceiving (P)

The judger looks for a planned and controlled life. The perceiver deals with the outside world through sensing or intuition.

DISCUSSION

Helping learners to learn more efficiently through approaches they feel comfortable with is crucial (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010; Ehrman, 2008; Brown, 2007; Ellis, 2001). For instance, they may be able to help introverted learners by not insisting on participation in extraverted activities and vice versa. Educators may also be able to help introverted students with more reading activities and more speaking activities for extrovert students (Dewaele & Furnham, 1999). For the students who scored high on leadership, giving opportunities for group activities, discussion, or more independent tasks may be effective.

CONCLUSIONS

How to assist learners to become more effective and how to systematically examine how ID factors mediate L2 learning are the important issues in classroom research. Through ID research, the following remarks can be made: teachers may be able to (1) pay more attention to IDs, (2) obtain students' information in terms of personality traits, and (3) give more scientific support depending on their individual differences.

In an EFL situation like in Japan, classroom activities should be designed to enhance students' interest in different cultures as well as to reduce anxiety and to build confidence in communication in English. Accepting individual differences and acknowledging students' personality surely contribute on creating much more effective classes.

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A Brief Introduction to Cooperative Learning for English Teachers

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Introduction

Recently, group and pair work has been used in English classrooms in Japan as a way to facilitate student-student interaction and to increase the amount of input and output. Various pair and group work activities are provided in published English language textbooks (Jacobs, Crookball, & Thiyaragarajali, 1997). As a result, many English teachers are now familiar with activities of this type. These activities came out of the communicative language teaching approach (Littlewood, 1981; Nunan, 1989; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Yet many teachers are still unaware that if they learn the principles and techniques of cooperative learning (CL), they can use group and pair work more effectively. In this paper, I would like to introduce basic the principles of CL, discuss teachers' roles in CL, and introduce some basic CL techniques that can readily be used in English classrooms.

What is Cooperative Learning?

Group Work and Cooperative Learning

Group work is an umbrella term for any group of students sitting and working as a team. In group work, students may just sit together, but each one may do something different. Cooperation may not happen when they work. A final product is often made by a single member, and other members may not contribute to the group work. Suppose a teacher asked students to discuss something in groups and report their discussion to the class. In one group of four members, only two students were active and discussed enthusiastically, one student was not interested in the discussion and kept looking out of the window, and another student was ignored by the two active students and was not given an opportunity to join the discussion. When the group was asked to report what they had discussed, one of the active

students stood up and reported what he and the other active student had discussed as if it had been a whole-group discussion. If the teacher only listened to the report, she might think that this group had a successful discussion and be satisfied with the report. However, in reality, not everybody was active or learned from this group work.

Contrary to this general style of group work, cooperative learning aims to have every participant involved in group work and maximize their learning. Fushino defines cooperative learning as “principles and techniques that involve small groups as an instructional means so that students work together to maximize their own and each other’s learning” (2011, p. 302). In other words, simply having students sit together and work in small groups is not enough for group work to be regarded as CL group work.

Nine Basic Principles of CL

In order for group work to be genuine cooperative learning, the following nine basic conditions (or principles) must be met.

1. Positive interdependence. Positive interdependence refers to students’ perception that they are linked together, that their success depends on their group members’ success, and that every member’s cooperation is indispensable in order to reach group goals (Jacobs, Power, & Loh, 2002; Johnson & Johnson, 2008; Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 2002). It is also important that they also respect and trust each other (Johnson & Johnson, 2003). Positive interdependence is the basis of cooperative learning (Jacobs et al., 2002; Johnson et al., 2002).

2. Individual accountability. Individual accountability refers to the expectation that that every member of the group must fulfill his or her share of responsibility in order to accomplish the group’s goal as well as his or her own goal (Jacobs et al., 2002; Johnson et al., 2002). In ordinary group work, it is often observed that some students avoid doing their share of the work. Many teachers who are reluctant to use group work often argue that some students do not participate in group work (Noguchi, 2000). However, this concern is misplaced in well-structured CL activities, where specific procedures are designed to prevent students from becoming free riders. In mixed-ability groups, assigning roles that take each

student's English proficiency into account enables even weaker students to fulfill their responsibilities.

3. Promotive interaction. This principle holds that group members hearten and upgrade each other's efforts in order to successfully accomplish the group's goal (Johnson et al., 2002). This is totally contrary to a win-or-lose relationship. To make promotive interaction happen, physical proximity such as sitting closely together is considered effective (Jacobs et al., 2002; Johnson et al., 2002). Through promotive interaction, students can generate ideas and solutions each student alone could not come up with by adding other ideas to a previously proposed idea.

4. Social skills. Working collaboratively with peers requires good social skills (Johnson et al., 2002) such as disagreeing politely, praising, facilitating, and encouraging, to name a few. However, not everyone has these skills when they start group work. Therefore, CL emphasizes the importance of developing students' social skills (Johnson et al., 2002). Communicating successfully in English requires being able to use suitable expressions for given situations. Therefore, when asking students to work together in small groups, the teacher needs to scaffold them with necessary English expressions. These expressions should be practiced in easier tasks so that students can devote their attention to the expressions they are learning.

5. Group processing. Simply speaking, group processing consists of reflecting on the group work after it is finished (Johnson et al., 2002). It is helpful in making the next occurrence of group work and learning more successful. Therefore, once students finish group work, they should reflect—individually and as a group—upon what went well or badly and how they could further improve their group work (Johnson et al., 2002). At the end of each lesson or a task, some time should be set aside for group processing.

6. Equal opportunity to participate. I interpret this principle to mean that every student should have an equal opportunity to participate in group work (cf., Kagan & Kagan, 2009). Naturally, some students are more talkative and others more reserved. However, tasks should be structured so that talkative and stronger students do not monopolize the group work

and quiet and weaker students can talk when they wish. No one should be isolated from group work. Importantly, the application of this principle should not force quiet students to talk against their will. These students are often good listeners, and by listening attentively, they are participating in group work and helping others to further develop their ideas. At the same time, talkative group members should learn to wait patiently and encouragingly for the quiet students to start talking.

7. Heterogeneous grouping. This principle holds that groups should be made up with students who are diverse in many respects ,such as past overall academic record, sex, age, interests, familiarity with group work, personality, and motivation (Jacobs et al., 2002; Kagan & Kagan, 2009). In English classes, English proficiency and overseas experience are also important factors to be considered. The underlying concept principle is that students learn from various perspectives and ideas by working together with students who are different from themselves. High proficiency students can learn by assisting academically weaker students and by being asked questions by other students. Meanwhile, weaker students can benefit from observing the performance of more capable peers and from being taught by them. This principle also encourages students to acquire social skills needed for working together productively even with peers with whom they may not be comfortable working together at the start of the group work, something that often happens in the real world.

8. Maximum peer interaction. Kagan and Kagan (2009) emphasize that tasks should be structured so as to maximize student-to-student interaction. In a language classroom, students need to have abundant opportunities to communicate in the target language if they are to improve their language skills. Working together with their group members offers them many chances to talk in the target language. Instead of every aspect of the lesson being controlled by the teacher, tasks should be structured so as to allow students to have genuine communication among themselves as much as possible.

9. Cooperation as a value. This principle aims to promote the idea that cooperation by itself is valuable and encompasses a circle of cooperation that goes beyond small groups to reach out to the class, the school, the community, even country borders (Jacobs et al.,

2002). Cooperation is the basis of our social life, and students should view cooperation, as opposed to competition, as an essential value with the potential to connect them to the outer world peacefully, because, after all, we cannot live alone.

Teachers' Roles in CL

Teachers' Reluctance to Use CL

After reading and reflecting upon these nine principles, many readers may now be inclined to use CL. Yet, it cannot be said that CL has proliferated in English classrooms. As Gillies, Ashman, and Terwel (2007) and Jacobs et al. (2002) point out there are several reasons why many teachers are reluctant to use CL, including:

- Teachers do not clearly understand the theoretical underpinnings of CL;
- Teachers do not know how to apply CL in their classes;
- Teachers are not aware of the research findings that support the effectiveness of CL;
- Teachers do not know how to form effective groups;
- Teachers are determined to control everything in their classes;
- Teachers are afraid that they may look as if they are not doing their jobs in the classroom;
- Teachers believe that teaching means conveying knowledge to students;
- Teachers think that group work is too time consuming; and
- Teachers think that CL is difficult to put into practice.

It seems that most of the reasons mentioned above come from a lack of teacher education as regards CL. Although it is not necessary for CL to be used in class at all times, knowledge of CL and possession of the skills needed to implement it will definitely broaden teachers' repertoires and choices of teaching practices.

Teachers' Roles in CL

Once teachers have decided to use CL in their classes, a number of important points should be kept in mind. First, teachers should decide when and how much they will use CL. They must also choose suitable CL techniques. Second, they should modify their beliefs

about teaching from instilling knowledge to facilitating students' learning. They must also give up the desire to control every aspect of class work. Third, they need to keep in mind the fact that students are greatly affected by the teacher's communicative style and that teachers therefore need to model effective communication skills such as questioning, explaining, and dealing and cooperating with others (Webb, 2008). Fourth, they should understand that a major responsibility of the teacher is to prepare in advance so that students can work together on their own in groups. Without sufficient preparation, CL will not work. Fifth, the teacher should observe students' group work carefully but discreetly and without intervening too soon (Sapon-Shevin & Cohen, 2004). Finally, teachers should understand that it takes them as well as students some time to get used to CL and that it is therefore necessary to be patient when things do not go well (Jacobs et al., 2002). In brief, reflection is important for both teachers and students.

CL Activities That Can Be Easily Used in English Classes

In this section, I introduce four simple but effective CL tasks that can be easily implemented in EFL classes. To conduct these activities, forming groups of four students is recommended. The first three activities can be done as team-building activities when new groups are formed.

Self-Introduction, Partner-Introduction (Think-Pair-Square, Jacobs et al, 2002)

1. Tell students in each group to think for two minutes about how to introduce themselves in English. (Individual work)
2. In each group, students form two pairs. In each pair, Student 1 introduces himself for two minutes. The partner listens carefully so that she can introduce her partner later to the other group members. Note-taking is not allowed.
3. Switch roles.
4. Group members take turns at introducing their partner to the other group members (one minute each).

Let's Find Common Things!

1. Tell students to write three sentences about themselves as well as questions to ask their group members in order to find common things among group members. (two minutes). Encourage students to make sentences whose content are as not too broad or too specific. For example:

I have been to the USA. Have you ever been to the USA?

I like green tea ice-cream. Do you like green tea ice-cream?

I am good at taking photos. Are you good at taking photos?

2. Group members take turns at saying one of the sentences and questions they created without looking at their notes. Encourage students to maintain good eye contact as they talk.
3. Each group member responds to the question. If all of the members say "Yes," everyone writes down a sentence such as "Everyone in my group..."
4. Continue with Step 3 until all members finish talking and asking or time is up. (Steps 2-4, five minutes)

Doubt (Jacobs et al., 2002)

1. Each group member writes three sentences about themselves. Two sentences should be true, and one sentence should be a lie (two minutes). For example:

I have three sisters. (a lie)

My favorite sport is soccer. (a truth)

I have just moved to a new place (a truth)

2. Student 1 reads the three sentences she has written without showing her paper to her group members.
3. When Student 1 finishes reading all of her sentences, the other group members take turns at asking questions so that they can find out which sentence is not true. (Steps 2 and 3, three minutes)
4. Students 2, 3, and 4 discuss and reveal which sentence is a lie. (2 minutes)
5. Repeat Steps 2 to 4 until all the members have read their sentences.

Jigsaw (Aronson & Patnoe, 2011)

1. The teacher prepares a reading passage and divides it into four parts.
2. In each group (Home Group), students decide who will read which part.
3. Students read their individual part silently.
4. Students from all the groups who read the same part get together and form Expert Groups.
5. In each Expert Group, students help each other understand their passage, and practice retelling it so that they can explain their part without looking at the passage when they go back to their Home Group.
6. Students go back to their Home Group.
7. Students take turns at explaining their passage to the other group members without looking at the passage and make sure that all the group members understand the passage.
8. All members discuss and assemble the story in the correct order.

Jigsaw ends at Step 7. However, teachers can conduct expansion activities, such as answering comprehension questions on the whole story, creating a sequel to the whole story as a group, rewriting the original story so that it ends differently from the original, to name a few. Now, a word of caution! When dividing a passage, make sure that each part can be understood without knowledge of the other parts. The success or failure of Jigsaw depends on how well students work together in the Expert Group. This activity should be conducted once students have become familiar with basic CL skills.

Conclusion

Although CL is a well-documented educational approach and its effectiveness has been abundantly reported, it has not been widely implemented in English classes in Japan. Clearly, English is widely used in international communication, and one of the important goals of English education is cultivating students' communicative ability in English. Since the use of pair and group work is no longer unusual, by adding to it the principles and

techniques of CL, teachers can make it more fruitful. In addition, the cooperative attitudes and behaviors students develop through CL will be a great asset to them in this globalizing world, where it is extremely important to understand and interact with people of various cultural backgrounds, religions, beliefs, and ethnicities in peaceful coexistence.

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英語科教員養成における省察の意味とは何か

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1. はじめに

本稿は、省察を核にした英語科の教職科目の実践に基づき、教員養成における省察の意味について論じたものである。筆者は、英語科教育法特論の授業において、振り返りを促す手段として、言語教育履修者のためのポートフォリオを使用するとともに、授業中に履修生同士での話し合いの機会を設け、毎授業後に電子掲示板に振り返りを投稿してもらった。本稿では、掲示板での振り返りに焦点を当て、リーディング指導についての受講生の記述（1週分）を *Thinking at the Edge* (TAE) によって分析した。この分析に基づき、教職履修生にとって毎週授業を振り返ることは、どのような意味があり、成長にどのように寄与するか考察する。

2. 教師教育における省察

2.1 教師教育における省察の重要性

近年、教師教育における振り返り（省察）の重要性は認識されており、教育学の分野では、反省的（省察的）実践（*reflective practice*）という用語が広く使われるようになってきている（瀬川・福本、2006）。省察的实践を通して教師は異なった視点から、経験を再解釈し、再構築していく（Munby and Russell, 1990）。また、省察を通して、教師は絶えず創造的に成長し、向上する（Schön 1987; Zeichner, 1999）。省察の概念は、Dewey（1933）の「省察的思考（*reflective thinking*）」にその源を見出すことができる。また、教師教育で広く用いられている2つの概念は、Schön（1983）の「行為の中の省察（*reflection in action*）」と「行為についての考察（*reflection on action*）」である。「行為の中の省察」とは、行為をしている時に、そこで何をしているか考えることである。教師にとって、授業中における多くの行為は、当たり前のことであり、全ての行為を常に省察せず、活動することによって知っている状態（*knowing-in-action*）を示す。活動することによって知っている状態は常に変化しており、新しい状況や出来事に直面したときに、行為の中の省察を行い、新しい状況に素早く対応する。「行為についての省察」とは、行為が終わった後（例えば授業後）に、活動することによって知っている状態が新しい状況にどのように対応したか、行為を振り返る。行為を振り返ることで、実際に行われた行為やその状況に対して、見方を変え、新たな視点を得る。

Wallace（1991）が提唱した3つの教師の成長モデルのうち、省察的モデル（*reflective model*）では、省察が重要な役割を果たしており、教師は教師としての専門性を向上するために、自分自身の実践を省察し、学んだことを応用することで成長していく。このモデルは、Kolb（1984）の経験学習を応用した Ur（1997）の具体的経験（*concrete experience*）、省察的な観

察 (reflective observation)、抽象的な概念化 (abstract conceptualization)、能動的な試み (active experimentation) のサイクルによる教師の成長 (teacher development) のモデルにも対応している。なお、Ur (1997) は、教師の理想的な成長モデル (図 1 参照) として、上記に教師の研修 (teacher training) を組み合わせ、批判的観察 (critical observation)、理論・抽象的概念 (Theories, Abstract conceptualization)、研究・実験 (research, experiment)、専門家の実践の逸話など (expert practice anecdotes, etc.) のインプットも教師の学びに大切であるとしている。

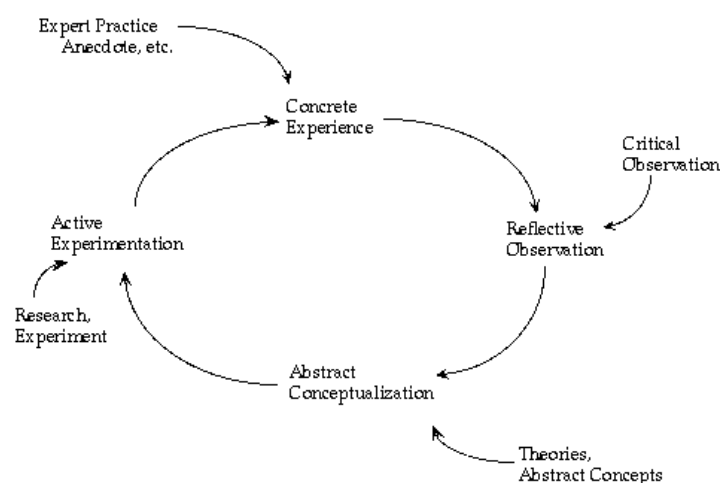


図 1: Optimal teacher learning (Ur, 1997)

2.2 教員養成課程における省察の意味

日本教育大学協会 (2006) は、教員養成カリキュラムにおける省察の重要性を指摘しており、体験や省察を組み込んだ科目の充実を推進している。このような動向は英語科教員養成にも見られ、JACET 教育問題研究会 (2009) の調査によれば、全国の大学の 101 名の英語科教育法の担当者のうち、90%が模擬授業を取り入れ、40%が模擬授業を録画することで学生の自己評価と省察を促している。

教員養成課程においても省察が重要であることは広く認識されているが、Dewey や Schön が提唱する省察の考え方では、実践に基づいた省察に重きを置いている。しかしながら、大学の教職課程においては、実践の機会があまりなく、Schön の「行為の中の省察」と「行為についての省察」という 2 つの概念をそのまま当てはめることは難しい。実際、Dewey や Schön が意味する省察は実践に重きを置きすぎているとの批判もあり、理論について省察をすることの重要性も指摘されている。例えば、Fenner (2012) は、教員養成課程において、批判的省察能力を育成するために、学生が実践について省察するだけでは変化につながらないので、理論的知識に関しての省察力を育成することが重要であると主張している。また、Urzúa and Vásquez (2008) は専門性の向上のために、「行為のための省察 (reflection for action)」は意味があり、経験の少ない教師に対して、計画を述べたり、結果を予測したり、

将来の実践について省察したりする機会を与える必要があると述べている。

日本の教員養成を考えると、国立大学においては、教員一人あたりの担当学生が少ないため、1年次から体験と省察が交互に行われる体験的科目を設置するなどして、実践と理論を往還しながら、省察を深めていく教員養成は可能である。一方、私立大学の場合、1年生から3年生までは、大学の教室内において、教職や教科に関する科目についての基礎的な知識や技能を学び、4年生になって初めて教育実習において実践を行うことが一般的である。したがって、大学の授業において理論が中心であっても批判的省察力の育成を目指して省察を促し、教壇実習までの準備をすることは意味があると思われる。実際、瀬川・福本(2006)は、教育実習に行くまでの大学の教職課程においても、協働や反省的実践の力量を形成する必要性を指摘しており、教職課程は「反省的思考を醸成し鍛練する段階 (p.79)」であると述べている。教員養成の学生は教職課程を始めるまでに、12年以上の学習経験があり、学習や教授に対するそれぞれの個人理論 (personal theories) や概念を形成している (Dart, et al., 1998)。教職課程の授業で学んだ理論について、批判的に省察することで、各自がこれまで培ってきた個人理論や概念が揺さぶられ、新しく組み換えられた個人理論や概念が形成される可能性がある。

前述のとおり、教員養成において、省察の重要性は認識されているが、理論に対する省察が、教員養成段階の学生にどのような意味があり、成長にどのように寄与するかは、まだ十分な研究がなされていない。したがって、本研究では、英語科教職課程履修生にとっての省察の意味を探究することとした。

3. 実践の背景と概要

3.1 実践の背景

筆者は、現在勤務する大学に異動する前に、3年間、国立大学の教員養成課程において、省察を核とした教育実践を行ってきた。そこでは、英語科教育法などの授業において、履修者に授業の振り返りとして、毎週省察ジャーナルを提出してもらい、一人ひとりにコメントを返却したり、小グループで模擬授業の振り返りとディスカッションを行ったりすることで、きめ細やかな指導を行うことができた。省察の手段として、教師教育において、ジャーナルは広く使われており、Richardson (2000) は、「書くことは知る手段であり、発見と分析の方法である。異なった方法で書くことで、話題の新しい側面やその話題への関係性を発見する (p.923)」と述べている。このことから、省察は、頭の中でもできるが、書くという行為が、新たに問題を見つめなおすために意味があると推察できる。

日本の英語科教員養成・採用制度は開放制で、教員免許取得を希望する学生であれば幅広く教員資格を与え、優れたものを採用するという考えに基づいている。国立大学の教員養成課程と異なり、私立大学では、英語の教員免許を取得する学生は多く、筆者が担当する英語科教育法特論の履修者数は、例年、60名から90名である。履修者が多く動機づけが多様な私立大学の教職の授業においても、知識伝達型ではなく、省察を核とした教員養成

を行いたいと考え、実践を行ってきた。具体的には、ポートフォリオと電子掲示板を活用し、省察を核とした教員養成を行うことで、明確な基準に基づいた教師としての資質能力を履修者に身につけさせ、教員の質を保証することを目指してきた。

3.2 実践の概要

本研究の対象となるのは、2012年4月から2013年1月まで開講された「英語科教育法特論」の授業である。受講者数は、83名（男子26名、女子57名）で、3年生76名、4年生7名であった。また、専攻の内訳は教育学科46名、英米文学科36名、仏文学科1名であった。授業は前期14週、後期14週の計28週で、英語授業実践における理論的な考察だけでなく、具体的な学習活動の事例を理解し、有機的な授業設計ができることを目指した。1年間の授業において、前半は「新学習指導要領と英語教育の目的」、「国際語としての英語とコミュニケーション能力」、「英語教育における文化」、「学習者論」「教師論」などの理論的テーマを扱い、後半は「リーディング指導」「スピーキング指導」「言語材料の指導」などの実践的テーマを主に扱った。

省察を促すために、3つの要素を授業に取り入れた。1つ目が、授業中のディスカッションである。受講者の席は指定され（2週に1度席替え）、できるだけ多くのクラスメイトと過去の学習経験や英語教育の理論についてディスカッションをすることで、多様な視点を学び、個々の省察を促すことを期待した。2つ目として、言語教育履修生のためのポートフォリオ（J-POSTL）を使用した。年度の初めと終わりに記入してもらい、ワードファイルで提出してもらった。また、授業の最後10分程度で、ポートフォリオに記載されている自己評価記述文の中から授業のテーマに合った項目をいくつか取り上げ、ディスカッションをしてもらった。3つ目として、毎週授業後に授業の振り返りを電子掲示板に投稿することが求められた。電子掲示板は大学が管理する授業支援用のポータル内に設置され、投稿された振り返りは、受講者のみが閲覧できるようになっていた。したがって、受講生同士が振り返りを読み合う機会となった。また、授業の始めに授業者は、投稿された振り返りからいくつか選び、内容を紹介するとともに、口頭でフィードバックを行った。

3. 研究目的

本研究の目的は、以下の2点であった。

- (1) 英語科の教職課程履修生は、掲示板に授業の振り返りとして何を記述したのか。
- (2) 掲示板に書く行為は、教師としての成長のためにどのような意味をもつのか。

4. 研究方法

4.1 研究対象

教職課程履修生が、毎週投稿した掲示板の振り返りのうち、前期7月6日の授業後、9回目に投稿された記述58名分（男子19名、女子39名）を分析対象とした。リーディング指

導について扱った 4 回の授業の初回であり、主に、スキーマ理論、リーディング技能の養成、3 段階のリーディング指導について扱った。

4.2 分析方法

分析手法として、アメリカの哲学者・臨床心理学者である Gendlin ら (Gendlin & Hendricks, 2004) が開発した理論構築法である *Thinking at the Edge* (TAE) を用いた。近年、TAE は質的研究法への応用が行われ、TAE を用いた研究が少しずつ増えている (e.g., 白田, 2009; 鈴木・得丸, 2008)。TAE は、「うまく言葉にできないけれども重要だと感じられる身体感覚を、言語シンボルと相互作用させながら精緻化し、新しい意味と言語表現を生み出していく系統だった方法 (得丸, 2010, p.5)」である。分析者は、身体的に感じられる感受概念である「フェルトセンス」(felt sense) を用いて、14 のステップを踏んで暗黙知を言語化し、構造化していく。分析手順は、大きく分けてステップ 1~5「フェルトセンスから語る」、ステップ 6~9「側面 (実例) からパターンを引き出す」、ステップ 10~14「理論を形成する」の 3 部で構成されている (詳細は資料 1 を参照のこと)。本研究では 14 のうち 12 までのステップを用いた。分析にあたっては、得丸 (2010) が開発したシートを用いた。

5. 分析過程

5.1 ステップ 1~5「フェルトセンスから語る」

分析者は、分析を始めるにあたり、掲示板に書かれた記述を印刷し、何度も読みこんだ。58 の記述を読み込むことで、データに対するフェルトセンスである「知っている感じ」を得た。ステップ 1~5 では、この「知っている感じ」に意識を向け、中核を大雑把に捉える (ステップ 1~5 の分析に用いたシートは資料 2 を参照のこと)。ステップ 1 では、「知っている感じ」を意識しながら、ぼつぼつと浮かんでくる語句を書きとめた。そこで挙げられた語句は、「大切なことがわかる」「つまらなかった経験」「生徒の視点に立つ」「工夫が必要」「なりたい自分」である。ステップ 2 では、フェルトセンスを短い 1 つの文で表し、「理想の教師像をイメージする」とした。次にステップ 3 とステップ 4 を同時に進めた。ステップ 3 では、ステップ 2 で作成した文において、最も大事な言葉を「キーワード」とし、そのキーワードを通常の定義で使っているのではないことに気づく段階である。ステップ 4 では、キーワードに意味させたいことを書いた。「理想の」というキーワードから始め、通常の意味を辞書で調べた後、通常の意味だけでは表せないフェルトセンス独自の意味を書きとめ、フェルトセンスの感覚をつかんだ。「理想の」は、辞書では「考え得る最高の状態の」という意味であるが、筆者がデータを読むこむ中で得られたフェルトセンス独自の意味では、「自分にできそう」「将来なれそう」「なりたい」「手が届く」という語句が、「理想の」を表す感じに、より近い意味の語句として浮かび上がってきた。これは、分析者にとって、「理想の」は「学生一人ひとりが教育実習生として教壇に立った時になれそう」という意味が込められていることを示唆している。他のキーワードとして、「なりたい」「なれるかもしれない」と

いう語を取り上げ、同様に通常の意味とフェルトセンスの意味を書きとめた。ステップ5ではキーワードで意味したかったことを拡張し、フェルトセンスを短い1つの文とした。得られた文は、「自分がなれそうな教師像の具体例をイメージする」である。

5.2 ステップ6～9「側面（実例）からパターンを引き出す」

ステップ6～9では、データから多様な側面（実例）を選び出し、パターンとして言い表すとともに、各パターンを相互に交差させ、データから新たに浮かび上がってくる知見を書きとめた。ここでいうパターンとは、データの側面が示す意味を一般的（または普遍的）な表現で表したものである。以下にステップの詳細を示す。

ステップ6では、フェルトセンスに照らし合わせながら、全ての学生の記述の中から81の実例を選び出した。57の記述の中で、ある部分の記述が2つ以上の別のパターンとして取り出された部分もあるため、記述より実例の数が多くなっている。ステップ7では、ステップ6で選んだ実例からパターンを抽出し、8つのパターン（表1）が得られた（パターンシートの例は資料3、各パターンの実例は資料4を参照のこと）。

表1：実例から抽出された8パターン

パターン1：中高の授業は訳読中心でつまらなかった。
パターン2：背景知識がないため、英文を読めない経験があった。
パターン3：中高の授業で、プレ・リーディング指導はほとんどなかった。
パターン4：英文を読む前の背景知識（内容スキーマ）の活性化が内容理解を促進することを実感した。
パターン5：読む前に、題材について生徒の興味・関心を喚起することが重要である。
パターン6：授業前の教師の十分な教材研究と準備が重要である。
パターン7：3段階の指導手順を意識しながらリーディングの授業を組み立てたい。
パターン8：様々な指導法を知り、訳読だけではない授業の工夫をしたい。

ステップ8では、ステップ7で得られた8パターンの各側面を相互に交差し、フェルトセンスと応答させながら、新たに浮かび上がってくる知見を書きとめた。1つの側面から他の側面を見ることで、新たな気づきが生まれ、交差を繰り返すことで側面同士が関係づけられる。この作業では、パターン1をパターン2に適用したものを1×2とし、1×3、1×4と交差して、1×8まで行った。同様に全てのパターンを交差し、8×7で56の組み合わせを行った。交差シートには、交差して気づいたことをメモし、見出した新しいパターンを書いていった。例として、パターン1とパターン2～8の交差の例を表2で示す。

表 2：パターン 1 の交差結果表

P1	中高の授業は訳読中心でつまらなかった。	
	交差されるパターン	新しいパターン
P2	背景知識がないため、英文を読めない経験があった。	英文を訳せることが、英文内容を理解することにはならない。
P3	中高の授業で、プレ・リーディング指導はほとんどなかった。	訳読中心の授業では、読む前に題材内容の指導をする必然性はない。
P4	英文を読む前の背景知識（内容スキーマ）の活性化が内容理解を促進することを実感した。	訳読授業がつまらないのは、英文の背景知識がなく内容が分からないからだ。
P5	読む前に、題材について生徒の興味・関心を喚起することが重要である。	訳読授業がつまらないのは、題材に興味をもてないからだ。
P6	授業前の教師の十分な教材研究と準備が重要である。	訳読中心の授業は、教師にとって指導が簡単だ。
P7	3 段階の指導手順を意識しながらリーディングの授業を組み立てたい。	訳読中心の授業がつまらないのは、授業に流れがなく、変化がつけられないからだ。
P8	様々な指導法を知り、訳読だけではない授業の工夫をしたい。	訳読授業がつまらないのは、一つの指導法だけで授業が単調になるからである。

ステップ 9 では、これまでの作業で気づいたことや知見を書きとめた。その要点は以下のとおりである。

- ・ 受講生は学ぶ立場（生徒）と教える立場（教師）をいったりきたりしながら、教壇に立った自分をイメージしている。
- ・ 中高時代の英語の授業を振り返り、訳読中心の授業がつまらなかったこと、英文の読みやすさに違いがあったこと、プレ・リーディングにあたる指導がなかったことを思い出している。
- ・ 授業でリーディングの理論について学び、中高時代の英語の授業の体験の意味づけをしている。
- ・ 多くの学生が過去に体験した訳読中心の授業を完全に否定するわけではなく、これまで受けてきた授業を改善し、将来教壇に立った時、自分にできそうな工夫について考えている。

ステップ 9 までの段階を経て、データから読み取れることがある程度まとまってきた感じがした。また、掲示板に書かれた内容として、過去の経験、授業で学んだこと、将来教壇に立った時の教えるイメージという 3 つの枠に分類されるということが明らかになってきた。

5.3 ステップ 10～12「理論を形成する」

ステップ 10 からは理論を構築する。ここでいう理論とは、分析者がフェルトセンスを十分に感じながらデータから立ち上げた価値観構造または信念構造とも言い換えることができる。この段階では、分析者はフェルトセンスを保持しながらも、用語間の関係性を見出し、論理形式を組み立てていく。ステップ 10 では、ステップ 9 までのすべての語、句、パターンを眺め、重要だと感じられる語句をリストアップし、1 語ずつカードに書いた。そのカードをフェルトセンスに照らし合わせながら、類似したものを集めるなどして、全体をよく感じた。フェルトセンスを感じる中で、最も重要だと感じられる 3 つの語句、A「経験のふりかえり」B「経験の理由づけ」C「できそうなこと」を選択した。次に、この 3 つの語句の関係性を明らかにするために、「A=B」、すなわち「A は B である」という文を作成し、フェルトセンスに合うように語句を補足した。この例では、「経験のふりかえりは、経験の理由づけの前提である。」という文となった。同様に、B=C、C=A、B=A、C=B、A=C でも行い 6 つの文が得られた。

ステップ 11 では、ABC の語句の関係性をさらに深く考えるため、それぞれの語句を「～はもともと～（の性質）を持っている」の文にあてはめ、フェルトセンスで感じて気づいたこととともに出てきた新しい語句を書きとめた。例えば、A、B の場合には、「経験のふりかえりは、本来（もともと）、経験の理由づけである（の性質をもっている）」となり、気づいたこととして、「この授業で経験のふりかえりをする意味は、なぜ授業がつまらなかったか、学んだ理論を用いて、経験の理由づけをするためである」と書いた。そこで出てきた新しい語句は「振り返りの意味」であった。この作業で出てきた他の新しい語句は、「具体的な教えるイメージ」、「いったりきたり」、「取り込む」、「改善」、「土台となるイメージ」であった。

以上のステップにより、最終段階の概念形成を行う準備が整い、ステップ 12 へと進んだ。ステップ 12 では、これまでのステップを踏まえてフェルトセンスをあらためて感じ直し、新たな語句（新たな概念）として O「経験のふりかえり」P「経験の理由づけ」Q「取り込む」R「具体的な教えるイメージ」の 4 つを選んだ。これらの各概念を残りの諸概念を使って定義することで、諸概念を相互に組み込んでいった。その後、新たな語 S「いったりきたり」を追加し、S を OPQR を使って定義すると表 3 のようになった。

表 3: 概念の相互関係

「いったりきたり」は、教室で学んだ理論を「取り込む」ために、「経験のふりかえり」をし、「経験の理由づけ」をする際に、学習者としての過去の自分の学習経験を見つめ直し、「具体的な教えるイメージ」をすることで、教師としての未来の自分を思い浮かべることである。
--

この後、「具体的な教えるイメージ」を類似していると考えられた語句「できそうなこと

のイメージ」に置き換え、諸概念 OPQR の定義文を確認した。入れ替えた場合、「できそうなことをイメージ」が何を具体的に指しているか分かりにくく、学んだ経験と対比するために、教えるという用語を入れたほうがよいことが分かり、R の語句は「具体的な教えるイメージ」のままとした。ステップ 12 までの段階で、理論の中核が完成し、概念が構築された。立ち上がった理論とその説明については、次の章で述べる。

6. 結果と考察

分析の結果から得られた理論の中核を概念図（図 2 参照）と照らし合わせながら示す。ステップ 12 までの段階で選ばれた語が概念（以下に括弧で示された語句）となる。

受講生は、掲示板でふりかえりを書く際に、過去の自分の学習「経験のふりかえり」をまず行う。その際、現在の授業で学んでいる理論に関連する経験を探す。対応する経験が見つかったら、過去の授業の課題を分析し、授業で学んだ現在の理論に基づいて問題点を説明することで、「経験の理由づけ」を行う。

「経験のふりかえり」は、授業で学んだ理論を各自が「取り込む」ために、必要な第一段階である。「経験のふりかえり」をし、「経験の理由づけ」をする過程で、過去の経験と授業で学んだ理論を「いったりきたり」して照らし合わせながら思考を深める。学習者としての「経験のふりかえり」をし、「経験の理由づけ」ができれば、理論を自分の中に「取り込む」ことになる。理論を取り込む際、授業で学んだことを全て知識として内在化できるわけではなく、経験の理由づけができて、受講者は初めて自分のものとして内在化できると考えられる。

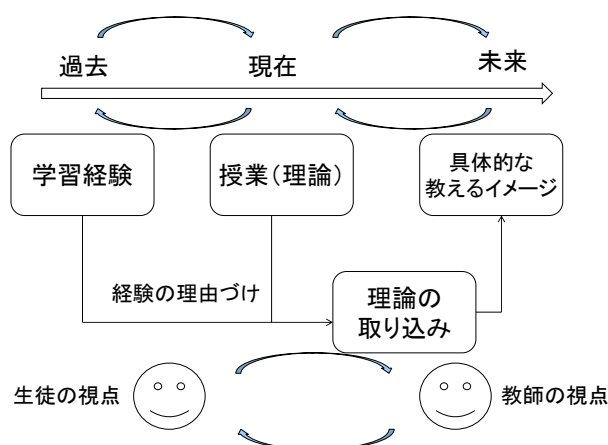


図 2：構造図

理論を「取り込む」ことができれば、「具体的な教えるイメージ」を浮かべることができる。これは、自分が教師だったら（具体的には教育実習で教壇に立ったら）、何ができるか

考えることである。「具体的な教えるイメージ」は過去の学習者としての自分と未来の教師としての自分のイメージを「いったりきたり」することで浮かんでくる。言い換えれば、受講生は生徒の視点と教師の視点をいったりきたりしている。また、過去の学習経験、現在受講している授業で学んだ理論、未来の具体的な教えるイメージの3点をいったりきたりしながら、思考を深めている。

研究課題に対して得られた知見をまとめると、掲示板に授業の振り返りとして記述された内容は、過去の学習経験の振り返り、授業で学んだ理論と経験の比較で気付いたこと、授業で学んだ中で、自分が教える際にできそうな具体的な指導のイメージに集約される。

分析結果から、受講生は、学習者と教師の両方の視点から、学習経験を振り返り経験の理由づけをすることで、理論を取り込み、具体的な教えるイメージを想起している。これら一連の作業を毎時間繰り返し行っていく中で、受講生は教師の卵として等身大の自分なりの教師像を固めていき、教師の卵として成長していくと推察できる。

Shoffner (2008) によれば、教員養成課程の学生は、大学で得た知識や実践に基づいた教室の経験から、個人的で実践的な理解を創出し、個々の知識を形成し続けている。また、省察は、学習及び教授に対する理解に影響を与える人生経験、個人の信念、感情的な反応に価値を置きながらも、教員養成課程の学生に実践的理論 (practical theory) に向き合わせる役割がある。本授業の受講生たちは、Dart ら (1998) が指摘するように、12 年以上にわたる学校教育の経験から、それぞれが学習や教授に対する個人的理論 (personal theory) と概念を形成してきた。しかしながら、大学の授業で、知らなかった理論や体験してこなかった実践に触れ、自分の理解や信念が揺さぶられるきっかけとなったのではないだろうか。そういう意味で、省察は、それぞれの学生がそれぞれの経験や信念に照らし合わせて、大学で学んだ理論を過去の学習経験の理由づけとして用いることで自分の理論として取り込んでいき、各自の個人理論を少しずつ組み替えていく機会を与えたといえる。今回は、理論の省察のみであるため、Shoffner がいうところの実践的理論にどれだけ向き合えたかは分からないが、理論のみの省察であっても、理論を再考することはできたかもしれない。

7. 本研究の限界と今後の課題

本研究で対象としたデータは、掲示板に書かれた1週分のみの記述のため、1回の書くという行為により省察することが受講者にどういう意味をもたらすかについては見取ることができたが、1年間を通した省察の意味については、明らかにできなかった。しかしながら、1週分という非常に限られたデータ分析からでも、その記述を詳細に分析することで、過去の学習経験の振り返り、学んだことの気づき、具体的指導のイメージという3つのサイクルが浮かびあがってきた。授業を受講するだけでも、振り返りはできるかもしれないが、1年間を通して、毎週、記述する（言語化する）という行為の繰り返しが成長に意味を持つ可能性が推察される。また、本研究のデータからは直接は明らかにできないが、授業に熱心に取り組んだ学生の学期末の省察レポートのコメントから、クラスメイトの記述を

読む行為が書く行為に影響を与えている可能性も考えられる。今後は、1年間の記述全体と学期末の省察を分析するとともに、面接によって受講者自身の声を聴くことで、1年間を通して、書くという行為が受講生の成長にどのように寄与するのか明らかにしたい。

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資料 1: TAE ステップ 1～12（得丸、2010）

- ステップ 1：フェルトセンスに形を得させる
- ステップ 2：論理以上のものを見つける
- ステップ 3：通常の定義で使っているのではないことに気づく
- ステップ 4：キーワードに意味させたいことを書く
- ステップ 5：キーワードに意味させたかったことを拡張する
- ステップ 6：側面を集める
- ステップ 7：側面の詳細な構造を見る
- ステップ 8：側面を交差させる
- ステップ 9：自由に書く
- ステップ 10：タームを選択し相互に関連づける
- ステップ 11：ターム間の本来的関係を探究する
- ステップ 12：恒久的なタームを選び相互に組み込む

資料 2：マイセンテンスシート

- ①テーマ ※テーマを 1 つ選び、「この感じ」として持つ。下に事柄をメモする
教職課程履修生は掲示板に授業の振り返りとして何を書いているのか
- ②浮かんでくる言葉 ※「この感じ」のフェルトセンスを感じながら書く
大切なことがわかる、つまらなかった経験、生徒の視点に立つ、工夫が必要、なりたい自分
- ③仮マイセンテンス ※フェルトセンスを短い 1 つの文にする。語も文型も自由に作る
理想の教師像をイメージする
- ※最も大事な言葉に二重線を引く

④空所のある文 ※仮マイセンテンスの二重線の部分を空所にした文を書く () 教師像をイメージする ※空所に入る言葉をフェルトセンスから引き出す		
※キーワードの意味と、フェルトセンスの独自の意味を書く		
⑤キーワード1 理想の	⑦キーワード2 なりたい	⑨キーワード3 なれるかもしれない
⑥通常の意味 考えうる最高の状態	⑧通常の意味 成る:そのものの完成した姿を現す 完成された姿になることを望む	⑩通常の意味 ある状態になる可能性があるが確かではない
⑪フェルトセンス独自の意味 自分にできそう、 <u>将来なれそう</u> 、なりたい、手が届く	⑫フェルトセンス独自の意味 なれると嬉しい そうなれるかもしれない	⑬フェルトセンス独自の意味 自分ならなれそう 目指したい
※大事な言葉に波線を引く		
⑭拡張文 ※空所に、すべてのキーワードと波線を引いた言葉を並べる (理想の、なりたい、なれるかもしれない、将来なれそうな、目指したい) 教師像をイメージする		
⑮マイセンテンス=キャッチコピー ※フェルトセンスを短い1つの文にする。語も文型も自由に作る 自分がなれそうな教師像の具体例をイメージする		
⑯マイセンテンス=キャッチコピーの補足説明 ※ほかの人にもわかるように書く 自分だったらどんな教師になりたいか、あるいはなれそうかを、過去の学習経験に照らして思い浮かべ、具体例を挙げる		

資料3：パターンシートの例

パターン1	中高の授業は訳読中心でつまらなかった。
実例	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 私の中高時代の英語の授業は訳読式のもので、内容に触れるというよりは精読をしていたように感じます。私自身このような授業は楽しくありませんでした。(34)
ほかの実例	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 私が今まで受けてきた英語教育（特に高校）は、教科書の和訳が Reading の目的となってしまうという良くない指導方法だったと思います。各生徒が和訳するセクションを割り振られ、授業中に発表するような流れが授業の核になっていました。(17) 【私の受けてきた英語教育は中学・高校共に Reading に入る際に、この話はどのような内容であるのかというような説明はなく、】家で頭

	<p>から訳してくるよという具合に宿題を課されたこともあります。そのため、その当時私は読んで訳す作業がただただ苦痛であったのを覚えています。(21)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 私は Reading ときくとただ本文を読んで訳していき、文法構造を理解したり、意味を理解するというあまり楽しくないというイメージがあります。私が実際に中学校や高校で行ってきた Reading の授業もこのような形態が多かったように思います。(30) 自分が今まで経験してきたリーディングは、他の皆と同じように何の説明もなく延々と訳していくという形式でした。これは、学習者からすればあまり面白いと感じるものではなかったのですが、リーディングはそういうものだという認識がありました。(37) リーディング指導と聞くと、和訳や文章の文法構造解析などの指導のイメージが強く、実際に私が受けてきた指導もそのようなものが多かったように思います。しかし、そのような授業・指導こそが生徒たちの英語に対する興味・関心を失わせ、英語をつまらないものになっているのだと改めて思いました。(46) テーマがリーディング指導ということで私が今まで受けてきたリーディング指導を振り返ってみると、ただ流れ作業のように毎回毎回、英文を読む、訳す、聞くというような形だったのでこれでは全ての生徒が意欲的に取り組むのは難しいことだなと思いました。(49)
メモ	<p>訳読を中心とした授業で、内容に対する説明もなく、授業に入っていく。中高時代のリーディング授業の不足点を確認している。</p>

資料 4：各パターンの実例

パターン 2	<p>確かに私自身も、全然理解できない英文は、和訳を読んでも背景知識がないのでよくわからないと思ったことが何度もありました。(6)</p>
パターン 3	<p>今まで、While-reading や Post-reading は重要視されていたように思いますが、Pre-reading はまだあまり行われていないように感じます。Pre-reading をやっていたとしても、私が中学高校に通っていた頃は新出単語や難解な表現の説明のみであったような気がします。(12)</p>
パターン 4	<p>内容スキーマ、背景知識というものが、いかに学習者の Reading に対する理解を深めるものであるか、よく分かった授業であった。授業内で扱った自転車の文章を、タイトルを紹介される前、後に読むとでは、随分と理解度や自らの背景知識との結びつく度合に変化があった。(40)</p>
パターン 5	<p>授業について考えてみても、ほとんどすべての授業において本文の内容に違和感なく入れるようにするため、最初に本文の内容と関連する題材で生徒の</p>

	興味を引けるように工夫されています。この時点で生徒の興味・関心を引くことができれば、授業に対する意欲、理解度も変わってくると思います。(10)
パターン 6	扱う内容に関して学習者の興味・関心が自然と湧くような授業展開をスムーズに行うには、教師の指導力が問われるところなので、事前の準備や教材研究を十分に行う必要があると感じました。(5)
パターン 7	リーディングの指導手順にはプレ・リーディング活動、ホワイル・リーディング活動、ポスト・リーディング活動の流れがあり、その流れを授業で作り出せる教師になりたいと思っている。ホワイル・リーディング活動とポスト・リーディング活動が循環し、繰り返し行われれば、生徒の思考力が上がると思うからだ。(58)
パターン 8	リーディングの授業では訳読中心になりがちです。しかし本文に関する英問英答を導入することで、訳読を行わなくても学習者が内容を理解したか確認できるので、活用していきたいなと感じました。(43)

授業研究を対象とした教師の学習に関する実証的アプローチ —授業研究協議会における省察と授業記録の可能性—

坂本篤史（星城大学）

1 問題と目的

日本の授業研究（Lesson Study）への注目が、“The Teaching Gap”（Stigler & Hiebert, 1999）によって 2000 年代を通して国際的に高まってから、すでに 15 年程度経過している。アメリカを経由して東アジア圏で盛んになり、日本の授業研究者を招いての学校改革を推進している国もある（例えば、シンガポールやインドネシアなど）。国際授業研究学会では、各国の状況に合わせたスタイルの授業研究が実施されている。例えば、スウェーデンでは、ヴァリエーション理論と組み合わせた授業研究が行われており、Learning Study と呼ぶことで、Lesson Study との差異を明確化しようとしている。

授業研究は教師の自律性を保障し教師の専門性を高めるボトムアップの授業改善の方策として進められている（Lewis, Perry, & Murata, 2006）。米国では、1980 年代以降、認知心理学の知見を援用した教師の実践的知識や知識形成に関する研究が行われてきた（秋田, 1992）。その中で、事例研究の有効性が Shulman などによって指摘されている（佐藤, 1997）。授業研究はまさに授業の事例から学ぶものであり、米国の Teacher Learning 研究と接続しやすかったことがと考えられる（坂本, 2007）。一方、日本でも、米国での着目から、授業研究への見直しが起こり、各地域、各学校で授業改善の取り組みが活発になってきている（千々布, 2005; 国立教育政策研究所, 2010）。

具体的に見ていこう。教師の学習研究は、1980 年代頃から、認知心理学の影響を受け欧米圏で盛んになる。教師の専門的な知識の解明やその形成に関する研究が進められた。その中で、教師教育において、3つの乗り越えるべき課題が指摘できる。第一に、教師の実践的知識は、暗黙的・個人的（佐藤, 1997）である点である。したがって、教師の実践的知識は、明文化して伝えることができず、個々の教師の実践経験を通して形成していくしかない。第二に、「観察による徒弟制」（Lortie, 1975/2002）である。高校までの教育で、1 万時間以上の被教育経験を積み重ねるため、教員志望学生の中には、授業に関する強固なイメージが形成されている。しかし、それは、1 人の学習者からのイメージに過ぎない。教師教育では、このイメージを崩しつつ、学んでいくことが求められる。第三に、「実践化の問題」（Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005）である。教師は、言葉の上で言っていることと、実践が食い違うことがある。教師としては実践しているつもりでも、他者から見ると異なる場合がある。言葉の上で獲得した知識は、授業実践と必ずしも対応しない点で、教師教育における問題となる。

以上の 3 点から、教師が学ぶ上で、自分自身の実践経験を振り返り、問い直すことが重要となる。したがって、「反省的实践家」としての教師像が広く受け入れられ、経験の省察による学習（Schon, 1983）が各地で推進されている。

教師の省察を中心とした学習研究のレビュー（坂本, 2007）から次のように指摘できる。教師において重要なのは、探究的な態度（Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999）である。日常的でルーティンに陥りがちな

授業実践を対象として、教師自身が授業のあり方を探究する姿勢が求められる。教師の専門的知識は、Pedagogical Content Knowledge(PCK)、すなわち、教科内容の知識と学習過程や教育方法の知識 (Shulman, 1986, 1987) を統合した知識であり、それは経験の省察によって形成されることが示唆される (Davis, 2006)。また、省察において、個人での省察では自分の行動の理由づけの方に行きがちであり、新たな視点の獲得になりにくいいため、他者の視点を取り入れることの重要性が指摘されている (Loughran, 2002)。このことから、他者と一緒に協同的に省察することの重要性が指摘できる。

欧米圏での研究が盛んになる一方で、日本には明治時代以来の授業研究の蓄積はあるものの、それがいかんして教師としての学びにつながっているかというメカニズムの解明はあまりなされてこなかった。上述のように、米国では、teacher learning の領域において、様々な研究が行われ蓄積されているが、日本では教師の学びに関する実証的な研究は乏しく散見される程度である。

したがって、授業研究と教師の学びとの関係を実証的に解明する必要がある。筆者は、そのような問題意識から、博士論文「協同的な省察場面を通した教師の学習過程」をまとめた。本論文は、その一部を元にして、2013年10月26日に立教大学における言語教師認知研究会での発表と当日の議論から、授業研究を通した教師の学習過程について、新たにデータを加え再検討し記述したものである。校内研修としての授業研究がいかんして教師の学びを支えるかを示した上で、実際にいかに授業が改善されているかを示す。

2 校内研修としての授業研究がいかんして教師の学びを支えるか

教師は他者と共に省察を行うことが重要である。省察を支える学校内の文脈として、教師共同体の日常的な学習 (Shulman & Shulman, 2004) がある。しかし、それは研究することに困難 (Little, 2002) を伴う。

その中で、校内研修としての授業研究は、学校内で教師の学習を支える (Lewis, Perry, & Murata, 2006; 秋田, 2004)。授業研究を通した教師の学習 (e.g., 秋田, 2006) として、2つのルートが考えられる。第一に、研究授業を協同で検討し省察することによる学習である。特定の授業を対象として、省察を深めることによる実践的知識の形成である。第二に、教師間の関係性変容、すなわち同僚性の形成による学習の促進である。日常的にお互いの授業を観察したり、子どもや授業に関する情報交換を行うことによって、授業を追究するための仲間意識が形成され、授業研究への意欲が支えられる。お互いに支え合うことによって、1人の教師では気付かなかった点が相互に補完されると共に、対等な関係における他者からの学びが生じる。

2.1 協議会の話題と教師の学習

協議会の話題と教師の学習について、公立小学校へ質問紙調査を行った (Sakamoto, Tojo, & Tojo, 2010)。その結果、授業後の協議会で生徒の様子について話し合う学校は、年間授業研究回数が多いこと、年間授業研究回数が多いと、協議会で子どもを見る視点の広がりを実感することが示された。さらに、

子どもを見る視点の広がりへの実感が授業研究を学習機会として認識することにつながることを示された。

しかし、生徒の様子から教師が授業研究を学習機会として認識することへの直接の関係は負であり、協議会で生徒の様子を話すことが教師としての学びに直接つながるかどうかに関しては、疑問が残る。

教師にとって、授業は日々の営みであり、「明日すぐ使える」授業方法は、研修会でも人気があることが、現場の教員から度々指摘される。確かに、子どもの様子について理解を深めても、それを活かす術を見出せなければ、授業に活きないと感じる可能性が考えられる。以上の分析結果は、子どもの事実から教師が学ぶことの難しさの一端を示していると言える。しかし、創造的な授業を行うベテラン教師たちから、子どもへの理解を深めることの重要性が指摘されることもある。今後は、子どもに対する理解を深めることと、授業実践との関係が、教師たちに理解されるよう、研究を重ねていく必要がある。

Chichibu & Kihara (2013) によれば、校内研修としての授業研究によって、教師の専門家共同体が形成されることによって、生徒の学力向上につながる。子どもの事実を中心に話し合うことは、授業に対する考え方の対立を避け、子どもをいかに学校として育てていくかという課題を中心とした教師たちの関係づくり、すなわち同僚性を生み出しやすくする。

授業に対する多様な考え方を認めつつも、学校内で教師たちが同僚性を構築するには、ある程度の授業に対する共通認識が重要になる。学校内教師文化としての授業理念や授業を見る視点や、協議会で授業の事実や問題などを話し合う言葉（実践の表象： Little, 2002, 2003）を媒介にした学習が重要であることが指摘されている（秋田, 2009）。

2.2 学校内教師文化と教師の学習

そこで、学校内教師文化と教師の学習に関して、協議会談話の量的分析を行った（坂本, 2012）。具体的には、教師たちの教職経験年数および学校在籍年数と、協議会における教師間談話との関係を検討することで、協議会での協同的な省察場面において、教師が誰のどのような発言を記憶し学習しているかについて明らかにした。

具体的には、学校文化への教師の適応が始まると考えられる 1 学期 4 月～6 月に実施された計 6 回の協議会を分析対象とした。協議会の直後に印象に残った協議会中の発言を記述してもらい、誰が誰のどのような発言を記憶しているかを学校在籍年数と教職経験年数との関係を数量的に分析した。

その結果、教職経験年数ではなく、学校在籍年数と発話数との相関が認められ、また、教職経験年数ではなく、学校在籍年数と被再生数との相関が認められた。そして、教師は学校在籍年数の高い教師の、授業の問題点を指摘する発言や、可能性を提示する発言、代案提示を聴き記憶することが示されたことから、協議会で教師たちが学校内教師文化としての授業理念や授業を見る視点を共有していることが示唆された。

こうした教師の学校内教師文化への適応は、現職教師たちの経験と符号することが、研究発表時に指摘された。この研究は、理論的に、また、経験的に指摘されていたことを実証的に裏付けるものであると同時に、授業研究における学校文化作りの視点を導入する根拠にもなると考えられる。学校内での授

業研究は、短期的な成果だけではなく、長期的な成果を視野に入れた実施が求められる。

3 協議会における教師の学習過程

3.1 協議会における教師の思考の深化過程

このような文化的な適応の他に、各教師の思考の深化がある。協議会での教師の思考過程について、授業者と非授業者の視点から比較検討した（坂本, 2010）。

具体的には、ある授業直後の協議会をビデオ録画し、その中の特定場面を見ながら、そのとき何を考えていたのか、という、再生刺激法を援用した協議会の振り返りインタビューを行った。その中で、各教師の中で、研究授業の問題点に関する思考過程を抽出して検討した。

実際の研究授業は、2年生の算数であった。内容は、テープ図を用いて、「減法逆の加法」の問題を解けることであった。授業者は教職歴26年のベテラン男性教師であり、この学校では少人数指導の算数専科として、在籍3年目である。研修主任も務めている。一方、非授業者として本研究に協力してもらったのは、教職歴23年の同じくベテラン男性教師であり、在籍4年目である。教務主任を務めている。授業は、教師から課題を提示した後、自力で解き、グループで話し合い、全体で話し合うという展開である。なお、この学校の授業研究では「学び合い」をテーマとしている。

協議会の中で、ある教師が次のような発言をした。

「…（略）…絵を出して、『ここまで読むとどういうこと』、『ここまで読んでどういうこと』という風にして、文をイメージ化したら、もう少しどの子にも、『あ、こういうことなのか』てのが少し浮かぶかな、て思っ。浮かんたところで、『分かっていたことは何』て、『はじめの数』て（子どもが）言ったら、『それを昨日勉強したテープで表しましょうね』て言って、赤をペチョッと貼る。そして、『もう一つ分かっていたのが、何だっけ』、『買ってきた数』、『じゃ、昨日勉強したよね、これ貼りましょうね』て、『これで表しましょうね』て。『このテープを使って昨日みたいに、ちょっと考えられますか』て言ってやったら、混乱も少し、整理されたかな、て思ったんですけど。」

この教師は、問題文をもっと丁寧に子どもと一緒に読んでイメージをさせることで、授業中に「混乱」しなかったのではないか、という代案提示の発言をした。この「混乱」をどう解釈したかで授業者と非授業者は分かれた。授業者は、「大きな混乱というのは…（中略）…話し合いが自分達で、一つのまとまった形にもっていけなかった、というところを言われているんだと思うんですよね」とインタビューで語ると共に、「（発言者の）先生がお話しされたことは、同じブロック（分科会）なものですから、事前のあの、指導案の、検討するときに、出たことだったんですね。」と語った。授業者は、授業前の指導案検討会で話し合った内容と同じと見て、この発言を解釈していた。すなわち、事後の協議会での内容であったにも拘わらず、事前の検討会の話し合いと同じように解釈した。実際の授業観察での経験を飛び越えた解釈となっていた。

一方、非授業者Bは、「いまいちピンと来なかった」とインタビューで語り、さらに、「テープの、そ

の赤いテープと白いテープの書き表し方が、それぞれ持っている意味が、子どもに掴み切れていなかった」として授業の問題点を考え、「それをなんかもうちょっとストンと分かるような方法は何か、考えてた」と語っていた。つまり、この教師は、子どもたちの問題文の意味の理解が不十分だったのではなく、テープへの理解が不十分だったと考えていた。「混乱」の解釈は明確ではないが、前出の発言における問題点と異なる点が問題点だったと考えていた事が分かる。そして、この問題点は、非授業者が観察した班の子どもたちの様子からの解釈であった。

したがって、同じ協議会に参加しても、授業者と非授業者で、異なる他者の発言の解釈をしており、事前の検討会への参加の有無が、解釈を分けた可能性がある。そのことによって、前出の発言は、授業者にも、非授業者にもきちんと受け取られたわけではなかった。

非授業者は、課題の難しさを問題にしていたが、授業者は、あえて難しい課題を選んでいて、授業者は自身の即興的対応に課題意識を持っていたためである。一方で、授業者は自身の課題意識を、非授業者は観察事実を媒介にして他者の言葉を解釈することが示唆された。

授業後の協議会では、同じ授業を見たという前提から、事実を省略し、自分の解釈を話すことがある。それは、一方では、授業を見た印象を自分の視点で語ることができるため、発言しやすい雰囲気を作り出す。しかし、自分の前提としている授業の事実が、必ずしも他者と共有されているわけではなく、聴き手は、自分の経験や観察、思考の文脈によって、自由に解釈する。同じ授業を観察したからといって、観察事実は必ずしも共有されていない。授業は言語的情報だけではなく、多様な子どもの複雑な身体的情報、時間的推移の情報など、言語になっていない情報も含む(的場・柴田, 2013)。それを協議会中に言葉で語ることは、そこにすでに解釈が入り込む。それにより、他者の受け取り方はバラバラになる。多様な視点での語りが協議から出てくるため、協議の中でお互いの視点の理解にはつながるものの、協議としての深まりは出にくくなると考えられる。したがって、多様な視点での語りを保障しつつも、いかにして発言同士がつながり、深められていくかということが、協議会の課題となる。

3.2 協議会での他者の発言に影響された授業実践の変化

協議会の中で他者の視点からの語りによって、授業が変化した事例を紹介する(坂本, 2011)。具体的には、研究授業を行った授業者が協議会で他者の発言を聴き、次の授業を意識的に変化させる過程を検討した。子ども同士の学び合いを尊重した小学校における音楽専科の教師である。教職歴 32 年のベテラン女性教師であり、学校での在籍年数は 4 年である。同一内容を複数の学級で教えるが、本研究では同一学級の授業を検討した。授業者自身の内的な変化を明らかにするために、研究授業のある一単元の授業を対象とし、授業での出来事をフィールドノートに記述し、毎時間ごとの振り返りと、協議会での振り返りを比較して分析した。なお、音楽の授業は、2 年生の「おまつりわっしょい」という単元であり、計 4 時間である。

この結果、授業者は授業を振り返って、気づいた問題点に即して、自分の授業を変えていくが、自分自身の考えではジレンマに陥り、うまく対応ができない問題点に関して、他者から助言を受けると、授業を変化させることが示された。自分の実現したい授業のあり方に即し、自分自身の視点だけでは対応

できない課題に対する他者の助言が有効であることが示唆された。

具体的には次の通りである。教師は、子どもたち自身が音楽を作り上げることを重視し、かけ声を子どもに作らせていた。そうしたところ、子どもたちにとって難しいかけ声が作られたことにより、子どもたちは最後まで十分に歌うことができなかった。授業者は、子どもたちの達成感を重視しているため、授業最後の満足感が足りなかったことを問題点として協議会冒頭の自評で挙げた。つまり、子どもたち自身に任せることと、満足感を与えたいことがぶつかり、教師の中でジレンマとなったのである。そこで、別の教師が、子どもたちは各パートに分かれて練習していたが、歌の全体像を把握できていれば、もっと達成度は上がったのでは、という趣旨の発言をした。それにより、授業者は、子どもたちに歌の全体像を伝えるために、次の授業では、子どもたちに問い返ししながら、歌の全体像を確認した。なお、ジレンマに対して、子どもはそれでも満足感を得ていたのでは、という発言も他にあったが、それに対して、授業者はあまり納得していなかった。

このことから、授業者自身の課題を重視することの重要性が指摘できる。授業者には授業意図があり、それは、教師としての目指したい授業のあり方と結びついている。そのことと異なる助言を、授業者は受け入れがたい。したがって、協議会では、授業者の意図を尊重した発言が求められる。

しかし、そのことは、授業者に新たな視点を導入することの難しさを意味する。多様な視点で協議が行われていても、教師は異なる視点を受け入れにくい。他の教師が他の考えを持っていることが分かることで、教師同士の理解は協議会で進むが、新たな視点を形成するためには、教師自身が内側から見出す必要がある。したがって、そのための協議の深まりが重要である。適応を通した、授業観の変化だけでは、他の学校に行けば、違う授業を行うことになる。

4 授業記録を起こすことによる教師の学習

教師が授業観を自ら更新するためには、自らの授業実践と正面から向き合う必要がある。その手段として、自分の授業を文字に起こし授業記録を作成することが考えられる。その具体例として、私立の A 中学校に所属する K 先生の事例から述べる。K 先生の教科は理科である。当該中学校において、前期（6 月）・中期（9 月）・後期（11 月）の年 3 回、単元単位の研究授業を行った。各単元終了後に、ビデオカメラによる録画や IC レコーダーによる録音から授業記録を自ら作成し、それを基に、同僚教師や管理職、大学研究者を交えて授業分析会を実施し、次の授業への改善点を見出す。教師主導の授業から、探究的な学習を目指し、子どもたちの話し合いが中心の授業への転換をはかった。

前期・中期・後期の中から、授業分析会を行った授業記録を選定した。なお、単元名は前期「音の世界」、中期「ゆれる大地」、後期「水溶液の性質」である。授業記録のカテゴリ分析を行った。まず、話者交代、発話の間、発話機能の変わり目で分節化した。次に、岸野・無藤(2005)、清水・内田(2001)、藤江(2000)を参考に、発話カテゴリで分類した。その結果から、話し合いを促す教師の発話カテゴリとして、復唱、言い直し、確認、整理、問い返し、振り、投げかけの 7 つを抽出した(表 1)。それらを用いて、前期・中期・後期から、授業分析会を行った授業記録に対し、話し合い場面で子どもの話しの後に続く教師の発話を数量的に分析した。

表1 話し合いを促す教師の発話分類カテゴリ表

カテゴリ名	説明	例
復唱	生徒の言葉をそのまま繰り返す。	C 糸電話。 T <u>糸電話か。</u>
言い直し	生徒の言葉を補足して繰り返す。	C 水面に近いから。 T <u>水面に近いから起こる。</u>
確認	生徒の発言内容や考え、行為について、話し合いの進行に即して明確になるように尋ねる。	C どうやって、真空状態にしたらと音が出なくなるんですか。 T <u>えっ？ どうやって？ なんて言った</u>
整理	複数の発言やある生徒の発言を全体の話し合いの進行に位置づけて要約し、生徒全体に伝える。	T 今、いろいろ意見がでました。A～Eまで全部水溶液だ。 <u>A,B,C が水溶液だ、いや、B と C だけだ。</u>
問い返し	発言者の発言内容に対して、疑問を返す。	C えっとー、B と C が水溶液。 T B と C だけね。／ <u>なんで？</u>
振り	生徒の発言を受けて、他の特定の生徒を挙げ、発言を促す。	C だから、えーと、その、S君たちは…。 T <u>じゃあ、澤井君に聞いてみて。</u>
投げかけ	生徒の発言を受けて、生徒全体に尋ねる。	C 津波と同じように、プレートとプレートが引き込んでっちゃって、戻るときに戻る振動によって、…。 T <u>今のでわかった？</u>

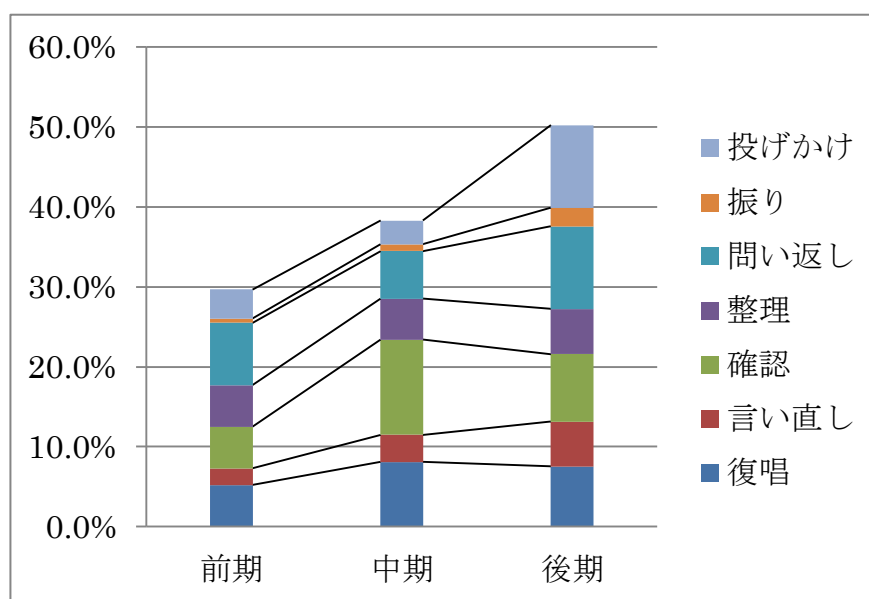


図1 話し合いを促す発話カテゴリの割合

図1から、後期に向けて、全体的に割合が増加していることが分かる。「言い直し」、「問い返し」が増加しており、生徒の発言と教材を結びつけようとする意図が強くなったことが示唆される。また、「振り」、「投げかけ」が増加していることから、生徒同士の話し合いを活発にさせようとする意図が強くなったことが示唆される。

研究紀要から前期実践についての記述として、「授業分析した上で、以下のようなことがわかった。生徒の意図するところはくみ取らず、自分のルールに導こうとしていることが読み取れる。」があることから、自覚的に変化してきたことが示唆される。それは、後期実践後の記述で、「今年度は、教師が観察者としての面をもつことで、生徒の発言数が増え、話し合いになるようになってきたと思われる。教師が生徒同士の話し合いに対応し、生徒の意見を板書し、交通整理をし、場合によっては補足をして、生徒自らが問題を解決していくという姿勢で臨ませたい」と書いていることから明らかである。

一年間の授業研究を通して、子どもの発言に対して、子どもの発言を教科内容と結びつけたり、他の子どもに投げかけるようになった。その原因として、子どもの発言に対する「観察者」の目線（子どもの発言を聴く姿勢）を形成した点が考えられる。「観察者」の目線は、自身の授業記録を起こし、分析することによってもたらされたと考えられる。

この事例研究が示すように、教師の授業中の即興的判断という高次の能力を培うためには、自分自身の考え方や授業実践経験を対象として、授業記録に起こすなど、授業の事実に基づいて省察することが重要だと考えられる。佐藤（1997）は、省察に関し、授業中の熟考について述べている。授業の事実に基づいて深く自分の授業を振り返ることは、教師の熟考を促す可能性が考えられる。授業の事実における、教師の即興的判断に、教師の授業観が表出される。その表出された授業観を問うことで、教師自身の認識の更新がなされる。ときに、他者が重要になる。

5 総合考察

以上から、協議会における教師の学習として、次のことが指摘できる。単に子どもの様子を話すだけでは、教師の学習につながらない。授業の事実を語り合う中で、視点を交流することで、教師同士が互いに影響を受ける。目指す授業像や授業を見る視点が、授業の事実に基づいて語り合う中で、共有されていく。教師各自の課題意識に基づいて、思考を発展させていく。授業のジレンマを解消する視点に基づいて、授業を変化させると言える。

しかし、授業研究は一方で、日本の歴史的文化的制度的固有性に支えられている面もある。日本では、制度上も様々な教員研修の機会が用意されている。また、特に小学校では、歴史的に著名な実践家や全国から視察のきた学校で授業研究を中核としていたこともあり、授業における教師の力量が重視された歴史もある。他者に授業を見られることを嫌がる教師は多いことが経験的にも指摘されるが、力量を高めるために見てもらおうという考えも併存している状況である。一方、海外で、どの程度お互いの授業を見ることが一般化しているかは今後の研究が必要であるが、米国では、他者の授業に対して批判的に協議することは避けられる傾向にあるため、事実に基づいて批判的に見るのが米国向けの授業研究の本

に記載されることがある。また、授業を見ることが、いわゆる教員評価につながるものが、韓国ではなされている。日本のように、対等の立場でお互いの授業を高め合うという文化的土壌は、他国にはあまりないかもしれない。

いずれにしても、日本における教師の学習研究は、いまだ未成熟であり、今後の発展可能性を大きく残している。日本の授業研究が国際的に着目される中、日本国内においても、授業研究自体を対象として、方法論ではなく、実際何が起きており、どのような可能性が見出されるかという実証的で、翻訳可能性の高い研究が乏しい。研究者の役割はそこにもあると考えられる。

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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
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 - 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

笹島先生が巻頭で述べられていた、言語教師認知の国際学会開催に向け、日本の言語教師認知とその周辺領域の研究が益々発展することを切に願っております。最後になりましたが、研究集録第4号にご投稿いただきました皆様ならびに査読者の皆様に厚く御礼申し上げます。

（志村）

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