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JALT Journal Information

Japan Association for Language Teching

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.

JALT publishes *JALT Journal,* a semiannual research journal; *The Language Teacher*, a bimonthly periodical containing articles, teaching activities, reviews, and announcements about professional concerns; and the annual *JALT Postconference Publication*.

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.

Membership is open to those interested in language education and includes optional membership in one chapter and one SIG, copies of JALT publications, and free or discounted admission to JALT-sponsored events. JALT members can join as many additional SIGs as they wish for an annual fee of ¥2,000 per SIG. For information, contact the JALT Central Office or visit the JALT website.

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In This Issue

Articles

This issue contains three full-length research articles in English, two full-length research articles in Japanese, and two articles as part of our new ***Expositions*** section. In the first article, **Kelly Cargos** evaluates the practicality of the Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT) framework as a guide for curricular innovation by examining in-service teacher views about innovation feasibility. Secondly, **Tomohisa Machida** explores the impact of an enhanced pre-service training course on student teachers' preparation for teaching English to elementary school students, with a focus on instructional strategies through team teaching. Thirdly, **Paul Wicking** applies a theoretical framework of learning-oriented assessment (LOA) to explore six teachers' beliefs and practices related to language assessment.

In our Japanese-language articles, **Yumi Tanaka** examines the effects of intercultural experiences on English communicative competence and learning motivation of students studying at three public elementary schools in the Kanto region of Japan. **Yusuke Okada** discusses teachers' post-performance feedback practices given for students' academic presentations in EAP classrooms through the microanalysis of actual EAP classroom feedback practices.

Expositions

The following two essays in our new ***Expositions*** section were written by two of our current Editorial Advisory Board members. **Yuko Goto Butler** argues that the purpose of language education is to assist learners in developing communicative competence for digital technology, and that language educators should use digital technology as a pedagogical tool, adapting it to learners' own linguistic behaviors and cognitive styles. **Jeremie Bouchard,** in his discussion of the core principles of critical Applied Linguistics (AL) research, reminds us of the importance of criticality to AL as a branch of the social sciences.

Reviews

This issue features nine reviews looking broadly at (a) professional development, teacher efficacy, and foreign female teacher identity; (b) teaching morphology, grammar, and in online contexts; and (c) the research into motivation and silence. **Sue Brennan** begins by exploring language teacher efficacy in Japan from a book of that very title. Second, **Xin Chen** reviews Bauer and Nation's overview on teaching English morphology. Next, **Alina Friel** relates personal experiences in her summary of a collection of narratives from foreign female English teachers published by Candlin & Mynard. **Marc Jones** then critiques a guide to professional development for early-career faculty. **Brendan R. B. Plummer** covers a title on motivation by Dörnyei in the new Innovations and Challenges in Applied Linguistics series from Routledge and edited by Ken Hyland. **Jonathan Shachter** lends his voice to an edited volume on silence in language education. Quite fittingly, **Richmond Stroupe** and junior colleague **Riya Kartha** collaborate to synthesize the common themes found in a multi-chaptered anthology titled *Professionalizing Your English Language Teaching*. **Bill White** offers a timely summary of a book focused on developing online language teaching with blended learning and flipped classrooms. And, finally, **Kam Yin Wu** presents insights on an accessible guide to linguistics for language teachers based on Virtual Grammar.

From the Editors

As the spring season ushers in a new beginning for many of us in Japan, we, the *JALT Journal* (*JJ*) editorial team, would like to announce several new and exciting developments.

Firstly, we welcome several new Editorial Advisory Board members: **Keita Kikuchi, Elizabeth Lavolette, Nicola Galloway, Thomas S. C. Farrell, Ryuko Kubota, and Christopher Nicklin.** Their combined research expertise will continue to help us ensure that the output of the journal is of the utmost quality. We could not be more excited to have them on board!

In addition, we proudly announce that *JJ* is now officially indexed by **Scopus**, which is the largest abstract and citation database of peer-reviewed literature, including books, scientific journals, and conference proceedings. As it is a database that is used by about 3,000 academic, corporate, and governmental institutions, it raises the opportunity for *JALT Journal*'s articles and reviews to be viewed and cited by a wide variety of researchers worldwide. This is a major achievement for the journal. We sincerely thank the numerous editorial board members, proofreaders, production editors, additional readers, and past editors for their role in making this milestone possible.

Finally, we are excited to launch a new article format in *JJ* entitled ***Expositions.*** This section will include authored essays by invited experts in our field that will survey current research trends and practices in language learning, teaching, and acquisition in Japan and worldwide. Articles in this section may also be written by members of our *JJ* staff (editors, Editorial Advisory board members) to further engage with the *JJ* readership and encourage dialogue about a wide range of issues. We sincerely hope that you enjoy the inclusion of this new section on our journal!

If any of you are interested in volunteering with us, please contact Gregory Paul Glasgow at jaltpubs.jj.ed@jalt.org, or Dennis Koyama at jaltpubs.jj.ed2@jalt.org, especially if you have experience conducting research and/or publishing academic works.

— Gregory Paul Glasgow, *JALT Journal* Editor

— Dennis Koyama, *JALT Journal* Associate Editor

Articles

From ELT to GELT: The Feasibility of Global Englishes Language Teaching Curricular Innovation

Kelly Cargos
Tokyo Kasei University

Global Englishes (GE) is an inclusive paradigm that recognizes the diversity and fluidity of English use and English users around the world (Rose & Galloway, 2019). GE has inspired a framework for research and teaching known as Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT). To evaluate the practicality of the GELT framework as a guide for curricular innovation, it is necessary to ascertain whether teachers view GELT as feasible. Building on studies by Cameron and Galloway (2019) and Galloway and Numajiri (2020), the present study investigated in-service teacher views on innovation feasibility and barriers to innovation. A questionnaire was distributed to 27 participants at 3 time conditions, and focus groups were conducted with 16 questionnaire respondents. Findings indicate that in-service teachers perceived GELT innovations to be somewhat feasible, yet various factors were identified as barriers. These results suggest that GELT curriculum innovation is most possible when initiated from the bottom up.

Global Englishes（GE）は、世界中の英語使用と英語使用者の多様性と流動性を認識する包括的なパラダイムであり、Global Englishes Language Teaching（GELT）という研究・教育のフレームワークを生み出した（Rose & Galloway, 2019）。本研究では、GELTによるカリキュラム革新の実現可能性とその障壁に関する現職の英語教師の見解について調査した。アンケートは27名の英語教師に対して、3つの違う時期に実施した。フォーカスグループには16名のアンケート回答者を採用した。その結果、GELTによるカリキュラム革新をいくらか実行可能として捉えていた一方で、様々な要因をその障害としてみなしていることがわかった。これらの結果が示唆することは、GELTによるカリキュラム革新はボトムアップ方式が最も可能性があるということである。

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Keywords: English as an International Language; English as a Lingua Franca; focus groups; native-speakerism; World Englishes

The "native speaker" was pronounced dead more than 35 years ago (Paikeday, 1985), yet in English classrooms in Japan and across Asia, linguistic competence is still largely equated with conformity to native speaker norms. This is despite the fact that English is commonly used in communication among non-native speakers or in mixed groups, and that norms observed in lingua franca communication do not necessarily reflect the conventions of British or American English (Jenkins, 2012). Considering these facts, TESOL professionals may consider shifting to adopt the paradigm of Global Englishes (GE) and the framework of Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT), which recognize English as a language that is fluid, diverse in form, and outside of the control of any single group (Rose & Galloway, 2019). Curricular innovation aligned with GELT would benefit learners who will go on to use English in a globalized world. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the feasibility of GELT curricular innovation and determine barriers to innovation based on the perceptions of in-service English teachers.

Background

What is Global Englishes?

Global Englishes is "an inclusive paradigm looking at the linguistic, sociolinguistic, and sociocultural diversity and fluidity of English use and English users in a globalized world" (Rose & Galloway, 2019, p. 4). The word "English" has been pluralized to highlight the fact that multiple Englishes are used in different speech communities worldwide, thus dispelling the notion that a single Standard English is the only form worth recognizing. GE encompasses Englishes that are nationally bound such as Singaporean English and Indian English as well as regionally bound Englishes such as ASEAN English as a Lingua Franca (Kirkpatrick, 2011), and Englishes that are connected to certain speech communities such as hip-hop English (Barrett, 2018).

GE is often used as an umbrella term, bringing together work from the fields of World Englishes (WE), English as an International Language (EIL), and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). Nevertheless, WE, EIL, and ELF are not interchangeable terms. WE research raises awareness of the existence and legitimacy of different English varieties, drawing inspiration from Kachru's (1990) model that organizes English-speaking countries into three concentric circles: The Inner, Outer, and Expanding circles. WE tends to focus on English varieties that are constrained by geographic boundaries; see Bruthiaux (2003) for a critique of this tendency. EIL research is interested in the effects of the rapid spread of English around the globe (Sharifian, 2009) and tends to focus on the social and pedagogical implications of the globalization of English (e.g., Matsuda & Duran, 2012). ELF research is particularly concerned with how English is used as a common language among speakers from different lingua-cultural backgrounds, often focusing on linguistic pragmatics (e.g., Jenkins, 2002). Differences notwithstanding, it is clear that all three fields are interested in the diversity of English use and users around the world. An enhanced understanding of English(es) can transpire from examining contributions from these fields, and one aim of GE research is to integrate knowledge from these disciplines into one paradigm.

Yet GE is not merely a catch-all label for certain kinds of applied linguistics research. Its principles can inform English teachers working in classrooms in Japan and around the world. These principles are consolidated in a framework known as Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT).

What is Global Englishes Language Teaching?

Recognizing the need for an epistemic break away from Western-oriented, native-speaker oriented practices in ELT (Kumaravadivelu, 2012), Galloway (and later Rose) developed a framework to guide research and curriculum innovation in a different direction. The Global Englishes Language Teaching framework (Table 1) emerged from a study with Japanese university learners (Galloway, 2011) and has been updated based on new ideas and research (Rose & Galloway, 2019). The framework clarifies the ways that traditional ELT and GELT diverge and offers suggestions on how to align teaching practice with the GE paradigm.

Key differences between traditional ELT and GELT are shown in Table 1. Noteworthy among them is the relative importance assigned to "the native speaker," who is the axis of traditional ELT. GELT challenges native speaker norms and calls for a move away from positioning the native speaker as the benchmark of success for *all* learners. In GELT, Standard English as prescribed by native speakers is not the universal default. This does not mean that Standard English has no value; GELT acknowledges that some learners need to acquire a form of Standard English for their education, career, or day-to-day life (Rose & Galloway, 2019). A needs analysis is critical to determine what kind of English should be taught in a specific classroom (Jenkins, 2012).

Table 1
The GELT Framework (Rose & Galloway, 2019, p. 21)

Focus	Traditional ELT	GELT
Target interlocutors	Native English speakers	All English users
Ownership	Inner Circle	Global
Target culture	Static NE cultures	Fluid cultures
Norms	Standard English	Diverse, flexible, and multiple forms
Teachers	Non-NE-speaking teachers (same L1) and NE-speaking teachers	Qualified, competent teachers (same and different L1s)
Role model	NE speakers	Expert users
Source of materials	NE and NE speakers	Salient English-speaking communities and contexts
Other languages and cultures	Seen as a hinderance and source of interference	Seen as a resource as with other languages in their linguistic repertoire
Needs	Inner Circle defined	Globally defined
Assessment criterion	Accuracy according to prescriptive standards	Communicative competence
Goals of learning	Native-like proficiency	Multicompetent user
Ideology	Underpinned by an exclusive and ethnocentric view of English	Underpinned by an inclusive Global Englishes perspective
Orientation	Monolingual	Multilingual/translingual

The GELT framework can serve as a guide for teachers who wish to change their teaching practices to reflect GE principles. That said, the existence of the framework by itself will not lead to change in TESOL. For widespread change to occur, teachers should be willing *and* able to use the framework for curriculum innovation.

Implementing a GELT Framework

From ELT to GELT

Rose and Galloway offer six proposals for change in TESOL based on ideas in Galloway (2011). They are reprinted below (Rose & Galloway, 2019, p. 16).

1. increase World Englishes and ELF exposure in TESOL curricula
2. emphasize respect for multilingualism in TESOL
3. raise awareness of Global Englishes in TESOL
4. raise awareness of ELF strategies in TESOL curricula
5. emphasize respect for diverse culture and identity in TESOL
6. change English language teacher hiring practices in the TESOL industry

Many of these proposals could be achieved through top-down initiatives. However, GELT curriculum innovation typically follows a bottom-up approach. Curricular innovation informed by an inclusive perspective should not be "defined one-sidedly by experts from centers of scholarship and research, divorced from pedagogical ground conditions, but must be decided in negotiation with practitioner knowledge in actual settings" (Canagarajah, 2006, p. 27). Immanent innovation attuned to the local situation and based on teacher recommendations is more likely to be successful and sustainable because teachers have a sense of ownership and commitment to innovation (Galloway & Numajiri, 2020; Rubdy, 2008; Watson Todd, 2006).

Given the central position of teachers in GELT curriculum innovation, Rose and Galloway's (2019) proposals are unlikely to succeed if teachers do not perceive them to be feasible.

Barriers to GELT Innovation

Based on ideas in Galloway (2011), Rose and Galloway (2019, p. 180) suggest six barriers to GELT innovation in TESOL, and they are reprinted below:

1. attachment to standards
2. lack of awareness of alternative ideas
3. assessment
4. parental attitudes
5. lack of materials
6. teacher training

The above barriers may affect teachers' attitudes toward GELT, diminishing perceived feasibility and preventing teachers from attempting change.

Studies on Attitudes Toward GELT Innovation

In the literature on teacher attitudes toward GE, three studies directly relate to curriculum innovation and feasibility. Suzuki (2011) explored how diversity instruction affected the attitudes of three Japanese pre-service student-teachers toward introducing various Englishes in their classes. The student-teachers were taking a Japanese university course entitled Multicultural Education, and they participated in one-on-one interviews at the beginning, middle, and end of the course. According to them, English teachers in Japan should raise awareness of diverse Englishes. However, they balked at actually presenting different varieties during lessons, preferring to "refer to them in passing" or "quickly mention them in class" out of a desire not to confuse students and to present a standard form of English that is "correct" and "easy to catch" (p. 150). Although caution must be taken in generalizing a case study of three student-teachers to a larger population, these findings support the notion that "attachment to standards" serves as a strong barrier to GELT curriculum innovation.

Cameron and Galloway (2019) examined the attitudes of pre- and in-service TESOL teachers, inquiring about what aspects of GELT could be introduced into the classroom today and what barriers prevented teachers from doing so. Participants were enrolled in an MSc TESOL program at a UK university, and data came from a questionnaire (n = 66) and semi-structured interviews with five participants taking Galloway's Global Englishes for Language Teaching course. All five interviewees declared their support for GELT; however, they were not very optimistic about curricular innovation, with one reporting that change may occur "in the very, very long run," and another admitting "I have no confidence of [change], actually" (p. 157). Participants indicated that the three greatest barriers to change are testing, textbooks, and lack of time for innovation. In an analogous study, Galloway and Numajiri (2020) explored attitudes toward GELT curriculum innovation held by pre- and in-service teachers who were enrolled in Galloway's GELT course at the same UK university. Participants completed a questionnaire (n = 47) and interviews (n = 21). Findings were parallel to those of Cameron and Galloway in that participants reported positive attitudes toward GELT yet misgivings about feasibility, as evident in the following comment: "There's scope for these things to work, but it'll need to wait 30 or 40 years" (p. 19). Like those of Cameron and Galloway, these findings may be biased toward a GELT perspective because they are predicated on data that came from participants who elected to take a GELT course. Nevertheless, the two studies point to the distinction between *support* and *demand* for change toward GELT (Cameron & Galloway, 2019).

To summarize, the literature suggests that teachers may support GELT innovation in theory. In practice, they seem to be more cautious, harboring doubts about whether GELT is appropriate for their classrooms, and whether it could become widespread in TESOL. Yet these findings need substantiating. As shown in Rose et al.'s (2021) systematic review, relatively few studies examine teacher attitudes toward GELT curriculum innovation. The present study sought to address this gap by exploring attitudes toward curriculum innovation and barriers to innovation held by in-service English teachers from different contexts using a pre-test post-test intervention design. The following two research questions were addressed:

RQ1. To what extent do the in-service teachers believe in the feasibility of GELT-inspired curriculum innovation?

RQ2. According to the in-service teachers, what are barriers to implementing GELT-inspired curriculum innovation?

Methodology

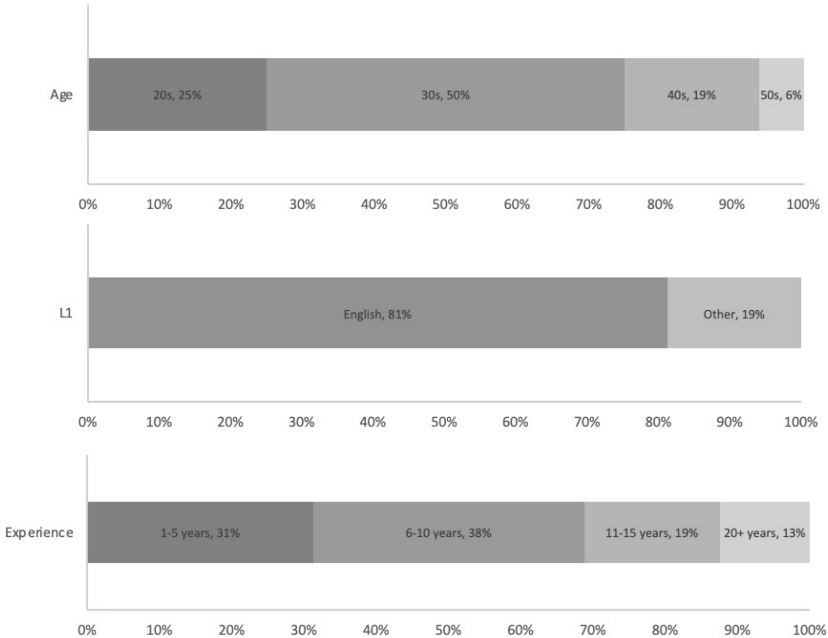
This study followed a mixed-methods design "collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study" (Cohen et al., 2017, p. 32). Concurrent identical sampling was used to collect and analyze quantitative and qualitative data at the same time from the same population sample (Collins et al., 2006).

Participants

Participants were recruited from the in-service teachers enrolled in the author's master's degree program in Applied Linguistics for Language Teaching, a two-year, distance/online course offered by a UK university. The course director is a GE scholar, and students were exposed to key GE concepts and given opportunities to critically evaluate issues in GELT throughout the course (primarily in the Sociolinguistics module).

Participants differed in terms of age, nationality, L1, L2, teaching experience, and teaching context. Although the majority would be classified as so-called "native-speakers" from Inner Circle countries (i.e., the UK, the US, and Canada), some would be categorized as "non-native speakers" coming from different lingua-cultural backgrounds. Figure 1 shows the breakdown of focus group participants in terms of age, L1, and teaching experience.

Figure 1
Focus Group Demographics (n = 16)



Data Collection Methods

The present study used two data collection methods: (a) a questionnaire to measure attitudes toward GE and GELT; (b) focus groups in which similar questions were discussed.

This paper reports on data gathered from the first and fourth sections of a four-part questionnaire. The first section had 12 items on a 10-point Likert scale that measured participants' views on proposals for change in ELT, followed by nine items on a 10-point Likert scale that gauged participants' views on barriers that prevent change. The fourth section of the questionnaire posed a series of open-ended questions about the feasibility or desirability of instigating change in TESOL or about barriers to change (depending on the time condition). The questionnaire was implemented online using the Qualtrics survey platform. All participants received the same version with items presented in the same order. It was estimated to take about 10 minutes to complete all four sections.

Data was also collected through focus groups conducted online through the Zoom application. Focus groups were chosen as a data collection method because the GE paradigm is based on the notion that English use and English pedagogy are socially constructed. It was determined that focus groups would be a suitable way to examine how teachers' attitudes are co-constructed and even modified through interaction with other teachers (Galloway, 2020). The decision to conduct *online* focus groups was made because of restrictions on face-to-face interaction imposed under COVID-19. When conducted synchronously on a video conferencing platform, online focus groups have been found to approximate face-to-face focus groups in terms of efficacy (Abrams & Gaiser, 2017). Therefore, the use of online focus groups was not thought to compromise the quality of data collection. An interview schedule was prepared in advance with six open-ended questions "designed to spark discussion," (Prior, 2018, p. 235). The author served as the moderator for all focus groups so that participants would feel relaxed talking with someone from the same in-group.

Procedure

The questionnaire was sent to all those enrolled in the program (N = 27) at the beginning of Week 5 of the Sociolinguistics module (the module that is most relevant to GE and GELT). Teachers were encouraged to complete the questionnaire by the end of the week before engaging in the content of the lesson. The return rate was 85% with 23 teachers responding. At Week 8 (the final week) of the module, the same questionnaire was sent again to teachers. The return rate was 70% with 19 teachers responding. Finally, approximately one month after the end of the module, teachers were asked to fill out the questionnaire for a final time. The return rate was 63% with 17 responding. In this way, questionnaires were delivered following a pre-/post-/delayed-post-test design.

At Week 7 (the second-to-last week) of the module, the 27 teachers in the program were contacted by the author via email and invited to participate in an online focus group taking place approximately one week after the end of the module. 16 teachers agreed to participate. Three focus groups were scheduled with 4 members in the first group and 6 members in the second and third groups.

On their scheduled date and time, participants joined the author in a Zoom meeting. The author acted as facilitator, and participants answered questions that were prepared in the interview schedule. Each focus group lasted approximately 90 minutes. With participants' consent, audio and video of the meetings were recorded as mp4 files to the author's computer using Zoom's built-in local recording feature.

All focus groups were transcribed by the author with reference to the rules outlined in Kuckartz (2014) and focus group transcription conventions established in Galloway (2011). Transcripts and open-ended questionnaire responses were coded through Qualitative Content Analysis (Schreier, 2014), and analysis was carried out in NVivo 12. Questionnaire data were analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics 26.

Results

Results pertaining to each of the two research questions will be presented in turn.

Feasibility

RQ1 asked, "To what extent do the in-service teachers believe in the feasibility of GELT-inspired curriculum innovation?"

On the questionnaire, teachers ranked the feasibility of the following six proposals for changed in TESOL:

Prop1: increasing World Englishes exposure

Prop2: emphasizing respect for multilingualism

Prop3: raising awareness of Global Englishes

Prop4: teaching ELF strategies

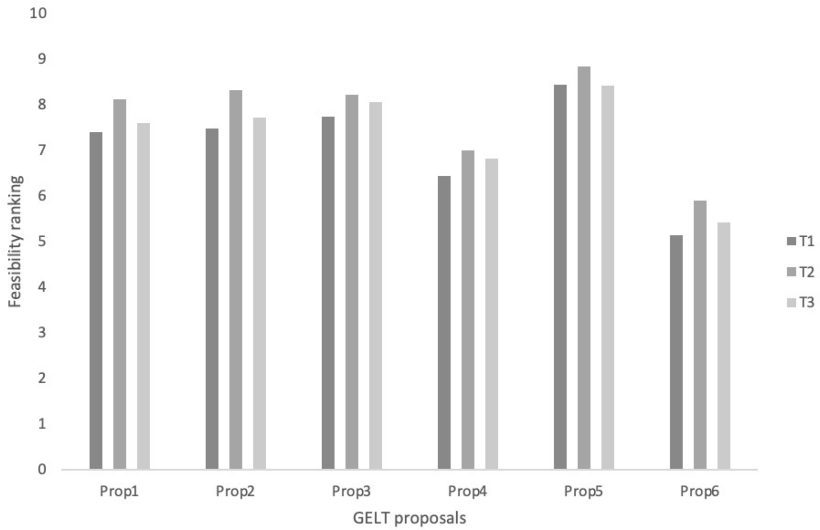
Prop5: emphasizing respect for diverse culture and identity

Prop6: changing English teacher hiring practices

A score of 1 is *not feasible at all* and 10 is *totally feasible*. Figure 2 summarizes the mean scores by time condition.

Figure 2

Mean Scores of Proposal Feasibility by Time Condition



Mean feasibility scores for T1 represent teacher attitudes before they received special training in GE and GELT and are reported in Table 2. T1 scores are most representative of the attitudes held by the majority of teachers, most of whom have not received a GE education.

Table 2

T1 Proposal Feasibility Scores (n = 23)

Statistic	Prop1	Prop2	Prop3	Prop4	Prop5	Prop6
Mean	7.39	7.48	7.74	6.43	8.43	5.13
SD	1.90	2.39	1.98	2.37	1.67	3.91

Wilcoxon signed-rank tests were conducted to check for significant differences in feasibility scores assigned to a given proposal between T1-T2 and T1-T3. No significant differences were found between T1-T2 or T1-T3 for any of the six proposals.

Least Feasible Proposal

Questionnaire results suggested that the in-service teachers viewed Prop6, “Changing English teacher hiring practices” as the least feasible proposal. At T1, the Prop6 mean was the lowest of all mean scores (5.13). As the scores were not normally distributed, the Friedman test was conducted, and significant differences were detected among T1 scores, $\chi^2(5) = 17.05$, $p = .004$. Post-hoc Wilcoxon signed-ranks tests with a Bonferroni adjustment showed that feasibility scores for Prop6 were significantly lower than those for Prop5 ($p = .003$).

Qualitative data reinforced the notion that teachers had doubts about Prop6. Three teachers (P6 and two anonymous questionnaire respondents) explicitly reported that Prop6 was the “least feasible” of the proposals, and two argued that changing hiring practices would be “difficult.” Teachers gave various reasons as to why Prop6 has low feasibility. Some pointed out that schools are businesses that aim to serve their customers. P2 commented, “If you don’t have students who want to sign up for someone who’s from China speaking English, then you’re not going to have a business.” Many schools fail to change hiring practices in deference to the law of supply and demand (P6). Prop6 is also blocked by cultural values, as explained by one anonymous teacher at T1:

> Places that have a high demand for EFL teachers (e.g. Saudi Arabia and China) also link the ownership of the language to Inner-circle English speakers. In particular, these cultures place value of what is viewed as “correct and proper” and as a result hiring practices will not change.

Cultural values inform top-down policymaking. P12 pointed out that national policies can be hostile to changes in English teacher hiring practices, and in some countries, it is nearly impossible for a non-native-English-speaking teacher (NNEST) to acquire a visa to teach English. At the institutional level, “local NNESTs in public schools may be paid significantly less than [native-English-speaking teachers]” (anonymous, T1). As hiring is usually dependent on top-down decision making, it is not so easy to change hiring from the bottom up. This sentiment is echoed by P4:

> I think, like the others, [proposals] one to five seem to be things that you could do as an individual teacher in your own classroom […] whereas number six obviously is out of the hands of

> many- well, the majority of English language teachers, if you're not in the position to hire people.

Because it is blocked from the top down and difficult to achieve from the bottom up, teachers perceived the feasibility of changing hiring practices to be low.

Interconnectedness

Overshadowing teachers' perceptions of GELT feasibility was concern over the high degree of interconnectedness within and between problems and solutions related to curricular innovation. The qualitative data produced 15 references to interconnectedness. Teachers felt that the first five proposals seemed "interlinked and equally important" (anonymous, T1), and barriers "feed into each other" (P1), creating a "vicious cycle" (P7; P8) and a "chicken and egg" dilemma (P5). Findings suggest that it is impossible to disentangle the problems facing GELT and difficult to know where to start to instigate change (P8). This can lead to inertia, as suggested by P1:

> [...] the reason things stay the same is because no one knows where to start. Right? It's like when you've got a really long To Do list. Most people will procrastinate because, oh, there's too much to do. Whereas actually, the most sensible thing to do would just be- nothing matters, just pick something.

These comments allude to the fact that a sense of interconnectedness, coupled with the lack of a clear action roadmap, negatively affect teachers' views on the feasibility of GELT innovation.

Most Feasible Proposal

Teachers ranked Prop5, "Emphasizing respect for diverse culture and identity" highest in terms of feasibility. At T1, the Prop5 mean was the highest of all mean scores (8.43). A Friedman test and post-hoc Wilcoxon signed-rank tests revealed that the Prop5 mean at T1 was significantly higher than that of Prop4 (p = .012) and Prop6 (p = .003).

It is important to note that Prop5 and Prop2 were often conflated; P1, P13, P14, and an anonymous questionnaire respondent referred to these proposals in combination. Multiple comments during focus groups suggested that these proposals would be achievable through teachers' classroom conduct. P9 argued that respect can be encouraged "verbally, just from my personality." However, some teachers questioned the relevance of emphasizing respect in TESOL. Some had political objections, including P9 who remarked that while learning English, students "shouldn't have to be force-fed respect." P14 gave a similar comment:

> I think if we're talking about emphasizing respect for multilingualism, or people are talking about diverse culture and identity, and it's the CURRENT stakeholders talking about that, I think it's very problematic because it should be- that should be coming from the people who need multi- from multilingual sources.

Teachers felt disinclined to support Prop2 and Prop5 if the result is tokenism (P5) or the imposition of a set of values on learners without consideration for their needs or agency in learning (P12).

Despite these concerns, teachers overall reported that promoting awareness and respect for diversity in English is "critical" (anonymous, T1) and achievable, something that any teacher can do with relative ease (P1). As shown below in "Self-reported Change", teachers even reported implementing many of these proposals themselves, seemingly influenced by the Sociolinguistics module.

Barriers

RQ2 asked, "According to the in-service teachers, what are barriers to implementing GELT-inspired curriculum innovation?" On the questionnaire, teachers indicated the relevance of nine barriers (Bar1–Bar9) as obstacles to change.

Bar1: lack of globally oriented teaching materials

Bar2: language assessment focuses on Standard English

Bar3: my lack of knowledge of Global Englishes

Bar4: colleagues or manager's lack of knowledge of Global Englishes

Bar5: attachment to Standard English by students

Bar6: attachment to Standard English by teachers

Bar7: attachment to Standard English by parents

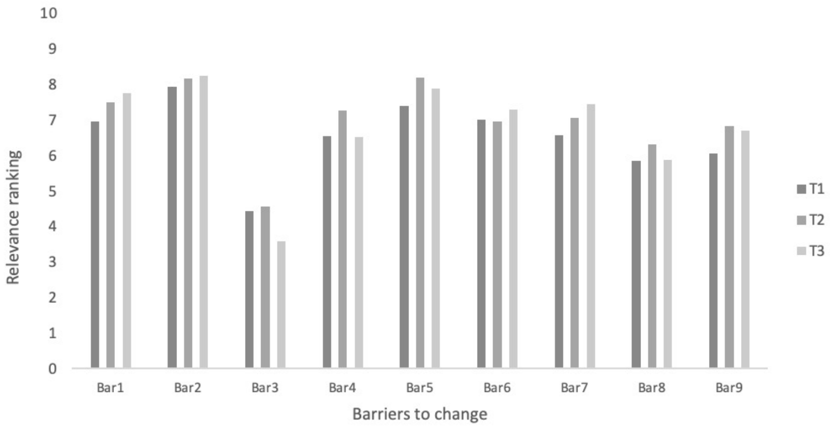
Bar8: teacher recruitment practices desiring "native" teachers

Bar9: students' demand for native speaker teachers

A score of 1 is *not relevant at all* and 10 is *absolutely relevant*. Figure 3 summarizes the mean relevance scores by time condition.

Figure 3

Mean Scores of Barrier Relevance by Time Condition



Mean relevance scores for T1 are reported in Table 3.

Table 3

T1 Barrier Relevance Scores

Statistic	Bar1	Bar2	Bar3	Bar4	Bar5	Bar6	Bar7	Bar8	Bar9
n	22	22	21	22	22	22	19	21	21
Mean	6.95	7.95	4.43	6.55	7.41	7.00	6.58	5.86	6.05
SD	3.02	2.66	2.77	2.32	2.94	2.88	3.96	3.82	2.73

Wilcoxon signed-rank tests were conducted to check for significant differences in relevance scores assigned to a given barrier between T1-T2 and T1-T3. No statistically significant differences were found between T1-T2 or T1-T3 for any of the nine barriers.

Lack of GE Knowledge

Relevance rankings indicate that Bar3 ("My lack of knowledge of Global Englishes") was perceived as the least relevant barrier. At T1, the Bar3 mean was the lowest of all mean scores (4.43). A Friedman test found significant differences among the T1 scores, $\chi^2(8) = 23.79$, $p = .002$. Post-hoc Wilcoxon signed-ranks tests with a Bonferroni adjustment found that feasibility scores for Bar3 were significantly lower than those for Bar1 (p = .004), Bar2 (p = .001), Bar4 (p = .004), Bar5 (p = .006) and Bar6 (p = .006). These findings suggest that the teachers did not perceive their own lack of understanding as a barrier to GELT-inspired curriculum innovation. Indeed, this potential barrier was not mentioned in any of the focus groups or open-ended questionnaire responses.

Yet, although teachers perceived Bar3 to be the least relevant barrier to curriculum innovation, data suggest that some teachers were in fact confused about certain aspects of GE. For example, P8 misunderstood GE as merely pertaining to pronunciation without appreciating that GE also accounts for flexibility in other areas such as grammar and vocabulary. A number of teachers (e.g., P5, P15, anonymous at T3) incorrectly suggested that ELF is a variety of English that can be spoken and taught. P1 seemed to understand Global English as a variety unto itself.

In the end, Bar3 (lack of knowledge of GE) could be a barrier to GELT-oriented curriculum innovation, all the more because teachers are not cognizant of the barrier's existence. If teachers disseminate incomplete or incorrect information to their administrators, colleagues, or students, it could result in widespread misunderstanding of GE and possibly lead to the adoption of curricula that are misaligned with GELT principles.

Assessment

Teachers perceived assessment to be a highly relevant barrier to change. Bar2 ("Language assessment focuses on Standard English") had the highest overall mean score at T1 (7.95), although it must be noted that at both T1 and T2, there were no significant differences between Bar2 scores and scores for other barriers except Bar3 (see above).

In open-ended responses, three anonymous teachers implicated assessment as the single greatest barrier to change. During the focus groups, assessment was said to be "the thing that is holding this back the most" (P5) and "the only real barrier I have" (P7).

Teachers reported that standardized tests as barriers are deeply entrenched due to the fact that they are often "used for things other than assessing language," (P12). The TOEIC test and other English assessments are used to rank employees and determine eligibility for pay raises and promotions in nations like Japan and South Korea (P12; P15). Such tests are also used to establish cutoffs for admission and graduation at universities worldwide (P13; P16). Because assessments based on Standard English are vital to the academic and professional lives of many English learners, teachers who wish to serve their students cannot easily switch away from them, P3 argues:

> So why are we throwing in all these other bells and whistles that the teacher thinks are Global-English-based or culturally enlightening? And the students are saying, “No, no, you’re not helping me pass X exam.” Because it’s standardized English.

This comment highlights the fact that without pressure from the bottom up, top-down changes in assessment are unlikely. P15 concurs:

> […] if we get newer tests that [sic] it could actually be a way to change to Global English more, but first before that we would need the WANT for those exams. And that might not happen until there’s more of a bigger societal shift in perspective. (emphasis in original)

As mentioned here by P15, teachers also viewed assessment as an avenue for curriculum innovation. Washback from assessment could have a positive impact on the spread of GE. P16 contended that if individual teachers changed classroom assessments to focus on communicability, it could enable GELT-inspired curriculum innovation because teachers often create syllabi working backwards from the endpoint of assessment.

However, teachers judged the feasibility of changing assessment, especially standardized assessment, to be low. P12 remarked, “That’s going to lose a lot of money for the testing companies. It’s going to lose a lot of money for the schools that teach to those tests.” To change the status quo could jeopardize profits, so there is little incentive to change assessment from the top down. With no push from the bottom up, change is unlikely to happen. Thus, assessment remains a deep-rooted barrier to GELT-oriented change.

Lack of Teaching Materials

Bar1 (“Lack of globally oriented teaching materials”) was middling in terms of perceived relevance as a barrier to change. At T1, it was ranked fourth most relevant (M = 6.95). Qualitative data suggest that technology partially accounts for this lower ranking. The internet provides teachers with access to “a plethora of material” that is GELT-aligned (P3). A number of teachers mentioned using online articles and audio/video clips to supplement required coursebooks. P9 argued:

> Even when we have courses that are pre-canned courses or the teacher CAN'T change anything, they always bring value added, which means they can add a different reading, they can add a different YouTube, they can add a different mp3, whatever it is. (emphasis in original)

Moreover, teachers expressed recognition of their own agency in the creation of materials. P1, who used to work at an academic publishing house, emphasized that teachers are able to impact the creation of textbooks through voicing their opinions, as "publishers look more to social media than you would think in terms of what is wanted out there." Some teachers acknowledged that they do not have to wait to start publishing GELT-oriented materials online. P5 argued that "there are ways for us to act now without waiting for some publishing contract from a company," suggesting a blog or Twitter as platforms for sharing resources.

In summary, teachers reported that the internet allows for greater flexibility in choosing classroom materials and increases the potential for sharing GELT-oriented materials among teachers. Possibly for these reasons Bar1 was perceived as less of a relevant barrier to change.

English as a Commodity

Qualitative data illuminated additional barriers that were not addressed in the quantitative data. One such barrier was "English as a commodity" which was referred to 14 times in the data. As discussed in "Assessment", teachers felt that the desire to make money or the fear of losing money props up the status quo in TESOL and eliminates the impetus for top-down change. P16 remarked:

> Money plays a role, or you can say like, neo-liberal, global capitalism plays a role, or whatever. [...] It's really hard to make a change because a lot of us work for an institution that profits off the traditional ELT model, and one of the- like, the way of making money is completely based around that model.

To protect their profits, institutions resist changes in hiring (5 references), in materials (2 references), and in assessment (5 references). Moreover, because the messages sent by these institutions are supportive of Standard

English and native speaker norms, the average English learner must accept them to succeed, "buying into it to secure their future," (P11). Due to the commodification of English, buyers and sellers have become loyal to traditional ELT norms, which precludes GELT-inspired innovation.

Intolerance

In the qualitative data, teachers made 10 references to intolerance as a barrier to change. Here, "intolerance" and "discrimination in hiring" are differentiated (although intolerance certainly leads to hiring discrimination). Intolerance manifests as ingrained biases and prejudices (see P3), preferences toward homogeneity (see anonymous at T1), and racism (see P10). Intolerance and attachment to Standard English are typically intertwined, as evident in this comment by one teacher at T1: "The largest barriers are student attitudes, including outright racism and suspicious [sic] of non-native models of speech." P5 echoes this comment when discussing learner reactions to examples of non-standard English:

> I just saw an app store review of our app with someone complaining about the Indian accents in our course saying, "This is how we're meant to learn English? From INDIANS?" giving us a one-star review. (emphasis in original)

When stakeholders including learners, teachers, parents, and school administrators lack tolerance for diversity, GE and GELT have little chance of being accepted.

Self-reported Change

It is worth noting that after taking the Sociolinguistics module, some teachers reported having made changes in their classroom conduct. Many said that they had started talking with their students about GE, specifically about different varieties of English (P4), issues of language ownership (P13), and native speaker norms (P15). P8 reported that she now takes more care in her word choice, recounting that she used to ask students, "Would you like to try a class with a native speaker?" Now she asks, "Would you like to try to talk to someone who doesn't speak your first language?" She was inspired to change her wording to "send a message about what I personally believe about native speakers and the importance of talking to them." P7 mentioned feeling more comfortable now using students' L1 during class.

According to teachers, they had considered such ideas before, but now they feel empowered to translate their ideas into actions.

Moreover, a number of teachers spoke about plans to create new courses or new modules that explicitly address or incorporate aspects of GE and GELT (e.g., P2; P7; P11). Some teachers reported that they had already implemented GE-inspired activities in their classrooms, for example, listening to non-native speakers and discussing perceptions of pronunciation (P12) or researching different English varieties within the UK and around the world (anonymous, T2). Others reported modifying teaching materials, incorporating more audio samples of various Englishes (P5; P10). A few teachers specifically made reference to Galloway and Rose's 2018 study (introduced in the module) in which students gave presentations on a chosen variety of English. They stated that they either wanted to replicate or already had replicated this activity in their own contexts (P2; P11; P16). Coincidentally, these self-reported curricular innovations align with Prop1, Prop2, Prop3, and Prop5, which were rated as highly feasible on the questionnaire. These findings will be given more consideration in the Discussion section.

Discussion

In-service teachers had mixed views on the feasibility of GELT innovation. They judged proposals for change to be moderately feasible, with mean scores generally ranging from 6 to 8 out of 10. Some even reported attempting curricular innovation themselves, and their innovations corresponded with the proposals that they rated most highly.

At the same time, teachers expressed pessimism about the prospects of GELT going mainstream. Like in Cameron and Galloway (2019) and Galloway and Numajiri (2020), teachers in the present study had difficulty imagining that GELT could become the standard for ELT in the near future. This pessimism may stem from a sense of powerlessness in the face of an "overly complex" problem (see Brown, 1993) impeded by tightly interconnected barriers.

Teachers generally confirmed the barriers to innovation that had been previously established. They also noted three additional ones. As these three barriers have yet to appear in the literature on GELT, they merit further discussion.

Political objections seem to be one reason why people do not adopt GELT ideas. If the spread of GE and GELT is viewed as an ideological crusade or an outgrowth of linguistic imperialism, then people will resist. Although researchers believe GE to be an inclusive paradigm that prioritizes the needs of learners and stakeholders (Rose & Galloway, 2019), advocates transmitting information about GE from the top down risk being perceived as dogmatic, forcing a respectful and inclusive paradigm upon others. Overzealous GE education could repel supporters and create a schism between the goals of GE and the image of GE as perceived by those outside the GE research field.

Intolerance also prevents people from adopting GELT. As a field, TESOL is by no means impervious to racism (Gerald, 2020). People actively discriminate against those who speak non-standard forms of English (Orelus, 2020), and linguistic prejudice is often tangled with racial and cultural prejudice (De Costa, 2020). To decrease intolerance in TESOL, it is important to promote GE ideas; however, GE ideas are rejected due to intolerant attitudes. The question is: How to break the cycle? In all likelihood, the intolerance barrier will never truly disappear. Intolerance is bigger than TESOL. It reinforces other barriers and is reinforced in turn. The best way to weaken intolerance may be to dismantle other barriers first and begin to introduce GE from the ground up. Yet as discussed earlier, it is difficult to know where to start.

The commodification of English also acts as a barrier to GELT innovation. Commercially, there is no denying that the native speaker is a selling point for English educational businesses (Seargeant, 2009), and industry players have a vested interest in traditional ELT which supports this business model. GELT endangers the hegemony of the native speaker, which threatens companies, publishing houses, schools, and institutions that maintain profitability by representing and selling the native-speaker standard. Overcoming a barrier rooted in capitalism and neo-liberalism will be extremely difficult because these systems are bigger than TESOL and are taken for granted (see Holborow, 2012). One thing is clear: The solution is *not* the commodification of GELT, as GELT is not a teaching method, it is not one-size-fits-all, and it cannot be prescribed and sold to teachers en masse. Yet one can imagine GELT being co-opted and used to serve the interests of the current establishment, who, in a bid to protect the status quo, repackage and sell a slightly modified version of traditional ELT under the GELT brand.

The aforementioned barriers come from the top down, and their existence may all but eliminate the possibility of top-down innovation. However, teachers felt that there is still hope for bottom-up change. They indicated their personal support of GELT and the desire to innovate their own practices, demonstrating that they believe in the feasibility of action on an individual basis. They also suggested that bottom-up change is made possible through technology. Specifically, they cited how the "lack of materials" barrier can be overcome by using GE-oriented resources and materials from the web, and how it is possible to demand change in TESOL through social media.

In fact, other studies support technology as a way to drive GELT innovation in the classroom. For example, Kohn (2018) advocates for the use of intercultural telecollaboration to help learners develop ELF competence. Ke and Cahyani (2014) report on the effectiveness of email, instant messaging, and online forums at fostering ELF interactions and introducing an ELF perspective to learners. As these studies and additional studies highlighted in Rose et al. (2021) suggest, technology has pedagogical potential for teachers who wish to incorporate GELT into their practice. Because internet-based tools can be adopted with relative ease in classrooms around the world, and because the internet enables quick and easy sharing of resources and know-how, it is conceivable that technology-based classroom innovations can spread on a grassroots level to spark change on a grander scale.

Another way to drive GELT innovation may be through teacher training. Cameron and Galloway (2019) suggested that teacher training could be one way to convert support for GELT into demand for GELT. It appears that after taking the Sociolinguistics module, teachers were galvanized to change their behavior and their curricula. However, further research is necessary to investigate the effects of GE teacher training on teacher attitudes and behavior.

Calls for Future Research

Future studies should explore the relationship between GE teacher training and perceived feasibility of GELT innovation as well as the relationship between GE teacher training and teachers' decisions to adopt (or not adopt) GELT in their classrooms. Ideally, such research would follow a more longitudinal design with multiple delayed post-tests conducted after the course, including those taken after an interval of more than a few months, to establish long-term effects (Rose et al., 2021). If focus groups are used, then more than three groups may be necessary to ensure data saturation (Galloway, 2020). Furthermore, to determine whether teacher training can lead to effective GELT innovation, researchers must not simply rely on self-reported data. It is necessary to observe teachers in the classroom after they have completed training to see whether they actually made pedagogical changes or curricular innovations in line with GELT. If future studies triangulate results using questionnaires, interviews or focus groups, and classroom observations, then robust findings can be reported with significant practical implications.

Conclusion

TESOL professionals in Japan and across Asia stand to benefit from adopting a GELT perspective. Particularly in these contexts, most English learners will not go on to use English exclusively with so-called "native speakers". Many of them will use English as a common language alongside individuals from different Asian nations, with fellow speakers of the same L1, and/or with others who learned English later in life. Traditional ELT fails to serve learners by not preparing them for such real-world English interactions; GELT is better positioned to serve diverse learners with different needs. Yet whether teachers are willing and able to adopt GELT ideas remains uncertain. The present study sought to assess the practicality of GELT curriculum innovation by investigating in-service teacher perceptions of GELT proposal feasibility and their perceptions regarding barriers to change.

Findings suggested that teachers found GELT curriculum innovation to be somewhat feasible. Though it seems unlikely that innovation would be implemented from the top down, individual teachers are capable of making changes in their own classrooms. Teacher training may be able to encourage individuals to adopt new ideas; however, more research must be conducted to test this idea.

Despite the barriers and norms that would oppose GELT, this study suggests that innovation at the micro level (in classrooms) and at the macro level (across TESOL) is not impossible from the bottom up.

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Preparing Pre-Service Teachers for Teaching English to Elementary School Students through Team Teaching

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This study explores the impact of an enhanced pre-service training course on student teachers' preparation for teaching English to elementary school students focusing on instructional strategies through team teaching. In 2020, the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) officially implemented compulsory English language education at elementary schools. Although in-service teachers are often required to work in a team-teaching environment with English-speaking assistant language teachers (ALTs), opportunities to experience team teaching have been limited in pre-service training at college. For the purposes of this study, and in collaboration with a local board of education, student teachers were provided opportunities to teach children English in a five-week intensive program. Participants of this study include six first-year students at a public university in Japan. The results indicate that the participants developed their teaching strategies to teach young learners and improved team-teaching awareness. Experiences of actual class instruction and reflection for solving problems of each lesson stimulated pre-service teachers to prepare for teaching young learners through team teaching.

本研究では、ティーム・ティーチングを用いて小学校の英語指導を学ぶ授業実践が、教員志望の学生の英語指導にどのような影響を与えたかについて調査を行った。2020年、全国の小学校で英語教育が本格的に開始された。小学校教員にはALT（Assistant Language Teacher）とのティーム・ティーチングが求めらているが、大学の教員養成課程ではティーム・ティーチングを体験する機会は限られている。そのため、地元の教育委員会と協力して、５週間の短期集中コースで実際に小学生に指導する機会を学生に与えた。本研究の対象者は、日本の公立大学の１年生６名である。教員志望の学生は、小学生を教えるための指導技術を徐々に身に付け、ティ

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ーム・ティーチングに対する見方も好転させた。特に、模擬授業を体験し、繰り返し振り返りを行いながら授業改善を行ったことで、学生は小学生に対するティーム・ティーチングを用いた英語指導の実践を積むことができた。

Keywords: elementary school; pre-service teacher training; teaching strategies; team teaching

English language education in Japanese elementary schools has been steadily changing ever since the publication of the *2008 Course of Study* by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT). Japan has also shifted to early English instruction in compulsory education along with the worldwide trend of an earlier and younger start to English education (Nikolov, 2016; Pinter, 2017; Shin & Crandall, 2014). In 2011, MEXT mandated foreign language (English) activities in elementary schools in the fifth and sixth grades for 45 minutes a week. The focus was to be on oral communication. Furthermore, MEXT (2014), releasing a reform plan, aimed to implement English language education as an official subject at elementary schools by focusing on four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). Then, MEXT (2017) announced that English lessons for fifth and sixth graders would double by publishing the *2017 Course of Study*, in addition to beginning English lessons in the third grade, starting in 2020.

Table 1

Japanese Elementary School English Language Education Policy Timeline

Year	Events
2008	MEXT's publication of *2008 Course of Study*.
2011	Implementation of Foreign Language Activities in 5th and 6th grades
2014	MEXT's release of English education reform plan
2017	MEXT's publication of *2017 Course of Study*
2020	Implementation of English language education in the 5th and 6th grades and Foreign Language Activities in the 3rd and 4th grades

To teach English, MEXT (2008, 2009) strongly recommended that elementary school teachers model active communication to students when team teaching with native English-speaking assistant language teachers

(ALTs) in English. Following that guideline, elementary school teachers have increased lessons with ALTs. Recently, the team-teaching ratio reached 77.7% (MEXT, 2020), and more communicative tasks are expected through effective collaboration. Thus, both pre-and in-service teacher training needs to include team-teaching practice to help teachers prepare for actual classroom team-taught lessons.

Challenges of Team Teaching among Japanese Elementary School Teachers

Since compulsory English began only recently in Japanese elementary schools, some in-service teachers felt uneasy about teaching the subject (Gaynor, 2014; Glasgow et al., 2020). Also, MEXT's team-teaching recommendation created challenges for classroom teachers because most had learned English by focusing on grammar and vocabulary (Machida & Walsh, 2015) and had difficulty shifting to communication. In contrast, Japanese secondary-school English teachers, who have been familiar with team teaching, have relatively higher English proficiency to satisfy one of the following MEXT's requirements: scoring more than 80 points on the TOEFL iBT, earning an equivalent score on the TOEIC, or passing Grade Pre-1 of the EIKEN (MEXT, 2014). Unlike these specialized English teachers, only 1.3% of elementary school teachers fulfilled this MEXT English proficiency requirement (MEXT, 2020). Without sufficient English proficiency, elementary school teachers have to collaborate with ALTs to teach English.

These policy changes enacted between 2008 and 2020 have required that both pre-service and in-service elementary school teachers acquire appropriate attitudes, skills, knowledge, and awareness toward active English communication to prepare themselves to thoroughly teach English. Pre-service teacher education at the university level has faced one particular challenge: incorporating English-related courses in its teacher certification program (MEXT, 2019). Pre-service elementary school teachers have to take both a foreign language teaching methodology course and a foreign language proficiency course as prerequisites for a teaching certificate. The methodology course includes a teaching practicum, which covers the topic of team teaching with an ALT. Researchers (e.g., Bailey et al., 2001; Brown & Lee, 2015; Dormer, 2012; Shin & Crandall, 2014; Short et al., 2018) advocated the effectiveness of team teaching between teachers. However, few studies have investigated pre-service teacher training based on team teaching in the Japanese elementary school context. More empirical research is needed to understand the effect of team teaching integration.

The Purpose of This Study

The purpose of this study is to examine how an enhanced team-teaching course at the early stage of pre-service training influenced prospective elementary school teachers' preparation for teaching English in Japan. Morton et al. (1997) stated that primary-level teachers had to meet "multi-role demands" (p. 81) to teach young learners. Japanese elementary school teachers were expected to develop multiple skills such as English-teaching strategies, nurturing skills, and team-teaching skills for effective English instruction. Whether or not prospective teachers acquired these skills and strategies through the pre-service training course was also explored in this study.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. First, a review of the literature on pre-service training and team teaching in Japan is examined. Then, a detailed description of how student teachers conducted their team-teaching lessons is provided. Finally, analysis of these findings leads to a discussion on the significance of student teachers' collaboration in the program. This paper concludes with practical implications to prepare prospective teachers for teaching young learners in pre-service training.

Literature Review

Pre-service English Teacher Training in Japan

As MEXT's English policy shifted to communication-focused education, teachers needed to develop their instruction skills. Otherwise, as Murray and Christison (2011) warned, "in the absence of other information, teachers teach how they were taught" (p. 162). Especially for teaching young learners, Shin and Crandall (2014) and Pinter (2017) argued that teachers should adjust their English to their students' level to keep students focused on lessons. The prospective teachers also need to improve their "teacher talk" (Pinter, p. 54) to help students understand what they say in class. However, in the current pre-service training system, prospective teachers do not have sufficient teaching experience to develop their teaching skills from the beginning of their training. Although the teaching practicum has been widely used to train novice pre-service teachers in Japan, it has typically only been offered to third- and fourth-year students in college (Moriwaki et al., 2013). As a result, first- and second-year students were not usually able to teach students as a part of their teacher training experience. Nezu et al. (2006) argued that pre-service teachers should have practice teaching experience early in their training. For pre-service teachers to increase teaching experience, teaching practices should be grounded in the curriculum from their early training.

During the practicum, which usually lasts for three weeks at pre-service teachers' alma maters, pre-service teachers typically receive little support from onsite supervisors due to the supervisors' otherwise heavy workload (Asaoka, 2003) and/or their limited ability in this regard (Iida, 2004). The current diversification of students' needs and complicated school environments cause even experienced teachers to struggle with their lessons (Shimizu & Furuya, 2008). Structured practical training and supervision are needed to help pre-service teachers gradually learn the required teaching skills before progressing to the in-service stage.

In their recent study, Matsumiya and Morita (2016) found that second-year students college in a college elementary teacher training program developed their confidence for working with ALTs by integrating an American exchange student acting as an ALT into their pre-service training. Thus, there is evidence that more practical training can help student teachers be ready to work in a classroom for elementary school students.

Team Teaching

Team teaching has been one of the leading teaching formats for English lessons in Japanese schools (e.g., Aline & Hosoda, 2006; Butler, 2005; MEXT, 2020; Walter & Sponseller, 2020). The Japanese government launched the JET Programme (The Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme) in 1987 and has hired thousands of English-speaking assistant language teachers (ALTs) to team-teach with Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) in junior and senior high schools since then (Butler, 2005). The program sought to develop English communication skills among students by bringing authenticity and English communication into the classroom. Although team teaching has been advocated as "the most dynamic and effectual approach" (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2012, p. xxii) at varieties of schools in many countries, researchers (e.g., Hougham et al., 2017; Tajino & Tajino, 2000) reported some unsuccessful cases in Japanese schools.

Despite the expectation toward efficient collaboration between JTEs and ALTs, there has been, in many cases, a lack of mutual understanding between the teachers. Tajino and Tajino (2000) argued that misconceptions about each teacher's role made the team teaching difficult in a class. For example, Japanese teachers were disappointed by the ALTs' lack of readiness as language teachers, and ALTs complained about being treated as a "human tape recorder" (p. 5). Mahoney (2004) conducted a large-scale study and described the discrepancy of perceptions about teaching roles between ALTs and JTEs. Also, Butler (2005) and Tsuido et al. (2012) mentioned that a lack of understanding about mutual school and interpersonal cultures led to miscommunication between the teachers. Johannes (2012) argued that even high school English teachers with high English proficiency had difficulty making team teaching effective without enough experience.

In more recent studies in elementary-school contexts, Kano et al. (2016) found that the language barrier caused the major problem between teachers for effective collaboration. Some classroom teachers did not speak English or communicate with ALTs to discuss lesson ideas at school. However, as Butler (2005) pointed out, the JET Programme required applicants to hold a Bachelor's degree in any field as minimum eligibility for application to the candidates. Braine (2010) estimated that approximately only 10% of the ALTs had teaching certificates of any kind. The JET Programme (2021) recently added more specific desired credentials for ALT candidates, such as "Have language teaching experience or qualifications." However, they are still only optional considerations, not application requirements. In addition, 66% of ALTs received just less than seven-day training before teaching (Kano & Ozeki, 2018). Thus, even some university students in teacher training programs viewed ALTs as "not professionals" and "ordinary people" (Hougham et al., 2017, p. 138).

On the other hand, many researchers (e.g., Amaki, 2008; Hougham et al., 2017; Muller, 2015; Ohtani, 2010; Walter & Sponseller, 2020) have also pointed out that the low English proficiency level of JTEs, especially elementary school teachers, caused inefficient team teaching. Since the *2008 Course of Study* publication, classroom teachers have been mainly in charge of teaching English in elementary schools. However, most teachers did not receive training to teach English (Tsuido et al., 2012). As a result, some elementary JTEs thought of English lessons as "an unnecessary burden" (Gaynor, 2014, p. 75). Furthermore, many elementary school teachers experienced language anxiety (Machida, 2016; Shiobara & Sakui, 2019) and lacked confidence in speaking English (Fennelly & Luxton, 2011; Machida & Walsh, 2015), leading to communication breakdowns with ALTs.

Besides, recently other issues have arisen. Aoki (2014) and Hashimoto (2013) reported cases of irregular ALTs' teaching roles due to ALTs being dispatched to many different schools on a regular basis. Against MEXT's (2009) regulation for team teaching, some ALTs were guided to teach alone in accordance with their dispatch company rules. In addition to ALTs, local Japanese people who have high English proficiency may join lessons as assistant teachers these days. As a result, team teaching became "quite complex in practice" (Shiobara & Sakui, 2019, p. 113). Furthermore, researchers (e.g., Kano & Ozeki, 2018; Walter & Sponseller, 2020) pointed out a lack of meeting opportunities to plan and review lessons between JTEs and ALTs because of their busyness. Shiobara and Sakui (2019) stated, "the ALTs are often not based in one school and the Japanese teachers are extremely busy" (p. 110). Therefore, Hougham et al. (2017) argued that it would be practical for ALTs to teach English on their own in a classroom. In fact, 34% of ALTs usually conducted solo teaching in elementary schools (Kano et al., 2016).

However, team teaching can be advantageous for both students and teachers (e.g., Brown & Lee, 2015; Honigsfeld & Dove, 2010; Shin et. al., 2021). Also, teachers can model their working collaboratively for students to learn "21st-century skills" (Battelle for Kids, 2019). Kano and Ozeki (2018) argued that team teaching between JTEs and ALTs is "the most familiar and important cross-cultural communication role model" (p. 126). Therefore, both groups of teachers need to make efforts for successful collaboration.

Similar struggles between local teachers and ALTs have also been identified in other EFL contexts (e.g., Luo, 2006). Wang (2012), conducting a team-teaching study in Taiwan, found "an urgent need" (p. 1) for team-teaching experience for pre-service teachers in order to understand the benefits of a particular teaching format. He stated, "Engaging NESTs [native English-speaking teachers] and NNESTs [nonnative English-speaking teachers] in collaborative teaching at the pre-service level may yield improved results when these teachers eventually take part in team teaching at the in-service level" (p. 36). According to Wang, this collaborative teaching should occur early in pre-service training in order to help pre-service teachers prepare themselves for effective collaboration with ALTs when they begin their teaching career at school.

Methodology

Participants

Six first-year students (five women and one man) at a public university in Japan participated in this study. This pre-service training course was offered as an introduction to teacher training at the liberal arts college, where all classes were taught in English, and six students registered for this intensive course. All the students agreed and voluntarily participated in this study. Three of them were English-dominant students, and the other three were Japanese-dominant students. Takashi, the lone male, and Naomi and Emi were returnees from the United States; their lengths of stay in the United States ranged from 9 to 15 years. They could listen to and speak Japanese comfortably but had limited Japanese reading and writing proficiency. Satoko also lived in the United States for three years, from grades four to six. She was more comfortable using Japanese than English. The other two females, Mako and Keiko, received their formal education solely in Japan; however, they were intermediate English learners who scored 500 or more on the TOEFL ITP. All the names are pseudonyms. These students were interested in teaching young learners. Some of them had already begun to take other teacher certification courses at the university. The student teachers in this training course were paired up into three teams. Each team had an English-dominant student and a Japanese-dominant student (see Table 2). They simulated team teaching. The pre-service teachers kept working with the same pair for their demonstration lessons in class.

Table 2
Team Teaching Pairs

Team	English-dominant student	Japanese-dominant student	Lesson Topic
1	Emi	Satoko	Treasure Hunt
2	Takashi	Mako	Sports
3	Naomi	Keiko	Valentine’s Day

Pre-Service Training Course

This course was provided at a public university in Japan as a five-week intensive pre-service elementary school English teacher training program. It was one of the university’s eight courses conducted in collaboration with local communities—in this case, a local board of education. The class met for three hours on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays in the winter term. It had a total of 45 credit hours of class time. Two instructors (a visiting American professor and the author) collaboratively taught the course. They gave lectures based on the strengths of their respective educational specialties. The instructors also applied a team-teaching instruction style to provide feedback to the college students’ demonstration lessons using their own teaching experience. Their goal was to prepare students at an early stage of their pre-service training to teach English to young learners through team teaching. The entire schedule of the course is shown in Table 3.

Table 3
Weekly Schedule for the Pre-Service Training Course

Week	Contents
1	Lectures about teaching methods and cross-cultural communication
2	Lectures about child development / A class observation at school
3	Team-teaching demonstration lesson #1
4	Team-teaching demonstration lesson #2 / Participation in in-service training
5	Team-teaching demonstration lesson #3 / A presentation to the Board of Education

The six first-year students in the pre-service training learned about basic teaching methodologies, cross-cultural communication, and child development in lecture and discussion-style lessons during the first two weeks. They then observed a team-taught English lesson at a local elementary school on a field trip in the second week. For the next three weeks, once a week, the pre-service teachers team-taught the same English lessons in pairs three times to different elementary school students from three other local schools. The paired teams simulated team teaching between a Japanese classroom teacher and a native English-speaking ALT in a real classroom. When one of the teams taught a demonstration lesson, the other teams observed and took notes in a classroom. The teams decided their own lesson topics (see Table 2) and then weekly taught children a 25-minute demonstration English lesson. Since this was the first experience for the college students to teach classes, the author reduced their burden and instructed them to think about lesson topics only, without worrying about target grammar or vocabulary used in their lessons. Each team kept the same lesson topic throughout the three demonstration lessons. To practice their demonstration lessons, the pre-service teachers met voluntarily on non-class days and advised each other. The demonstration lessons were video recorded with the participants' permission. Two video cameras were used: one focused on the pre-service teachers and the other elementary school students. The pre-service teachers taught the lessons in a university classroom. When each demonstration lesson was over, all pre-service teachers reviewed their recorded lesson video and discussed how to further develop the team-taught class with their partners in a reflection session.

Sixth graders from three different elementary schools attended the demonstration lessons. They were 11- or 12-year-old students who studied English for approximately two years at school. The local board of education supported this pre-service training program by sending the elementary school students to the university three times.

During the fourth week, the pre-service teachers participated in an actual in-service training about team teaching for local elementary school teachers. The local board of education training included a panel discussion with experienced elementary school teachers from Japan, Korea, and Taiwan. The pre-service teachers discussed with in-service teachers to learn how to collaborate with ALTs. They also shared their demonstration lesson experience with in-service teachers. During the final week, the pre-service teachers met with local board of education members and presented what they had learned about effective team teaching.

Instruments and Procedures

The students were required to write weekly logs about their team teaching during the course. Participants' three demonstration lessons and weekly individual online log entries about their team teaching were utilized to understand the development of the pre-service teachers' preparation for teaching English to young learners. In addition, they accessed the university's online platform, Moodle, for the course and wrote their comments on the following four occasions. The pre-service teachers first described their team-teaching perceptions before their first demo lesson. Then, they identified challenges they encountered with their partner during their team-teaching experience after the first and second demonstration lessons. In their final logs, the pre-service teachers evaluated their team teaching and described what they had learned about teaching English to young learners following the third demonstration lesson.

Findings

Development of Teaching Strategies

In this study, pre-service teachers learned several teaching strategies for both teaching English to young learners and team teaching with a culturally different person. Each team (Team 1: Emi and Satoko, Team 2: Takashi and Mako, and Team 3: Naomi and Keiko) chose their lesson topic and conducted team-taught lessons for three weeks consecutively. Through a series of successes and failures, they noticed essential principles for teaching young learners. These pre-service teachers developed teaching strategies for effective team teaching, which included (1) integration of physical movements, (2) use of classroom language, and (3) importance of mutual cultural understanding. The following sections describe how each team learned these teaching strategies.

Integration of Physical Movements

The pre-service teachers who participated in this study saw how physical activities could encourage children to develop their interest in learning English. Emi and Satoko chose "Treasure Hunt" for their lesson topic. They included physical movement tasks in their lesson because MEXT's (2017) guidelines indicated that elementary school students should learn English through communication activities. To find a treasure, 23 children from a local elementary school had to complete specific actions by learning key English phrases, such as "hit the deck" or "row a boat." Children were asked to follow Emi and Satoko to search for the treasure (which were candy bars). However, in the first lesson, Emi and Satoko seemed to hesitate to demonstrate each action while acting as a captain and a co-captain of a pirate ship, respectively. Because of the pre-service teachers' shyness, the children also hesitated to speak English and to move their bodies actively.

Looking back at their efforts in the first reflection session, Emi and Satoko concluded that they should have encouraged students more to join in their "pirate drama" during their lesson. In the second log, Satoko proposed changing their lesson: "Next time we will play a pirate song that everyone knows before the class [so] students will know that they are on a ship and going on a treasure hunt." Emi, an English-dominant pre-service teacher, suggested that she and Satoko wear pirate headscarves and decorate the classroom with pirate flags.

Emi and Satoko began their second lesson with the theme song from a movie: *Pirates of the Caribbean*. They wore pirate headscarves and welcomed 18 students from a different elementary school in the following week. The children looked excited in class. This time, Emi and Satoko exaggerated their body movements as they demonstrated each action. For example, Emi exclaimed loudly, "Everybody, back of the boat!" and then dashed to the back of the classroom. The students paid close attention and loudly repeated: "Back of the boat." Emi and Satoko actively encouraged children to keep moving their bodies using total physical response (TPR; Asher, 1969), one of the language teaching methods involving kinesthetic activities.

The lesson went smoothly, and students enjoyed saying each English phrase as they moved around. However, Emi and Satoko sensed a barrier between them and the children, which hindered them from achieving the lesson objectives. After the second reflection session, Satoko commented on this in her third log: “Both the first and second time, we had the classroom teachers who helped us interact with the students, but it may not always work like this, so we need to come up with something to break the ice before the class.” During the first and second lessons, the students’ classroom teachers sometimes joined the activities and provided some help to students without being obvious in the classroom. They encouraged the children with supportive comments (e.g., “Okay! You did a great job.” or “Do you know this?”). By observing the classroom teachers’ assistance, the two “pirates” gradually noticed the importance of supporting the children to help them overcome their nervousness.

In their third effort, Emi and Satoko sought to “break the ice” by describing their own cultural experiences, such as the difference between summer vacations in Japan and the United States, at the beginning of their lesson. Once they had gained the children’s attention, the two pre-service teachers began their third lesson. Using TPR activities, they made supportive comments, such as “Good job.” to help children follow the instructions. When students finally found the treasure box, Emi and Satoko had the children recall the target phrases by saying, “Maybe, if we review everything we did today, it will open.” Then, the students successfully recited all the expressions and found the treasure. After the lesson, Emi commented, “Creating a better classroom atmosphere and incorporating physical movements were essential for teaching young learners” in her final log.

Use of Classroom Language

As the pre-service teachers engaged in teaching children, they understood the importance of using classroom language suited to their learners’ proficiency levels and needs. As Pinter (2017), Shin and Crandall (2014), and Yamamori (2013) stated, developing teachers’ classroom language skills, such as modifying their teacher talk, is indispensable as a teaching strategy. Takashi and Mako, the second team, selected “Sports” for their lesson topic and initially wanted to use only English as the medium of instruction in their lesson. Before their first lesson, Takashi, an English-dominant pre-service teacher, wrote, “The way I plan to team teach in order to educate students in English is very simple. I would realize a class should be taught in English by two teachers" in his first log. Then, Takashi and Mako conducted their first lesson by speaking English at a normal speed. However, the elementary school students could not follow along well because they did not have enough English proficiency to understand the instructions. The children often looked at one another and stared at Takashi and Mako without responding. Takashi and Mako, standing behind the lectern, looked nervous and repeated the same questions (e.g., "Okay?") over and over at a fast pace. Their first 25-minute demonstration lesson was met with much silence and ended with the children's confusion.

After the lesson, Takashi and Mako realized that just speaking English at an average speed did not work well for children. In the second log entry, Takashi commented, "In the beginning, I was planning on making the lesson nearly completely in English, but that proved impossible." Mako, a Japanese-dominant pre-service teacher, wrote, "The image I had for English education in elementary school was completely different [from reality]." She thought that young learners could read and listen like adults. Because of the children's limited English proficiency level, Mako decided to include the children's native language in the next lesson. They decided to take on different roles—Takashi as an ALT who encouraged children to speak English, and Mako as a classroom teacher who supported children using Japanese when needed. In their second demonstration lesson, Takashi spoke mainly English, and Mako sometimes used Japanese to help the children understand Takashi's English instructions. Nevertheless, they still had difficulties teaching English to the children. After the second lesson, Takashi wrote in his log:

> I have yet to adjust my English to a level which the students can understand. In my mind, I am thinking that I am using simple, slow English that students can comprehend, but in reality, to the students, I am still speaking a language completely alien to them.

Takashi tried to use "simple" English, for example, "In the States, I played basketball too. And a popular game played was a tag." However, due to his lack of teaching strategies, such as interaction techniques, Takashi could not successfully communicate with the elementary school students using only English.

Mako began to notice the importance of non-verbal communication for effective instruction. In their previous lessons, Mako and Takashi wrote only keywords on the board and did not use any visual aids. However, Mako found that showing pictures and using gestures helped students' understanding by reflecting on their sessions.

For their third lesson, Takashi and Mako prepared picture cards for new words and tried to incorporate gestures when introducing new expressions. During the class, they were able to achieve their revised approach to teaching English more closely suited to their students' needs and abilities. Takashi spoke English slowly and used gestures. For example, when he talked about ice hockey, Takashi pretended to grab a hockey stick and hit a puck. He then said, "Please repeat and do the action after me. 'Hit a puck.'" The children appeared to enjoy learning useful phrases for each sport by moving their bodies. Takashi smiled comfortably and approached the students as he taught (as opposed to standing behind the lectern as he had during the first lesson).

Meanwhile, Mako took on the role of supporting the children's understanding of Takashi's explanations by using Japanese. For example, as Takashi described ice hockey, children, unfamiliar with ice hockey, seemed not to understand what a puck was. She explained, "*Puck to iunowa ice hockey de tsukawareru gomu de dekita ball mitaina monono kotodesu*" ["A puck is used in ice hockey. It looks like a ball and is made of rubber"]. After the lesson, Takashi wrote in his final log, "My partner and I were a true team, supported each other, and noticed very small cues we gave one another." Takashi and Mako developed their teaching strategies—in this case, classroom language skills and gestures—to introduce new phrases beyond just writing them on the board.

Importance of Mutual Cultural Understanding

Although team teaching is regularly used in elementary schools in Japan, the prospective teachers were not familiar with it, and they had a negative view of working with another teacher. For example, Naomi, an English-dominant, pre-service teacher, wrote that "team teaching would hinder teachers from being able to teach freely" in her first log. However, the pre-service teachers began to change their views after observing an English lesson taught by a Japanese classroom teacher and a native English-speaking ALT at an elementary school in a class observation during the second week of the course. The successful collaboration between the two in-service teachers surprised the pre-service teachers. Although they saw some potential for team teaching, Keiko, a Japanese-dominant pre-service teacher, confessed her anxiety about her own English. She worried that the English proficiency gap between Naomi and herself would lead to miscommunication.

Naomi and Keiko picked "Valentine's Day" as their lesson topic. During their first lesson, Naomi and Keiko explained the difference between Valentine's Day as it is celebrated in Japan and the United States. They also taught students new vocabulary such as "February" and "chocolate," and introduced a Bingo game to the children for practice. Naomi took the lead in the activities during the lesson due to her excellent English proficiency, and Keiko translated Naomi's English into Japanese when the children did not respond to Naomi's questions. After their first demo lesson, Naomi and Keiko discussed team teaching from different perspectives in the reflection session. Regarding working as a team, Naomi stated, "I was impressed by how well Keiko was able to improvise and jump in with translations even when I went off script or added in new information." Keiko, on the other hand, had difficulty defining her role, moving between an instructor and a translator, "It was hard to create my stable position in the classroom, and I spoke Japanese much during the lesson."

As they reviewed the first lesson, Naomi and Keiko focused on their strengths and separated their second lesson roles. To highlight the difference between the Valentine's Day concepts, Naomi and Keiko performed amusing skits involving a boy and a girl. Keiko wore a baseball cap, playing as the boy, and asked the children, "In Japan, who gives a present, *Hanako* (a girl) or *Taro* (a boy)?" The children responded, "*Hanako*." Naomi then gave a gift to Keiko, saying, "Yes. In Japan, girls give presents to boys on Valentine's Day." When teaching new vocabulary, Keiko demonstrated how to pronounce each word while Naomi showed picture cards to the children. Next, they switched roles for the Bingo game. Naomi took the lead, and Keiko monitored the students. The lesson went smoothly, and both Naomi and Keiko appeared confident in their instruction.

After the second lesson, they discussed the reasons for their improvement in the reflection session. Perhaps, due to the difference in schooling between the United States and Japan, Naomi, who went to school in the United States, focused on activities and tried to entertain children. In contrast, Keiko, who was Japanese schooled, focused on the discipline of learning. Revising their lesson plan, they gradually understood the difference between their "natural" learning styles and tried to merge their ideas. Naomi wrote, "Being able to communicate better especially came to its advantages when working with Keiko because we were able to decipher the roots of where our misconceptions of each other's views [originated]." Meanwhile, Keiko stated, "We finally realized the difference lies between us and began to blend both styles effectively" in her third log.

For their third lesson, Naomi and Keiko built on their strengths, becoming more comfortable in their team teaching. They decided that Naomi, who grew up in the United States, should give students an American perspective, thereby encouraging the children's interest in learning English. Keiko, raised and schooled in Japan, presented herself as a model of learning English. Through her communication with Naomi, Keiko showed students how non-native English speakers could communicate with others in English. During the lesson, Keiko spoke simple English when she role-played the skits with Naomi. She was no longer anxious about her English skills as she found a "stable position" as an English learner model in the classroom. After the third lesson, Keiko commented, "If we had not noticed our differences, we would never have agreed with each other or built a good team-teaching relationship between us."

Presentation to the City Board of Education

Two days after the final demonstration lessons, the six pre-service teachers gave a group presentation to the City Board of Education members in the city office meeting room about effective team teaching based on their teaching experiences. The six pre-service teachers, two instructors of this intensive course, and one college staff member went to the city office to participate in the presentation session. Three members of the local board of education, including a teacher trainer, attended the meeting. Due to the urgent need to develop in-service training in the city, the board members were most interested in the college students' presentation on team teaching to elementary school students. In addition, they wanted to evaluate the effectiveness of their contribution to this pre-service training. The session lasted approximately one hour. First, student teachers gave a 20-minute report on their practices using a PowerPoint slideshow, followed by Q&A and opinion-exchange sessions with the board members.

To prepare for their presentation, each team of students reflected on what they had learned and summarized their practice. Then, the pre-service teachers divided their roles into two groups: one to make the presentation and the other to prepare the slides. With advice from the instructors, the six college students gathered after their third demonstration lessons and practiced their presentations many times before making their speeches to the Board of Education.

The pre-service teachers also shared their constructive opinions during the preparation for effective presentation to their target audience. Having an attentive audience seemed to inspire the pre-service teachers to pursue their learning objectives. Satoko stated, "I learned the importance of respecting each other. I do not think we could give a presentation missing any one of our members." The final presentation allowed pre-service teachers to build on what they had learned to explore practical ways for collaborative teaching. The board of education members also listened intently to the college students' fresh opinions and asked them questions with interest.

Discussion

The collaborative teacher training helped pre-service teachers develop their preparation on team teaching English to young learners. Compared to third- or fourth-year students in pre-service teacher training at college, first-year students typically have limited knowledge about teaching and even more limited experience with instruction to children. At this early stage of their teacher training, the pre-service teachers who participated in this study were able to prepare themselves to become efficient team teachers through planning and carrying out lessons with another novice pre-service teacher. As a result, these pre-service teachers team-taught English and gradually learned essential skills for teaching young learners by building on their earlier, often instructional struggles.

Overall, the pre-service training course helped the prospective teachers develop effective teaching strategies, as they had the opportunity to revise and re-teach lessons. Most importantly, the pre-service teachers developed their team-teaching skills. The new *Course of Study* (MEXT, 2017) emphasized the integration of ALTs or "local people who are proficient in the English language" (p. 48) for teaching English to elementary school students. Pre-service teachers are initially expected to learn how to effectively work with people from culturally or linguistically different backgrounds. Brown and Lee (2015) claimed that the development of team-teaching skills would bring "greater professional growth" (p. 561) to teachers.

In addition, the pre-service teachers who participated in this study learned specific teaching strategies for helping children engage in lessons. Understanding how children think and learn is essential for teachers for young learners (Cameron, 2003). For example, Takashi and Mako acquired classroom language skills by repeatedly modifying their teaching approaches to adjust students' levels. They noticed the importance of clear articulation of English pronunciation and the use of nonverbal language support. Shin (2014) argued that such techniques could make input more comprehensible for young learners.

In addition, the prospective teachers also came to understand the efficiency of "sensory input" to teach English to young learners as Brown and Lee (2015) advised instructors to "pepper your lessons with *physical* activity" (p. 112). The students incorporated role plays and TPR activities into their lessons. For example, Emi and Satoko decorated the classroom and dressed up as pirates to create a treasure hunt atmosphere. They ran, rowed, and "hit the deck" with their students. They clearly realized the differences in students' attention during their lessons before and after the sensory inputs.

Naomi and Keiko came to recognize their mutual strengths as they planned, taught, and reviewed together. By the third lesson, they had determined how to maximize their respective strengths based on their own culture as language teachers. They stimulated their instruction by acknowledging each other's teaching styles. Thus, pre-service teachers developed their teaching strategies to teach young learners and improved their team-teaching attitude through effective collaboration.

The opportunity and need to prepare to address an actual audience—in this case, the City Board of Education members and in-service teachers—motivated the pre-service teachers to explore solutions for team-teaching problems between a classroom teacher and an ALT. Experiencing common team-teaching issues in advance could help prospective teachers improve their team-teaching awareness in a real classroom.

Of course, it may also be helpful for pre-service teachers to conduct demonstration lessons on different topics every time. Once student teachers begin their teaching career in the school setting, they will not be teaching the same lesson repeatedly, especially in elementary schools. However, team teaching comprises three (pre-instructional, instructional, and post-instructional) phases (Bailey et al., 2001). Pre-service teachers were able to deeply experience those three phases by repeating the same topic lessons. Therefore, they were encouraged to teach the same topics three times to improve their lessons in this teacher training course.

This study had some limitations. This intensive pre-service teacher training course was shorter than a regular 15-week, semester-long teacher training course. Also, the number of participants was small, and equal numbers of students, who played an ALT and a classroom teacher in pairs, coincidentally participated in this study. A larger-scale study conducted within a semester-long course would be needed to embed team teaching effectively in teacher education. Finally, if all the pre-serve teachers were nonnative English speakers, it would be necessary for them to consider how specific roles should be allocated, and how their language learning backgrounds influence their teaching.

Conclusion and Implications

This pre-service English teacher training course for first-year students in a Japanese university impacted prospective teachers' development as elementary school English teachers. To be "successful global citizens" (Shin & Crandall, 2014, p. 324), children in the 21st-century must acquire collaboration skills and communication skills—the so-called "twenty-first-century skills" (Battelle for Kids, 2019). To effectively teach children the necessary skills, teachers should first experience and acquire such skills and then demonstrate to children how to use each skill through actual practice. In this course, the instructors, a Japanese professor with good English proficiency and an American professor with limited Japanese ability, attempted to provide such a useful team-teaching model to the college students.

In Japan, classroom teachers currently collaborate with ALTs or other assistant teachers when teaching English at school. Having the experience of exploring effective collaboration with someone culturally or linguistically different before starting their teaching career helps pre-service teachers build team-teaching confidence. In addition, teachers' flexible and comfortable partnership provides an effective model for children to establish efficient communication skills across cultures. As Shin et al. (2021) argued, the collaboration between teachers within a community of practice can contribute to their own professional development.

This pre-service training course taught not only teaching strategies but also basic concepts for teaching English to young learners through demonstration lessons. It also demonstrated effective ways to prepare prospective elementary school English teachers to be active communicators. The pre-service teachers who participated in this study gradually learned even basic concepts for teaching young learners at the early stages, such as the difference in characteristics between young learners and adult learners, which might be obvious for more experienced and skillful in-service teachers. When prospective teachers teach children for 45 minutes in a real school setting, they will need to understand more instructional elements to carefully prepare lessons, such as lesson structures and procedures. However, by actually experiencing teaching from the earliest stages of their teacher training, prospective teachers would be able to prepare themselves for teaching English to elementary school students.

To implement practical pre-service training courses, ongoing support from local communities, such as schools or regional boards of education, is essential. Pre-service teacher training courses are part of university programs. However, to educate high-quality teachers, a university alone cannot provide prospective teachers with sufficient knowledge and education for teaching young learners. Christmas (2014) pointed out the effectiveness of cooperation between universities and local communities in in-service training for elementary school teachers. Those organizations must collaboratively nurture future teachers in pre-service training, too. Thus, establishing a good rapport with local communities and developing prospective teachers' teaching strategies through team teaching are keys to success in pre-service teacher training programs for young learners.

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Learning-Oriented Assessment as a Theoretical Framework for Exploring Teachers' Assessment Beliefs and Practices

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The present study applies a theoretical framework of learning-oriented assessment (LOA) to explore six teachers' beliefs and practices related to language assessment. This theoretical model posits three pillars of LOA: learning-oriented assessment tasks, student engagement with feedback, and the development of evaluative expertise. It was found that while these teachers expressed belief in the value of learning-oriented assessment, they focused primarily on the domain of task creation, reporting that well-constructed tasks allowed them to build motivation in students and make their lessons more enjoyable. Less importance was given to students' engagement with feedback and the development of evaluative expertise. Teachers expressed uncertainty about how to have students engage meaningfully with feedback and were doubtful that they could appropriately assess themselves and each other. This study suggests that examining or clarifying the links between teachers' belief and practice through reflective engagement can help promote LOA in the classroom.

本研究では学習指向的評価（LOA）の理論的枠組みを適用し、6人の教師が公言する評価に関する信条と実践について探究した。この理論モデルは、LOAの3つの柱、すなわち、学習指向の評価課題、生徒のフィードバックへの関与、評価の専門性の開発を仮定している。その結果、これらの教師たちは学習志向の評価の価値を認めながらも、主に課題作成の領域を重視していることが明らかとなった。彼らの報告によれば、よく構成された課題は生徒のモチベーションを高め、授業をより楽しくすることができるという。しかし、生徒のフィードバックや評価に関する専門的な知識はあまり重要視されていない。教師は、生徒に有意義なフィードバックをさせる方法

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について不安を感じ、お互いを適切に評価できるかに疑問を感じた。本研究は、教師の信条と実践のつながりを内省的関与により検証または明確化することが、教室におけるLOAを促進することにつながることを示唆している。

Keywords: assessment practice; interview study; learning-oriented assessment; teacher beliefs

It could be argued that the primary goal of assessment is to evaluate a learner's knowledge and ability, while the primary goal of education is to develop that learner's knowledge and ability. Ideally, these goals should be aligned. Assessment can tell us where a learner is at the start of a course, how much they have achieved by the end of a course, and identifies significant markers along the way that guide and shape what is being learned and how. The way that teachers implement assessment tasks in the classroom, guided by the beliefs that they hold concerning assessment, will therefore exert a powerful influence on the quality of learning that takes place (Black & Wiliam, 1998). A better understanding of these beliefs and practices will help inform theory development and policy decisions that will encourage higher quality teaching and learning. Formative assessment theory has shown how assessment can best be approached in order to encourage learning, and an analysis of actual teacher belief and practice in light of this theory can assist educators, policymakers and teacher trainers in developing and implementing better assessment practices.

When considering how assessment can best facilitate learning, a number of theoretical frameworks have been suggested, such as learning-oriented assessment, or LOA (Carless, 2014; Carless et al., 2006; Jones & Saville, 2016; Turner & Purpura, 2017), formative assessment (Bennett, 2011; Black & Wiliam, 1998), authentic assessment (Frey et al., 2012; Newmann & Wehlage, 1993), dynamic assessment (Poehner & Infante, 2016), assessment for learning (Gardner, 2012), and teacher-based assessment (Davison & Leung, 2009). While each of these frameworks has its own particular focus and concern, they all seek to use assessment in a way that encourages learner growth. In the field of second language education, research has suggested that the critical consideration in this approach is how the classroom context and the relationships among teachers, learners and peers can sustain an assessment practice that prioritizes actual learning rather than high test scores as a proxy for learning. That is not to imply that there is a conflict with summative purposes of assessment. The goal of these frameworks is complementarity, so rather than seeing formative and summative assessment procedures as being fundamentally at odds with each other, both are employed in the service of promoting learning (Jones & Saville, 2016).

Principles of Learning-Oriented Assessment

There are arguably three essential principles that are shared among formative assessment frameworks as described by Carless (2014) in his model of LOA. This three-fold conception of LOA is used in the present study to operationalize best practices to promote learning in assessment. The first principle is the use of learning-oriented assessment tasks (Carless, 2014). This means that tasks are aligned with learning goals, engage students over time, and are related in some way to the real world. These tasks should involve much more than short quizzes and exams and include various means of language elicitation by different agents (Turner & Purpura, 2017). Oral presentations, written portfolios, role plays, and collaborative projects are some examples of these tasks. As much as possible they should be authentic and complex, so that learners experience the tasks as being meaningful and relevant (Sambell et al., 2013). Within the field of ELT, those tasks which best promote learning are commonly understood to be communicative in nature (Samuda & Bygate, 2008) and to involve a focus on meaning rather than on form (Nunan, 2004).

The second principle of LOA is student engagement with feedback (Carless, 2014), which is of crucial importance to formative assessment (Lopez-Pastor & Sicilia-Camacho, 2017). More effective methods of giving corrective feedback will likely lead to more effective learning (Ferris, 2010). This feedback must be founded on clear and full communication between teacher and learner in order to be useful (Hyland, 2000). When this feedback is not adequately communicated, potential learning gains are diminished. Students should be encouraged to accept feedback from assessment, and then to take action on it to improve future learning and task performance (in other words, to close the feedback loop).

The third principle of LOA is developing evaluative expertise (Carless, 2014). This mandates learner involvement in the assessment process, so that learners develop their own ability to evaluate performance. This will often take the form of self-assessment and peer assessment, and may include students in the creation of scoring criteria, so that assessment is something done *with* the students, rather than *to* the students. Self-assessment has been declared an essential role in the learning process (Little & Erickson, 2015) that can be a powerful tool for facilitating learning (Babaii et al., 2015). At the basic level, self-assessment is inherent in any classroom activity, but the challenge is to make it a more overt means of improvement (Black & Wiliam, 2012). This can work synergistically with peer assessment to increase learners' abilities to critically evaluate work (Dam & Legenhausen, 2011; Reinholz, 2016). In Japan particularly, a number of studies have argued for the benefits of peer assessment (Asaba & Marlowe, 2011; Matsuno, 2009; Murakami et al., 2012; O'Flaherty, 2015; Saito, 2008). By engaging learners in peer assessment, the teacher activates students as learning resources for one another (Carless, 2011).

Exploring Teacher Beliefs and Practice

There is a complex interplay between what teachers believe, what they do in practice, and how these are shaped by various contextual factors. Teachers working in a particular context will, to some degree, manifest their belief in practice in different ways. For instance, teachers who believe in the value of LOA may find themselves caught between conflicting roles. Teachers are expected to guide and shape learning through assessment, but also to objectively judge levels of language achievement (Rea-Dickens, 2006). Ewell (1991) understood the dichotomy as being a concern for academic improvement on the one hand, and a concern for external accountability on the other. Conceptualising the dichotomy in a similar way, Boud (2000) argued that assessment has to do a double duty, encompassing formative assessment to promote learning and summative assessment for certification purposes. Furthermore, for any given purpose in assessment, practices will differ within and between contexts (Cheng et al., 2008). Teachers working side by side in the same environment may hold different beliefs about assessment, and individual teachers may even hold contradictory conceptions of assessment at the same time (Brown & Gao, 2015; Davison, 2004).

As learning-oriented assessment has been recognized as a significant area of inquiry (Purpura, 2016), the aim of the present study is to explore teacher beliefs about and practices of assessment in light of LOA principles. Specifically, it seeks to answer the question: How can these teachers' reported beliefs and practices concerning assessment be understood within a theoretical framework of LOA? In this case, the LOA framework is operationalized as: (a) using learning-oriented assessment tasks, (b) encouraging student engagement with feedback, and (c) developing students' evaluative expertise.

Method

In order to answer the research question, interview data from six teachers working in higher education were analyzed. These data were initially gathered as part of a much larger research project into assessment belief and practice. Interviews, as a research tool, have been used to understand the interplay between belief and practice as they relate to learner self-assessment (Bullock, 2011), continuous assessment (Hernandez, 2012), oral assessment (Restrepo et al., 2003), conceptions of assessment (Hui & Brown, 2010), the process of assessment (Rea-Dickins, 2001), and personal understanding of assessment (Reimann & Sadler, 2017). Although other studies have used single snapshot interviews to gain an insight into teacher practice and understandings of assessment, these have not taken into account the evolving nature of assessment and how practices and understandings gradually unfold over one academic course. For the purpose of the present study, I interviewed participants three times: before, during, and after one university semester. In this way, the evolution of assessment processes and approaches can be observed from the planning stage to the execution stage according to classroom realities and changing circumstances. Interview data were triangulated with each teacher's official course syllabi.

Participants

Six teachers working at universities in Japan were invited to participate in the case study, and all six accepted. Participants were purposefully selected based on either being known to the researcher or recommended to the researcher as a teacher concerned about conducting assessment in a way that encourages learning. It is important to note that none of these teachers was familiar with the theoretical frameworks of LOA, nor were they following any prescribed systematic approach to formative assessment. However, they all expressed a deep conviction that the most important function of assessment is to enhance learning, and they claimed to structure their teaching accordingly. As the method of data collection was by interview, it was also important to choose participants who were able to engage in self-reflective evaluation and possess horizons of meaning that were representative of the subject being studied (Holstein & Gubrium, 1995); in other words, that they could self-examine their beliefs and reflect on their practices of assessment and express them in dialogue. An equal number of part-time and full-time, native speaker and nonnative speaker teachers was chosen in order to represent a range of voices from those main categories for comparison purposes. The bio-data of each teacher is described in Table 1. Pseudonyms have been used for all teacher names and study sites to preserve anonymity.

Table 1
Bio-Data of Case Study Participants

Name (gender)	Age	First language	Employment status	Years of experience	Study site
Alex (m)	mid 50s	English	Full-time	20	Shiro University
Kaito (m)	early 40s	Japanese	Full-time	9	Shiro University
David (m)	late 50s	English	Part-time	25	Kuro University
Mami (f)	early 40s	Japanese	Full-time	10	Kuro University
Don (m)	early 40s	English	Part-time	0	Aka University
Hiro (m)	early 40s	Japanese	Part-time	1	Aka University

These teachers each nominated one course which provided the context for the interviews. The choice of course was decided in consultation with the researcher, with the only condition being that it was a course about which the teacher felt confident to speak freely. All of the lessons in these courses were held once a week for 90 minutes. The course details are shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Course Details

Teacher	Course	Course status	No. of students	Year level	Faculty
Alex	Business Communication	Compulsory	28	2	Faculty of Foreign Studies
Kaito	English Pronunciation	Elective	54	2	Faculty of Foreign Studies
David	English Communication	Compulsory	22 & 25	2	College of Pharmacy
Mami	Business English	Elective	8	2	International Business
Don	English Communication	Compulsory	25	2	Economics
Hiro	Advanced English	Compulsory	40 & 37	2	Agriculture

Interview Process

The process of interviewing was influenced by Seidman's (2006) framework for in-depth, phenomenologically based interviewing. At the heart of this process is "an interest in understanding the lived experience of other people and the meaning they make of that experience" (Seidman, 2006, p. 9). Each participant was interviewed three times in English. The interviews were semistructured, following a loosely guided protocol oriented around the main themes (described below). The iterative nature of the interviews allowed ideas and concepts that had surfaced with one participant to be developed and pursued further with subsequent participants, and with the same participant in later interviews.

The first interview focused on two guiding themes. The first was the participant's experience with assessment, both as a student and as a teacher. Pajares (1992) argued that preservice teachers come to their occupations as insiders. They have spent many years inside classrooms and lecture halls, taking part in learning and assessment activities. Therefore, the ways in which they approach assessment acts are grounded in their own experiences as students, and how they made meaning of those assessment practices. The second theme was that of assessment planning. The first interview was conducted a couple of weeks before the semester began, and so participants were asked to describe how they planned to assess students in their chosen class.

The second interview was guided by the central theme of assessment in current practice. This interview was conducted in the middle of the semester, when teachers were actively engaged in implementing the assessment plans they had spoken about in the first interview. The third interview was held after the course had been completed and the participants had calculated and submitted their final student grades. This interview was reflective in nature and focused on participants' self-evaluation of their assessment practice during that course.

Analytical Process

Each interview was fully transcribed by the researcher at a basic level of granularity (words, speaker label, marginal words, and pauses.) This allowed the researcher to become deeply immersed in the data and so laid a foundation for the subsequent coding of that data. Once completed, the transcripts were imported into NVivo for Mac (version 11) and went through a process of coding. This process involved iterative cycles of induction and deduction to propel the analysis (Miles et al., 2014) and build an emerging picture of how teachers understand the relationship between assessment and learning, and how this understanding influences practice.

The process began with First Cycle coding (Saldana, 2013). Based on the interview protocols, a short list of provisional codes was created that was deductive in nature. The transcripts were then read multiple times in order for additional themes to emerge inductively. The next step was Second Cycle coding (Saldana, 2013). During this phase, the codes were grouped into a smaller number of categories, themes, or constructs which is also known as pattern coding. Such coding processes allow researchers to identify emergent themes or configurations (Miles et al., 2014).

Efforts were made to ensure that the codes applied to the interview data were representative of what was actually said. In order to do this, the principles outlined in Campbell et al. (2013) were used as a guide, the goal of which was "to ensure that a single knowledgeable coder may be reasonably confident that his or her coding would be reproducible by other equally knowledgeable coders if they were available" (p. 297). Firstly, the data was coded by the principal investigator (PI) as described above. Secondly, a research assistant (RA) was employed to act as a second coder. This research assistant was a qualified teacher and had many years' experience in education. Using the coding scheme created by the principal researcher, the research assistant coded a full-length transcript selected at random. Upon completion, Cohen's kappa coefficient was calculated as statistical measure of interrater reliability. As this method takes into account the amount of agreement that could occur by chance, many researchers regard this as more useful than the percentage agreement figure (QSR International, 2017). The process of coding and negotiation was repeated three times and a kappa coefficient of 0.76 was achieved, indicating an adequate level of agreement. The coding scheme was now considered satisfactorily reliable. In an effort to further increase the validity of the findings, member validation (Richards, 2003) was also conducted.

Findings and Discussion

The main themes from the interview data which addressed the three principles of LOA are described and discussed below, shedding light on factors that encourage and discourage LOA practice.

Learning-Oriented Assessment Tasks

Information about task types from the interview was triangulated with a document analysis of each teacher's course syllabus. Assessment tasks were categorized according to the 12 types described by Brown (2016). If a type of assessment was identified in the syllabus and confirmed during the interview, that cell was marked with a check. If an assessment type was not used, the cell was left blank (see Table 3). The category of assessment that occurred most frequently was that of productive-response. Assessment tasks in this category require learners to actually produce language, either written or oral. As such, these tasks require active knowledge of language, unlike tasks in the receptive-response category, which require only passive knowledge. The only type of assessment to occur in the personal-response category was self/peer assessment. Portfolio assessment and conference assessment were not used by any teacher. Continuous assessment was used by the same four teachers who used self/peer assessment. This involved regular, ongoing assessment through activities such as participation in class, short quizzes, reflections on lesson content, and so on. This was done in a constant, cyclical and cumulative way.

Table 3

Types of Assessment Tasks Used by Teachers

Category	Type	Alex	Kaito	David	Mami	Don	Hiro	Total
Receptive-response	True-false items					✓		7
	Multiple-choice items	✓	✓		✓	✓		
	Matching items				✓		✓	
Productive-response	Fill-in items	✓			✓	✓		11
	Short-answer items	✓			✓	✓	✓	
	Performance assessment		✓	✓	✓	✓		
Personal-response	Portfolio assessment							4
	Conference assessment							
	Self/peer assessment	✓	✓	✓	✓			

Category	Type	Alex	Kaito	David	Mami	Don	Hiro	Total
Individ-ualized-response	Continuous assessment Differentiated assessment Dynamic assess-ment	✓	✓	✓	✓			4

Note. Teachers' use of assessment according to Brown's (2016) categories and types

An underlying concern for students' learning led teachers to focus significant time and energy on creating and conducting assessment tasks. Teachers clearly hoped to form good study habits in their students by attempting to use assessment to boost intrinsic motivation. Having a fun and enjoyable assessment experience as an end in itself was never expressed as desirable. Mami said,

> I want them to be better in English skills. So, that's actually the only thing I care about. And also I really don't want them to skip classes. That's the worst thing that happens. Because if they skip classes they're not going to learn. So I try to get them involved in class as much as possible. So assessment – I hope my assessment works that way … It's not so they can enjoy themselves and have fun or anything else. But they probably do, but the main goal is that, yeah, they'll get better at English.

There was a lot of effort expended to make assessment tasks engaging and motivating. As Alex opined, "If they're actively engaged in learning, they're going to improve, right?" Extrinsic motivation for task performance was heightened in a variety of ways. Kaito gave "lucky stars" to students who performed especially well during the lesson, while Mami gave students bonus points for doing extra work that wasn't part of the syllabus. Alex used the word "test" as a buzzword to encourage student participation, commenting, "You can have some activity that you're going to do anyway, and you can just call it a test, and they'll focus on it much more." While teachers were concerned with making assessment motivating and using assessment tasks to promote effective learning habits among students, concerns such as making assessments reliable and valid were rarely expressed.

Teachers reported that one of their main priorities when designing tasks was to connect the classroom to the real world. Alex and Mami both made use of role plays for their major assessment that were geared to be as similar as possible to a real-life situation. Alex didn't allow students to choose their own groups for their role plays, as "when you're in business, you don't get to choose who you're working with, so you have to learn how to work with various people." Mami had her students bring in props that helped create a lifelike scene, such as real cups and trays for a restaurant. Hiro's exam questions functioned to have students extract the real meaning of the passages they were reading, instead of just choosing between multiple choice options. This way of creating and implementing assessment testifies to the desire of these teachers to use assessment tasks to prepare students for language use outside of the classroom.

Teachers reported that they need a variety of means to assess their students, and that they believed more frequent shorter assessments are more effective in encouraging learning than less frequent longer assessments. Most teachers did not think that paper-and-pencil assessments were the best method for determining what each student had learned. Mami commented,

> I think having a variety is beneficial. I don't want to judge students just by looking at one aspect, because some people are good here, some people are good there. Some students are not good at all, anything. So I want to find each student's strength.

This variety, both in terms of task types and skills being assessed, was believed to encourage learning by providing an avenue for students to display their strengths, while also providing the teacher with multiple sources of data with which to evaluate progress and make decisions about the next stage of learning.

The design and implementation of assessment tasks was believed to exert a profound influence over the whole course. Don expressed the general consensus of all the teachers when he said,

> Assessment affects the whole thing. So, how you decide to assess the course is also going to influence how the students are involved or not involved. How student-centered the class is, or isn't. Even how you present the material. And even to a point you could argue how responsive you are.

Don's logical conclusion is that, "assessment shouldn't be an afterthought". The other teachers also believed that assessment tasks work decisively to shape the character of the classroom and determine the learning trajectory of the students, so they need to be planned carefully.

This belief in the importance of assessment for learning did not lead teachers to make detailed plans before the course began, as might be expected. Rather, most teachers who were interviewed only had a rough idea at the beginning of the semester how they would assess their students. As the semester progressed, assessment plans were revised and assessment tasks were tailored in response to the evolving conditions of the classroom. Restrepo et al. (2003) found that teachers did little planning when doing assessment, and criticized this as something that needed correction. For the teachers in this interview study, however, it was a deliberate choice to leave assessment plans undecided. There was a lot of flexibility built into their assessment systems, so that they could adapt and innovate their tasks as the course progressed. Perhaps this is because a great deal of assessment practice "depends on the students", as David said.

One problem is that teachers are required to submit a curriculum plan to the university before the course starts, but they have very little information concerning students until they come to class on the first day. Even basic information such as the number of students enrolled in the course or their language ability is often unknown. Therefore, the teachers made a general outline of the broad methods that would be used for assessment, but very often the details were left vague until the course had progressed. For example, Kaito wrote the general heading "Assignments" as one category of assessment. He said he did this, "In case I came up with something new." The heading "Assignments" functioned as a catch-all term, under which any future task could be included. Kaito added in an extra midterm test, which was not on the original syllabus. After practicing "l" and "r" sounds, Kaito explained, "I noticed that maybe thirty percent of the students didn't really get all of them. So, I decided to give a test which is not on the original syllabus."

In this way, there seemed to be a continuous negotiation between the teachers and their students' assessment results. The outcomes from assessment tasks were not only used to give insight into student achievement, but also worked to shape the way in which subsequent assessment tasks were constructed and graded. Hiro found that most of his students weren't able to complete three short readings in the final exam, and so decided "three articles are too many." In the next exam he decided to use two reading articles.

However, while teachers were creative in the way they adapted their original assessment tasks as described in the official syllabus, they were very careful to follow the broad outline of those assessment frameworks as closely as possible. Teachers believed that the official syllabus and university policy concerning assessment were sacrosanct. This was true even when the teachers disagreed with that policy. In one of Kaito's classes, 15 students ended up failing. He wanted to alter the scores so that more passed, but he didn't, as he said, "I was told to be strict in grades." When speaking of assessment practice, David often repeated, "As long as I follow the syllabus, I'm OK." This proved to be difficult in David's situation, as he was explicitly instructed to give no more than 40% of students an A grade. This entailed a lot of transforming and juggling of assessment scores at the end of the semester.

Student Engagement with Feedback

In regards to the second pillar of LOA, student engagement with feedback, teachers seemed unsure about how to encourage student engagement with feedback in a meaningful way. The primary means of giving feedback was a numerical score or a checked box for completion. Mami put a score on the back of each student's name card every week for participation, while Hiro returned weekly quiz scores. Alex and David gave written comments as feedback, but were dubious about whether that had any positive effect on learning. Alex wondered, "Do they look at it or stuff it somewhere?" while David found that some students did not incorporate feedback given on the first draft of an essay, but just resubmitted the same essay as the second draft. When other teachers gave written comments from an assessment task, it was usually after the task had been completed, and there was no opportunity to use that feedback to produce a better result.

All the tenured teachers made use of information and communications technology (ICT) for giving feedback, but it was only mentioned by one of the part time teachers. This was a little puzzling, as ostensibly it seems that part time teachers would benefit more from having online communication with students. Tenured teachers have an office and are on campus almost every day, so have opportunities outside of class to get in contact with students should they need. As part time teachers come to campus infrequently and have no personal office, an online system for collecting and distributing work would have been very useful. In a subsequent personal communication, Don agreed that online submission of work would have been extremely beneficial. However, he said that as a new teacher, he really had no idea what was allowed, and what was even possible, and so was not aware that this option was available. (The COVID-19 pandemic, which occurred subsequent to these interviews, has likely made online communication options more readily available.)

It has been noted that the practice of giving productive feedback to students is uncommon in Asian countries due to the large class sizes (Azis, 2012), but the situation for these teachers seems to be more nuanced than that. Generally, the number of students in each class was not excessively large (see Table 2). Alex, for example, had 28 students in his Business Communication class and used reflection sheets to give feedback. He would also regularly call students to the front during class time and have short conferences with each student, in order to give personalized feedback.

> I try to keep them at thirty seconds each, but I can't do it. I can't get through it fast enough. I can't keep it at that speed because they, you know, they come to the back of the classroom and they've forgotten to bring their paper, so go back, and I'll call someone else while you're finding your paper and you know? It's just a panic time trying to get it all done so I don't waste more than twenty minutes doing it. So that's challenging…[to] give them more feedback than just a few marks on a paper that they might not look at.

Even though Alex had a firm belief in the value of personalized feedback, the reality of the classroom environment proved to be a major challenge.

Developing Evaluative Expertise

The third pillar of LOA, developing evaluative expertise, was problematic for teachers in practice. Although David, Don and Alex all spoke about the ways in which they used self-evaluation as a way to help them decide grades, and Kaito and Mami had their students engage in some reflective practice, there was little evidence that students were actually trained in evaluative techniques.

Teachers did, however, encourage students to focus on themselves and each other through self- and peer assessment. Students in Alex's and David's classes completed self-assessment and peer assessment worksheets, which were used to make them aware of their weak points and help the teachers decide their final grade. This had a double benefit, as Alex explained: "They've done the evaluation, which has the benefit of saving me work, but also in making them aware of what they should have done. So hopefully next time they'll do it." The latter sentiment was also expressed by David, who said, "If they can start to self-assess themselves, start thinking about what they can do, what they can't do, then maybe it will help them later on."

There was a concern, however, that serious students would mark themselves too severely and other students would give themselves unrealistically high scores. Alex and David both wrestled with this issue. David found that students in his class didn't do peer assessment appropriately. During a presentation task, the students who were listening completed a peer assessment form. These peer assessment scores contributed to the final grade, but students gave each other scores that were unacceptably high. Therefore, David decided he would be extra severe in his own scoring of that task, stating, "Because they didn't do what I expected them to do. . . I'll have to knock everybody down".

Overall, while the teachers seemed to agree on the potential benefits of self-evaluation when done properly, it wasn't used to a great degree in classes. This also appears consistent with the practice of EFL teachers in Hong Kong, China and Canada, where it has been noted "assessment seems to be done *to* the students rather than *with* them" (Cheng & Wang, 2007). Students did not participate in setting their own learning goals, nor in defining the criteria for success, which has been argued may also have a positive formative effect on learning (Becker, 2016). These teachers did in fact hold positive views about self- and peer assessment, but the implementation was lacking.

Rubrics can be used to make the hidden goals of learning visible and so support the development of evaluative expertise, but were largely absent from classroom evaluation procedures, being mentioned by only two teachers. Alex had a desire to be as transparent in his grading as possible, having said, "I get tired of being so subjective." As Alex was coming from a background in the hard sciences (engineering), perhaps that led him to desire concrete methods of assessment. He therefore created a rubric to assess speaking performance in a role play, but was having trouble with it, as indicated by his comment,

> the students who got really good scores on my rubric weren't the students I thought were really doing well. So, it wasn't valid, I guess. Students got a lot of points – in the rubric I had before – they got a lot of points for lots of turns. And some of them figured that out.

His students would then make lots of short comments during the role play, comments that weren't really helpful. When these students made a large number of comments, Alex was compelled by his rubric to give them a high score. David also made thorough use of rubrics. For three tasks (oral presentation, essay writing and class participation) he had detailed rubrics with a breakdown of discrete skills and performance targets that students had to hit. The other teachers, however, relied more heavily on holistic grading when assessing performance tasks.

Factors which Encourage or Discourage a Learning-Oriented Approach to Assessment

A number of factors emerged which affected the capability of teachers to adhere to the three principles of LOA. The issue of time overshadowed much of the teachers' thinking about assessment. Teachers spoke about the length of time it took to create assessment tasks and grade them. They were also concerned about the number of times they could use those tasks once they had been created. In particular, the part time teachers often mentioned not having enough time to assess students in the way they would like. A lack of time was a significant theme across all the interviews. A word frequency query revealed that the word *time* (including *times*) was the 11th most frequent word, occurring 723 times (1.02% weighted percentage).

Alex didn't have enough time in class to prepare students for assessment as he would have liked, while Don didn't have enough time outside of class to create assessment materials in the way he had planned. Don explained in his second interview,

> Unfortunately, when I last spoke to you I sort of spoke about the vocabulary quizzes and so forth. And unfortunately I have only been able to do one of those. And that is simply a time issue. I do not have any time. I have about eight different courses to prepare for each week. And I find to do that properly I do not have time to make the weekly quizzes for this class.

Lack of time was viewed as a major factor that discouraged effective assessment practices. Teachers attempted to overcome this problem in a number of ways. Kaito used ICT to help resolve a lack of time in class for assessment by having students email their work to him. Alex and David had students complete a lot of the evaluation themselves, so that they had only to check that the grading was correct. It was also a common practice to use the same assessment methods and materials in other courses, as a way of cutting down on preparation time. If universities want to improve assessment practice by making good use of teachers' time, they would be well advised to establish some kind of forum for teachers to exchange materials. Especially when teachers have classes in a standardized course with a common textbook and syllabus, they may be able to share materials and assessment tasks easily. It was surprising that none of the teachers in this study had any kind of forum for sharing assessment tasks and materials.

Concerning the issue of independence, two contrary views were expressed. Don wanted more collaboration with colleagues and more chances to share materials and ideas, to help reduce preparation time and improve the quality of the lesson content. Alex also desired a greater degree of coordination. Alex's university hadn't done well at standardizing the scores given by teachers. Therefore, grade inflation was an issue, as well as the lack of an agreed-upon benchmark for achievement. This made it difficult for Alex to assign the grades he thought were appropriate, as over the years students would learn which classes had challenging standards, and avoid them. Teachers with high standards would "get very few students, or somewhat odd or misfit students, that didn't really listen to their peers and find out, and they just get surprised by how tough your class is." Because of this, Alex believed, "you can't really have the standards that you want to have."

A tighter control over the assessment practice of teachers, in Alex's case, would conversely give him greater liberty in assigning grades he thought were appropriate. In contrast, Kaito appreciated working independently. He said,

> Basically, I'm free to teach anything I feel they should be learning. Also I can give any kind of assessments to assess their learning abilities. So that kind of freedom is helpful. Yeah. I never share this idea with anybody here, but I think everybody is kind of on their own. Which I thought was kind of a negative thing. But here, as far as these classes are concerned, I think it's positive.

Kaito could revise his assessment tasks, adding in an extra test and altering the focus of other tasks, without having to follow a prescribed common syllabus. This enabled him to be responsive to students' needs and adapt to the practical realities of the classroom. David also expressed concerns about standardized assessment, arguing that if he himself makes the test, he knows it is fair for the students. However, in David's opinion

> if someone else makes the test, it's like "Oh. Plus, I don't know if I'm supposed to be teaching — am I supposed to be teaching this? I had to teach this, and I didn't. So the students suffer. And I'm responsible for their grades. So I have to pass them or fail them. So it's not fair for me, too.

Likewise, Mami saw the value in teachers having freedom. "Because the students have their strengths and weaknesses, and each teacher has their strengths and weaknesses, and it's important that teachers do whatever they are most comfortable with. I think that's important." It seems that course coordinators need to walk a fine line between allowing teachers the freedom to be responsive to student needs, but also providing clear guidelines concerning the goals of the curriculum, so that there can be constructive alignment between the content of individual classes and the assessment tasks employed.

Finally, one other factor that worked to discourage good assessment practice was a lack of information. Hiro and Don were both teaching their courses for the first time, yet were given very little information concerning their students before the course began. Hiro stated:

> Well, actually, before giving this exam for the first time, I had no idea of the level — the level of my students, you know, English proficiency. So, well actually, that was something I worried about. Because when I was preparing these articles, I thought, "OK. Two articles. Too easy. Maybe half of them would go, would fall asleep". You know. So I gave them three articles. But it turned out to be, you know, they didn't have time.

So, in this case, that lack of knowledge resulted in the creation of a test, worth 80% of the final grade, that most students were not able to complete. In Don's case, a lack of information led him to make poor decisions concerning assessment materials and content. He said:

> So my predecessor could have shared so many materials that would have, not so much, well yeah, in some ways it might have lightened the preparation. But it would have enabled me to make better decisions. And I don't understand why some full-time teachers are not making this information available to everyone. In particular, new teachers.

Don had very little guidance even in how he chose his textbook, but just decided based on a general understanding of the level of most first year university students. Many teachers starting work in Japanese universities are given little guidance in terms of syllabus creation and material selection. Some of these teachers are able to use personal contacts or networks to find out the information they need, but many are not. An assessment scheme sends a clear message to students about what is important in a course and where they should focus their effort. Moreover, student maturity levels and motivational factors are of crucial importance when making practical decisions about creating learning-oriented tasks and having students produce and engage in feedback. If university leaders desire that teachers implement assessment that promotes growth in learning, it is imperative that new teachers are given as much information and guidance as possible, so they can make appropriate decisions.

Conclusion

This study explored how six teachers' professed beliefs and declared practice can be viewed through the lens of LOA theory. When considering the first principle of LOA, that of using learning-oriented assessment tasks, teachers' stated beliefs and practice can be viewed positively. These teachers reported spending significant time and effort on creating a variety of assessment tasks that were designed to be learning-oriented, engaging and motivating. Much importance was given to authentic assessment with a clear connection to the real world. The second principle of LOA, engaging students with feedback, revealed more incongruity between belief and professed practice. While acknowledging the value in providing detailed and personalized feedback, there was some disillusionment expressed about whether students could appreciate it or actually use it for improving learning. The third principle, developing evaluative expertise in learners, was least aligned with teachers' declared beliefs and practices. While self- and peer assessment were viewed positively, they were not used extensively. When it was used, students were not adequately trained in the process of evaluation, and consequently it was not done satisfactorily.

Teachers are required to negotiate their twin roles of encouraging and promoting learning, while also evaluating and judging that learning. This is no simple matter, which can be made more challenging by the contextual constraints of the institution and practical realities of the classroom. While teachers may have beliefs about assessment which are positive and constructive, their practice of assessment can be hampered by external factors.

The assessment beliefs of teachers in this study and the interpretations they give to their assessment practice suggest avenues forward for educators and policymakers seeking to encourage LOA.

First, providing teachers with freedom within institutional requirements allows them to be responsive to the changing needs of the students. As deficiencies in students' knowledge and skills emerge during the course, assessment tasks can be adopted and tailored to meet those needs, provided that there is some "wriggle room" built into the system. This would mean allowing teachers to have some control over assessment procedures and content.

Second, lack of time is a major obstacle to learning-oriented assessment practice. Schools would do well to consider how to free up time for teachers to better plan and implement assessment, which could include reducing heavy administrative responsibilities, encouraging collaboration amongst staff, recycling previous assessment tasks, or reducing class sizes. Naturally, some teachers prefer to work alone, so rather than mandating collaboration, it may be sufficient to just provide the opportunity for those who are interested.

Third, the great potential of ICT as a means of providing feedback should be exploited, particularly in the case of casual or sessional teachers who may not be on campus for much of the time. The use of ICT has undoubtedly increased as a result of societal changes springing from the COVID-19 pandemic, and it is hoped that any pedagogical gains in this area would not be lost should classes return to fully on campus.

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異文化経験が英語コミュニケーション能力と動機づけへ及ぼす影響―小学生への縦断的調査―

Effects of Intercultural Experiences on English Communicative Competence and Learning Motivation: A Longitudinal Study of Elementary School Children

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本研究は、子どもの異文化経験が英語コミュニケーション能力と動機づけへ及ぼす影響を検討した。公立小学校3校の262名（海外滞在経験32名・海外旅行経験132名・海外経験なし98名）を対象に、5年次に英検ジュニア・シルバーテストと動機づけの質問紙調査を行い、1年後に追跡調査をおこなった。本結果から、海外滞在経験は、英語コミュニケーション能力と内発的動機づけを向上させることが分かった。また、海外旅行経験は、内発的動機づけを向上させることが明らかになった。6年次には群別のコミュニケーション能力の影響は変化しないが、異文化経験による内発的動機づけへの影響は消えていた。しかし、同時期の外発的動機づけの変化も考察した結果から、子どもの異文化経験（海外滞在経験・海外旅行経験）は、内発的動機づけを高めることを基盤に、6年次には、英語学習と将来性を繋げる同一視的調整を高め、複数の動機によって動機づけを強化すると結論づけられた。

This study examined the effects of intercultural experiences on English communicative competence and learning motivation of students studying at three public

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elementary schools in the Kanto region of Japan. The participants of this study were 262 fifth-grade students with and without intercultural experiences. The students were divided into the following groups: those with experience of living overseas (n = 32), those with experience of travel overseas (n = 132), and those with no overseas experience (n = 98). The Eiken Junior Silver Test was administered to the participants to assess their English communicative competence. In order to assess their *intrinsic motivation* and *extrinsic motivation* including the constituent regulations (*identified*, *introjected*, and *external*), a questionnaire was administered. The study also included an identical follow-up procedure conducted after one year, when the participants were sixth graders.

The results of the study suggest that regardless of school grade, students living overseas for a mean period of two and a half years showed a greater gain in English communicative competence than students without such experience. Specifically, the group of participants who had lived overseas for the abovementioned mean period showed statistically higher mean scores on the Eiken Junior Silver Test than the other two groups. Although an improvement in test scores was recognized from grades five to six in all groups, there was no difference in the mean levels of test score improvement attributable to exposure to intercultural experience.

Regarding intrinsic motivation, the findings suggest that in the fifth grade, students with intercultural experiences (living and traveling overseas) had stronger intrinsic motivation as compared to those without such intercultural experiences; however, this difference disappeared in the sixth grade. Thus, it can be inferred that the effects of intercultural experiences on intrinsic motivation do not last long. The effects of intercultural experiences on extrinsic motivation also show that such experiences (living and traveling overseas) increase identified regulation from grades five to six. It can be inferred from this that intercultural experiences ultimately enable students to envisage more clearly how to relate their English learning to their future goals. These results also suggest that intercultural experiences stimulate the development of children, as identified regulation becomes strong after adequate intrinsic motivation is cultivated at an early age.

Effects on introjected and external regulations differed based on the extent of the participants' intercultural experiences. Only the group who had traveled overseas showed an increase in introjected regulation from grades five to six. Thus, it can be inferred that the experience of traveling overseas promotes learners' self-motivation by leading them to compare their English competence to that of others who have achieved higher levels. This inference is reasonable as the experience of traveling overseas provides high intrinsic motivation similar to that of the living overseas experience, but unlike the latter, it does not increase English competence simultaneously. Regarding external regulation, this study found that the experience of living overseas increased the external regulation from grades five to grade six, whereas the experience of traveling overseas decreased the external regulation in the same period. The difference in these results may be due to differences in the degree to which students are also engaged in supplementary education.

Finally, the present study further provides examples of the effects of intercultural experiences on the participants' English communicative competence and learning motivation from their parents' viewpoint, using the questionnaire responses of the parents (e.g., concerning what the participants said or did after intercultural experiences). Based on the findings from the responses of the participants and their parents, three implications relating to potential use of the intercultural experiences of students in elementary school English education are discussed.

Keywords: communicative competence; intercultural experiences; motivation; public elementary schools; self-determination theory

英語教育において、英語力の向上や動機づけの維持は教育の核心をなす。英語コミュニケーション能力の向上と継続的に英語を学ぶ態度の育成は、学習指導要領における中核でもある(文部科学省, 2018)。そのため小学生を対象とした英語学習研究や動機づけ研究は、変化を縦断的に研究する気運が高まっている (Adachi, 2011; Nishida, 2015; Ora-Baldwin et al., 2017)。

なかでも小学生を対象とした動機づけ研究には、Deci and Ryan (1985)の自己決定理論を援用した研究が多い(安達, 2009; Carreira, 2006a, 2006b; Carreira, 2011; Tanaka & Kutsuki, 2018)。Dörnyei(1998)が、自己決定理論は動機づけの変化を体系的に分析できると指摘するように、発達段階にある小学生を対象とした研究に自己決定理論は有益である。本研究は、小学生を対象として動機づけの変化を体系的に分析するため、自己決定理論を援用し、英語学習に対する動機づけを複数年に渡って縦断的に検討する。

さらに本研究では、上述の英語コミュニケーション能力と動機づけへの影響を異文化経験別に考察する。小学校における経験を通じての言語活動や国際理解が指摘されるなか、日本人の海外旅行は身近なものになっている。しかし、実際の海外滞在や海外旅行などの異文化経験が小学生の英語コミュニケーション能力や動機づけにどのような影響をもたらすかは明らかになっていない。小学生の英語コミュニケーション能力と英語学習に対する動機づけを異文化経験別に検討し、保護者から異文化経験による影響の具体例を得ることで、国際化が進む小学校における英語教育を提案する。

先行研究

小学生の英語コミュニケーション能力

小学校における外国語活動と外国語科（以下、小学校英語）の目標は、コミュニケーションを図る素地と基礎となる能力の育成である（文部科学省, 2018）。先行研究を検討すると、このコミュニケーション能力を測定する指標として、英検ジュニア（2015年までは児童英検という呼称）を使った研究が多い（バトラー・武内, 2006a, 2006b; Butler & Takeuchi, 2008; カレイラ, 2007; 泉他, 2014）。英検ジュニアとは、外国語活動に対応した小学生向けの英語テストである。ブロンズ（初級）、シルバー（中級）、ゴ

ールド(上級)の3つのグレードがあり、聞き取った英語やその返答に○印をつけて回答し、成績を正答率で表示する。

ブロンズは「①英語の音やリズムに慣れ親しむ。②初歩的なコミュニケーションに必要な語句や簡単な表現を聞き、理解する。」ことを目標に掲げた聞くことを測定するテストである(日本英語検定協会, 出版年不明, p. 6)。シルバーは「①日常生活での身近な事柄に関する簡単な語句や表現を聞き、理解する。それに対して簡単に応答する。②簡単な会話や文をいくつか聞き、その中にある情報を理解する。③文字と音声の結び付きに関心を持つ。」ことを到達目標にした聞くことを中心にした話すこと（やり取り）も想定したテストになっている(日本英語検定協会, 出版年不明, p. 6)。ゴールドは「①日常生活での身近な事柄に関する語句や表現を聞き、理解する。それに対して質問したり応答したりする。②まとまった会話や文章を聞き、その中の情報を理解し、その場面状況を判断したり要旨を把握したりする。③身の回りの語句や簡単で短い文を読む。」といった、聞くこと、話すこと（やり取り）及び、読むことを測定するテストである（日本英語検定協会, 出版年不明, p. 6）。

英語コミュニケーション能力と学年

外国語活動を受けた小学生の英語コミュニケーション能力は、学年に比例して向上すると指摘されている（バトラー・武内, 2006a; バトラー・武内, 2006b; 泉他, 2014）。児童英検ブロンズを使用した研究には、バトラー・武内（2006a）が、小学生1年生から6年生5087名を対象に行った調査がある。調査の結果、全体的なテスト結果は非常によく、さらに学年が上がるごとに結果が良くなっていた。また、音声のみを学んだ児童の結果より音声と文字を学んだ児童の結果の方が良かったと指摘している。近年には、34名を対象とした縦断的調査からも、5年次から6年次の間にブロンズテストの得点が向上したと指摘されている（Nishida, 2015）。

児童英検シルバーを使った研究では、バトラー・武内(2006b)が、外国語活動を受ける小学3年生から6年生6541名を対象に調査を行い、児童の学年が上がるごとにテスト結果が向上することを明らかにした。同様に、Butler and Takeuchi(2008)は、学年に加えて、学校以外の学習経験がテスト結果に影響すると指摘している。泉他（2014）は、教育課程特例校制度のある小学校において、67名を対象に児童英検シルバーを使ったコミュニケーション能力の伸びを測定する調査を行った。その結果、大きな差ではないが5年生から6年生の間にテスト結果が向上する可能性を指摘している。

児童英検ゴールドを使った調査は少ないが、カレイラ（2007）は、3年生から5年生80名を対象に英語コミュニケーション能力と動機づけの相関を調査し、受験者のほとんどが5年生（11名中10名）である上級レベルのテスト結果（ゴールド）と内発的動機づけとの間に弱い正の相関を確認している。一方で、初級・中級テスト結果（ブロンズ・シルバー）と動機づけに相関はほとんどなかった。

これらの結果から、リスニングを中心とした英語コミュニケーション能力は、小学校英語において学年が上がるごとに向上するが、何らかのほかの影響もみられると推察できる。一方で、先行研究の多くは、一時点に複数の学年に英語テストを実施して比較する横断的手法を採用しており、100名を超える児童を追跡した縦断的調査は行われていない。また、異文化経験により児童のコミュニケーション能力の学年的変化が異なるかは明らかになっていない。

英語コミュニケーション能力と異文化経験

先行研究では、英語圏において学齢期の児童が現地の学校に通っていれば2年から2年半程度で日常的な対面英語コミュニケーションに問題がなくなることが指摘されてきた(Cummins, 1982/2001; 箕浦, 2006; 中島, 2016)。[1] これらの結果は、個人差が大きいが、2年程度で滞在先の学校生活に支障がない英語コミュニケーション能力を身に付ける傾向にあることを示している。箕浦(2006)は、家庭で日本語を使っていても英語圏において英語を教授言語とした学校に通うと、1年程度で日常会話が分かり始め、2年半で日常場面において不自由がなくなると指摘する。中島(2016)は、第二言語における会話テストの結果が多くの場合2年目では80%、3年目には100%の正答率になるが、個人差が大きく4年から5年かかることもあると指摘する。

一方で、帰国後には、海外で習得した言語の喪失がみられるという研究結果がある。とくに帰国時の年齢が低い場合や第二言語におけるリテラシー能力が低い場合は、言語喪失は速い(Tomiyama, 2009)。具体的には、英語圏における英語リテラシーの獲得には、5年から7年の学校教育が必要であるため(Cummins,1982/2001)、リテラシー能力が発達していない場合は、2年程度の海外滞在経験により高まった英語コミュニケーション能力は帰国後に急速に低下する可能性がある。

英語学習に対する動機づけ

自己決定理論は、自律性の連続体のなかで動機づけを内発的動機づけと外発的動機づけに分類し、自律的であるほど人は内発的に動機づけられ、その結果として行動の質が高まると定義する理論である(Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2002, 2017)。内発的動機づけは、学習行動そのものが楽しく、満足感を得ることができる動機づけである。例えば、英単語を覚えることが楽しいなどが挙げられる。この内発的動機づけを有する児童は、短期的には、積極的学習行動(例、挙手)や高い学業成果に帰結することが指摘されている(安藤・布施・小平, 2008; 櫻井・高野, 1985)。長期的には、児童期に内発的動機づけをもって学ぶと、高学年頃には学習内容が難しくなっても自分の将来と関連付けて努力を費やしても学ぶようになる(櫻井, 2017)。

社会的価値に基づく外発的動機づけは、個人の外部に基準があり、個人の判断が統制された動機づけを指す。とくに、外発的動機づけは、3つの調整(同一視的調整、取り入れ的調整、外的調整)に下位分類される(Noels, et al., 2000; Tanaka & Kutsuki, 2018; Yamaguchi & Tanaka, 1998)。同一視的調整は、個人にとって重要と自己認知されている外発的動機づけを指す。例えば、パイロットなど英語を使う職業を目指している児童は、英語学習が重要と考え、英単語を覚えることが好きではなくても、英語学習に対して努力を払い、その結果として、高い学業成果につながる。この同一視的調整は、内発的動機づけと強く相関し(岡田, 2010)、学習者が自分自身に因果性があると認知するため、自律的動機づけ(autonomous motivation)と分類される(Ryan & Deci, 2017)。

取り入れ的調整は、恥を避けたり、他者との比較から優越感を感じたりするために動機づけられる外発的動機づけを指す。自尊心を満たす非自律的な理由により動機づけられているため、自己の外に因果性がある。例えば、優越感に浸るために学習するなどが挙げられ、小学校高学年頃から強くなる(櫻井, 2017)。最も内在化されていない外発的動機づけは外的調整と呼ばれ、外部からの要求を満たすために行

う動機づけを指す。とくに小学生は、保護者からの影響を受けやすく、勉強をしなければ怒られるので行動を起こす動機づけなどが挙げられる。取り入れ的調整と外的調整は、個人が因果性を自己の外部に置いているため、統制的動機づけ（controlling motivation）と分類される(Ryan & Deci, 2017)。

動機づけと学年

小学生を対象とした動機づけの学年比較において、6年生が低い動機づけを有すると指摘されてきた(安達, 2009; Carreira, 2006a, 2006b; Carreira; 2011, 林原, 2013)。Carreira(2006a)は、小学3年生と6年生を比較して、内発的動機づけ、外発的動機づけ両方において、6年生が最も低い動機づけを有していたと報告している。3年生と4年生、6年生の男女を比較した研究からも、全体的に学年が上がるごとに内発的動機づけが低下することが指摘されている（Carreira, 2006b）。英語学習に関する内発的動機づけが低下するのは、学習一般に関する動機の低下に起因するとの指摘もある(Carreira, 2011）。林原（2013）は、外国語活動と国際交流とを連携させることで5年生から6年生の動機づけの低下をなくすことができると指摘している。

同じ研究参加者を追跡する長期的調査はあまり行われていないが、Nishida (2015)が5年生34名を対象に2年間に渡り4回の縦断的調査を行っている。その結果、学年比較とは異なり、4回の測定において、内発的動機づけに変化はなかった。また、550名の小学5年生を対象に自己決定理論を使った1年間の縦断的調査を行った研究からは、学習前の動機づけと教室内における学習経験、必要に応じた教員の支援が1年後の動機づけを予測すると指摘されている(Oga-Baldwin et al., 2017)。

これらの結果から、動機づけは学年により異なると考えられるが、縦断的調査の場合は、変化がみられない可能性もある。また、学校における外国語学習前や学習中の経験も児童の動機づけを変化させる可能性がある。

動機づけと異文化経験

教育分野において異文化経験は語学力を伸ばす活動として推奨されるが、小学生の外国語学習に対する動機づけに肯定的な影響を与えるかは明らかになっていない。海外滞在経験と動機づけの相関はあまり強くなく、海外旅行経験は国際理解の意識に影響を与えないという報告がある（安達, 2009; 林原, 2011）。一方で、海外滞在経験の長さが外国語学習への関心に影響を与えると指摘する結果もある（林原, 2013）。

Tanaka and Kutsuki (2018)は、日本の国際小学校に通う児童112名を対象に自己決定理論を援用した小学校中学年と高学年の比較調査を行い、学年が上がると低下すると指摘されている日本語母語児童の内発的動機づけが、国際学校においては一定であったと報告している。この動機づけの低下がみられない要因として、国際学校には、英語を継承語として学ぶ英語母語児童が在籍し、英語母語児童の英語学習に対する内発的動機づけは中学年から高学年にかけて向上するため、この継承語学習者と英語を学ぶことに起因すると解釈されている。

これらの先行研究から、異文化経験が内発的動機づけへ及ぼす影響は、一定ではなく、変動しやすい可能性がある。そのため、本研究では、内発的動機づけのみではなく、英語を使う将来性（同一視的調整）や他者との比較（取り入れ的調整）、保護

者からの影響（外的調整）などの変化も同時に検討して体系的に児童の動機づけを明らかにする。

本研究の目的

本研究は、英語圏以外を含む異文化経験（海外滞在経験、海外旅行経験、海外経験なし）による英語コミュニケーションと動機づけへの影響を明らかにすることを目的とする。具体的には、小学生のリスニングを基盤とした英語コミュニケーション能力と英語学習に対する動機づけを明らかにし、5年生から6年生の1年間にそれらがどのように変化するかを考察する。異文化経験は厳密には海外渡航経験以外も含まれるが、本研究では、環境による学習者の変化に着目するため八島・久保田（2012）の異文化への移動を伴う異文化接触の分類を異文化経験として採用し、以下のリサーチクエスチョン5点を検討する。

（1） 異文化経験によって5年次から6年次の英語コミュニケーション能力の伸びは異なるのか。

（2） 異文化経験によって英語コミュニケーション能力は異なるのか。

（3） 異文化経験によって5年次から6年次の動機づけの変化は異なるのか。

（4） 異文化経験によって動機づけは異なるのか。

（5） 保護者がみた児童の異文化経験による英語コミュニケーション能力と動機づけへの影響の具体的な経験例は何か。

方法

調査協力者と手続き

調査協力者は、関東圏にある公立小学校3校に通う5年生である。3校の5年生全員を対象に調査を依頼し、2018年7月に第1回目の調査を行い、6年生なった2019年7月に追跡調査を実施した。学校を通じて保護者に書面で許可を得て2年間調査に参加した児童のうち、質問項目すべてに解答していない児童、母語が日本語以外の児童をスクリーニングした結果262名（男子125名、女子137名）を分析対象とした。英語テスト（英検ジュニア）及び質問紙の配布回収はクラス担任の協力を得て実施し、調査者は必要に応じて補助に入った。

調査協力者の異文化経験は、1ヶ月以上の海外滞在経験がある児童32名、海外旅行経験がある児童132名、海外経験がない児童98名であった。海外滞在経験があり、かつ海外旅行経験がある児童は、本研究の目的から海外滞在経験のある児童に分類した。海外滞在経験がある児童の平均滞在年数は2年6ヶ月であった。滞在先は、アメリカ、アラブ首長国連邦、イギリス、インド、インドネシア、ガーナ、ケニア、シンガポール、タイ、中国、ドイツ、ベトナム、香港、ニュージーランドである。海外旅行経験がある児童の旅行先は、アメリカ、イギリス、イタリア、インドネシア、オーストラリア、オマーン、カナダ、韓国、カンボジア、クロアチア、シンガポール、台湾、タヒチ、中国、チェコ、ニュージーランド、マレーシア、モルディブ、フランス、フィンランド、ベトナム、香港、ロシアであり、1カ国から4カ国の海外旅行経験があった。

また、異文化経験による影響の具体例を明らかにするため、2年目の調査時に保護者にも質問紙調査を行った。質問紙は児童を通して保護者に渡してもらい、保護者は郵送にて回答を返送した。質問紙には、異文化経験に関する質問の他、自由記述には、海外を経験した児童の保護者に対して、外国を経験後の子どもの英語学習に対する変化について気づいたことの記述を依頼した。262名のうち148名の保護者から回答があった。

各校1名の担任にも質問紙による調査を行った。具体的には、指導環境や児童の海外経験と英語学習について質問し、児童の海外経験がほかの児童の英語学習へ与える教育的効果があるかについて尋ねた。効果があると考える場合は具体的な経験を記述してもらった。

学習環境

調査を行った地域は英語特区の指定を受けており、児童は1年次から英語を学習していた。3校の小学校のうち、2校は担任と外国語指導助手が、１校は担任・外国語指導助手・専科教員が、外国語活動を担当していた。

材料

本研究では、以下の英語テストと動機づけ尺度を使用した。

英語テスト

英語コミュニケーション能力を測定するために英検ジュニア・シルバー学校版を採用した。レベル設定は、3校の担任と一緒に決定した。2回目のテストは同じシルバーレベルの異なる版を使用した。

英語学習に対する動機づけ尺度

英語学習に対する動機づけ尺度は、日本の国際小学校において開発された動機づけ尺度を使用した(Tanaka ＆ Kutsuki，2018)。この尺度では「なぜ英語を勉強しますか」という質問項目に対して「英語のことばを覚えるのが楽しいから」などを「ぜんぜんそう思わない（1点）」から「とてもそう思う（5点）」の5件法で回答を求め、自己決定理論に基づく動機づけ（内発的動機づけ、同一視的調整、取り入れ的調整、外的調整）を測定した。動機づけのこれら4側面の項目例は、英語のことばを覚えるのが楽しいから（内発的動機づけ）、英語を勉強すると、将来よい学校に行けるから（同一視的調整）、英語ができないと、かっこうが悪いから（取り入れ的調整）、お父さんやお母さんが「やりなさい」というから（外的調整）である。なお、先行研究と同様に、児童の理解を促進するため、漢字にはふりがなを振った。

分析

分析には、主に3つの手法を使用した。まず、リサーチクエスチョン１と2を分析するために、児童の英語テストに対して、異文化経験（海外滞在経験あり、海外旅行経験あ

り、海外経験なし）×英語テスト（5年次、6年次）の二要因混合計画の分散分析を行った。次に、リサーチクエスチョン3と4を分析するために、児童の英語学習に対する動機づけに対して、異文化経験（海外滞在経験あり、海外旅行経験あり、海外経験なし）×動機づけ（内発的動機づけ、同一視的調整、取り入れ的調整、外的調整）×年次（5年次、6年次）の三要因の混合計画の分散分析を行った。最後に、リサーチクエスチョン5を分析するために、保護者の自由記述に対して、大谷（2007）のSCAT（Steps for Coding and Theorization)を参考に分析を行った。具体的には、保護者の自由記述を、回答者1名毎に1つのセルを使用してエクセルにテクストとして入力し、テクストの中で注目すべき語句を研究者が抽出し、抽出した注目すべき語句を言いかえ、言いかえを説明するようなテクスト外の概念を記載し、構成概念に分類した（大谷, 2007）。本研究は、大谷の質的研究と異なり、量的と質的な分析を持つ混合研究のため、構成概念には、英語コミュニケーション能力、内発的動機づけ、同一視的調整、取り入れ的調整、外的調整から選択する標準化コーディングを採用した。[2]複数にまたがる概念が抽出された場合は、テクストの文末の意味に注目し、より近い構成概念、または両方に分類し、[3]個人情報に配慮した回答を具体例として抽出した。分類できなかった項目はその他に分類した。

　これらの分析を踏まえて、以降の結果と考察は、リサーチクエスチョン順に記述を行った。考察は、児童の質問紙の統計的結果に、SCATによる保護者のテクストと概念の結果を組み込むことで、理論を可視化しながら記述することを試みた（リサーチクエスチョン1から4）。また、SCATによる分析から抽出された概念を自己決定理論から考察することで、保護者がみた児童の具体的な経験を理論に繋げ、求められる教育的介入に対して理論的記述を試みた（リサーチクエスチョン5）。

結果

まず、英語テスト結果の平均値と標準偏差、および歪度と尖度を算出した（表1参照）。平均値は80点以上と高く、群別にすると6年次の海外滞在経験群には天井効果がみられたが、全体として、英語テストの結果の歪度と尖度は±2の範囲であり、竹内（2012）に基づき、正規分布と判断した。次に、動機づけ下位尺度の平均値と標準偏差及び、信頼性と妥当性を確認した（表2参照）。信頼性は、内的適合性を確認した。内発的動機づけ4項目（α = .88, .89）[4]、同一視的調整3項目（α = .68, .73）、取り入れ的調整5項目（α = .71, .63）、外的調整3項目（α = .64, .63）のクロンバックアルファ係数を算出し、.70以上を求めていたがすべての項目に.63以上の値をとったため内的一貫性がみられると判断した。妥当性は論理的妥当性を検証した。各項目の相関を調べ、内発的動機づけから同一視的調整（r = .37, .21）[5]、取り入れ的調整（r = .25, .18）、外的調整（r = .13, .07）の順に相関が弱まることから、自己決定理論の論理的妥当性を確認した。自己決定理論は、調整が内在化される順に自己決定性が高まると指摘し(Ryan & Deci, 2002)、下位尺度である内発的動機づけから隣接する同一視的調整への相関が最も強く、取り入れ的調整、外的調整の順に弱まると指摘されている（Noels et al., 2000）。

表1.
年次別・群別における英語テスト正答率の平均値と標準偏差及び歪度・尖度

	M	*SD*	*Skewness*	*Kurtosis*
5年次				
全体	81.08	11.14	-0.52	0.07
海外滞在経験群 (*n* = 32)	87.13	11.63	-0.70	-0.48
海外旅行経験群 (*n* = 132)	80.32	10.80	-0.64	0.46
海外経験なし群(*n* = 98)	80.12	10.92	-0.52	-0.01
6年次				
全体	84.12	10.38	-0.38	-0.22
海外滞在経験群 (*n* = 32)	87.72	13.16	-1.03	0.39
海外旅行経験群 (*n* = 132)	83.89	10.01	-0.44	0.29
海外経験なし群(*n* = 98)	83.24	9.72	-0.12	-0.99

N = 262

表2.
年次別・群別における動機づけの平均値と標準偏差

	外的調整		取り入れ的調整		同一視的調整		内発的動機づけ	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
5 年次								
全体	1.94	0.88	2.47	0.85	2.97	0.97	3.60	1.07
海外滞在経験群 (*n* = 32)	1.89	0.85	2.68	0.86	3.00	1.10	3.92	0.97
海外旅行経験群 (*n* = 132)	2.03	0.92	2.48	0.92	3.01	1.02	3.71	1.05
海外経験なし群(*n* = 98)	1.84	0.82	2.40	0.75	2.89	0.87	3.34	1.08
6 年次								
全体	1.85	0.80	2.52	0.77	3.12	0.99	3.46	1.13
海外滞在経験群 (*n* = 32)	1.97	0.80	2.34	0.66	3.05	1.05	3.28	1.33
海外旅行経験群 (*n* = 132)	1.86	0.86	2.63	0.86	3.25	0.95	3.58	1.14
海外経験なし群(*n* = 98)	1.80	0.69	2.42	0.67	2.97	1.01	3.35	1.05

N = 262

　群別の二年間の英語コミュニケーション能力とその変化を検討するため、異文化経験（海外滞在経験あり、海外旅行経験あり、海外経験なし）×英語テスト（5年次、6年次）の二要因混合計画の分散分析を行った。その結果、交互作用は有意ではなかったが（$F(2,259) = 1.37$, $p = .255$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$）、英語テストの主効果は、1％水準（$F(1,259) = 12.96$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$）で有意であり、5年次より6年次の英語テストの結果が向上していることを示していた(図1参照)。また、異文化経験の主効果は5%水準（$F(2,259) = 4.65$, $p = .024$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$）で有意であり、多重比較の結果、海外滞在経験群の英語テスト得点が(M = 87.42)、海外旅行経験群と海外経験なし群の英語テスト得点(M = 82.11, M = 81.68)より有意に高かった(図2参照)。

図1.
年次別における英語テスト（英検ジュニア）平均値の比較

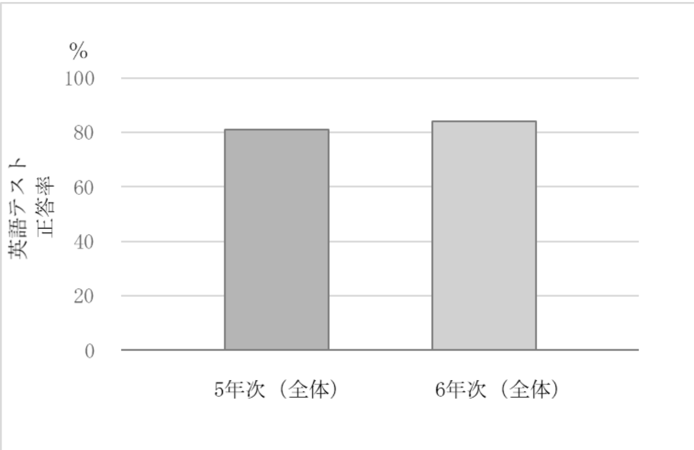
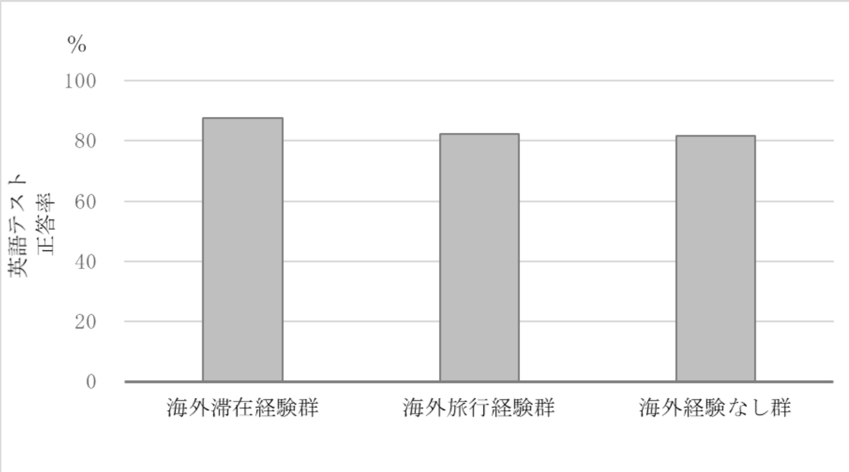


図2.
群別における英語テスト（英検ジュニア）平均値の比較



群別の動機づけと二年間の変化を検討するため、異文化経験（海外滞在経験あり、海外旅行経験あり、海外経験なし）×動機づけ（内発的動機づけ、同一視的調整、取り入れ的調整、外的調整）×年次（5年次、6年次）の三要因混合計画の分散分析を行った。その結果、二次の交互作用が有意であった(表3参照)。

表3.
三要因の分散分析の結果

Sources	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*		*p*	η_p^2
Between Subjects							
異文化経験	16.70	2.00	8.35	3.19	*	0.043	0.02
誤差	678.34	259.00	2.62				
Within Subjects							
動機づけ	543.82	2.48	219.66	190.23	**	< 0.001	0.42
動機づけ×異文化経験	2.41	4.95	0.49	0.42		0.833	0.00
誤差	740.41	641.21	1.15				
年次	1.24	1.00	1.24	2.00		0.159	0.01
年次×異文化経験	2.95	2.00	1.48	2.37		0.095	0.02
誤差	161.14	259.00	0.62				
動機づけ×年次	6.57	2.83	2.32	7.19	**	< 0.001	0.03
動機づけ×年次×異文化経験	7.27	5.66	1.28	3.97	**	0.001	0.03
誤差	236.90	732.61	0.32				

$^*p$ <.05. $^{**}p$ <.01.

二次の交互作用を解釈するために、単純交互作用の検定を行った。その結果、海外滞在経験群における動機づけと年次(F(3,777) = 3.58, p = .014, η_p^2 = .01)、海外旅行経験群における動機づけと年次(F(3,777) = 5.95, p = .001, η_p^2 = .02)にそれぞれ有意差がみられた。また、5年次には、異文化経験と動機づけに有意差がみられた(F(2,259) = 3.15, p = .044, η_p^2 = .02)。

単純・単純主効果と多重比較の結果、海外滞在経験群の内発的動機づけは5年次から6年次に低下するが、同一視的調整と外的調整は有意に上昇していた(F(1,259) = 20.81, p < .001, η_p^2 = .07; F(1,259) = 23.74, p < .001, η_p^2 = .08; F(1,259) = 6.01, p = .002, η_p^2 = .02; 図3参照)。海外旅行経験群の内発的動機づけと外的調整は5年次から6年次に低下し、同一視的調整と取り入れ的調整が有意に上昇していた(F(1,259)= 50.04, p < .001, η_p^2 = .16; F(1,259) = 108.52, p = .002, η_p^2 = .30; F(1,259) = 32.03, p < .001, η_p^2 = .11; F(1,259) = 7.73, p = .006, η_p^2 = .03)。また、5年次には、異文化経験と内発的動機づけに有意差がみられ(F(2,259) = 5.24, p = .006, η_p^2 = .04)、海外滞在経験群と海外旅行経験群の内発的動機づけは海外経験なし群の内発的動機づけより有意に高かった（図4参照）。つまり、5年次は、異文化経験がある児童の内発的動機づけが、異文化経験がない児童の内発的動機づけよりも高い傾向がみられた。

図3.
群別における動機づけ平均値の年次比較

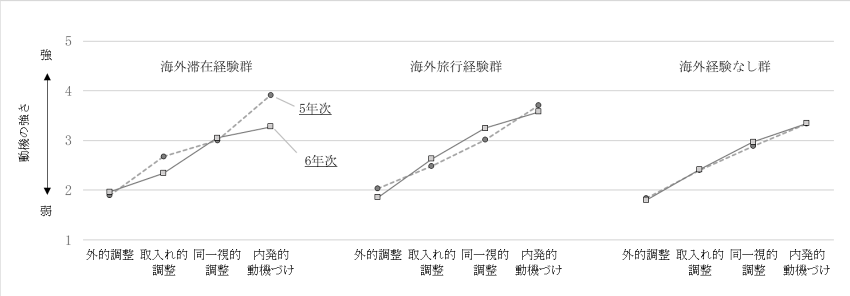
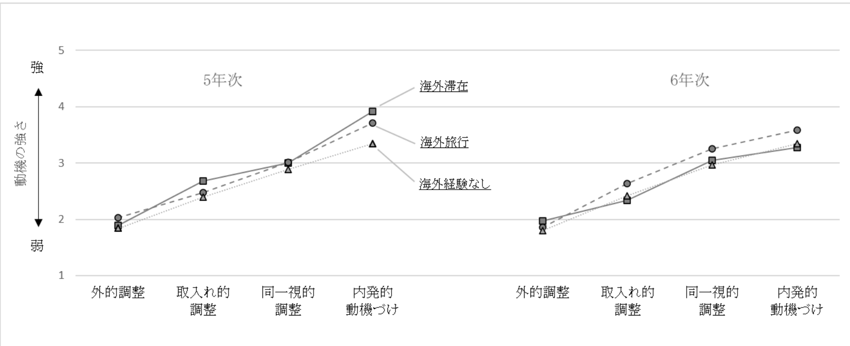


図4.
年次別における動機づけ平均値の群比較



注 海外滞在: 海外滞在経験群、海外旅行: 海外旅行経験群、海外経験なし: 海外経験なし群

最後に、児童の異文化経験による英語コミュニケーション能力と動機づけへの影響を具体的な経験例から検討するため、保護者の自由記述に対して大谷(2007)を参考にしたSCATによる分析を行った(付録参照)。

考察

本研究は、異文化経験を指標に、外国語活動におけるリスニングを基本とするコミュニケーション能力と動機づけについて、縦断的調査から検討を行った。その結果以下の5点が明らかになった。

第一に、異文化経験(海外滞在経験、海外旅行経験、海外経験なし)によって小学校英語における英語コミュニケーション能力の伸びは異ならないが、全体的に英語コミュニケーション能力は向上することが明らかになった。つまり、5年次から6年次の伸びは、海外経験ではなく、学校における学習の影響が大きいと考えられ、小学校英語における英語コミュニケーション能力の向上に異文化経験による差はみられなかった。

一方で、海外滞在経験群の保護者からは、「帰国後の英語コミュニケーション能力の低下」が概念として抽出された。例えば以下のような記述があった。

> 「息子が2人とも現地校に通っていました。2人とも1か月くらい何も話さず友人や先生の会話を吸収した後、はじけたように英語を話しだしました。帰国後は家でも英語を話していましたが、今では家でも日本語になりました。英語をキープするまたはインプルーブする環境、場所が日本には少ないのと、(学費が)[6]高いのでなかなか難しいと感じています。」(海外滞在経験群)

> 「幼少期に2年間ベトナムでインターナショナル幼稚園に通ってましたが、現在はすっかり忘れています。が、ヒアリング力は身体で覚えているようです。外国人に対する抵抗はないようです。」(海外滞在経験群)

現地校やインターナショナルスクールに通い学習を英語や他の言語で受けてきた児童にとっては、環境要因は大きい。例えば、海外滞在経験群の英語コミュニケーション能力における平均値は5年次と6年次でほぼ変化がなかったが、標準偏差(*SD*)は広がっていた。つまり、保護者が不安視する能力の低下は個人差が大きいと考えられる。塾など学校外の影響も考えられるが、海外滞在中に培ったリテラシー能力による個人差もあるため(Tomiyama, 2009)、この差については慎重に扱うべきであろう。一方で、海外滞在経験群の英語コミュニケーション能力が極端に下がることはなく、全群において英語コミュニケーション能力の向上がみられることは学校教育が過去の経験より影響力が強いことを示唆すると考えられた。

第二に、異文化経験(海外滞在経験)は、英語コミュニケーション能力を高めることが明らかになった。具体的には、海外滞在経験群の英語テスト(英検ジュニア・シルバー)の結果は、他の群と比較して有意に高い値を示していた。先行研究から、英語圏における海外滞在経験が2年程度になると、英語コミュニケーション能力に問題がなくなると指摘されてきたが(Cummins, 1982/2001; 箕浦, 2006;中島, 2016)、本研究は、平均2年半の英語圏以外も含む海外滞在経験群のコミュニケーション能力が、海外旅行経験群や海外経験なし群と比較して高いことがデータに基づいて明らかになった。また、保護者からも上述の「帰国後のコミュニケーション能力の低下」の概念とともに「海外滞在時の英語コミュニケーション能力の向上」が抽出された。

この結果は、異文化経験ではなく、海外滞在経験群の保護者の教育への関心が高いことに起因する可能性も考えられる。しかし、英語テストの結果は、5年次から6年次に群間の差がなく向上していた。家庭環境による学力差は、学年を経ることに広がることを考えると(中西, 2017)、5年次から6年次に群間のテスト結果の差が開くようであれば、保護者の教育方針の影響と解釈できる。しかし、群間のテスト結果の差

は、5年次から6年次に広がらなかった。つまり、海外滞在経験群の高い成績の保持は、保護者の教育への関心に起因するものではない可能性が高いと考えられた。

加えて、海外旅行経験群(5年次M = 80.32, 6年次M = 83.89)、海外経験なし群(5年次M = 80.12, 6年次M = 83.24)のテスト結果もバトラー・武内(2006b)の6541名を対象とした調査結果(5年生M = 73.82, 6年生M = 76.97)と比較してかなり高かった。海外滞在経験群がいることで英語使用をイメージしやすく、学校全体の英語コミュニケーション能力が引き上げられるのかもしれない。もしくは、英語特区の指定を受けた1年次からの外国語活動の効果である可能性もある。この環境による学習効果については、本研究の目的から外れるため、今後別途さらなる検証が求められよう。

第三に、異文化経験群（海外滞在経験群・海外旅行経験群）の内発的動機づけは、5年次から6年次にかけて減退するが、外発的動機づけが向上することが明らかになった。内発的動機づけが6年次に低い結果は、学年比較を行った先行研究が6年生は最も低い内発的動機づけを有していたという指摘とも一致する（Carreira, 2006a, 2006b; Carreira, 2011; 林原, 2013; Nishida, 2015）。また、保護者からも「内発的動機づけの保持の難しさ」という概念が抽出された。

> 「海外に行った後は、英語が話せるようになりたいと言う。が、長続きしない。」（海外旅行経験群）

異文化経験群（海外滞在経験群、海外旅行経験群）の6年次の内発的動機づけは高いが（滞在M = 3.28; 旅行M = 3.58）、学習者自身のなかでは5年次から6年次に低下する。林原（2013）が指摘するように、外国語学習への慣れによって内発的動機づけが低下したのかもしれない。ただし、異文化経験が5年次から6年次に同一視的調整を向上させている結果と同時に解釈すると、異文化経験が児童の発達を促進していると受け取ることができる。例えば、この傾向は、児童期に内発的動機づけを有しながら学んでいると将来の目標が明確化され、高学年に同一視的調整の向上に繋がるという指摘と一致する(櫻井, 2017)。保護者からは「外国人の友達との会話の希望」という将来性を含む概念が抽出された。

> 「毎回行くと会う友達（カナダ人）ともっと話せたら楽しいのになと言うようになった。」（海外旅行経験群）

つまり、異文化経験は、内発的動機づけが低下しても同一視的調整を高めることによって、動機づけの成長を強化させると考えられた。

異文化経験の影響は、統制的動機づけ（取り入れ的調整・外的調整）においても確認された。まず、海外旅行経験群の取り入れ的調整が向上した。高学年は優越欲求が芽生える時期であることから（櫻井, 2017）、海外旅行経験群の取り入れ的調整が向上するのも理解できる。とくに、海外旅行経験群の内発的動機づけは、5年次に海外滞在経験群と似た傾向が確認されたが、英語テスト結果については海外滞在経験群と比較すると有意に低かった。自己決定理論に基づいて動機づけが学業成果に先行すると考えれば、海外旅行経験群が人と比べて頑張るという動機づけが芽生えるのも理解に難くない。海外旅行経験群の保護者から「くやしさ」という他者の能力と自分の能力との比較による動機づけが抽出された。

「名前を聞かれすぐ答えられなかったのが、くやしかったようです。」（海外旅行経験群）

「就学前にカナダに旅行で行ったとき、周囲の人やアナウンスで流れる英語が理解できず、「言葉を理解できないことがくやしい」と言っていた。（訪問し滞在させていただいた友人が英語も日本語も話せたため）そのため、英語の塾の勉強に力を入れている。」(海外旅行経験群)

この「くやしさ」という概念は海外滞在経験群の保護者の回答からは見られなかった。一般的に、他者との比較における動機づけは、取り入れ的調整に分類され統制的と扱われるが、この悔しかった経験が原動力となり、英語学習に取り組むことは、他者を意識して努力するといった成長に繋がる肯定的な行動と言える。海外旅行経験群は、同一視的調整とともにこの取り入れ的調整を向上させていたため、異文化経験（海外旅行）は子どもの動機づけの幅を広げることに役立っていると考えられた。

海外滞在経験群の外的調整は5年次から6年次に向上し、海外旅行経験群の外的調整は5年次から6年次に減退することが明らかになった。このことは、海外滞在経験群は、外部からの要求に応じる学習動機が5年次から6年次に強くなり、海外旅行経験群は弱くなることを示している。海外滞在経験群の保護者からは「英語コミュニケーション能力の向上と帰国後の低下」に加えて「帰国後の保護者の努力」が抽出された。つまり、外的調整への5年次から6年次の影響は異文化経験以外の要因も大きいと考えられた。

「年長から小2の時期に海外のインターナショナルスクールに入っていたため、基本的な英語力はついたと思いますが、現在週1回40分の個人レッスンのみで３年経過しますが、やはり話す力の衰えは避けられないところが問題です。」（海外滞在経験群）

この活動に対して、海外旅行経験群の保護者からは主に英語学習に対する「保護者の目標」が述べられていた。

「私が全く英語が話せないので、視野を広げる意味でも英語は習わせてあげたいと思った。」（海外旅行経験群）

つまり、外的調整は統制的な動機づけであるため、視野を広げるといった目標ではなく、週に40分の英会話スクールの設定といった具体的に児童の行動を統制した場合に高まると考えられる。外的調整は中学校受験を考えるなど6年次に一時的に高い場合は良いが、継続すると児童が学習理由を見失う可能性もある。帰国後は、児童の内発的動機づけとのバランスを考えながら、保護者は塾や家庭学習を設定することが求められよう。

海外経験のない群には、5年次から6年次に動機づけの変化はなかった。この結果は、学年により動機づけが低下すると指摘する横断的調査の結果と矛盾するが、縦断的調査の結果を支持する（Nishida, 2015）。調査を行った学校は異文化経験を持つ児童の数が国内経験のみの児童の数より多い環境を持った公立小学校であった。異文化経験を有する児童と比較すると、異文化経験がない児童の動機づけは、5年次

には低かったが、学校は海外経験を有する友達と交流する場所となっていた可能性がある。例えば、教員からも異文化経験のある児童には「海外の生活の様子を話してもらったり、日本との違いを話してもらったりすることで、知らないこと（本やネットでは出てこないこと）を知ることができる。」というコメントがあった。さらに、この結果は林原（2013）の外国語活動と国際交流の連携が動機づけの学年差をなくすという指摘や、日本の国際小学校における先行研究（Tanaka & Kutsuki, 2018）において、日本語母語児童の内発的動機づけが中学年から高学年にかけて一定であった結果とも一致する。一般的には、学年を経ることに低下する傾向がみられる内発的動機づけは、新しい知的好奇心が刺激される海外経験の疑似体験が得られる環境において低下しないと結論づけられる。

第四に、異文化経験による内発的動機づけへの効果が確認された。内発的動機づけは、5年次には異文化経験のある児童（海外滞在経験群、海外旅行経験群）が異文化経験のない児童（海外経験なし群）と比較して高く、保護者からも「英語使用による達成感」という概念が抽出された。

> 「一人でハンバーガーを買いに行かせました。行くまではド緊張していましたが、買って戻ってからは「また買いに行きたい！」と自信につながりました。あらゆる人種にふれて日本人としてどこが違うのか？と考える（文化について等）ようになりました。」（海外旅行経験群）

英語を使って何かを成し得た体験をすると、内発的動機づけが上がる行動の変化がみられるのだろう。5年次の内発的動機づけは高く（滞在M = 3.92; 旅行M = 3.71）、児童は楽しんで英語を学んでいることが分かる。一方で、5年次における3群の同一視的調整、取り入れ的調整、外的調整に差はなかった。

第五に、保護者からみた小学生の異文化経験による英語コミュニケーション能力と動機づけの具体例からは、7つの概念「海外滞在時の英語コミュニケーション能力の向上」と「帰国後の英語コミュニケーション能力の低下」（英語コミュニケーション能力）、「英語使用による達成感と内発的動機づけの保持の難しさ」（内発的動機づけ）、「外国人の友達との会話の希望」（同一視的調整）、「くやしさ」（取り入れ的調整）、「帰国後の保護者の努力」と「保護者の目標」（外的調整）が抽出された。異文化経験は、英語使用による達成感から内発的動機づけを向上させる一方で、その保持や向上は難しく、帰国後に児童は同一視的調整や取り入れ的調整を高めながら英語学習を継続していた。外発的動機づけが高まることは発達の観点からも問題ではないが、英語コミュニケーション能力の低下を感じたり、内発的動機づけの保持が困難であると感じたりする状況は、内発的動機づけが結果に先行することで健全な学びに繋がると考える自己決定理論から検討すると改善の余地がある。保護者の具体例からは、児童に達成感を持たせたり、くやしさを乗り越え、外国人の友達との会話に繋げたりする教育的介入が求められていることが明らかになった。

教育的示唆

本研究結果から教育的示唆は3点挙げられる。まず、内発的動機づけの保持は難しいため、定期的な行事の設定が求められる。具体的には、小学校英語において異文化経験が感じられる活動をカリキュラムや課外活動に組み込むと動機づけの向上に

効果がある。福岡からフェリーに乗って行ける韓国など海外への修学旅行も考えられるが、国内における英語キャンプにより英語使用を可視化することで動機づけの幅を広げることが可能となる。例えば、小学生、中学生、高校生を対象として琵琶湖の学習船に乗り外国語指導助手と1泊2日にわたり英語宿泊を体験する「イングリッシュキャンプ on うみのこ」（滋賀県教育委員会, 2019）が挙げられる。夏休みの外国語指導助手とのキャンプは、教育委員会との連携が不可分になるが、国内における環境の変化を伴う学習としては貴重な経験となろう。異文化経験に基づく動機づけの向上は、学習指導要領にある「生涯にわたって継続して外国語習得に取り組もうとするといった態度」の育成を促進する可能性がある（文部科学省, 2018, p. 74）。また、オンラインを通した小学校同士の交流も一案である。本研究から、英語圏・非英語圏両者を含む異文化経験が動機づけの幅を広げること（例、同一視的調整、取り入れ的調整）が明らかになったため、時差の少ない近隣諸国の小学校とのオンライン交流も実践的学習になると考えられる。

さらに、授業には知的好奇心が刺激される展開が求められる。知的好奇心が刺激される活動として、言語活動には海外に行った際に子どもが遭遇する状況を入れるとよい。例えば、海外旅行経験から英語使用による達成感を児童が有していたため、海外において大人が子どもに尋ねそうな質問について答えられるようにしておくことが有効である。名前、年齢、滞在期間、どこに観光に行ったのか、どの観光先が好きか、などが挙げられる。また、ファーストフード店において、ハンバーガーなどを注文し、相手の質問や説明（例えば、単品かセットか、ドリンクは何がいいのか、店内で食べるのか持ち帰りか、合計金額はいくらか）を聞きとり、応答するといった小学生の行動を想定した言語活動が求められる。学習指導要領にもあるように、外国語学習の目的がコミュニケーションであるならば、国際理解とともに、ニーズに合った実践的な指導も求められる(Oga-Baldwin et al., 2017)。

最後に、クラス形態は、レベル別ではなく様々な児童を混ぜ、児童の経験を活かすことが推奨できる。異文化経験のある児童の知識をスタート地点に、ある地域の興味深い食べ物を英語で描写して、国内の類似する食べ物と比較するなど、国内外にとらわれない児童の多様な経験・知識を共同で活用する言語活動が、知的好奇心を刺激し、学年による内発的動機づけの減退を止めることに繋がる可能性がある。さらに、自分しか知らない知識を説明することは授業参加を促し、説明を追加するといった「配慮」（文部科学省, 2018)の必要性を体験させる機会にもなる。児童の経験を活かすクラス形態は、英語コミュニケーション能力の向上にさらに磨きをかけることになるだろう。

本研究の限界

本研究の限界は2点ある。まず、英語テストによる英語力の測定である。本研究では、公立小学校3校を対象として異文化経験の有無による比較研究を行うために、平均的な児童の能力を想定した英語テスト（英検ジュニア・シルバー）を採用した。データからは5年次の海外滞在経験群のテスト結果に天井効果が認められたため、異なるテストを実施すると、異なる結果がみられた可能性がある。ただし、高度なテストであると小学生全体の英語コミュニケーション能力の測定が難しくなるというジレンマが生じる。この状況は国際化が進む公立小学校において今後課題になる事案であ

る。全国的な英語テストを作成する場合は偏差値ベースの評価を採用するなど配慮が必要であろう。

また、本研究は、異文化経験の影響を内発的動機づけ、外発的動機づけから調べようと試みたが、5年次から6年次への外的調整の変化は、帰国後に保護者が設定する塾などの異文化経験以外の要因が大きいことが明らかになった。そのため、5年次から6年次における異文化経験の影響は、内発的動機づけ、同一視的調整、取り入れ的調整を中心に解釈を行った。今後は学校外学習を精査することで、外的調整も含んだ異文化経験の英語学習への影響をより深く明らかにできよう。

結論

本研究は、異文化経験（海外滞在経験、海外旅行経験、海外経験なし）による英語コミュニケーション能力と英語学習に対する動機づけへの影響を縦断的調査から明らかにした。本研究から、海外滞在経験は英語コミュニケーション能力と内発的動機づけ両者を向上させ、海外旅行経験は内発的動機づけを向上させるが、内発的動機づけのみへの影響は長く続かないことが明らかになった。具体的には、海外滞在経験群の英語コミュニケーション能力は常に高い一方、5年次に高かった異文化経験群（海外滞在経験群・海外旅行経験群）の内発的動機づけは6年次には低下し、異文化経験なし群（海外経験なし群）と差がなくなっていた。しかしながら、外発的動機づけも加味した動機づけの全体的傾向から、異文化経験は、内発的動機づけを向上させることを基盤に、6年次には、同一視的調整を向上させ、複数の動機づけを高めることにより、動機づけを強化すると考えられた。今後は、児童同士の相互作用から、自らの能力に伸長を感じる体験的な指導が必要であろう。多様な経験を有する児童が増えると予想される公立小学校において、児童が共に学び合い、実際の英語使用を想定できる環境を授業内外で提供する包括的な英語教育が求められる。

注

1. これらの先行研究は到着時の年齢を統一したものではないが、海外滞在先における言語習得研究は、児童の海外移住時期が多様であるため、到着時の年齢と習得期間を基準にすると、調査時の年齢がそろわず、調査時の年齢と習得期間を基準にすると、到着時の年齢がそろわないジレンマがある（バトラー, 2015）。そのため、到着時または調査時のいずれかの年齢を基準にした量的研究、または個人を対象とした質的研究に限られる。
2. 質的研究におけるコーディングは、テクストを生成的にコーディングし、理論化へ進む（大谷, 2019）。しかし、本研究は、混合研究のため「あらかじめ決められたコード群からコードを付す標準化コーディング」(大谷, 2019, p. 41) を採用した。
3. 自己決定理論の調整は連続体であると指摘されるように(Ryan & Deci, 2002)、隣り合う調整は実社会では重なる部分がある。具体的には、人の心には必ずしも明確な境界線があるわけではない。Tanaka and Kutsuki(2018)が指摘するように、空にかかる虹のように、自己決定理論はそれぞれの調整に異なる（特）色がありながらも連続体であるため、理論に基づいてより近い構成概念に分類、または両方に分類することが妥当と判断した。

4. αは5年次と6年次の値の記述である。
5. rは5年次と6年次の値の記述である。
6. 調査者が説明を追加した。

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付録

保護者の記述に対するSCATによる分析例

テクスト	テクスト中の注目すべき語句	テクスト中の語句の言い換え	左を説明するようなテクスト外の概念	テーマ・構成概念
息子が2人とも現地校に通っていました。2人とも1か月くらい何も話さず友人や先生の会話を吸収した後、はじけたように英語を話しだしました。帰国後は家でも英語を話していましたが、今では家でも日本語になりました。英語をキープするまたはインプルーブする環境、場所が日本には少ないのと、高いのでなかなか難しいと感じています。	現地校、何も話さず、会話を吸収、はじけたように英語を話す、帰国後は家でも英語、今では家でも日本語、英語をキープする、インプルーブする環境、場所が日本には少ないのと高いのでなかなか難しい	外国の学校、会話力、向上、帰国後、保持、困難	海外滞在時の英語コミュニケーション能力の向上、帰国後の英語コミュニケーション能力の低下	英語コミュニケーション能力
幼少期に2年間ベトナムでインターナショナル幼稚園に通ってましたが、現在はすっかり忘れています。が、ヒアリング力は身体で覚えているようです。外国人に対する抵抗はないようです。	幼少期、インターナショナル幼稚園、現在はすっかり忘れています、ヒアリング力	外国の学校、忘却、外国人への抵抗がないぐらいの聞く力	帰国後の英語コミュニケーション能力の低下	英語コミュニケーション能力

海外に行った後は、英語が話せるようになりたいと言う。が、長続きしない。	海外、英語が話せるようになりたいと言う、長続きしない	自発的な英語学習(目標設定)、継続、困難	内発的動機づけの保持の難しさ	内発的動機づけ
毎回行くと会う友達(カナダ人)ともっと話せたら楽しいのになと言うようになった。	毎回行くと会う、友達、もっと話せたら楽しい	友達、英会話、将来性	外国人の友達との会話の希望	同一視的調整
名前を聞かれすぐ答えられなかったのが、くやしかったようです。	名前、すぐ答えられなかった、くやしかった	能力の限界、葛藤	くやしさ	取り入れ的調整
就学前にカナダに旅行で行ったとき、周囲の人やアナウンスで流れる英語が理解できず、「言葉を理解できないことがくやしい」と言っていた。(訪問し滞在させていただいた友人が英語も日本語も話せたため)そのため、英語の塾の勉強に力を入れている。	就学前、アナウンス、理解できず、くやしい、勉強に力を入れている	能力の限界、他者との比較、葛藤、学習に対する努力	くやしさ	取り入れ的調整
年長から小2の時期に海外のインターナショナルスクールに入っていたため、基本的な英語力はついたと思いますが、現在週1回４０分の個人レッスンのみで３年経過しますが、やはり話す力の衰えは避けられないところが問題です。	年長から小2、海外のインターナショナルスクール、基本的な英語力、週1回40分の個人レッスン、話す力の衰え	外国の学校、基礎的な英語力、保護者の努力、話す力の低下、悩み	海外滞在時の英語コミュニケーション能力の向上と帰国後の低下、帰国後の保護者の努力	英語コミュニケーション能力、外的調整
私が全く英語が話せないので、視野を広げる意味でも英語は習わせてあげたいと思った。	私が全く英語が話せない、視野を広げる、英語は習わせてあげたい	保護者、話す力、視野、教育方針	保護者の目標	外的調整
一人でハンバーガーを買いに行かせました。行くまではド緊張していましたが、買って戻ってからは「また買いに行きたい！」と自信につながりました。あらゆる人種にふれて日本人としてどこが違うのか?と考える(文化について等)ようになりました。	ハンバーガーを買いに、行くまではド緊張、自信に繋がりました、あらゆる人種に触れて日本人としてどこが違うのか?と考える	経験(英語使用)、英語コミュニケーションへの自信、異文化理解	英語使用による達成感	内発的動機け

フィードバックによる学術的社会化―EAP授業における教師のポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックの会話分析

Socializing Students into Academics Through Feedback—Conversation Analysis of Teacher's Post-performance Feedback to EAP Classroom Presentation

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学術目的のための英語 (English for academic purposes: EAP) 授業を担当する教師は、アカデミック・プレゼンテーションなどでの学生のパフォーマンスに対して、どのようなフィードバックを与えることで学習者の学術世界への社会化を促進できるのか。この問いに具体的な回答を行うことでより良いEAP授業の実践に貢献することを本研究の目的とし、日本の２つの大学における185のEAP授業を撮影したビデオデータを対象に、エスノメソドロジー的会話分析を用いて分析を行った。結果、学生たちの不適切なパフォーマンスを再現し、そこからその問題源を体験させるという相互行為手続きを取ることによって、教師のポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックは学生の学術世界への社会化を促す媒介となる、ということが分かった。EAP授業において教師は、学術世界での専門家として学生のパフォーマンスの問題とその問題を見極めることができる能力、さらにその専門家としての見方を体験させられる相互行為能力が必要である。

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In classes such as English for Academic Purposes (EAP) wherein the pedagogical focus is on knowledge and competence required in academic settings such as academic presentation, what kind of feedback should teachers give to students about their performance to socialize them into becoming academics? Studies investigating students' perceptions about the teacher's post-performance feedback support the necessity of the dialogical process for students to understand the teacher's feedback and to utilize it for their next performance. However, very few studies in the context of higher education have been conducted to examine what constitutes effective dialogic feedback, or how teachers and students actually achieve a mutual understanding of the point of feedback in classroom interaction. Meanwhile, ethnomethodological conversation analytic (EMCA) research on instruction from a professional to a novice member of a community explicated the interactional process on how the point of a teacher's post-performance feedback is understood. The interactional feedback practices performed by the professionals such as a senior archeologist or a master of Japanese calligraphy described in those EMCA studies indicate that a professional's post-performance feedback can develop a member's competence necessary for his or her socialization into a particular domain of cultural activity.

EAP is aimed at socializing students into the culture of academic research (de Chazal, 2014). So, appropriating the EMCA perspective of instruction from professional to novice in a community to investigate teacher's post-performance feedback in the EAP classroom will give insight into what and how teachers should give feedback to students about their performance. Therefore, the aim of this study is to explicate teachers' post-performance feedback practices given for students' academic presentations in EAP classrooms through the microanalysis of actual EAP classroom feedback practices from an EMCA perspective. The data used for this study were based on the video corpus of 185 post-performance feedback interactions in EAP classrooms of a national university and a private university in Japan.

Microanalyses of teacher feedback on student presentations in EAP classes at Japanese universities suggested that making the students personally experience the trouble source of their presentations makes the teacher's feedback a catalyst in the academic socialization of the students. In the case where the trouble source of a student's problem in his presentation was his or her lack of understanding of the audience's perspective, the physical representability of the audience viewpoint allowed the teacher to reenact how she and the audience found the problem and its cause. The teacher's feedback was composed of replaying the problem, switching the student's perspective from that of the presenter to the audience, collecting the actual audience's agreement to her interpretation, and showing the exchange between her and the audience member to the target student. Through the step-by-step feedback practice to make the target student personally experience the trouble-source, the teacher put the student into a sequential position where he or she was normatively required to display how the demonstrated issue was treated. The real challenge is how to make the trouble source of the students' mistakes evident when it is about an abstract idea, such as a lack of understanding about why a clear statement of the purpose is essential to a presentation. In such a case, the teacher's feedback practice involves students in a type of puzzle-solution sequence. First, the teacher presents out-of-context talk to the students to make them confused; after the talk, the teacher enacts what the confused students might have thought while they were told an out-of-context talk and this works as a solution to the puzzle. The puzzle-solution sequence is a way of making experientially accessible to the students the importance of abstract norms such as making the aim of the presentation explicit. The lived experience becomes a catalyst for students' academic socialization by constructing a link between the goal behavior (i.e., correct performance) and the students, who had lacked the insight into the importance of the goal behavior, which was the trouble source of the issue with their presentations.

The findings of this study further show that the analytic method used in this study, EMCA, is a promising way of representing the effective interactional feedback practices in detail. Of course, the results of this study do not represent the entirety of post-performance feedback practices used by teachers engaged in EAP classrooms. Future studies should examine a variety of teachers' post-performance feedback practices in EAP or ESP (English for Specific Purposes) classrooms so that a knowledge base of pedagogically meaningful feedback practices is developed and made available for the language teachers today to rely on when they teach classes where the educational focus is not only the linguistic aspects of the target language, but the content or academic/professional competencies.

Keywords: post-performance feedback, English for Academic Purposes, professional vision, engagement, conversation analysis

授業の中で学習者にフィードバックを与えること、つまり学習の過程あるいは結果に対して評価や指導を行いさらなる学習を促すこと（Taras，2013参照）は、英語教師の仕事の中で日常的に行われていることである。例えば、学習者のアウトプットに誤りがあることを指摘する訂正フィードバックは、教育活動の重要な部分を占めていると言えるだろう (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2017, p. ix)。しかしながら、今日、特に大学で教鞭をとる英語教師に求められているフィードバックは、以前と比べて複雑なものとなっているのではないだろうか。現在の大学英語プログラムでは、目標言語である英語の言語的特徴だけではなく、研究発表や論文執筆などの学術場面で必要となる知識や能力を教育対象 (de Chazal, 2014) とする学術目的のための英語 (English for academic purposes: EAP) 授業が開講されることも珍しいことではない。そういった授業ではパフォーマンス型課題、例えばアカデミック・プレゼンテーションでの学生のパフォーマンスに対して、教師がフィードバックを与えることは当然のことである。そうしたパフォーマンス型課題での学生のパフォーマンスに対して、学生のパフォーマンス終了後（例えば８分間のプレゼンテーション終了後）に学生のパフォーマンス改善を目指してなされる教師からの働きかけを「ポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバック」と呼ぶ。そして、ポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックでは、発表構成などの言語を超えた学術的側面に関するフィードバックがなされることも少なくない

(Nassaji, 2015参照)。では、学生のパフォーマンスに対してどのような種類のフィードバックを、どのような方法で与えることで、学生の学術的知識や能力を伸ばすことができるのだろうか。EAPの目的は学習者を学術世界の規範や物の見方、振舞い方を身につけさせ社会化することにあるため (de Chazal, 2014, p. 16)、これらの問いへの回答はEAP授業の教育価値を伸ばすために重要だと考えられる。しかし、管見の限り、英語教育研究において上記の問いに回答したものは見当たらない。

本研究はこの空隙を埋め、より良いEAP授業の実践に貢献することを目的としたものである。本研究課題はEAP授業で用いられることの多いアカデミック・プレゼンテーション課題に対する教師のポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックを研究対象とし、実際のEAP授業から採集した事例を相互行為の視座から直接的に分析することで、学術世界への学生の社会化を促すことのできる教師のフィードバック手法を明らかにする。以下ではまず、先行研究に対する視野を語学教育から教育学全般でのポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバック研究にまで広げ、さらに相互行為での行為の成し方を研究対象とする社会学であるエスノメソドロジー的会話分析による専門家の指導研究まで概観する。そうすることで、先行研究の知見から本研究が具体的に解明すべき課題及び採用すべき分析手法を明確にする。次に本研究が用いるデータの説明を行い、EAP授業での学生に対して教師が口頭で与えるポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバック場面の詳細な分析を提示する。英語教師がEAP授業でのポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックにおいて用いるべきフィードバック手続きとその教育的価値の考察、そしてこれからの教師のポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバック研究への示唆をまとめることで、本研究を締めくくる。

先行研究

教育学全般にまで視野を広げ、ポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックに対する先行研究を見渡すと、フィードバックと学生の学術的能力との関係は、近年の高等教育研究において特に注目を集めているトピックであることがわかる (Steen-Utheim & Hopfenbeck, 2019参照)。インタビューやアンケート調査に基づくこれまでの高等教育研究からは、教師からのフィードバックが学生の学術能力の成長を促す動力源であることが示唆されている (Hattie, 1999) と同時に、どのような内容を織り込んでも、一方通行のフィードバックは教育効果が低く、時には逆効果となることも明らかとなっている (Carless, 2013; Ferguson, 2011; Steen-Utheim & Hopfenbeck, 2019; Weaver, 2006)。つまり、学生はフィードバックの要点を教師が意図した通りに理解するとは限らず、不明瞭なフィードバックを受けた経験は学習者の学習動機づけを損なうことがある、と報告されている。その上で、この10年間に行われた教師からのポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックに対する学生の認識を対象とした高等教育研究は、学生が教師のフィードバックを理解し次のパフォーマンスに活用できるようになるためには、教師と学生の双方がフィードバックの意義を交渉し共有するという「対話」が必要であると主張している (Carless, 2013; Steen-Utheim & Hopfenbeck, 2019)。しかしながら、そうした高等教育研究においても、「フィードバックに対する解釈、その意義、それを受けてどのようにすべきか、ということが共有、交渉、そして明瞭化されるやり取り」であり、「学問における質と水準について学習者が触れる機会を与えるもの」(Carless, 2013, p. 113、筆者訳) とされる「対話的フィードバック」が、実際どのように構築されるのか、または教師と学生が相互行為の中でどのようにフィードバックの要点の理解を共有す

るのか、ということは解明されていない。そうしたことを明らかにする糸口は、人々が相互行為を通じてどのように共通理解を組み立てているのかを解明する社会学、エスノメソドロジー的会話分析における専門家の指導に関する研究に見ることができる。

専門家の指導に関するエスノメソドロジー的会話分析研究は、「専門家の見方」(Professional vision: Goodwin, 1994) を相互行為の中で学習者に理解させることが、専門家が学習者を社会化させるために行う教育である、と捉えている。「専門家の見方」とは、特定の領域・共同体での活動を行う場面で、その場面から得られる情報を、適切な活動を行うために必要なものとそうでないものとに構造的に判別し、利用できる能力を指す (Goodwin, 2007)。例えば、てんぷら料理店の料理人が油に浮かぶ泡と揚げ音から判断をして、天ぷらを適切なタイミングで油から引き上げることは、「専門家の見方」の１つと言えるだろう。エスノメソドロジー的会話分析研究はこれまで、そうした特定の領域・共同体での専門家の見方に学習者が至るために、専門家がどのような手続きで相互行為を組み立てているのかを明らかにしてきている (Evans, 2017; Evans & Lindwall, 2020; Evans & Raynolds, 2016; Goodwin, 1994, 2003, 2007, 2013; Nishizaka, 2006, 2014, 2020など)。Goodwin (1994) が取り上げた、考古学の発掘現場での教授による大学院生への指導場面では、教授が発掘現場の土に線を引いて精査すべき場所を大学院生に示すということを行っている。こうした線引きによる強調は一見どこにでもある土を「知覚領域」へと転換させ、線が引かれた場所とそうでない場所という視覚的差異として専門家である教授の視点を再現することで、発掘に必要な能力を大学院生に視覚的に理解させている。このように、専門家の見方を現場で直に体験することが、考古学という特定領域での発掘という活動において適切に振舞うことに不可欠であることをGoodwin (1994) は示している。

ポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックとしての専門家の指導を対象としたエスノメソドロジー的会話分析研究としてNishizaka (2020) は、書道教室での生徒が書いた書に対する師範の批評という相互行為場面を分析している。そこでは、師範はまず、生徒の書のどの部分が拙いのかを口頭で説明し、次にどういった筆運びが問題を招いたのかを指の動きと姿勢で再現して見せていることが分かった。師範が批判を始める際、生徒の筆運び自体は視覚的に知覚可能なものとしては存在せず、その結果としての拙い書が存在するのみである。そうした視覚的に見えないものを指の動きと姿勢というマルチモーダルな手段で具現化して見せることを通して、書道における「専門家の見方」を体験させることが、生徒が問題を修正してより良い書を書けるようになるために不可欠であると示されている。Evansによるスポーツコーチングとしてのポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックに対する一連の研究も、選手が不適切なパフォーマンスを修正し参加しているスポーツで求められる能力を伸ばすため、コーチが不適切なパフォーマンスの原因を可視化し、コーチという専門家の見方を選手と共有することの重要性を支持している (Evans, 2017; Evans & Lindwall, 2020; Evans & Raynolds, 2016)。Evans & Raynolds (2016) はバスケットボールチームのコーチと重量挙げ選手のコーチが行うポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックを調査し、いずれのスポーツのコーチも選手が行った練習でのパフォーマンスの何が不適切で何がそのトラブルを引き起こしたのかを身体的または視覚的に理解させていることを明らかにしている。コーチが選手とともに実演を通して再現すること、または練習を撮影したビデオを見せながら説明を加えることで、バスケットボールではパスの受け方の失敗が不適切な位置取りに起

因することや、重量挙げではバーの持ち上げの失敗の原因としての不適切なバーの握り方があることなど、不適切なパフォーマンスの問題源を選手が理解できるようになることを明らかにしている。

数学などの一般科目での指導で行われることの多い口頭での説明よりも、実際に見せることが、学ぶ側が特定の領域・共同体での活動を適切に行うために必要な規範の習得になる、とEvans & Raynolds (2016) は主張している (p. 551)。これまで見てきたスポーツコーチングや書道教室での師範による批評といった専門家によるポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックでは、拙いパス交換や拙い書といった不適切なパフォーマンスの原因は、指導を受ける学習者側には視覚的に知覚できるものとしてフィードバック時点では用意されていない。だからこそ、一方的な説明ではなく、指導する専門家が学習者と共に相互行為を通して問題源を可視化し、その問題源への理解を学習者と共有することがパフォーマンスへの改善のために必要となる、ということである。これは先に概括した高等教育研究の言うところの「対話」によるフィードバックの理解の共有と見ることができるだろう。本研究が対象とするEAP授業におけるアカデミック・プレゼンテーション課題は、エスノメソドロジー的会話分析が対象としてきた書道やパス交換、発掘といった身体化された活動 (embodied activity) と同様に、視覚情報や非言語情報、テクスト構造、PowerPointなどのテクノロジー、そして相互行為スキルを体系的に組織して行う、複雑に身体化された活動である (Rendle-Short, 2006)。それは単に記憶している英単語の量や個々の単語の発音の明瞭性を増やせば、適切なパフォーマンスができるということにはならないものである。専門家である教師が学習者の行ったアカデミック・プレゼンテーションに対して、何が適切・不適切なパフォーマンスであると判断し、また何がそのパフォーマンスにつながる要因と見ているのか。そして不適切なパフォーマンスを改善するために、どのように問題源を可視化して学習者と「専門家の見方」を共有し、学習者の学術社会への社会化を促進しているのか。これらを解明することが、パフォーマンス課題が用いられることの多いEAP授業のより良い実践に帰結すると言える。そしてエスノメソドロジー的会話分析によって、実際のEAP授業でのポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックという相互行為場面を、インタビューやアンケートと行った間接的な調査ではなく直接的に分析することで、これらの問いへの答えが得られるだろう。

データ及び分析手法

前節での先行研究の考察を受け、日本の国立大学及び私立大学の必修科目として提供されているEAP授業から採集した、185件のビデオ撮影された教師のポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックを本研究に用いるデータとする。関西地方の国立大学の１年次生配当EAP授業が131件で、授業開始から終了まで撮影されている。そして関西の私立大学の１年次生配当と２年次生配当のEAP授業が54件で、こちらも授業開始から終了まで撮影されている。いずれの大学のEAP授業でも、ほとんど全ての学生は日本人で、数人の学生のみが日本語の流暢な海外からの留学生だった。授業の狙いは、１年次生配当のEAP授業では個々の学生単位で、２年次生配当の授業では４、５人からなるグループ単位で、それぞれの興味関心に基づく独自の研究プロジェクトを組ませ、それを遂行させることで、学生の学術能力を高めることである。授業では毎回プロジェクトの内容として、英語論文などを通して新たに調べたことを各学生がPowerPointなどにまとめてプレゼンテーションを行うことが課題となっている。グル

ープで１つのプロジェクトを行う２年生対象の授業でも、一人ひとりの学生がグループプロジェクトのために個別に調査を行い、プレゼンテーションを行うこととなっていた。授業の進め方として、個々人が独自のプロジェクトをしている授業の場合、各授業で最初の30分を使って４人前後のグループを組み、そこで各自のプロジェクト成果を発表し議論した後、各グループから1名がクラス全体に向けて再度自分のプロジェクト成果を発表し、発表者とクラス全体で質疑応答を行う、ということが行われていた。グループ単位でのプロジェクトを行っている場合は、そのグループ内で個々人が担当する部分で調べてきたことを、やはり授業最初の30分を使って発表し議論した後、残り時間でグループの代表者が、自分が調べたことを中心にクラス全体に向けて発表し、発表者とクラス全体で質疑応答を行う、ということが行われていた。どの授業であっても、教師からのポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックは、グループから出てきた全ての発表者がクラス全体へのプレゼンテーションを終えた後の時間、授業最後の約10分間に行われていた。15回の授業回のうち、数回は中間・期末試験としての中間発表、最終発表に充てられており、その際の教師からのフィードバックも授業の最後の約10分間に行われていた。２年生対象授業の場合には、各グループのプレゼンテーションの合間にフィードバックが行われることもあった。いずれの授業であっても、教師からのフィードバックの主な内容は学生のプレゼンテーションの内容や構成、デリバリーについてであった。この教師からの学生のアカデミック・プレゼンテーションに対するポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバック場面 (時間量としては合計約1100分) が、本研究の分析対象である。

先述の通り、分析手法はエスノメソドロジー的会話分析の手法を採用する。エスノメソドロジー的会話分析は、相互行為の参与者がお互いの発話や非言語の振舞いをどのように解釈し、どのような意味を構築しているのかを明らかにすることで、特定の集団・文化における規範の解明を目指した学問である (Bilmes, 1988, 2014)。エスノメソドロジー的会話分析による相互行為データ分析は、参与者の言語的振舞い (発話) と非言語的振舞いを詳細に検討することを要求する。それぞれの発話や非言語の振舞いが、相互行為の特定の位置でどのようにフォーマットされ、どのように応答されるかを詳細に見ることで、体系的にそして客観的に参与者のお互いに対する発話または振舞いへの解釈を明らかにすることができるからである (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008 参照)。エスノメソドロジー的会話分析は一種の構造分析であり、相互行為を隣接ペアなどの規範によって成り立つ１つのシステムとして捉え、発話や非言語の振舞いはそのシステムの中の部品であると考える (Bilmes, 1988)。従って、相互行為の中の一つひとつの発話や振舞いの意味は、その周囲、特に前後に連鎖している発話や振舞いとの関係から、参与者はもちろん、分析を行う研究者にとっても認識可能になる。例として、「夏休み子ども科学電話相談」という生放送で行われるラジオ番組から抜粋した、次のやり取り話を見ていただきたい (抜粋の文字化記号に関しては付録を参照)。これは、「なぜなぜ人の命は１つなのか」という子どもが寄せた質問に対して、大学教授をしている専門家が回答として自身の見解を述べた後の場面で、会話は電話を介して行われている。抜粋の６行目に、2.8秒の音声のない状態がある。これを子供の沈黙として捉えることができるのは、直前の１～４行目で、先生が依頼という行為を行っているからである。依頼は隣接ペアの１つ目として、直後に承諾か拒否のいずれかが依頼を受けた相手から行われることを適切とする。我々が相互行為に対して有している規範的理解はさらに、依頼が行われた場合、承諾であれば躊躇なく、拒否であれば遅れて行われるということを教えてくれる (Kasper & Wagner, 2011; Hutchby

& Wooffitt, 2008などを参照)。こうした規範に基づいた解釈の妥当性はこの2.8秒の音声のない状態の直後の７行目で、先生が７行目で「だめ?」と子供に尋ねることによって裏付けられる。これによって先生自らが１～４行目の自身の発話を依頼として捉え、2.8秒の音声のない状態を子供の沈黙であり自身の依頼に対して拒否を示しているものとして捉えていることが公に見える形で示されている。

抜粋１ (NHK夏休み子ども科学相談)

1	先生:	.h だから, .hh (.) <だれとも違って自分にしかない> .h
2		だけど .hh (0.3) たったひとつだ (0.2) っていう風に
3		<思って:> .hh (0.9) ちからくんが .hh 自分の命を と:っても
4		大切にしてくださいな: .hh <そういうもの[だか　　]らこそ.>
5	子供:	[º↓ふ:んº]
6		(2.8)
7	先生:	だめ?

別の視点として、５行目の子どもの「º↓ふ:んº」を「してくださいな:」という先生の依頼への１つの応答として捉えることもできるだろう。これを承諾あるいは拒否とした場合、「依頼―承諾」あるいは「依頼―拒否」の隣接ペアが成立しており、６行目の2.8秒の間は、先生が沈黙している、と見ることができる。例えば、この抜粋の直後に子どもが「ううん、さっき言ったから待ってた」と答えた場合は、子どもは６行目の音声のない状態を先生の沈黙として捉えていた、という解釈も妥当になるだろう。または、４行目での発話「だからこそ.」を言い差し発話として子どもが捉え、まだ先生のターンが続いている、として応答しなかった、という可能性もある。[1] その場合でも、子どもがこの抜粋以降で「まだ話続いていると思った」のような発話を行うことで、そういった解釈が妥当になるだろう。いずれの場合でも、参与者が相互行為内の発話や振舞い、音声のない状態をどのように解釈したか、ということは、後の参与者の発話・振舞いから回顧的に示されるものである。このように、エスノメソドロジー的会話分析では相互行為に対する研究者の規範的理解を手がかりに、参与者自身が公に見える形で示している発話や非言語の振舞いの解釈を裏付けとすることで、妥当性のある分析を実践する (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974)。エスノメソドロジー的会話分析が相互行為を詳細に書き起こした抜粋を用いるのは、参与者が発話や沈黙を含む非言語の振舞いからお互い (参与者同士) に見せている理解を見落とさないようにするためであり、分析の信頼性を確保する仕掛けであるとも言える。[2]

相互行為というシステムの中での参与者の発話、非言語動作の意味をデータ自身から読み解いていくエスノメソドロジー的会話分析では、「なぜ、 それが、いま」という疑問を各発話、非言語動作に問いかけ、その回答を考えることで分析を進めていく (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973)。具体的には、参与者が相互行為のどの局面でどのような発話をどのように行うことで、どういった規範を有効とし、その発話や振舞いの後での応答としてどのような発話や振舞いを適切なものとしているのか、を分析する。または対象とする発話や振舞いが先になされている発話や振舞いにどのように応答し、応答先の発話や振舞いをどういった意味を持つものとして前景化しているのか、を明

らかにする。そこから明らかになるものは相互行為の特定のやり方あるいは手続きとして、例えば先の抜粋では、6行目の子供の非言語の振舞いを、沈黙による依頼拒否のほのめかし、と記述することができる。7行目で受け手である先生が「だめ?」という発話によってそのように捉えていることが示すとおり、相互行為では先立つ発話や非言語の振舞いの受け手の解釈が見えるものとして示されるため、後から質問紙や面接調査によって参与者に発話や非言語の振舞いの意味を尋ねる必要はない。例えば先の抜粋の直後に子どもが「だめじゃないです」と依頼拒否の意図を否定したとしても、受け手にとってそのように捉えることができたという時点で、沈黙による依頼拒否のほのめかし、という相互行為のやり方・手続きがなされたこと、そしてそういったやり方が現実に機能するものとして存在する事実には何ら影響がない。

本研究では、EAP授業でのアカデミック・プレゼンテーションに対して英語教師が行うポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックとして学生の学術能力を伸ばすやり方、学術世界への社会化を促進する手続きを、実際にフィードバックを受けている学生の応答を基点として明らかにしていく。エスノメソドロジー的会話分析で明らかになった相互行為のやり方・手続きは、そのやり方・手続き自体を用いることができる可能性という意味での一般化可能性を持つ (Peräkylä, 1997)。つまり、無作為抽出した複数のEAP授業でどの英語教師であっても特定の内容のポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックは特定のやり方で行う、といった意味での一般化可能性ではなく、同様のポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックを行う英語教師であれば誰でも用いることができるという、手続きの可能性としての一般化可能性である。エスノメソドロジー的会話分析は、人工的な実験によるものではなく、現実のものとして行われた相互行為の中で参与者が意味を構築・解釈するために用いている方法を記述することで、研究対象の相互行為 (本研究ではEAP授業における英語教師の学生に対するポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバック) への理解を深める。こうした解釈学的アプローチは、法則制定的アプローチによる研究とは異なり結果として何かを予測することはない (Markee, 1994)。しかし、特定の種類の相互行為において、その参与者がそこで何か特定の行為を成すために用いている方法の詳細な手順を明らかにすることは、同じ分類となる相互行為の参与者がそこで何か特定の行為を成すために用いることができる方法のレパートリーを増やすことへとつながる (Okada, 2010, 2015)。本研究で明らかにするEAP授業における英語教師のポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバック手続きも他の英語授業でも使用できる可能性があるという意味で、本研究は英語教師教育へ貢献するものである。

分析

EAP授業における学生のアカデミック・プレゼンテーションに対するポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックデータ185件のうち、本節では英語教師が用いた、専門家の見方を学生と共有し、学生の学術世界への社会化を相互行為の中で達成していた相互行為手続き2つについて、それぞれ事例を1件ずつ取り上げ、詳細な分析を行う。これは前節で述べたとおり、相互行為の中での1つの現実の出来事として学生が学術社会の規範について主体性 (agency) を発揮して学習している事例をつぶさにみることで、何が学習という行為の達成につながったのかを明らかにし、EAP授業における教師教育につながる研究としてより示唆に富んだものとするためである。以下では、視覚認知させることが可能な問題源に対するポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバック手続

き、そして視覚認知させることが不可能な問題源に対する手続きについて、それぞれ１件の抜粋と分析を示す。前者に関する抜粋は、私立大学でのEAP授業を撮影したデータ54件のうちの１つからで、その授業内で行われた約7分のポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバック中の1分30秒弱の部分である。後者に関する抜粋は、国立大学でのEAP授業を撮影した131件の中の授業の１つからで、5分間の教師のポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバック中の約1分20秒の部分である。前述の通り、本研究はエスノメソドロジー的会話分析研究であり、これらの抜粋に対してサンプルとしてではなく、現実の１つとして解釈学的にアプローチする。抜粋は参与者が行った微細な事柄も出来る限り全て書き起こし、参与者が公に示してる視点から相互行為の展開を見ていくために、Jefferson (2004) による発話の文字化方法とMondada (2018) による振舞い・身体動作の文字化方法を参考にして書き起こしている (附録参照)。

視覚認知可能な問題源に対するポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバック

本項では、学生のパフォーマンスにおける問題点に対して、教師が相互行為の規範を用いてその問題の源を視覚的に再現し、学生に視覚的に体験させることで、パフォーマンス改善への志向を得ることを達成しているポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックを取り上げ、その組み立て方を詳細な分析によって明らかにする。抜粋２はその１つの好例 (perspicuous example) である。この抜粋は、４人一組のグループで行った研究プロジェクトの中間発表を終えた学生たちの１人に対して、教師がフィードバックを行っている場面であり、抜粋の相互行為の直前まで教師は他の３人の学生へのフィードバックを行っていた。教師はこの抜粋で、学生の物理的立ち位置をアレンジすることによって、発表者側からではなくオーディエンス側からの新しい視点で彼の不適切なパフォーマンスの問題源を捉えさせ、専門家の見方を学生と共有することを達成している。図１が示すように、学生たちが発表で使ったスライド資料 (PowerPoint) は教室前面のスクリーンに表示されたままとなっている。なお、プライバシー保護のために本来のビデオ映像にイラスト化処理を施しており、図１～４内のYはヨウイチを、図２～４のTは教師を示している。

抜粋２ (T＝教師、Y＝学生)

01 T: #で, えっと ヨウイチくん は: >一番-< アニメーションの使い方うまかったと
fig #図1

02 思います.

03 (0.5)

04 T: で .hh >ひとつ残念< だったのは: ちょっとスライド +戻ってもらって:,

y +立ち上がる-->

05 +(0.3) +(1.1) +(0.5)

y - ->+手を伸ばし机のポインタを取る--+席に戻る-+スクリーンに向き直る-->

06 +(2.6) *(0.9) *(0.3) *

y -->+スライドを巻き戻す-->

t *スクリーン正面まで移動*立ち止まる*

07 T: *↓う:ん* 次- *>うん< * +#ここか.

t *頷く--* *二度頷く*

y -->+

fig #図2

08 T: ちょっと- *うん 出てきて: * * ここまで. *

t *Yを手招きする* *自分の隣の位置を指差す*

09 +(0.7) +(4.8) +(0.2)

y +席を立つ--+Tの隣まで移動する-+振り返ってスクリーンを見る-->((15行目まで継続))

10 T: *なにが↑残↓念そう?

t *ヨウイチの顔を見る-->((14行目まで継続))

y -->

11 (0.3)

t: -->

y -->

12 Y: 緑色に白文字.

t -->

y -->

13 T: %そう!% *%あれ:

t ((10行目からの視線))-->*スクリーンの方を見る-->

t %頷く% %スクリーンを指差す-->

y -->

14 T: 見えない*%よね,

t -->%

t -->*Tの右側に学生に顔を向ける-->((16行目まで継続))

y -->

15 T: たぶん見えΦな+#い: Φ

t -->

t Φ二度頷くΦ

y ((９行目からの視線))-->+Tの右側の学生の方を向く-->

fig #図3

16 T: <この辺*から+だ¢と> ¢#

t ((14行目からの視線))-->*スクリーンを見る-->>

y - - >+スクリーンの方を向く-->>

y ¢二度大きく頷く¢

fig #図4

抜粋２は教師が学生を自身のフィードバックの対象に指名するところから始まる。１行目、教師はヨウイチを対象として指名し、２行目にかけて彼の発表の特定のポイントを高く評価する。３行目で一度間を空け、さらに４行目で「で」と発言を続けることを明示しながらも吸気音を挟むといった躊躇を示すことで学生のフェイスを侵害することを緩和しつつ (Kasper, 2006参照)、ヨウイチの発表に対して否定的なコメントをすることを「>ひとつ残念< だったのは:」と予告する (４行目)。しかし、教師はここで自身が残念と捉えたことを速やかに明らかにするのではなく、ヨウイチに発表で使用したスライド資料を巻き戻すことを要求する。教師の「スライド」という言葉を聞いた時点で、ヨウイチは立ち上がって自身の前にある机に手を伸ばし、その上に乗っているポインタを取り席に戻ってスクリーンに向き直り、そこに映されているスライドを巻き戻し始める (４～６行目の非言語動作)。教師はヨウイチが巻き戻し始めた後でオーディエンス側のスクリーンに正対する位置に移動する (６行目の非言語動作)。的確なタイミングで教師の指示に応じた (あるいは先んじた) 振舞いをすることで、ヨウイチはここまでに否定的な内容を含んだコメントが為される教師のフィードバックという教育活動に対して、進んで関与 (engage) する姿勢を相互行為的に示している (Jacknick, 2021)。７行目で教師はコメント対象となるスライドを特定するが、そこで彼女は、自分の目から見て何が残念だったのかを口頭で説明するのではなく、ヨウイチを彼女の隣の位置にまで来るように発言と手招きによって要求する (８行目)。ヨウイチは教師の要求を受けて席を立ち、教師の隣まで来た時点で振り返ってスクリーンを見る (９行目の非言語動作)。教師の顔を見たりうつむいたりして指示を待つのではなく、教師が「残念」と評した問題を抱えたスライドが映るスクリーンを見ることで、ヨウイチは自身の発表の問題に向き合う主体的な姿勢を相互行為として示している。そして教師はヨウイチが隣に来てスクリーンに正対した時点で、「なにが残-念そう?」と彼に尋ねることで、ヨウイチ自身に不適切なものを探すように仕向ける (10行目)。短い間 (10行目) を挟み、ヨウイチは彼が現在スクリーンに映っているスライドにおいて使った配色である「緑色に白文字.」と答える。教師はヨウイチの回答に強く同意した上で、スクリーンを指差しながら自身の右側に座っている学生に顔を向け、「見えないよね,」と尋ねる (13～14行目)。「よね」という終助詞を用いることで、教師は質問先の学生に肯定を回答することを強く求めるデザインを行っている (Hayano, 2011参照)。続けて、「たぶん見えない: <この辺からだと>」と自身の右側の学生を見ながら発言を続け、二度頷き、さらにスクリーンの方を見る (15～16行目)。「見えない」から「たぶん見えない」と緩和表現を加えて主張を弱めることで教師は、「スライドのデザインが問題でオーディエンス側から文字が見えない」という自身の見解に対して、オーディエンス側の学生が同意しやすくしているように見える (Pomerantz, 1984参照)。ここで回答者となった学生はカメラのフレーム外に座っており、その反応は不明である。しかし、「見えない」ことが教師にだけ当てはまる問題ではなく、オーディエンス側の学生も含んだ問題であることが教師の発言とオーディエンス側の学生を見ながらの二度の頷くという動作からオーディエンスの学生、ヨウイチ、そして教室内の全学生に対して公に示されている。これらの教師とオーディエンス側の学生との一連のやり取りと教師の説明は、オーディエンス側の視点を再現するものである。プレゼンテーションにおいて「残念だった」と見なされた問題点を特定した学生に対して、オーディエンス側の視点を否定的な形で描出し眼前で示すことで、その視点の欠如が彼の不適切なパフォーマンスの原因であり、この視点を有することが同じ問題を繰り返さないために学ぶべき規範、ということを示唆している。そして不適切であること、つまり否定的評価 (「見えない」)

を張本人である学生に眼前で提示することで、彼に自身の不適切な振舞いに対して応答することを義務付けている (Okada, 2019参照)。これらの教師の発言と非言語の振舞いに対して、ヨウイチは教師が否定的評価を言い切る前から、彼女が「見えないよね,」と尋ねていた学生の方に顔を向け、教師が視線をスクリーンに向けたことに合わせてスクリーンに向き直し、大きく頷く (16行目での非言語動作)。ヨウイチの視線の動きは教師の視線の動きをなぞっており (Belhiah, 2013; Lerner, 2002)、その上での二度の大きな頷きは、教師が彼に再現して見せたもの、つまり彼のプレゼンテーションに対するオーディエンス側の視点を、身体的シャドーイング (bodily shadowing) を通して学習していることを示しているものと言える (Sunakwa, 2018参照)。

抜粋２では、教師は、例えば４行目の「ひとつ残念だったのは」に続けて、何が問題で何がその原因かを口頭で説明することもできただろうが、彼女はその方法を選択しなかった。代わりに今しがた分析した相互行為方法として教師は、学生の物理的立ち位置を入れ替えることによって不適切な配色という問題とオーディエンスの視点の欠如という問題源を体験させ、どのように教師が学生のプレゼンテーションを見て評価したのかを理解させる方法を選択した。それは次の３つからなる相互行為手続きである。(1) 依頼を通して問題を含んだスライドに巻き戻させることで、学生の不適切なパフォーマンスを視覚的に再演する、(2) 依頼を通して学生の立ち位置を発表者側からオーディエンス側へと物理的に切り替えることで、不適切なパフォーマンスの問題源を視覚的に体験可能な状況を設定する、そして (3) オーディエンスへの質問と視線の動きによって、学生の目の前でオーディエンス側の視点を再現し、その視点が欠けていることに対してそれが不適切な振舞いという否定的評価を直接ぶつける、という一連の手続きである。これらの手続きによって教師は、「オーディエンスからの見え方とそれを基準にして適切なものとそうでないものを判断できる」という自身の専門家としての視点を学生と共有することを達成している。つまり学生に、「プレゼンテーションを行う際には、オーディエンスの視点を基準にした規範に志向することが適切である」ということを体験させているのである。前々節で見た専門家の指導に関するエスノメソドロジー的会話分析研究が示すように、学生が抜粋２の最後に見せたオーディエンス側の視点への志向は、彼が次に適切なプレゼンテーションを行うための、つまり学術社会への社会化の一歩となると言えるだろう。

視覚認知不可能な問題源に対するポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバック

本項では、学生の拙いパフォーマンスの問題源が視覚的に体験させることが不可能なものである場合に、ポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックをどのように組み立てることで教師が学生に問題源を体験させ、そしてパフォーマンス改善へと志向させるのか、を取り上げる。そのポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックの手続きは、(1) フィードバック場面という文脈においても相互行為の流れからも外れたと見ることが適切となる行為を教師が成すことで、(2) その外れた行為、つまり謎の行為の解釈に学生の注意が向かうように仕掛けをし、そして (3) その行為への解釈を種明かし的に指導することによって「謎解き」を体験させるという「謎解き連鎖」(puzzle-solution sequence: Antaki & Widdicombe, 1998; Schenkein, 1978) によるものである。

アカデミック・プレゼンテーションとして適切なパフォーマンスを行うために学生が備えておくべき規範には、プレゼンテーションの構成やストーリー作りといった、物理

的に知覚可能なものではないもの、より抽象的なものも存在する。抜粋２は、EAP授業においてポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックによって教師は学生の学術世界への社会化を促すことができるということを示しているが、それは不適切なパフォーマンスの問題源と教師が捉えるものを、学生と物理的に共有することが可能な場合のやり方である。本研究が採集したEAP授業データでは、物理的に見せることのできない規範が学生の不適切なパフォーマンスの問題源と教師が考えた場合、教師は口頭での説明によってフィードバックを行うことが多い傾向にあった。[3]しかし、それは前々節で概観した近年の高等教育研究が指摘している、教師による一方通行のフィードバックという、教育効果の低いものとなっている可能性があると考えることもできる (Carless, 2013; Ferguson, 2011; Steen-Utheim & Hopfenbeck, 2019; Weaver, 2006)。教師の口頭説明によるフィードバックは、相互行為の参与枠組み (Goffman, 1981; Goodwin, 1990) として、教師が一方的に話をし、学生に「教師の話を聞いていること」を反応として示すだけの受け身な聞き手とすることを適切としてしまう。この参与枠組みでは、学生が教師の見せているものを追いかけて同調しそして理解を示した抜粋２でのやり取りのように、「専門家の見方」を体験させることで単に話を聞いている以上の理解を学生から引き出すような反応を適切とすること、学生の専門家の見方に対する志向を相互行為の前面に持ってきて可視化することは難しい。物理的に再現できない問題源を体験させ、聞いている以上の理解を得ていたポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックのやり方として採集データ内に見られたものは、「謎解き連鎖」を利用したものだった。次の抜粋３はその好例となる。抜粋３は抜粋２とは別大学の別教師によるEAP授業によるもので、中間発表として15人の学生がそれぞれの独自の研究プロジェクトを基にした発表を行った後に学生全体に対してフィードバックを行っている場面である。抜粋内の図５は相互行為開始時点の教室の状況を示したもので、教師は教室後方の右側に立ってフィードバックを行っているが、ほぼカメラから見切れた状態でいる。大半の学生は、配布された評価票に、各発表者の良かったところや改善できるところを相互評価として書き込むため、机の上の評価票に視線を向けたり実際に書き込んだりしており、５人の学生とTAだけが教師の方を向いて座っている状態である。なお、この５人は今回中間発表をしていなかった学生たちである。評価票の提出はこの授業の翌々週となっており、この授業終了時までに書くことは必須ではない。しかし、大半の学生は中間発表に対する教師からのフィードバックという教育活動よりも、提出物の記入という別の教育活動に従事することを優先している。図５～９内の〇は教師の方に向いている学生、△は机の上の評価票を見ている学生を示している。

抜粋３ (T＝教師、TA=ティーチングアシスタント、S1&2＝二人の学生、Ss＝多くの学生)

01 T: #ってわけで 目的をもうちょっとはっきり言う っていうことを考えてやってみると

fig #図 5

02 より (.) まとまると思います. だって (0.7) はっきり言って:: (.) あの::

03 僕 (.) 今日聞いた話 全部, あの::: (0.4) どの話とかどのトピックとかもう

04 ↓う:::ん ↑どっかで聞いたことがあるんですよね. この授業とかこの授業以外で,

05 だから ↑新しいことってはっきり言ってない

06 (.) #(0.2)

fig #図 6

07 T: ですけれども:: その上で:: そういった人たちに- 対しても:: (0.7) このために-

08 え:::っと こういう話があって:::, 何のためにこれをするのか, っていう

09 ストーリーを作って話す (0.4) っていう風にするために目的はしっかりと.

10 (0.3)

11 T: っていうようにしましょう.
12 (.) #(.)
fig #図 7

13 T: 目的なく話されても (0.2) んで何? (.3) ↓って感じでしょ.
14 あ例えば- (0.9) ガンダム (0.5) って知ってますか +%ガンダム.%+
s1 +頷く +
s2 %頷く %
15 T: 知って+%る?%+
s1 +頷く +
s2 %頷く%
16 T: ガンダムウイングっていう20年前くらいの作品があるんですけれどもね.=
17 5人: 主人公がいて (0.8) で::: 一話目でなんとね, (0.2) その (0.2) 主人公の
18 ヒイロユイ (0.4) っていうのの乗ってる機体が:: 大破するんですよね. >だから
19 ガンダムの< (.) 主人公の機体出てこないんです.
20 (.9)
21 T: で ↑いつ出てくるのかな:: と思ってたら <だいぶ経ってから:,> .hhh 敵に修理して
22 もらって出てくる. .hh んですけどれも:: 面白いんでぜひ見てください.
23 (0.3)
24 T: って言ったって:: (0.5) *今この時間 *何って
t *腕時計を見る--*顔を上げ学生の方を見る-->
25 £思ったでしょ[う この時間£*
t -->*
26 TA: [heheheheh
27 Ss: [huhuhuhuhuhuhuhuhuhu #

fig #図8

28 T: だ(h)か(h)ら £何のために話すのかっていうのをよく考えて£ (.) 言ってみて.

29 =↑あと一歩 あと一歩なんですみんな. あ ( )よくできてるんですその一歩だけ

30 できたら::だいぶ違うようになってくるんでやってみてください.

31 f(0.2)f#

ss f頷く f

fig #図 9

抜粋３の相互行為は、教師がこの直前まで学生に向かって話していた、研究プロジェクトとは目的が必要なものである、という話を助言という形でまとめるところから始まる （１～２行目)。しかし教師は助言に対する応答を待たずに発言を続け、学生の発表した内容は既知のことであり目新しさはなかった、と伝える （２～５行目)。しかし教師の学生の発表に対する否定的な発言、つまり不満はここでは言語的・非言語的反応を得ない （６行目)。図６が示すとおり、前を向いている学生も５人から変わっておらず、評価票に取り組んでいると思われる学生はそちらの教育活動を優先している。教師の方に向いてフィードバックという教育活動の方に従事していると考えられる５人も反応を示さないのは、抜粋２での対象学生に対する眼前での否定的評価の提示と異なり、具体的宛先を示さずに学生全体に対して不満を述べることで、どの学生がどのように応答すべきかを不明瞭なものとしたことによると考えられる。次に教師は再度ターンを取得し目的明示化の重要性を学生に訴える（７～９行目)。まず

７行目に「そういった人たちに-　対しても::」という発言で自分のような人は他にもいると一般化 (Bilmes, 2008) し、目的明示化の重要性を格上げした上で、「しっかりと.」と抑揚を下げて言い切ることで、フィードバックの１つの結びを作る (９行目)。続く0.3秒の間は、教師がここでフィードバックを終わりとして学生からの頷きなどの何らかの応答を待っていることを示すもの、あるいは言い切りの後であえて沈黙を作ることで、学生が教師の話に注目することを促してるものとも捉えることができる。いずれにせよ、評価票に取り組んでいる学生も教師の方を向いている学生も、顔を教師に向けることも頷きもしない　(10行目)。そして11行目で教師は「っていうようにしましょう.」と提案し学生からの応答を求める。だが学生全体に向けた教師からの指示に対しては、６行目と同様に学生からの明示的な応答は示されず、図７のとおり、教師の方を向いてフィードバックに参加していることを示す学生も増えないままである (12行目)。言葉や動作として明示されないだけで、学生たちが教師が訴えていることを聞いて理解している可能性もある。しかし、11行目での発言、そしてその後の教師の行為からは、フィードバックという教育活動に対して学生が身体や視線を向ける以上の形で参加することを求めていることが分かる。

自身が説いている目的明示化の重要性に対するこの相互行為内での応答の不在を解消すべく、教師は13行目でさらにターンを取り、「目的なく話されても (.2) んで何? (.3) ↓って感じでしょ.」と、学生が言いうる発話 (「んで何?」) を描出し (Park, 2018)、その発話の適切性を付加疑問によって学生に尋ねる。描出された発話の主　(Goffman, 1981)　として、教師が描出した発話が適切か否かを判断する権利を有する学生自身に確認を行うことで、教師は学生に強い応答義務を課していると言える　(Stevanovic & Peräkylä, 2014及びIshino & Okada, 2018参照)。このターンデザインにより教師は、同意の方に学生たちを誘導しながら、仮想された自身の声に同意するか否か、という規範的な反応を学生から引き出そうとしている。しかし14行目、学生の反応を得る前に、教師は「あ」という発話で自身の志向を変えたことを示し (Heritage, 1984)、「例えば」と何かを例示することを予告する。その上で彼は「ガンダム」を持ち出し、自身の前方の席で教師の方を向いている学生に、それを知っているか尋ねる。ガンダムというアニメ作品について、学生がこの授業回の中間発表で扱ったことはなく、どの学生のプロジェクトの題材にもなっていなかった。またアニメやガンダムの題材であるロボットや戦争といったことも同様にどの学生も扱っていなかった。従って、ガンダムというアニメは、この中間発表に対するフィードバックという文脈でも、これまでのこの授業の歴史という文脈でも、全く異質なものである。教師は前方の学生たちがガンダムを知っていることを14〜15行目で二度確認した後、ガンダムというアニメシリーズの１つ、ガンダムウイングという作品について、16行目から22行目にかけて語り、「ぜひ見てください」と勧めることで話を終える。続く23行目での0.3秒の間は、学生が沈黙を通して教師の推薦に否定を示しているというよりも、学生が文脈から外れた教師の行為を元の文脈に戻すような教師のターンが続くと解釈してそれを待っていることを示していると言えるだろう。実際に教師は24行目で改めてターンを取り、学生が沈黙していたと捉えるのではなく、「って言ったって::」とこれまでの自身の話に対して引用符で囲み説明を示唆する発話を行う。そして0.5秒の間を置いた後、腕時計を見る仕草を加えて「今この時間何って」と発言した上で学生の方を向き、「£思ったでしょう　この時間£」と笑いながら発言する。この24〜25行目の発言は教師の話に対して学生が持ちうる特定の評価スタンス (Du Bois, 2007) を示す応答を描出したものである。そして連鎖構造の中で、教師のこの発言は、ガンダムについて語るという解釈に困る行為、

つまり謎に対する解答となっている。笑いながら「思ったでしょう」と話すことで、教師の話は笑うべきものという評価スタンスを示し、実際にここまで前を向いていた５人の学生とTA、そしてこれまで下を向いていた他の５人の学生も教師の方を向いて笑うことで (26・27行目、及び図８参照)、同じスタンスを共有し教師と共感していることを示している。その上で教師は再度ターンを取り、「だから」とこれまでのやり取りの論理的帰結を予告した上で、パフォーマンスを改善するために目的を練って明示することを、「やってみてください」と再度勧める (28〜30行目)。この依頼の直後、カメラで捉えきれている範囲で14名の学生たちが教師の方を向いて頷くことで (図９)、依頼を受け止めたことを示している。

抜粋３では、アカデミック・プレゼンテーションに対して教師が示した専門家の見方を学生たちが学習したことが明確に示されている。「目的を明示化することが適切であり、そうでないものは不適切なものとして批判的に捉える」という学習対象が「謎」とその「解」によって体験として学生たちに落とし込まれている (Macbeth, 2000)。「例えば」と言いつつも突然に何の脈絡もないもの (ガンダム) を話題に持ち出しそれを語りそれを勧める、という行為は、23行目の沈黙が示すとおり受け手である学生たちにとって解答の提示が待たれる「謎」として捉えられる。通常、謎解き連鎖は受け手が謎の出題者に解答の提示を求めるパスの有無によって、解答を明かすまで謎を謎のまま語り続けることができるか否かが決まるが (Antaki & Widdicombe, 1998; Schenkein, 1978)、上記抜粋では「教師からのフィードバック」として括られた相互行為の文脈の中で「教師」という「役割」に紐づく話者交替の管理権 (Seedhouse, 2004参照) を行使し、明示的な学生のパスを得ずともターンを保持して謎を語り続けている。そして謎への解答 ――語られた話をどのように評価すべきか―― を単に提示するのではなく、学生の言いうる声を描出し、その声の主として描出されたスタンスに同意するのかしないのかを明らかにすることを義務付け、さらに付加疑問を用いることで、同意することが返答として期待されるようにデザインされている。こうして教師が組み立てた謎への解答に対して、教師と同じ情意表現である「笑い」を行うことにより、学生たちは教師と同等の体験を経て同じ視点を共有し、教師に共感していることを示す。教師と共に目的が不明な話に対しては「笑うべき、批判すべき」という評価スタンスを共有することは、教師と同様の専門家の見方を実践すること、つまり「専門家であることを行うこと」であり、社会化への一歩と言うことができるだろう (Gardner & Mushin, 2017参照)。教師は謎解き連鎖を通じて学生が体験したことを、28〜30行目で目的のない話を聞いた際の体験として一般化し (Bilmes, 2008)、目的を明示することを学生に勧めている。これに対する31行目での14名の学生たちの頷きは、彼らが教師の勧めの重要性を教師と同じように理解しているから、と捉えることもできるだろう。内容は理解せずに「勧める」という行為に対して規範として頷いただけという解釈も可能である。しかし、評価票への書き込みといった並行した教育活動が存在する中、改善案を勧めるという教師の行為に対して適切なタイミングで頷くことは、主体性を発揮し自ら進んでポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックという教育活動に従事しているということ、つまりこの授業の中で社会的行為として「学習」を実践していると言えるだろう (Jacknick, 2021及びKasper & Wagner, 2011参照)。また、この抜粋３の次の授業回でのポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックでは、TAが学生たちの発表について「先週先生が仰ってたような、なんで今その話を聞く人は聞いているんだろう、この話を聞かなきゃいけないんだろうな、っていうところをかなり意識してやってくれた」と述べ、教師はそれに対して「だからガンダムの話がよかったっていうことですよね」と

返し、学生たちに笑いが起こる、というやり取りが行われていた。このやり取りは抜粋３で教師が行った「ガンダムの話」が、笑うべき不適切なパフォーマンスの見本として学生と教師が共に参照することができる資源となっていること、そして教師が、学生たちは教師のポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックに参加し学習をしていた、と捉えていることを示すものである。ガンダムの話を笑えるような「目的明示化」に対する適切な志向が欠けていたことが、教師が捉える個々の学生の不適切なパフォーマンスの問題源であり、この視覚的に再現することのできない問題源を、抜粋３では教師が謎解き連鎖を通じて実際に体験させることで、学生にその重要性を学習させている。相互行為を通じて学習対象を示しそれを体験させ学習させること、つまり専門家の視点の実践そして専門家の視点の相互行為的共有を通して専門家への社会化の一歩を踏ませることは、「対話的フィードバック」の１つの実践方法と言えるだろう。

議論及び結論

本研究はEAP授業の中で、英語教師による学生へのポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックがどのように組み立てられることで彼らの学術世界への社会化が促進されるのかを明らかにすることを目指したものである。相互行為としてのポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックが、学生の社会化の一歩となる「適切なパフォーマンスと不適切なものを見分けること」を学習させる装置としてどう機能するのか解明するため、分析手法[4]としてエスノメソドロジー的会話分析を採用し、日本の大学における実際のEAP授業でのポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックをデータとして分析した結果、次のことが分かった。それは、学生たちの不適切なパフォーマンスを再現し、そこからその問題源を体験させるように相互行為を組み立てることで、教師のポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックは学生の学術世界への社会化を促す媒介となりうる、ということである。

前節で詳細な分析を行った最初の事例 (抜粋２) では、教師は学生の不適切なパフォーマンスの問題とその問題源の物理的な利用可能性に志向し、それらを物理的に再現し学生に体験させるフィードバックを行っていた。オーディエンス側の視点の理解という物理的に再現可能な不適切なパフォーマンスの問題源は、教師が学生に何が不適切でなぜそれが問題なのかを、当の学生と共に再演することを可能にした。教師のポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックは、不適切なパフォーマンスの再現、発表者側からオーディエンス側への学生の位置入れ替え、当該学生のパフォーマンスに対するオーディエンス側とのやり取りによる眼前での否定的評価の提示、という一連の手続きで構成されていた。学生に対する依頼や学生の認識立ち位置の前景化、否定的評価に関する当事者性によって学生に適切な応答を義務付けることで、相互行為の連鎖の中で漸進的に、学生に問題と問題源を体験させることを成し遂げていたと言える。抜粋２での学生の最後の大きな頷きは、教師のポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックによって彼がオーディエンスの視点を認識したこと、つまり不適切なパフォーマンスの問題源を理解したことを示している。Goodwin (1994) では、考古学の教授が発掘現場の土に線を引いて示すことで、大学院生が何をどう見るべきなのかを認識できる知覚領域を作り出していたが、この抜粋２では、教師が学生の立ち位置を入れ替え、オーディエンス側の視点を見せることで、自身のパフォーマンスをどう見るべきかを認識するための知覚領域を作り出した、と言うことも出来るだろう。

次に分析対象とした事例 (抜粋３) では、身体的に再現不可能な、より抽象的な概

念が問題源として不適切なパフォーマンスを引き起こしていたと教師が捉えたものであった。問題源としての規範 (目的明示化の重要性) の欠如に対する口頭での学生全体に対する一方的な説明が学生からの明示的な理解を得られなかったことを受け、教師は謎解き連鎖を用いて問題源を体験させるように相互行為を組み立てていた。彼は、教師という役割に紐付いた話題管理権を活用し、脈絡のない話題を目的なく語るという行為を「謎」として提示することで、謎に対する解答を語ることそして学生がその解答を示すことを適切化していた。その上で、謎への解答を学生が理解し共感できるようにデザインすることで、謎として再現した学生のパフォーマンスにおける問題、目的のない話を語ることに対して教師と同等の見方を学生に体験させ、同じ視点を共有することを成し遂げていた。こうした実体験を通した後での「発表目的を明確にする」という教師からの勧めは学生からの理解を得ることに成功していた。ここでは、謎とその解答が、不適切なパフォーマンスをどう理解するのか、ということを学習するための装置として機能したと言えるだろう (Macbeth, 2000参照)。

１つ注意すべきことは、抜粋２と抜粋３での相互行為がなされた時点では教師も含めて誰も、学生が理解した規範を次のアカデミック・プレゼンテーションにおいて適切なパフォーマンスとして「実演」できるか否かは不明、ということである。実演とフィードバックが相互行為に織り交ぜられた教育場面、例えば美容師養成コースの授業や編み物教室などにおける指導では、講師からフィードバックの直後に適切なやり方でヘアデザインや編み方ができるかといった実演によって学生の理解が示されるが (Lindwall, Lymer & Greiffenhagen, 2015; Öhman, 2018)、今回見たような英語授業では通常、ポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックと次のパフォーマンスとの間の時空間的な隔たりがあることが一般的であり、それゆえ、フィードバックが実際に適切なパフォーマンスを行わせる変数として効果を持っているのかを検証するのは困難である (Lindwall, Lymer, & Greiffenhagen 2015参照)。この隔たりのため、例え不適切なパフォーマンスをしていた学生が適切なパフォーマンスをできたとしても、フィードバックから次のパフォーマンスまでの間にあった出来事、例えば自学自習などが変数として作用した可能性も排除できない。しかしながら、先の美容師養成コースや編み物教室での授業、そしてスポーツコーチングや書道教室などでのポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックに関するこれまでの研究 (cf., Evans & Raynolds, 2016; Nishizaka, 2020) が示す通り、専門家の目から見て、何がなぜ不適切なパフォーマンスなのかを体験を通して理解することは、学習者の専門領域での社会化の第一歩であることは間違いがない。前節での教師によるポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックは、高等教育研究が提唱している「対話」を通じてフィードバックの解釈の共有と意義の理解を目指すフィードバック (Carless, 2013; Steen-Utheim & Hopfenbeck, 2019) の相互行為による実践と言うことが出来るだろう。

対話的フィードバックが、一方通行のフィードバックによる学習者の動機付け低下への反省から提唱されたものであることを考えると、抜粋３の教師が用いたポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバック手続きは学生との関係構築 (Nguyen, 2007) の点からも示唆を与えるものだと言える。訂正フィードバックはフェイス侵害行為 (Brown & Levinson, 1987)であるため、学生の学習意欲低下を招く可能性がある (Shividko, 2021参照)。抜粋２では教師が不適切なパフォーマンスを行った学生を指名していたのに対し、抜粋３では教師はどの学生が不適切なパフォーマンスを行ったのかを明示していない。目的のない話を再演した際も、どの学生にも無関係な話とすることで、実際に目的を明示しないという不適切なパフォーマンスをした学生のフェイスを

表立って侵害することを避けている。さらに、教師が謎に対して提示した解答に対して教師と学生たちは笑いを共有しているが、この笑いも謎として語った目的のない話に対するもので、特定の学生の問題に対してではない。これらは相互行為の表面から訂正フィードバックの対象となる学生を隠すことで動機付けを下げる危険性を避けつつ、特定の学生を含んだ学生全体にフィードバックの意味と意義を共有させ、学術世界への社会化への道筋を歩ませる、対話的なフィードバック手法と言えるだろう。

最後に、今回の研究では言語的側面以外のポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックに焦点を絞ったため、英語教師としてよりもむしろ教師全般、あるいは学術世界での規範を理解している専門家としての見識が必要となるフィードバック場面を分析した。もちろん採集したEAP授業データ内にはより良い英語表現や認識可能な発音にする指導、語順や文法の訂正など、英語教師としてのフィードバックを行っている場面も存在している。しかし、学術世界での専門家として何が適切なパフォーマンスで何が不適切なものなのか、そしてそれらの理由・原因は何なのかを見分ける能力、さらにその専門家としての見方を体験させ学習が起こるように相互行為を組み立てる能力も、EAP授業を教える英語教師に必要であることは今回の分析で見た通りである。そして、相互行為として行われるフィードバック場面での具体的手続きとしてEAP授業で英語教師に求められる能力を知ることが、それらの能力を伸ばすための第一歩となるだろう。本研究が示したように、エスノメソドロジー的会話分析によるデータに基づいたボトムアップ型の研究は、その第一歩となるものである。もちろん、本研究で扱ったポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックの相互行為手法が、全てのEAP授業において英語教師が用いる学生の学術能力を伸ばすポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバック手法ということはない。これからの研究では、より多くのEAPまたESP (English for specific purposes) 授業における英語教師のポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックを相互行為の方法として分析、解明することで、教育的に有益なフィードバック実践の知識基盤が構築されていくことが望ましい。そうすることで、英語の言語的側面のみならず学術また専門的能力や内容に関する指導も授業の範疇とするこれからの英語教育に従事する教師がより良い授業を行っていくことにつながるだろう。

注

1. 「だからこそ.」は下降調のイントネーションで言い切られており、そのイントネーションの特徴からこの発話でもってターンが終了している、と先生のように捉えることは、不適切な見方ではない (ターンがどのように終了するかについては、Ford, Fox, & Thompson, 1996を参照)。
2. 相互行為の粗い書き起こしがどのように分析の妥当性を損なうかについては、Okada (2010) のpp. 1649-1650の議論を参照。
3. 185件の授業データの内、154件ではポスト・パフォーマンスフィードバックの中で教師からの一方的な口頭説明が用いられている場面があった。
4. エスノメソドロジー的会話分析はトップダウン的に理論をデータに押し付けて分析するものではなく、データ自体から意味を解き明かしていくという意味で理論を起点とした分析とは対極にあると言える。しかし、エスノメソドロジー的会話分析にも他の分析手法と同様に下敷きとなる固有の世界の見方 がある (Bilmes, 1988, 2014; Hughes & Sharrock, 2007参照)。従って、例えば社会文化理論や相互

行為仮説などの理論を証明するために単なる分析手法としてエスノメソドロジー的会話分析を用いることは不適切であり、注意が必要である (Kasper & Wagner, 2011参照)。

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付録 (文字化記号一覧)

(0.2)	0.2秒の音声のない状態
(1.0)	1秒の音声のない状態

(2.3)	2.3秒の音声のない状態
(.)	短い（1.9秒以下の）音声のない状態
=	途切れなく密着した発話
[	発話の重なりの開始
]	発話の重なりの終了（必ずしも示さなくても良い）
(word)	不明瞭な発話
(( ))	トランスクリプト作成者によるコメント・備考
-	言葉が不完全で途切れた状態
:	直前の音の引き伸ばし。コロンの数だけ引き伸ばされている
?	直前の発話の終了部分のイントネーションの上昇
.	直前の発話の終了部分のイントネーションの下降
,	直前の発話の終了部分のイントネーションの半上昇
↑	直後の発話部分の顕著なイントネーションの上昇
↓	直後の発話部分の顕著なイントネーションの下降
h	呼気音（hの数だけ呼気音が続く）
.h	吸気音（hの数だけ吸気音が続く。　「.」は最初のhの前のみにつける）
wo(h)d	発話部分の呼気を伴う（＝笑いながらの）産出
<u>under</u>	発話の強調
> <	周辺よりも速い発話
< >	周辺よりも遅い発話
£word£	笑い声で産出されている発話（囲まれた部分）
°word°	ささやき声で産出されている発話（囲まれた部分）
* *	発話あるいは音声のない状態の下に灰色で記述された動作の開始と終了時点　(参与者ごと、または同じ参与者の並行した動作ごとに異なる記号を使用)
	記述された動作の継続
-->	記述された動作の次の行までの継続
-->*	前行から継続している動作の終了
-->>	記述された動作の抜粋部分を超えた時点までの継続
#	静止画が撮られた時点
fig	静止画 (図)
a	記述された動作を行っている参与者 (小文字・斜体で示す)

Expositions

Language Education in the Era of Digital Technology

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As the use of digital technology continues to increase, the types of communicative competencies that are needed are also evolving. In this paper I focus on people born after 2000 (referred to as the “digital generation”) and propose that the purpose of language education is to assist learners to develop communicative competence for this new era of digital technology. I argue that language educators should use digital technology itself as a pedagogical tool while adapting it to learners’ own linguistic behaviors and cognitive styles. Furthermore, I argue that communicative competencies must be conceptualized broadly so that they can cover both verbal and nonverbal elements. Given the advantages and disadvantages of digital technology, the role that teachers and parents play is critical in helping students develop the communicative competencies needed by this new generation.

デジタル・テクノロジーの使用が高まるにつれ、デジタル時代に必要なコミュニケーション能力も変わりつつある。本論文では、2000年以降に生まれた子供たち（デジタル世代と呼ぶ）に焦点を当て、彼らがデジタル時代に必要なコミュニケーション能力を習得するための手助けすることに言語教育の目的があると提案する。そのためには、学習者の言語行動や認知スタイルを考慮しつつ、デジタル・テクノロジーを指導の手段にとして取り入れていくことが大切である。コミュニケーション能力も、言語要素と非言語要素の両方を加味した広義で柔軟なものとしてとらえる必要がある。デジタル・テクノロジーには利点も課題点もあることから、デジタル世代が必要なコミュニケーション能力を習得するために、教師や保護者が果たす役割は非常に重要である。

Keywords: children; communicative competence; digital generation; Information Communication Technology; young learners

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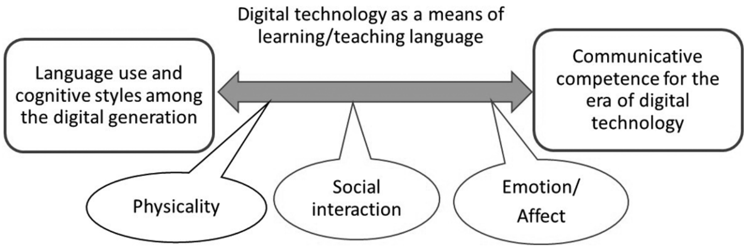
Advances in digital technology have drastically changed how language is used and, in turn, what counts as communicative competence in language learning. For example, reading used to be considered as an act of processing linguistic information from written texts. Nowadays, however, reading often requires processing multimodal texts that include nonlinguistic, audio, and visual information. Digital technology has also changed the way that people learn languages. In Japan, for example, thanks to a recent government policy—Global and Innovative Gateway for All (GIGA)—tablets are provided to all Grade 1 to 9 students (MEXT, 2021). As such, students and teachers are expected to use such digital technology, or Information Communication Technology (ICT)[1], for learning and teaching. Many rapid changes in language use through digital technology demand new approaches to language education and communication.

The aim of this paper is to discuss how language educators should envision language education in the era of digital technology; that is, *how can digital technology serve as a bridge between the ways that people learn and use languages, and how does digital technology affect people's view of communicative competence,* as illustrated in Figure 1. In this paper, therefore, I first illustrate how students currently use digital technology and discuss potential differences in preferred cognitive styles between the digital generations and previous generations. Next, I address three core elements of human language use—physicality (the roles of bodies), social interaction, and emotion/affect—that language educators should keep in mind when using digital technology for teaching and learning. Following my discussion of these core elements, I propose the concept of *communicative competence in the digital era,* and I offer some pedagogical suggestions to foster such competence.

Adolescents who grew up with digital technology have been referred to in various ways, including *digital natives, homo digitals, digital youth, generation Z, cyber citizens,* and *netizens* (Hockly, 2011). I use the term *digital generation* in this paper to refer to children and youth born after 2000. This generation (and particularly members of this generation in developed countries including Japan) are presumably familiar with digital technology.

Figure 1
Language Education in the Era of Digital Technology (adapted from Butler, 2021, p. 281)



Language Use and Cognitive Styles Among the Digital Generation

Because the digital generation mostly grew up with digital technology, these children and youth likely have unique linguistic behaviors and cognitive styles, including their preferred ways of information processing, and their use of cognitive strategies (Butler, 2021). Thus, to maximize the effect of language education for this population, we must understand their digital use and cognitive styles.

On average, the digital generation spends substantial time on screens. In Japan, the Information and Communication Policy Research Institute (ICPRI), a governmental agency, releases statistics on citizens' media use every year. According to the most recent report (ICPRI, 2021), Japanese teens preferred the Internet to TV (i.e., real-time TV watching). The most popular Internet activity in 2020 was watching videos, followed by using social media; Japanese teens spent an average of 90.2 and 72.3 minutes, respectively, on these activities each weekday—and these times increased during the COVID-19 pandemic. They regularly engaged in multitasking such as doing homework while listening to music and checking social media. Similar tendencies have been found in nearly all other developed countries (OECD, 2019a).

Twenty years ago, Prensky (2001) proposed that the generation of people who grew up with digital games—or what he called the *game generation*—may have different cognitive styles and preferred strategies compared to earlier generations. According to Prensky, the game generation is much faster at processing information and is skillful at processing multiple information inputs simultaneously. Graphics are not subordinate to text for this generation, unlike for previous generations. The game generation prefers to be connected to others, such as their peers. Prensky also suggested that members of the game generation are much quicker to master new technology and that they do not make a clear distinction between *play* and *work*. One can argue that Prensky's proposal oversimplified and perhaps even sensationalized children's attitudes and behaviors, but the idea of potential differences in cognitive style between the game generation and previous generations is worth considering.

Today, social media is a major communication tool for the digital generation. Compared with earlier generations, the digital generation is increasingly fond of using certain types of social networking services (SNS), such as YouTube, TikTok, and Instagram, that rely more heavily on videos and photos than on text (ICPRI, 2021). Their preference for graphics over texts may have become more prominent. They are also accustomed to always being connected to other people through SNS. For teens, social media remains a major source of news and other information. They prefer to use SNS because they can access information that *they want to know* (Watanabe, 2019), suggesting a possible danger of accessing information in a biased fashion. In doing so, they may miss the opportunity to access diverse views and counter perspectives. It is also concerning that students who spend greater time on SNS tend to pay less attention to the credibility of the information source and accept information less critically (Tsuzuki et al., 2019).

The language that is often used in SNS is called *text-speak* in English and *uchikotoba* in Japanese. Both text-speak and *uchikotoba* are creative (to make texting efficient) and playful languages, full of initialisms, blending, shortening, and substitutions. Although English text-speak tends to play with sounds, Japanese *uchikotoba* tends to play with letters and orthographies, reflecting their respective orthographic systems. Messages are shorter and simple in structure and often exchanged at the word and phrasal levels. Emoticons are also frequently used in SNS, along with text or in place of textual information. Language in SNS can be considered a visualization, with unique characteristics, of spoken language (Butler, 2021).

Concerns have been raised about the excessive use of SNS and the potentially negative influence such usage might have on children's physical and mental health (e.g., Hansen, 2020) as well as academic achievement (e.g., Arai, 2018). However, the impact of SNS use on the digital generation's text-based, traditional literacy development is inconclusive at this point. Empirical studies, mostly conducted on English text-speak in the context of first language (L1) development, have generally shown mixed results; it remains a matter of "Gr8 Db8" (Great Debate). When it comes to children, although long-term use of SNS tends to be correlated with lower literacy skills, the use of text-speak itself can lead to higher phonemic awareness, which in turn can contribute positively to literacy skills. Children with higher literacy skills tend to create and/or process text-speak more efficiently. It looks like there is a positive, spiral relationship between the use of text-speak and literacy development among English-speaking children (e.g., Coe & Oakhill, 2011). Potential positive effects on children's phonemic awareness may be largely due to the characteristics of English text-speak; one needs to have a sophisticated phonemic awareness to get the most out of text-speak. Little is known, however, about the impact of Japanese *uchikotoba* on the Japanese digital generation's literacy development. Considering the characteristics of *uchikotoba*, it might not be reasonable to expect it to have the same merits for literacy development that English text-speak has. In contrast to research on children's literacy, studies of college students tend to show either no or negative effects of SNS use on literacy, even in English (e.g., Rosen et al., 2010). This might be because one may need sufficient exposure to academic texts to develop high levels of literacy skills in academic contexts, but the relationship between the use of SNS and access to academic texts is unclear. Moreover, given that we are in the era of abundant digital technology, it is reasonable to question the validity of the traditional literacy measures that were used in these studies.

The digital generation's reading habits are also changing as more digital texts become available; they increasingly prefer to read on screen (Butler, 2021). Based on recent meta-analyses (e.g., Clinton, 2019; Singer & Alexander, 2017), the mode of reading makes a difference in comprehension, depending on conditions. For example, at least at this point, reading on paper has some advantages in terms of comprehension when reading long texts (longer than 500 words for English texts), when reading expository texts (no difference in narrative texts), and when the reading requires critical and inferential thinking. Print reading also helps the reader to encode specific details and to self-evaluate their comprehension. As the digital generation gets more accustomed to reading on screen, however, these tendencies may change.

Furthermore, digital reading is often accompanied by unique attributes such as hyperlinks and visual and audio information. Hyperlinks can be useful and potentially promote autonomous learning, but depending on how they are structured, how readers use them (e.g., how often they click them), and how many cognitive resources readers have, hyperlinks can be a distractor for comprehension (DeStefano & LeFerve, 2007). With respect to reading speed, print reading takes longer when reading texts only, whereas digital reading takes longer when the texts are accompanied by visual representations (Clinton, 2019). These findings suggest that the meaning-making process when print and visual representations are combined may be different between reading-on-paper and reading-on-screen.

To maximize digital technology for language education, understanding technology's pros and cons is as important as using it properly and strategically for a given purpose. If students are immersed in information-heavy digital environments without effective strategies, they may find it difficult to construct the accurate meanings that they need from the information. Critically, there seem to be substantial individual differences in multimodal processing among members of the digital generation, although the details are still not well known (Butler, 2021).

Important Elements of Language Use When Using Digital Technology for Language Education

As noted above, the digital generation is heavily involved in activities using digital devices and, therefore, they may have distinct cognitive styles and strategies. However, in Japan, the digital generation does not use digital technology for academic purposes as much as their counterparts in other developed nations (OECD, 2019b). Greater use of digital technology for academic studies is urgent and indispensable, but it needs to be carried out while attending to the roles of physicality (the role of human bodies), social interaction, and affect, given that these three elements are the very basis of human language communication.

First is the importance of physicality, or more precisely the role of human bodies, in language use. When people converse, gestures, back-channel behaviors such as nodding, and eye contact are all critical components of communicating a message. In fact, one theory claims that language evolved from gestures (Corballis, 2009). Although substantial individual and cultural differences in the use of gestures and back-channel behaviors exist, it is known that if people are restricted from using physicality, they feel uncomfortable, and their work productivity decreases (Bailenson, 2020). For example, consider what happened during the COVID-19 pandemic, when millions of people moved their meetings and classes online. Many of them reported feeling easily tired or uneasy during these virtual gatherings, perhaps because people in online interactions often have insufficient access to gestures or back-channel behaviors, especially when they mute their audio and/or turn off their video functions (Bailenson, 2020).

Human bodies play an important role not only in oral communication but also in reading and writing. People can enhance their memory by writing things down by hand, for example. When reading on paper, people often manually prepare pages to turn efficiently (e.g., sticking a finger between pages), and the position of the hands often plays a role in guiding our eyesight. In other words, hands can play an important role in the effective use of cognitive resources (Shibata & Omura, 2018). Because people read texts not only with their eyes but also with their hands, digital technology for reading and writing should not interfere with people's use of their bodies.

Second, social interaction is central to the implementation of language activities. Babies and young children do not pick up much language (either first or second language) by merely watching videos or interacting with digital books. Verbal and nonverbal interactions with parents and other adults using and engaging with the videos and digital books are critical for young children's language development (Butler, 2021). In other words, human interaction is essential in order to help children develop language using digital technology. Therefore, when using digital technology for language learning and instruction, it is important to ensure a sufficient number of high-quality, two-way interactions.

Another important basis of language use is that people use language not only for transmitting information but also for expressing the third element of communication, sharing emotion/affect. Infants exhibit their ability to empathize with others as early as 12 months of age if not earlier (Decety, 2010). It may be that digital games and SNS are attractive to the digital generation at least in part because such tools encourage them to express their emotions (e.g., joy, excitement, desire) and allow them to share their emotions through verbal and nonverbal exchanges. Currently, artificial intelligence (AI) researchers try to better understand human emotion and incorporate it in designing AI technology. For example, social robots that can respond to emotions have been shown to enhance children's language learning (van den Berghe et al., 2019), and in similar vein, other language researchers have identified that having positive emotions can facilitate learners' language development (Maclntyre & Gregersen, 2012).

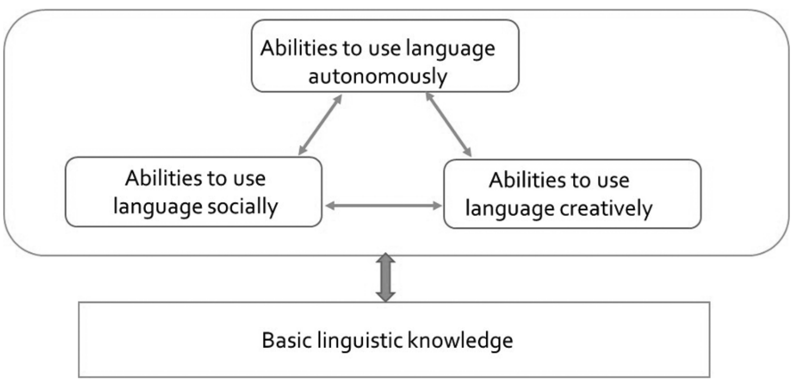
In summary, the essence of language use lies in physicality (the use of human bodies), social interaction, and emotions/affect, and it is important to use digital technology in ways that it does not restrict their roles in language learning and communication.

Communicative Competence for the Era of Digital Technology

What kind of communicative competence do children need to develop in the era of digital technology? As digital technology advances, communication is increasingly carried out in a multimodal fashion. For example, when people read online articles or e-books, they often process the text along with audio and visual information; reading has become largely multimodal processing. The boundaries between verbal and nonverbal activities are increasingly blurry. In light of this situation, I propose that communicative competence for the era of digital technology is a competence that is necessary for multimodal communication, primarily through language but not limited to language. Moreover, it should be a competency that resides in social relations as opposed to individuals in isolation. Therefore, it is a much broader concept than the traditional conceptualization of communicative competence in applied linguistics. As shown in Figure 2, my conceptualization of communicative competence in the digital era consists of a knowledge-based component—what I call *basic linguistic knowledge*—and the abilities to use such knowledge *autonomously*, *socially*, and *creatively*. Importantly, these abilities are not compositional; they are not independent and separate abilities. They focus on different aspects of our communicative competence, and they are all interconnected.

Figure 2

Communicative Competence in the era of Digital Technology (Adapted from Butler, 2021, p. 291)



Basic linguistic knowledge refers to foundational knowledge about how language works, including knowledge of phonology, morphology, lexicon, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, and sociolinguistic knowledge of how the language should be used in given contexts. Readers may recall Canale and Swain's (1980) conceptualization of communicative competence as composed of grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. My conceptualization of basic linguistic knowledge has some overlaps with Canale and Swain's grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence, but not strategic competence, because, as McNamara (1996) pointed out, strategic competence—"coping strategies" (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 31)—should not be considered knowledge. Traditionally, language education in schools in Japan has primarily focused on developing basic linguistic knowledge. Granted, the value of developing linguistic knowledge is unquestionable, but knowing how a language works does not make a learner a sufficient user of that language. Thus, learners need to develop the abilities to use language autonomously, socially, and creatively.

Using language autonomously refers to being able to manage and control one's language use by efficiently processing vast amounts of information, purposely selecting necessary information while understanding the intention of the authors and comprehending and analyzing it from a critical perspective. These abilities include not only language processing but also cognitive and metacognitive processing and strategies. The internet has a massive amount of information. Some information is fake, and other information is useless if not harmful. Blindly relying on digital technology can have potentially negative impacts on language development and cognitive functions. This is why the autonomous use of language is important.

Although empirical research remains limited, a substantial gap in the autonomous use of language among the digital generation has emerged. For example, Paracha et al. (2018), an eye-tracking study conducted among Japanese college students, found that the students with high proficiency in English tend to be good at skimming the entire text and fixating on important parts, such as keywords, while quickly going through unimportant parts. When nonverbal visual information is available in the texts, they glance through it and fixate on relevant parts but ignore irrelevant and unimportant parts. In contrast, the study found that students with lower proficiency are not good at skimming through the texts. They obtain only the limited information *that they happen to access* and cannot selectively use relevant nonlinguistic information. The focus of Paracha et al. (2018) was foreign-language processing, but one may expect that similar differences would be found in L1 processing.

Social use of language among the digital generation refers to abilities to enhance knowledge and skills in time-free (e.g., asynchronous email exchanges) and distance-free (e.g., Zoom meetings) interpersonal spaces through language, while at the same time building useful networks. Existing communicative competence models used in language education, including Canale and Swain's, predominately perceive competence as being inherent in the individual. In the increasingly digitalized world, however, people are expected to share their linguistic and nonlinguistic knowledge (e.g., knowledge about the world) with others and to build new knowledge through interaction. In digital space, you may need unique skills that are different from the skills in the analog, or physical, world. For example, you need skills to efficiently communicate with AI agents who may not be very cooperative or to communicate with other people while using and differentiating among multiple avatars.

The importance of developing abilities to work efficiently and collaboratively in interpersonal spaces can be seen in companies' job advertisements. Rios et al. (2020), for example, analyzed 140,000 job advertisements in the United States and found that the 21st century's most desired skills in the labor market included oral communication skills, written communication skills, and collaborative skills. In essence, companies are looking for people who can be productive in communicating and collaborating with others. These skills are different from the desired qualifications from previous generations, such as self-management skills, professionalism, and leadership, which are mostly individual-based qualifications.

Finally, being able to use language creatively refers to abilities to rebuild or reorganize existing knowledge (primarily based on basic linguistic knowledge) and/or to apply existing knowledge in a new communicative context. This process is mainly conducted through language, but the target information also includes nonverbal information such as video and audio. Importantly, for using language creatively, basic foundational knowledge is indispensable. As mentioned, school-based language education has traditionally focused on developing basic linguistic knowledge, but more direct supports are necessary for students to be able to apply this knowledge in a new context using multimodal tools.

In sum, communicative competence needed for the era of advanced digital technology, in my view, encompasses the abilities to use language autonomously, socially, and creatively, based on a foundation of basic linguistic knowledge. Importantly, such knowledge and abilities do not exist in isolation but are interconnected and, as such, influence each other. My proposed model of communicative competence for the digital era is not a theoretical model because it cannot be tested in its current state of development. Instead, the model is a conceptual framework that is a work-in-progress meant to foster vital discussions about the development of communicative competence models that are suitable for our digital world.

Pedagogical Suggestions

How should teachers assist students in developing such communicative competence while taking their digital knowledge and experience into account? The fast pace at which technology advances makes it difficult to offer concrete examples that will still be relevant in the coming months and years; however, below I suggest a couple of examples from primary school English lessons.

Self-introduction is a popular activity in Japanese primary school English classes, but it does not seem to be a very exciting activity for children because they already know their classmates. But changing the format of self-introduction from face-to-face to video-based can make the task far more engaging for children. Intervention studies, such as Pinter (2019), found that children often creatively incorporate various visual and audio information in their video tasks. Knowing that they would receive feedback from their peers and parents on their uploaded video self-introduction, the children showed strong motivation to make a better video, and they repeatedly practiced their presentation. It is well known that task repetitions enhance students' language development (Bygate, 2018). Importantly, in the video self-introduction task described above, the children autonomously repeated the task instead of being told to do so by their teacher. To facilitate children's collaborative skills, teachers can make the self-introduction a paired task that incorporates peer feedback.

Creating an e-poster can be another creative and enjoyable task for primary school children, and the product can be used as an assessment (i.e., e-portfolio). The e-posters shown in Figure 3 were created by students in the classroom of Ms. Sahashi, a primary school English teacher in Japan who kindly shared her practice with me.

Figure 3

Primary School Students' e-posters (Sahashi, 2020)[2]

In Ms. Sahashi's class, primary school students used Google Pages to create e-posters. They used Google Art and Cultures to identify a famous portrait that resembles them. Using this app, along with self-portraits that the students drew in their art class, they expressed themselves freely and creatively using English words and expressions that they had learned in class. The posters were shared among classmates and parents. Some students voluntarily investigated the portrait and the museum that owns it. According to Ms. Sahashi, this task increased the students' sense of affirmation as well.

For older children who already have a certain degree of autonomy in learning, teachers can ask them to develop English-learning tasks for themselves. I have asked Japanese sixth-grade students to design digital games for learning English vocabulary in groups (Butler, 2015, 2017). The children incorporated various game elements that were considered important for language learning in their designs, such as giving instant feedback, visualizing learners' improvement, incorporating graded challenges, creating "unexpected" events (e.g., accidents) to motivate learners, and so forth. This task was a wonderful opportunity for children to reflect on their language learning and to set their own goals, which enhances metacognition. It also helped teachers better understand the students' knowledge and experience with digital technology.

Although many possibilities for incorporating digital technology into language classrooms abound, educators also need to keep in mind some serious concerns endure. I will highlight three such concerns. The first concern is about unequal access to digital technology. Fortunately, thanks to Japan's GIGA School Concept Policy (MEXT, 2021), gaps in access to digital technology will soon become less of a concern in Japan. However, gaining access to digital devices does not guarantee that students will efficiently and effectively use the information they access through these devices. Therefore, the second and more serious concern is the gap in the *quality of students' use of digital information—in other words, how efficiently and effectively they use digital technology for their academic work*. As noted above, substantial individual differences in how well the digital generation strategically identifies and uses relevant information through digital technology to develop knowledge and skills for academic settings. The third concern—and one that is as serious as the second one—is how students' personal data is used. The evolution of digital technology has made it easier to collect vast amounts of data about individual students' learning processes and outcomes. In some countries, such as the Netherlands and Malta, students' data are collected during their school years and later used to construct a life-long learning history database among citizens (QA Updates, 2017). Despite the fact that such educational data can improve the quality of teaching and advising students, many ethical questions persist: Who owns and/or can access the personal data? How should it be managed? Is it securely stored? Such ethical issues lag far behind the evolution of digital technology and require urgent action.

Conclusion

The purpose of language education in the era of digital technology is to assist learners to develop communicative competence by using digital technology as a pedagogical tool along with these learners' own language use and cognitive styles. Given that the essence of human language use lies in physicality (the use of human bodies), social interaction, and emotions, educators should introduce digital technology to learners in a way that does not restrict these three important elements. Language educators should also consider issues of equity and privacy. The era of digital technology demands a new and broader conceptualization of *communicative competence*—one that is flexible enough to incorporate both verbal and nonverbal elements. My proposed conceptual framework for communicative competence in the digital era is grounded in basic linguistic knowledge but also encompasses the abilities to use language autonomously, socially, and creatively; this framework is meant to serve as a starting point for future discussions.

Digital technology will play an increasingly important role in helping people enjoy their diversity and individual uniqueness. At the same time, using digital technology comes with the possible danger of moving towards standardization and deindividuation. Furthermore, despite the possible benefits of using digital technology to expand human cognitive functions, if digital technology is misused, it can also negatively influence linguistic abilities and cognitive functions. If we, as a society, are to coexist peacefully and productively with digital technology, it is critical that we use it selectively and strategically. To assist students to develop necessary communicative competence, direct human intervention is essential. No matter how advanced the technology becomes, the vital role of teachers and parents in supporting students' language development will remain if not become even more crucial.

Notes

1. In this paper I consider *digital technology* and *ICT* as interchangeable terms that refer to technology involving the use of computers, mobile devices, video cameras, and other devices operating in a digital format.
2. Courtesy of Ms. Keiko Sahashi, from her class.

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Critical Applied Linguistics

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Applied linguistics (AL) research and practice are critical at their core. To date, AL scholars have surveyed a broad range of language-related issues and phenomena including translation and interpretation, education and literacy, language pedagogy and language teacher education, second language acquisition, language pragmatics, language ideologies and identities, and language policy and planning. This short list reveals both the profoundly humanistic nature of AL as a branch of the social science and the need for AL scholars of all strands to conceptualize their work in social and cultural terms. In this paper, I work from the premise that criticality must be of central importance to our work. From this basis, I then discuss some of the core principles of critical AL research and attempt to raise awareness among *JALT Journal* contributors and readers of the need to appreciate and engage with the profoundly social and cultural nature of the work we do.

応用言語学研究とその実践は、本質的に批判的なものである。これまで、応用言語学研究者は、翻訳と通訳、教育とリテラシー、言語教育と言語教師教育、第二言語習得、語用論、言語イデオロギーとアイデンティティ、言語政策と計画を含む言語関連の幅広い問題と現象を調査してきた。ここに列挙した項目から明らかになることは、社会科学の一分野としての応用言語学の極めて人間的な性質と全ての分野の応用言語学研究を社会的・文化的に概念化する必要性である。この論文では、私は我々の仕事および応用言語学にとって批判的な考え方（criticality）が最も重要であるという大きな前提から論を進める。その上で、私は、批判的応用言語学研究の中核的な原則を論じ、我々が従事する仕事が社会や文化と深く関わっていることを理解して取り組む必要性について、JALTジャーナル寄稿者と読者のみなさんの意識を高めることを試みる。

Keywords: critical realism; discourse; ideology; theory

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Applied Linguistics and Criticality

To introduce myself as sociolinguist, researcher with a penchant for critical social analysis and social theory, and incoming associate editor of *JALT Journal*, I outline in this short paper my understanding of some of the core conceptual principles of a critical approach to applied linguistics (AL), an understanding largely informed by critical realism. To that end, I discuss some of the problems with constructivist/poststructuralist critique—the currently dominant approach to critical AL—and present critical realism as a valuable alternative that affords researchers a layered and complex[1] view of society, of social phenomena including language learning and teaching, and of systems of oppression and social inequality, which are the foci of social critique. The main purpose of this article is to foreground the "nuts and bolts" of critical AL research and bring attention to some of its core concepts and theories. Although many different approaches to conducting robust and insightful critical AL research are available, I hope that the argumentation I provide encourages future *JALT Journal* contributors to actively engage with theory and inspires them to improve critical AL research through their own research projects.

Criticality is inherent to AL rather than a mere addition to it. This becomes evident when we consider language learning and teaching—perhaps AL's most populated field of practice—as embedded within a broader *educational* project marked by a profound ethical commitment to personal and social emancipation. In part, this ethical commitment involves critically unpacking the relationship between beliefs and worldviews, cognition and situated actions with regards to teachers (Crookes, 2015) and learners alike. For example, the ways English language teachers and learners conceptualize motivation, engagement, and performance (including what constitutes appropriateness or an 'error'), how they valorize particular varieties of English and/or accents, how they prioritize particular forms of competences, and how they understand the process of learning itself, necessarily implicate pre-existing culturally laden assumptions, beliefs and ideologies about people, social roles, education, culture, and the role of language in the construction of social life. More specifically, the critical nature of the language learning and teaching strand of AL becomes apparent when we consider the marked cultural and ideological contents of language learning materials, or the ways in which instructions, tasks, activities, and assessment strategies are designed by teachers, school administrators, and the broader language testing industry in a variety of contexts (Pennycook, 2021). In AL research, this critical core is also evident when we consider cultural and ideological influences on how research variables (e.g., learner characteristics, learning tasks), context, methodological strategies (e.g., interview, survey, pretest/posttest), and pedagogical goals (e.g., performance on tests, communicative competence, language ownership) are developed and operationalized, and how data analysis leads to specific interpretations or conclusions and not others. Clearly, AL is not a neutral field of research and practice, and rather than accepting underlying beliefs and ideologies as "common sense", understanding and improving them thus necessitates a critical perspective. As AL is invested in particular views of the world and not others, it is thus incumbent upon its scholars and practitioners to reflect on their own practices through criticality.

If we accept the above argument, common claims among AL scholars and practitioners must then be critically unpacked. For example, to say "I don't need to focus on critical issues because I'm only teaching vocabulary, grammar, or conversation" is to overlook much of the ideological grounds upon which that work becomes possible. Likewise, to say "critical issues are extraneous to my study, which only looks at the effects of a particular teaching approach on language development" is to sidestep crucial elements in the cause-effect relationship under scrutiny. Pennycook (2021) criticizes these common stances among AL scholars and practitioners by emphasizing the notion of *choice*:

> [F]or those who say we are just language teachers or just applied linguists and should not involve ourselves with such concerns, I say that we already are involved. We cannot bury our heads in the sand and claim these are not our concerns. We cannot sit on the fence and say we cannot make choices. (p. 148)

Beyond situated choices, of course, are myriads of social forces and mechanisms situated at micro-, meso- and macro-levels of society of profound consequences to how teachers teach, learners learn, and researchers conduct their studies.

Consequently, the question we face as AL scholars and practitioners is not "Should we focus on critical issues?" but rather "Is it even possible for us to avoid them?" The first question makes sense only if we accept the problematic assumption that criticality is a mere addition to mainstream AL; the latter question—the more appropriate one in my view—focuses explicitly on the ethical dimension of the work we do. Of course, AL is a branch of the social sciences, and because the social sciences are inherently critical, as they are invested in understanding the structure-culture-agency relationship, bifurcating critical issues can undermine progress in AL research and practice, and weaken its contribution to social science.

Hymes (1973) made one of the earliest calls for a critical AL, followed notably by Pennycook (1990), Phillipson (1992) and Rampton (1995) who in their own ways critiqued existing AL scholarship in a global context dominated by neoliberal ideology. Sociolinguistics has been the branch of AL most responsive to this call, and over the years sociolinguists have worked using conceptual insight from various paradigms including social constructivism, postmodernism and poststructuralism, critical pedagogy, and sociocultural theory, each with unique insight into the complex, fluid, and contingent relationship between language, people, and society[2]. Scholars have also brought further sophistication to our collective understanding of the links between language, people, and society by working within strands of AL scholarship including (critical) discourse analysis, critical translation research, research on legal and/or health-related consultation, critical literacy, critical language learning, teaching and testing, intercultural communication, and, in a broad sense, critical sociolinguistics (see Pennycook, 2021, for an extensive discussion). The goals of critical AL include:

- understanding how language(s) is(are) used, develop(s), and operate(s) in relation to power, including the ideological partitioning of specific languages into specific social practices (e.g., pedagogy, daily chat, identity work, intercultural communication, business communication, popular culture);
- understanding the complex relationship between situated language-related activities (e.g., classroom discourse) and broader social issues including education, economy, environment, etc.;
- unpacking and dismantling the enduring influence (on both AL research and language learning and teaching) of
    - rigid theories and concepts about language
    - social inequalities resulting mainly (although not exclusively) from white-male-heterosexual hegemony
    - neoliberalism (defined by Pennycook, 2021, as a product of colonialism and imperialism), and the complicity between the multi/plural ‘turn’ in recent AL scholarship and neoliberalism (Kubota, 2014);
- questioning (beyond the smokescreens of globalization and neoliberalist ideologies) why language learners have to learn *this* particular language and not another; and

- improving language-related practices, including language learning and teaching and the maintenance of endangered languages, by empowering language learners, teachers, and users.

The above goals might appear to some *JALT Journal* readers as overly abstract and detached from the day-to-day reality of the language classroom. However, a simple adjustment in perspective shows that they are not. Indeed, critical work can become an integral part of a practical approach to language pedagogy if, for example, policymakers, textbook publishers, school administrators, teachers, and learners:

- identify examples of essentialization and commodification of traditional aspects of Japanese culture in government approved junior and senior high school EFL textbooks (self-Otherization and self-orientalism), and develop more complex and diverse views of Japanese culture(s) and other cultures;
- question the practice of training students to become promoters of an essentialized vision of Japanese culture to a foreign audience (as evident in MEXT policies and MEXT-approved textbooks), and foster students' intercultural knowledge, awareness, skills and competence;
- unpack the hegemony of cultural difference and (self-)Otherization, towards a critical view of culture, intercultural communication, and language learning;
- question the problematic notion of *authenticity* and move beyond inner circle Englishes as models of "real English" (and the related view of English varieties as "deficient" or "wrong"), towards the development of, and appreciation for, a Japanese variety of English;
- move beyond the neo-colonialist, raciolinguistic emphasis on the *native-speaker* model, towards a decolonized approach to language pedagogy, with the *intercultural speaker* model at its main point of reference (House, 2007);
- move beyond a positivist, mechanistic vision of language learning as input-output process (e.g., as measured through pretest/posttest methodologies), towards a more complex, organic, and sociologically informed view of the learning-teaching relationship;
- move beyond a deficit perspective framing Japanese learners of English as a-critical, in need of Western cultural input from "native-speakers", towards an appreciation of and practice with different approaches to criticality; and

- change the practice of hiring "native-speakers" solely as oral communication teachers and as members of a temporary, disposable workforce.

Although incomplete, this list clearly includes tasks of direct relevance to the language classroom and to the lives of language learners and teachers. Of capital importance to the accomplishment of these tasks is recognition that learners are reflexive and critical beings, with ideas and beliefs of their own, able to handle—at least to some extent, and in their own ways—the complexities of the world in which they live. Also crucial, the accomplishment of these tasks requires a practical mindset and (too often forgotten or overlooked) active engagement with theory. In the next section, I highlight the centrality of theory in critical AL.

We Need Good Critical Theory for Good Practical Critical Work

As an applied field of social inquiry, AL has most often, and for much of its history, been developed and understood as invested in the production of practical knowledge, techniques, and strategies of benefit to real language users in real contexts. Although not particularly controversial, this view of AL has unfortunately served as justification for limited conceptual and theoretical engagement by AL scholars and practitioners. Also unfortunate is a widely shared belief among AL scholars and practitioners in a problematic and unproductive dichotomy between theory and practice. Poststructuralist AL scholars have been perhaps the strongest supporters of the view of theory as mere story or narrative. That being said, limited conceptual and theoretical engagement can be observed within both *successionist* AL (which generally includes quantitative, statistics-based AL research) and *interpretivist* AL (which tends to be more qualitatively-oriented and focuses on the interpretation and critique of discourse practices, identity work, and ideologies; Bouchard, 2021; Sealey & Carter, 2004).

Successionist and interpretivist AL share an ambivalent relationship with theory because they are both *empiricist* approaches to social inquiry. As I argue in Bouchard (2021), empiricism—the view that reality and the knowledge of it are derived from and contained within sensory experience, apprehensible largely through the use of recording devices and/or measuring instruments—considerably limits the range of possibilities for researchers. Empiricism is limiting because it overlooks important aspects of reality (e.g., structures of oppression, beliefs and ideologies, social structures and mechanisms) that we cannot directly perceive through our senses or measuring instruments. We can, however, understand these aspects through their effects on empirically accessible phenomena (Bhaskar, 1998). Learning provides a good example: No one can identify the precise moment when learning occurs, although we can theorize that learning has indeed occurred in students' observable behaviors (Kaidesoja, 2013). At a more abstract level, although no one can touch, feel, or delimit the boundaries of a social class, we know that social class distribution is a reality (or an underlying generative mechanism, to use realist terminology) precisely because it affects people's daily lives. Likewise, even if the boundaries, depth and scope of an ideology such as native-speakerism or *nihonjinron* cannot be apprehended or measured empirically (Bouchard, 2017, 2020), the fact that it can influence how people choose to act in context means that we are required to conceptualize it not as a mere narrative but also as an objective phenomenon with causal potential. This is not an intellectual argument but rather a principle of direct relevance to AL research and practice. As Sealey and Carter (2004, p. 63) argue,

> Even the most practical of applied linguists, whose principal concerns are with helping language learners to make more successful progress in their studies, for example, have to make use of some theoretical constructs in conceptualizing language . . . no applied linguist (when being an applied linguist, that is, and thus, by our definition, a social scientist) can take "real language" as given and unproblematic. Some theorizing and analysis inevitably goes with the territory.

In this statement, the authors also argue that interest in the practical aspects of AL research (e.g., the effect of particular teaching approaches on language development) requires a conceptual view of causality, and such view can only emerge from active engagement with theory. Contra poststructuralism, the thorny issue of causality can be dealt with in non-deterministic fashion. For example, critical realists prefer to think of causal *mechanisms* rather than *laws*, and consider causal explanations as inescapably partial. They nevertheless hold on to the notion of causality, for as Sayer (2000, p. 73) argues, if one cause is not established as more important than another cause,

> our hair colour would have to be deemed just as vital for our survival as the functioning of our hearts. If all causes are equal, it is not clear how we could explain anything, or how one could ever hope to achieve anything (cause something to happen) by

> acting, for if no cause is more important than any other, then doing nothing is as effective as doing something.

The crucial point to remember here is that causality is not an empirical phenomenon. Therefore, we must use theory to, for example, determine the properties and powers of people, objects, and ideas, because these properties may or may not include causal potential. This would allow language teachers to conceptualize people as causally efficacious rather than teaching methodologies or learning materials, which as cultural resources can only provide constraining and enabling influences. In sum, theory allows us to sort out important issues, including complexity, emergence, and causality, to then construct robust analyses of our data (Bouchard, 2021).

Some (especially within the interpretivist strand of AL) have argued that theories can be restrictive because they present reality or aspects of reality through a rather fixed lens or realm of perception. In response, I agree with Pennycook's (2021, pp. 42-43) description of theories as

> ways of thinking about social structure, knowledge, politics, pedagogy, practice, the individual, or language. Not a fixed body of impenetrable ideas, but a set of usable, questioning, problematizing concerns that take knowledge and its production as part of their critical exploration.

To me, the view of theories as fixed narratives has always seemed rather odd. After all, theories are products of centuries of human deliberation and understanding of the world and their place within it. Yet, we have always drawn from and modified them in light of new evidence and insight. Theories, in this sense, are social constructions, but they are also profoundly about the world in which we live. Theories are also somewhat detached from situated interaction, which means that they cannot be reduced to mere narratives constructed in situ to achieve specific discursive effects. Moreover, even if theories may appear as somewhat fixed and "out there" beyond lived experience, they are—and have always been—amenable to ongoing refinement (due to our capacity to claim that theory X is better than theory Y because of evidence Z). As such, to think of theories as fixed and immutable discursive realities far beyond lived experiences unable to account for the fluid nature of social reality (a common poststructuralist argument) makes sense only if we (a) detach them from their objective, material, and historical points of reference, (b) view them outside their historical trajectories, and (c) fail to understand how people develop practical insight and strategies in response to complex real-world problems.

Lukewarm engagement with theory by AL scholars and practitioners also limits AL's potential to produce insight, models, and concepts of value to other domains of the social sciences including sociology, anthropology, law, healthcare, and so on. Theory, it must be underlined, is an essential tool with which we come to understand the complexity of social reality, particularly its rather opaque features including systems of oppression (e.g., racism, sexism, neoliberalism, social class distribution) as underlying generative mechanisms. In this sense, theory does not "get in the way" of good, practical, and/or critical AL work but rather constitutes an essential component of transdisplinarity and, of course, good social science, applied or otherwise.

Two additional points must be clarified with regards to theory. One is that we need to be clear about what we mean by theory, particularly when it comes to explaining its relationship to practice. This is because there are many different kinds of generalized statements about observed phenomena (e.g., paradigms, social theories, middle-range theories, models, concepts) that can be distinguished in terms of referents and levels of abstractness. The other point is that, if our shared concern among AL scholars and practitioners is to improve our field and produce new insight, talks of theory in journal contributions must not be discouraged for instrumental reasons (e.g., prioritizing ideas for the classroom, promoting activities at one's institution). Let's remember that our research findings should, in principle, inform a large public (thus possess some generalizable qualities) and test existing theories with the aim of bringing further sophistication to existing knowledges. Even though theories might not be directly applicable to our Monday morning classes, greater theoretical understanding certainly provides more robust grounds upon which effective and critically informed pedagogical strategies can then be developed.

Critical AL and the Conflation of Reality Within Discourse

This section focuses on another noticeable problem in constructivist and poststructuralist critical AL research: The conflation of social reality within discourse. Indeed, acknowledgment and critique of similar tendencies in other strands of the social sciences has contributed in large part to the emergence and growing popularity of critical realism.

The realist critique of constructivist/poststructuralist critical social research is that society is layered, encompassing discursive and material objects and phenomena located in the transitive and intransitive realms of human experience. This means that not everything in society can be reduced to discourse, nor to the transitive realm of situated human experience.

Likewise, although the subjects of critical AL research and the methodologies used to study them might contain ideological properties (e.g., native-speakerism, *nihonjinron*), ideologies also refer to concrete things (e.g., a majority of people in a country learning one particular language as children and not another, Japanese culture/society possessing some features that are distinct from other cultures/societies), and often lead to real human actions in real contexts (e.g., "native-speakers" being hired as ALTs/oral communication teachers, teachers telling their students that English is difficult for Japanese people to learn because Japan is an island country). For critical realists, it is therefore important to account for the links between discourse and action in context, and move beyond the limiting conclusion that ideological structures and social inequalities are mere discursive realities, alterable through alternative discursive activities. This understanding is also voiced by Pennycook (2021, p. 18, emphasis mine), who argues that "the [poststructuralist] idea that social change can be brought about by changing the ways languages are used and taught misses the point that social forces of inequality are far greater than this." To this, I would add that what is often missing in contemporary critical AL scholarship is an explicit focus on the underlying generative mechanisms leading to the emergence of social inequalities, which again are the foci of social critique. One such underlying generative mechanism is social class distribution (Block et al., 2012). Making a similar argument, Pennycook (2021) explains this lacuna within critical AL as the result of a general lack of critical social analysis and the problematic assumption that discourse is the principal element of social life worth investigating, arguing that "a multilingual turn in itself does not constitute a critical orientation . . . without a broader social agenda around the political economy of multilingualism, a multilingual turn dos not carry enough critical weight in itself" (p. 17). In Bouchard (2021, p. 66), I follow suit by arguing that

> Although people's understandings of their world and their experiences within it can be transformatory to some extent (i.e., people can indeed develop new ways of seeing the world), effects can only be local and considerably limited, for with empiricism what is missing is the consequential relationship between agency and structure/culture (where social oppression essentially originates and is maintained). From this ontologically flattened viewpoint, social emancipation (and by logical extension social oppression) is understood as emerging from people's understandings of their lived realities . . . One can

> think many different things about systemic sexism or racism, and still be subjected to their oppressive forces, and without these systems being challenged in any significant sense.

Critical AL scholars should therefore use theories and concepts capable of accounting for the fact that systems of oppression are relatively resistant to critique and impressively resilient over time, with often devastating effects on people.

In Bouchard (2021), I also contend that social theories and paradigms that place an almost exclusive emphasis on discourse, situated interaction, and the transitive, fluid nature of social life are not (despite their claims to the contrary) conceptually equipped to deal with phenomena such as educational systems, the EFL textbook industry, and issues including language shift and intersecting inequalities. However, I believe the core problem here can be directly captured. The fact that we can label particular discourses and practices as *ideological* and that from this judgment build a critical analysis of them shows that we are not entirely submerged within discourse and/or ideology: We can criticize ideology only by adopting a certain distance from ideology (Žižek, 1994), and this distance is possible because our human perceptions are profoundly constrained by the nature of the reality in which we live and act. Not only do our discursive experiences matter, objective reality does, too, and so we need theories to account for their interrelationship.

Owing to the fact that ideologies are not mere discourses created and negotiated in the moment by human agents, and because ideologies affect people in contexts and so must also possess properties beyond situated interaction, critical AL scholars also need to provide theories and explanatory models to account for how people interact with, draw from and/or resist ideologies as cultural and structural constraints and enablements. This partly involves what MacKenzie (2002) calls a view of ideology as idea-event conjunction rather than a set of ideas. Zotzmann (2017) provides a similarly layered view of ideology and presents ideas, actions, and material phenomena thusly:

> [T]he social world consists of different elements with their own distinctive properties and powers, such as material objects and structures, discourses, social practices, individual agency, identities and language. These powers exist, i.e., they are "real", but can be dormant or inactive . . . Powers thus need to be activated. (p. 37)

In Bouchard (2020), I also bring attention to the need in critical AL research to (a) distinguish between *ideology* as site of debate and *hegemony* as naturalized ideology, and (b) define ideology within democratic contexts not as fixed sets of ideas but rather as complex networks or systems of converging and contrasting ideologies constantly produced and consumed by people "on the ground." To combine these various insights into a robust critical AL inquiry, scholars thus need to analyze ethnographically the discursive and physical activities of research participants in relation to broader structural/cultural realities, rather than simply indexing broader social facts directly from survey or interview data gathered at specific moments in time. There is indeed a marked propensity among critical AL scholars to "read off" ideology from discursive evidence such as policy and/or interview statements, without distinguishing clearly between stated views and broader social realities (a practice also called *level jumping*). Another problem resulting from this sort of practice is that statements tend to be interpreted as direct reflections of reality rather than traces of people's complex, variegated and constantly shifting understandings of reality. At the risk of stating the obvious: Reality and people's understanding of it are not the same thing.

Although over the years I have come across some very insightful constructivist and poststructuralist studies of language, discourse, and ideology in context and have quoted them at length, my main position is that AL, critical or otherwise, cannot merely be a narrative exercise; if it is reduced to that, it will not lead anywhere interesting, at least from a scientific point of view (Porpora, 1987). As with all other strands of the social sciences, critical AL research is ethical; it must therefore remain committed to the elucidation of objective knowledge, and this means being concerned with phenomena within and beyond discourse. Even if AL scholars and practitioners—and all humans for that matter—do not have direct and unmediated access to objective truth, the fact remains that our views of the world are profoundly constrained by the very nature of that world, which exists somewhat independently from our variegated understandings of it. In our attempts to explain ideologies and systems of oppression as *relatively enduring* phenomena, we need a layered (or laminated, or stratified) view of social life that recognizes the complex, distinct, emergent, and contingent properties and powers of social phenomena such as discourses, ideologies, people, institutions, social classes, and other underlying generative mechanisms. In the next section, I argue that critical realism offers such a view.

Critical AL Research From a Critical Realist Viewpoint

Realism is often mistaken as a form of new materialism, a vision antagonistic to any form of relativism. It is sometimes characterized as a renewed positivism which claims to have direct and unmediated access to reality (e.g., Nikander, 2008; Parker, 1998). Adherents to realism as a new materialism hold that its application to scientific projects can therefore lead to a true, infallible form of knowledge. Critical realists reject these assumptions as remnants of *naïve realism*, or *naïve objectivism*, a crude version of realism characterized by a lack of appreciation for the subjective status of human understanding. These assumptions also fail to consider the depth ontology provided by critical realism, notably the notion that social reality and the phenomena within it unfold in layered fashion, or within and across multiple domains of social life (Layder, 1997). The following are tenets of critical realism, as they pertain to the social sciences in general:

- Reality exists somewhat independently of our understanding of it.
- Our various understandings of reality are profoundly conditioned by the very nature of that reality, which means that (a) they are fallible, (b) they are discursively constructed although also about phenomena beyond discourse, and (c) our biased, cultured viewpoints nevertheless allow us to gain insight into objective reality.
- Scientists—and all humans for that matter—can be relative about knowledge but not about reality.
- The central question in critical realist research is thus: "What are the characteristics of reality that lead us to formulate the kinds of theories, models, and understandings we have of reality?"
- This question leads to a broad range of interrogations about the nature of science, knowledge, discourse, social critique, including questions pertaining to the ethical grounds upon which social research becomes possible.
- Awareness of the above points leads to a departure from the traditional Gramscian approach to social critique, towards the view that social constructions, albeit discursive and fluid, also possess important emergent features that make them consequential elements in the development of explanatory statements. This forces researchers to distinguish them from situated interactions and from localized understandings of them, by granting them some degree of objectivity (if only because of the fact that social constructions are also relatively enduring).

- Critical realist research thus becomes largely a matter of mapping out the complex causal relationship between distinct and emergent phenomena (e.g., people, ideologies, structures, mechanisms, culture, material objects) in context and over time.

Stating the final bullet point differently, we can say that critical realist research involves a study of how people make constrained choices in structured and cultured contexts, in light of their objectives and aspirations (Archer, 2012), and as Layder (2006, p. 54) puts it, their capacity "to 'act back', to resist and transform the social circumstances in which they find themselves." In many ways, this provides a rather robust and constructive vision for critical AL scholars, from which they can begin to understand the complex and layered experiences of language teachers and learners in their contexts.

Emerging from these tenets, of course, are clear methodological implications: As suggested earlier, critical AL researchers need to do more than rely on policy texts or survey and interview statements, and "read off" ideologies and subject positions from the data. We need to engage in sustained ethnographically informed observation rather than rely on one-off data gathering strategies. We also need to look at points of convergence and divergence in our data (e.g., differences and similarities between what people say and do) and attempt to explain them as products of the complex and ongoing structure-culture-agency relationship. These methodological requirements necessarily involve critical deliberation regarding the people who populate our studies and the data which results from our investigations, because what we are looking at are, by their very nature, distinct, complex, opaque, layered, and often causally efficacious realities unfolding and shifting over time.

Closely aligned with critical realism is Fairclough's (2010) approach to critical discourse analysis. Fairclough discusses at length the problems related to the practice of "reading off" ideology from text, and provides convincing and useful alternatives. Linguistic ethnography—a much broader field, of course—also adopts a layered, transdisciplinary approach to the study of language, people, and context and offers multiple points of entry for the study of ideology. Linguistic ethnography does so by offering, in my view, numerous conceptual and methodological possibilities for dealing with the (perhaps vexatious) fact that our linguistic data do not speak for themselves, nor do they provide direct insight into broader social phenomena such as ideologies and systemic forms of oppression. Perhaps works by Hammersley (2007), Rampton (2006, 2007), Sealey (2007), Snell et al. (2015), and Tusting and Maybin (2007) may serve as reliable points of reference for those interested in following this direction.

Conclusion

AL is critical at its core, and as I argue here and in Bouchard (2021), we need AL to be critical because language learners and teachers cannot be whatever they desire at any point in time and in any context. Instead, their discourses, choices, and actions are structurally and culturally conditioned, and for many, the structure-culture-agency relationship unfortunately does not always yield advantageous outcomes. Studying the lived realities of language learners and teachers therefore requires looking at people's structurally and culturally conditioned existence rather than their discursive practices exclusively. This view takes partly from Popper (1972), who argues that the potential for social change is not a power exclusive to people; it is instead the emergent product of the structure-culture-agency relationship. Of course, the principles discussed in this paper are not set in stone: They are part of a broad and ongoing debate among social scientists about the very nature and practice of critical social research, and it is my sincere hope that *JALT Journal* contributors and readers invested in critical AL research will take an active part in this necessary debate.

Notes

1. In this article, use of the term complex is aligned with complex dynamic system theory and qualifies social phenomena (e.g., language(s), beliefs, values, identities, learning, policies, educational systems) as radically open, non-linear, dynamic, emergent, and contingent systems.
2. To learn about the links between strands of social theory and specific approaches to AL research, I encourage readers to consult Sealey and Carter (2004) and Bouchard (2021).

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Reviews

Exploring Language Teacher Efficacy In Japan. Gene Thompson. Multilingual Matters, 2020. xv + 177 pp. e-book https://doi.org/10.21832/9781788925402

Reviewed by
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Author Gene Thompson has waded into heavily populated waters with his book *Exploring Language Teacher Efficacy in Japan*. Understandably, there has been growing interest in the field of language teacher efficacy as it promises insight into a myriad of issues from teacher retention, to training, and classroom management. As Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) gained popularity in Japan, much research was done on the challenges it presented. The oral proficiency of Japanese English language teachers was of particular interest. In Japan, the 2013 edict from MEXT to have English classes held primarily in English sent a wave of concern through the Japanese English teaching community. As a teacher educator, Thompson was prompted—and well placed—to investigate the confidence of teachers in making this transition.

Thompson begins by describing the EFL landscape in Japanese high schools, and the movement towards L2-mediated instruction. The changes and challenges mirror those in other countries such as South Korea, Indonesia, and Nepal. The Japanese Exchange and Teaching programme (JET), established in the mid-1980s, which teams native speakers with local teachers, has a dubious success rate in terms of collaborative lesson planning and delivery, as well as student outcomes. Despite the knowledge that confidence and teaching practice are inextricably connected, it is noted that little is known about how confident Japanese teachers feel about their ability to implement CLT. Furthermore, Thompson narrows the term *confidence* as it pertains to Japanese teachers' efforts to move towards L2 instruction.

In Chapter 2, Thompson charts the journey from early theories of teacher efficacy to arrive at what is currently considered a form of self-efficacy. Two bodies of research which ignited the field in the mid-70s were the Rand Corporation and that of Albert Bandura. The Rand study determined that a teacher's belief that he or she was able to impact students' achievement was strongly linked to student achievement (Armor et al., 1976). Bandura (1977) theories of self-efficacy were applied, and what was found to be essential was the degree to which teachers believed they were competent as opposed to whether or not they believed their competence led to a certain outcome. The development of the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) by Ohio State University in 2001 represented a culmination of three decades of work in the field. From the late 1990s, interest turned to collective teaching efficacy, recognising the fact that teachers often work in teams, and most certainly within organisations. Crucial research has demonstrated the link between collective efficacy and student achievement, even going so far as to identify it as one of the most significant factors. In addition, Thompson highlights how the influence of collective efficacy on individual teacher efficacy is a concern. Finally, of particular note in this chapter is the recognition that various cultural contexts have not been sufficiently examined, nor more specifically, the efficacy of language teachers.

An overview of research regarding efficacy in language teachers is given in Chapter 3; this moves onto language teachers in Japan, hence providing a background for Thompson's own research. The most significant work was by Nishino (2008, 2011) over a decade ago in which teacher attitudes to implementing CLT, as well as their confidence in using English, were investigated. Classroom practitioners who want to get to the meat of this book may want to skim Chapter 4, which discusses the methodology of efficacy research to date and delineates Thompson's own research design involving interviews with six Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs), 141 questionnaire responses, and multiple modes of analysis. Similarly, Chapter 5, which describes the development of Thompson's Japanese Teacher of English Teacher Efficacy Scale (JTE-TES), may be of less concern to some readers than the JTE-TES itself and the findings of the study discussed in later chapters.

The research is analysed in Chapter 6 with notable findings explained, implications for professional development and training outlined, and areas for future research identified. Briefly, JTE efficacy is challenged by trying to implement communicative activities while also having to prepare students for the university entrance exam. This is however not unique to Japan. In addition, English proficiency, teamwork, and external factors such as heavy workloads and extra-curricular duties are factors impacting on teachers' efficacy. Thompson suggests that teachers would be well served by pre-service and ongoing training in time and stress management, rather than focusing on classroom management skills—long having been considered a primary source of concern.

Language proficiency is discussed in Chapter 7. The general belief is that the stronger the perceived proficiency, the stronger the efficacy beliefs. Thompson's study illuminates challenges facing JTEs, namely that of the time and effort necessary to retain their English ability, as well as using English with students and non-native-speaker colleagues. Such stressors may lead to lower rates of English usage, as each exchange, in reality, "outs" the speaker (i.e., their proficiency is no longer in question or secret). Reduced language use can lead to language atrophy. By explicating the tasks JTEs need to perform in English—teaching, lesson planning, conferring with colleagues—it is clear from Thompson's investigation that JTEs concerns about their proficiency is more nuanced than previously believed. Furthermore, the assumption that the higher the teacher's proficiency the more English used in the classroom was found to be misleading, which has profound implications in view of MEXT's 2013 directive.

Turning to L2 instruction efficacy in Chapter 8, Thompson's findings concur with previous research that teacher's experiences as students play a significant role in developing positive instructional efficacy beliefs. This is linked to experience with, and beliefs about, CLT. The study also suggests that experience abroad can influence teacher efficacy, although how and what kinds of experience are unclear. In Chapter 9, the interplay between personal teaching and collective efficacy is summarized; specifically, findings point to inter-collegial communications and collaboration about materials design as areas influencing weaker personal efficacy. Perceived L2 ability is also important here—if teachers are confident in their L2 ability, they are more likely to engage in L2 interactions. Finally, generational differences are identified, with younger teachers frustrated regarding opportunities to innovate and express opinions. Strong leadership and, potentially, collaboration with outside parties are ways of addressing this cultural and structural dimension of collective efficacy. In Chapter 10, Thompson looks at the development of teacher efficacy beliefs while considering the hierarchical structure and social pressure experienced by JTEs in high schools.

This review does not do justice to the extensive research and analysis that Thompson has conducted, nor his consolidation of research to date. His contribution to this body of work is significant in light of the challenges facing

Japanese educators who want to deliver communicative lessons while contending with preparation for university entrance exams. His propositions regarding teacher development—pre-service and ongoing—are insightful and actionable. For instance, teachers having practical experience with CLT-oriented lessons in their L2 would develop their L2 while also building knowledge of, and developing a more positive attitude toward, CLT methodology. Numerous paths of future research are proposed, particularly contextual and cultural variations. It is the relationship between teacher efficacy and student achievement—an area of little research—that is of the utmost concern, surely, as teachers with high efficacy tend to show greater effort and professional longevity. That is the crux of the matter.

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***English Morphology for the Language Teaching Profession*. Laurie Bauer and I.S.P. Nation. Routledge, 2020. viii+177 pp.**
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As English has become one of the lingua francas, more and more people are getting involved in English teaching and learning. For nonnative learners of English, especially learners of English as a foreign language (EFL), it is a challenge to understand English texts better when words seeming totally new often appear.

For example, some students know the word *create*, but when they see *creation* they may still treat it as a new word as they are unable to associate *creation* to the known word *create*. English learning can therefore be hindered by deficient knowledge of English morphology.

This lack of morphological knowledge can result in learners taking longer to recognize, memorize, and master words. Thus, the importance of learning English morphology has become increasingly acknowledged. We see more teachers attempting to weave word parts into their teaching agenda, and learners are flocking to memorize elements of words. Yet, the result is not always satisfying. How to teach and learn English morphology becomes a problem. Nation and Bauer's book, *English Morphology for the Language Teaching Profession*, addresses this issue and provides resources and guidelines which can be used to inform English morphology teaching and learning.

The book is composed of 19 chapters. Chapter 1 "Learning English Morphology" serves as the foundation of the book. It first introduces Bauer and Nation's (1993) word families and suggests that teachers use levels of families to design their courses, in terms of what words to present and when to present which words. The necessity for EFL learners to have some morphological knowledge is then explained: (a) words with inflectional affixes and derivational affixes are frequently seen in English texts, (b) affixes affect the meanings of words, and (c) uses of affixes affect the correctness of speech and writing. Learning morphological knowledge is noted to help to increase vocabulary size, increase the times of varied repetition of words, improve word-structure learning strategy use, and improve the quality of word processing. Advice on how to develop morphological knowledge, how teachers can create learning opportunities to draw learners' deliberate attention to word parts, and how the morphological knowledge can be tested is also provided. The authors suggest that teachers apply these concepts from the book in their teaching while keeping in mind the four strands (Nation 2007, 2013) and the data on word frequency.

Chapter 2 outlines the presuppositions on readers' knowledge. Fully understanding this content requires some basic knowledge of word class; parts of speech; morphological categories such as tense, plural, and past participle; phonological categories such as manner of articulation (e.g., plosive); syllables and stress; and affixes.

Chapter 3 lays the groundwork for later chapters. Firstly, the authors make a distinction between sound and spelling. They then provide some general spelling rules and sound rules in English. One example of a spelling rule is that the letter "y" becomes "i" when it is before a suffix (e.g., deny + -ed becomes denied) unless a vowel and the letter "y" form a vowel digraph (e.g., boy + -hood becomes boyhood). One example of a sound rule is that the letter "c" is pronounced [s] before the suffixes -ic/-ical, -ify, -ize, -ist, -ity (e.g., electric + -ity becomes electri[s]ity). From Chapter 3 on, each chapter deals with one specific type of morphological rule with spelling rules and pronunciation rules provided in each scenario.

Chapters 4 to 9 cover inflectional morphology. Topics include plurals of nouns, the possessive, comparative and superlative, third person singular -s, the -ing form of the verb, past tense, and past participle. Each chapter begins with the standard case (e.g., in forming a plural noun, -s is added to most of the words, and -es is added to nouns that end with <s, z, sh, ch, x>). After the regular case, the authors move on to irregular cases, from more frequent words to less frequent ones (e.g., in Chapter 4, "Plurals of Nouns," umlaut plurals, such as feet and geese, are introduced before foreign plurals such as alumni and bacteria).

Chapter 10 and 11 deal with numbers and compounds respectively. Chapters 12 to 17 mainly cover derivational morphology. Suffixes that can create nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs; prefixes that can make words; and making words without affixes are introduced. Within each chapter, how, when to use, and when not to use those affixes are discussed at length.

Chapter 18 "Learned Word-formation" introduces some roots and word parts of Greek origin as well as some with Latin-based etymology that are used in English. For example, psychology consists of "psych" (meaning "soul, mind" in Greek) and a suffix, which creates the meaning "study of the mind."

This part of the word-formation process is suggested to be of greater relevance to more advanced learners.

In Chapter 19, "Morphology and Frequency," the authors briefly present the complex relationship of frequency, usefulness, and productivity in morphology. Suggestions on teaching morphology are offered: (1) inflectional morphology should be taught and learnt before derivational morphology as the inflectional affixes are more common than the derivational affixes; (2) within derivational morphology, students should be taught which affixes are productive and which are not as it is demanding for students to deduce productivity of certain affixes within their limited vocabulary. For example, -ness is a *productive affix* and should be taught to students because it can be used on most adjectives to make nouns. Even without being taught explicitly, students may be able to find that -ness is a reliable derivational process to make a noun out of an adjective, but that will only happen when they have abundant vocabulary knowledge.

This book can be used as a resource book by educators and learners. It will be of particular interest to teachers as it offers hands-on techniques and tasks that can be used in the classroom to draw learners' attention to the morphological structure of words. Information given in the book can also help teachers to make decisions on what words to be presented in their classes, where the focus should be, what needs to be handled with care, and what can get away. This book will also be quite useful for designing teaching materials and language course curricula. With the level appropriate for beginning, intermediate, and advanced learners suggested for some sections in the book, teachers can make use of this information and plan the order of morphological rules to be taught based on the stage their learners are at.

Students can also benefit from this book as many practical points of advice are provided in each chapter. For example, the authors suggest that in learning plurals, words that must take -es to form plurals should be learned and then -s can be added to all the other words, based on the disparity between the number of plurals end with -s and the number of plurals end with -es. This hint is useful for teachers to plan their course teachings and is also valuable for students to identify in their English learning.

To conclude, I would recommend Bauer and Nation's book to everyone in the English teaching industry, as it is informative for teaching, designing curriculum, and writing textbooks. Advanced students who are interested in word structures and origins can also find plenty of takeaways from the book.

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Foreign Female English Teachers in Japanese Higher Education: Narratives From Our Quarter. Diane Hawley Nagatomo, Kathleen A. Brown, and Melodie Lorie Cook (Eds.). Candlin & Mynard ePublishing, 2020. xix + 313 pp.

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Foreign Female English Teachers in Japanese Higher Education: Narratives From Our Quarter is an edited collection aimed at sharing stories from female teachers working in Japan's higher education system. The book spotlights issues affecting women and calls attention to the importance of starting conversation about the existing problems, keeping the conversation active moving forward, and looking for possible solutions. The book includes contributions from a variety of teachers with different backgrounds, sexual orientations, ethnicities, and nationalities to remind us that no matter what our differences are, we can all relate to challenges in each other's lives. This book will be of great interest to the female teachers working in Japanese higher education or women considering this path in the future. In addition, this collection is also of potential use to institutions that want to hire more women, as well as to any others interested in issues that women in Japan face.

In Chapter 1, Diane Hawley Nagatomo sets up problems that foreign teachers face, listing burnout and the "conveyer belt" (p. 2) mentality where employers prefer to hire those new to teaching or teachers new to Japan in order to benefit themselves. In addition, Nagatomo highlights the issues that are pertinent to the struggles of female Japanese and foreign teachers, such as gendered expectations of being a "good wife, wise mother", and the impact such expectations have on women's careers. Both Japanese and foreign female teachers are vastly outnumbered by their male counterparts and even the possibility of marriage and having children, while seen as positive for male teachers, is viewed negatively for female teachers since women are generally expected to quit their jobs and have children after getting married (Belarmino & Roberts, 2019). The journey of looking for a balance between personal and professional lives has greatly impacted the contributors of Chapter 2, Amanda Yoshida and Adrianne Verla Uchida, because the existing gender expectations made it difficult to take care of the family, pursue a career, and further their education.

In Chapter 3, Sarah Mason talks about her experience of becoming a researcher and the struggles of being both a researcher and a mother. This feeds into to the broader discussion where although former Prime Minister Abe was highly supportive of "womenomics," his taxation laws encouraged women to delay re-entry into the workforce and that this policy will continue to be a major obstacle in supporting working women (Chanlett-Avery & Nelson, 2014). In Chapter 4, Kristie Collins addresses the gender biases she encountered and points out that due to the biases that women must be nurturing and caring, female professors are often expected to spend more time ensuring student welfare which in the long run damages the careers of female academics due to more limited opportunities for research and networking. Gerry Yokota in Chapter 5 shares her experience of social justice and her journey to full professorship. Frequently, the administration expects a greater involvement in the university's community, and I think that social justice activism provides an avenue for women to get involved while allowing them to express their more nurturing, caring selves. Chapter 6 deals with issues that members of the LGBTQIA+ community face in Japan and the difficulties that author Yoshi Grote has faced when teaching LGBTQIA+ topics in the classroom.

In Chapter 7, Eucharia Donnery talks about her being a female teacher in a university focused on technology and the dominant number of male faculty members and students, where nevertheless both the university and the community of female teachers take great steps to support female staff and students. Suzanna Kamata and Louise Ohashi, contributors of Chapters 8 and 9 respectively, share their experiences of not only being full-time associate professors and mothers, but also their involvement in literary and academic work outside of their official jobs. Wendy Gough, in Chapter 10, highlights her journey of leaving her toxic relationship behind and becoming a successful, empowered educator. Continuing on the topic of motherhood is Chapter 11, where Phoebe Lyon answers the FAQs regarding pregnancy and maternity leave in Japan from her experience working full-time at a university. She also covers the importance of staying connected professionally even when taking care of children, as does the contributor of Chapter 12, Quenby Aoki.

Jennifer Yphantides (Chapter 13) brings up the issues of gender discrimination and power harassment in the workplace, such as "locker room" environments, lack of female representation, and power imbalances between tenured male and female teachers who often cannot raise any concerns because their future employment often depends on their male counterparts' votes on applications for tenure. In Chapter 14, Wendy Jones Nakanishi also deals with hostile work environments and gender discrimination. Chapter 15, written by Cynthia Smith, highlights the struggles of the author, a member of the LGBTQIA+ community, and the social and legal issues that come with being in a same-sex marriage, such as the inability to get their marriage legally recognized in Japan. Avril Haye-Matsui in Chapter 16 brings up valid points about the issues for the community of Black teachers living and working in Japan and the challenges of having to fight against anti-Black stereotypes.

Contributors of Chapters 17 and 18 (Richa Ohri and Tricia Okada) share their stories as representatives of the Outer circle of English (Kachru, 1998) concerning native-speakerism and the expectations that an English teacher must preferably be a White man. As a non-native teacher of English from the Expanding circle, I personally related closely to the challenges they have faced. Similar issues have arisen for the author of Chapter 19, Donna Fujimoto, a Japanese-American who, even though a native speaker of English, did not fit the expectations of a blue-eyed, blond, White teacher of English. Fujimoto points out that Japanese-Americans already deal with being excluded from the circle of desirable English teachers, and her gender made things even more complicated. In addition, the author mentions how male applicants often got their job because a university was looking to attract more female students, a tactic also used by some *eikaiwa* (conversation schools) where only good-looking, White men were hired to then earn *the ikemen (hot guy) school* title. Chapter 20 by Fiona Creaser deals with topics of gender discrimination and offers a clear breakdown of different types of harassment women can experience, such as contrapower harassment. Finally, Kathleen A. Brown and Jo Mynard, in Chapters 21 and 22, address gaining academic leadership opportunities and developing unique leadership styles while also dealing with the imposter syndrome (Parkman, 2016) which is more prevalent among females.

Overall, *Foreign Female English Teachers in Japanese Higher Education: Narratives From Our Quarter* has an extremely diverse range of contributors providing the collection with a broad overview of the challenges and problems that foreign women working in higher education face. I also see great potential for expanding the discourse by starting conversations about non-native speakers from the Expanding Circle who are teaching English in Japan, because, while our numbers are small, this will be a great direction for further diversification of English language education. Even though each chapter might not be useful to every reader, everyone will be able to find something that interests them. In the Introduction, on page xii, the editors state that they want this book to be a “girlfriends’ guidebook,” to which I can confidently say they did a marvellous job, because seeing this collection of experiences where women are elevating and celebrating each other is truly inspiring.

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***Professional Development in Applied Linguistics: A Guide to Success for Graduate Students and Early Career Faculty*. Luke Plonsky. John Benjamins, 2021. vi + 212 pp. e-book https://doi.org/10.1075/z.229**

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Professional development for many readers of *JALT Journal* centres upon teaching language, and there are a myriad of books available to fill the holes in one's knowledge. However, with regard to professional development for applied linguists, there has been little material specific to the field. Luke Plonsky, editor of this volume, and his contributors attempt to fill this void.

Plonsky begins this edited collection by describing it as the guide he wishes was available when he was a graduate student. He argues that "acquiring an understanding of these more professionally-oriented aspects of academic life – a kind of 'academic and professional socialization' – is just as important as acquiring an understanding of the substantive and discipline-specific literature" (p .1). This is a noble goal, and the book contains plenty of good ideas and advice.

Ayşenur Sağdıç and Daniel R. Isbell (Chapter 2) provide a functional guide to doctoral programme applications. The content however is very much focused upon the US model and therefore provides quite a contrast to the experiences of many postgraduate and doctoral students. The section on choosing a doctoral school rings true, while also appearing to be a matter of common sense. The parts on applying for schools appear to be similar to the Japanese model, and the points on acceptance are likely to be applicable to any institution with the caveat that each has their own induction process.

Alison Mackey takes advantage of her background in advising doctoral students in Chapter 3, which is titled "Navigating graduate school and academia: Key questions and answers." The problem here is that no two programmes are the same and therefore any advice provided is highly contextual, although there is useful general information within the chapter.

Peter I. De Costa (Chapter 4) provides an excellent look at conferences, which are often encountered for the first time as a doctoral student. However, even those who may have attended conferences previously, but are not quite seasoned veterans, can find something to help improve their conference experiences. For instance, taking publishers' catalogues to mark up for library orders or interlibrary loans is an excellent idea for scholars on tight budgets.

Chapter 5 is a diverse view of work-life balance in academia by Tove Larsson, Shawn Loewen, Rhonda Oliver, Miyuki Sasaki, Nicole Tracy-Ventura, and Plonsky. There are some interesting insights here and there, particularly regarding relationships, and language use. The array of authors involved offers breadth as well as depth to the subject.

John Bitchener provides advice regarding the completion of a doctoral dissertation in Chapter 6. This advice is useful, but again, it must be considered provisional by nature because much of what occurs in a programme is specific to an institution or department or even supervisor.

Chapter 7 marks a watershed by focusing on the state of being a prospective degree holder. Avizia Long, Kristopher Kyle, and Graham Crookes examine the academic job market, but their chapter may only be useful for those who are planning to apply for positions in the US, due to the rather specific information provided. For those applying elsewhere, the process can also be difficult but the picture painted of the US academic job market is of an even much more grueling slog.

Bryan Smith (Chapter 8) examines in a most refreshing way how the politics and interpersonal relationships work in academia. The chapter begins with an overview of faculty responsibilities and how to balance them toward a tenure application. The second half of the chapter introduces potential pitfalls, maintaining a realistic look at how people operate as human beings who do not always have a sunny disposition. Particularly suited to those entering faculty positions for the first time, it provides a guide to cooperating and working collegially in sometimes difficult circumstances.

Reviewing manuscripts for academic journals may be one of the aspects of our work that junior faculty are exposed to at an early stage in their graduate studies or soon after graduation. Rebecca Sachs (Chapter 9) deals with this in an illuminating way, providing guidelines around what to do in a review in order to be of use to colleagues and avoid appearing as an overly negative critic.

In Chapter 10, Heidi Byrnes intends to show the ins and outs of professional organisations. An experienced hand with several terms in leadership positions, she provides an expert view. However, the perspective of an early career researcher (ECR) within professional organisations is not addressed well, and this feels like a missed opportunity given the setup by Plonsky in the opening chapter.

Jean-Marc Dewaele (Chapter 11) writes a particularly useful section on supervisor-supervisee relationships. Though ostensibly aimed at new supervisors of doctoral students, it is something that many students at the doctoral as well as masters level can benefit from reading. Certainly, what Dewaele says about managing expectations and taking time out from studies ought to be repeated to all graduate students as well as their busy supervisors.

Chapter 12 by Deborah Tannen on communicating with general, non-academic audiences covers interesting ground for researchers. *The Vitae Researcher Development Framework* (Careers Research and Advisory Centre Limited, 2011), contains a benchmark expecting that researchers "can communicate research effectively to a diverse and non-specialist audience" (p. 19). Thus, it can be expected that more work will involve communication to non-specialist audiences and readerships. Tannen, as a writer of popular linguistics, is an expert in this field and makes a strong case for developing these skills.

Kimberly L. Geeslin and Laura Gurzynski-Weiss (Chapter 13) round off the volume with perspectives from new and established faculty on preparing for tenure and promotion. While a great deal of this is again geared toward the North American system, much of the information is transferable, particularly the checklists which can aid in preparing documents, although many institutions have their own requirements. This marks an end to the book at the point where academics may no longer be regarded as ECRs. It also makes for an interesting action plan based on Bryan Smith's earlier chapter.

Although undoubtedly helpful for graduate students, the book lacks reference to the literature on the scholarship of teaching and learning in higher education. In fact, many chapters even completely eschew reference sections, making following up on the ideas difficult. This is compounded by the rather cursory effort at an index.

In spite of this, the more general the chapters appear to be, the more useful they are. Chapters on tenure applications, work-life balance, and supervisory relationships are very welcome. The presence of checklists in some chapters is an excellent idea and these may make their way into the files of many students and their supervisors.

In a nutshell, as a straightforward, rewarding read, this book is useful, though not indispensable. It would be a worthwhile addition to libraries. However, there is insufficient specialist applied linguistics content to make this an essential purchase for graduate students in this field. In contrast. academics wishing to provide better advice to their graduate students on matters beyond the dissertation would benefit greatly.

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Innovations and Challenges in Language Learning Motivation. Zoltán Dörnyei. Routledge, 2020. xiii + 178 pp. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429485893

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Year in and year out, language teachers are faced with questions of how to generate and maintain motivation in learners. As such, motivation remains a popular field of interest across educational realms, evidenced by an expanding literature on the topic. In his recent monograph, *Innovations and Challenges in Language Learning Motivation*, professor of psycholinguistics and well-known SLA motivation researcher Zoltán Dörnyei surveys the landscape of motivation research and deliberates on potential research directions. Dörnyei's purpose is to evaluate the state-of-the-art in motivation research, especially recent efforts to incorporate more scientific approaches. The book can thus be read as either a brief history of the field, a summary of Dörnyei's own interests, or a set of suggestions for advancing future research.

The book is composed of two main parts, "Fundamental Challenges" and "Research Frontiers" with each containing three chapters. The first half highlights 11 issues related to motivation research in general and L2 learners more specifically. The reader is guided through an overview of constructs, approaches, and methodologies that have been employed in efforts to overcome these challenges. In "The Conceptualisation of 'Motivation'" (Chapter 1), Dörnyei discusses foundational issues in the field. A key example is the question of whether motivation should be conceived as intrinsic, regardless of circumstance. In other words, is it a temporary condition, or an otherwise constant quality that ebbs and wanes depending on context? From this foundational discussion of personality, the subject moves on to a range of constructs such as affect (emotion), cognition (mental processing), and distinctions between conscious and unconscious motivation. Dörnyei encourages would-be researchers to contribute further to these areas, since interest is high, and they are timely topics with a favorable research climate in academic psychology.

The influence of social context has become an essential aspect of motivation research in SLA, and Chapter 2 charts this development in social psychology and qualitative research methods. This historical view is accompanied by summaries of recent efforts, such as Ushioda's (2009) person-in-context relational view, to systematically incorporate social context into motivation research. Even more recently, some researchers have adopted complex dynamic systems theory (CDST) to account for a wide range of factors (e.g., the duration of motivation). Doing so, according to Hiver and Larsen-Freeman (2020), offers a "way of thinking that represents a radically new foundation for scientific inquiry" (p. 288). Dörnyei, who is also highly involved with this shift, devotes substantial space in making the case for the potential of such research. On the other hand, he also admits that incorporating multiple phenomena into a research design presents as-yet unresolved feasibility challenges. Overall, Chapter 2 is less of a research "how to" than an introduction to these theories and related research.

Following this discussion, Dörnyei dedicates Chapter 3 to examining how research is being applied to the practical realities of facilitating L2 learner motivation. Noting that articles on motivation *theory* outnumber articles on the *usage* of these theories by a ratio of 2:1 (p. 54), Dörnyei provides an overview of areas of implementation to investigate such as engagement, role modeling, and classroom research. Of particular note is work adopting a "small lens" through including local cultural contexts in empirical research (see Ushioda, 2016), and others who have approached motivation from the level of task-based instruction. However, Dörnyei concludes that much of the research in these areas remains episodic or unsystematic. Considerable definitional challenges, a vast range of contextual factors, and reporting issues make both quantitative and qualitative research difficult. The main takeaway from this section is that, according to Dörnyei, further development and adoption of systematic techniques, such as retrodictive qualitative modeling or CDST, could facilitate more generalizable methods and results in motivation research.

While the first part of the book serves as a broad overview of the literature, the second part, "Research Frontiers," narrows down to three areas where future research might be particularly fruitful: unconscious motivation, vision, and long-term motivation. Each topic is examined in Chapters 4-6, including summaries of their historical, psychological, and neuroscientific backgrounds. In Chapter 4, Dörnyei notes that these as-yet less-tread paths in L2 learner motivation research offer great potential but are replete with challenges. For example, though acknowledged in academic psychology to play a crucial role in learning, research on unconscious motivation depends on self-reporting and questionnaires and is thus often unreliable. To counter this, Dörnyei suggests triangulating a range of methods simultaneously as the way forward. In Chapter 5, the author moves on to vision, covering the etymology and intellectual history of this concept as well as the significant role it plays in motivation. As readers familiar with Dörnyei's (2009) L2 Motivational Self System will recall, vision has featured prominently in his earlier work. However, he acknowledges that much of his earlier work remains hypothetical and requires robust empirical evidence. Finally, the theme of Chapter 6 is long-term motivation and the ways it has been conceptualized in popular psychology with terms such as *grit* and *perseverance*. These are particularly trendy ideas in self-help literature. Dörnyei notes that the research in these areas is typically shaped as much by wording in research instruments as much as any evidence for the superiority of one idea or another. As he has insisted throughout the book, Dörnyei points to the need for more longitudinal studies and systematic approaches to better understand the durational aspects of L2 learner motivation.

In this book, Dörnyei casts his net far and wide across various topics of interest for both novice and seasoned motivation researchers. From this standpoint, the strength of this book is its breadth. Whether a reader is relatively new to L2 learner motivation, or an experienced researcher, this book serves as a timely update. The topics covered are carefully backgrounded with current citations—several of which were in press at the time of publication. As Dornyei notes in his introduction, the book should be read selectively as several sections of the book overlap. The book also contains both a subject index and an author index, so it can be readily employed as reference material.

On the other hand, a drawback of this text is that owing to its broad scope, the depth of engagement on conducting practical classroom research is rather limited. As such, *JALT Journal* readers who are interested in applying specific research models and evidence-based results might be disappointed. Moreover, in part because of the efforts of the author to ensure that the material is up-to-date, the book will become dated relatively soon and is thus unlikely to be an enduring reference on the shelves of its readers. Lastly, though less a critique than an observation, this book follows the tendency in most of L2 motivation research literature to skirt questions of individual differences in aptitude, cognition, and attention despite the relevance and status of these topics in mainstream educational psychology.

Nonetheless, this title is well-suited as an introduction to a wide range of topics in motivation and is thus appropriate for SLA training courses, university programs, or interested researchers and practitioners. The strength of this book is its overview of core concepts as well as the quality of discussion on the frontiers of unconscious and long-term motivation as well as vision. This book is a worthwhile read for graduate students, L2 researchers honing their research methodologies, and those interested in current trends in the field.

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***East Asian Perspectives on Silence in English Language Education*. Jim King and Seiko Harumi (Eds.). Multilingual Matters, 2020. xiv + 184 pp.**

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King and Harumi and the 15 authors contributing to this 184-page book (available in print and various e-book formats) suggest that research interest and insights into the existence of silence in East Asian EFL classrooms has increased this past decade. The editors also caution that there is much work to be done to further explore the meaning and frequency of silence in language learning (LL) environments. This book is comprised of a Foreword by Peter MacIntyre (the author of multiple seminal papers on LL), an Introduction by the editors, and eight unique research studies focusing on EFL student and teacher perspectives regarding silence. This volume included a wide-range of empirical research (e.g., quantitative, qualitative, and longitudinal) and approaches (e.g., complex dynamic systems theory) with the shared aims of clarifying the meaning, causation, and frequency of student silence in LL classrooms. Regarding the interplay of silence and human interaction in EFL contexts, the authors position their examinations within three main contextual factors: "psychological, cultural, and immediate educational settings" (p. 7).

While psychological states such as anxiety and shyness are pervasive throughout all cultures (Barlow, 2002), this volume supports evidence that when compared to EFL students of Western heritages (e.g., Eastern Europe, North American, South American), students from Confucian Heritage Cultures (CHC) are less likely to instigate conversations and are more likely to remain silent for prolonged periods during communicative activities (Bao, 2014; Harumi, 2011; King, 2013, Woodrow, 2006). The authors also argue that cultural factors such as power distance (e.g., teacher-student, older student-younger student), efforts to maintain group harmony, and fears of negative evaluation may push or pull a CHC student toward silence in an EFL classroom (p. 167).

In Chapter 2, Dat Bao explores associations between specific tasks and individual preferences between talk and silence. The impetus for this interpretive case study conducted at an Australian University was Bao's observations that his East Asian postgraduate students tended to be more reticent in class when compared to students from other nationalities. To support students who are more likely to remain silent in class, Bao recommends that teachers create task designs that include "explicit instruction, appropriate wait time, timely support, relevant follow-up strategies and effective assessment policy" (p. 31). Bao also highlights that mental rehearsal is a productive action (i.e., individuals may be practicing speaking even though on the outside it appears that one is removed from the interaction).

In Chapter 3, Seiko Harumi examines the effects of EFL teacher talk on silence by analyzing 8 hours of video-recorded classroom data at various Japanese universities. As expected, teachers demonstrated the ability to shift the dynamics of a classroom not only through talk but also through listening and responding to the subtle cues of silent learners. In Chapter 4, King et al. report on a longitudinal intervention with the goal of promoting group cohesiveness among Japanese university LLs. Interventions conducted on three classes included in-class discussions (led by teachers), and a student-organized out-of-class activity (bowling, dinner then karaoke, campus picnic). These interventions were delivered with the prediction that when silent learners become more accustomed to their classmates, they may be less prone toward silence. While the in-class discussions proved effective in strengthening group cohesiveness and mitigating silence, student opinions regarding the effectiveness of the out-of-class activity varied. The authors suggest that the teacher's role in shaping group dynamics is more pronounced than when a class of LLs interacts independently.

Chapter 5 introduces a cognitive-based therapy (CBT) intervention designed to help individuals break vicious cycles (e.g., worry/insecurities leading to silence). In a case study, through intervention sessions, Kate Maher encouraged a nervous Japanese female LL to take a more balanced perspective regarding her learning situation. While the student continued to struggle to break the cycle of worry and silence (even at times during the intervention), the teacher's role is again highlighted as a powerful tool to help learners cope with anxiety. This study was particularly interesting because Maher seemed to answer the call regarding the need for more research focusing on individual perspectives. However, when discussing the implications drawn from these findings, the author could have perhaps offered more insight on how to interpret or apply conclusions being drawn from a single case study.

In Chapter 6, Michael Karas and Farahnaz Faez explore the perspectives of 91 Chinese pre-service EFL teachers in a TESOL program at a Canadian university regarding silence and the implementation of communicative language teaching (CLT) curricula in China. Surveyed teachers in the study cited "lack of language ability, anxiety and the fear of embarrassment" as the main reasons why students remain silent in LL classrooms (p. 112). Including student data could have perhaps strengthened the findings of this study. At times, the pre-service Chinese EFL teachers reflected retrospectively on their experiences as younger language learners. While these perspectives may be personally relevant, interested readers may want to hear more directly from teachers and students who are now currently using CLT methods in China.

In a longitudinal study with Japanese high school English LLs (Chapter 7), Simon Humphries, Nobuhiko Akamatsu, Takako Tanaka, and Anne Burns report on certain factors (e.g., confidence, anxiety) that affect a student's capacity to speak (CTS) (i.e., ability to speak in various situations). The researchers differentiate CTS from willingness to communicate (WTC) and indeed make the point that some students may lack the CTS (and therefore remain silent) but that there are also silent students who do have the ability to engage in verbal interactions. Findings of the study indicate that "student confidence followed by classroom support" are the two most important underlying factors related to CTS. Surprisingly, anxiety and motivation were not found to have a significant influence (p. 137).

In Chapter 8, Jian-E Peng examines the relationship between WTC and silence during a university EFL class in China. Peng's study is framed in a dynamic systems perspective where events in a classroom are not necessarily linear and certain actions may cause reactions of varying intensities depending on a multitude of factors. Peng found similar findings to King (2013) in that students rarely initiated talk, but compared to the Japanese university students in King's study, these Chinese students spoke for longer durations. Peng uses self-reports of WTC and recorded instances of silence (p. 153) to argue the prevalence of certain attractor states within a lesson (e.g., unwilling and silent, silent yet yearning). The book closes with a more expansive look into dynamic systems theory and a sampling of observed data (collected by Amy B.M. Tsui and Rintaro Imafuku) pertaining to the classroom participation tendencies (e.g., self-initiated, group-initiated, teacher initiated) of a separate study focusing on Japanese university students.

As highlighted in this volume, time devoted to speaking practice is both (a) an essential component required to develop the skills necessary to develop in a second language (e.g., fluency, negotiating meaning, confidence) and (b) a limited commodity; especially when learners are studying a foreign language in their native country. When confronted with silence, especially in classrooms where verbal interaction is required as a means to develop a communicative skill, teachers and students alike may face a crossroads of confusion (p. 54). To further complicate the implicit nature of silence, a multitude of factors lying beneath the surface of a given interaction may push or pull individuals toward action (or inaction). The authors of the chapters in this volume endeavor to address this murkiness by offering possible solutions for teachers and students to effectively manage, react to, and possibly cope with the dynamic nature of silence in language learning (LL) contexts.

Overall, I think this book would be of great interest to *JALT Journal* readers or any language teachers interacting with East Asian students. Although the authors acknowledge that it may be difficult at times to assess the meaning or reasons for silence in the EFL classroom, each chapter in this book offers specific solutions, recommendations, or pedagogical implications for teachers on how to (a) help students move toward action when they have the capacity to speak; (b) determine when to be patient and adjust to the acceptable length of silence that may vary from person-to-person, culture-to-culture, and lesson-to-lesson; and (c) adjust classroom procedures to provide hesitant students low-stress speaking opportunities.

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Professionalizing Your English Language Teaching. Christine Coombe, Neil J. Anderson, and Lauren Stephenson (Eds.). Springer, 2020. xiv + 435 pp. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-34762-8

Reviewed by
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Professionalization is the process by which members of an occupational community strive for increased social acceptance and status as well as internal capacity building among its members (Hoyle, 2001). The goal of professionalization is multifaceted, and includes improved working conditions and responding to criticism of the profession. Improving skills and credentials, at times as a result of new local and national government policies, is also a focus. Yet there remains a lack of consensus on what professionalization entails. On one hand, the focus is related to professional development, licensure, and certification. On the other, the focus is more personalized: how teachers can implement best practices in their classrooms (Ingersoll & Collins, 2018; National Center for Education Statistics, 1997). From this latter perspective, professionalization may be considered a reflective journey for educators as much as a measure of outward qualifications and accreditation. Achieving a level of professionalism has gained importance for language educators in recent decades, and has been influenced by employment requirements, national and international teaching associations, and the desires of individual educators. The hope of the editors of *Professionalizing Your English Language Teaching*, Christine Coombe, Neil J. Anderson, and Lauren Stephenson, is to contribute to this process with the chapters included in this volume.

The three editors of the current volume indeed exemplify the track of professionalism within the field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). All three have published extensively in their areas of specialization within the field and have experience both in the classroom and working with novice and experienced teachers. In addition, Christine Coombe (2011-2012) and Neil J. Anderson (2001-2002) have served as

President of the TESOL International Association. Along with 45 other authors, many of whom have or are currently serving in international leadership positions, representing a total of 14 different countries, the editors bring together a diverse range of knowledge and experience in order to contribute to this important discussion of professionalism within our field. As indicated in their introductory chapter, the editors have provided a volume that begins with the theoretical foundations for the concept of professionalization, and then moves through 10 different sections focusing on current issues of concern among English language educators, including leadership, productivity, technology, collaboration, and teacher well-being.

While each of the 36 chapters presents a strong foundation from relevant research literature, this volume is not comprised of individual research studies. Rather, each chapter presents a thoughtful discussion of each topic as it relates to professionalism, and how each is related to the personal and professional development of language educators. The text provides an overview and raises the importance of the intricate connections between personal well-being, goal setting, consideration of career path, and professional roles that may be less explicit in some educational settings. What results is a very accessible volume, which encourages individual reflection, and which would be of interest to both novice and experienced educators alike. Even prior to entry into the field, some of the chapters would be quite appropriate for undergraduate or graduate students as they consider their future responsibilities and the opportunities ahead as they prepare to become language educators. Each chapter ends with a short series of questions, designed to encourage the reader to reflect on the key points presented. From a professional development viewpoint, either formal or individual, these questions can serve as a starting point for ongoing educational activities. Because each chapter is based on a focused topic, individual chapters could be used in single professional development sessions, or the volume as a whole or in part could be used through a series of sessions which could be tailored to the needs within specific contexts.

Some of the chapters included are of particular interest. Two chapters highlight how teachers can deal with the common pressure and stress in the profession, and how to increase their "happiness quotient" (p. 53). This emphasis on psychological well-being is timely, as the concern over the mental health of both teachers and students has increased during the last two years of the coronavirus pandemic, and has been the topic of much recent research (see Dabrowski, 2020; Gough et al., 2021; Mansfield, 2020). While the volume publication date of 2020 was too early to address the challenges faced by teachers globally as they moved their instruction to emergency remote teaching (Hodges et al., 2020) and then in many cases to more sustainable online formats, the chapters on utilizing technology, online teaching, and developing an online presence can still provide a foundation to understanding these issues. Lastly, a unique characteristic of this volume is the discussion of professionalism throughout the entire career of an educator, focusing on productivity, setting individual goals, working with colleagues, navigating the search for tenure-track positions, and finally, finding opportunities to give back to the profession, through mentoring, leadership, research, and involvement in professional associations. For the reader, the chapters can provide a narrative of where each may stand on their own professional journey, and in which manner they may wish to direct their career trajectory.

Very appropriately, the authors also address the professional identity of non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) within our field, focusing both on status and power inequities based on the native speaker fallacy, but also concerns related to appropriate English language proficiency levels. The volume itself gives voice to many researchers and professionals that are often under-represented in the literature. Nevertheless, the concentration of chapter authors remains largely from North American and Middle Eastern contexts, with only 25% of the authors from other global regions. The volume could have benefited from some additional perspectives from other areas, including more diverse voices from South, Southeast and East Asia, different regions of Europe, Central and South America, and Africa. Recognizing that no single text can achieve a complete canvas of all perspectives from all regions, the current volume admirably strives to reach that goal.

Throughout each chapter, what is apparent to the reader is that professionalization of the field and of the individual is a process, not a destination. This process of professionalization, and the consistent striving for improvement, can have lasting impacts on individual educators, their learners, and the institutions and societies within which they teach. By enabling educators to recognise and appreciate the factors that affect professionalism, this volume can offer educators at every stage a vision for enduring professional growth. As Gabriel Díaz Maggioli in his chapter on continuous professional development notes, if educators wish "to reach all their students and help them improve their learning and their learning potential, then they need to engage in sustained professional development that benefits both teachers and learners" (p. 255). To that end, this volume provides a useful tool for educators to continue along their progression of professional development and professionalism throughout their career.

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Teaching Language Online: A Guide to Designing, Developing, and Delivering Online, Blended, and Flipped Language Courses. Victoria Russell and Kathryn Murphy-Judy. Routledge, 2021. xl + 276 pp. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429426483

Reviewed by
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In their book *Teaching Language Online*, Victoria Russell and Kathryn Murphy-Judy demonstrate valuable concepts useful in both developing and teaching online and flipped language courses (the term "flipped" refers to a methodology that prioritizes active learning during class time while outside class students watch lectures or read assignments). They also provide comprehensive perspectives on designing and delivering blended language courses successfully ("blended" refers to a methodology in which students learn via electronic and online media as well as traditional face-to-face teaching). The authors clearly explain concepts relevant to course design and online teaching with materials arranged systematically, which enables the reader to efficiently access the necessary information.

In the opening chapter, the authors show the steps involved in course design by giving an excellent explanation of the ADDIE (Analyze, Design, Develop, Implement, Evaluate) model. It highlights what is necessary to create robust, valid online programs. To this end, all aspects of the ADDIE model (including technology and media analysis, needs analysis, instructional approach, and content) are discussed in depth. The authors then demonstrate the application of backward design (i.e., reverse engineering) to the general teaching methodologies.

The reader is provided with an analysis of the trade-offs inherent in designing an online course which favors student success. The authors look closely at the two types of delivery—synchronous and asynchronous—with a focus on student and teacher engagement, assessment, and inclusion. The concepts above provide a roadmap for educators with a desire to venture into course design. The authors illustrate the importance of knowing the steps of the aforementioned ADDIE model in order to understand the theory behind the different design phases and recognize how to integrate them correctly into the process.

In Chapter 2, the authors address various concepts in online instruction and teaching including learner development, learning management systems (LMS), course structure, interactions, and course activities. This is followed by a discussion of the relevant tools and resources, like video, multimedia, and other available interactive media tools such as H5P (a free and open-source content collaboration based on JavaScript). Both the instructor and the learner can gauge which existing materials and assessment tools are practical for their needs. The authors also suggest useful approaches to vetting and curating resources (p. 119) and show that both the instructor and the learner can accurately judge the efficacy of online teaching and learning.

After laying the groundwork for online teaching in Chapters 1 and 2, Chapter 3 focuses on concepts unique to teaching language online. The authors make clear that skills for teaching languages in the classroom are easily transferable to teaching languages in an online environment. Communicative competence and the communicative language teaching approach (CLT) are emphasized. For online, blended, and flipped instructional settings, the authors discuss core language instruction practices for CLT. They provide readers with the essential points which should ensure success teaching online. Irrespective of the delivery mode—online, blended or flipped—the authors stress that developing communicative competence should be the overall goal of every language course (p. 175). Practitioners looking for further resources may be interested in Glisan and Donato's (2017) *Enacting the Work of Language Instruction* which provides a foundation for the work analyzed by the authors in this chapter.

In Chapter 4, readers are presented with an array of language resources and several professional development opportunities critical for course developers, designers, and instructors in the fields of online, blended, and flipped classroom language instruction. Russell and Murphy-Judy focus on several resources which are available through the ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) online mentoring program (additional information to be found at https://www.actfl.org/learn/mentoring-program). These resources are relevant for online instruction, content development, selection and adaptation of curriculum, and methods of online language teaching. The authors likewise discuss professional educational organizations which focus on teaching and learning culture and language in online settings

Lastly, the authors explain that the overarching purpose of Chapter 5 is "to help language educators apply the findings of research to their online course design, development, and delivery" (p. 212). Throughout the chapter, they unpack the relevant research. A key discussion that emerges from this chapter is the concept of teacher and student satisfaction, with class size one of the impacting factors. Moreover, the authors illustrate the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) with respect to online language learners' anxiety in blended and flipped classroom settings (p. 219). This chapter is crucial for online teachers because it offers research on engagement, online course presence, and learners' connectedness.

In conclusion, *Teaching Language Online* provides insights into course development and design, development of course materials, teacher development, the best online teaching practices, and applicable field research. It contributes to a basic understanding of online language course design and the implementation of effective and efficient online, blended, or flipped approaches to language courses. Students and educators alike can focus on the growth and development of their specific online educational needs by absorbing the concepts offered in this valuable resource which has organized a massive collection of recommendations, guidance, and support.

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Grammar: A Linguist's Guide for Language Teachers. Tom Rankin and Melinda Whong. Cambridge University Press. 2020. vi + 208 pp. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108623360

Reviewed by

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As there is such an extensive amount of literature on grammar, it is quite legitimate to ask what another publication on the subject will add to the field. In their monograph, Rankin and Whong, two academic scholars who are formal linguists by training, contribute by making key findings in linguistics and language acquisition research available and accessible to language practitioners. The book has two overarching aims: to help readers develop a methodology for exploring the complexity of grammar, and to enhance their knowledge of language and linguistics. In connection with the second aim, the authors explain how the theoretical notion of Virtual Grammar is relevant and helpful to language pedagogy. Briefly defined, Virtual Grammar is the "*potential* suite of grammatical distinctions available to all humans by virtue of having the capability to develop language" (p. 107). As the authors point out, Virtual Grammar has close connections with the concept of Universal Grammar, but without any related theoretical baggage (p. 187).

Chapter 1 opens with an overview of the field of linguistics in order to highlight the complexity of language. Rankin and Whong illustrate that while language study is traditionally an area that attracts the attention of functionalists, in fact formalists are also interested in how language development unfolds. A formal perspective may provide useful insights into the nature of language use. For example, while the difference between "Dogs bark" and "Dogs are barking" may be explained in terms of the simple versus progressive aspect, an alternative explanation may invoke the distinction between the generic and existential meanings. This latter explanation is considered more useful as it leverages the fact that grammatical categories such as generic meaning and existential meaning are universal across languages.

The nature of language and languages is dissected in Chapter 2. The authors note that languages differ in the form of language families, dialectal variations, register differences, and idiosyncratic usage. Despite these differences, virtually all human languages share the same ability to express such core meanings as specificity and person. This underlying "unity in diversity" in languages facilitates language learning as it provides "a blueprint for what the grammar of a language can possibly be" (p. 72).

Chapter 3 details the nature of grammar. The chapter begins with an overview of the concepts of descriptive, prescriptive, and reference grammar, concluding that we should see past them to the underlying principles of grammar. This means departing from a rule-based view of grammar to a dynamic understanding of what concepts can be realised grammatically in different languages. The advantages of this shift in mentality for language learning are further elucidated.

Chapter 4 focuses on L2 acquisition, offering that this in fact shares some fundamental similarities with L1 acquisition. Some problems with the learning of an additional language are explored: for example, some grammatical features that are seemingly easy for L1 speakers to acquire may present major difficulties for L2 learners. However, no L2 speaker develops a grammar which does not make use of the underlying grammatical systems. Teachers who explore language learning through the lens of Virtual Grammar will understand that the reason why certain grammatical features are consistently hard to acquire may be attributed to learnability issues.

In Chapter 5, Rankin and Whong look at language education, aiming to connect linguistics-oriented perspectives with broader educational issues. The chapter juxtaposes contradictory discrete ideas, (e.g., nativeness versus foreignness and awareness versus ability), in order to argue that these issues represent continua rather than dichotomous choices. Teachers are encouraged to free themselves from binary constraints so that they can adopt an eclectic approach that conceptualizes grammatical concepts as components of a Virtual Grammar.

The book is an excellent addition to an emerging body of literature that aims to address the gap between formal linguistics and language education (for a collection of papers on this subfield of investigation, see Trotzke & Kupisch, 2020). Rankin and Whong have based their book on linguistic theory and key language acquisition research, showing how the divide between research and practice can be bridged. Navigating the book is, to an extent, similar to taking a crash course in linguistics and language acquisition. While the knowledge gained may not tell teachers how to teach language, it might stimulate them to think about language education in innovative ways. For example, teachers teaching multilingual students might consider whether and how to use translanguaging as a grammar teaching strategy.

Running throughout the book is the concept of Virtual Grammar, which is used to leverage the shared properties across languages (i.e., universals) for teaching purposes. Given the importance attached to Virtual Grammar, it is surprising that the term is not fully defined until about halfway through the book when the connection between Virtual Grammar and Widdowson's (2016) notion of "virtual language" is explicated. The connections between Virtual Grammar and Universal Grammar are then mentioned, but only in the last few pages of the book. If the idea of Virtual Grammar were unpacked earlier, the reader might be better placed to understand what the term means when it is first introduced in Chapter 1. Additionally, as Virtual Grammar is an abstract notion, more examples could be provided to exemplify how grammar teaching practices can be grounded in the construct.

The book uses "Case in point" examples to provide training in linguistic methods. Each of these examples typically begins with a commentary on a specific linguistic phenomenon (e.g., subjectless sentences and politeness), followed by an analysis of contrasting language data from different languages. A short conclusion is then drawn. This type of linguistic training has clear relevance for raising teachers' language awareness; the method may even be introduced to advanced learners who are analytically oriented. Future editions of the book might consider a discussion on the merits of this pedagogical option.

The target readers of the book are those without specialist knowledge of linguistics. The authors make their writing engaging to this audience through careful choice of interesting examples and language data. The writing is eminently clear and accessible, though some terms assume prior knowledge in linguistics. For example, on page 8 where the reader is introduced to "arguments and alignment", the text refers to such terms as *nominative-accusative system*, *subject arguments*, and *ergative case marking*. The reading hurdles created by such specialist terms could be addressed by the addition of a glossary at the end of the book.

Overall, Rankin and Whong have produced an immensely informative and insightful book on a subject that continues to engage a broad spectrum of readers. The book will be of special interest to language practitioners and graduate students, enabling them to see how linguistics interfaces with education (see Hudson, 2020) to inform the teaching of grammar.

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JALT Journal, the refereed research journal of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (*Zenkoku Gogaku Kyouiku Gakkai*), invites empirical and theoretical research articles and research reports on second and foreign language teaching and learning in Japanese contexts. Submissions from Asian and other international contexts are accepted if applicable to language teaching in Japan. Areas of particular interest include but are not limited to the following:

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Kiwamu Kasahara, *JALT Journal* Japanese-Language Editor

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日本語論文投稿要領

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