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Contents

Japan Association for Language Teaching

A Nonprofit Organization

The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) is a nonprofit professional organization dedicated to the improvement of language teaching and learning in Japan. It provides a forum for the exchange of new ideas and techniques and offers a means of keeping informed about developments in the rapidly changing field of second and foreign language education. Established in 1976, JALT serves an international membership of approximately 2,600 language teachers. There are 32 JALT chapters and 28 special interest groups (SIGs). JALT is a founder of PAC (Pan-Asian Consortium), which is an association of language teacher organizations in Pacific Asia. PAC holds annual regional conferences and exchanges information among its member organizations. JALT is the Japan affiliate of International TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) and a branch of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language). JALT is also affiliated with many other international and domestic organizations.

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The JALT International Conference on Language Teaching and Learning and Educational Materials Exposition attracts some 2,000 participants annually and offers over 600 papers, workshops, colloquia, and poster sessions. Each JALT chapter holds local meetings and JALT's SIGs provide information and newsletters on specific areas of interest. JALT also sponsors special events such as workshops and conferences on specific themes and awards annual grants for research projects related to language teaching and learning.

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JALT Central Office

Urban Edge Building, 5F 1-37-9 Taito, Taito-ku, Tokyo 110-0016, Japan
Tel.: 03-3837-1630; Fax: 03-3837-1631; Email: jco@jalt.org;
Website: <www.jalt.org>

In This Issue

Articles

This issue contains one full-length research article in English, one full-length research article in Japanese, and a Research Forum article in English. The first, by **Leander S. Hughes**, **Stacey Vye**, and **Debjani Ray**, is a report of a replication study related to the motivation of Japanese university students for learning English. The second, by **Yoshida Mami** and **Aikawa Masao**, is a report on changes in teacher identity among students in a teacher training program as a result of teaching experience. The third, by **Saki Suemori**, is a report on motivation to teach English in Japan. Two themes that thus emerge in this issue are motivation and being an English teacher in Japan.

Reviews

This issue includes reviews of titles suited to job seekers, novice teachers, and early-career researchers, as well as those pursuing and involved in directing professional development. **Mayumi Asaba** begins with a review of a book looking at teacher expertise, evaluation, and development. Second, **Michael Carroll** draws on his recent experience in Vietnam to review a title from the Routledge Studies in World Englishes series, which compares professional development in that context with Japan, and to a lesser extent, ASEAN countries. In the third review, **Ben Grafström** covers *Teaching English at Japanese Universities*, a fresh and expanded version of the original 1993 handbook. **Monica Hamciuc** then reviews an edited contribution by prominent Japanese language and discourse analysis specialists, Haruko Minegishi Cook and Janet S. Shibamoto-Smith. **Tanja McCandie** next takes up a short introduction to the terminology and research into understanding gender and language use in the world. *L2 Selves and Motivations in Asian Contexts*, edited by Matthew T. Apple, Dexter Da Silva, and Terry Fellner, is reviewed by **Andrew McCarthy**. **Nicole Moskowitz** outlines a practical resource guide for early-stage researchers. In the final review, **Sina Takada** addresses metalinguistic awareness and second language acquisition from a book of that very title.

From the Editor

As Editor of *JALT Journal*, I am pleased to announce that we are increasing the word and character limits for submissions. For full-length research articles, the word limit has been increased from 6,000 to 8,000 words. For Research Forum and Perspectives submissions, the word limits have been increased from 3,000 to 4,000 words and from 4,500 to 5,000 words, respectively. For research articles in Japanese, the character limit has been increased from 18,000 characters to 25,000 characters. At *JALT Journal*, we continue in our commitment to publishing high-quality research that is relevant for language teaching and/or learning in the Japanese context.

—Eric Hauser, *JALT Journal* Editor

Articles

The L2 Motivational Self System: A Replication Study

Leander S. Hughes
Saitama University

Stacey Vye
Saitama University

Debjani Ray
Tokyo University of Science

This study replicates research by Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009) regarding the L2 motivational self system, a framework for understanding second language learning motivation in terms of how learners view themselves as users of the second language (Dörnyei, 2005). The study was of 922 students at a national university in Japan who completed a questionnaire measuring 10 different L2 motivational and attitudinal factors. Correlation analyses and structural equation modeling (SEM) of the data supported the validity of the L2 motivational self system as a culture-independent explanation of the factors comprising L2 motivation. The differences that emerged in the strengths of relationships between factors for our sample compared to the Japanese sample in Taguchi et al. are postulated to be mainly due to differences between the two samples in their socioeconomic background and educational context.

本研究は、L2動機づけ自己システムに関する研究であるTaguchi, Magid, and Papi（2009）を追試したものである。L2動機づけ自己システムとは、第二言語学習における動機づけを、学習者が自分を第二言語使用者としてどのように見ているかという観点で理解するための枠組みで

ある（Dörnyei，2005）。本研究には日本の国立大学生922名が参加した。彼らはL2の動機づけ及び態度に関わる10個の異なる要因を測定するアンケートに回答した。相関分析と構造方程モデリング（SEM）を行った結果、L2動機づけの要因が文化的要因と独立したものであるとするL2動機づけ自己システムの妥当性が支持された。本研究とTaguchiらの研究で要因間の関係の強さに違いが生じたのは、主に社会経済的環境及び教育環境の違いが原因だと思われる。

Keywords: culture; ideal self; integrativeness; L2 motivational self system; motivation

T he L2 motivational self system evolved from the theory in psychology of possible selves posited by Markus and Nurius (1986) in conjunction with prior theories of L2 motivation in second language learning and comprises three key concepts (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009a, 2009b, 2010; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011):

1. the ideal L2 self, or how learners envision themselves ideally using the L2 in the future;
2. the ought-to L2 self, or the type of L2 user they believe they need to become in order to meet others' expectations while avoiding negative outcomes;
3. L2 learning experience, or attitudes toward the learning environment and experiences with all stakeholders, including achievements (and lack thereof) in that environment.

The L2 motivational self system is an attempt to address issues with Gardner's (1985) integrative model of L2 motivation, which posited that L2 motivation primarily derives from two factors: (a) learners' attitudes toward the language learning situation and (b) their *integrativeness*, or their interest in learning another language for the purpose of becoming "closer psychologically to the other language community" (Gardner, 2001, p. 12). Gardner (1985) mainly studied learners who were in relatively close proximity to substantial L2 communities (e.g., learners of French in regions of Canada outside of French-speaking Québec). Researchers did not expect this model to fit learners in regions where no substantial L2 community exists (e.g., learners of English in Hungary). However, Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) found that integrativeness appeared to be a primary factor in explaining the L2 motivation of Hungarian learners of English who had little contact with any community of English speakers. In other words, it appeared that the desire to become psychologically closer to an English-speaking community seemed to be a significant motivational factor for learners who had little contact

with any community of English speakers. Dörnyei and Csizér concluded that the questionnaire items they used to measure integrativeness had actually measured something else: namely, the ideal L2 self. This realization marked the beginning of research into the L2 motivational self system framework as a replacement for previous models of L2 motivation.

The L2 Self System in the Japanese University Context

In Japan, extensive research has been conducted at the tertiary level related to the L2 motivational self system, investigating the L2 learning experience and the ideal L2 self together with international posture (Aubrey, 2014; Aubrey & Nowlan, 2013; Munezane, 2013; Yashima, 2009, 2013). Additional promising studies on L2 motivation in Japan measure slightly different constructs, including the positive L2 self (Lake, 2013), possible selves (Apple, Falout, & Hill, 2013), and the micro ideal selves and macro ideal selves (Ueki & Takeuchi, 2013).

Ryan (2009) conducted a nationwide survey in Japan of 2,397 English learners in order to empirically test the concept of the L2 motivational self system suggested by Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) and Dörnyei, Csizér, and Nemeth (2006) in Japan. Ryan's findings paralleled those of Dörnyei's, indicating that the ideal L2 self better explained his sample's L2 motivation than integrativeness. Specifically, having an affinity for the language and culture of a particular local English-speaking community contributed less to these students' L2 motivation than the desire to see themselves as active in a more global English-speaking community (Ryan, 2009).

At a practical level, educators have explored ways to apply the L2 motivational self system to help learners improve their English abilities through a variety of research practices. Falout (2013) provided suggestions for classroom applications of the L2 motivational self system, Kaneko (2012) presented qualitative research on the system through narrative case studies of university science majors, and Irie and Brewster (2013) described similar qualitative research involving liberal arts majors.

Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009) conducted a pivotal study on Dörnyei's (2005) tripartite L2 motivational self system in which they sought to empirically determine the generalizability of the system across varied cultural contexts in Asia by comparing the motivational characteristics of learners of English in Japan, China, and Iran. Their study had three main objectives.

Objective 1. Test the Viability of the Ideal L2 Self as a Replacement for Integrativeness

The researchers first explored whether integrativeness might be a key component of L2 motivation in countries lacking a prominent L2 community with which learners could be integrated. Despite the lack of major L2 communities in Iran, China, and Japan, integrativeness strongly predicted the preference for and effort to learn the L2 in those countries, thus confirming the need to replace integrativeness with a construct that could better explain motivation for these contexts. The analysis revealed that the ideal L2 self more strongly predicted preference for and effort to learn the L2 than integrativeness for the three Asian contexts. These findings suggested that the ideal L2 self may be an appropriate replacement for integrativeness.

Objective 2. Test for Two Distinct Types of Instrumentality

A series of research conducted by Dörnyei and his colleagues (e.g., Dörnyei et al., 2006) derived from the work of Higgins's (1987, 1998) found that "the immediate antecedents of this latent variable [i.e., integrativeness] were attitudes toward L2 speakers/community and instrumentality" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 102). Instrumentality can further be divided into two subconstructs (Dörnyei, 2005):

- *promotional instrumentality*, which emphasizes the benefits of learning the L2, and
- *preventional instrumentality*, which emphasizes the disadvantages of failing to learn the L2.

Dörnyei posited that because the ideal self is concerned with what a learner wishes to achieve, it should be closely related to promotional instrumentality. Conversely, the ought-to L2 self should correlate more with preventional instrumentality because it is concerned with what one is obligated to achieve to avoid negative consequences.

Taguchi et al. (2009) found that promotional instrumentality indeed correlated significantly with the ideal L2 self and not with the ought-to L2 self. However, although preventional instrumentality correlated more strongly with the ought-to L2 self as predicted, promotional instrumentality also significantly correlated with the construct, indicating that the instrumentalities may not be as distinct as the theory presumed.

Objective 3. Test the Validity of Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System Across Cultures

The entire tripartite model, consisting of the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the L2 learning experience, was empirically tested for the first time. Taguchi et al. (2009) hypothesized, based on the work of Dörnyei (2005), that the ideal L2 self would directly affect the criterion measures and indirectly influence them via its effect on attitudes toward language learning. Meanwhile, the ought-to L2 self would directly affect the criterion measures but would not influence the other two components of the framework. Additionally, promotional and preventional instrumentalities, family influence, and attitudes to the L2 culture and community were included as antecedent factors in the model. Structural equation modeling (SEM) confirmed that the patterns of causal relationships between the components of the framework and the criterion measures were valid across contexts, although the strength of the relationships varied depending on the country. The researchers largely attributed the variation to differences between the cultures from which their samples were drawn.

The Importance of Replicating Taguchi et al. (2009)

Replication research in the social sciences as a methodological approach is an accepted and valuable practice for comparing results with the original study (Porte & McManus, 2019), and as the research by Taguchi et al. (2009) is one of the earliest large-scale empirical studies on the L2 motivational system, we believe it warrants replication. Traditionally though, several barriers have limited the number of published replication studies in the social sciences, the foremost being the view of replication research as second tier or not original (Porte, 2013). Many studies in Japan have sought to expand on the original L2 motivational self system model by incorporating unique constructs (Apple et al., 2013; Aubrey, 2014; Aubrey & Nowlan, 2013; Lake, 2013; Munezane, 2013; Ueki & Takeuchi, 2013; Yashima, 2009, 2013). These studies are valuable in broadening our understanding of L2 motivation and can also be considered what Porte (2013) refers to as conceptual replication studies, in which the main underlying concept in the research remains the same. However, because we view the study by Taguchi et al. as foundational to research into the L2 motivational system, we saw value in replicating it as closely as possible. Also, given the ongoing replication crisis in the social sciences, the old view of replication studies as unoriginal is being replaced by the desire for greater diligence in verifying the claims of seminal research in our field (Porte & McManus, 2019). Our aim, therefore, is not to point out

the potential limitations of Taguchi et al., but rather to investigate for further evidence of the validity of their model, while simultaneously uncovering insights from any differences that emerge between our findings and theirs (Porte & McManus, 2019).

Research Questions

The present study partially replicates the previously described study by Taguchi et al. (2009; hereinafter, Taguchi et al.). We address three questions, which parallel the above three objectives of Taguchi et al.:

RQ1. Does the ideal L2 self have a stronger relationship with learners' preference for and effort to learn the L2 than integrativeness?

RQ2. Are there two distinct types of instrumentality? If yes, how are they related, and how do they relate with the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self?

RQ3. Does Dörnyei's (2005) tripartite model explain the overall relationships between attitudinal and motivational factors comprising our participants' L2 motivation?

Additionally, we consider the differences in the strengths of relationships between factors for our sample compared to the samples of Taguchi et al. and postulate possible explanations for those differences.

Method

Participants and Procedure

This study was conducted in 2013 and involved first-year students in a test preparation course taught by 12 different teachers at a national public university in Japan. The teachers administered a questionnaire to students at the end of the academic year, allowing them approximately 10 minutes in which to complete it. Of the 1,114 students who initially registered for the course, 926 attended class and completed the volunteer questionnaire for this study. Of these 926 students, four students failed to respond to 25 percent of the questionnaire items and were therefore omitted from the study, leaving a total study sample of N = 922 (617 males and 305 females). The breakdown of majors was approximately 20 percent economics, 11 percent liberal arts, 28 percent education, 12 percent science, and 29 percent engineering. All but 13 (1.4 percent) of the students were non-English majors.

Instruments

For this study, the same 67 questionnaire items as the questionnaire Taguchi et al. developed for their Japanese participants (the full Japanese version is available in Dörnyei, 2010) were employed with one alteration: Our survey requested the participants' alphanumeric student identification code in place of asking their major with a note that responding to this item was optional. This change allowed us to obtain participants' actual (in addition to perceived) English proficiencies by enabling access to their official Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) scores from tests taken just before beginning the course and once again upon finishing. Prior to filling out the survey, a separate form was administered to obtain participants' signed consent to our using their survey and course performance data, which included their TOEIC scores (in the case that they provided their student identification codes on the survey), for this research. The form made it clear that participation in the study was voluntary and would have no effect on their grade or standing in the course.

In addition to participant background information, the items on the questionnaire measured 10 different motivational and attitudinal factors. The items included both question and statement types employing a 6-point Likert scale, with "not at all" on the left and "very much" on the right. The Appendix displays the factors, an example item for each factor, and the Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients for each item set for both the Japanese participants in Taguchi et al. (2009) and our participants. As shown, there is little difference in the reliability measurements of the items for the two groups of participants, except in the case of attitudes to the L2 community.

Note that a careful inspection of the item numbers for each factor in Taguchi et al. (p. 75) reveals that only 42 of the total 67 items were used to collect data on the factors. The remaining 25 items were intended to measure other components related to motivation such as fear of assimilation and ethnocentrism. Although these items are not mentioned further in Taguchi et al., they assisted in assessing the validity of the main measures that were employed in the analyses (Taguchi, 2010). Also, note that Taguchi et al. included only 29 of the 42 items developed to collect data on factors in their structural model for their Japanese sample (see p. 83). As detailed in Taguchi et al., the other items were dropped during the measurement model stage of their analysis prior to the creation and testing of their structural model because a valid relationship could not be demonstrated between those items and the attitudinal and/or motivational factors they were supposed to measure.

Therefore, we also excluded that data from our model as well as omitting from our study the previously mentioned 25 items measuring other components.

Analysis

To investigate whether the findings of Taguchi et al. were replicable in the Japanese university context, we followed the same procedures they employed and compared our results to theirs. First, we investigated the relationship between integrativeness and the criterion measures. English proficiency as measured by TOEIC scores was included as a secondary criterion measure. Next, we examined the correlations between integrativeness and the ideal L2 self for evidence that the two might be equated. We then investigated correlations to determine if there were two distinct types of instrumentality that corresponded to the two types of self in the L2 motivational self system. Finally, we employed SEM using Amos (Version 21; Arbuckle, 2012) to assess the validity of Taguchi et al.'s model of Dörnyei's (2005) tripartite L2 self system. In particular, we were concerned with the model for Japanese university learners. We addressed missing data in the same way as Taguchi et al. by utilizing the expectation-maximization algorithm.

Results

Correlation Analyses

First, we compared the correlations between the ideal L2 self and integrativeness for both studies. Table 1 shows a significant correlation between the ideal L2 self and integrativeness, which is comparable to those found by Taguchi et al., particularly for their non-Japanese samples.

Table 1. A Comparison of Correlations Found Between the Ideal L2 Self and Integrativeness

Study	Japan	China	Iran
Taguchi et al. (2009)	.59	.51	.53
	(1,534)	(1,328)	(2,029)
Present study	.50	–	–
	(922)		

Congruent with the findings of Taguchi et al., the criterion measures correlated significantly with both integrativeness and the ideal L2 self in the present study. Table 2 further shows that the criterion measures are more strongly correlated with the ideal L2 self than with integrativeness.

Table 2. A Comparison of Correlations Found Between the Criterion Measures and the Ideal L2 Self and Integrativeness Respectively

Study	Construct	Japan	China	Iran
Taguchi et al. (2009)	Ideal L2 self	.68	.55	.61
	Integrativeness	.64	.52	.58
Present study	Ideal L2 self	.60	–	–
	Integrativeness	.51	–	–

Note. All correlations are significant at the $p < .01$ level.

The data revealed that, although both integrativeness and the ideal L2 self correlated significantly with learners' English proficiency as measured by averaged pre- and post-TOEIC scores for the 437 participants who volunteered to identify themselves, the correlation was stronger with the ideal L2 self, $r = .24$, $p < .001$, than with integrativeness, $r = .15$, $p = .002$. Although these correlations are both rather weak, it is important to note that participants' own self-assessments of their proficiency had only a slightly higher correlation with their ideal L2 self, $r = .28$, $p < .001$, and with integrativeness, $r = .20$, $p < .001$. Meanwhile, neither self-assessed proficiency nor proficiency as measured by the TOEIC correlated significantly with the ought-to self, $r = .05$, $p = .297$ and $r = -.02$, $p = .677$ respectively.

Next, we examined the relationships between ideal L2 selves and ought-to L2 selves, promotional instrumentality, and preventional instrumentality. Our results are displayed in Table 3 and those of Taguchi et al. are presented in Table 4. Comparing the findings of the two studies, we see that, in both cases, instrumentality promotion correlated more highly with the ideal L2 self than with the ought-to L2 self, and instrumentality prevention correlated more highly with the ought-to L2 self than with the ideal L2 self. The difference between our findings and Taguchi et al.'s findings lies in the near equal correlations between the two instrumentalities and the ought-to L2 self, whereas theory predicts that preventional instrumentality should have a stronger relationship with the ought-to L2 self than promotional

instrumentality. This finding parallels the results for the Chinese and Iranian samples in Taguchi et al.

Table 3. Relationships Between Instrumentalities and Ideal L2 and Ought-to L2 Selves

Construct	Ideal L2 self	Ought-to L2 self	Promotional instrumentality
Ought-to L2 self	.35**	–	–
Promotional instrumentality	.56**	.35**	–
Preventional instrumentality	.08*	.37**	.47**

*p < .05, two-tailed. **p < .01, two-tailed.

Table 4. Relationships Between Instrumentalities in Taguchi et al. (2009)

Construct	Ideal L2 self			Ought-to L2 self			Promotional instrumentality		
	Japan	China	Iran	Japan	China	Iran	Japan	China	Iran
Ought-to L2 self	.14**	.07*	.26**	–	–	–	–	–	–
Promotional instrumentality	.60**	.46**	.63**	.27**	.46**	.44**	–	–	–
Preventional instrumentality	-.05	-.13**	.00	.45**	.68**	.62**	.31**	.26**	.29**

Note. Adapted from "The L2 Motivational System Among Japanese, Chinese, and Iranian Learners of English: A Comparative Study," by T. Taguchi, M. Magid, & M. Papi, in Z. Dörnyei and E. Ushioda (Eds), *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self* (p. 79), 2009, Multilingual Matters (https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847691293-005). Copyright 2009 by Tatsuya Taguchi, Michael Magid, and Mostafa Papi. Reprinted with permission.

Structural Equation Modeling Analysis

The validity of the L2 motivational self system and related attitudinal and motivational factors was evaluated by applying it to the data from our sample and examining the path coefficients and goodness-of-fit measures.

To do this, we tested a structural model identical to the one Taguchi et al. developed for their Japanese students (see Figure 1 for their original model). As did their model, our model (see Figure 2) combines attitudes to the L2 community and cultural interest into a single variable, moving one of the scales used for the ought-to L2 self over to be included in a family influence variable. The model includes the ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, attitudes to learning English, and the criterion measures as latent variables.
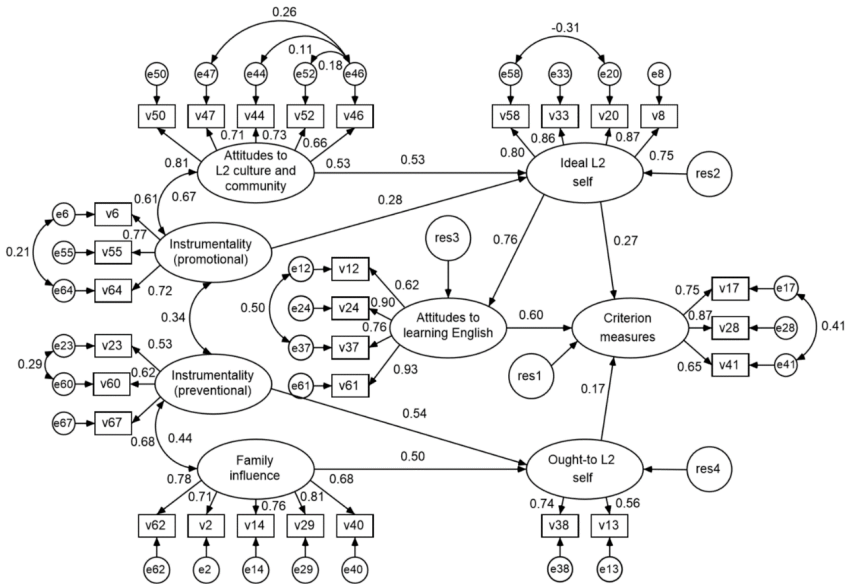
Figure 1. Taguchi et al.'s (2009) original model of the L2 self system with standardized estimates for their Japanese university student sample. Paths indicate hypothesized causal relationships. e = error variance; res = residual; v = variable (questionnaire item). From "The L2 Motivational System Among Japanese, Chinese, and Iranian Learners of English: A Comparative Study," by T. Taguchi, M. Magid, & M. Papi, in Z. Dörnyei and E. Ushioda (Eds), *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self* (p. 83), 2009, Multilingual Matters (https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847691293-005). Copyright 2009 by Tatsuya Taguchi, Michael Magid, and Mostafa Papi. Reprinted with permission.
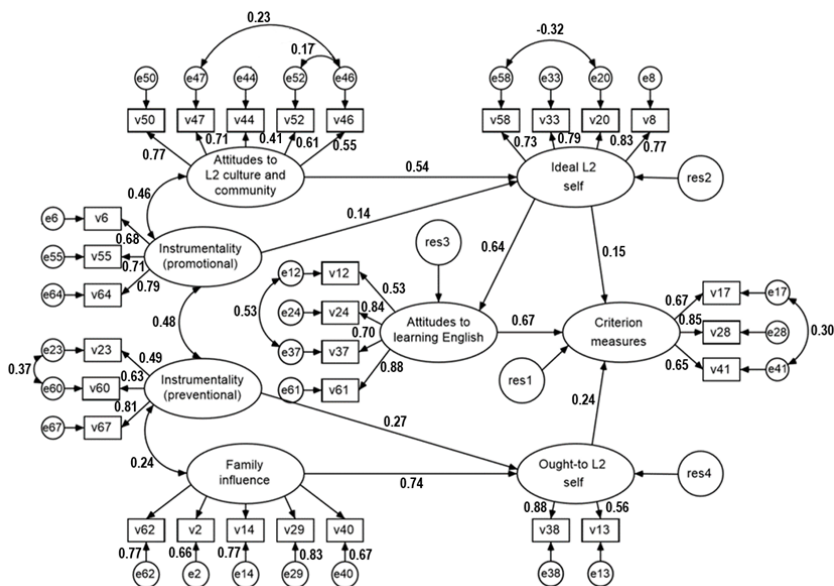
Figure 2. Our model of the L2 motivational self system derived by applying the original model for Japanese students by Taguchi et al. (2009) to our sample with standardized estimates. Paths indicate hypothesized causal relationships and their strengths. e = error variance; res = residual covariance; v = variable (questionnaire item). N = 922. All path coefficients are significant at p < .001. χ^2(360) = 1551.40, p < .001, GFI = .893; CFI = .905; RMSEA = .06.

With the exception of the removal of the error covariances between e6 and e64 and between e44 and e46 due to their nonsignificance, our model is structured the same as the original model for Japanese students by Taguchi et al. All paths were significant at the p < .001 level, with an expectedly large chi-square of χ^2(360) = 1551.40, p < .001. GFI, CFI, and RMSEA values (.89, .91, and .06 respectively) further indicated the model's goodness of fit. Although the GFI is lower than hoped for, the CFI and RMSEA are both within traditionally acceptable ranges (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). It is possible that by altering the paths or dropping items, we could have produced more favorable goodness-of-fit indices, but our aim was to replicate the model of Taguchi et al. rather than to produce a new model. Therefore, we have refrained from such alterations.

Figure 3 shows how, overall, coefficients of the model matched those obtained by Taguchi et al. One notable difference was that the ought-to L2 self had a stronger direct influence on the criterion measures than the ideal L2 self. The next section discusses this and other differences further.
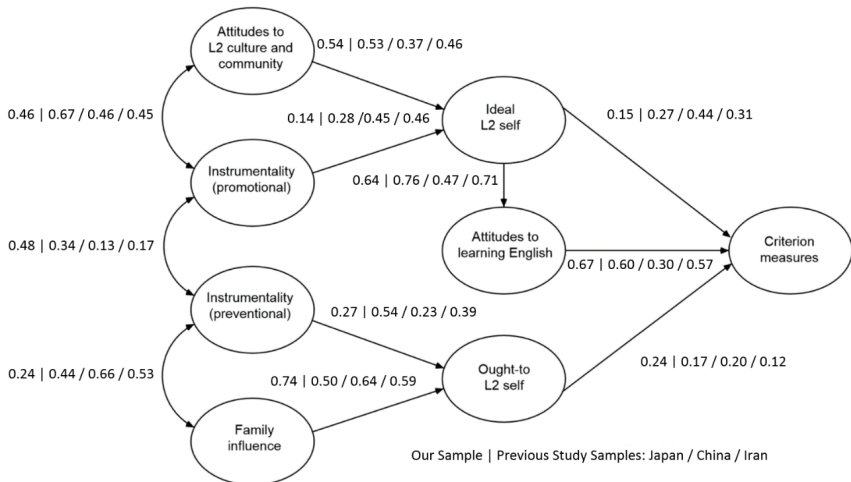
Figure 3. Comparing coefficients in our study to those of Taguchi et al. (2009). Adapted from "The L2 Motivational System Among Japanese, Chinese, and Iranian Learners of English: A Comparative Study," by T. Taguchi, M. Magid, & M. Papi, in Z. Dörnyei and E. Ushioda (Eds), *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self* (p. 86), 2009, Multilingual Matters (https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847691293-005). Copyright 2009 by Tatsuya Taguchi, Michael Magid, and Mostafa Papi. Reprinted with permission.

Discussion

Findings in Support of the Tripartite Model of L2 Motivation

In our study, we first sought to determine whether the ideal L2 self is a more effective construct than integrativeness for explaining L2 motivation in diverse contexts. As explained in the introduction, integrativeness should not play a role in determining learner motivation in a country such as Japan, because there is no substantial subpopulation of English-as-a-first-language users with which a learner could hope to integrate. However, as in Taguchi et al. and Dörnyei et al. (2006), the higher our Japanese participants' motiva-

tion was, the more apparent integrativeness they seemed to possess. Also, as in Taguchi et al., our sample's apparent integrativeness was highly correlated with the ideal L2 self, and the ideal L2 self correlated more highly with learners' preference for and effort to learn English than did integrativeness. This result paralleled our additional finding that the ideal L2 self was a better predictor of L2 proficiency as measured by the TOEIC than integrativeness.

At the same time, the lack of a significant correlation between the ought-to self and both self-assessed proficiency and proficiency as measured by the TOEIC shows that the ought-to self is not a predictor of L2 learning achievement. This is relatively unsurprising as the ought-to self primarily derives from the perceived expectations of a learner's family and society. Although the influence of the ought-to self may increase as a learner fails to achieve expected learning outcomes, implying a negative correlation, the ought-to self should neither increase nor decrease as a learner achieves at or above the expected level of learning. This explanation is supported by a significant negative correlation that emerged between TOEIC scores and the ought-to self for only the lower performing half of those in our sample whose scores were available (n = 219), r = -.15, p = .026, whereas the correlation for the upper half (n = 218) remained insignificant at r = .02, p = .803. Thus, despite our finding that the ought-to self had a stronger influence on the criterion measures than the ideal L2 self for our sample, no consistent overall relationship emerged between the ought-to self and actual L2 proficiency.

The rather surprising weakness of the correlation—between the TOEIC scores and the ideal L2 self as well as between self-assessed proficiency and the ideal L2 self—may suggest that motivation is not as strong a predictor of proficiency as many would assume. Vandergrift (2005) obtained similarly weak correlations when measuring the relationship between motivation and L2 listening proficiency: The strongest and only significant correlation was -.30 with amotivation (correlations with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation were .12 and .16 respectively). Upon reflection, though, we note that the relationship between proficiency and motivation may not always be a positive one, nor must it always be motivation that affects proficiency. The reverse is also possible. Someone who achieves a high proficiency test score, for example, may become complacent with their L2 ability and consequently experience a drop in their motivation. Meanwhile, another learner might be motivated by a low test score to do better the next time. Alternatively, the student who gets the high score might become more motivated having seen

their efforts pay off on the test, while the student who got the low score might see it as evidence that, no matter how hard they try, they can never get better at the L2. Given this complex dynamic, the weak positive correlation between the ideal L2 self and TOEIC score is less surprising. Regardless, we concur with Taguchi et al. that the ideal L2 self is a more conceptually sound and empirically powerful construct than integrativeness for explaining L2 motivation.

Similar to Taguchi et al., we found that the ideal L2 self was strongly related to promotional instrumentality, but had no significant relationship with preventional instrumentality. Likewise, the ought-to L2 self was more strongly related with preventional instrumentality than it was with promotional. However, the findings for our participants differed from Taguchi et al. in that the correlation between promotional instrumentality and the ought-to L2 self—though lower than that of preventional instrumentality and the ought-to L2 self—was nearly equal.

Taguchi et al.'s Chinese and Iranian samples also had relatively higher correlations between promotional instrumentality and the ought-to L2 self. Taguchi et al. attributed these to socioeconomic factors in their countries—specifically to higher family pressure to advance their careers compared to their Japanese counterparts. Due to this pressure, the responses of these two groups to career-related instrumentality promotion items reflected their families' interests as much as their own (i.e., reflecting their ought-to L2 self). A similar explanation may be applied to the Japanese sample in this study. Family influence played an even more central role in determining our participants' L2 motivation than it did for the Chinese sample of Taguchi et al. for whom family influence was the strongest.

The overall model of L2 motivation tested by Taguchi et al. proved valid for our sample as well. We found that L2 motivation, perceived promotional instrumentality of the L2, and learners' attitudes toward the L2 culture influenced their ideal L2 self. Their ideal L2 self, in turn, had a direct effect on their preference for and effort to learn the L2 while indirectly influencing attitudes toward learning the L2. Concurrently, family influence and the perceived preventional instrumentality of the L2 affected learners' ought-to L2 self. The learners' ought-to L2 self had a direct effect on preference for and effort to learn the L2. Also, echoing the findings of Taguchi et al. regarding their Japanese sample and in contrast with their Iranian and Chinese samples, our participants' attitudes toward the L2 culture had a much stronger impact on their ideal L2 self than did the promotional instrumentality of the L2. We also found that, similar to their Japanese and

Iranian samples, our sample exhibited disproportionate indirect influence of the ideal L2 self on the preference for and effort to learn the L2.

Exploring Differences in the Model

The findings of the current study regarding the overall tripartite model correspond to those of Taguchi et al. with three notable differences in the strength of relations between factors. The first has already been discussed: that is, the relatively strong correlation between promotional instrumentality and the ought-to L2 self, which was more similar to the non-Japanese samples of Taguchi et al. than it was to their Japanese sample. Second, the influence of family on the ought-to L2 self exceeded that of any of the samples in the study by Taguchi et al. and was disproportionately stronger than the influence of preventional instrumentality. Third, unlike any of the samples in Taguchi et al., the influence of the ought-to L2 self on the preference for and effort to learn English surpassed the direct influence of the ideal L2 self. The present sample's socioeconomic background and the type of English course they were enrolled in may help to explain these differences.

Considering differences in institutional context may provide insights into the disproportionate influence of the family as well as that of the ought-to L2 self. Whereas Taguchi et al. involved eight universities, six of which were private (see Taguchi, 2010), our study was conducted at a single public university. Public universities in Japan are more affordable and generally more competitive than private universities. The combination of affordability and competitiveness of the university in our study makes it reasonable to assume that, compared to the sample of Taguchi et al., a larger portion of students in our sample were from families with modest incomes who were encouraged to study long hours for a better chance of entering the university. Irie and Brewster (2013) found that such family influences due to economic pressures coincided with a university student's inability to envision a robust ideal self. Overall, similar to the Chinese and Iranian samples of Taguchi et al., the students in our sample are more likely to see the promotional aspects of learning English as a means of helping them fulfill obligations to their family, which in turn impacts their ought-to L2 self.

The type of English course in which the participants were enrolled, as well as the proportion of participants majoring in English in our study, also differed from Taguchi et al.. The students in their sample took various English courses, including compulsory and elective, general, and content-based (Taguchi, personal communication, October 12, 2019). Conversely, all of our participants experienced a compulsory English course that focused

mainly on developing business-related test-taking skills as opposed to actual language proficiency or knowledge of content. Furthermore, approximately 21% of Taguchi et al.'s sample were English majors; in our study they were less than two percent. Ueki and Takeuchi (2013) found that ideal L2 self influence on motivated behavior was stronger for English majors compared to non-English majors, while the ought-to L2 self influence was stronger for non-English majors than for those who majored in English. Students majoring in English are more likely to see learning the language as career-oriented and identity-affirming behavior, whereas non-English majors are less likely to be able to connect learning the L2 with career goals or a positive future self-image. This is especially so in the case of our sample, whose English course content was largely unrelated to their fields of study, making it more difficult for them to envision how they might ideally use the L2 in the future. This may have diminished their sense of ideal L2 self and thereby weakened its influence on their preference for and effort to learn the L2. The findings of several studies support this explanation, providing evidence for the demotivating influence of nonrelevant EFL content (Edsall & Saito, 2012; Falout, Elwood, & Hood, 2009; Kikuchi, 2009, 2013; Kikuchi & Browne, 2009; Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009).

Given that the three samples in the study by Taguchi et al. were each from a different culture, it is understandable that the researchers attributed the differences in strengths between motivational factors in their samples to differences in culture. However, we found that, with regard to the strengths of relations between certain factors in the model, our sample had more in common with the non-Japanese samples of Taguchi et al. than with their Japanese sample. Therefore, we hypothesize that other differences such as in the socioeconomic and educational context may also play an important role in determining the specific strengths of relationships between factors. Further research is needed to determine whether this hypothesis is empirically supported.

Practical Implications

Our study adds to the growing evidence that the L2 motivational self system applies to learners across cultures. Our findings also suggest that curricular variation may lead to differences in the strengths of relations between factors within that system. Therefore, it is worthwhile to consider how the framework can inform our teaching practice and how we may be able to positively influence our students' motivational dynamics through making proactive changes to their educational context.

The ideal L2 self, as well as the ought-to L2 self, significantly influence preference for and effort to learn the language. Thus, finding ways to help learners develop, clarify, and strengthen these L2 selves should lead to an increase in their motivation. Based on our findings, one way to strengthen learners' L2 selves might be to revise their English curriculum to align more with their projected career paths, for example, introducing or increasing content-based English courses in core subjects of their majors.

Another approach involves the direct application of the L2 motivational self system in the language classroom. Dörnyei (2009b) and Mackay (2014) provided general guidelines for how students can develop and realize their L2 selves. They described a process by which students envision, clarify, and strengthen both their ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self while setting and working toward goals that are in line with those selves. Meanwhile, Hadfield and Dörnyei (2013) offered explicit techniques for developing students' L2 selves. These techniques employ classroom activities in which students use mental imagery to develop their vision of what kind of person they would like to become. Arnold, Puchta, and Rinvolucri (2007) provided activities that, though not always targeting the development of the L2 selves, seek to strengthen learners' ability to envision possible selves. Magid and Chan (2012) and Murray (2011) found that learners strengthened their visions of their L2 selves with such techniques as imagery, goal setting, and self-regulation. Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014) offered practical imagery tools for teachers to strengthen learners' sense of their ideal L2 selves that include the guided use of journals, virtual platforms, group learning visions, reality checklists, and mapping out plans for success. Dörnyei and Kubanyiova also addressed the motivational needs of teachers through vision techniques that contribute to the overall motivational strength and resolve of the stakeholders in the language classroom.

Conclusion

In this study, we sought to further confirm the generalizability of the L2 motivational self system through partially replicating the research of Taguchi et al. (2009) and to explore any differences between their samples and ours. Specifically, we investigated, first, whether the ideal L2 self is a better predictor of L2 motivation than integrativeness, and second, whether there are two distinct types of instrumentality corresponding to the two types of the L2 self (Dörnyei, 2005). Third, we investigated whether the tripartite model of Taguchi et al. sufficiently explains the relationships between motivational

and attitudinal factors that comprised our participants' L2 motivation. Finally, we explored the differences that emerged in the strengths of relations between motivational factors for our sample compared to those of Taguchi et al.

Our results support the findings of Taguchi et al. that integrativeness among EFL populations may be the ideal L2 self imperfectly measured. The ideal L2 self, although correlated with integrativeness, is a more accurate and theoretically sound predictor of L2 motivation than integrativeness. The ideal L2 self also has a higher correlation with both perceived and actual proficiency than integrativeness, although these correlations are weaker than expected. Meanwhile, promotional instrumentality has a strong relationship with the ideal L2 self, whereas the relationship between preventional instrumentality and the ideal L2 self is comparatively weak. These findings, combined with the results of our SEM analysis, indicate that the tripartite model of L2 motivation used by Taguchi et al. also sufficiently describes our sample.

Though our findings provide overall support for Taguchi et al.'s model, differences emerged in the strength of the relationships between certain factors in the model. Foremost was the ought-to L2 self's stronger direct influence on preference for and effort to learn the L2 compared with that of the ideal L2 self. Additionally, family influence more strongly contributed to the ought-to L2 self than it did for any of Taguchi et al.'s samples. Furthermore, the relatively strong correlation between promotional instrumentality and the ought-to L2 self more closely resembled the earlier study's Chinese and Iranian samples than its Japanese sample. We posit that differences in socioeconomic background and educational context between our sample and the Japanese sample in the previous study explain these differences, but further research is necessary before this explanation can be accepted or rejected.

To conclude, our study provides evidence supporting the explanatory power of the tripartite model of the L2 motivational self originally tested by Taguchi et al. Overall, the framework of the L2 motivational self appears to provide a robust and culture-independent explanation of the factors comprising L2 motivation and their interrelationships. Finally, the differences we found suggest the limitations of culture-based explanations for variations between samples, opening the door for further research into the role of other contextual factors in the L2 motivational self system.

Acknowledgments

Leander Hughes is an associate professor at Saitama University. His research interests include the psychology of language learning, vocabulary acquisition, reading in a second language, and CALL.

Stacey Vye is an associate professor at Saitama University. Her research interests include university students' perceptions of English language learning and learner and teacher autonomy.

Debjani Ray is employed at Tokyo University of Science. She is interested in English language education and social education, specifically, women's empowerment.

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Appendix

Questionnaire Factors, Example Items, and Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients

Factor name	Example item	α (Taguchi et al. 2009)	α (Present study)
Criterion measures	I am working hard at learning English.	.83	.78
Ideal L2 self	I can imagine myself living abroad and having a discussion in English.	.89	.81
Ought-to L2 self	Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so.	.76	.80
Family influence	My parents encourage me to study English.	.83	.81
Promotional instrumentality	Studying English is important for me because with English I can work globally.	.82	.79
Preventional instrumentality	I have to learn English because without passing the English course I cannot graduate.	.73	.72
Attitudes to learning English	I really enjoy learning English.	.90	.85
Cultural interest	Do you like the music of English-speaking countries (e.g. pop music)?	.77	.79
Attitudes to L2 Community	Do you like the people who live in English-speaking countries?	.86	.67
integrativeness	How much would you like to become similar to the people who speak English?	.64	.56

指導体験が及ぼす教職志望学生のアイデンティティの変化

Some Changes of Prospective Teachers' Identities Caused by Teaching Experience

吉田真美
Mami Yoshida
京都外国語大学
Kyoto University of Foreign Studies

相川真佐夫
Masao Aikawa
京都外国語短期大学
Kyoto Junior College of Foreign Languages

本研究は英語教育（TEFL）コースに在籍する学生3名が、課外活動として小学校英語ボランティア活動に2年間参加したことによる成長とアイデンティティの変容を、質的分析を用いて考察するものである。活動途中と終了時に半構造化面接を行い、SCAT（大谷, 2008, 2011）により分析したデータに対して、Lave・Wenger（1991）の正統的周辺参加理論を用いて理論的記述を試みた。分析の結果、「英語教育（TEFL）コースの学生」、「児童の指導者」、「活動グループのメンバー」という3つの立場におけるアイデンティティが形成され、関与、想像、調整という3つのモードがその形成に関わっていたことが示唆された。また、3名それぞれに異なるアイデンティティが形成され、個人内でも複数のアイデンティティが相互に影響を与え合っていたことも分かった。教職課程という特定の専門職養成プロセスにおいて、課外活動である実践共同体への参加が社会的・職業的自己形成に与える有効性を検証し、教員養成課程の充実化への提案も行う。

The longitudinal case study reported in this paper examined how the extracurricular teaching experiences of 3 Japanese undergraduate TEFL (teaching English as a foreign language) students formed and shaped their multiple identities. The students volunteered to participate in a yearlong extracurricular teaching practicum and were interviewed at two points, in the middle of the practicum and at its end. Semistructured interviews were carried out and analysed to examine the identity development patterns of the participants, not only as TEFL students, but also as instructors for young learners and community members.

Although identity development of novice language teachers and pre-service teachers has been addressed in previous research (Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Liu & Fisher, 2006; Merseth, Sommer, & Dickstein, 2008; Tsui, 2007), only Tsui (2007) explicitly discussed the multiple identity formation of a pre-service teacher. Lave and Wenger's (1991) theory of situated learning provides a useful framework for understanding identity transformation through practice. As opposed to viewing identity as a singular entity, this framework conceptualizes it as both one's lived experience of developing practice within each community and a nexus of multi-membership. It is assumed that being a person requires the reconciliation of various forms of membership, a process called the negotiation of meaning. As well as the negotiation of meaning, identities are understood to be formed through the process of identification as well as through the interactions between the processes of identification and meaning negotiation. Tsui used this framework to discuss the multiple identity formation of a pre-service teacher. No study, however, has focused on multiple identities emerging from teaching experiences for TEFL course undergraduates.

As such, in order to understand the complexities of development patterns of TEFL students' emerging identities in the context of group activity practice, the experiences of 3 undergraduate TEFL students participating in a voluntary yearlong optional extracurricular teaching practicum were analysed. The practicum was implemented as follows: Over the course of a year, a group of 10 student teachers each gave a 1-hour English class once a month to a group of 20-30 pupils ranging from the 4th graders to 6th graders as optional Saturday classes in public elementary schools in Kyoto, Japan. In addition to teaching, the participants also engaged in the preparation (involving developing lesson plans and teaching materials and rehearsing the lesson) and reflection phases.

Semistructured interviews were conducted twice, in the middle and at the end of the program, and the interviews were transcribed, coded, and analyzed, using SCAT (Steps for Coding and Theorization; Ohtani, 2008, 2011). The following questions guided the research:

RQ1. What kind of identities did the students develop during the project?

RQ2. How did their emerging identities change?

From the transcribed data, codes and categories were created to identify emerging themes.

The findings showed that participation in the yearlong practice contributed to the development of 3 types of identities for the TEFL students: teacher trainees, FL teachers for young learners, and community members. The emerging identities also influenced each other in qualitatively different manners between individual cases. The 3 TEFL students' conceptions about their 3 different positions showed varying degrees of change over the year, and thereby differing change patterns in the development of each of the 3 identities. As they came to see themselves as teachers by playing that role for the pupils, their pre-existing identity as teacher trainees transformed, depending on how successfully they had performed the competencies expected of them. As members of the teaching community, they also found different ways to be fully participating members by contributing to the community of practice in different ways.

Based on the findings of the study, ways of improving teacher-training courses are proposed. First, a deeper understanding of L2 teacher identity development should be included in the knowledge base of L2 teacher education curricula because the construction of teacher identity is integral to novice L2 teachers' learning-to-teach processes. Second, on-site training should be more widely introduced in EFL teacher training programs as it provides real-life opportunities for trainees to experience being responsible for the learning of real learners.

Keywords: 教員養成課程;アイデンティティ; 実践共同体; SCAT;半構造化面接; prospective teachers; identity; community of practice; SCAT; interview

教育実習などの実践体験は、教員養成課程の実習生にとって、在学中に適性を熟考する職業探索プロセスとなり、進路決定時に適性を判断したり、明確な職業的アイデンティティを確立したりできるので、選択した進路に対する自信や職業生活意識に大きく影響すると言われている（松井・柴田，2008）。しかしながら、日本における教育実習は最終学年に短期間集中型で実施されるので、自分の実践を振り返り適性を判断する余裕が十分確保できるとは言いがたい。一方、学校現場で行う実践の一つである学校ボランティア等の体験は、教育実践の場において、長期に亘って指導者としての立場と教職の専門を学ぶ実習生としての立場を往還することを可能にする。教員養成のための学習環境があれば、実践の振り返りを教室で学んだ理論に照らし合わせ、自分の課題を解決すべくまた実践の中で試すというサイクルが豊富に得られる。そのため、自己の成長とともに時間をかけて適性を判断したり、職業的アイデンティティを形成したりすることが可能となると考えられる。さらに担当の教員から一方的に注意や批判的なフィードバックを受ける教育実習と異なり、学生主体で構築及び運営するボランティア活動等であれば、参加メンバーであるピアや児童から得るフィードバックに加え、自発的な気づきをより促す場になりえる。そしてそのような学びの場が得られれば、学習とは教師からの情報転移型でなく、なんらかの文化実践を行う実践共同体において、新参者が正統的周辺参加を経て古参者（経験者）へと成長していく過程であるとするLave・Wenger（1991）の正統的周辺参加理論（Legitimate Peripheral Participation：以降LPP）における学びの概念に

合致した実践の場になるであろう。このような他者との関係性を通して個人の社会経験が成り立つ実践共同体に参加する機会を、実習生が教職に就く前に得ることは、専門性を極めて職業的アイデンティティを確立するだけでなく、その進路への適性を見極めるのに有効であると考えられる。しかしながら、そのような教育現場での実践体験がどのように職業的アイデンティティを形成させ、職業的専門性を深める以外にどのような学びをもたらせるのか、そしてそれが進路決定過程においてどのように影響するのかを明らかにしている研究は少なく、研究の余地が残されている。

　そこで本稿では、教職を目指す英語教育（TEFL）コースの学生が、小学校英語ボランティア活動という学校現場において学生主体に行う実践活動を通して、実習生として職業の専門性を獲得しながら、指導者としてのアイデンティティを構築していく過程を質的なアプローチにより、明らかにする。また、学生中心で運営する実践共同体で生じうる他のアイデンティティの表出の可能性にも注目した。英語教員養成課程の学生が、学生主体に構築した実践共同体において、専門性やアイデンティティの獲得の軌跡をたどっていくことで、将来の教員養成課程の指導内容への示唆が得られると考える。

先行研究

言語教師としてのアイデンティティの構築

外国語の教師の学びと認知についての研究が、1990年代より盛んになり（Borg, 2003；Farrell, 2006；Richards, 2005）、初年度の教育現場における新米教師（Gu, 2013；Kumazawa, 2013；Tsui, 2007；Xu, 2013）や、実習期間中の英語教育（TEFL）コースの学生（Kanno & Stuart, 2011；Liu & Fisher, 2006；Merseth, Sommer, & Dickstein, 2008）が、どのように言語教師としてのアイデンティティを構築したり、変容させたりするかを考察した研究が注目を浴びている。しかしながら、これらの先行研究のほとんどが、教師としてのアイデンティティの構築及び変容にのみ注目しているように見受けられる。本活動も教職志望の学生に有益な効果を与えていることは、吉田・相川（2012, 2013）によっても示された。しかしながら、実践共同体に参入し実践活動に従事することで、教職課程の学習者が専門性を深める以外に、どのように英語指導者としてのアイデンティティを構築するのか、それ以外にどのような変化があり、その変化が最終的にどのように職業的適性の判断に影響するのかは具体的に明らかにされていない。

実践共同体におけるアイデンティティ形成

Lave・Wenger（1991）のLPPでは、アイデンティティの定義を自己と他者、社会との関係性のなかで互いに影響を与えあって育まれる自己意識とし、すべての学習はいわば「何者かになっていく」というアイデンティティの変容を伴う自分づくり、つまりアイデンティティ形成過程であるとしている。実践共同体への参加の位置が周辺的参加（peripheral participation）から十全的参加（full participation）へと移行していくプロセスを学習としているLPPでは、新参者は共同体に正統的な立場で、周辺的な位置から参加を始めて、徐々に中心的な課題をこなせるようになり、十全的な役割を果たす段階に到達することで知識や技能が取得されると想定してい

る。本活動における学びも、命題的知識の獲得を意味するのではなく、実践共同体（community of practice）への「参加」という状況の中に置かれており、行為者による教師としてのアイデンティティだけでなく実践共同体において求められる役割としての技能の獲得、または目的の遂行といった実践面にも注目する必要があることからも、LPPの理論を援用することが適切と考えられる。

アイデンティ形成の二つのプロセス

Wenger（1998）は、アイデンティティとは、アイデンティフィケーション（identification；自己同一化）と意味の交渉（negotiation of meaning）という二重の過程が相互作用しあって形成されると想定している。そしてアイデンティティ形成の一つのプロセスであるアイデンティフィケーションは、「関与（engagement）」、「想像（imagination）」、「調整（alignment）」という３つのモードにおいて実現されるとしている。またもう一つの過程である意味の交渉というのは、その共同体で期待されているパフォーマンスと自らの信条との相違による葛藤がイベントや行動などの形式で具現化される過程である。その結果、その事業においてどれだけ期待されるパフォーマンスを見せられるかどうかで能力（competence）の有無が判断され、他者による評価によって共同体への参加が周辺的になるのか、また十全的になるのかが決定すると理論づけている。

複合的アイデンティティ形成と想像上のアイデンティティへの「投資」

Norton・McKinney（2011）がアイデンティティの特徴とは複合的かつ、その複合的なアイデンティティ間で交渉がなされるものであり、時間と空間を越えて変容するものであると述べているように、実習生は本実践活動において児童との関係構築からの学びや、活動の実施という共通の目標に向けた協働作業からの学びなど、さまざまな立場でアイデンティティを形成し、複合的なアイデンティティを再形成しながら自己変容を遂げる可能性があると考えられる。

　また、Wenger（1998）の「想像（imagination）」という概念に基いてNorton（2000）は、現在直接見える形で所属している共同体の延長上に将来参入していく可能性のある共同体を「想像上の共同体（imagined communities）」とし、そこで自分がどう活躍できるかという「想像上のアイデンティティ（imagined identity）」も形成され得ると仮定している。その想像上のアイデンティティとは「新たな目標コミュニティ（target language community）」の中でどういう参加者でありたいかという将来を描く中で形成される。そしてそれが肯定的なイメージであれば、「投資（investment）」行為が遂行される。つまり小学校でのボランティア活動に参加することは、既に「英語教育コース」の実習生として、想像上の共同体（教育現場）において肯定的な想像上のアイデンティティが形成されたからこそ遂行した投資行為と言える。そしてその投資行為であるボランティア経験が、各参加者によって異なる体験となり、最終的には異なった想像上のアイデンティティが形成されると考えられる。

調査方法

活動の概要

実践的経験にもとづく教師の「反省的思考（reflection in action）」に焦点をあてた
教員養成の一連の教師認知の研究（例：Zeichner, 1983；Zeichner & Liston, 1987；
Calderhead, 1989；Wallace, 1991）を踏まえて、京都外国語大学の英語教育（TEFL）
コース（2017年度で廃止）では、従来の単発的な短期集中型の実践体験に加え
て、2009年に小学校で英語活動ボランティアを行うという任意の課外活動を立ち上げ
た（図1参照）。繰り返しの実践から見い出した自らの課題の解決のために様々な工夫
を創出するという「経験→内省」のサイクルを体験する場を提供することで、自分自身
の指導実践から学ぶ視点を持つ教師として成長すると、本コースでは考えた。
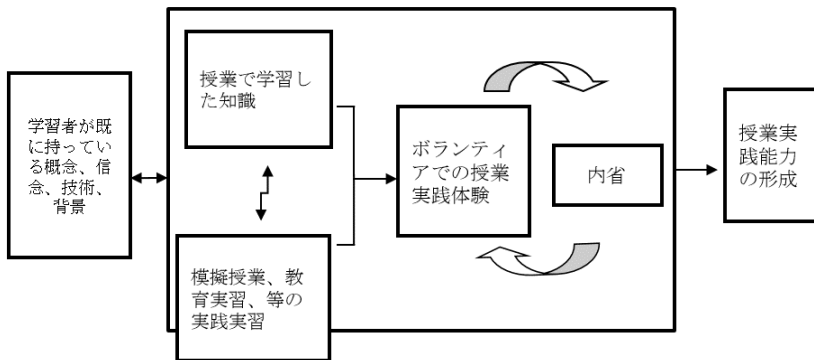
図1. 英語教育（TEFL）コースにおける小学校英語活動：ボランティアプロジェクトで
の学習モデル（吉田・相川, 2013より）。

　　本英語活動ボランティアは、地域住民のボランティアによる教育補助活動の一環とし
て、京都市立の特定の小学校で、土曜日の10:00〜11:00の時間帯に60分間の任意の英
語活動を年間約8回開催している。対象は1年間の参加希望の申込みがあった4、5、6年
生の児童で構成された約20〜30名のクラスである。登録学生の約30名（短期大学生、
大学生、大学院生）のうち毎回ほぼ固定した8〜10名が、チームを組んで英語活動の準
備及び指導をしている。参加学生の多くが教職志望者であり、上記の英語教育コース
（当時）に属している。

　　一回の英語活動を実施するにあたり、初回のテーマや活動メンバーの決定のため
のミーティングから、指導案や教材・教具の作成及び実技の練習等で、準備に約1カ月
（約20時間〜30時間）をかける。テーマと主な活動は本学の教員や参加学生が主体
的に活動の詳細を決定し、指導案の作成や教具の作成から実技練習も行う。基本的
には学生間で実技の向上を目指して問題を指摘しあいながら準備を進めるが、活動
直後に反省会を開き、活動準備や本番に関する反省点やコメントに加えて、直後に
は実施校の関係者からもフィードバックを得る。さらに、参与観察者でもある筆者も助
言を与えたり、後日の振り返りの会では、ビデオを見ながら活動のデザインや実践技
術についての講評を与えたりもする。

データ収集方法

3名の調査協力者に対して、活動開始時（2013年度後半：9月〜1月）と引退時（2015年度後半：2〜3月）に2回の半構造化面接を実施した。筆者は、本活動の顧問的な立場を務めている。それ故、実際の指導現場での参観に加え、準備活動や指導現場への引率及び見学、直後の反省会、動画を見ながら実施する振り返りの会等、総数約320回の活動中、約80回分参加した。実践時のビデオ動画やメモ及び、学生が記入した振り返りシートなども参照した。

　面接は趣旨説明や合意書等の書類への記入時間を除いて、一人あたり30〜40分程度であった。事前に対象者の許可を取った上で会話は全て録音した。以下のインタビューガイドラインを用いて実施したが、そこから発展した補足的質問も行った：活動参加（継続）理由・希望する教職の校種・活動による自分の変化（指導技術、英語力、知識、教材開発力、クラスマネージメントの技術、子どもへの接し方、活動運営における自分の参加態度や貢献度、活動仲間（先輩、同期、後輩）への接し方、自分の大学生活、教育観、就きたい職業や校種等）、児童から学んだ事、教えることについての不安、メンバー（先輩、同期、後輩）から学んだこと、成功した活動とその理由、活動を良くするための提案。

調査協力者

2013年度に小学校英語活動ボランティアに参加を開始していた1年次生5名にボランティア活動数回経験した時点で、第一回のインタビューを行った。その後、3年次になってからもほぼ毎回積極的に参加しており、開始時のインタビューも受けていたという理由から本研究にふさわしい対象者であると判断し、A、YとKが研究対象として選抜された。引退後（3年次終了時）も、第二回のインタビューを行った。調査時におけるプロフィールは表1の通りである。

表1. 調査協力者のプロフィール

背景	対象者		
	A	Y	K
教員希望校種	中学英語教員	高校英語教員	児童英語インストラクター
活動歴（最終学年での役割）	2年半（代表）	2年半（副代表）	3年（会計）
進路	公立中学校教諭	教育産業に就職	化粧品メーカーに就職

注. 調査協力者はすべて女性で、英語教育コースの3年生であった。

データ分析手順

ICレコーダーで録音した音声データを分析のために文字化した。言語データの分析は、分析手順の可視化や、小規模の質的データへの適用可能性、さらにコード化から理論化へのスムーズな移行が可能という理由からSCAT（Steps for Coding and Theorization；大谷，2008，2011）を用いた。4段階に亘ってオープンコーディングを行った。SCAT分析シートを用い（付録参照）音声データをセグメント化した後、第一ステップとしてデータ中の着目すべき語句を第一レベルに書き出し、抽出した語句を言い換えるための別の語句を第二レベルのコラムに記すことで第一段階のコーディングを行った。次に第三ステップとして書き出した語句を、研究的背景や参加者の背景や社会的背景などを元に、このデータで説明できるような語句で言い換えることで抽象化を試みた。さらにそこから浮き上がるテーマや構成概念を考え第四コラムに記入することでさらに抽象的な概念を抽出した。最後に第四レベルに記述されたテーマや概念をつなぎ合わせて、参加者一人一人のストーリーラインを作成し、データの真相の意味を再文脈化した。最後にストーリーラインを断片化することで、当該データから言えることとして理論的記述を試みた（付録参照）。さらにそれを図式化することで、ストーリーラインを視覚化することを試みた。

結果

3つの立場での変容

面接で得られたデータを切片化したところ、SCAT分析シートの「テクスト」のコラムの数はAが163件、Yが489件、Kが220件となった。そこから抽出された概念（SCAT分析シートの第四コラムにおいて確認できた概念）数は、Aが93件（引退時54件、開始時39件）、Yが86件（引退時49件、開始時37件）、Kが125件（引退時66件、開始時59件）であった（表2参照）。

　生成された概念は、「英語教育（TEFL）コースの学生」、「児童の指導者」、「活動グループのメンバー」の3つのアイデンティティカテゴリーに分類できると判断した。「英語教育（TEFL）コースの学生」とは、大学の英語教育コースで教職に就くための専門を学ぶ学習者としての発言や、教職につくことをイメージして自分の将来像に関連付けた発言から生成されたカテゴリーである。「児童の指導者」とはボランティアの実践場である小学校指導現場で展開される活動において、児童との関わりから自分の求められる役割について言及した発言から生成されたカテゴリーである。「活動グループのメンバー」とは活動の実践という共通目標を果たすために集まった学生同士の関わりにおいて、実施する活動やグループの運営にまつわる事柄について言及した発言から生成されたカテゴリーである。これらの3つのアイデンティティカテゴリーにおいて、A、Y、Kの考えや行動がどのように変容したかを解釈する。表2に抽出された概念名およびアイデンティティカテゴリー名とその件数を提示した。

　総文字数72,937となった口述データの中から、主たる議論に関する口述データ及び振り返りシートの記述データのみを抜粋し、とくに重要と考えられる箇所に下線を施した。図2〜4はそれらを視覚化するために、生成された概念の用語を用いて調査協力者ごとに作成した概念図である。

表2. インタビューから抽出された概念とアイデンティティカテゴリー

アイデンティティカテゴリー	インタビューから抽出された概念	対象者					
		A		Y		K	
		開始時	引退後	開始時	引退後	開始時	引退後
英語教育(TEFL)コースの学生	目標としての教職	4	3	3			
	教職を目標としないこと				2		
	求められる資質とのギャップ	4					
	将来への活動の有効性		7	1	2		
	目標に進むための環境				1		
	教職実習生としての成長	2		1		1	1
	目標となる先生との出会い						1
	TEFLの勉強のおもしろさ						1
児童の指導者	目標としての児童英語の指導者					4	6
	児童の指導者としての課題	3		2		7	3
	児童英語の望ましい指導法とは	8	4		3	10	7
	児童指導におけるピアの熟練			7	5		1
	ピアとの比較による欠如認識			1	2		1
	熟練者からの学び	2	6	4	2	6	3
	熟練者との比較による欠如認識	1		1	2		1
	児童の指導者としての成長	7	3	9	4	13	12
活動グループのメンバー	先輩からのサポート/学び				1		1
	好ましい活動の進め方	1	2		2		1
	後輩についての評価		5		6		7
	メンバーシップに関して	3	7	4	4	5	11
	熟練者としての気づき		9		6		5
	熟練者の資質と気付いた欠如				6		5
	熟練者としてできる貢献		6		2		4
	ピアについて		5		3		3
その他	大学生活の充実	1		1			
	自己の成長への有効性						3
	自分の理解			1	1		

Aの変容について

Aは、中学校教員になることを強く希望していたことから、1年次後半から本ボランティア活動に参加し、3年次からは活動グループで代表を務めた。

　「英語教育（TEFL）コースの学生」として、表2が示すようにAは活動開始当初（2013年度）から、第二回のデータ収集時（2016年度）まで英語教師を目指していることに言及するコメントの量が他の2人と比べて圧倒的に多く、その内容は、ボランティアの活動開始当初から既に、授業の組み立て方や指導案の書き方、教室英語など、英語教員としての専門知識を獲得しただけでなく、学習者に合わせた様々な臨機応変なアプローチや褒めることなどの重要性を認識するに至るなど、教員一般に必要な指導技術を身に着けたことを示す発言がインタビューで多くみられた。さらに中学校での学校ボランティアに参加したり、教員採用試験受験の準備に集中する体制作りをしたといった発言からも、「英語教育（TEFL）コースの学生」として十全的な立場を得つつあり、Norton（2000）の提唱する将来自分が参加するであろうという想像の共同体へのさらなる積極的な「投資」行為がなされたと言える。

　以下の抜粋からも児童とかかわる経験から、コミュニケーションの取り方において自信が芽生え、中学校での実習等においてもこのボランティア経験が役立つことを実感している。

> （中学校でも）活きてます。…例えば特に中学生というと自分から話しかけてくれる子が少ないのです。特に始めの方は。…あと、子どもをよく見る癖がついたので。例えば、ボランティア中話しかけても「ふん。」て言う子は絶対にいるのですよ。特に男の子は。「本当にこの子は…」って思うのですけども、でも本当のこの子の本心ではないということに気付けたし、逆にかまってほしいというサインだと気付くこともできました。（A2015）

　本ボランティアにおいて学習者とのコミュニケーションの問題を克服した成功体験より、「児童にとっての指導者」としてのアイデンティティが形成され、それによって自分の教師としての想像上のアイデンティティをプラスにイメージできたため、「英語教育（TEFL）コースの学生」としてのアイデンティティ形成をさらに強化することにいたった可能性が考えられる（図2参照）。

　一方、Aの「活動グループのメンバー」としてのアイデンティフィケーションについては、最終学年になる頃には表向きの役割が代表となり外的な要因からも、グループのまとめ役としてのアイデンティティが徐々に芽生えていくが、3年次になってからの振り返りシートには「準備不足からくる緊張が児童が伝わってしまっている」「リハーサルをしっかりすべきだ」「デモンストレーションが長すぎる」「周囲がもっと気を利かすべきだ」「不要なリピートが多い」「声が小さい」といったコメントが多いことからも、後輩が期待通りの成長を遂げていないことを問題視していることが示されている。さらに以下のインタビューの抜粋からは、後輩が期待通りの成長をしていない原因として、経験値からの助言などを行ってきたことが指導過多となり、自律や成長を抑制していることに気づき、自分の後輩を育てるファシリテータ力の欠如を認識していることが分かる。

A さん
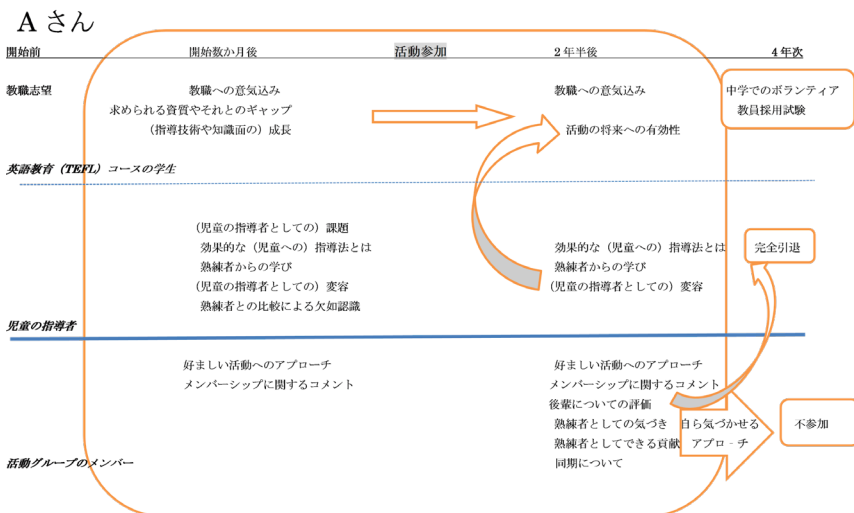
図2. Aの3つのアイデンティティにおける変容

> 私たちの背中を見て育ってくれるかなって思ってたんです。特に何も言わなかったし、私がしてあげられることはすべてしてたんです。そしたら逆に「この人たちがやってくれるだろう、やってくれるんだったら自分からはいかなくていいや」っていうふうに後輩が思ってしまって…その…なんていうか…積極性っていう面で、どんどん自分から行くっていうことをあまり…たぶんわからないことも多いと思うんですけど、その積極性を育てるのが大変でした。…気づいたことすべてに手を加えて指示をパッパッと出してしまったことが、結局彼らの自律性とか主体的に行動するところっていうのを抑制してしまったと思って。それを知って、「やらせてあげよう」と思って。それもまた上から目線で申し訳ないんですけど。というふうに、なるべく彼らから気づいてやってもらえるように、方向を転換して、皆で相談して。…自分は後輩を育てることがへたくそやなって思いました。(A2015)

　結果的に古参者による指導よりも、自らの内省と失敗から一番学ぶということを認識し、自分の存在が自由に意見を出しにくくしてしまっている実態を改めたと語っている。つまり自ら活動に関与しない方針を選ぶことで、「活動グループのメンバー」としての参加状態は、十全的参加から不参加となったと考えられる(図2参照)。

Yの変容について

開始時は高校の教員志望であったYは、指導力向上のために小学校ボランティア参加を開始した。「英語教育(TEFL)コースの学生」としてのYは、特に指導案作成などの準備過程や、指導に対する実践的な知識、クラスルーム英語における成長を語っていたが、結果的には、将来経験を積んで高校教員になる可能性を残しつつも、卒

業後すぐに教職に就かずに企業に就職することをインタビューで語っている。表2から
も「目標としての教職」に関する言及がなくなり、代わりに「教職を目標にしないこと」
に関する言及に変わっていることが分かる。また活動開始当初のインタビューから、
当活動から指導技術も教職への意欲も向上し、十全的な立場を得つつあったことが
分かるが、最終的には教職に就くのをやめることで、「英語教育（TEFL）コースの学
生」としては周辺的な参加を選ぶことになったと言える。そしてその理由として「児童
の指導者」としてのアイデンティティ形成過程における適性欠如への気づきが影響し
ている可能性が考えられる。表2の「ピアとの比較による欠如認識」というカテゴリーが
多かったこととも一致しており、同期生と自分との比較により力不足を認識したこと
が進路を一般企業に変更させた一因である可能性が以下の抜粋からも示唆されてい
る。

> （先生になって）最初は思ってて、それがちょっと変わってった、その、まず1
> つが、まだ自分の実力じゃちょっと、…これ教えたげるまでにいかないな、っ
> て。思ったのと、その、同期を見てて、余計に思って、とかあと、英語の力も
> 今全然ないんで。だから、そう考えて、まず、ちょっとまだ足りないな、って
> 思って。…あともう一つは、あの一、私立高校に行きたいと思っていて、も
> し行くんだったら、将来にも関わるから、それだったら、社会のこと知ってか
> ら、伝えてあげたいな、と思って。（Y2015）

　「児童の指導者」としてのYは、学習者に合わせた臨機応変な対応や、クラス管理
技術における上達を感じつつも、児童を引き付ける力やクラス管理に長けている同
期生と自分との比較から、自分の児童を引き込む実践力の欠如、児童との関係作りに
おける理想と現実の乖離への気づきがあったことが以下のインタビュー抜粋や振り返
りシートにおけるコメントからも示される。

> Aちゃんは、冷静に周り見れるところですかね。…英語とかの能力って考え
> たら、やっぱり凄いなって、英語で指示したりとかも、出来てるんで。でもた
> だ英語ばーって喋るんじゃなくて、伝わってなさそうだったら、それゆっくり
> 噛み砕いてあげることも出来てるんで。（Y2015）

　つまり、「児童の指導者」として形成されたアイデンティティが「英語教育（TEFL）
コースの学生」というアイデンティティ、さらには想像上の教師としてのアイデンティ
ティ形成に影響を与えた可能性が考えられる（図3参照）。
　一方「活動グループのメンバー」としてのYは、専門性を追求する同期が期待する
活動の在り方と、後輩の自主性を育てなければならないという先輩としての使命と
の間で葛藤があった時期があった。しかしながら、最終的には些細なことでも褒めつ
つ、助言をすることが後輩の成長を促す自分なりの有効性の高いアプローチであるこ
とに気づいた。それ故、事後の振り返りにおいて個人別フィードバックを後輩に与える
ことを自ら申し出ることで、グループへの積極的な参加意義を見出し、「活動グループ
のメンバー」としては最後まで十全的な参加を維持したことになる。

Ｙさん
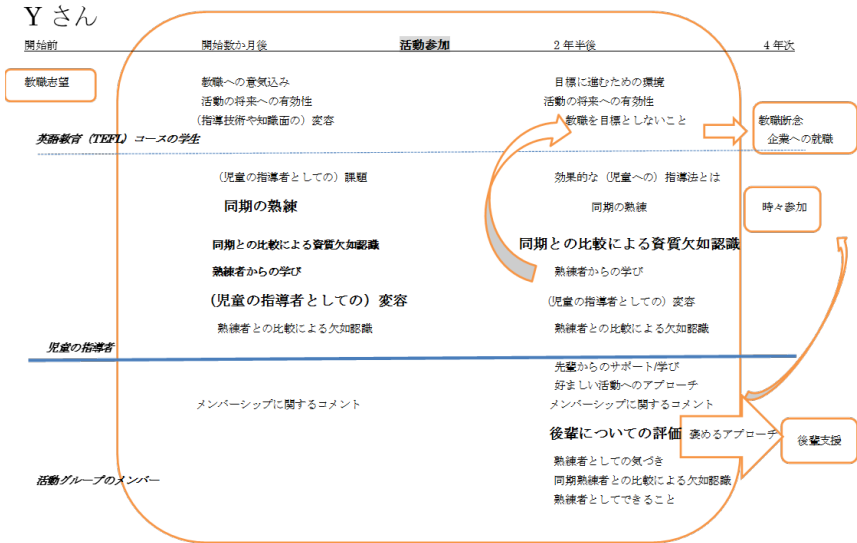
図3. Yの3つのアイデンティティにおける変容

Kの変容について

児童英語インストラクターになることを目標に参加を開始したKは、一旦は教職を目指すが、最終的には教職をとらない道を選んだ。それ故、「英語教育（TEFL）コースの学生」としては十全参加であったとはいえない。

　一方「児童の指導者」としてのKは、最後まで児童英語インストラクターに関するカテゴリーの発言が多いことから分かるように（表2）、最後まで職業として「児童の指導者」を意識していたことが現れている。初回のインタビューにおいて既に、指導案通りではなく児童の様子に合わせて臨機応変に対応したり、体を動かすことで児童にわかりやすく伝える必要性を先輩の実践を見ることで気付いており、児童とのかかわりにおける重要な要素について理解が深められたことが示唆される発言が多い。振り返りシートでのコメントも誰よりも児童が楽しかったかどうかについての言及が多いこともこのことと一致している。しかしながら、実際の自身の児童とのふれあいにおいては、参加当初から示していた苦手意識が（K2013）、2年半経過した時点でも、同級生と比較することで克服されていないことが以下のデータから示される（K2015）。

　　話しかけようと思ってもちょっと<u>反応が悪かったらちょっと引っ込んじゃうんですよ、自分で</u>。（K2013）

　　<u>前で引き付けるのが得意な方ではないと思っているので自分では</u>。…シーンとしてるところを盛り上げたりとか。イントロとか私あまり得意じゃなくて。…だいたい枠が決まっててみたいな…のはいいのですが。アドリブで盛り上げ

　　るみたいな。<u>Mちゃんみたい位置の役がまだ得意じゃないですね。</u>（K2015）

　しかしながらYの場合と異なり、最初から英語教員への志望動機が低かったKにとって「児童の指導者」としての自信が芽生えなかったことが、最終的に教職に就かない結論に影響を与えている訳ではないと考えられる（図4参照）。
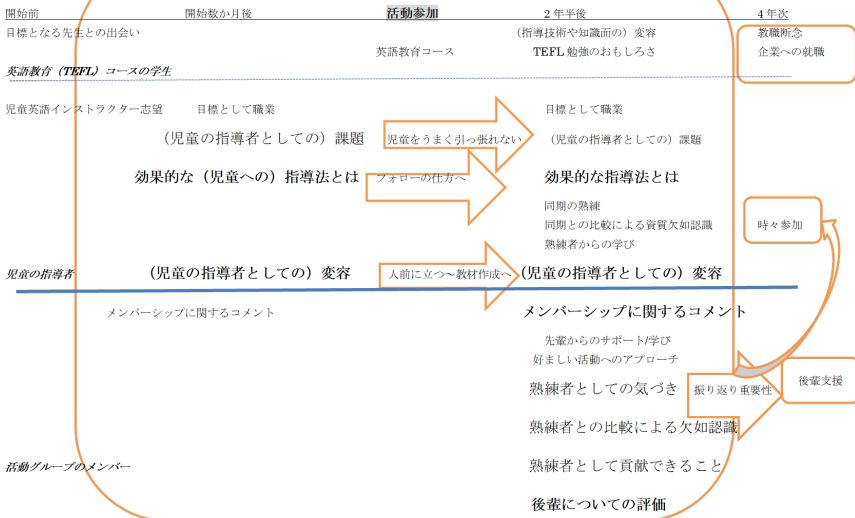
図4. Kの3つのアイデンティティにおける変容

　児童とのコミュニケーションや、クラス運営という最も重要視される技能においては周辺的な立場ではあったが、教材作りの工夫においては開始当時からやりがいを感じており、2年の経験により教材作りがさらに自分の得意分野になったとインタビューで報告している（K2015）。求められているパフォーマンスは発揮できなかった代わりに別の資源を用いて「児童の指導者」という立場においてアイデンティティを構築していると言える。

　　<u>あー時間はかけてましたね。…なんか妥協したくなくて子どもたちのために。…やっぱ教材づくりに時間かけてると、あ！なんか絶対喜んでくれる！</u>（K2015）

　「活動グループのメンバー」としてのKは、学年が上がるにつれて後輩に対しては先輩としての振る舞い方に対して難しさを感じているのが以下の例から分かる。

　　<u>私後輩の指導とかそんなに昔からあんまりしたことがなくて。…やってって指示したい時があっても、なんか一緒にやろうみたいになっちゃいます。…全部任せるんじゃなくて。</u>（K2015）

しかしながら、後輩への接し方において困難さを示したものの、活動後のフィードバックや反省点を共有し合うことで、後輩の意欲をより高めるということに気づき、振り返りのプロセスを丁寧にサポートするところに、自分なりの役割を見つけたことから、引退まで十全的な参加状態を維持した。このことは、振り返りシートのコメントも、「スケジュール管理」や「後輩のケア」に関する活動を向上させるための手立てに関する言及が多かったこととも一致している。具体的には、以下のデータから示すように、自ら反省会のまとめを編集することを申し出、そこに各個人に対してコメントを付けて渡すことに意義ややりがいを見出している。

> よかったです。なんか喜んでくれてすごい。毎回渡すときにコメントつけてたら、それがすごい楽しみって言ってくれて。…振り返りシートのコメントの有効かどうか…難しいですよね。なんかそれもすごい考えたくて。なんかもっと有効に。…なんか。(K2015)

考察

参加状態の決定プロセスとアイデンティティ間の相互作用

ある特定の実践共同体活動に参加することで、複数のアイデンティティが個人ごとに異なった様式で表出、または変容し、それが相互に影響を与える可能性が示唆された。実践共同体への参加において、知識・技術面においては「英語教育(TEFL)コースの学生」としての共同体への参加が周辺的にならないで済んだと言えるかもしれないが、AとYとでは「児童英語の指導者」としての体験の違いが、異なったアイデンティティの形成につながり、そのことが、「英語教育(TEFL)コースの学生」としてのさらなるアイデンティフィケーションに影響を与えたと言える。つまりAは児童の注意を引き付けクラスをまとめるという、共同体で一番重要視されている意味活動において、問いかけをしたり、抑揚のメリハリをつけるといった能力を特技として身に着け、その結果「児童の指導者」としてのアイデンティティが十全的参加状態となった。それ故、教師としての想像上のアイデンティティが表出し、より一層「英語教育(TEFL)コースの学生」としてのアイデンティが強まったと考えられる。それ故さらなる学校ボランティアにも参加したり、教員採用試験の準備に邁進するといったNorton(2000)の言う想像上のアイデンティティへの投資行為を行なったと考えられる。これは「英語教育(TEFL)コースの学生」の共同体において十全的な存在になっていたと言える。一方、Yは、同期生の指導技術と比較などにより「児童の指導者」の共同体で最も重要視されている実践であるクラスを管理するという活動について、児童を引き付ける能力が自分には欠如していることに気づき、その結果、想像上のアイデンティティ形成過程において教師としての適性を判断し「英語教育(TEFL)コースの学生」という立場では、さらなる投資行為を行わないことを選び、周辺的な参加状態となったと考えられる。

　Tsui(2007)が指摘するように、実践共同体における最重要視されるイベントは何かという意味の交渉の結果によって参加が周辺的となるか十全的となるかが決まるということがこの例からもいえる。これらの例は、複数のアイデンティティが、相互にアイデンティの形成過程に影響し合う可能性を示唆しており、Norton・McKinney(2011)の提唱する、複合的かつ、交渉があるというアイデンティティの特徴に合致している。

参加状態の十全性を決定する意味の交渉と交換可能な資源レパートリー

「児童の指導者」という立場では、十全的とは言えない参加状態であったKは、教材作りという副次的であるが重要な意味を持つと思われる活動の一つにおいて能力を発揮することで、実践共同体の活動の中で別の交換可能なアイデンティティ資源レパートリーを持つことになり、調整を行なった。

　また、KとYは共同体の「活動グループのメンバー」として最上級生として後輩の育成について戸惑いに直面した際、共同体にとって必要とされている役割は何かという意味の交渉を行った。その結果、自分なりに調整を試み、Kは振り返り活動において支援をするという役割を、Yはミーティングでのアドバイスや当日のヘルプに加え、参加者へのフィードバックとアドバイスという交換可能な資源を用いた役割（共同体にとって意味のある活動によって寄与する方法）を見つけたために、正統的な立場での参加状態で、最終学年においても関与を継続したと考えられる。一方Aはグループの代表という立場を得て形式的には、一旦十全的な参加を果たさざるを得ない状況になったが、最終年度において後輩との関わり方という課題に直面し、「活動グループのメンバー」としてのアイデンティフィケーションプロセスにおいて、Aなりの調整をした結果、活動への関与を放棄し、正統的な立場から不参加の立場に移行したと考えられる。

結論

本研究では、英語教育コースで学ぶ学生が、長期間小学校英語活動ボランティア活動に参加することで、教師志望の実習生として、そして、児童にとっての指導者としてのアイデンティティがどのように構築され変容していくのか、そしてそれ以外にどのような変化がもたらされるのかという変化過程をインタビューによる質的データをもとに考察した。本研究で扱ったプロジェクトは単一の実践事業であり、そこには英語教育コースの学生という学習者としての共同体、児童の英語インストラクターという共同体、仲間と準備や実践活動を共有する共同体といったように、複数の共同体が存在し、一個人の中でも複数の立場が存在した。さらに個人によって異なった形でアイデンティフィケーションが実現し、その過程が、相互に影響を与える可能性も示された。各自が関与、想像、調整というモードを用いてアイデンティフィケーションを実現していく一方で、各々が実践現場で競合する意味の交渉を行った結果、その共同体で重要視される能力を発揮できるか否かによって参加の十全性が決定されたり、別の資源を用いてカバーすることで共同体への参加が周辺的から十全的なものに変容する可能性も示された。しかしながら3つの立場それぞれに焦点をあて、特定のアイデンティティ形成過程を更に深く考察するためには、インタビューだけでは限界があり、より厚い記述を求めてデータ収集（例：観察・エスノグラフィ）と分析を行う必要がある。また、分析結果の解釈を対象者本人に確認をしてもらうメンバーチェックを行うことで解釈への信頼性をより高めることができる。

　また、今回取り上げた小学校英語活動ボランティアが、専門職としての専門性を高め職業的アイデンティティを形成させたり、教員職業選択において適性を判断したりする機会として有効であるとすれば、教員養成課程の不足点を補うプログラムとしての価値があることにも注目しておきたい。学生中心に構築し運営する実践共同体において、新参者が正統的周辺参加を経て古参者へと成長していく実践活動が「実践－内省－実践」のサイクルを先輩・同期・後輩の間で共有し合い、相互にサポートし合える経験は、実際の教育現場に共通する体験であり、教職における専門的発展

性（professional teacher development；Richards, 2005）を高めるための機会となる。正規の教職課程システムや限られた期間の教育実習だけでは得ることのできないものであり、一種のインターンシップ、体験学習（hands-on education）とも言える実地型指導実践活動の有効性の議論は、教員養成課程の充実化への提案を行う上でも示唆を与えると考える。

吉田真美は京都外国語大学教授である。主な研究領域は教職志望者のアイデンティティ形成や多読における動機付けの変容プロセスを、質的な研究手法を用いて考察している。

相川真佐夫は京都外国語短期大学教授である。主な研究分野はアジアにおける外国語教育の政策、教職志望者のビリーフなどである。

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付録

SCAT分析例（Aのデータから抽出された概念、ストーリーライン、理論的記述）

発話者	テクスト	<1>テクスト中の注目すべき語句	<2>テクスト中の語句の言いかえ	<3>左を説明するようなテクスト外の概念	<4>テーマ・構成概念（前後や全体の文脈を考慮して）	<5>疑問・課題
聞き手	もう引退って自分で言ってはりましたけど、実質引退間近にして自分がどう変わったと思いますか?やる前の自分と比べたら。					
A	はい。まず変わった点としては、周りを見えるようになったことと、あと後輩を育てることの難しさを知りました。	周りを見える 後輩を育てることの難しさ	周りの状況からとっさに判断できる対応力 先輩としての意識	臨機応変・柔軟性 ピア・ティーチング	指導における柔軟性の獲得 後輩の育成の試み	
聞き手	はぁ。難しいんだ。えー、どう難しいですか?					
A	えっと、まず私は基本的に最初のころは去年そこまで後輩が入ってこなかったんですよ。3人くらいしか入らなくて。今年私が代表になってからがたくさん後輩が増えて。2年生も1年生も。で、最初なので、みずほとかともくんとかみゅうみゅうとか、ベテランがそろっていたので、私たちの背中を見て育ってくれるかなって思ってたんです。特に何も言わなかったし、私がしてあげれることはすべてしてたんです。そしたら逆に「この人たちがやってくれるだろう、やってくれるんだったら自分からはいかなくていいや」っていうふうに後輩が思ってしまって…その…なんていうか…積極性っていう面で、どんどん自分から行くっていうことをあまり…たぶんわからないことも多いと思うんですけど、その積極性を育てるのが大変でした。	私たちの背中を見て育ってくれるかなって思ってたんです、私がしてあげれることはすべてしてたんです。「この人たちがやってくれるだろう、やってくれるんだったら自分からはいかなくていいや」っていうふうに後輩が思って、積極性を育てるのが大変	真似るだろうという思い込み 何も指示しない。教えない。なんでもしてあげる。 積極性の欠如	ティーチング・モデルとしての意識 ファシリテーター力の欠如 期待以下の成長への失望	先輩としての存在意義と必要とされる資質の認識	
聞き手	ふーん。できちゃうからいね。あの、この学年が。すごい気が回るしね。いつまでたってもこのままではってぉもったんだろうね。					

発話者	テクスト	<1>テクスト中の注目すべき語句	<2>テクスト中の語句の言いかえ	<3>左を説明するようなテクスト外の概念	<4>テーマ・構成概念（前後や全体の文脈を考慮して）	<5>疑問・課題
A	私たちの場合は、経験から「こうしたらいいよね」って行くことが多いんですけれども、彼らはそこのところが…その…。	経験から「こうしたらいいよね」って行くことが多い	経験からの判断する力	経験値	経験による判断力の自覚	
聞き手	失敗する経験が少ないんかな?うまくいっちゃうって。上がしっかりしすぎて。					
A	いや、そんなにしっかりはしていないんですけど。とりあえず、何がいけなかったかなっていうと、やはり、「やってあげている」って上から目線もよくないですし、気づいたことすべてに手を加えて指示をパッパッと出してしまったことが、結局彼らの自立性とか主体的に行動するところっていうのを抑制してしまったと思って。それを知って「やらせてあげよう」と思って。それもまた上から目線で申し訳ないんですけど。というふうに、なるべく彼らから気づいてやってもらえるように、方向を転換して、皆で相談して。	「やってあげている」って上から目線もよくない、気づいたことすべてに手を加えて指示をパッパッと出してしまった、彼らの自立性とか主体的に行動するところっていうのを抑制してしまった、彼らから気づいてやってもらえるように、方向を転換して、皆で相談して	指導者としての姿勢過保護、いたれりつくせり自律性と主体性への抑制自らの気づきを促す方針の変更	指導者意識指導過多による自律、成長の抑制指導方針の転換	自律的を育むための関与の抑制	
聞き手	それっていつくらい?9月のを見てって感じ?…そうでもない?					
A	かもしれないです。9月は、もともと3年生が教職セミナーで全員行けなくて。					
聞き手	そうだよね。初めて2年生だけでって感じだったよね。5月はついてきて一って感じで、ちょっと見よう見まねで。6月7月あったのに、シャボン玉もあったし。					
A	すごくうまくいった回だったとは思うのですけれども。で、9月でうまくあまり回らなかったらしくて。当日が。聞いた話だと、個人個人があまり周りを見られなかったって聞いています。	9月でうまくあまり回らなかったらしくて、個人個人があまり周りを見られなかったって	先輩不在後輩のみ指導者の不在	経験者の不在による臨機応変さの欠如	指導実践において、後輩による未熟度の認知	
聞き手	うまくいかなかったというか、経験の年数にしたらって感じやったけどね。5月はついてきて一って感じで、ちょっと見よう見まねで。6月7月あったのに、シャボン玉もあったし。					
A	でも彼らは反省してたようです。	彼らは反省してたようです。	後輩による反省	後輩の失敗についての省察と学び	失敗からの学びの有用性の認知	
聞き手	あ、そうなんや。そら3年生がいっぱいいるときと全然違うよな。っていうのを目の当たりにして、よかったよね。そういう回があってね。					
A	私はそう思います。	そう思います	後輩による反省失敗からの学び			

発話者	テクスト	<1>テクスト中の注目すべき語句	<2>テクスト中の語句の言いかえ	<3>左を説明するようなテクスト外の概念	<4>テーマ・構成概念（前後や全体の文脈を考慮して）	<5>疑問・課題
聞き手	ふーん。そうなんだ。皆で相談したんだ。すごいな。そこをまた来年…そっか。で、あのー、あえて言わないっていう風にしたんだよね。					
A	はい、しました。全部言ってしまうので、私は。すごい悪いところなのですけれども。思ったことをすべて言ってしまうんです。あの、気づいたことを。「ここをこうした方がいい」とか、実際にやって問題になるところを。	思ったことをすべて言ってしまう、気づいたことを・「ここをこうした方がいい・実際にやって問題になるところ	気が付いたことをすべて指摘、助言、回避すべき問題点の指摘	関与してしまう性格の自覚	自主性を抑制するアプローチへの気づき	

ストーリーライン（現時点で言えること）	開始当初のAさんは、強い教職への志望動機があり、将来の職業観が明確であり、それに従って大学での受講内容を決定している。教員になるための資質の欠如の認識から、自主的に活動への参加を始めた。参加当初は限られた活動参加経験のなかで、特定の指導法や様々な役割の経験など、補助的ながらも実践経験を積み、補助的な役割から主構成員の役割へ移行していった。活動により、児童との触れ合いにおいて上達を認識しつつ、よい教員に求められる資質のへの接近はしているものの、クラスルーム英語における課題なども不足している点も認識している。授業で学ぶ知識面だけでなく、実践現場で直面する課題への解決方法を模索し成果収めている。そのほかにピアラーニングができる仲間やモデルとしての熟練者の獲得、大学生活の充実、指導技術と知識における学びを認識している。指導上で直面する問題を克服すべき指導方法の模索をしており、教壇でなく学習者の中に入りこんで働きかける際のストラテジーや、指導アプローチとしての沈黙の回避や自信のない学習者へのアプローチ、学習者の反応に合わせた臨機応変なやりとりにおいて上達し、褒めることの重要性などを認識している。理想的な学びを体験しているだけでなく、その原因が分析できている。児童とのコミュニケーション技術において熟練者モデルとの距離を認識し、距離縮めよう試みた。活動においては段取り改善案を持っており、専門家からは語学面、指導技術における指導を得るよう心掛けた。

約2年半のボランティア活動を経験して、一番変化を感じたのは、臨機応変にまた柔軟にその場の状況に合わせて指導ができるようになったことである。友人が希望校種を変更した一方で、中学教員だからこそできることや使命感を持っているので、中学校教員に対して強い志望を示している。英語という科目の特性上、教員に必要な資質がある人前で話すという弱点を克服すべく試みた。

学習者の理解を深めるための工夫として、問いかけや定着を優先するがゆえの、あえて言わない方略などを学んだ。活動からはまたコミュニケーションに必要な要素を取得し開始前と比べたら、児童と接する自信を自覚している。中学生の心理の理解と有効なコミュニケーション方略も獲得し、自分に合った方法を見つけることの重要性を認識している。

全ての参加者から貪欲に学び取ろうとして、特に熟練者には、柔軟なパフォーマンスができることが理想イメージとして、プレゼン能力や児童を巻き込むパフォーマンスの高さなど高く評価しており、模倣を試みたり、ボランティア精神のあり方や、意見を出しやすくする方略として密なコミュニケーションや後輩を褒めることなどを学んだ。ピアからは、豊富なコミュニケーションをとる機会から、遠慮なく助言しあえる関係を構築し、率直な指摘やアドバイスを受けることができた。教師志望の有無にかかわらず、有益で充実感の得られるディスカッションができ、クリティカルな視点や考えが深化した。

後輩にとって自分たちがティーチングモデルとなっていることを意識し、経験値からの助言などを行ってきたが、期待通りの成長をしていないのは指導過多によって自律や成長を抑制しているからであることに気づき、後輩を育てるファシリテータ力が欠如していることを認識した。後輩自身が内省し、失敗から学ぶことを重要視し、方針を変更した。意見を出しにくくしている自分のアプローチと後輩の性格から、方針を変更し意見を出しやすくするためのストラテジーを用いることにした。

メンバー間で参加ポリシーの違いが生まれており、参加ルールが異なる。活動の有効性が高いと判断しているので参加者への期待値が高いが、一方できっかけづくりとしての参加意義も認識しているので、ボランティア活動と友人関係の独立させて成立させている。 |

| 理論記述 | 1）教職に動機づけられて開始した指導実践活動において、学習者に合わせた臨機応変なアプローチやほめることなどの重要性を早い時期に認識する。2）指導実践開始当初は、クラスマネージメントやクラスクラスルーム英語において熟練者との距離を知り、自分の未熟さに気づく。3）実践共同体の活動運営の効率を高めるための改善案も実践活動開始当初に得る。3）指導実践を2年間以上経験することで、臨機応変な指導アプローチが身についたことが意識でき、補助が必要な学習者へのアプローチなども体得する。4）児童とのかかわりについても自信が芽生え、中学での実習等他活動にも転化できる効果を実感する。5）2年半参加した実践共同体において、熟練者からは目指すべきモデルの提示を、ピアからは批判的な指摘とピアティーチングから学ぶ機会を得、知識や考えを深化させる経験を豊富に得る。後輩からは、後輩の育成を効果的にファシリテートする方法を考えさせるという課題を提示され解決法を模索する。6）共同体のメンバーシップに求める参加態度や責任感への期待が高い。 |

Research Forum

Motivators and Demotivators to Teach English in Japanese Secondary Schools

Saki Suemori
Ochanomizu University

This paper presents an investigation of motivators and demotivators for Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) working in secondary schools. A total of 8 JTEs participated by answering a questionnaire containing 3 open-ended questions (2 were subsequently interviewed). Questionnaire results indicated that participants were influenced by 4 factors (i.e., student attitudes, teacher autonomy, self-evaluation, and relationship with colleagues). The follow-up interviews with 2 of the participants provided additional information on some of these influencing factors. Future research should explore changes in teacher motivation in specific contexts.

本研究は、日本の中学校、高校で教える日本人英語教師（JTEs）の動機づけを増大、減退させる要因を調査した。参加者は8名のJTEsである。8名の参加者は、質問紙に回答し、そのうち2名は、さらにインタビュー調査へ参加した。質問紙によって、参加者は、主に以下の4つから影響を受けていることが明らかになった：生徒の態度、教師オートノミー、自己評価、同僚との関係。さらにインタビュー調査によって、これらの要因が教師にどのように影響を与えているかを明らかにした。本研究によって、特定の状況下で教える教師の動機づけがどのように変化していくか、さらに調査していく重要性が示唆された。

Although motivation is one of the most extensively researched concepts in the field of second language acquisition, nearly all related studies have focused on learner motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). However, interest in teacher motivation has recently increased (Mercer & Kostoulas, 2018). Two factors appear to have influenced this expanding research focus. First, research has indicated that teacher motivation and learner motivation are interconnected (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). That is, learners are likely to be motivated when teachers are highly motivated. Second, motivation is important for the teachers themselves, especially regarding professional development (Kim, Kim, & Zhang, 2014). However, relatively few studies have focused on teachers (Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2015). Those concentrating on secondary school teachers are especially few in number. The focus of this study, therefore, was on EFL teachers in Japanese secondary schools by qualitatively examining their teaching motivation.

Motivation and Teacher Motivation

Before discussing teacher motivation, it is important to clarify what is generally meant by motivation. It is an abstract and complicated concept with no straightforward definition. In psychology, for example, it is said that "motivation is the study of why individuals or organisms behave as they do: What gets their behavior started, and what directs, energizes, sustains, and eventually terminates action" (Graham & Weiner, 2012, p. 367). Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) indicated that in applied linguistics "motivation is responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity, and how hard they are going to pursue it" (p. 4).

As a concept, teacher motivation is not as straightforward as learner motivation. This is mainly because teachers are involved in various kinds of activities as part of their work; for example, they teach subject matter, take care of students in their homeroom classes and club activities, and sit on school committees. Here, they need to study their own subjects and issues related to teaching. One example of teacher motivation is when a teacher attends a conference on language teaching over a weekend despite being very busy. The teacher may do this because they would like to learn more in general or improve their teaching methods. In other words, a teacher's behavior can be supported by their desire to learn or improve skills.

Teacher motivation is, therefore, important for their overall work. It is important for why teachers decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity, and how hard they pursue it, according to the definition of motivation by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011). Thus,

teacher motivation supports teachers' behavior overall, both in working and learning.

Previous Studies on Teacher Motivation

Previous studies on teacher motivation can be divided into two main groups: (a) those on the factors that motivate and demotivate teachers and (b) those about changes in teacher motivation. One of the most researched aspects involves the factors that increase and decrease motivation (e.g., Aydin, 2012; Johnson, 2001; Kassabgy, Boraie, & Schmidt, 2001; Sinclair, 2008; Sugino, 2010; Tsutsumi, 2014). In such studies, data were collected in various contexts ranging from elementary schools to universities. Table 1 shows the factors identified.

Table 1. Motivators and Demotivators for Teachers as Found in Previous Studies

Motivators	Demotivators
Student growth	Student attitudes
Classroom environment	School facilities
Working in a good school	Classroom environment
Flexible working hours	A large number of students per class
School administration	
The possibility for promotion	Lack of/poor teaching materials
Freedom	Curriculum
Enjoyment	Working conditions
Training opportunities	Relationships with staff members
Good salary	Parents
	Lack of training opportunities
	Poor salary

Note. Data taken from Aydin (2012), Johnson (2001), Kassabgy et al. (2001), Sinclair (2008), Sugino (2010), and Tsutsumi (2014).

Questionnaires are common tools for investigating the factors that increase and decrease teacher motivation. Although learner motivation studies have mostly adopted questionnaires for use with many participants, it is common for studies on teacher motivation to employ qualitative methods with a small number of participants (e.g., Gao & Xu, 2014; Kumazawa, 2013). For

instance, Padwad and Dixit (2016) investigated changes in both teacher and learner motivation as a result of adopting different classroom strategies. The participants were seven teachers in India who received a list of classroom strategies and learned how to use them. They were then asked to choose several strategies for use in their classrooms. Results indicated that the newly employed strategies changed learner motivation and attitudes. These positive changes then affected the teachers, who improved their own attitudes toward students. It was concluded that even small classroom strategy changes can positively affect both learners and teachers.

As indicated, previous studies have revealed many factors that motivate and demotivate teachers, and some have qualitatively described changes in teacher motivation. These studies were conducted among teachers in a variety of contexts. Some have been conducted in the Japanese context (e.g., Sugino, 2010), but most of these have focused on the university setting. In other words, research on Japanese secondary school teacher motivation is still extremely limited.

Study Purpose

In this study, I investigated the motivation of Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) in a secondary-school setting. Japanese secondary school teachers spend a significant amount of time with their students, being required to do a great deal of work both in terms of teaching English and performing other educational roles. These teachers must, therefore, be appropriately motivated in order to be most effective. The two factors that were examined in this study were (a) the motivating and demotivating factors for JTEs and (b) the types of motivation they experienced.

Method

Participants

The participants were eight JTEs from junior and senior high schools, selected through snowball sampling. Snowball sampling is especially useful when there is difficulty accessing suitable research participants (Dörnyei, 2007). Given that I had limited access to possible research participants at the time, I decided to find participants through this method. Potential participants were asked to find other suitable participants. Participant details are summarized in Table 2. Each participant was given an explanation of the study's purpose and asked to sign a consent form before participating.

Table 2. Participant Details

Participant	Gender	Age	Academic background	School type	Teaching experience	Interview participation
Aoi	F	20s	BA	public high school (full-time)	2 years	Yes
Hana	F	20s	BA	public high school (full-time)	2 years	Yes
Haruto	M	20s	BA	private high school and university (part-time)	4 months	No
Rio	F	20s	BA	national high school (part-time)	6 months	No
Sakura	F	20s	BA	public high school (full-time)	4 years	No
Takumi	M	20s	MA (abroad)	private junior high school (part-time)	1 year	No
Yui	F	20s	BA	private junior high school and high school (full-time)	2 years	No
Yusuke	M	30s	MA	private junior high school and high school (part-time)	6 years	No

Note. All participant names are pseudonyms.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data were collected through questionnaires and semistructured interviews. Because a focus of this study was the examination of the factors influencing JTE motivation, it was important to gain a qualitative understanding about each teacher's related ideas; therefore, two data collection tools were selected. First, a two-part questionnaire was distributed online. Part 1 consisted of open-ended questions and asked teachers to describe the factors that motivated and demotivated them when they taught English. Part 2 asked for basic biographical information. The questionnaire is in Appendix A.

Second, semistructured interviews lasting approximately 60 minutes each were then conducted in Japanese with two of the participants, Hana and Aoi. They were chosen to participate for reasons of convenience (e.g., accessibility, availability, and willingness). They were asked to describe the factors that motivated and demotivated them while teaching English,

the kinds of difficulties they experienced and how they overcame them, and the types of perceptions they had about student motivation. Sample questions are in Appendix B. Each interview was digitally recorded and fully transcribed in Japanese. I later translated this information into English for inclusion in this paper.

Questionnaire and interview data were analyzed separately. First, I examined the questionnaire data and placed the responses into two categories (i.e., motivators and demotivators). I then further categorized the responses into several groups based on their meanings. After completing this process, I coded the interviews in two different stages, following Yatsu (2015). The first stage involved investigation; it was necessary to read the data carefully, categorize them according to meaning, and then apply labels. The second stage consisted of summarization. This involved classifying, organizing, and integrating the coded data obtained during the first stage. Here, emergent themes were revealed based on common points. Based on Yatsu's coding method, I carefully read the transcripts in Japanese, categorized them based on their meanings, and labeled each segment. I then examined each label and categorized those containing the same meanings to create larger groups. These two stages were equivalent to initial and actual coding processes (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Questionnaire Results

The results from Part 1 of the questionnaire are summarized in Table 3. The questionnaire comments were divided into several categories. These categories were taken from previous studies involving different contexts. Concerning student attitudes, positive teacher–student relationships were motivating factors (Tsutsumi, 2014). The availability of various materials and methods also motivated teachers (Kassabgy et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2014; Sugino, 2010; Tsutsumi, 2014). Self-evaluation appeared to be related to teacher confidence as well (Sinclair, 2008). Positive relationships and communication with colleagues were additional motivating factors for teachers (Sugino, 2010).

Table 3. Factors That Motivate and Demotivate Teachers

Factors that motivate	Factors that demotivate
1. Student attitudes	1. Student attitudes
• Students are interested in my personal stories in class	• Students have low motivation
• Students are interested in English	• Students do not respond to questions well
• Students are motivated to use English	
• Students are smiling, trying to listen to English, and speaking	2. Teacher autonomy
	• I am always required to teach with a grammar textbook
2. Teacher autonomy	• I feel that the content of the textbook has not been sufficiently updated
• I can teach with my favorite materials	• I have to teach as other teachers do
• I can teach something I am interested in	
	3. Self-evaluation
	• I am not sufficiently prepared for the class
3. Self-evaluation	• I have anxiety over my English abilities
• I am satisfied with my English lesson	
• I find problems in my class	
4. The relationship with other teachers	
• When other teachers rely on me	

Interview Discussions

The questionnaire responses revealed some of the factors that motivated and demotivated teachers. However, this basic information was insufficient for examining how these factors led to either motivation or demotivation. Interviews were, therefore, conducted with two of the participants. Subsequent analyses revealed the three major factors of (a) student attitudes, (b) teacher autonomy, and (c) relationships with colleagues.

Student Attitudes

The first factor that both teachers mentioned was student attitudes. Teachers that interact with students in daily teaching are constantly influenced by exchanges with students. Students can be both motivators and demotivators for teachers in this context. Aoi shared a time when she was motivated by her students: "I saw students react to what I said and could tell whether they understood or not. Students sometimes say, 'I study English hard' outside the classroom." She felt motivated when students responded like this during class. Students with positive attitudes toward English also motivated her.

Student attitudes sometimes demotivate teachers, however. For instance, Hana described her first teaching experience:

> Right after I became a teacher, I was in charge of the 2nd-year students. They had been in school longer than me and knew the school well. Because of this, the superior–subordinate relationship was totally the opposite. Students felt that I was subordinate and that they were superior to me. The atmosphere in the class was not serious, and when I introduced an activity to practice speaking English, students were like, "What is this person talking about?" They didn't join the activity at all. Of course, there were some diligent students, but the students who didn't listen were prominent. Students didn't involve themselves in the class I prepared, and they didn't understand what I wanted to teach. It was sad. (Hana)

Hana's students felt they were superior to Hana because they had been in the school longer than her. Because of this, they did not participate seriously in the class. This made Hana lose her motivation to teach students.

At the same time, however, these student attitudes motivated Hana to alter the way she taught classes:

> Even though I prepared speaking activities, it didn't work at all. During pair work, one student did nothing, while the other didn't know what to do even though they were diligent students. So, I thought it was meaningless and decided to teach a classical lesson by only explaining the points and reading the text aloud. (Hana)

In this situation, Hana was demotivated to continue introducing group and pair work. She thus began focusing on individual student activities rather

than having them work in pairs or groups. Hana was, therefore, demotivated by her students during her 1st-year experience. This eventually motivated her to employ an alternative through which she could better gain the attention of her students. Previous studies have also shown that student attitudes can be both motivators and demotivators (e.g., Sugino, 2010).

Teacher Autonomy

Another important factor for teachers is teaching using their preferred methods. Teachers prefer having autonomy in the classroom. As indicated in the previous section, Hana experienced many difficulties at the beginning of her teaching career. However, her situation changed when she was able to teach using her favorite teaching style the following year. She stated the following:

> In my school, a subject teacher who was also a homeroom teacher was able to decide on basic teaching principles. Based on my experiences, I decided that students needed to prepare for the class at home . . . Teachers need to prepare handouts so that students can prepare for the class at home. I also decided how students kept notebooks and when they were collected. (Hana)

Hana taught 1st-year students in her 2nd year of teaching. Students were divided into several classes taught by different teachers. Teachers, therefore, needed to follow basic principles to avoid significant deviation. Hana was able to determine these principles, and thus had the autonomy to choose her favorite teaching method. She said, "I didn't feel that teaching was painful, unlike last year, and it went better than I thought."

Therefore, Hana had autonomy in her teaching. Autonomy is the feeling that one is in control of their decisions within a social environment; this is a basic psychological human need (Ryan & Deci , 2000). It is an especially important factor for teachers who are motivated through control of the teaching methods and materials (Sugino, 2010).

Relationships With Colleagues

Another factor that could be identified from both teachers' responses was relationships with colleagues. Both Aoi and Hana had difficult times right after they began teaching. However, both had supportive colleagues:

> I had an advisor for one year right after I became a teacher. This teacher observed my class every week and gave me several pieces of advice, such as "How about trying this?" This supported me. My colleagues also listened to me; we exchanged information about students, such as "This student was talking like this." (Hana)

> When other teachers came to observe my classes, they told me that I was not looking at student behavior very much. I realized this for the first time. I noticed that others looked at my behavior. (Aoi)

Both Hana and Aoi obtained advice from colleagues about improving their classes. In other words, both had relationships with colleagues in which they received advice that led to improvements. As Hana was in a very difficult situation, this advice supported her in maintaining motivation. Previous studies have shown that relationships with colleagues can be both motivators and demotivators (Sugino, 2010; Tsutsumi, 2014). In this study, though, both Aoi and Hana shared only positive experiences, which indicated that relationships with colleagues were motivators rather than demotivators.

Conclusion

The two factors examined in this study were (a) what motivated and demotivated JTEs and (b) the types of motivation they experienced. An analysis of questionnaire data uncovered that participants were influenced by four factors: student attitudes, teacher autonomy, self-evaluation, and their relationships with other teachers. Subsequent interviews with two teachers revealed the processes by which some of these factors influenced teachers. Both interviewees shared experiences in which they were motivated and demotivated by their students. The interviews also indicated that teacher autonomy was one way to promote positive attitudes toward teaching. The teachers also found it helpful to obtain advice from colleagues; both participants had colleagues who helped them improve their teaching methods.

This study involved a small number of participants (i.e., eight), and was therefore limited in scope. Nevertheless, this study contributes to a better understanding of teacher motivation in Japanese secondary schools while also illustrating how teacher motivation can be altered through a complicated process. As indicated in the interview section, Hana was first

demotivated by student attitudes. However, this eventually motivated her to change her teaching methods. Teachers also tend to be influenced by various factors that influence one another. This means that motivation may arise differently according to context.

The results of this study suggest that future research should focus on teacher motivation in a more contextually specific manner because there are a variety of secondary schools in Japan. For instance, teachers working at prestigious schools are expected to focus on helping students pass entrance exams. However, this is not the case at all schools. In other words, teachers have different roles depending on the type of school in which they work. Teachers may be thus motivated and demotivated based on different factors depending on the context. Additional research should thus focus on participants in different contexts to determine how they are specifically motivated and demotivated.

Acknowledgments

Saki Suemori is a lecturer at Ochanomizu University. Her current research interests include teacher motivation and motivation in the classroom.

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Appendix A

Original Questionnaire (in Japanese)

Part 1

以下の質問に対して、ご自身の考えを経験に基づいた上で、自由に記入してください。

1. 教師として英語を教える上で、どのような場合に（何によって）、英語を教えることに対して意欲的になると感じますか。
2. 教師として英語を教える上で、どのような場合に（何によって）、英語を教えることに対して意欲がなくなると感じますか。
3. 英語教師として英語を教える上で、生徒に対して、どのようなことができるようになることを、最も求めていますか。

Part 2

1. 性別：1つ選んでください。
    　男性、女性、答えたくない

2. 年齢：1つ選んでください。
    　20代、30代、40代、50代、60代

3. お持ちになっている最終学位を選んでください。
    　学士、修士、博士

4. 大学では何を専攻していましたか。

5. 何年間学校で英語を教えていますか。
    　中学校＿＿ 年
    　高校＿＿ 年
    　大学＿＿ 年
    　非常勤講師として＿＿ 年
    　常勤の教員として＿＿ 年
    　その他＿＿ 年

6. 現在どのような学校で勤務されていますか。それぞれあてはまるものを選んでください。
    　(a) 中学校 / 高校
    　(b) 私立 / 公立
    　(c) レベル：高い / 普通 / 低い

7.   英語教育関係の学会や研究会に参加していますか。参加している場合、学会や
     研究会の名称をお書きください。

English Translation of the Questionnaire

Part 1

Please freely write down your ideas for the following questions.

1.   When you teach English, what makes you want to teach enthusiastically?
2.   When you teach English, what makes you feel reluctant to teach English?
3.   What do you think is the most important thing for your students to
     achieve in learning English?

Part 2

1.   Gender: Please choose the appropriate one
         male, female, do not want to answer

2.   Age: Please choose the appropriate one
         20s, 30s, 40s, 50s, 60s

3.   Academic background: Please choose the one you have
         BA / MA / PhD

4.   What was your major in university?

5.   How many years have you been teaching English?
         junior high school __ years
         high school __ years
         university__ years
         part-time__ years
         full-time__ years
         other __ years

6.   In what type of school are you teaching now? Please choose the
     appropriate one for each.
         (a) junior high school/high school
         (b) private school/public school
         (c) academic level: high, middle, low

7. Do you sometimes attend conferences or seminars on English education? If so, please write down the names of these events.

Appendix B

Sample Questions for Semistructured Interviews (in Original Japanese)

- 今まで教えてきた中で、うまくいったと感じた経験を教えてください。
- 今まで教えてきた中で、うまくいかなかったと感じた経験を教えてください。
- 困難な状況のとき、何が支えになりましたか。
- どのようなときに、できる限りうまく教えたいと感じますか。
- どのようなときに、教えることに対して意欲が下がると感じますか。
- ご自身が教える生徒の動機づけは、どのような状態だと感じますか。

Translated Sample Questions for Semistructured Interviews (in English)

- Please describe the teaching experiences that went well.
- Please describe the teaching experiences that did not go well.
- What supported you when you were experiencing something difficult?
- When do you feel you would like to teach the best you can?
- When do you feel you are reluctant to teach?
- How do you perceive your students' motivation?

Reviews

***Teacher Quality, Professional Learning and Policy: Recognising, Rewarding and Developing Teacher Expertise*. Christine Forde and Margery McMahon. London, England: Palgrave Macmillan, 2019. v + 285 pp.**

Reviewed by
Mayumi Asaba
Kyoto Sangyo University

In *Teacher Quality, Professional Learning and Policy,* Christine Forde and Margery McMahon discuss various factors that affect teachers and their development. The authors' particular interest lies in teacher expertise, which in their definition has a positive impact on students' learning. Previous literature has focused on this topic of expertise by using such terms as "expert teachers" (e.g., Tsui, 2003) and "expertise in teaching" (e.g., Richards, 2010). In these cases, expertise is typically viewed as a unique characteristic that only a select group of teachers can possess and demonstrate in their practice. However, Forde and McMahon emphasize that studying expertise should ultimately help a critical mass of teachers improve their teaching practice. Starting from this premise that expertise should benefit the many rather than the few, the authors describe issues and factors that influence teachers, their teaching, and professional development.

Forde and McMahon first provide an overview of teacher expertise. This background includes descriptions of teacher policy around the world, with a particular focus on the United Kingdom (Chapter 1). They then introduce existing literature on expertise, including which elements researchers have examined and the key concepts related to expertise (Chapter 2). Previous researchers have explored expertise by focusing on multiple perspectives, such as the developmental stages of practitioners, their cognitive processing, and their characteristics as demonstrated in longitudinal case studies (Bullough & Baughman, 1995; Tsui, 2003). Key concepts related to expertise

include reflective practice, a process in which professionals continue to look back on their work to refine and improve their practice. In addition, the authors explain the situated nature of expertise, which concerns domain- and context-specific aspects of expertise. That is, expertise consists of multiple knowledge bases, including about the subject, pedagogy, and learners in the specific contexts in which teachers teach.

In Chapter 3, the authors propose that expertise is influenced by teachers' perceptions of what it means to be a teacher and how teachers view the teaching profession. Related to these issues, the authors address the importance of the balance between autonomy and regulation set by educational systems and their related policies. Although autonomy is an integral factor of expertise, the authors warn that it can also lead to teacher isolation and limit collaboration among teachers.

JALT Journal readers looking for immediate takeaways can particularly benefit from the next three chapters (Chapters 4–6) as they contain relevant and practical issues for many teachers. Forde and McMahon start Chapter 4 with the description that teachers' careers are different from other professions because teachers are often presented with two main paths as they progress in their careers; those are to be promoted to a management position or to stay as a classroom teacher, with the latter being the path that the majority of teachers take for both personal and contextual reasons. The authors call the nature of teachers' careers "flat" by referring to Lortie (2002), who in his book, described in detail how teachers' career lines and salaries often reach a plateau. Based on this flat career phenomenon, Forde and McMahon highlight that it is essential that teachers perceive their choice to remain in the classroom to be a positive one.

The latter part of Chapter 4 focuses on internal and external factors that affect teachers' perceptions of their classroom-focused career. External factors are comprised of working conditions such as the curriculum, working hours, and salaries. Internal factors include individual teachers' attitudes, which are related to how teachers feel about their sense of growth, value, and connection to students. The authors explain that teachers should be given opportunities for professional learning so they can feel a sense of development throughout their careers. Furthermore, it is important "to reconstruct the role of the classroom teacher so that they have access to different experiences, responsibilities and opportunities across the wider school" (p. 104). The authors emphasize the necessity for schools to continue to provide teachers with new and valuable experiences so that they can regard their decision to remain in the classroom positively.

In Chapter 5, the authors take up the relationship between teacher evaluation and teacher expertise. Two essential aspects of teacher evaluation are introduced. One is the definition of teacher quality, and the other is the usefulness of feedback. Defining teacher quality is crucial, but challenging because one is faced with the question of what it means to be a teacher and how one views teacher professionalism. Furthermore, the authors describe numerous factors that affect this process. For example, those who evaluate teachers might feel reluctant to provide honest feedback because some teachers may perceive it as a personal attack. In addition, teachers might reject the feedback because they do not believe in working closely with those who evaluate them or do not find the feedback useful at all. Finally, the authors provide implications concerning effective teacher feedback. This includes making sure all stakeholders understand the purpose of teacher evaluations. Additionally, both supervisors and teachers should be involved in creating the design of the evaluation based on a shared understanding of desirable teaching performance. The important message in this chapter is to understand the complexity involved in the process of teacher evaluation.

Chapter 6 is about how to effectively facilitate teacher development, a central aspect of teacher expertise. The authors emphasize that professional learning should not be approached from the top down, which does not consider "the deeply contextualized nature of professional practice nor the complex process through which teachers reshape their practice" (p. 141). Instead, they argue, teachers should tackle their own challenges to improve their teaching practice at the individual level because changing teaching practice requires teachers to reconceptualize their own identities. Accordingly, the authors explain that successful experienced teachers have the ability to continue to change and reconstruct their identity by seeking feedback from their colleagues. In fact, the authors point out the importance of a social approach in professional development. They suggest that it is insufficient for teachers to share their ideas with colleagues, but also that they need "to make public their assumptions about teaching and learning that underpins [*sic*] their practice" (p. 162). Similar to teacher evaluation, it is necessary to understand that professional development is an intricate and critical process for those who facilitate and experience it.

Finally, when considering the interests of many *JALT Journal* readers, one of the drawbacks of this book is the limited contexts that the authors look at. The book mainly focuses on issues that affect K-12 teachers around the world, especially in the United Kingdom. Furthermore, the authors do not include any discussion of the issues in relation to ESL or EFL teaching

contexts. Therefore, without reading between the lines, some of the aspects that the authors explore in depth may seem less relevant to some readers.

This book does, however, provide universal insight into teacher quality, evaluation, and expertise, all of which are significant issues for L2 teachers regardless of the educational context in which they might be working. Thus, I highly recommend this reading, particularly to those whose responsibilities include training, evaluating, and guiding professional development for teachers at their institution. The book provides several insights into the fundamental principles behind these important aspects of teaching.

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Professional Development of English Language Teachers in Asia: Lessons From Japan and Vietnam. **Kayoko Hashimoto and Van-Trao Nguyen (Eds). Abingdon, England: Routledge, 2018. e-book**

Reviewed by
Michael Carroll
Momoyama Gakuin University

Those of us working in Japan, and it seems in the wider Asian region too, are used to regular curriculum reform programs being issued from the central government. These grand plans often deliver less than they promise. In the introduction to this book, Kayako Hashimoto notes that it is teachers who are

often saddled with the blame for such poor results. As a result, professional development sits uncomfortably in an area that is part teacher support and part teacher control. The term *professional development* implies some level of fulfillment of teachers' needs for growth as professional educators, and it is evident that this model underlies, to varying degrees, activities at the chalkface in the ASEAN countries surveyed. However, it is equally clear, particularly in the main chapters covering Japan, and to a lesser extent Vietnam, that support for teachers is often limited, either by lack of funding or lack of understanding of what is needed. Furthermore, the management of teachers, and to some extent perception management, is evidently a major motivation on the part of education authorities.

Hashimoto, in the introduction, refers to seven aspects of successful professional development from Walter and Briggs (2012) but laments that recognition of these aspects varies widely according to local contexts. In Chapter 3, she critiques in more detail the close connection between the teacher license renewal program and professional development initiatives in Japan, and the resulting tension between individual empowerment and central government control. It is not only that funding is woefully inadequate for the highly ambitious stated goals of the current reform plan, but that the plan itself is fundamentally flawed. On the one hand, the delegation of English teaching in primary schools to unqualified homeroom teachers is not only poor management, but also grossly unfair to the teachers themselves; on the other hand, the native-speakerism that underlies the theory of language learning on which the reforms are based is simply contrary to current thought almost everywhere else in the world (p. 41).

There are three more chapters on the Japanese situation, looking at this problem from various perspectives. Kiyoshi Naka, discussing preservice teacher training in Chapter 6, looks at the issue of how language is perceived by preservice teachers and makes the point that it is with these teachers-to-be that the future rests: They need to be able to think critically, not just about the mechanics of teaching methods, but also about what language is and what it means to be a user of another language. Their world view is the one that will dictate how language education proceeds in the future and how their future students in turn come to think of language. Two more chapters, one by Gregory Paul Glasgow (Chapter 4) and one by Glasgow and Chris Carl Hale (Chapter 5) reinforce this general picture. Chapter 4 focuses on the frustrations teachers encounter in implementing the recent "English in English" policy and the author proposes that there is an urgent need for a well-resourced, locally-based professional development program that al-

lows teachers to come up with collaborative solutions to the problems posed by the policy. Chapter 5 gives an account of an initiative that demonstrates just how such professional development can be done well if it is based on real teacher needs.

The four chapters on Vietnam, while making some of the same points about the problems of centralisation and the lack of sufficient funding, paint a somewhat brighter picture. English has a short history as the main foreign language in Vietnam, dating only back to the 1990s, when the Doi Moi reforms led to Russian being gradually abandoned in favor of English. Nevertheless, in Chapter 7, Van-Trao Nguyen shows how Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training *Project 2020* has admirable goals, combining teachers' individual growth with accountability, including the recognition of teachers as active learners. In fact, action research is a compulsory component of the project, and Le Van Canh, in the following chapter, gives a balanced account of how action research training benefits teachers and institutions, despite relying on substantial support both in funding and in effort to build research cultures. Nhat Thi Hong Nguyen, in Chapter 9, presents a similarly balanced account of a professional development initiative in computer-assisted language learning, another key component of *Project 2020*. Here too, the empowering of teachers through increased enthusiasm and confidence is tempered by the need for support in, for example, gaining time for developing materials as well as funding for both facilities and continued training. Finally, Chapter 10, by Khoi Mai Ngoc, illustrates language learning communities, groups of teachers who work together on a regular basis, as far as possible using English, to "learn via collaboration, dialogue, reflection, inquiry, and leadership" (p. 152). These language learning communities address what may be the most important need: opportunities for teachers to improve and maintain their own English abilities. Ngoc points out that one-off courses are simply insufficient for bringing about meaningful change, and that language learning communities address English language abilities at the same time as they address other professional development goals.

To set all this in context, in Chapter 2, Van-Trao Nguyen and Ngoc give a much-needed overview of the state of play with regard to professional development in the ASEAN region. They make it clear that while the entire region is faced with similar problems of maintaining standards nationally (the control function) and fostering the individual development of teachers individually (the support function), there are significant differences in contexts. Singapore, Malaysia, Brunei, and the Philippines have the obvious

advantage of having long-standing English medium education practices for all or most subjects. To some extent Indonesia also has advantages as a multicultural country. Starting from a higher baseline than other parts of the region, this is perhaps part of the reason why all of these countries have sophisticated and effective curriculum and professional development policies. Conversely, Thailand, Laos, Cambodia, Myanmar, and Vietnam are hampered to a large extent by budgetary constraints and a lower starting proficiency level among the general populace. They are, nevertheless, making great strides to catch up, especially in the cases of Thailand and Vietnam. One thing that this chapter makes clear is that simply belonging to this supranational association has had an energizing effect, enhanced by the recent strengthening of regional integration through the ASEAN Economic Community and its adoption of English as the official working language. This adoption of English has resulted in a powerful motivation for students throughout the region to learn English to a high level: Those who do so are rewarded with the opportunity to seek professional advancement across the entire region. Perhaps this is Japan's main obstacle. Not having any such close ties to regional neighbours, it is easy for young Japanese people to continue thinking of themselves as being apart from, rather than integral to, a cross-national community.

This volume is a welcome look at two countries with quite different histories of English language learning and with two different approaches, albeit there are similarities brought out by the contributors. As a concept, it certainly makes sense to focus on these two contexts, and the editors have done an excellent job of commissioning chapters that together provide a thought-provoking and comprehensive picture of where things stand today. However, it may leave the reader with a thirst to know more about how other countries in the region are dealing with similar problems. Chapter 2 suggests that there are many initiatives in the ASEAN region that might well be worth considering by administrators in both Japan and Vietnam. There are also two areas conspicuous in their absence, China and Korea, which may have more similarities with Japan than with the ASEAN region. It would have been interesting to have had a brief overview of the state of play there, to give an even broader context. Nevertheless, these quibbles aside, this volume is a must-read for anyone with an interest in English education in this region.

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Teaching English at Japanese Universities: A New Handbook. **Paul Wadden and Chris Carl Hale (Eds.). Abingdon, England: Routledge, 2019. xxiv + 226 pp.**

Reviewed by
Ben Grafström
Akita University

At first glance, Paul Wadden and Chris Carl Hale seem to be following what Hollywood has been doing, that is just remaking old classics (see Wadden, 1993). *Teaching English at Japanese Universities: A New Handbook*, however, is much more than a revision of an old classic. This anthology is a collection of 23 chapters (seven more than Wadden's original) by 33 professors and administrators with nearly half a millennium of experience among them.

There are a plethora of language study materials available for Japanese students, but there are very few guidebooks meant to aid language educators in Japan by serving as authoritative, concise, and comprehensive resources. Whereas many other publications present language education theory and lesson ideas for specific learning stages or age groups, the aim of this book is to inform and train professional educators and acclimate them to the current teaching environment in Japan's higher education system. The authors assembled by Wadden and Hale accomplish this by guiding readers through a range of topics, such as the prehire networking process, by introducing them to classroom activities that meet the specific language learning needs of university students and by offering suggestions for how to approach cross-cultural interactions with colleagues.

A New Handbook retains the same four-part structure as the original, with "The Setting," "The Courses," "The Classroom," and "The Workplace" as the

themes. Readers do not have to go through the chapters sequentially, but instead, they can select only the chapters that suit their needs.

Part 1 contains four chapters covering external factors affecting higher education (e.g., Japan's declining birth rate, declining enrollments, and university closures) that anyone considering entering the system or thinking of switching institutions must bear in mind. Part 1 also has advice for readers about how to become a viable candidate for hire and secure a position, and it includes a list of professional organizations for networking (Appendix 1). For those who cannot find full-time employment at a single university, Chrystabel Butler explains the pros and cons of being a *ronin* teacher (i.e., someone who has pieced together part-time positions at multiple institutions in order to make a living). Part 1 concludes with some examples of how university administrations operate, which can often cause misunderstandings or outright frustration for newcomers when trying to settle and build a career. Part 1 also serves as a helpful reference for key Japanese terms used in job postings and contracts—lists of which are also found in the Appendices.

Whereas Part 1 deals with the broader workplace climate of higher education, the authors in Part 2 drill down to what universities expect from professors. Titled "The Courses," Part 2 comprises the bulk of the book. In its nine chapters, readers will notice the biggest changes in English education since Wadden's 1993 version. Part 2 covers the variety of classes one is expected to teach and provides example activities tailored to each type of class. The authors also provide detailed examples of modern technology-related resources now available to language teachers. Part 2 also includes some of the most current language teaching practices that are becoming more commonly used in modern EFL classrooms in Japan.

As for teaching practices that the book highlights, English education is becoming more progressive and skill-specific compared to the 1990s. The progressive approach of active learning is a reoccurring topic in Part 2, but is addressed specifically in "Tearing Down the Wall of Silence" by John Wiltshier and Marc Helgesen. Another example of a teaching development in Japan is the shift from all-purpose *daigaku eigo [college English]* classes to classes focusing on specific skills such as listening, reading, writing, vocabulary, or presentations. Chapters dedicated to each of these skills are available, so teachers moving from *eikaiwa [conversational English]* or ALT backgrounds will no doubt find these chapters helpful, with activities that may be implemented immediately such as Quiz Master and Think-Heads Together.

Another theme of Part 2 is the advances in technology that are creating additional resources available to teachers for developing syllabi and conducting lesson activities. Many of the vocabulary apps mentioned such as Quizlet and NAWL Builder and the extensive reading software like MReader are well-known to veterans in the field. For mid- or late-career educators who may feel somewhat intimidated yet feel the need to get acquainted with user-friendly technology, these recommendations are good places to start. For more advanced tech users, Dan Ferreira and Joachim Castellano introduce some broad concepts such as computer-assisted language learning, learning management systems, and virtual learning environments in "Using Technology".

As Bothwell (2019) reports in the *Times Higher Education*, the percentage of foreign staff and the proportion of courses taught in a foreign language have increased on campuses throughout Japan. In other words, nontraditional language teaching practices in the form of content and language integrated learning (CLIL) and English as a medium of instruction (EMI) are becoming more common due to the Top Global University Project (MEXT, n.d.). The professors charged with these courses are not typically trained as language teachers, but rather content specialists: It is for these teachers that *A New Handbook* will offer the most value. While many contributors refer to EMI and CLIL throughout the book, Howard Brown and Annette Bradford compare them specifically in "Teaching Subject Content Through English", thus addressing the need caused by current Japanese education policy.

Respect and rapport among students and between students and their teacher are features of any successful classroom environment. The first three chapters of Part 3, "Nails That Don't Stick up" (Fred E. Anderson), "Creating Engagement and Motivation" (Bill Snyder), and "The Japanese Student and the University English Teacher" (Donna T. Fujimoto) outline the importance of positive interpersonal relationships in creating a learning community in the classroom. The last chapter of Part 3 deals with education-policy issues. Although policy issues certainly have an effect on classroom interpersonal dynamics, it is a chapter perhaps better suited for Part 1.

Part 4 ("The Workplace") is also dedicated to interpersonal relationships, but between colleagues. Aside from the education trends and practices that directly affect how educators carry out their current day-to-day responsibilities, the editors would be remiss to ignore social changes that also affect professional educators. With this in mind, Part 4 begins with the chapter "He Said, She Said" where Diane Hawley Nagatomo and Melodie Cook address weighty topics such as harassment, but also more subtle

factors that tend to disadvantage professional female educators. Stress caused at home, in the workplace, and by living in a foreign country can often lead to forgetting to think of our colleagues as individuals. In "The Japanese University Teacher of English" (p. 165), Asako Takaesu and Mikiko Sudo point out the diverse backgrounds that Japanese professors teaching English have with regard to their own English language learning backgrounds and the challenges they face when dealing with the high standards of students and colleagues. The authors also point out instances when administrators (unaccustomed to communicating with non-Japanese educators) end up overburdening our Japanese colleagues with extra duties—an all too common occurrence. Echoing the previous chapter, they remind readers that one's colleagues, whether Japanese or non-Japanese, have their own sources of stress at work that, when acknowledged, can improve collegial relations and overall workplace environment.

In summary, *Teaching English at Japanese Universities* is one of those few resources geared toward educators and toward cultivating better teaching practices, as opposed to the many books targeted at student learners. By addressing topics like EMI and CLIL, the editors are reaching out to a much broader audience than Wadden's original book, namely professors who may not think of themselves as "teaching English." At my university, for example, there are professors who were recruited to teach courses like Computational Mathematics, Engineering, and Earth Science in all-English settings. This resource will undoubtedly help them learn more about the wider English education environment and academic community within which they find themselves.

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Japanese at Work: Politeness, Power, and Personae in Japanese Workplace Discourse. **Haruko Minegishi Cook and Janet S. Shibamoto-Smith (Eds.). London, England: Palgrave Macmillan, 2018. ix + 234 pp.**

Reviewed by
Monica Hamciuc
Kagoshima University

This collection of academic articles on Japanese workplace discourse might prove to be an eye-opener for any non-Japanese person who lives and works in Japan, even if they have been here for decades. *Japanese at Work* describes in detail how language is used to render specific roles and personae at work and contributes to exploring how business communication in Japanese differs from that in English by shedding light on the complexities of politeness, power, intercultural communication, and workplace socialization.

The two editors and contributors, Haruko Minegishi Cook and Janet S. Shibamoto-Smith, are renowned Japanese language and discourse analysis specialists. Together with six other contributors from the U.S. and Japan, they offer a multifaceted description of an area that, with few exceptions, had not been fully explored: naturally occurring Japanese workplace interaction. In all but one of the studies included in this book, the authors draw their conclusions from authentic audio and video material recorded at Japanese or multinational companies in Japan. If you are a non-Japanese person working in a Japanese company, your Japanese employers and colleagues may, in fact, neither treat you as an equal nor expect you to perform to the same standards as they would expect a Japanese employee. Although *JALT Journal* readers may never encounter most of the situations and workplaces described in the book, it still offers a chance to explore many aspects of intra- and intercultural business interactions, together with the varied linguistic strategies used to achieve more or less practical means and to construct public personae in the Japanese business context.

Following the overview of the book in the Introduction, Chapters 2 and 3 focus on so-called employee orientation training sessions designed to familiarize new employees with the expected standards of language, behavior, and business culture that characterize their workplace. The respective authors, Cynthia Dickel Dunn and Cook, suggest even Japanese people need to undergo specialized training to familiarize themselves with

the language and social expectations of their jobs after being hired. The sharp divide between the pre- and posthiring identities of the new employees becomes evident not only from the surveys conducted but also from the apparent struggle to conform, which some of the new hires experience. The process may vary by industry, but the contents of such training sessions appear to be largely similar, with a clear focus on language use and "proper" business behavior. Academia does not, in my experience at least, offer such training for faculty.

Unlike the rest of the collection, Chapter 4 is based on a study of two fictional TV business dramas. However, Shibamoto-Smith is still able to pinpoint obvious distinctions in how female characters are referred to compared to their male co-workers, in the language they use, and in the way they behave, all of which, while not necessarily reflecting reality, may influence it to some extent as media is a powerful tool.

Three of the chapters in this book describe interactions in cross-cultural business environments. In Chapter 5, Junko Saito presents an analysis of recorded business meetings, showing how men choose different first-person pronouns to highlight various aspects of their masculinity and how they denigrate female colleagues not present to bond with other male employees. Stephen J. Moody analyzes distinctions in language use, in this case not gender-based but rather nationality-based in Chapter 9. He focuses on terms of address in interactions between American student interns (weak status) and their Japanese colleagues or superiors (strong status). The findings suggest that, although they may be trying to conform to the perceived American standards, the Japanese workers are, in fact, treating the interns as outsiders, or even as children in some cases, when they choose not to address them in the same way as they address each other in the workplace. Humor and laughter are the topics taken up in Chapter 7 by Kazuyo Murata, who concludes that fun and laughter in Japanese corporate settings may be used to highlight rank and power. This is contrasted with New Zealand or the U.S.A., where humor is more collaborative and meant to be funny or defuse tense situations. In the Japanese workplace, humor and laughter are mostly initiated by whoever has more power in a given case and are not necessarily intended to indicate that something is funny, which may lead to misunderstandings in intercultural contexts.

The remaining two chapters deal with the use of dialect versus standard Japanese and polite versus plain forms during meetings (Andrew Barke, Chapter 6) and with the use of directives in secondary school faculty meetings (Naomi Geyer, Chapter 8). The results show that dialect is not

employed in the opening and closing sections of meetings, which are highly formal, but it does appear in all other parts of meetings to emphasize the personal nature of a topic, lighten the atmosphere, or show solidarity. As for the form of directives, the ubiquitous *-te kudasai* is used in already agreed upon requests as is the form *-to iu koto de*, while donatory verbs (e.g., *kureru*, *morau*) mitigate more imposing demands.

Under economic circumstances that seem to require the acquisition of more and more foreign labor and considering new government policy that was introduced to address this issue (Hamaguchi, 2019), understanding the peculiarities of the Japanese business environment from a wide variety of perspectives is essential. As such, it can be said that the biggest strength of this book is its considerable contribution to unraveling the mysteries of language use, behavior, and identity construction in Japanese corporate workplaces. A recent 2019 Persol Research Institute survey found that Japanese managers feel significant stress from working with foreign subordinates, with one of the major quoted stress factors being the fact that foreign people do not understand Japanese common sense. The various chapters in this volume could provide helpful hints for both international employees and their Japanese employers as they shed light on both differences and similarities between cultures and expectations in the workplace.

The book is not prescriptive in any way or form. However, many of the findings here could also benefit people like me who have no official training or business connections but have experienced formal meetings, negotiations, and maybe even conflicts in Japanese workplaces first-hand, with no idea of what the socially appropriate behavior or response was. While discourse analysis, linguistics, and sociopragmatics scholars will definitely take an interest in the new ideas brought forth by this book, people interested in Japan and Japanese culture, foreign people already living here, or those planning to work in Japan will also find it fascinating.

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Speaking Up: Understanding Language and Gender. Allyson Jule. Blue Ridge Summit, PA: Multilingual Matters, 2018. x + 127 pp.

Reviewed by
Tanja McCandie
Nanzan University

Allyson Jule, the author of *Speaking Up: Understanding Language and Gender,* is Co-Director of the Gender Studies Institution and Professor at Trinity Western University. At only 127 pages, *Speaking Up* is a brief introduction to the growing research into the concepts of language and gender. Consisting of eight chapters, the book is divided into two parts: "Understanding Gender and Language Use" and "Understanding Gender and Language Use in the World." The first part presents a beginner's guide to the powers and limitations of language use and gendered expectations. The second part addresses language and gender in relation to media, education, the workplace, religious sectors, and relationships. Each chapter closes with a summary of the key information covered. An informative glossary precedes an impressive reference list for those keen to study more extensively in this field.

The beginning chapter "Basics," provides foundations in terminology and concepts that surround gender and gender roles and beliefs: liberal, social, and radical feminism; intersectionality; patriarchy; misogyny; sex and gender differences; and LGBTQ+ are all addressed. An overview of historical shifts in feminism, comments on notable feminists, and a discussion on the influence of globalism and neoliberalism provide sufficient background for the reader, be it someone new to the field or someone with a background in language and gender.

In Chapter 2 "Language as Gendered," Jule posits that though language is often considered passive and neutral, it is not value-free and can be used as a tool of oppression. Language is a reflection of society; thus, it is often gendered in its use. The author points to Robin Lakoff's research regarding hedging, rising intonation, indirect commands, politeness, and vocal fry often being viewed as female features that consequently can be used to demonstrate subordination to a power figure, but also to show membership to a certain group. The necessity of further research into relationships between class, power, and language is highlighted, pinpointing social constructionism and

how positions in society "are fluid, negotiable, and constantly changing" (p. 28). In addition, Jule looks briefly at critical discourse analysis and gendered discourse by underlining the power and gendered expectations found in interactions.

Part 2 opens with "Gender and Language Use in the Media and Technology" (Chapter 3), in which Jule notes that media has come under scrutiny within feminist research. Advertising that portrays sexuality, sexualization, and hypermasculinity and femininity are at an all-time high. While heteronormative trends are decreasing in correlation with improving LGBTQ+ awareness, there is no denying that companies use gendered identities to sell products. These identities have evolved from stereotypical housewife-type roles to more self-reliant "girl power" images for women, and an increasing inclusion of sensitive and vulnerable portrayals of men. These evolutions notwithstanding, the persistence of female "talk time," unattainable standards of female beauty, consumer branding based on sex, and misogynistic abuse and harassment within social media and gaming are all highlighted. Jule acknowledges that while men are objectified by the media, misogyny is deeply embedded, with women more often manipulated and the ramifications much more destructive.

Malala Yousafzai's "We Cannot All Succeed When Half of Us Are Held Back" aptly begins Chapter 4. The focus in "Gender and Language Use in Education" is on educational institutions and their gender inequalities concerning learning styles, strategies, and results. Gendered interactions, expectations, and reinforcement of behaviours further the continuance of social reproduction; boys are encouraged to speak up, take risks, and become leaders, whilst girls are taught to be quiet, passive, and supportive. In lower level institutions, male student aggression towards female students and educators highlights patriarchal power structures learned from an early age. In postsecondary institutions, sexual violence on campuses paired with a lack of support for victims illuminates grave inadequacies in addressing gendered marginalization issues. Discussion on female silence as a participation strategy proves thought-provoking when considering declining birth and marriage rates as one specific way Japanese women are silently protesting their treatment in society (Rich, 2019).

Chapter 5 "Gender and Language Use in the Workplace," provides a description of how men and women frame themselves based on societal gendered norms and their associated "appropriate" behaviour. Interestingly, rather than focus on what those gendered norms are, the spotlight in this chapter is on generalized leadership styles of women deemed successful

in the workforce, citing characteristics associated with "masculine and feminine speech that is both simultaneously assertive and supportive" (p. 69). Despite these examples of successful women, the glass ceiling is still very real. Women are making strides but, regardless of education levels and equity laws, real visible power in the workforce is still beyond reach. This is repeatedly reflected in the number of women in management positions, and a similar situation can be seen closer to home when looking at tenure rates for female professors in Japan; in 2015, only 23 percent of all tenured university researchers and educators were female (Nagatomo, 2016).

In Chapter 6 "Gender and Language Use in Religion," Jule explains how Judaic, Christian, and Islamic religious beliefs influence gender and language. She discusses both right-wing Christian evangelicalism and radical Islam as influencers on gender and language, observing that "many religious people discard feminism . . . . Likewise, many feminists discard religion . . . because of the deep patriarchy at the core of religious dogma" (p. 79). Jule notes that the Torah, the Bible, and the Qur'an were all allegedly written by men, with communities often justifying misogyny based on these writings. The belief that all-powerful deities are male is mirrored in leadership roles and power structures within most organized religions, with women often providing supportive, silent roles. "Gender and Language Use in Relationships," the penultimate chapter, distinguishes institutional talk from social talk, illustrating the ways in which language and gender are used in social relationships. The author looks at how men and women conduct conversations, maintain authority, and foster relationships using language as a tool. Women tend to use language that shows focus, closeness, and support in order to maintain strong social bonds and demonstrate affection. Men, conversely, generalize, positioning themselves as less engaged and more independent when it comes to gendered stereotypes of family roles. They show affection through physically doing things they perceive as helping the other.

In the final chapter "An Anti-Conclusion," Jule rightly states that the issues surrounding language and gender will be infinitely transient. Environments, social conditioning, and social factors are ever-evolving. Although there are gendered language patterns, it is a complex matter that cannot be succinctly divided and agreed upon with ease. Jule concludes by observing that victims of domestic violence and sexual harassment are most often women, who are socialized to be dependent, whereas men are conditioned as leaders and power holders. The hope is that increased awareness of the impact of language use will expand our understanding of human relationships and possibilities for all.

This book should be included on reading lists for anyone interested in gender, language, and classroom or workspace dynamics. The first two chapters contain accessible language to introduce gender studies, feminism, and gender and language connectivity. The second section clearly deals with various gendered spheres familiar to all, encouraging readers to consider their own relationship with language. The glossary is a reader-friendly bonus, either offering support to those with a limited background in the field or serving as a refresher on the terminology to others.

My only real criticism is that, as Jule directly comments on throughout, this topic is fluid and ever-changing. The focus on and interchanging of male/female and man/woman and the omission of nonbinary discussion could be viewed as outdated due to the growing acceptance of gender as a spectrum. For those who neither identify as, nor limit themselves to, binary norms, further discussion of language and gender intersectionality would strengthen the understanding of gendered roles, expectations, and language.

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Reviewed by
Andrew McCarthy
J. F. Oberlin Academy

Over the last decade, the relationship between motivation and L2 learning has been at the forefront of research and practice in the field of SLA. This is largely due to the forces of globalization placing unprecedented demands on countries to promote the learning of English, while concomitantly

practitioners have been raising concerns over the apparent lack of L2 learner motivation, particularily in Asian contexts. *L2 Selves and Motivations in Asian Contexts* is an edited collection of 13 chapters that aims to bring together a wealth of theoretical and practical knowledge in the field of L2 motivation from an Asian perspective. This collection broadens the scope of research brought together previously by the same editors (2013) concerning the Japanese context and questions whether it is indeed appropriate and even legitimate to consider L2 motivation in a geographically generic Asian context.

In Chapter 1, the editors set the scene for the collection of works in this volume by providing the reader with a theoretical background to L2 motivation and its relationship to the L2 self. This introductory chapter also presents the editors' holistic vision for understanding L2 motivation from an individual-learner-in-context approach rather than from any single theory or research method. Next (Chapter 2), Peter Gobel, Siew Ming Thang, and Setsuko Mori revisit studies and theories of attribution that are based on Western research, in which individual learner attributes have been shown to dominate and which may not be relevant to the interdependent group-focused Asian learner. Chapter 3 continues with the theme of the importance of societal factors in determining an individual learner's L2 motivation. In this chapter, Tae-Young Kim explores the interaction between complex dynamic systems theory and sociocultural theory, and in particular, the role that societal pressure and the parent play in a child's learning. In Chapter 4, I-Ling Chen and Hung-Tzu Huang utilize the L2 motivational self system (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009) to investigate the L2 selves of junior high school Taiwanese students and explore whether the ideal L2 self is as significant a factor for L2 motivation as it is in Western contexts. In Chapter 5, Szu-An Chen also explores motivation in the Taiwanese secondary school context and utilizes interview studies to qualitatively investigate the dynamic nature of students' L2 motivation with particular attention being paid to the dominant role of the teacher and how they can encourage new ways of cognition among their students. In Chapter 6, Marcos Y. Lopez and Richard D.L.C. Gonzales are also concerned with the roles that cognition and especially critical thinking (CT) play in foreign language learning (FLL). Their complex quantitative study regarding the relationship between FLL motivation and CT motivation among Filipino learners also looks at the role that gender plays.

From here the book shifts slightly with Michiko Ueki and Osamu Takeuchi, in Chapter 7, looking at the impact of study abroad (SA) experience on L2

motivation from the Japanese university student perspective, investigating the effect that SA has on learner anxiety and self-efficacy. In Chapter 8, we move to China, and Mingyue (Michelle) Gu and Xiaoyuan (Doris) Qu utilize critical discourse analysis methods to explore the relationship between discourse construction and motivation construction with an emphasis on the impact of interpersonal relationships on motivation. In the next chapter (Chapter 9), Amol Padwad and Krishna Dixit give unique insight into L2 motivation from a teacher's perspective in the Indian context, exploring the effect of teachers' behavior on their own motivation. Qian-Mei Zhang (Chapter 10) continues with the theme of motivation from a teacher's perspective, investigating how activity theory can explain why seemingly motivated secondary school teachers in China lose their motivation and how they can regain it. In Chapter 11, Martin Lamb, Sri Puji Astuti, and Nilawati Hadisantosa report on what strategies Indonesian teachers use to motivate their students to study English. In Chapter 12, Nathanael Rudolph provides us with an understanding of the concept of poststructural theory and how it can be applied to foster L2 motivation among glocal communities of L2 learners in an increasingly globalized world. Finally, in Chapter 13, Apple and Da Silva question the definition of an ideal L2 self and plot a future trajectory for L2 motivation in an Asian context by proposing a spectrum of L2 motivation on a continuum that opposes polarizing absolutist and relativist theories and offers a universalist midway approach to L2 motivation.

One of the greatest strengths of this volume is that it brings together a collection of research on L2 motivation in relatively similar contexts with the aim to add weight and balance to a field of study that has until recently been dominated by studies carried out in Western contexts. However, the volume presents somewhat of a paradox. The book brings together a collection of chapters from Asian contexts and yet concomitantly encourages the reader to question whether it is indeed appropriate to group these different contexts under an Asian umbrella as it may be a false dichotomy (p. 235). The editors point out that the plural "contexts" in the book title is in reference to the many diverse teaching and learning situations that exist and that comprise each form of context (e.g., countries, cities, towns, and schools) even though there is reference made to L2 motivation in an "Asian context" (p. 3). The editors also acknowledge that the results from studies in this volume relating to Japan, Korea, China, and Taiwan have more similarities (p. 235) than those from South East Asian contexts and admit that the volume as a whole may "have raised more questions than answered" (p. 237).

Overall, however, I recommend this book to both theorists and practitioners as it aims to stimulate thought as well as provoke argument on the central topic of L2 selves and motivation from a "person in context" (Ushioda, 2013) view. Each chapter provides unique insight into the teaching and learning context in which the studies take place, enriching the entire body of L2 motivation research and reversing the flow of knowledge from the periphery to the center.

References

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Practical Research Methods in Education: An Early Researcher's Critical Guide. Mike Lambert (Ed.). Abingdon, England: Routledge, 2019. xviii + 152 pp.

Reviewed by
Nicole Moskowitz
Kyoto Sangyo University

Practical Research Methods in Education provides students engaging in or considering postgraduate study a refresher course by revisiting concepts and methodology in education research. Current educators who are not considering postgraduate study might also gain a closer understanding of the ways to formally evaluate and critique their own work and that of others from this book. This book might also be of value to all educators who are undertaking research, as it provides succinct definitions of terms, questions to consider before and during research, and many quality references for a deeper understanding if needed. This book is particularly helpful in that along with clear, concise definitions of terms and their application, each of the 13 chapters also describes how the author applied various concepts

in real-world (as opposed to theoretical) research projects which have been published. This makes the book very accessible, especially in how the authors explain and apply concepts and terms in a way that not only allows teachers to understand but also allows them to see their relevance to their own contexts. Readers are introduced to a wide range of methods and approaches applicable to teaching contexts as well as research.

Each chapter follows a set format: (a) an introduction to the topic, (b) a general explanation of merits and limitations, (c) a general explanation of terms, (d) questions for the reader to reflect on, (e) a study where the author used one or more of the concepts introduced and discusses them, (f) a conclusion, and (g) a list of references and recommendations for further reading. This logical and consistent organization makes it easy to follow and find terms and information upon repeated readings. Furthermore, it provides many jumping-off points for readers to learn more about each of the topics, terms, theories, or research projects mentioned. Although every chapter might not be applicable to all language teaching contexts, I believe the following chapters would be quite helpful for the majority of language teachers and researchers.

Chapter 1, by Brendan Bartram, covers questionnaires, specifically different questionnaire types (online vs. written), question types (e.g., closed, tick-box, and open-ended), the merits and limitations of questionnaires, ethical considerations, an explanation of a study which used a questionnaire, ways to analyze the data, and questions to consider when deciding on how and when to use a questionnaire in research. Of particular interest were the discussions of question phrasing, the need for piloting, and ethical issues regarding how respondents might feel coerced into completion, as these issues are not always thoroughly detailed when questionnaire research is presented. Questionnaires are an achievable way for novice language researchers to begin conducting research because they require little statistical analysis and are easily applicable in classes given permission of the institution. This chapter provides an excellent way to begin to think about how to create your own questionnaire, the possible applications, and potential areas of difficulty and complications.

Chapter 2 focuses on the importance of interviews, which can provide additional insights and enrich quantitative research through the generation of qualitative data. This chapter mainly presents the definitions, differences, advantages, limitations, and applicable scenarios of structured interviews, semistructured interviews, unstructured interviews, and focus-group interviews. It also provides a personal overview of chapter

author Jo Winwood's research as well as advice on practical issues such as scheduling, note-taking, data analysis, and piloting. Interviews might also be an achievable way for novice language researchers to begin conducting research, as they also require little statistical analysis. They do, however, require more time and individual researcher effort than questionnaires.

Chapter 6 deals with using quantitative data, and Michael Jopling successfully demystifies the terms, their applications, and the importance of using quantitative data, and briefly deals with descriptive and inferential statistics. The author provides many terms and deftly defines them, but without specific numerical examples of each term it is easy for one term to blur into the next and for readers to become confused. Those readers looking for a simple overview of the terminology will be satisfied, while those looking for a deeper understanding of quantitative data best look in other places. Luckily, Jopling has provided recommended reading for more information on quantitative data, which will most likely be a good place to start for those interested readers.

Chapter 12 provides key definitions and characteristics of case studies. Issues relating to collecting samples, combining methods, data gathering, trustworthiness and validity, and ethics are discussed by Tunde Rozsahegyi. Overall, a pragmatic but critical overview is provided of issues that a researcher is likely to meet when planning, conducting, and evaluating case-study research. In this chapter, the author explores her experiences with a case study, which helps illustrate the limitations of case studies and how they can offer personal interpretations and practical knowledge rather than certainties.

Lastly, Chapter 13 details the history, the main researchers of, and the overriding purpose of grounded-theory research, which is to obtain organized, believable ideas and concepts from practical investigation. The examples of grounded-theory research in education might be new for readers with a language-teaching background. Based on the work of Glaser and Strauss (1967), Lambert also suggests that researchers should begin with the collection of data without taking published literature into account; afterwards, theory can be drawn from the data; and lastly, the derived theory can be applied to already published ideas. This is atypical to the traditional way research is conducted (to over-simplify, first with a literature review, then an idea or theory to research, followed by data collection, and then data analysis). Lambert's introduction to a grounded-theory approach might motivate researchers who prefer more creativity or flexibility or who are hesitant or intimidated by the breadth of literature to tackle.

The remaining chapters in the book cover a range of methods (e.g., observations, Chapter 3; Q-methodology, Chapter 9; and ethnography, Chapter 11), materials (e.g., video, Chapter 5; documents, Chapter 7; and texts, Chapter 8), as well as participant contexts such as involving children in Chapters 4 and 10.

This book is similar in the vein of the popular *How Languages are Learned* (Lightbown & Spada, 2013) in that it is written in a highly accessible way for readers of multiple backgrounds, provides excellent definitions of terms, and includes references for other literature to read for more useful and detailed information. Although the introductory, general, and broad scope of the book means that teachers and researchers looking for in-depth discussions and information will not find it very helpful, every chapter is well-written, thoroughly explained, and will be of use to novice researchers, those considering postgraduate studies, those needing concise and clear term definitions, and those looking to expand their research knowledge from second language acquisition to education in general.

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Metalinguistic Awareness and Second Language Acquisition. Karen Roehr-Brackin. New York, NY: Routledge, 2018. x + 156 pp.

Reviewed by
Sina Takada
Kanda University of International Studies

This book is a part of the Cognitive Science and Second Language Acquisition (CS&SLA) series, which provides a holistic overview of concepts and findings in cognitive science and second language acquisition. In this book, Karen Roehr-Brackin gives a comprehensive introduction to the theme

of metalinguistic awareness in seven chapters. This book aims to cover a broad range of studies on metalinguistic awareness with both theoretical and empirical views.

Chapter 1 goes over the relevant terminology and definitions. The main concept, metalinguistic knowledge, is defined as "knowledge about language" (p. 1), and it "includes knowledge of general principles applicable to more than one language" (pp. 1-2). Metalinguistic ability is defined as "the capacity to use knowledge about language as opposed to the capacity to use language" (p. 2). Metalinguistic awareness is explained as "attentional focus [on] the domain of knowledge that describes the explicit properties of language" (p. 2).

Chapter 2 gives an overview of how metalinguistic awareness is facilitated by different factors. Firstly, the age factor is discussed with an overview of human cognitive development. The author mentions four phases of metalinguistic development: (1) the acquisition of first linguistic skills, (2) the acquisition of epilinguistic control (nonconscious behavior), (3) the acquisition of metalinguistic awareness, and (4) the automatization of metaprocesses. Secondly, literacy influence is examined through studies that compare literate adults or children and illiterate individuals. Thirdly, the influence of bilingualism is discussed. The author reviews a series of studies that compare monolinguals and bilinguals, and experienced and inexperienced bilinguals. In these studies, bilinguals tended to perform better on more cognitively challenging tasks. The author argues that selective use of multiple languages leads to higher executive control, making bilinguals less likely to be distracted by unnecessary information.

Chapter 3 covers studies on metalinguistic awareness in language education. The author opens by mentioning the underlying benefits and complexity of multilingual education. Several projects that aimed to develop metalinguistic awareness through multilingual education are introduced. One example is Hawkins's (2005) two-stage approach that aimed to initially develop linguistic awareness in the earlier stage of language education, and then in the later stage, affect instrumental purpose (e.g., study for career development). Another project, Springboard to Languages, aimed to facilitate students' metalinguistic awareness through teaching Esperanto based on the hypothesis that teaching Esperanto, whose linguistic structure is regular and transparent, will foster metalinguistic awareness. Next, the author discusses issues in the primary-school setting. In a study focused on children's notice and repair, children's metalinguistic awareness was enhanced through teacher-led discussions. Based on relevant studies, the

author concludes that explicit instruction and form-focused activities are beneficial for children as young as 7 or 8 years old.

Chapter 4 reviews a theoretical overview of metalinguistic awareness as explicit knowledge. The author first mentions different views on the relationship between implicit and explicit knowledge: noninterface, strong interface, and weak-interface positions. The author explains that the weak-interface position is broadly adopted in current SLA research and argues that the two concepts, while separable and distinct, can interact with each other indirectly. In the second part, the author defines noticing as detection with focal attention accompanied by awareness, which can be divided into three levels: perception, noticing or focal awareness, and understanding. She also remarks that attention (characterized by alertness, orientation, and detection) is distinct from consciousness and awareness. As for the pedagogy of grammar, she compares the usage-based approach, which is flexible and contextualized, and explicit metalinguistic knowledge, which is stable and context independent. In the third part, the author discusses learning difficulty. She describes various factors of implicit and explicit learning difficulty such as frequency, salience, redundancy, complexity, and technicality. In the fourth part, the relationship between language learning aptitude and metalinguistic awareness is discussed. It is suggested that the two factors are closely related, that they partially overlap, and that aptitude influences metalinguistic awareness.

In Chapter 5, Roehr-Brackin summarizes empirical evidence of metalinguistic awareness as explicit knowledge and/or learning. Firstly, she examines the effectiveness of explicit and implicit instruction through comparing focus on form (FonF), focus on forms (FonFS), and focus on meaning (FonM). The research shows several grammatical aspects are compatible with focus on forms instruction: "strong verbs, word order, modal expressions, adjective endings, prepositions, use of tenses, and relatives" (p. 98). However, it is noted that focus on forms is more beneficial for advanced learners, and its effectiveness can vary depending on L2 exposure and individual differences. The author then examines how explicit knowledge relates to L2 achievement and use. Various studies have shown that metalinguistic knowledge and L2 proficiency positively correlate, albeit the correlation coefficients varied. It is also suggested that several factors, such as language learning aptitude, can intervene. As for other factors, studies on cognitive processing suggested that time pressure and prototypicality affect access to metalinguistic knowledge; prototypical uses are more automatized. In the final part, the roles of learners and input variables are discussed. In

the summary of several studies that examined the relationship between metalinguistic awareness and learning aptitude, the author suggested that acquisition of metalinguistic knowledge is somewhat predicted by aptitude. At the same time, studies indicate that explicit knowledge enables learners to take a top-down or deductive approach, which can moderate aptitude disadvantages.

In Chapter 6, measurement of metalinguistic awareness is discussed by looking at various tests and self-reports. As for the grammaticality judgment task (GJT), it is suggested that timed GJTs attract more reliance on implicit knowledge, while untimed GJTs allow more access to explicit knowledge. However, Roehr-Brackin points out that unclear separation of explicit and implicit knowledge can be a drawback. Although error correction and rule illustration can be better alternatives, they also have issues that need to be addressed; error correction can be completed with implicit knowledge, and rule illustration is demanding for those who cannot verbalize rules. The author suggests self-report as another way of measuring metalinguistic knowledge, with learners indicating their level of awareness and use of metalinguistic knowledge. Next, metalinguistic awareness in children and adults with low levels of education is discussed. In measuring children's analytical knowledge, tasks that require detection, extraction, or articulation of linguistic structures can be used, error correction tasks being one example. In measuring children's control of processing, tasks that distract attention from meaning can be used. As for adult learners with low levels of literacy or limited education, possibilities include measurement of phonological awareness, lexical and semantic awareness, or textual and discourse awareness. Lastly, the author introduces some ways of measuring executive function. Tasks should be designed to test respondents' ability to select relevant information and respond, without being affected by irrelevant information. Examples are the Simon task, the flanker task, and the Attentional Network Task.

Chapter 7 concludes the book with a summary of the main points and insight into future research. The author mentions that two perspectives had been described: a cognitive-developmental perspective and an implicit-explicit perspective. It is also noted that there are facilitative factors such as bilingualism, working memory, aptitude, and metalinguistic awareness and the notion that implicit and explicit can influence each other. As for future research, the author suggests more research into a broader population including bilingual children and adults with low levels of education, comparisons between naturalistic and instructed acquisition, and

investigations of how aptitude and cognitive styles influence metalinguistic awareness.

   This book will be particularly useful for researchers, including ones new to issues in metalinguistic awareness. The author summarizes a series of studies on each topic and organizes them in a way that readers can follow the history of studies and the emerging views on each issue. In Chapters 4, 5, and 6, Roehr-Brackin explains how studies are designed to measure metalinguistic awareness and examines their validity with regard to their limitations. Such details will be especially helpful for researchers and educators who expect to design studies in this field. While this book is well organized in summarizing the empirical theories and evidence, it is less clear in providing pedagogical applications in language education. Chapter 3 mainly deals with metalinguistic awareness in education, and Chapter 5 also examines the effectiveness of both explicit and implicit instruction. However, as this is still an ongoing area of investigation, it can be a challenge to draw implications on how exactly classrooms can be designed to foster metalinguistic awareness or balance explicit and implicit teaching, both of which have advantages and disadvantages. Overall, this book is a good introduction to the topics of metalinguistic awareness and is a useful resource for researchers.

Reference

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日本語論文投稿要領

*JALT Journal*では日本語で執筆された論文、研究報告、実践報告、書評等を募集しています。文体:一般的な学術論文のスタイルを用い、章立ての仕方や参考文献のデータの書き方などは、*Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (7th ed.)*の定める方式に合わせて下さい。*JALT Journal*スタイルシートを以下からダウンロードできます <http://www.jalt-publications.org/jj/>なお、*JALT Journal*の読者は現場の教師が主なので、特殊な専門用語や統計的手法は、わかりやすく定義するか説明を加えるなどして下さい。原稿: 長さは、参考文献リストも含め25,000字（書評の場合は 1,500字）以内です。A4の用紙に横書きで、1行40字、1ページ30行で印刷して下さい。手書きの原稿は受け付けません。

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