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JACET 教育問題研究会 会誌



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August 2015

JACET SIG on English Language Education

<http://www.waseda.jp/assoc-jacetenedu/>

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c/o Hisatake Jimbo, School of Commerce, Waseda University

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Table of Contents

Editors, reviewers and contributing authors	iv
Special articles	
Life-long Learning of Languages—The Last Lecture at Waseda University— Hisatake Jimbo	1
Les Niveaux commun de référence pour les langues (A1-C2) du CEFR/CEFR-J suffisent-ils pour enseigner ? (Intervention à l'université de Shinshu) (in French) Jean-Claude Beacco	15
English Language Education in Austria: Teacher Education in the Context of the CEFR—Key-note Speech at Language Education EXPO 2015— Barbara Mehlmauer-Larcher	22
J-POSTL-related articles	
[Research paper] Can intercultural competence be developed through textbooks? An analysis of English textbooks for Japanese junior high school students Natsue Nakayama & Fumiko Kurihara	37
[Research note] Reflection in pre-service teacher education: Using the Japanese Portfolio for Student Teachers of Language (J-POSTL)	Akiko Takagi 59
[Research note] The Integrative Usage of J-POSTL for Pre-service English Teachers in Order to Enhance Reflection	Yoichi Kiyota 81
[Practical report] How Does English Teaching Practicum Help Student Teachers' Growth in Pre-Service Education?—An Investigation Using the J-POSTL for Pre-service— Sakiko Yoneda	102
Articles on foreign language education	
[Research papers] Satisfaction des besoins psychologiques fondamentaux pour l'apprentissage d'une deuxième langue étrangère et l'auto-efficacité pour l'apprentissage de l'anglais (in French)	Shinya Hori & Takane Yamaguchi 117
University Students' Self-Efficacy Beliefs about Learning English and Their Attitudes toward Learning a Second Foreign Language Takane Yamaguchi & Shinya Hori	127
Conference reports	
Report on the 5th Bremen Symposium on Language Learning and Teaching Masaki Makino	138
Report on TESOL 2015 International Convention	Mari Yamauchi 143
Chronicle: April 2014—March 2015	149
Submission guidelines	151

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Contributing Authors

[Special articles]

Hisatake Jimbo, Professor Emeritus, Waseda University

Jean-Claude Beacco, Professor Emeritus of Linguistics and Didactics of Language and Culture, University of Paris III. Concurrently, Adviser to the Language Policy Unit, Council of Europe. (Professeur émérite de linguistique et de didactique des langues et des cultures, Université de la Sorbonne nouvelle, Paris. Conseiller pour l'Unité des Politiques linguistiques du Conseil de l'Europe)

Barbara Mehlmauer-Larcher, Department of English, The University of Vienna, Austria

[J-POSTL-related articles]

Natsue Nakayama, Associate Professor, Kyoai Gakuen University

Fumiko Kurihara, Professor, Chuo University

Akiko Takagi, Associate Professor, Aoyama Gakuin University

Yoichi Kiyota, Associate Professor, Meisei University

Sakiko Yoneda, Professor, Hokuriku Gakuin University

[Articles on foreign language education]

Shinya Hori, Professor's Assistant, Waseda University

Takane Yamaguchi, Assistant Professor, Waseda University

[Conference reports]

Masaki Makino, Associate Professor, Kinki University

Mari Yamauchi, Associate Professor, Chiba University of Commerce

【Special Article】

Life-long Learning of Languages

—The Last Lecture at Waseda University on January 31, 2015—

Hisatake Jimbo

Prologue

I will discuss the learning of languages in the context of life-long learning. Deepak Chopra and Rudolph E. Tanji introduce us to the cutting edge aspects of the neurological studies in *Super Brain* (2013), hereafter shortened as *SB*. The authors say that “your life is a series of skills, beginning with walking, talking, and reading (*SB*: 6)”. That means that human beings are learning things consciously from the very initial stage. The mind comes first, and then comes the brain. The real creator of the world is your mind or your heart. The most important is the feedback loop that integrates mind, body, and the outside world. Chopra and Tanji clarify this point as follows:

Among all living things, human beings absorb every possible input and integrate it—that is, we make a whole picture. At this very minute, just like a new-born baby, you are sifting through billions of bits of new data to form a coherent world. ... SIFT stands for Sensation, Image, Feeling, and Thought. Nothing is real except through these channels: either you sense it as a sensation (like pain or pleasure), imagine it visually, feel it emotionally, or think about it. ... Integrating bits of raw data into pictures of raw reality is a process that reaches right down to the cellular level, because anything the brain does is communicated to the rest of the body. ... Technically, what’s at work is a feedback loop that integrates mind, body, and the outside world in one process. ... Babies are perfect feedback machines. ... Just consciously do what nature designed into the infant brain. (*SB*: 52-3)

Let us examine this point more concretely.

1. Learning languages as a life-long process

Human beings struggle with languages until their death. In this sense, learning languages is a life-long process. Here, we will overview the language acquisition process of babies and children.

1.1 Initial forms of communication (babies under 12 months)

The basic forms of communication of babies under 12 months are face to face communication and interaction. These babies express “their will to communicate by

opening and shutting of their mouths, imitation of sticking their tongues out, their hands reaching out, and the behavior differences of mother-children relationships among different cultures” (Koyasu,1996:86-7). Now, let us examine the communication behaviors of babies under 12 months old stage by stage.

- (1) crying : crying is peculiar to human beings. It is observed that “few animals cry loudly when babies communicate with their mothers” (Koyasu, 1996:80).
- (2) cooing (6-8weeks) : cooing is the vocalization of monosyllables such as ah, woo, and coo. These are used with intonations: babies “try to communicate their will by rising or falling intonation (Masataka and Tsuji, 2011:59)” . That is, “even though children cannot utter words, they can switch intonations to use different functions of communication. For example, when they are uncomfortable, uun (flat intonation) and when asking questions, uun? (rising intonation). (Masataka and Tsuji, 2011: 186)”.
- (3) babbling (6-9months) : babbling occurs when combinations of consonants and vowels elevate the complexity of syllables, as in da, da, da and ba, ba, ba. Human beings “need auditory experiences such as imitating the voices they hear to acquire articulation (Masataka and Tsuji, 2011:61)”. Moreover, the sounds the children hear are different in different cultural environments. That is, “the children are influenced by the linguistic community they belong to. Francophone children tend to nasalize their pronunciation” (Masataka and Tsuji, 2011:62)”.
- (4) From imitation to empathy—empathetic behavior (9-10 months) : At the core of communication exists the interaction of a mother and a child. For a child, “mother’s echoic response after a child’s utterance (her empathetic behavior), that is, a social accompanying effect, is unconditionally pleasant (Masataka and Tsuji, 2011:63)”. This phenomenon can be compared to the birth of a chick: “The hen should start pecking at the egg only when the chick is starting to peck its way out (Kenkyusha’s New Japanese-English Dictionary, Fifth Edition, 2003: 1526 ‘sottaku douji’)”. The crucial stage in language development is this empathetic behavior. In other words, “the characteristic of human imitation is to show affection (Masataka and Tsuji, 2011:70)” and then empathize and assure such interaction as empathetic behavior.
- (5) caretaker speech: Here is a summary of representative caretaker speeches that are important in language development. Motherese or mother talk, is the simple speech parents use to their children: for example, “parents exaggerate their intonations, talk slowly, repeat the same words, and speak in a higher pitch (Masataka and Tsuji, 2011:39). Other types of caretaker speech include teacher talk, foreigner talk and the motherese for the elderly.

1.2 Young child

The characteristics of language learning at this stage is usage-based. That means “learners acquire chunks and phrases dependent on particular situations, i.e. they learn

the general structure first, and then proceed to analytical and grammatical acquisition (Masataka and Tsuji, 2011:53)". The following is a list of concrete examples (H.D. Brown, 2007: 25-6).

- 12 months old: attempts to imitate words and speech sounds, uttering first words
- 18 months old: "telegraphic" utterances (two-word and three-word "sentences")
all gone milk; shoe off; bye-bye Daddy; Mommy sock; gimme toy
- two year old: multi-word sentences, questions and negatives
where my mitten? what Jeff doing? why not me sleeping? that not rabbits house; I don't need pants off; that not red, that blue
- three year old: nonstop chattering, incessant conversation
Is this where you get safe? 'Cause this is Safeway and you get safe from the cold.
- four to five year old: internalizing complex structures, expanding vocabulary, sharpening communicative skills

1.3 School age child

Children at school age learn to utter appropriately in their social and cultural context: "children not only learn what to say but what not to say as they learn the social functions of their language. (H.D. Brown, 2007: 25-6)". Children also begin to acquire literacy, and to be trained in thinking logically.

1.4 Difference between first language acquisition and second language acquisition

There is a difference between first language and second language acquisition processes. Children acquire their first language during the period from babyhood to the early school age. Most people begin to learn their second language in adolescence. The cognitive ability of adolescents is far greater than that of younger children. Therefore, it is not plausible to adopt the natural approach to the second language acquisition process. The decisive factor is the amount of time learners are exposed to the target language. In the first language acquisition, the children are exposed to the language all the time whereas in the second language acquisition only a limited amount of time is available for most learners.

This difference has been shown critical in the Barcelona Age Factor Project. Carmen Muñoz (2006: 34) concludes "... younger learners may be deprived of their potential advantage when there is not enough exposure and contact with the language for L2 to proceed in the same way as L1 learning."

2. The language policy of the EU – *CEFR*

Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) is greatly influencing language education in the twenty-first century. One of the basic principles of *CEFR* is

plurilingualism, as distinguished from multilingualism. The diverse languages that we have acquired do not exist in isolation. The knowledge of one language helps us to learn another language. It is inextricably intertwined with the new linguistic efforts a learner makes, and ultimately produces comprehensive communicative competence that monolingual learners cannot attain. Learning plural languages in addition to your mother tongue will contribute to understanding the global community and creating a peaceful world.

2.1 Plurilingualism and multilingualism

CEFR distinguishes plurilingualism from multilingualism in the following way.

Plurilingualism differs from multilingualism, which is the knowledge of a number of languages, or the co-existence of different languages in a given society. ... the plurilingual approach emphasizes the fact that an individual person's experience of language in its cultural contexts expands, from the language of the home to that of society at large and then to the languages of other peoples. (*CEFR*, 2001: 4)

2.2 New definition of communicative competence

CEFR defines communicative competence in a new way.

... he or she does not keep these languages and cultures in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages inter-relate and interact. (*CEFR*, 2001: 4)

2.3 Aim of language education

CEFR clarifies the aim of language education as follows.

... The aim is no longer seen as simply to achieve 'mastery of one or two, or even three languages, each taken in isolation, with the 'ideal native speaker' as the ultimate model. Instead, the aim is to develop linguistic repertory, in which all linguistic abilities have a place. (*CEFR*, 2001: 5)

The new aim can be defined as "comprehensive linguistic competence (Hosokawa and Nishiyama, 2010:152). This aim is to acquire plurilingual and pluricultural competence, or interculturality.

2.4 Plurilingual and pluricultural competence

CEFR defines plurilingual and pluricultural competence as follows.

Plurilingual and pluricultural competence refers to the ability to use languages for the purpose of communication and to take part in intercultural interaction, where a person, viewed as a social agent has proficiency, of varying degrees, in several languages and experience of several cultures. (*CEFR*, 2001: 168)

CEFR states that an action-oriented approach supports plurilingualism. The action-oriented approach puts emphasis on what and how much you can do in concrete situations. The six scale *can-do* list has been created following this approach. Therefore, even a partial attainment of the communicative competence on each scale is also valued.

2.5 Learner as a social agent

Newby summarizes the pluricultural competence of the *CEFR* in the following three points (JACET SIG on English Education research report, 2011:80).

- (a) linguistic: that language can be seen as an expression of cultural norms, referred to as ‘sociolinguistic competence’ (*CEFR*, 2001: 118-119)—this can be seen in categories such as ‘politeness conventions’.
- (b) educational: that the language classrooms provide a suitable environment for furthering the aim of fostering understanding of different cultures, seen in categories such as ‘intercultural awareness’ and ‘existential competence,’ for example, ‘willingness and ability to distance oneself from conventional attitudes to cultural difference’(*CEFR*, 2001: 105)
- (c) socio-political: that foreign language teaching provides a forum for promoting ‘plurilingualism’ and ‘pluri-culturalism’. In essence, plurilingual means that languages that have been learnt and related cultural manifestations are seen not as separate entities but as an integrated whole, as what might be termed the personal linguistic and cultural habitus of the student.

EU countries are fostering the ideological pillars of plurilingualism and pluri-culturalism, because they unite the people of the various EU countries.

3. Japanese foreign language policy

3.1 Desirable English competence

Plurilingualism and pluriculturalism are ideas that can be employed in the Japanese foreign language policy. Oka (2012: 19-20) presents the following two objectives as the desirable outcomes of English education in Japan.

- The linguistic competence to switch languages, control information, and achieve mutual understanding when need arises such as encountering foreign cultures and

situations.

- Fostering the plurilingual Japanese who can utilize English as world citizens with solid foundation of Japanese language and culture as the point of reference.

I agree with this suggestion.

3.2 Japanese English language policy

I will offer an overview of the recent developments in the Japanese English language policy proposed by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT).

(1) Strategic plan to cultivate Japanese with English abilities (MEXT, 2003a)

This plan has become the foundation of Japanese English education policy in the 21st century. The gist of the plan is as follows.

- Objective: to attain communication ability in English as a *lingua franca*.
- Target language users: ordinary Japanese people; active professionals.
- Main measures: boosting learners' motivation; improving the quality of English classes; improving teaching ability of English teachers; supporting implementation of English conversation programs in primary schools; improving competence in mother tongue (i.e. Japanese) abilities.

(2) Action plan to cultivate Japanese with English abilities (MEXT, 2003b)

The gist of the plan is as follows.

- Classes: classes should be conducted mostly in English.
- Teachers: EFL teachers should have the proper English linguistic and didactic abilities to use English as a medium of instruction.
- Motivation: more than 10,000 high school students will study overseas every year; encouraging international exchange activities by using English.
- School admission tests: evaluating the communication ability properly by including listening and speaking tests.
- Promoting classroom research.

More than 12 years have passed since the action plan was implemented. The positive results were the introduction of listening components in the nationwide university entrance center examinations, in-service training of all English teachers, and promotion of super English language high schools. Now, each school is encouraged to clarify its teaching objectives and goals by creating a *can-do* list and conduct classes based on such list.

(3) The Course of Study

The gist of the present course of study for elementary, junior high, and senior high

schools is as follows.

Elementary school

- Foreign language activities (the major foreign language in Japan is English: targeting fifth and sixth grade students once a week, i.e. 35 classes a year.
- Goals: ① familiarize children with foreign languages, lifestyles, and culture, ② foster a positive attitude toward communication, and ③ focus on listening to and producing simple expressions used for daily conversations.

Junior high school

- Foreign language is a compulsory subject, and English is the major foreign language students select. Almost all the students attend fifty-minute classes four times a week.
- Goals: ① foster the basics of communication ability, ② foster the ability to make use of the four skills comprehensively, and ③ learn grammar as the basis to support such abilities.

Senior high school

- Students can take up to 22 credits in a foreign language (typically English) towards graduation.
- Goals: ① foster the communicative ability to ensure accurate understanding and oral production, ② foster the comprehensive communicative ability utilizing four skills, and ③ use language functions appropriately for the given socio-cultural and situational context.
- Classes: Teachers should use English most of the time in English classes. They are encouraged to employ communicative language teaching methodology.

3.3 English language education at the elementary school level

In December, 2013, MEXT launched the English language education program in response to an increasingly intertwined global community. The proposals targeting expansion of English education at elementary schools were as follows.

(1) Grades three and four

- Foreign language activities: one or two classes a week.
- Focus on laying the foundation for basic communication skills in a foreign language.
- Regular classroom teachers to be responsible for teaching these classes.

(2) Grades five and six

- English as a formal subject: about three classes a week.
- Foster basic English communication ability.
- Mainly English licensed teachers to be responsible for teaching these classes.

This hasty proposal seems to be based on a myth that young children are better learners

of a second language. “The earlier, the better” theory is borne out of the critical (sensitive) period hypothesis. This hypothesis seems to be relevant only for pronunciation as Scovel (1988: 122) concludes: “it is obvious that I do believe, quite strongly, in a critical period for speech—specifically for the ability to sound like a native speaker”. However, it is not necessary to sound like a native speaker. Foreign accent is quite acceptable as long as it does not hinder communication.

Here, let us look at a few issues raised in an editorial entitled “Advancing large-scale educational reform” (Nihon Kyoiku Shinbun, June 17, 2013) in response to the proposed expansion of English classes at the elementary school level.

- It is necessary to review the result of the language activities classes offered for fifth and six graders.
- What kind of abilities have the students acquired?
- What level of English abilities have they acquired?
- Were the teachers competent enough? How about the psychological burden on the teachers?
- Licensed English teachers should be responsible for the classes when English will be taught as a formal subject.
- At present there are many teachers who are not confident in their ability to conduct English classes.

In 2013, JACET SIG on English Education conducted an attitude survey among the teachers responsible for foreign language activities in elementary schools. We received responses from educators nationwide.

As for English becoming a formal subject for fifth and six graders of elementary school, the results were as follows :

Agree 305 (45.3%),

Disagree 344 (51.1%),

No Reply 24 (3.6%),

Total 673 (100%)

Regarding English activities for the third and fourth graders:

Agree 311 (46.2%),

Disagree 336 (49.9%),

No Reply 26 (3.9%),

Total 673 (100%).

(JACET SIG on English Education *Report*, 2014:26-2).

As the above results show, many elementary school teachers do not support the

government proposals. Rather, as the following comments show, many of them are at a loss.

- I am confused myself and feel sorry for my students, because I am not qualified to teach English. I like English and enjoy doing English activities. However, I am ashamed of my bad pronunciation.
- When English becomes a formal subject, I think a qualified teacher of English should teach such a class. Many classroom teachers are already overworked. It is necessary to have a proper curricular structure in the first place.
- Elementary school teachers cannot take on any additional responsibilities.

At present, the MEXT's proposal remains a wishful thinking rather than a responsible policy. How can we meet the needs of both an effective FL classroom and language teachers? There are many other problems to be solved in implementing this policy. My proposal is to focus on the quality of teaching rather than on earlier English education. The main reason is that learners' motivation and contact hours exposed to the target language are more important than age factor in second language acquisition.

I would like to counter with the following proposals related to the introduction of English at the elementary school level.

- Create small classes: limit the number of students in one class to less than 20.
- 5th graders: one period a week of language activities.
- 6th graders: two periods a week of formal English classes.
- Qualified English teachers should be responsible for elementary school English throughout.

We should bear in mind the following words of caution: "... the belief that children will always be the best language learners may lead to large-scale policy implications that are based on a flawed premise (Brown, S and Larson-Freeman, 2012: 20). The flawed premise in this quote refers to "the earlier, the better" hypothesis. I hope the government of Japan will take these recommendations into consideration as the foreign language teaching policy evolves.

4. University education reform

4.1 Reform movement and English education

Generalizing the official requirements for university establishment in 1991 profoundly impacted university education. One of the results was the decline of liberal arts and foreign language education. Imura (2012:3-22) points out the following:

- Generalizing the official requirements for setting up a university led to deregulation of university establishment and reliance on market mechanism. As a result of institutional restructuring, most of the departments were formed based on special field subjects and liberal arts faculties were disbanded (Imura, 2012:4).
- The departments of foreign languages were also disbanded and most of the foreign language teachers belong to a specialized department or language center, delivering classes on demand (Imura, 2012:4).
- If you give market mechanism precedence, you may conclude that it is better to leave English education in the hands of special field teachers or business people who are competent in English or outsource it to language schools (Imura, 2012: 10).

As we reflect on the changes most universities went through, we are now at a critical juncture to reconsider a number of policy decisions. As a case in point, many universities are reviewing and restoring the roles of liberal arts and foreign language education. Nearly a quarter of a century has passed since the guidelines for generalizing the official requirements for university establishment were introduced in 1991. It is time now to restructure the whole university education in a new light.

Strategic plan to cultivate Japanese with English abilities (MEXT, 2003a) proposes the aim of university English education as acquiring “the English ability needed for contributing to the nation and society” and “each university should set its own target from the viewpoint of fostering capable persons who can use English for her or his work”. In addition, fostering “global citizens” is considered an urgent task and the committee promoting the fostering of global citizens in collaboration with business and academic communities defines it as “educated citizens, who possess specific skills and communication ability to overcome the cultural differences, demonstrate collaborative skills, creativity and willingness to serve the society, while retaining Japanese identity”. Following this trend, the names of 86 departments are capped by such phrases as ‘international’ and ‘global’ in 2011 (Yomiuri Shinbun: 2012/ 05/11).

MEXT published the university reform action plan in June, 2012 and proclaimed to deal with “fostering citizens who can respond to globalization”. In achieving this goal, the following key measures were proposed: improving foreign language abilities through entrance examinations and regular classes, strengthening the global education ability of teachers, employing more foreign teachers, expanding opportunities for overseas study and exchange programs.

The concrete policy created on the basis of this plan was “to designate 42 universities as the base schools of globalization (Nihon Kyoiku Shinbun: 2012/10/15)” in October, 2012.

4.2 Two pillars of university English education

How can we reform foreign language, especially English language education in the context of broader institutional restructuring?

4.2.1 Re-definition of English as a liberal arts subject. Akio Mimura, the former chair of the Central Education Council, made the following comments in the article entitled ‘Fostering well-educated persons once again—after 20 lost years; opening up of universities—conditions to compete in the world’. He asserts that “it is most urgent to re-establish liberal arts education to foster global citizens. We need resourceful persons who can carry out business with overseas partners in different cultures, listen carefully to his or her counterparts and articulate his or her own ideas persuasively (Nikkei Shinbun: 2012/4/19)” .

The panelists of the plenary symposium on “English competency for international communication” in the 2012 JACET Kanto Chapter convention made the following comments.

- **English ability needed for journalists**

English is the working language necessary for news gathering. You need the ability to understand English used in the press interviews and the released documents, comprehend the content and react quickly. The ability to ask questions, write an article, and explain your views logically in your own words is important. (Ko Yamaguchi, Advisor, Kyodo News Agency).

- **Foreign language ability needed for diplomats**

English is vital, however, other foreign languages are also necessary. There are more than 90 countries with plural official languages in the world. While economic globalization has expanded significantly, life and politics of each country remain local. National and ethnic identities are still strong. (Koichi Takahashi, former Ambassador to the Czech Republic).

What kind of English education can meet the above expectations? One good practical example is the English for Liberal Arts Program (ELA) of the International Christian University (ICU). ICU itself advocates the cause of liberal arts and places English education in its overall framework appropriately. The following is the gist of ELA (JACET, 2010a: 93-101)

- Objective: education to foster responsible citizens; enhancing the general and intellectual ability for decision making
- Characteristics:
 - (1) intellectual potential

- ① accurate understanding
- ② critical thinking ability
- ③ academic research ability
- ④ ability of self-expression
- ⑤ problem-solving ability
- (2) diversity, openness
 - ① recognition of diversity, freeing oneself from the closed world by acquiring multiple perspectives
 - ② cross-cultural education
- (3) sense of responsibility
 - ① capable individuals who can accomplish their objectives as members of local, national, and global communities.
 - ② evaluation of classwork: cooperative tasks with classmates (pair and group activities)

Nishio, former Dean of the liberal arts school of ICU, regards the ELA as “the bilingualism aiming at multicultural cohabitation”. He comments as follows:

Since ICU has a high percentage of foreign faculty members and students, the official languages on the campus are both Japanese and English. English for Liberal Arts Program focuses on extensive reading, discussion, and essay writing. ELA has been designed on the foundation of a strong institutional will to achieve multicultural cohabitation. It is vital to utilize English, the global language, to communicate one’s own views clearly overcoming the limitations of nationalities and local languages. By overcoming the obstacles and inconveniences always present in the multicultural settings, one can experience a sense of freedom and gain the momentum to becoming competent professionals. (Yomiuri Shinbun: 2012/10/30)

I would like to conclude by saying that the first pillar of the university English education should be a repositioning of English as a liberal arts subject.

4.2.2 ESP as the core subject of specific fields. Another pillar of the university English education is English for Specific Purposes (ESP), especially ESP as the core subject of specific fields. The Central Education Council (2008) highlighted the need for “the acquisition of the foreign language ability to learn specific fields” and stated that “though the emphasis should be put on the balanced communication ability of English and other foreign languages, efforts should be made to build linkages between one’s foreign language ability with education in the specific fields” (JACET, 2010b:155). Hajime Terauchi (Ibid.:219-223) makes the following points.

- One of the necessary conditions is the collaboration between teachers of English and non-language subjects teachers.
- It is important to foster autonomous learners based on ESP theories so that they can work in their fields of study or work.
- Learners should be able to understand how genres are used in the professional world. They should acquire the language ability to analyze the linguistic characteristics of genres when needs arise.

Imura (2012: 17-19) tried to redefine ESP based on human development. He points out the following steps as concrete measures to get the ESP institutional programs off the ground.

- (1) Developing a systematic curriculum: by giving ESP the same status as non-language subjects, we can coordinate and integrate broader curricular aims.
- (2) Planning a syllabus based on a *can-do* list: each course should set an appropriate objective and a syllabus should be based on a *can-do* list.
- (3) Developing ESP content within the broader sphere of culture education: content to enhance cross-cultural understanding (i.e. material that elucidates the relationship between learners' own traditional culture and high-tech industry, etc.).
- (4) Developing a teaching method based on tasks such as setting a new frame for achieving one's potential through technical education: English proficiency is a 'skill' and by improving this skill, we can maximize personal growth.
- (5) Creating ESP teacher development system at graduate schools of education.

In conclusion, the two pillars of university English education are the reintroduction of English as a liberal arts subject and English for Specific Purposes (ESP), especially ESP as the core subject of specific fields.

Epilogue

I have discussed learning languages throughout life, focusing on pre-school children, primary school pupils, middle school and university students. When we go out into the world, we keep struggling with languages in many arenas. We keep learning languages until the end of our life. As long as we remain healthy physically and psychologically, our cognitive activities will continue to evolve. Language learning is a pursuit which is practical, cognitively demanding and open-ended. As such, engagement in this activity will be immensely beneficial for us individually and for our national and global communities more broadly.

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【Special Article】

Les *Niveaux commun de référence pour les langues* (A1-C2) du
CEFR/CEFR-J suffisent-ils pour enseigner ?
(Intervention à l'université de Shinshu)
(14 septembre 2014)

Jean-Claude Beacco

Introduction

La production et la diffusion du CEFR-J (English) visent à améliorer l'efficacité de l'enseignement de l'anglais et des langues au Japon, réputé non satisfaisant (Hashimoto : 2004, Hosoki 2011). Si un tel document est certainement très utile à cette fin, on montrera qu'il n'est aucunement suffisant.

1. Le CECR-J (English) et le CEFR

On a produit un ensemble de descripteurs de compétences (*can do's*) repris ou dérivés de ceux proposés par le chapitre 4 du CEFR. Ils sont organisés en 12 étapes (de pré A1 à C2) et en 5 compétences : spoken interaction (SI), spoken production (SP ; c'est-à-dire discours oral suivi non interactif), listening (L), reading (R) et writing (W).

Ce document ne saurait être nommé CEFR-J, puisqu'il n'y a qu'un seul *document commun* qui est le CEFR lui-même, le CEFR-J ne pouvant être « commun » qu'aux décideurs éducatifs et aux enseignants japonais.

Il s'agit en fait d'un programme d'anglais pour le système éducatif japonais fondé sur le

CEFR, lequel n'est pas un programme mais instrument pour produire des programmes et qui est donc utilisé à bon escient. Son adaptation au contexte éducatif japonais consiste :

- à réduire le nombre de compétences décrites : on ne retient pas celles de médiation (orale et écrite) ni celle d'interaction écrite rendue possible par les moyens informatiques de communication (type chat, mail, forum...) ; le modèle n'est pas très différent de celui traditionnel des 4 compétences ;
- à multiplier les points de référence (niveaux) : 4 subdivisions pour A1, deux pour A2, B1 et B2, puis C1 et C2 (sans subdivision), soit 12 étapes (ou objectifs ?) ; cela de manière semble-t-il à établir une correspondance avec les années du cursus scolaire : de la 3^e année de primary school aux années 1 et 2 de Juku ;
- à ne retenir que les descripteurs du chapitre 4 (l'utilisation de la langue...) et non

- de tous les autres qui définissent tous ensemble un niveau de référence ;
- à ne pas faire intervenir les dimensions culturelles et interculturelles de l'apprentissage des langues, qui sont d'ailleurs peu traitées dans le CEFR lui-même.

Cette adaptation du CEFR semble être surtout commandée par des préoccupations de nature institutionnelle : l'adapter à la structure du cursus et aux représentations professionnelles dominantes des enseignants, de manière à rendre son introduction dans le système éducatif moins traumatisante. Or l'emploi de ce nouveau document, le CEFR-J, ne peut s'effectuer dans les meilleures conditions que si un certain nombre de conditions sont réunies.

2. Expliquer la nature et le rôle du CEFR : un cadre technique pour les prises de décision

La première est d'expliquer la nature du CEFR. Le CEFR a pour objet de recenser de manière articulée et analytique les paramètres les plus importants intervenant dans l'enseignement-apprentissage des langues et d'en donner des descriptions explicites et transparentes, permettant de les identifier entre les langues et les cultures éducatives nationales. Ce document cherche à faciliter les échanges entre les praticiens, en proposant des dispositifs et des catégories d'analyse partagés. D'où l'importance des définitions proposées et de la terminologie adoptée. Il n'a aucune visée prescriptive et indique clairement qu'il n'a aucunement pour objet de promouvoir quelque forme que ce soit d'enseignement ou d'évaluation.

Le CEFR propose des catégories pour spécifier les contextes d'emploi des langues, les tâches communicatives et les objectifs de la communication, les thèmes sur lesquels porte la communication et les activités langagières (chapitre 4). Celles-ci sont orales ou écrites, interactives ou non, de réception, de production ou de médiation, soit 8 séries, subdivisées elles-mêmes en sous éléments, et étagées en 6 niveaux de référence quant à leur de maîtrise, allant de A1 à C2.

Le CEFR décrit ensuite, toujours sous forme d'ensemble étagé des descripteurs, les compétences de l'apprenant : compétences générales (savoir, aptitudes et savoir-faire, savoir être, savoir apprendre) et les compétences communicatives langagières, plus familières aux enseignants, comme les compétences linguistiques (lexicale, grammaticale, sémantique...), sociolinguistique (par ex. politesse) et pragmatiques, où intervient indirectement la notion de discours (et d'analyse du discours), à travers des catégories comme de types et de genres de textes.

Après la présentation du schéma descriptif d'ensemble, dans ses chapitres 6 et 7, le CEFR propose une typologie des moyens par lesquels l'apprenant devient capable de gérer ses tâches en langue étrangère. Apparaît là, dans les objectifs, la compétence plurilingue et pluriculturelle (p. 105 édition française) déjà présente en ouverture (p. 11).

Le CECR est document de travail qui offre une vision totalisante et structurée de manière cohérente de l'enseignement-apprentissage et il en définit tous les aspects sous des formes concises et stables. C'est le cadre dans lequel les décisions relatives à l'enseignement des langues doivent être prises. Il ne propose lui-même aucune « solution ».

3. Expliquer la nature et le rôle du CEFR : un cadre politique pour promouvoir l'éducation plurilingue et interculturelle

Il convient ensuite d'expliquer que le CECR comporte aussi une autre dimension, surplombant ses propositions techniques et qui leur donne sens. Celle-ci est centrée sur :

La compétence plurilingue et pluriculturelle, la compétence à communiquer langagièrement et à interagir culturellement possédée par un locuteur qui maîtrise, à des degrés divers, plusieurs langues et a, à des degrés divers, l'expérience de plusieurs cultures, tout en étant à même de gérer l'ensemble de ce capital langagier et culturel. L'option majeure est de considérer qu'il n'y a pas là superposition ou juxtaposition de compétences toujours distinctes, mais bien existence d'une compétence plurielle, complexe, voire composite et hétérogène, qui inclut des compétences singulières, voire partielles, mais qui est une en tant que répertoire disponible pour l'acteur social concerné (Coste, Moore et Zarate, 1997 : 12)

Cette perspective tend à rappeler que la finalité de l'apprentissage des langues n'est pas exclusivement communicative et utilitaire, mais que celui-ci doit contribuer à la construction de nouvelles identités. Relier l'enseignement des langues au développement de la personne, c'est marquer que ce qui est fondamental n'est pas tant les langues que l'on apprend que ceux qui les parlent.

La compétence plurilingue est présente chez tous les individus, qui sont potentiellement ou effectivement plurilingues ; cette compétence est la concrétisation de la capacité de langage, dont tout être humain dispose génétiquement et qui peut s'investir dans plusieurs langues. Il revient à l'Ecole d'assurer le développement harmonieux de la compétence plurilingue de chacun, au même titre que celui de ses capacités physiques, cognitives ou créatives.

Cette compétence est segmentée entre différentes matières scolaires qui s'ignorent, le plus souvent : il convient de rétablir des cohérences entre les différents enseignements de langue (nationale, maternelle, étrangère, régionale...), en parallèle et dans leur succession, et d'intégrer le développement de cette capacité dans le cadre d'une éducation linguistique cohérente : le Conseil de l'Europe parle de *concept global pour les langues* et la Commission européenne d'*approche holistique*

Ce projet éducatif n'est peut-être pas pertinent pour la société japonaise et il semble absent du CEFR-J. Mais il le deviendra tôt ou tard, avec la mondialisation des circulations humaines. Le CEFR est au service de ce projet et c'est sa principale raison d'être.

4. Introduire une perspective de type CEFR dans l'enseignement : conditions pour la spécification des objectifs

Utiliser le CEFR-J revient à utiliser une approche par compétences identifiées (*discrete competence approach*), descripteurs de compétences et niveaux de compétences est sans aucun doute un facteur de clarification pour les objectifs à faire atteindre aux apprenants. Mais son introduction doit tenir compte d'un certain nombre de facteurs :

- vérifier, au moins a posteriori mais empiriquement, que ces objectifs sont réalistes dans le volume horaire d'enseignement disponible : ils peuvent être trop ambitieux (C1 & C2) ou trop proches l'un de l'autre et donc difficiles à distinguer et à mettre en oeuvre (4 niveaux pour A1). Dans ce cas, la progressivité peut-être trop faible et engendrer d'excessives répétitions ; il convient d'éviter les effets de plafonnement (*ceiling effects*) (Runnels 2013) ;
- préférer la détermination d'objectifs par cycles et non par année, ce qui est plus souple et laisse des espaces pour des adaptations aux différents contextes d'enseignement au Japon ;
- organiser des séances de travail par établissement pour que les enseignants définissent ensemble ce qu'ils comprennent des descripteurs qui, quoi qu'on fasse, demeurent ambigus (Fleming 2009 et Runnels supra) ;
- privilégier la notion de *profil de compétence* à celle de niveau uniforme à travers les compétences. On peut estimer que les niveaux à atteindre ne sont pas nécessairement identiques pour SI, R ou W. Car les compétences en langue sont souvent non-équilibrées (plus importante en réception qu'en production par exemple).

En tout état de cause, cette nouvelle forme de définition des objectifs doit être justifiée, introduite progressivement, illustrée par du matériel pédagogique correspondant (manuels) et non imposée administrativement de haut en bas, faute de quoi elle restera

lettre morte, comme cela s'est déjà vérifié dans bien des Etats européens.

5. Introduire une perspective de type CEFR dans l'enseignement : conditions pour la spécification des modalités d'enseignement

Introduire de facto et indirectement une approche par compétences dans les pratiques d'enseignement (et non plus seulement dans la forme des objectifs) peut constituer une véritable « révolution », à tout le moins, une très forte modification des manières de faire établies. Ceci, partout où les pratiques d'enseignement dominantes sont centrées sur la mémorisation, le lexique et la grammaire, avec comme modalité pédagogique principale l'interaction des élèves avec l'enseignant, qui pose des questions, attend des réponses et les évalue (ce que l'on désigne ordinairement et à tort par « entraîner les élèves à parler »). Il importe de faire prendre conscience à toutes et à tous qu'une approche comme celle du CEFR-J qui seraient mise en œuvre par essentiellement par des tâches et des activités portant du lexique–syntaxe n'est très probablement pas de nature à modifier substantiellement l'efficacité de l'enseignement.

Pour passer des descripteurs du CEFR-J aux activités de classe, certaines conditions doivent être respectées :

- définir les situations de communication et surtout les *genres de textes* qui y prennent place, descripteur par descripteur et compétence par compétence ;
- comprendre que les supports pour les activités (qui sont aussi des échantillons/exemples des genres de textes avec lesquels familiariser les élèves) sont spécifiques à chaque compétence et ne sont pas interchangeables. En particulier, il n'est pas très pédagogique de s'occuper des toutes les compétences à partir d'un même support ;
- entraîner de manière spécifique les élèves à gérer les genres de textes en réception et en production, selon la nature de ces genres de textes ;
- identifier le matériel linguistique correspondant aux descripteurs qualitatifs, en particulier au moyen des descriptions du CEFR par langues (DNR ; ou RLD : *Reference Level Description* http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/dnr_EN.asp?) ; pour l'anglais accessible sur *English Profile* <http://www.englishprofile.org/>
- mettre l'accent autant sur les règles de genres (pour la propriété) que les règles de phrase (= la « grammaire » ; pour la correction) ;
- de comprendre que la forme des séquences d'enseignement n'est pas la même selon les compétences : on n'enseigne pas W comme L ;
- dessiner des séquences d'enseignement différentes suivant les compétences, en tenant compte de phases comme : exposition à la langue/aux textes à faire reproduire, compréhension de ces échantillons, nécessaire à l'appropriation, systématisation communicative et formelle, restitution, tout ceci au moyen d'activités réalistes/vraisemblables et réflexives.

6. Le CEFR-J est-il contextualisé ?

Le CEFR-J est une adaptation, a priori bienvenue, des propositions du CEFR au contexte japonais pour ce qui concerne les descripteurs et les niveaux de compétences. Mais la perspective du CEFR-J est sous-tendue par une perspective communicative sur l'enseignement-apprentissage des langues, qu'on le veuille ou non, car c'est aussi la posture adoptée dans le CEFR. Il n'est pas dit que celle-ci soit facilement utilisable et immédiatement rentable dans le contexte japonais ; ceci du fait :

- de la distance entre les langues, qui tendent à privilégier le travail sur la grammaire et le lexique, plus sécurisant ;
- de la culture éducative, influencée par les formes d'apprentissage du système graphique du japonais (nombre de caractères à apprendre par année), le rôle de la mémorisation ou la valeur sociale accordée aux résultats ; or, en langue, on peut obtenir de « bonnes » notes sans avoir vraiment acquis la maîtrise correspondante ;
- de la disponibilité des enseignants à mettre en oeuvre concrètement ce document de cadrage, s'ils ne sont pas convaincus ou pas assez préparés à le faire.

Il convient donc d'user de prudence et de procéder à petits pas, à partir d'une description claire et significative des pratiques de classe effectives des enseignants et d'une enquête sur leur perception du CEFR-J et de ses emplois en classe.

Indépendamment de cela, on sait que les enseignements de langues sont globalement peu rentables du fait d'une exposition insuffisante des élèves à la langue cible (qui n'est généralement pas présente de manière significative dans l'environnement des élèves). Mais l'accès aux langues est désormais rendu possible par les technologies. Il importerait de se servir de cette nouvelle ressource, tout autant que du CEFR-J. Et sans oublier que, pour motiver et encourager les élèves la pédagogie est au moins aussi importante que la méthodologie d'enseignement.

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【Special article】

English Language Education in Austria:
Teacher Education in the Context of the CEFR

— Key-note Speech at Language Education EXPO 2015, Waseda University —

Barbara Mehlmauer-Larcher

1. The Implementation of the CEFR in Austria

More than ten years ago the Austrian education authorities decided to base the country's entire language education on the CEFR (*Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*), with English as the first and by far most popular foreign language taking the lead in this challenging and complex process. This far reaching decision meant a complete shift in paradigm as Austria had developed a long standing tradition of input-oriented national curricula for all levels of the education system. Furthermore, before the introduction of the CEFR the Austrian education system completely lacked expertise in and understanding of criteria referenced assessment procedures and had no nationwide standardized language test formats at any level within the system, quite in contrast to other European countries like the UK or France.

To begin with new language curricula for all levels and types of schools, colleges and universities had to be developed based on the underlying principles of the CEFR of an outcome-based and action-oriented approach to language teaching, learning and assessment. Based on the reference level descriptors of the CEFR for all five skills (reading, listening, writing, monologic and dialogic speaking) educational standards were defined describing the required objectives and outcomes at a given level of the learning process. The definition of these educational standards has had far reaching consequences for EFL teachers, learners, materials producers and the whole education system as such because the formulation of CEFR related educational standards in the curricula has led to a much closer interdependence between national curricula documents, language pedagogy and formative as well as summative assessment procedures in Austrian EFL classrooms.

Amongst many other challenges caused by the shift in paradigm from an input to an outcome and competence based approach to EFL teaching, the development of standardized national EFL test formats has been one of the major and most difficult enterprises for the education system and its various institutions in Austria in recent years. First the so-called E8 testing (English: 8th grade of schooling, at the age of 14), a national standardized test for the skills of writing, reading and listening, was developed

and introduced targeted at the CEFR reference level B1 for the receptive skills and A2+ for the productive skills.

This educational standards test is carried out every third year and all EFL students attending the last grade of the lower secondary school level have to take this test which has for the individual student primarily a diagnostic function and no impact on his/her grade. In addition to this diagnostic function the E8 tests provide rich and valuable data for the individual EFL teacher, head teachers and educational authorities on a regional and national level. These data shed light on how well learners and teachers, various types of schools and regions within Austria are doing at achieving the preset educational standards in the subject of English as a foreign language.

The second standardized national test format which has been introduced recently is the so called *Neue Matura*, a school leaving exam which has to be taken by all EFL students at the very last level of their upper secondary education at the age of 18/19. The test format covers the skills of reading, listening, writing and language in use for all students targeted at the level reference of B2 with speaking being an optional part. The test takers are graded according to their test results and as such this school-leaving test is of major significance for the students and their teachers.

As already mentioned, the introduction of the CEFR and the development of national standardized EFL test formats based on the CEFR has led to major challenges on all levels of the education system in Austria, ranging from national curriculum design, language test construction and test administration on a national level, EFL materials production and adaptation to huge efforts needed to be undertaken in the fields of in-service and pre-service EFL teacher education in order to guarantee successful change management in a rather traditional sector of Austrian society.

2. Pre-service EFL teacher education

2.1 The setting

Pre-service language teacher education can be regarded as one of the key areas responsible for successful change management as it is the young student teachers who are likely to be open to new developments and approaches in the fields of language teaching, learning and assessment. Despite this openness to new developments, student teachers enter university with ideas, beliefs on and attitudes to EFL teaching influenced and moulded by the many years they spent observing their own teachers during their time as EFL learners, a phenomenon which is referred to as the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie1975). Taking these ideas, beliefs and attitudes as a starting point in pre-service teacher education is in line with the current research focus on language

teacher cognition and language teacher learning (Borg 2006).

As for the Austrian setting EFL education based on the CEFR with its underlying principle of communicative competence as the main goal of language learning poses quite some challenges for both the EFL student teachers and all the teacher educators involved in trying to provide an effective and research based language teacher education programme. It is not only a fairly high level of language proficiency level (C1+) which the non-native student teachers need to develop but it is also the expert knowledge and skills of professional language teachers they need to acquire gradually. This professional expertise should enable novice EFL teachers firstly to define learning targets based on the CEFR level descriptors and with reference to the relevant curriculum guidelines and secondly, to select language learning activities and materials (or even develop those activities and materials themselves if necessary) to meet the set targets. Finally, teachers need to be able to choose appropriate language assessment tasks in order to evaluate the learning process of groups and individuals (Little 2011; Figueras 2012).

2.2. A conceptual frame of teacher learning

Some of the crucial challenges and issues of language teacher education are the extent and the nature of the knowledge base student teachers need to acquire and the range of actual teaching skills they have to develop in order to plan, initiate, foster and evaluate required learning processes in their classrooms. Hence teacher education programmes ought to be based on sound conceptual frames which aim at the translation and transformation of knowledge acquired in university-based courses into teaching practice (Zeichner 2010). Such concepts of teacher learning provide models for the construction of theoretical knowledge as well as a frame for so-called situated teacher learning (Lave & Wenger 1991) taking place during different kinds of teaching practice phases within a pre-service teacher education programme (Mehlmauer-Larcher 2012b).

2.2.1. A cognitive-psychological model of professional learning. Moon (1999, 2004) provides a cognitive-psychological model of professional learning based on a moderate constructivist view of teacher learning. The cognitive process of reflection plays a crucial role in this model of professional learning, constituting an integral part of process levels of learning. In order to make her conceptual frame of learning and the role of reflection in this model more explicit and comprehensible, Moon (1999: 137) has developed a so-called map of learning trying to visualize her hypothetical considerations. The three main elements of this map are a) the cognitive structure, b) the five stages of learning and c) the best possible representation of learning related to the five distinctive stages of learning (see Fig. 1 below). In the following, the main elements of Moon's map of learning will be described, starting with a brief description

of the cognitive structure and an overview of the five stages of learning.

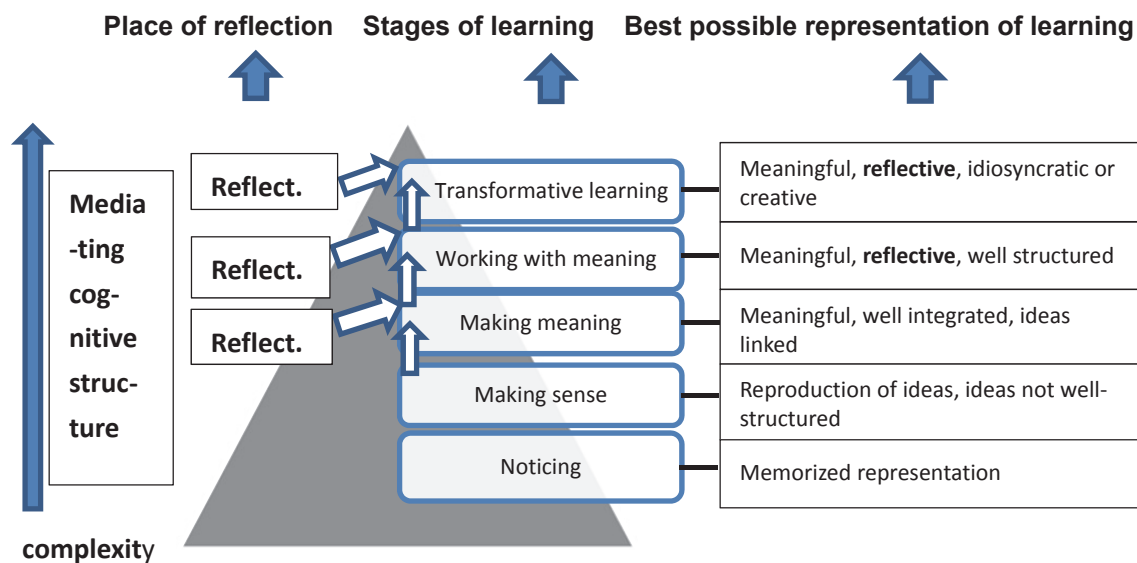


Figure1. A map of learning and the representation of learning and the role of reflection (cf. Moon 1999: 154)

The cognitive structure

In simple words the term “cognitive structure” can be described as what the learners already know at the start of an actual learning process. Based on Piaget’s (1953) understanding of learning processes, new information, or rather new learning material, needs to be successfully integrated into a learner’s existing cognitive structure. The integration of new learning material requires “a mutual accommodation of the cognitive structure and the new material of learning,” (Moon 1999: 108). This mutual accommodation is visualized by Moon (1999: 110) as a cyclical process under the control of the cognitive structure whereby the new learning material is assimilated to the existing mental structure which, in a mutual process, is accommodated to the new incoming information. This cyclical process starts again when further new learning material needs to be integrated into the existing cognitive structure. The next two main features of Moon’s map of learning are the various stages of learning and how they can be represented.

Five stages of professional learning and their representations

1) *Noticing* is described as the stage of perception when the learner acquires the sensory data of the learning material. At this stage the cognitive structure functions as a filter aiming at controlling and organizing the input of the material of learning. Apart from organizing the input, the stage of noticing also fulfills a gate keeping function on the

affective level, as at this stage the learner's attitudes towards the subject matter have a relatively strong influence on the outcome of the learning process, as do the learner's motivation and general emotional state.

At the stage of noticing the best possible representation of learning is limited to a memorized representation of the learning material. This representation of the learning material may show deviations from the original as a consequence of possible inaccurate remembering on the learner's side (cf. Moon 1999: 141f).

2) *Making sense* is the second stage and refers to the process when the learner attends to coherency in the new learning material and is able to classify and order its elements. The act of making sense comprises basic solutions to problems which do not require relating the matter to any prior knowledge; however, newly acquired ideas might need to be reorganized. The task of the teacher at this stage is to support the learner in acquiring a coherent picture of the new material of learning without having to integrate it into already existing understanding and meanings. This aspect of learning is reserved for the next stage of learning.

The representation of learning at the stage of making sense might demonstrate a certain degree of coherence in itself; however, a level of sophisticated learning characterized by broad and deep integration of newly acquired meaning is not achieved yet (cf. Moon 1999: 142).

3) *Making meaning* is defined as the next stage of learning when the assimilation of the new material of learning takes place in the existing cognitive structure. Parallel to the assimilation process, the cognitive structure undergoes an accommodation process so that the learner can make sense of the new material and relate it to his/her existing knowledge. At this stage of learning the learner becomes able to accumulate and deepen the learning process over a longer span of time. With regard to academic learning the learner begins to develop an understanding of a discipline at this stage. This can be achieved in discussions or tutorials related to issues in a discipline as well as through feedback given to students' writings, assisting the learners in building links of understanding.

At the stage of making meaning the representation of learning can be described as deep learning. The learners at this stage can link various ideas and concepts and they are capable of a holistic view of the learning material (cf. Moon 1999: 143).

4) *Working with meaning* follows the stage of making meaning and is the second stage of deep learning processes. Similarly to the final stage (transformative learning), at this stage the learner does not need to be in actual contact with the new learning

material which has been transformed through the process of accommodation and which has been integrated in the cognitive structure. This stage of learning involves continuous accommodation of the cognitive structure and, if required, the processing of meaningful knowledge towards a specific end, e. g. the clarification and expression of ideas and views on a topic. Working with meaning also implies that the learner increases the degree of understanding and explores the subject matter for a particular purpose. Teaching at this stage is not always required as the learner might work independently, although the learner might need further information and input from the teacher at given points in the process. The teacher can foster the learning process at this stage through guidance, the setting of tasks and putting forward provocative questions which initiate working with meaning. Another type of intervention on the part of the teacher at this stage might be the setting of criteria for marking assignments which require the learner to prove that s/he is able to re-process and re-formulate the perceived information (cf. Moon 1999: 143f).

At this stage the representation of learning illustrates the learner's ability to consider personal as well as disciplinary knowledge in a way which indicates processes of reflection and anticipation (cf. Moon 1999: 145). Before dealing with the place and the function of reflection in more detail, the final and most complex stage of learning will be briefly described.

5) *Transformative learning* should be regarded as an advancement of the previous stage. There seems to be no clear cut distinction between the two upper stages of learning but rather a seamless transition leading from the second highest to the highest stage called transformative learning (cf. Moon 1999: 145). Although there appears to be considerable overlap between the two highest stages of learning, Moon argues in favor of a separate stage with reference to Habermas (1971) and his categories of human interests. She claims that Habermas's third category of emancipatory interest and the kind of knowledge construction and reflection associated with this interest asks for a separate stage situated above the stage of working with meaning. A characteristic feature of transformative learning is the learners' capacity to critically assess their frames of references and the quality of their own and that of other people's knowledge. It is argued that the process of transformative learning requires from learners a high degree of control over their cognitive structures as well as a deep understanding of the processes and the representations of learning. Learners at this stage demonstrate high degrees of self-motivation and profit from a learning context providing opportunities for the assessment and testing of their ideas by others.

In terms of the representation of learning at this highest stage of learning, learners are capable of a critical overview of the knowledge to be acquired; furthermore, learners

are able to critically analyze their individual knowledge and their functioning in connection with this knowledge (cf. Moon 1999: 146).

The place and the role of reflection

Moon developed her hypothetical map of learning (see Fig. 1) firstly to locate the place of reflection in professional learning processes like in pre-service teacher education and secondly to develop a deeper understanding of the nature of reflection. With regard to the place of reflection she argues that in her map of learning, reflection plays an important role at the three highest stages of learning, namely *making meaning*, *working with meaning* and *transformative learning*, which require more refined and complex mental processes (cf. Moon 1999: 152).

With regard to the role and function of reflection, Moon (1999: 152) points to reflection as an essential feature of complex professional learning processes and she ascribes reflection a central role in three aspects of high-level professional learning, namely 1) in the initial learning process, 2) in the representation of learning and 3) in the up-grading of learning.

Firstly, in initial learning, reflection has the role of a kind of “cognitive housekeeping”. According to Moon (1999: 153), this is particularly true for higher levels of learning which require a more complex process of accommodation and a restructuring of the cognitive structure, e.g. when learners move from a mere “making meaning” to “working with meaning” (see Fig. 1). In more concrete terms, this mental housekeeping refers to what other researchers concerned with reflection have defined as reflection-on-action (e.g. Schön 1983, 1987, Hatton & Smith 1995, Roberts 1998, Akbari 2007, Farrell 2007). In the context of pre-service teacher education reflection-on-action is understood as a thinking back, a re-consideration or re-assessment of an event or a sequence of events, for example, classroom observations or held teaching sequences. In this context reflection results in additional making of meaning and, furthermore, leads student teachers to the ability to work with meaning.

Secondly, reflection in the representation of learning may be required by means of specific tasks set for learners at higher learning stages. For example, tasks can be set in a way to require reflection, like in a “reflective learning journal”. It is characteristic of these reflective journals that reflection forms both the process and the purpose of the task. Through the process of reflection, learners are supposed to reach a deeper and more complex understanding, which is demonstrated in a written form like essays or reports. These written works function as representations of high level learning processes. The representations may not be limited to written formats but can also take a spoken form like in reflective talks or group discussions (cf. Moon 1999: 153 f).

Thirdly, reflection in the upgrading of learning enables learners to move from lower surface learning stages to higher, deep level learning stages. Lower level learning lacks the connection of newly acquired knowledge with previously learned material. Reflection supports the integration of newly acquired information in the existing cognitive structure. Specific techniques of questioning foster reflective processes in this context and may help learners to develop a better understanding and move from just making sense to higher and more sophisticated stages of learning (cf. Moon 1999: 155).

The description of a hierarchical system of various phases of learning, and coupled with assigning reflection certain roles and places in such a learning model, leads Moon to a definition of reflection from the perspective of learning psychology. Because of this perspective Moon (1999: 155) defines reflection as “a mental process with purpose and/or outcome in which manipulation of meaning is applied to relatively complicated or unstructured ideas in learning or to problems for which there is no obvious solution”. The first part of the definition reminds us of Dewey’s definition of reflection, as the educational philosopher also assigned the quality of purposefulness to the mental process of reflection (Dewey: 1938). The final part of Moon’s definition takes up the theme of challenging problems demanding complex solutions which can be found with the help of reflective mental processes. This aspect resembles Schön’s (1983) metaphor of the “swampy lowlands” professional practitioners, like language teachers, find themselves in and the challenging problems they are confronted with in their jobs and for which they need to find solutions. Similarly to Schön, Moon regards the process of reflection as a key factor for finding solutions to complex and ill-defined problems within the fields of practitioners – in our case the field being the English foreign language classroom.

Outcome and purpose of reflection

Amongst other desirable outcomes reflection might lead to and support the building of theory. In the process of theory building reflection is the mediating element between research-based validated theories and practitioners’ subjective theories derived out of practice. Much of Schön’s theory of reflection but also other researchers (e.g. Korthagen 2010, Widdowson 2003) assign a key role to reflection within the process of theory building in particular and the mediation between theory and practice in general.

In the context of pre-service language teacher education Widdowson (2003) argues that for novice teachers it is not sufficient to observe experienced teachers and reflect on these experiences but that for the development of professional expertise grounded in theory acquired teaching knowledge needs to be abstracted from classroom experience.

For student teachers it is crucial to learn to reflect on the question why teachers act in the way they do because “[t]o reflect on practice in this way is to theorize about it, to abstract and make explicit the principles that inform certain ways of doing things” (Widdowson 2003: 3).

Similarly to Moon’s model, reflection also has a crucial function in Korthagen’s (2010) integrative model of teacher learning, which tries to combine a cognitive and a situated approach to professional learning. The process of reflection is regarded as the key, enabling student teachers to integrate experiences gained in a situated learning environment like in practice teaching in processes of abstraction, generalization and theory formation. Given the fact that for both Moon’s and Korthagen’s teacher learning models reflection takes up a central role in language teacher education, designers of teacher education programmes are faced with the challenge of providing opportunities and support for structured reflection in both university-based courses and during phases of teaching practice. Hence the publication of the EPOSTL (*The European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages: A Reflection Tool for Language Teacher Education*) in 2007 (Newby et al.) provided an opportunity for institutions dealing with pre-service language teacher education to provide the required support for reflection.

3. The EPOSTL: a useful tool for the promotion of reflection and teacher learning

3.1 The EPOSTL in the European context of language learning and teaching

At European level the EPOSTL (Newby et al. 2007) is the fourth document in a series of official documents dealing with the teaching and learning of languages. The series was launched in 2001 with the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR), initiated by the Council of Europe, followed by *The European Profile for Language Teacher Education: A Frame of Reference* (Kelly & Grenfell: 2004) supported by the European Commission Directorate General for Education and Culture. The *Profile* is the second document to deal with issues of language teacher education. *The European Language Portfolio* (ELP) came next and, like the EPOSTL, was commissioned by the Council of Europe (cf. Newby 2007: 23).

The *European Profile for Language Teacher Education* is a reference tool for curriculum developers, teacher educators and institutions involved in the education and development of language teachers. The main purpose of the document is to provide an overview of the required knowledge as well as a comprehensive and systematic list of essential competences and skills required of future language teachers. Moreover, the profile can be seen as a checklist for institutions offering teacher education programmes when they need to plan curricula and their course programmes (cf. Kelly & Grenfell 2004: 3).

Both the EPOSTL and the *Profile* provide a list of required competences and skills. However, in contrast to the *Profile*, whose target group is primarily teacher educators and curriculum planners, the EPOSTL has as its target group teacher students, practising language teachers and teacher educators. Hence the EPOSTL provides a kind of “bottom-up perspective” whereas the perspective of the *Profile* can be called a “top-down perspective”. In principle the EPOSTL is closely related to the CEFR in so far as it lists the knowledge, competences and skills required of language teachers so that these teachers are enabled to teach the competences and skills required of language learners by the CEFR (cf. Newby 2007: 24).

According to the authors of the EPOSTL, this instrument aims at supporting student teachers’ reflection on their didactic knowledge and skills. As a consequence of structured reflective processes, student teachers using the EPOSTL are enabled to assess their didactic competences and they can easily chart their learning progress and plan further learning steps (Newby 2007). Furthermore, the EPOSTL is linked up closely with the CEFR and is based on a similar concept of communicative competence and action-orientation.

3.2 The implementation of the EPOSTL

The CELT (*Centre for English Language Teaching*) at the University of Vienna/Austria was one of the first institutions to implement the EPOSTL in its pre-service language teacher education programme. Two reasons were decisive for this step: firstly, the EPOSTL as a tool for reflection can be used to support student teachers following a teacher education programme based on the above mentioned reflective model of teacher learning developed by Moon. Secondly, the EPOSTL provides a concise overview of the main didactic knowledge required by a practising EFL teacher in Austria who needs to help his/her learners to achieve pre-defined language competence levels as stated in the relevant national curricula documents based on the CEFR.

The implementation of the EPOSTL at the CELT was carefully planned in order to guarantee a gradual and structured introduction to the use of this document by teacher educators and student teachers. The document has been integrated in various courses of the university-based methodology programme and the extent of its use varies according to the aims and designs of the particular course. The document is introduced in the two initial methodology classes and followed by a practicum phase and an accompanying campus-based course to the practicum. It is in this accompanying course that the EPOSTL plays a particularly prominent role in the course design (cf. Mehlmauer-Larcher 2012a).

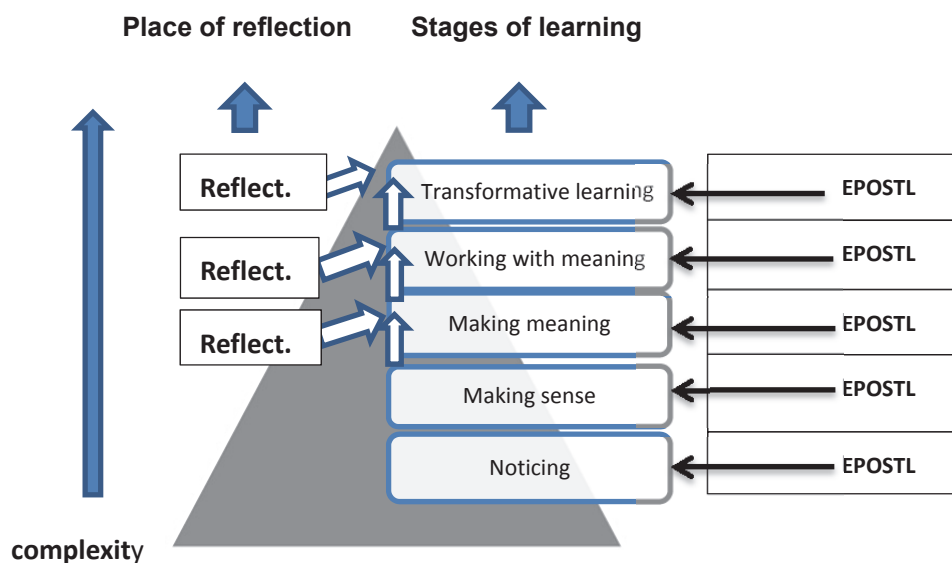


Figure 2. A map of learning and the EPOSTL (cf. Moon 1999: 154, adapted)

Shortly after the implementation of the EPOSTL at the CELT a research project was started to analyze the potential and limitations of the EPOSTL as a tool for reflection and self-assessment in pre-service teacher education at the CELT. A questionnaire was designed and 13 semi-structured interviews were carried out with EFL teacher students shortly after they had finished their practicum phase. In the following a few selected results of the qualitative data analysis will be presented.

The research project revealed that, unsurprisingly at the beginning of their careers, student teachers in the CELT programme frequently report about the EPOSTL as an instrument which helps them with lower level learning processes (see Fig. 2) like noticing and making sense, some examples of which are provided below (the most relevant passages are underlined):

Noticing:

Example 1

I think, if you are very self-critical you realize that there is [in the EPOSTL] such a lot [of descriptors] and I have not paid any attention to this so far, I have not cared about it.

Making sense and making meaning:

Example 2

Some of these descriptors are a bit fuzzy for me, they first need to be “blown up” so that you know what they actually mean, that was a process for me; [...] If you understand what’s in these descriptors or what could be in these

descriptors, namely the theory and the activities which are there, only then you understand what 100% really mean.

With the help of the EPOSTL and the mental process of reflection some novices move already from lower stages of learning to higher stages, such as making meaning and working with meaning.

Making meaning and working with meaning:

Example 3

What? ... the descriptor, it is so loaded that I think you can make three out of it; here I have to be aware of coherence, cohesion and structure, they are 3 wonderful terms, I need to be clear, do I teach in a grammar school [children & teenagers] or do I teach in adult education, ... at the level of A1 or B1 or B2 because then these terms mean something totally different, don't they?

The highest learning stage, namely transformative learning (see Fig. 1 and 2), was not reached by any of the students at this level of their pre-service teacher education programme. This is not surprising at all, given the complexity of teacher expertise required for such a high level learning process and the relatively early stage of their education programme as well as the limited amount of practice experience which they have at this point in their learning process. Transformative learning processes are more likely to happen towards the end of an education programme and with highly experienced practising language teachers who reflect critically on issues and may develop totally new solutions to problems inherent in their professional lives.

Nevertheless the EPOSTL has proven to be a valuable tool to initiate and support teacher learning processes at various stages of learning requiring reflective or so called pre-reflective processes.

4. Summary

For its state school system Austria has decided to base its English language education on the CEFR, aiming at developing learners' ability to communicate on specific proficiency levels which have been clearly defined in relevant national curricula. The CEFR forms the common basis of all curricula, teaching materials and national examinations. Consequently, Austrian language teacher education programmes must aim at providing teachers with specific teaching competences which help learners achieve the pre-defined proficiency levels.

Besides the numerous measures which had to be taken at all levels of the system to

cope with the implementation of the CEFR in the Austrian EFL language education system, providers of pre-service language teacher education programmes like the CELT had to rethink and reorganize their education programmes to prepare their students for the shift to an outcomes-based and action-oriented approach to language learning, teaching and assessment. The EPOSTL as a tool closely related to the principles and underlying concept of the CEFR was implemented with the aim of initiating, assisting and supporting teacher learning processes at low and high stages of professional learning.

Already before the implementation of the CEFR the teacher education programme at the CELT was based on a reflective approach to teacher learning. With its aim of promoting reflection, the EPOSTL seemed to ideally complement this already existing reflective approach to teacher education. As the results of a research project on the implementation of the EPOSTL show this instrument has a strong potential for initiating and supporting reflection leading from low to high level teacher learning processes which are essential for EFL student teachers in Austria under the present circumstances.

Some of the huge challenges represented by the introduction of the CEFR have already been met in Austria; however, many others are still to be worked on. Austria still has a long way to go in terms of an effective and sensitive implementation of the CEFR in its language education system and consequently also with regard to developing effective language teacher education programmes enabling teachers to cope with the manifold issues involved in such a fundamental change in the system. Not surprisingly, there is a well-known proverb which is frequently quoted in connection with the implementation of the CEFR in Austria: It says that it takes two generations of language teachers before a change becomes really well established in the system.

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【Research Paper】

**Can Intercultural Competence Be Developed Through Textbooks?
An Analysis of English Textbooks for
Japanese Junior High School Students**

Natsue Nakayama and Fumiko Kurihara

Abstract

In recent years the number of people who speak English as a second or a foreign language (ESL or EFL) has significantly increased, and English is now the primary language used around the world for international communication. Thus, it has been suggested, the model for English learners should no longer be native speaker competence, but rather intercultural communicative competence (ICC) (Byram, 1997). In this paper, we will examine how Japanese junior high school students' intercultural competence (IC) may possibly be increased by studying English using government-approved textbooks. The results show that the current major textbooks approved for Japanese junior high school students may help learners increase their intercultural competence (IC) at a surface level by drawing their attention to various cultural topics but not necessarily at a deeper level, which will require them to develop attitudes, knowledge and skills to act as an intercultural speaker in the target language. We will argue that teachers need to become more aware of the importance of enhancing Japanese EFL learners' IC and materials should be designed in order to help them communicate effectively with people with diverse cultural backgrounds in the globalized world.

Keywords

Japanese EFL learners, Intercultural Competence, J-POSTL, FREPA,
Government-approved Junior High School Textbooks

**1. A shift in the goal of English education: From the native speaker model
to the intercultural speaker model**

In an increasingly globalized world, English has become one of the main languages learned and spoken internationally. The number of people actively learning English has been growing, and it is estimated that 1.2 to 1.5 billion people around the world use English as a second or a foreign language, whereas about 400 million people are considered to be native speakers of English (Crystal, 1997). Currently, English has served as an international auxiliary language or lingua franca in various settings, especially in academia and business. The important implication for English language learners is that there will be more chances than in the past to use English with other

non-native speakers of various linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Consequently, the validity of setting up (near-)native-speaker English as a model for learners, with their potentially very different communication needs, has been seriously questioned (Byram, 1997; Corbett, 2003).

In Japan, the new Course of Study for foreign-language classes in junior high schools (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science & Technology [MEXT], 2008) says that the overall objective of studying foreign languages is “to develop students’ basic communication abilities such as listening, speaking, reading and writing, deepening their understandings of language and culture and fostering [positive] attitude toward communication through foreign languages.” However, it is not clearly stated what the “target culture” is or how it should be dealt with for English learners. Unfortunately, in Japan, the idea that acquiring (near-)native competence should be the goal for learners has remained dominant, because native speakers’ English is viewed as more authentic and valid (Tanaka, 2010). It is unlikely, however, that Japanese learners who are only familiar with native speakers’ English will succeed in communicating in English with other non-native speakers in Asia. Thus we are left with the question, what should be the target culture and linguistic model for learners of English in Japan?

Indeed, native competency is not only an unattainable goal for most learners (see Saville-Troike, pp. 188–189), but it may seriously damage their confidence in their ability to learn to use the target language, since no matter how much effort they make, their ability to read, write, listen, and speak is unlikely to reach native norms. Torigai (2013) argues that Japanese people have suffered an inferiority complex in relation to English since the Meiji era (1868-1912), feeling that they cannot achieve (near-)native competence despite many years of studying the language in school.

Another serious drawback of adopting native competence as a model for learners is that it does not give much consideration to learners’ identity or their cultural backgrounds. When learning a foreign language, learners are exposed to a different culture, hand in hand with their target language acquisition. However, acquiring conversancy in a new culture is not a simple process, especially for adult learners who have already acquired their first language. Byram (1997) points out that learners might become “linguistically schizophrenic” if they feel forced to “abandon” their own culture or identity in order to acquire new one.

The native speaker model would create the wrong kind of competence. It would imply that a learner should be linguistically schizophrenic, abandoning one language in order to blend into another linguistic environment, becoming accepted as a native speaker by other native speakers. This linguistic

schizophrenia also suggests separation from one's own culture and the acquisition of a native sociocultural identity. (p. 11)

Establishing a sociocultural identity is a complex and dynamic process that requires various stages of negotiation and adjustment to take in new values or norms into one's own system. In native-based models of linguistic competence, this process is often underestimated and inadequate attention is paid to the process of establishing one's new sociocultural identity through learning a new language.

Byram (1997) proposed a model of *intercultural communicative competence* (ICC) that consists of four competences: *linguistic*, *sociolinguistic*, *discourse*, and *intercultural* competences. He claims that in previous models of communicative competence, such as those proposed by Hymes (1972) or van Ek (1986), there is a "tendency to posit the native speaker communicating with other native speakers as the underlying phenomenon" (p. 10).

On the other hand, someone with Intercultural Communicative Competence is able to interact with people from another country and culture in a foreign language. They are able to negotiate a mode of communication and able to act as mediator between people of different cultural origins. (p. 71)

According to Byram (1997), intercultural competence has four dimensions: *attitudes*, *knowledge*, *skills* (specifically, *interpreting and relating* skills and *discovery and interaction* skills) and *critical cultural awareness*. Attitudes here encompass "curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one's own" (p. 57). Knowledge means knowledge "of social groups and their products and practices in one's own and in one's interlocutor's country, and of the general processes of societal and individual interaction" (p. 58). Skills of interpreting and relating refer to "the ability to interpret a document or event from another culture to explain it and relate it to document or events from one's own" (p. 61), and skills of discovery and interaction refer to "the ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes, and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction" (p. 61). Finally, critical cultural awareness is "the ability to evaluate, critically and on the basis of explicit criteria, perspectives, practices, and products in one's own and other cultures and countries" (p. 71).

The ICC model is appropriate for Japanese learners of English because most of them study English as a foreign language and it is likely that they will speak English with interlocutors from a variety of (both native and non-native) cultural backgrounds

Japanese learners need to develop strong intercultural competence (IC) so that they do not become “linguistically schizophrenic” but instead grow as intercultural speakers who can negotiate between their own culture and those of others while acquiring a new language. In fact, without IC, one may cause a serious misunderstanding or conflict in communication even if one is linguistically competent in the target language.

2. The significance of interculturality in CEFR and FREPA

The *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001) which has been widely adopted by language education systems, in Europe and elsewhere, describes the shift in the aims of language education in global context.

It is no longer seen as simply to achieve “mastery” of one or two or even three languages, each taken in isolation, with the “ideal native speaker” as the ultimate model. Instead, the aim is to develop a linguistic repertory, in which all linguistic abilities have a place. This implies, of course, that the languages offered in educational institutions should be diversified and students given the opportunity to develop a plurilingual competence (p. 5).

Plurilingualism and pluriculturalism emphasize that one’s experiences of language and cultural learning should not be compartmentalized or treated separately, because they all interact and contribute to building up one’s communicative competence.

The learner of a second or foreign language and culture does not cease to be competent in his or her mother tongue and the associated culture. Nor is the new competence kept entirely separate from the old. The learner does not simply acquire two distinct, unrelated ways of acting and communicating. The language learner becomes *plurilingual* and develops *interculturality*. (p. 43)

Although CEFR states that plurilingual and pluricultural competence play an important role in one’s communicative competence, the components of this competence are not described in great detail. In 2012, the European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML) of the Council of Europe published “A Framework of Reference for Pluralistic Approaches to Languages and Cultures” (FREPA) to complement these principles of CEFR. The term *pluralistic approaches to languages and cultures* refer to “didactic approaches that use teaching/learning” (Council of Europe, p. 6), where several languages or cultures (or at least more than one) are simultaneously used during the teaching process.

3. The purpose and procedures of this study

The purpose of this study is to find out how learners' ICC can be developed through English textbooks used in junior high schools in Japan. Although it is common for teachers to use their own materials and activities other than the set textbooks, these textbooks still seem to be the main resource for lessons conducted in the classroom. Therefore, by analyzing English textbooks used in Japanese classrooms, we can try to understand how learners' IC might or might not be developed by studying English through those textbooks. Every page, including dialogues, exercise, and activities, was analyzed from the viewpoint of whether it could help increase learners' IC in any way. As mentioned previously, IC has many dimensions and components. In this study, therefore, we first needed to decide on descriptors or elements of IC which could be used to analyze the textbooks.

The procedure adopted by this study was as follows: 1. The descriptors in the *Japanese Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages* (J-POSTL) (JACET, Education Sig, 2014) were compared with those listed in FREPA. 2. Eleven descriptors from FREPA that roughly overlapped those in J-POSTL were selected. 3. English textbooks for Japanese junior high school students were analyzed using these 11 descriptors (as explained in detail below). J-POSTL is the Japanese-adapted version of the *European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages* (EPOSTL) (Council of Europe, 2007), which includes 193 descriptors. The EPOSTL is a reflective tool for student teachers, designed to encourage them to reflect on the didactic knowledge and skills they have or need to acquire. In J-POSTL (pp. 35-36), there are 8 self-assessment descriptors on culture which have been adapted from EPOSTL.

The second document we looked at was FREPA (Candelier et al., 2012). FREPA contains extensive lists of elements of intercultural communicative competence and also provides sample lessons or activities designed to improve language learners' ICC in a given culture. We compared the descriptors from J-POSTL and from FREPA and selected the following 11 descriptors from FREPA that roughly overlap the 8 culture descriptors in J-POSTL, suggesting their reliability.

Table 1. FREPA descriptors used in the study

	FREPA Descriptors (K: knowledge, A: attitudes, S: skills)	Corresponding descriptors from J-POSTL
K8	Possesses knowledge about what cultures are/how they work	J-POSTL 1–8
K9.2	Knows that within a same culture there exist cultural subgroups corresponding to social/regional/generational sub-populations	J-POSTL 3
K10.4	Knows that intercultural relations and communication are influenced by knowledge/representations one has of other cultures and those that others have of one's own culture	J-POSTL 2, 7
K10.5	Knows that the interpretation that others give one's behaviors may be different from that which that same person himself / herself gives to that same behaviors	J-POSTL 2, 7
K12	Knows several phenomena relative to the diversity of cultures	J-POSTL 5
K13	Knows that resemblances and differences exist between (sub)cultures	J-POSTL 3
A3	Curiosity about/ Interest in “foreign” languages/cultures/ persons// pluricultural contexts//the linguistic/cultural/ human diversity of the environment // linguistic/cultural/ human diversity in general	J-POSTL 1
A11.1	Being disposed to distance oneself from one's own language/culture // look at one's own language from the outside	J-POSTL 7
A12	Disposition to starting a process of linguistic/cultural decentring /relativizing	J-POSTL 8
S3	Can compare linguistic/cultural features of different languages/cultures [Can perceive/establish linguistic/cultural proximity and distance]	J-POSTL 4
S6.3	Can communicate while taking sociolinguistic /sociocultural differences into account	J-POSTL 6

In this study, three sets (A, B, and C; three textbooks each, one for each grade of junior high school) of the most widely used English textbooks for Japanese junior high school students were analyzed. All the textbooks were government approved. All the pages in units or chapters of each textbook were examined with reference to the above 11 descriptors. For example, when we judged that a page contained any text, exercises, or activities that could enhance learners' knowledge that “within a culture

there exist cultural subgroups corresponding to social/regional/generational sub-populations,” we entered “1” for K9.2 (and “0” if it did not). Table 2 shows the data collection procedure. Each author conducted her analysis separately and then compared the data.

For instance, shown in Table 2, for the sample depicted from set C, we both entered “1” for K8 from page 114 through page 117, which shows that we agreed that these pages can enhance learners’ knowledge “about what cultures are/how they work.” The number of “1” responses was totaled, the average was calculated. For example, for K8, one author (K) entered 50, and the other author (N) entered 67, so the average was 59. Then, the numbers were divided by the total number of pages of the textbook so that we could consistently compare the results for textbooks of different lengths. Finally, the number of pages upon which we reached agreement in our judgments was calculated and divided by the total number of pages looked at. For example, for K8, we agreed on 42 pages of the textbook, or 84% of one author’s and 63% of the other author’s total number of pages where a “1” was assigned for K8. The average of 73% (midpoint between 84% and 63%) shows that our data analysis for K8 was highly correlated. (In contrast, agreement was 0% for K9.2.)

Table 2. Sample data input

Textbook	Grade	Page	K8		K9.2	
C	Author		K	N	K	N
	1	112				
	1	113				
	1	114				
	1	115				
	1	116				
	1	117				
	Total		50	67	0	20
	Average		59		10	
	Total (%)		48%	66%	0 %	20%
	Average (%)		57%		10%	
	Agreement		42		0	
	Agreement (%)		84%	63%	0%	0%
	Average (%)		73%		0%	

4. Findings and discussion

4.1 Overall results

Table 3 shows the average percentage of the nine target textbooks exhibiting each of the 11 descriptors. As noted above, percentages were used instead of number of pages for comparability across textbooks. To get a general idea of the ranking of each descriptor, an overall average percentage for each was calculated across textbooks (Table 3). In Table 4, an overall agreement rate was calculated by dividing the total number of pages upon which we reached agreement by the total number of pages upon which each author judged that the target descriptor was present, and then averaging. As Tables 3 and 4 show, K8 (knowledge of how cultures work) and A3 (interest in foreign culture) were observed frequently in all textbooks types and had the high agreement rate.

With regard to results by grade, some IC descriptors grew as grade increased (K9.2 and A11.1), while others appeared less frequently in the first grade textbook increased, and then plateaued (K10.4, K10.5, K12, S3, S6.3; see Table 3). To sum up, many of the IC descriptors seemed to have appeared less frequently in the first year. It might be possible to ascribe this to the Japanese educational setting: since students start to study English as a regular subject only in the first year of junior high school, or at the age of 12 and 13, types and number of words and grammatical features covered in these textbooks are limited compared with those used in the upper grade textbooks, which might have affected the result. Due to this limit, many of the lessons in the first year textbook simply introduced new points of cultural knowledge without really explaining them. Thus, although there were some cultural elements observed, it was difficult for the authors to judge if these parts were promoting students' IC. In contrast, in the third year textbooks, although the overall percentage of observed IC descriptors was limited, higher levels of agreement were observed for some IC descriptors than in the first year textbooks. For example, although K10.5 (different interpretations of behavior between cultures) and A12 (cultural diversity) were the two least observed IC descriptors, a certain level of agreement was nevertheless observed on their presence in the upper year textbooks. For example, the averages were 14% (third year) and 39% (second year) for K12 and 23% (third year) for A12. These pages included activities and explanations complementing the main text to further enhance learners' ICs. In other words, when there was additional explicit description alongside the main text, which seemed to have led learners to explore cultures in focus, the authors' judgment seemed to match (see section 4.2). However, agreement rate was generally low in many of the ICs—an expected result, due to the subjectiveness of the rating and the overlapping nature between the descriptors.

In addition to linguistic constraints, learners' affective factors (as perceived by textbook writers) seemed to affect the result. Byram (1997, p. 54) points out that his definitions for IC (such as, skills and knowledge) “presuppose in some cases considerable capacity for the abstraction usually associated with attainment of a specific stage of cognitive development.” Thus, considering ways to develop young learners' IC through lessons, teachers should take learners' “psychological development, particularly in the domain of moral development (p. 54)” into account. We can imagine that these elements might have affected the content of textbooks, including choice of topics.

Table 3. Average observation percentage for each IC descriptor (%)

school year	first year				second year				third year				rank of the overall scores (mean)
textbook types	A	B	C	m e a n	A	B	C	m e a n	A	B	C	m e a n	
K8 (how cultures work)	63	49	57	56	78	61	67	69	63	73	76	71	first (65)
K9.2 (cultural subgroups)	4	1	10	5	9	10	17	12	24	13	16	18	third (12)
K10.4 (influence of a culture)	0	0	2	1	3	4	5	4	11	4	9	8	ninth (4)
K10.5 (different interpretations between cultures)	0	0	0	0	1	3	3	2	3	1	3	2	tenth (2)
K12 (cultural diversity)	4	1	7	4	11	2	13	9	25	12	12	16	fourth (10)
K13 (similarities and differences between cultures)	4	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	12	4	5	7	sixth (5)
A3 (interest in foreign cultures)	59	43	58	53	59	49	61	56	57	58	63	59	second (56)

A11.1 (viewpoint of others)	2	2	1	2	8	4	5	6	10	7	7	8	sixth (5)
A12 (cultural relativization)	0	0	1	0	2	0	2	1	9	4	2	5	tenth (2)
S3 (comparison between cultures)	1	1	1	1	3	5	5	4	18	7	4	10	sixth (5)
S6.3 (sociocultural communication)	6	3	1	3	9	8	6	8	14	11	5	10	fifth (7)

Table 4. Average agreement rate by textbook set and school year

IC descriptor		K8	K9.2	K10.4	K10.5	K12	K13	A3	A11.1	A12	S.3	S.6.3
average agreement rate percentage by textbook type	1A	71	0	0	0	90	25	72	0	0	0	0
	1B	62	0	0	0	0	0	63	83	0	0	0
	1C	73	0	63	0	45	58	75	0	0	0	0
	2A	80	0	42	0	29	0	62	28	0	33	28
	2B	73	48	68	58	0	0	71	25	0	23	0
	2C	75	26	0	60	49	0	77	21	0	31	0
	3A	66	33	28	42	42	48	69	13	15	53	16
	3B	82	24	25	0	15	53	71	54	53	44	11
	3C	84	22	0	0	13	32	73	31	0	29	0
average agreement rate by school year	first year	69	0	21	0	45	28	70	28	0	0	0
	second year	76	25	37	39	26	0	70	25	0	29	9
	third year	77	26	18	14	23	44	71	33	23	42	9

4.2 IC descriptors that appeared frequently

In section 4.2 and 4.3, IC descriptors are discussed in order of appearance by overall observation rate, as per Table 3.

The most-observed IC was K8 (how cultures work). Looking into the subdescriptors of K8, we can see that the concept of “culture” here includes knowledge of both “surface culture” and “deep culture” (Weaver, 1993). For instance, social practice, values, and norms, which could be seen as examples of “deep culture”, affect

“identifiable cultural knowledge”, i.e., “surface culture”. Thus, K8 can be seen as a rather comprehensive IC.

The second-most observed IC component was A3 (interest in foreign cultures). Just like K8, A3 also deals with “cultures” including those in a “surface level”. This was observed in 56% of the pages of the nine textbooks. Deardorff (2009) explains through her process model of intercultural competence that attitude, especially “curiosity toward other cultures,” is a foundation for IC development and will affect other aspects of IC such as knowledge and skills. Thus, it is natural for this descriptor to be observed frequently in junior high school textbooks, which are made for beginning learners.

Since these two most-observed IC components, K8 and A3, overlap, both of them tend to be observed on the same page. For example, in the three third year textbooks, A3 was observed on average in 57% of the pages in which K8 was observed. In those pages, many of the topics were related to “surface culture,” and mostly dealt with popular culture topics so-called 4Fs, or “Food, Festival, Fashion, and Folklore.” On the other hand, topics that touch upon the values and beliefs that lie under “surface culture,” or activities which try to delve into this underlying “deep culture,” were limited.

Inda (2010, p. 173) explains the possible danger when dealing with a wide range of cultures. “One should be careful not to simply introduce fragmental cultural facts, because it might lead to stereotyping of each country’s image.” Introducing a wide enough variety of cultural facts might be all right, but simply teaching individual facts separated from context is not enough. To best develop learners’ IC, it is important for teachers to deepen their students’ and their own understanding through the process of comparing and relativizing their own and other cultures.

4.3 IC descriptors that were seldom observed

In the present study, an average percentage of the two authors’ observed rates for each descriptor was taken to indicate their prevalence (see Table 3 for details). In other words, the agreement rate was not included in the analyses. However, even so, IC descriptors other than K8 and A3 were seldom observed, or less than 12% of all the texts (Table 3). Thus, IC descriptors other than the top 2 (K8 and A3) would be discussed in this section in the ascending order: from the least observed IC (K10.5 and A12 in tie) to K9.2.

The two least observed IC components—never observed in the first year textbook—were K10.5 (different interpretations between cultures) and A12 (cultural

relativization). K10.5 is related to noticing the difference between one's own and other culture(s), which might lead to the development of "critical cultural awareness" (Byram, 1997). As this item requires knowledge of "deep culture," we can see why it was seldom observed. If we consider one exceptional page in which K10.5 was observed, we see that it describes a cultural misunderstanding between "Momoko" and her Australian host mother. Momoko tells her American friend Mike how uneasy she felt at first when her host mother pointed to the fridge and said "help yourself" (textbook B2, p. 95), because it is rude in her own culture for a guest to open a fridge. As a response, Mark points out that Momoko's host mother might have been treating her not as a guest but rather as a member of the family. This was judged by the authors to constitute an attempt to facilitate reader awareness towards the existence of cultural viewpoints different from one's own. Another example from a different textbook (C2, p. 71) introduced how the Australian Aboriginal Anangu people perceive the act of climbing Ayers Rock by attaching a document written by an Anangu person on the topic. With this text, a post-reading activity that asked learners to see things from another's perspective was prepared: "What are the things you had better do or be careful about when visiting a tourist spot?"

A12 (cultural relativization) was the next-least observed component. This descriptor requires awareness of both surface and deep culture as well as the ability to reflect this awareness in one's attitude. This competence seems to overlap with Byram's third IC, "savoir comprendre" (in "skills of interpreting and relating"; Byram, 1997) and Principle 4 of intercultural Communicative Language Teaching, or iCLT (Newton et al., 2010), which is to foster "explicit comparisons and connections between languages and cultures." From this perspective, A12 can be seen to be one of the central components of IC. This point was observed in an essay on the cherry trees in Washington, DC, which were originally sent from Japan as a gift of friendship (A3, p. 2). It was judged by the authors that this text was helping learners to see things from another's perspective using cultural representation that the learners are familiar with—a cherry tree, which has great cultural significance in Japan—and placing it in another culture to create a connection between them.

The third-least observed component was K10.4 (influence of a culture). It focuses on the relationship between cultures and require both knowledge of plural cultures and an ability to compare them. Furthermore, both K10.4 and K10.5, which we saw was the least observed component, are subdescriptors of K10 (role of culture in intercultural relations and communication), which requires the understanding of "deep culture." In the exceptional places where these components were observed, they were often seen together. For example, the anecdote about Momoko's culture shock, explained above as an example of K10.5, was judged to have promoted K10.4 as well. On the other

hand, only K10.4 was observed on a page which dealt with a case where a Japanese student asked her teacher how she should deal with a very large dinner served at her host family's house (A2, p. 42): to eat everything or to tell the host that it was too much for her. By relating the interaction between the girl and her teacher, the text makes the reader aware that one's view on such a matter might be a cultural product.

The fourth-least observed descriptors (in a tie) were K13 (similarities and differences between cultures), A11.1 (viewpoint of others), and S3 (comparison between cultures). K13 deals with knowledge that works as a foundation in making comparison between one's own and other cultures, which is a critical skill for developing ICC. Fully developing K13 (similarities and differences between cultures) would seemingly lead to acquiring the ability to compare between cultures (like S3), or to "internal outcomes" such as acquiring an "ethnorelative perspective" (Deardorff, 2009) (like A11). In other words, fully developing this component could possibly lead to ripple effects for other items. However, this was seldom observed in the textbooks—where it was seen, it was in pages that explicitly compared two cultures, such as pages about sign language in Japan and the US (A3, p. 6), the connection between Japanese school chime and the chime of Big Ben (B3, p. 9), and sushi-go-rounds in Japan and Australia (B3, p. 53).

With regard to A11.1, although there were many pages which dealt with Japanese culture, not many of those pages facilitated a disposition to see it from outside (A11.1). This component was observed in a note, written in Japanese, about loan words from Japanese that had entered English (e.g., *anime* and *sushi*), presented as a sidebar arranged next to the main text to complement the main text (B1, p. 33). On another page, there was an activity involving writing an article on an online forum to introduce one's hometown to tourist from abroad (C2, p. 45). As these two examples show, both the authors tended to choose pages that included explicit devices to make the reader aware of the existence of different cultural viewpoints from their own.

S3 (comparison between cultures), like A12 (cultural relativization), requires learners to compare and relate more than two cultures. Both S3 and A12 reflect the fourth principle of the iCLT: to foster "explicit comparisons and connections between languages and cultures." S3 requires not only knowledge of culture but also the action of comparing cultural features and recognizing the relationship between them. This was shown in a page about the *ger*, a traditional Mongolian tent house (C3, p. 59). The authors agreed that S3 was observed in this page due to the post-reading activity presented, which asked readers to compare the structural feature of the *ger* with that of the *tulou* (a kind of house in China) and to say how each related to people's lifestyles. By making students think about houses and families in different cultures, the authors

agreed that this facilitated comparison and association with students' own culture. In another example, there was a page that dealt with the life of Mother Theresa (B3, p. 99). Here again, a post-reading activity was used, to discuss how readers felt about her way of living, again leading them to dig deeper into their knowledge gained through the textbook.

The seventh-least observed component was S6.3 (sociocultural communication). In J-POSTL, there is a descriptor that deal with intercultural awareness (D2: I can evaluate and select a variety of texts, source materials, and activities which make learners aware of similarities and differences in sociocultural norms of behavior). S6.3 goes beyond the IC required for D3, however, since it requires not only to awareness of cultural differences but also to engage in communication "while taking sociolinguistic/sociocultural differences into account". However, the present study shows that average observed rate for S6.3 was only 7% (Table 3). The authors agreed that this IC descriptor was observed in a page about one student's experience communicating with deaf people using sign language (A4, p. 7), and also in the same example taken up for K10.4—the Japanese student asking her teacher's advice on the large meals at her homestay.

The eighth-least observed descriptor was K12 (cultural diversity). Looking into its subdescriptors in FREPA, the word "diversity" is used to refer to "a great multiplicity of cultures" (K12.1) and "phenomena" to include "practices, customs, values, or norms" (K12.1.1&12.1.2). This IC overlaps with K8 (how cultures work), one of the most often observed IC descriptors. However, unlike K8, K12 asks for knowledge of "several phenomena," which seems to have lowered its rate of observation especially in the first and second year textbooks. In order to introduce several cultures on a single page in a single story or activity, a certain amount of knowledge of grammar and vocabulary would likely be needed. This might explain why this item was almost never observed in the lower grade textbooks. Where it was observed, it was in a page about a collection of messages by famous people (C3, p. 43), with an activity involving searching for messages by John Lennon and Gandhi and thinking about the idea behind them. Another example was observed in the page on the sushi-go-round in Australia and Japan (B3, p. 53), which had a Japanese-language sidebar about the different fillings used in sushi abroad. K12 was also observed in a page about ethnic costumes around the world (A3, p. 13); here too, there was an additional sidebar in Japanese, about the connection between the Hawaiian aloha shirt and the Japanese kimono. In sum, pages where both authors thought K12 was present dealt with several cultures, rather explicitly.

The ninth-least observed descriptor was K9.2 (cultural subgroups). This item overlaps with K8 and K12. When we hear the word "culture," we might think it is a

feature specific to a certain country or language. However, subdescriptors of K9, including K9.2, explain that “within a culture there exist cultural subgroups corresponding to social, regional, or generational sub-populations,” and what is more, that “many persons form part of more than one cultural community” (K9.3). It is very important for Japanese students to understand this plurality of cultures exists even in one country. Inda (2010) points out the danger that simply presenting fragmentary or sketchy information when introducing a wide range of cultures might lead to stereotyping. To avoid this risk, it will be necessary to increase the amount of space devoted to diversity within a culture, that is, to promote K9.2. Thus, we conducted a further investigation to see what kinds of topics were actually dealt with in pages where we thought K9.2 was observed. Table 5 summarizes the results.

Table 5. Topics related to diversity within a culture (“cultural subgroups”) observed in Japanese textbooks

topics	diversity within Japan	racial problems in the US	sign languages	Australian Aborigines	Before/after the civil war in Cambodia
observed pages	14	4	2	1	2

The result shows that “diversity inside Japan” was a frequently chosen topic. The topic covered areas ranging from food to famous places and traditional culture. However, the number of other topics that appeared to promote awareness of “cultural subgroups” was limited. This was a result very like that gained by Inda (2010), whose similar study analyzed editions of the same nine textbooks published in a different year, 2003. She found that only “cultural subgroups” from Japan and English-speaking countries appeared, focusing mostly on traditional performing arts or languages of indigenous peoples or ethnic minorities (p. 173). By 2012, in the textbooks used for the present study, there seemed to be some new topics dealing with “cultural subgroups” other than Japan and English speaking countries, such as sign languages around the world and Cambodia. Although this could be seen as a progress from 2003, still we can point out that the treatment of K9.2 is far from being enough.

5. Other findings—Further investigation on pages that promote numbers of ICs

As mentioned in section 4, the authors tend to agree in their judgments of whether a page had promoted a certain IC component if that component was dealt with rather explicitly. In other words, pages that tried to explicitly deal with culture tend to be

judged as promoting more ICs. Thus, we conducted a further study to find out what percentage of pages were judged to promote a large number of ICs for each of the nine textbooks. Since each of two researchers judged whether each of 11 IC descriptors was observed or not for each page, the maximum score for each page was 22 points. We defined a page scoring more than 8 points as “a page that promotes numbers of ICs” and calculated the percentage of those pages for each textbook. The results show that this percentage was generally low but, with a few exceptions depending on the publisher, tended to rise as the school year went up (See Table 6).

Two of the pages that promoted numbers of IC dealt with Ayers Rock (Uluru) and sushi-go-round in Australia and Japan, both as introduced above. Another type was lessons that dealt with culture shock encountered by students studying abroad. One such page focused on miscommunication due to different word choice between cultures. Momoko says “I’m sorry” instead of “Thank you” to her American friend when asked for another cup of drink, and ends up not getting any (B2, p. 98). In this lesson, there was an additional post-reading activity that asked readers to think about and discuss what they would do if they were in Momoko’s place (B2, p. 99). We judged that these pages promoted awareness towards the interrelationship between language and culture, and on the existence of different cultural perspectives from students’ own.

Table 6. The number and percentage of pages promoting “a large number of ICs”

	Set of textbooks			
year	A	B	C	mean
1	3 (0.03%)	0 (0%)	2 (1.98%)	1.67 (0.67%)
2	2 (2.17%)	4 (0.04%)	8 (8%)	4.67 (3.40%)
3	18 (20.45%)	2 (1.96%)	10 (10.31%)	10.00 (10.91%)

We then looked into instructor’s manuals for each textbook to find out why textbook writers included each of these activities or texts judged to promote large numbers of ICs. This was done for the second year textbooks due to the availability of the manuals. For this procedure, the authors focused on the “Lesson goal” section of the instructor’s manuals to find out what IC competence the text was trying to promote.

The results showed that most of the pages judged to “promote large numbers of ICs” touched upon the following key concepts in the description of lesson goals: to promote learners’ “cultural knowledge,” “interrelationship between language and culture,” and “interest in foreign cultures.” These key concepts overlap with K8 and A3. In addition, many of the pages of textbook 2C focused on “diversity of cultures,”

including regional differences, which overlaps with K8 and K12. These topics included diversity of Japanese foods, Australian Aborigines, and linguistic variety in India. This shows that as far as “lesson goal” section is concerned, enhancing learners’ cultural awareness seemed to be an intentional focus when choosing a topic.

On the other hand, in terms of “activities,” the amount and content of description varied depending on the publisher. For example, in textbook A (p. 33) there was an activity involving completing a table that compared festivals in Thailand and Japan. The authors judged this activity to help learners relate two cultures through comparison (S3). However, in the manual, it was not mentioned in the aims. The only description found concerning this activity was in a “tips for teaching” section explaining that students should “[f]ill out the table based on the actual situation of each region.”

In textbook B (p. 99), a post-reading activity on Momoko’s culture shock was presented that put readers in the position of Momoko (B2, p. 99). According to the manual, the goal of this lesson was to talk about cultural diversity. Thus, it is natural to assume that the aim of this activity was in line with our focus. However, this was not clearly stated. In the “example answer” section, there was an instruction for the teacher saying “Lead the students to make use of the ‘Continuing the conversation’ section in a textbook.” This section focuses on useful phrases that can be employed when asking questions and stating one’s opinions, which lead us to assume that the purpose of this activity is to practice these phrases.

The manual of textbook C was the only book that described the aim of each activity. Moreover, these descriptions of the aims do in fact show that these activities are intended to introduce cultural elements into a class. Also, there is a wide range of example answers listed. For example, in Lesson 8, “India, My Country” (p. 97), an Indian student, Raj, talks about three languages he speaks in his home country. In a post-reading activity, readers are asked to think about what languages other than Japanese are used inside Japan and where. The example answer touches not only upon foreign languages used in Japan, such as Chinese and Korean, but also those of indigenous cultural minorities such as Ainu and Okinawans, conveying the existence of cultural diversity even inside Japan. These kinds of description would be helpful for teachers looking to aid students to deepen their understanding of what culture is.

In summary, this small-scale research on English language textbook manuals implies that topics related to culture were intentionally included. Focusing on activities, however, it appeared that even activities judged by the authors to enhance learners’ IC were not necessarily intended for that purpose—or if they were, that there was no

explicit description that explained their use for teaching culture. Although there might be a practical reason behind this, such as, space limit of the manual, teachers should be able to gain an understanding of what the activity is aiming at, and teach using an appropriate method to make teaching of culture in language learning contexts more effective. Development of teaching materials that intentionally and explicitly aim at enhancing learners' IC will be necessary to help teachers do so.

6. Future implications

6.1 Need to develop teaching materials aimed at promoting learners' IC

The results of the present study show that knowledge of culture and interest in it were reflected in many of the topics in Japanese government-authorized junior high school English language textbooks. It is reasonable to assume that this situation reflects the overall objective of foreign language curriculum in Japan (MEXT, 2008): "to develop students' basic communication abilities such as listening, speaking, reading and writing, deepening their understandings of language and culture and fostering [positive] attitude toward communication through foreign languages." On the other hand, although the analysis considered average percentage of IC descriptors' rate of observance between two raters, and did not consider "rate of agreement" between the two, still descriptors which dealt with deep culture were seldom observed. Furthermore, the number of pages that were judged to "promote large numbers of ICs" was limited. The possibility should be kept in mind that the introduction of a wide range of individual cases of cultural phenomena without deepening the treatment of them or providing students with opportunities to develop their IC skills may lead to the danger that they will develop cultural stereotypes. Inda (2010) suggests that "[i]t is necessary to make learners fully aware of the nature of culture being dynamic and variable, and the danger of stereotyping. At the same time, it would be necessary to provide learners an occasion to practice and explore ways to overcome communication gaps by themselves." For that purpose, creating teaching materials aimed specifically at developing learners' IC will be necessary.

6.2 Need for teacher training on IC

In the present study, "rate of agreement" between the two authors regarding whether a given IC component was observed on a given page was generally very low. Since interpretation or recognition of types of IC can vary depending on the individual, and since some of the IC components dealt with in this study were overlapping, it is likely that reaching agreement on types of ICs present would be difficult. However, what is important for the teacher is not reaching consensus with other teachers but rather being able to notice elements in a given text or activity that can help developing learners' IC and being able to teach these texts or activities in an effective way (knowledge based

or experiential learning using activities) to fully develop the factor. In order to do so, teacher will need strong knowledge of IC, skills to analyze intercultural experiences, and understanding of appropriate teaching methods. Newton et al. (2010, p. 30) explain: “Evidence from the literature makes it clear that intercultural issues need to be addressed explicitly and openly rather than being left to take care of themselves [...]. Indeed, some research evidence suggests that, without guidance, language teaching can have an inconclusive, or worse, a negative effect on cross-cultural attitudes.” In order for teachers to incorporate IC teaching into language classes consistently, targeted teacher training will be necessary.

6.3 Things to keep in mind when designing a lesson that cultivates identity as a global citizen

In a globalized world, people from different cultural backgrounds need to work together to build a society in which they can live together, accepting diversity. This is a central reason why enhancing IC has been a focus in the area of language learning, as observed in influential documents in the field including CEFR, FREPA, and iCLT. Although there are international and regional differences in the degree of progress, globalization can be observed in Japanese schools as well. According to a survey on “number of students with foreign nationality that need Japanese-language instruction” conducted by the MEXT, the number of these students was 18,432 in 2000 but increased to 28,511 by the end of the next decade (MEXT, 2010). What is more, there are students who were not covered by the MEXT survey due to having Japanese nationality but who still have different linguistic and/or cultural backgrounds from the majority of Japanese students, for instance children of couples in international marriages, or returnee students from abroad. There are even students who belongs to Japanese “cultural subgroups” (K9.2) or have other “social, regional, or generational” factors making them distinct. Taking these things into consideration, we can assume that the importance of developing IC in Japan will continue to grow even outside the English context.

Bennett et al. (2003) in their “developmental model of intercultural sensitivity,” show how people’s intercultural sensitivity moves from “ethnocentric stages” to “ethnorelative stages,” through six substages. With this in mind, teachers should understand that systematic and continuous instruction incorporating attention to IC will bring about learners’ acculturation to the globalized world and gradually develop their identity as global citizens who can live together alongside people from different cultures. This idea is in line with Byram’s notion of “intercultural citizenship (2009).” He further explains “[i]ntercultural citizenship encouraged by foreign language teachers goes further and promotes the formation of communities of action beyond the boundaries of the state/country.” In planning such a lesson, one should keep in mind

which types of competence are more easily developed through language learning. Naturally, not all competences can or need to be covered through one subject area. To develop learners' IC comprehensively in their classes, collaboration between subject areas will be necessary. Finally, further collaborative research by teachers of various subjects will be necessary to develop and test new methods of enhancing learners' IC, and in particular to investigate the relationship between type of IC and subject area: which IC is most easily developed in a language learning context or in another subject area.

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Government-approved textbooks used for the analysis in this study:

New Horizon English Course 1, 2, 3 (Tokyo Syoseki, 2012)

Sunshine English Course 1, 2, 3 (Kairyudo, 2012)

New Crown English Series 1, 2, 3 (Sanseido, 2012)

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【Research Note】

Reflection in pre-service teacher education: Using the Japanese Portfolio for Student Teachers of Language (J-POSTL)

Akiko Takagi

Abstract

This study investigates the approach of pre-service teachers to the exercise of self-reflection using can-do descriptors in the Japanese Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (J-POSTL) in a teaching methodology course over the year. The purpose of the study is two-fold, as reflected in two questions: (1) Is J-POSTL effective as a tool for reflection? (2) What kinds of reflection do student teachers engage in using J-POSTL? The J-POSTL-based reflection essays of 76 participants in a teaching methodology course were subjected to thematic analysis. As a result, six main themes and eighty-five subthemes were identified. The six main themes were: student teachers' overall awareness, what learning was acquired over the year, reasons why student teachers felt they acquired particular didactic competencies, challenges that need to be solved, reasons why student teachers found particular elements challenging, and future aspirations. The results showed that most student teachers reflected on their own learning over the year and clarified their strengths and weaknesses in terms of didactic competencies. In addition, the student teachers referred to their aspirations for overcoming their difficulties and developing their competencies. The study examined the effectiveness of J-POSTL and the types of reflection the student teachers conducted as well as the problems involved in using J-POSTL more effectively.

Keywords

portfolio, J-POSTL, can-do descriptors, reflection, pre-service teacher education

1. Background

1.1 Importance of reflection in pre-service teacher education

The importance of reflection has been widely recognized in pre-service teacher education in Japan. In English pre-service teacher education, self-assessment and reflection are emphasized by promoting student teachers' reflection based on the practice of micro-teaching. The most well-known concepts of reflection are those presented by Dewey (1933) and Schön (1983). However, promoting "reflection in action" and "reflection on action" (Schön, 1983) are difficult in pre-service teacher education in a Japanese private university because student teachers rarely have an

opportunity to practice their teaching in schools until their fourth year. Fenner (2012) criticizes the concepts of reflection presented by Dewey (1933) and Schön (1983) and claims that they focus too heavily on reflection based on practice. She points out the importance of reflection based on theory and the development of critical reflection, in other words, not only on school practice but related as much to theoretical knowledge. Other researchers also point out that “reflection for action” is meaningful for the student teacher by providing an opportunity to verbalize plans, predict outcomes, consider possibilities, and reflect on their prospective pedagogical practices (Moore-Russo & Wilsey, 2014; Urzúa & Vásquez, 2008). I agree with their views, and specifically that reflection for action at least provides student teachers with opportunities to prepare for the teaching practice in schools where they encounter various problems to overcome.

In the private university where I am employed, quite a few student teachers take an English teacher-training course. In their first, second, and third years, they mainly learn about the basic theory and skills related to general education and English education in a lecture course. They have a chance to do a short micro-teaching only once or twice during their university courses, generally practicing teaching in schools in their fourth year for about only three weeks. According to a survey by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2014), the length of teaching practice is for 70 to 120 days in more than half of 22 countries. The length in Japan is the shortest among all the countries. Considering this situation, encouraging reflection on theory as well as their prospective pedagogical practices seems to be meaningful for student teachers in order to prepare them for their teaching practice.

The student teachers have an experience of learning English for more than 12 years and to observe their teachers before they enroll in a course. This observation is called apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975). As a result of this observation, each teacher is able to establish his or her personal theories about learning and teaching (Dart, et al., 1998). Many student teachers learn English for the purpose of entering university using a traditional grammar-translation method. However, the current Japanese Course of Study puts the emphasis on developing a communicative ability in English education. The student teachers learn teaching theories and methodologies with which they are not familiar, such as communicative language teaching. They are able to be aware of their own teaching and learning beliefs and are encouraged to reconsider and reconstruct their own theories by reflecting critically upon the teaching theories and methodologies they newly learn.

1.2 Usefulness of EPOSTL in pre-service teacher education

Since the European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (EPOSTL) was developed in 2007, it has been translated into 14 European languages and is widely used

in pre-service and in-service teacher education (Newby, 2012). Newby (2012, p. 210) identifies seven categories of good practice that are implicit in EPOSTL and claims that they are supported and promoted using EPOSTL. These consist of fostering teacher autonomy, supporting a reflective mode of teacher education, underpinning of rationales and approaches to learning and teaching, making the scope and aims of teacher education transparent, helping to make competencies explicit, providing a tool for self-assessment, and supporting coherence in the teaching practice.

For example, Bagarić (2011) used EPOSTL in the two-year master-level study programs (including teaching practicum) for about one and a half years and found that student teachers perceived development of their self-assessment. In addition, the self-assessment section helped student teachers “to develop awareness of their strengths and weaknesses through self-assessment, to chart their progress and to better understand the relationship between underlying knowledge and practical skills a teacher strives to develop (p. 80).” Ingvarsdóttir (2011) used the section of self-assessment in a course before and after practicum in a one-year postgraduate program. As a result, student teachers were able to increase their awareness of their own learning, which had the effect of encouraging them to monitor their own progress and more strongly focus their reflection more.

1.3 J-POSTL as a tool for reflection for pre-service teachers

The Japanese Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (J-POSTL) (pre-service teachers), one of three variants, has been developed over five years and was finalized in 2014 (it obtained the copyright from the Council of Europe in February 2014). It is based on a translated version of the EPOSTL considering the Japanese context. It consists of a personal section, self-assessment, and dossier (JACET SIG on English Education, 2014).

The usefulness of J-POSTL has been proved to some extent based on two annual studies (Takagi & Nakayama, 2012; Nakayama, Yamaguchi, & Takagi, 2013). In these studies, student teachers in their third year used J-POSTL until they finished their teaching practice in their senior years. Comparison of the results of the self-assessment section (the first and second assessments in the first annual survey, and the first, second, and third assessments in the second annual survey) and an open-ended questionnaire revealed the level of utilization and advantages of the portfolio. According to the results of the questionnaire, the results of this survey indicated that more than 60% of the students in the first survey and approximately half of the students in the second survey understood the professional competence expected of an English-language teacher. Moreover, over 80% of the students in the first survey and about 70% of the students in the second survey were able to engage in self-reflection by using the portfolio. The

three keywords “reflection,” “self-analysis/noticing,” and “development/change” were cited as the benefits of using the portfolio in the first and second surveys. On the other hand, no more than 40% of the students were able to utilize the portfolio in both surveys. This is mainly because there were hardly any opportunities to receive feedback on the portfolio from the teacher trainers nor to discuss it with fellow students. This shows that the portfolio is of limited utility if the users are left to their own devices without guidance or assistance. Teacher educators’ appropriate instruction is the key to have the student teachers use the portfolio effectively.

As mentioned in 1.1, it is essential that student teachers reflect on theory critically in a teaching methodology course in order to prepare them for the teaching practice. Moreover, they need to experience the significance of reflection as a teacher who continues to grow over the course of their career. J-POSTL seems to be useful as a tool for reflection, but we have few studies that investigate the effective use of the portfolio and validate its significance. In addition, we are not sure about what kinds of reflection are promoted using the portfolio. Thus, I decided to conduct the study about how J-POSTL encourages student teachers’ reflection in a teaching methodology course I teach.

2. Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study is two-fold:

- (1) Is J-POSTL effective as a tool for promoting reflection for pre-service student teachers?
- (2) What kinds of reflection have student teachers engaged in using can-do descriptors in J-POSTL in a teaching methodology course over the course of a year?

3. Methods

3.1 Setting

3.1.1 Course description. The course, “Special seminar on English teaching methodology” (one year, four credits), was offered from April 2013 to January 2014. The course was a requirement for students seeking an English teacher’s license. Most of the students attending the course were third-year students. In addition to the above course, they took courses called “English teaching methodology” (one year, four credits) and “Preparation for teaching practice” (one semester, two credits) as a requirement in the same year. The student teachers had an opportunity to conduct micro-teaching once or twice in “Preparation for teaching practice.” The class met once per week for two semesters (30 classes) over the course of a year. The aim of the course is to understand the theoretical aspects of teaching English as a foreign language, acquire basic teaching skills, and plan a lesson. The class covered theoretical topics such as “Course of study and purpose of teaching English,” “English as an international

language and communicative competence,” “Culture in teaching English,” “Learner factors,” and “Professional development of English teachers” in the first semester. It covered practical aspects such as “Teaching reading,” “Teaching speaking,” and “Assessment” in the second semester. In order to foster student teachers’ active learning, the class consisted of lectures, pair and group discussion, class discussion, workshops, and DVD viewing of actual teaching.

Reflection was emphasized in this class. Student teachers engaged in discussion on various topics dealt with in class with their peers and engaged in reflection based on some descriptors in J-POSTL. They were also asked to submit a reflection journal to an electronic discussion board to reflect on what they learned in class every week.

3.1.2 Use of J-POSTL in the course. I used J-POSTL as supplementary material in my class. I distributed J-POSTL at the beginning of the course and explained about the background, purpose, and significance of the portfolio. After that, I distributed an e-version of J-POSTL in the platform the university offered. The student teachers filled in the “Personal section” and submitted it within one month after the course started. They were also asked to read “About J-POSTL (pp. 1–2),” “Introduction of EPOSTL (pp. 3–4),” and “How to use J-POSTL (pp. 5–7).” Then they were asked to conduct a self-assessment and fill in the bars based on can-do descriptors in the self-assessment section and write a short reflection essay (a half or one page of an A4 Word file). They were required to submit both of them electronically.

The aims of the assignments were two-fold. One aim was to have student teachers understand the background, purpose, and significance of J-POSTL and overview the competencies necessary for English teachers. The other aim was to make student teachers aware of their current didactic competencies at the stage where they have only a little knowledge about teaching. The self-assessment section has 96 can-do descriptors. The student teachers were supposed to fill in the bar according to their own assessment. It was not easy for most of those who have little teaching practice to assess their didactic competencies. Accordingly, I instructed them to assess their didactic competencies by reformulating the statements from “I can do ...” to “I think I am prepared/aware how to do ...” when they encountered difficulty in assessing their didactic competencies, as suggested by Mehlmauer-Larcher (2011), Newby (2011), and Orlova (2011). I also told the student teachers that they did not need to assess all the descriptors because can-do statements are not checklists.

I selected several descriptors and encouraged the student teachers to discuss them in five classes. This provided an opportunity to involve them in deeper reflection. I used the following descriptors:

- two from I. Context C: The Role of the Language Teacher,
- six from II. Methodology, A: Speaking/Spoken Interaction,
- five from II. Methodology, C: Listening,
- seven from II. Methodology, D: Reading,
- four from IV. Lesson Planning, B: Lesson Content, and
- one from V. Conducting a Lesson C: Interaction with Learners,

At the end of the course, I asked the student teachers to conduct a self-assessment and fill in the bars based on the can-do descriptors in the section of self-assessment and write a short reflection essay as the second assignment. The purpose of the assignment was to guide them to realize their development over the year and identify their strengths and weaknesses.

As for the issue of whether self-assessment should be monitored by teacher educators, Newby (2011) mentions that although EPOSTL is “the property of the student,” every teacher educator and student should decide this for him- or herself. In fact, in Newby’s class, regular self-assessment is a requirement of course participation, but he doesn’t check how the students have assessed themselves. Instead, he looks at the evidence that the students provide for a particular assessment either in their dossier or in their online reflective journal. In my course, I did not check the self-assessment itself in detail, either. However, I monitored their progress by checking their e-reflection journal submitted every week and reflective essays written twice. I did not use a dossier.

3.2 Participants

The participants were 76 student teachers (20 men and 56 women) enrolled in a teaching methodology course on teaching English as a foreign language. Forty-one majored in English and American literature, thirty-four in education, and one in French literature. All the participants were juniors who had not experienced teaching practice. Originally, eighty-seven students enrolled in the course, but three seniors who experienced teaching practice and eight students who withdrew from the course or did not submit two essays were excluded from the study. Most of the participants are required to teaching practice in their senior year in schools for about three weeks. However, participants who planned to get a teacher’s license in elementary school and teaching practice in elementary school were able to get a license in junior and/or senior high school without performing a teaching practice there.

3.3 Data collection

The data used were the second reflection essays based on the can-do descriptors in the section of self-assessment in J-POSTL submitted at the end of the course (76 participants). The size of the essay was approximately half or one page in A4 size paper

(500 to 1200 characters in Japanese). This essay was submitted as a requirement of the course, and the data collection for this study was not the primary purpose. In other words, the data were collected in the process of ordinary class teaching without any arbitrary data collection. As mentioned in 3.1, I was unable to identify the concrete contents of reflection from the student teachers' self-assessment section itself, so I used the reflection essays in order to identify where they place the focus and what kinds of reflection they perform. For ethical considerations, I got permission to use the essays for the academic purpose from the participants. Also, I secured their anonymity.

3.4 Methods of data analysis

As the method of data analysis, I employed thematic analysis. As a method, thematic analysis, which explores themes that emerge from the text data, is widely used in qualitative research. I employed thematic analysis in order to conduct an exploratory investigation in identifying the types of reflection student teachers make by reading through all the data in detail. I didn't use categories of the self-assessment section of J-POSTL as themes because student teachers' reflection did not necessarily correspond to the categories. Thus, I avoided applying the categories to the data.

Before starting analysis, I read through the data several times and immersed myself in the data. I used the definition of terms and followed the procedure of analysis suggested by Guest, MacQueen, and Namey (2012). According to the definition of Guest et al. (2012, p. 50), theme is "a unit of meaning that is observed (noticed) in the data by a reader of the text." Code is "a textual description of the semantic boundaries of a theme or a component of a theme." Codebook is "a structured compendium of codes that includes a description of how the codes are related to each other." Coding is "the process by which a qualitative analyst links specific codes to specific data segments."

As the first step of analysis, I divided each essay into several units of meaning (text segmentation) and imported the text into an Excel file. Each essay was divided into four to fifteen segments and all the data totaled 581 segments in total. Second, I read each segment to investigate the meaning and started to make a codebook. The format of a codebook includes several variations depending on the researchers. I included a code, definition of a code, and an example of a text for each code. After a certain format of the codebook was established, I continued to read a text and put a code into the text. I also set up subcodes in addition to codes because I felt that it is necessary to have them. For instance, the first segment of the 18th text (18.1) says "I realized that I improved overall didactic competencies when I reflected on each descriptor for the second time." For this segment, I assigned "student teachers' overall awareness" as a code, and "awareness of growth" as a subcode.

When a code or a definition of a code in a codebook was not appropriate, I revised them accordingly. A new code and the definition were added when necessary. After I finished all the coding, I reviewed all the text and reexamined all the assigned codes. I revised the code when necessary (refer to the appendix for all the codes and the definition). Then I counted the frequency of each code. Since one text is divided into four to fifteen segments, more than two codes are assigned to one text. Therefore, frequency does not correspond to the number of the participants.

Generally, when we conduct a coding, these consist of two kinds: inductive coding and deductive coding. In inductive coding, a predetermined code, which is, for example, set based on the theoretical frame, is assigned to the data. In deductive coding, code emerges from a unit of meaning observed in the data (Sato, 2012). In the former coding, inter-rater coding is often utilized in order to increase inter-rater reliability. However, in the latter coding, increasing inter-rater reliability is not necessarily required. Rather, credibility and dependability are enforced using various methods. Researchers have different opinions about whether or not inter-rater reliability is confirmed in qualitative research. In this study, I used a method suggested by Guest et al. (2012) to increase the credibility of one coder. I reviewed my coding and checked its appropriateness after some time following the first round of coding.

4. Results

As a result of the data analysis, six main themes and eighty-five subthemes were identified. The six main themes were: student teachers' overall awareness, what learning was acquired over the year, reasons why student teachers felt they acquired particular didactic competencies, challenges that need to be solved, reasons why student teachers found particular elements challenging, and future aspirations (refer to the appendix for the whole themes and the frequency with which each theme appeared). In this section, each code was used as the name of each theme. The data used in this study consist of a reflective essay in which each participant focused on a different aspect of competencies, so it is difficult to quantify the data. For this reason, I will present the outline of the main themes that emerged from the data. Because of limited space, I will present selected subthemes with some quoted examples. The theme and subthemes are shown in parentheses. The number shown after each quotation indicates the Data ID. For example, 19.3 means the third segment of the 19th data.

4.1 Student teachers' overall awareness after using the J-POSTL

Student teachers' overall awareness includes having an understanding of the student teachers' feelings and thoughts during and after self-assessment without referring to a particular descriptor. It also includes their overall awareness after they have compared the first and second self-assessments. In this theme, ten subthemes emerged. The most

frequently mentioned subtheme was “awareness of growth.” As the following excerpts show, the student teachers were made aware of their growth and the development of their didactic competencies after they had compared the first and second self-assessments.

- I made the second assessment with the expectation of developing didactic competencies. Compared with the first self-assessment, I was able to realize the growth to some extent based on my experiences over the year (19.3).
- What kind of future is waiting in front of me? Who will I meet? What will I think of and how will I behave? I realized my growth and gained courage to take a new first step (31.8).
- Because I have learned various teaching methodologies over the year, I surely gained new knowledge and confidence compared with the first self-assessment. Also, I felt that my overall self-assessment improved (33.2).

Comparing the first and the second assessments, some participants were able “to clarify particular didactic competencies they acquired and challenges that need to be solved.” There were more student teachers who referred both to what they acquired and challenges than those who only mentioned about challenges. This indicates that the participants were able to grasp their strengths and weaknesses to some extent.

- Using the portfolio regularly enabled me to realize both aspects that developed and those that need to be solved and understand how I could relate these aspects to goal setting (22.6).
- After reflecting on myself using J-POSTL at the end of the course, the aspects that developed and those that were lacking in my didactic competencies were revealed. When I reflected back on the first self-assessment, I thought about things without understating the course of study or the rationale and theory underlying didactic competencies (48.1).

One of the reasons why student teachers were able “to clarify particular didactic competencies they acquired and challenges that need to be solved” is that they acquired a certain amount of knowledge on English education over a year, which enabled them to understand the descriptors better.

- When I made the first self-assessment, I did not understand the meaning of the phrases and sentences in some descriptors. Now I understand them and have more confidence (14.3).
- I have changed since the first self-assessment. I colored 1 or 2 in most descriptors in the first assessment, but I came to have a clearer image about each descriptor after one year (69.1).

The participants came to understand descriptors better and were able “to assess based on descriptors more appropriately,” although, in the first self-assessment, they made wishful self-assessments. As a result, for some descriptors the results of self-assessment lowered. However, the participants showed a positive attitude toward it.

- In the second assessment, for some descriptors, my assessment became lower. However, it does not mean that my didactic competencies became lower. My understanding toward teaching methodology became deeper, so my criteria for self-assessment changed (40.2).
- In the second self-assessment, the assessment of many descriptors lowered. This was because I learned various issues about English education in several courses including this class over the year. This enabled me to assess my ability strictly. In the first self-assessment, I made an assessment with an ambiguous recognition of my didactic competencies, imagining that I can do this. However, I was able to reflect on my prospective pedagogical practices more deeply and imagine whether or not I will be able to conduct a certain aspect of didactic competencies described in each descriptor because I have learned various methodologies and observed a class in a DVD. In this sense, the second self-assessment became more strict than the first one, and the assessment became lower (67.1).

4.2 What was learned over the year and the reasons why student teachers felt they acquired particular didactic competencies

Twenty-one subthemes emerged concerning what was learned over the year, the ways student teachers have grown, and the degree to which they have a clear image of their classroom skills. Depending on the student teachers, what they have acquired was different and diverse. Some referred to one of the seven categories of the self-assessment section, while others referred to an area within a category. Others mentioned several descriptors as examples. No especially prominent descriptors or areas were singled out by the participants, but descriptors in II. Methodology, descriptors in B. Aims and Needs in I. Context, and descriptors in IV. Lesson Planning were referred to more than descriptors in other areas.

- We focused on the aims and needs of an English education and teaching methodologies in this class, so I learned a lot. I assigned 4 for descriptors in these topics (67.3).
- I had more confidence of understating the needs of an English education and explaining it to the student teachers and parents (22.3).
- In the first assessment, I did not have confidence about lesson planning and lesson content based on the course of study, but now I have a better understanding about it (14.4).

Some participants used other terms such as “Teaching that integrated the four skills” or “Students’ interest,” which are not directly related to the areas and categories and described their own development.

- Nurturing communicative ability through the four skills is more and more important, so we should not have a simplistic thought that communication ability means speaking ability; we should consider the four skills as a means of communication and integrate them. I realized the importance of integrating the four skills through the portfolio (70.7).
- I became more conscious of the keyword “students’ interest” in the second self-assessment. Before I took this course, I imagined myself as the one who struggled with teaching English in English (13.3).

As for reasons why the student teachers felt they had acquired particular didactic competencies or why student teachers felt that they better understood the descriptors, six subthemes emerged. Of these, the two main reasons were “learning on theory and deepening thoughts” and “experience in micro-teaching.” In other words, the student teachers assumed that they are gaining knowledge and deepening their thoughts while they are engaging in learning on theory, classroom experience, and peer discussion in class and preparation and practice of micro-teaching. For example, the following excerpts are examples of “learning on theory and deepening thoughts”:

- Until the third year, I did not take any classes related to English education, so I did not know anything about it. I learned a lot in this class. Although I did not acquire all the knowledge completely, I gained various knowledge compared with myself in the past thanks to writing a reflection journal every week (32.10).
- I found a great difference in the first and second self-assessment because I learned basic theory in English education in “English teaching methodology” and “Special seminar on English teaching methodology” (63.2).

The following excerpts are regarding “experience in micro-teaching”:

- In the first assessment, I had a strong feeling that I could not do anything because I had never experienced micro-teaching. However, I felt that I could manage a little bit in the second assessment because of the experience in micro-teaching (23.7).
- Because I conducted micro-teaching in the “Preparation for teaching practice” course, I found I had changed a lot. The topic of the lesson was related to a folk song in Okinawa and Argentina. I was able to do well about the aspect described in the descriptor, “I can relate what I teach to learners’ knowledge, current events in the local context, and the culture of those who speak it.” So, I was assessed highly in this descriptor (59.4).

4.3 Challenges that need to be solved and reasons why student teachers found particular elements challenging

“Challenges that need to be solved” are descriptions about didactic competencies that student teachers do not possess, lack, feel little confidence in, or feel anxious about. The amount of these descriptions was 1.8 times as much as that of the descriptions about “what was acquired.” As with “what was acquired,” “challenges that need to be solved” were different and diverse depending on the participants. Among 26 subthemes, the most referred example was “practical skills.” Although student teachers felt that their knowledge increased in class, they did not have confidence in actual teaching or wondered whether or not they can actually perform in class.

- I don’t feel that I acquired practical skills even if I assessed highly. I am still in the stage of understanding. Although I learned theory in class, I do not have opportunities of planning and conducting a lesson except for micro-teaching. This is why I am not sure if I actually gained practical skills (14.5).
- I just sit for a classroom lecture, so I cannot determine my current level without the experience of teaching in school. All I have to do is to experience teaching to fill in the bar of 5 in the self-assessment (53.4).

Some mentioned that they cannot do well in “Lesson Planning (V)” and “Conducting a Lesson (I)” and cannot adapt to students’ needs and adjust the time schedule as the lesson progresses. This is a subtheme called “capability of flexible approach.”

- It is important to improve my English proficiency and other skills, but more importantly, I always want to think about how I can improve the students’ English proficiency. Especially, as for lesson planning, I cannot get a clear image without actual experience. I will not be able to respond to unseen situations flexibly on site, so I will predict my practice in a sense of reality (40.8).
- In particular, I was not able to assign 4 or 5 to the descriptors when flexibility is necessary, such as adapting to students’ needs and adjusting the time schedule (5.5).

The next most-mentioned subtheme was “Resources (III).” The participants did not have confidence in selecting appropriate teaching materials.

- I found in the self-assessment that I do not have confidence in selecting and making use of materials appropriate for the students’ needs. Selecting appropriate materials is a key to conducting a lesson (25.4).

“Speaking (II • A)” and “Assessment (VII)” were also commented upon by many participants.

- I myself am not good at speaking in English, and I did not receive training in this

area as a learner, either. I do not have confidence in teaching speaking, so my self-assessment was low.

- I did not have confidence about the first self-assessment. In fact, I found it difficult after I learned about assessment. I have to select and use a different kind of assessment depending on the purpose and ability I want to assess. I have to think about assessment deeply, otherwise the assessment will be meaningless (66.6).

The subthemes concerning reasons for the above challenges were “lack of practice,” “lack of English proficiency,” and “lack of knowledge.” Only one person referred to “lack of knowledge.” The most mentioned subtheme was “lack of practice.” Many student teachers recognized a lack of learning experience of the communicative way of teaching as a learner and a lack of teaching and teaching practice.

- Although I acquired some knowledge, I do not have an opportunity to practice it. Because of not having experience of teaching in an actual classroom, the results of some descriptors in my second self-assessment were the same as for the first one (41.5).
- I learned that the integration of four skills is essential and teaching English in English is ideal. However, I have never experienced such learning when I was a junior high school student. So I will have difficulty in teaching in this way (69.6).

As for a “lack of English proficiency,” some students mentioned that they do not have confidence in teaching because of their own lack of speaking and listening proficiency.

- I did not create an opportunity to learn speaking and listening. Because I lack in English proficiency, I do not have an ability to teach English as a teacher (24.12)

4.4 Future aspirations

“Future aspirations” are descriptions about what student teachers hope to do or prepare for teaching practice after grasping their challenges. The number of descriptions is as much as that of the challenges that need to be solved. Among 19 subthemes, the one most referred to is “continual reflection.” The participants commented that they want to continue making a reflection or using J-POSTL after the class or even after graduation.

- If I carry out self-assessment after teaching practice in school, the results will be different. Practice teaching in school is a good opportunity to put what we have learned into practice, so I will notice many things. I hope to not only acquire practical skills, but also the ability to reflect on myself impartially (14.8).
- The first experience of teaching is teaching practice in school. I will review the contents of the portfolio to put what is written into practice before teaching practice. After teaching practice, I will conduct the section of self-assessment. I expect my

way of thinking and aspects of challenges that need to be improved will be different (29.5).

The second most-mentioned subthemes were “overcoming of challenges before teaching practice” and “development of didactic competencies.” Under these subthemes, the participants did not refer to the concrete descriptors and mentioned ambiguous and vague future aspirations and resolutions about overcoming challenges, preparing for teaching practice, and developing their didactic competencies.

- I still have many challenges to be solved by the time of teaching practice. I will have a positive attitude toward the results of self-assessment and do my best for preparation (23.12).
- I will reflect on what I have learned over the year again during spring break and adopt them into myself (17.2).

“Application of what I have learned into teaching practice” and “application of what I have learned into practice” were subthemes many participants commented on.

- I feel a great anxiety about teaching in this difficult educational environment. I want to get rid of this anxiety in teaching practice in school. I would like to find my own solution about various issues during teaching practice (52.5).
- I haven’t acquired practical skills yet. I want to experience practical skills a lot in many settings and construct a good lesson through trial and error (1.11).

5. Discussion

5.1 Usefulness of J-POSTL as a tool for reflection

The results of the study indicated that most student teachers reflected on their own learning over the year based on can-do statements and clarified their strengths and weaknesses in terms of didactic competencies. In addition, the student teachers referred to their aspirations to overcome their difficulties and develop their didactic competencies. The participants were able to increase their knowledge about teaching English and came to have a clearer image of prospective pedagogical practices. This is why, in the second self-assessment, they made a self-assessment based on a deeper understanding of each descriptor. Furthermore, many student teachers mentioned that they wanted to continue reflection utilizing J-POSTL. Thus, the result of this study indicates the usefulness of J-POSTL as a tool for reflection similar to the usefulness of EPOSTL observed in Bagarić (2011) and Ingvarsdóttir (2011). Also, I identified that among Newby’s (2012) seven categories of good practice that are implicit in EPOSTL, these five functioned in J-POSTL: “supporting a reflective mode of teacher education,” “underpinning of rationales and approaches to learning and teaching,” “making the

scope and aims of teacher education transparent,” “helping to make competences explicit,” and “providing a tool for self-assessment.”

Judging from the above results, implementing J-POSTL in a lecture course on teaching theory in a private university from an early stage, where not all the student teachers plan to become a teacher and thus student teachers’ motivations vary in order to promote critical reflection, would be an effective teaching approach. In addition, using J-POSTL in pre-service teacher education has the possibility of raising student teachers’ awareness of the importance of reflection, and hopefully some of them will continue to engage in critical reflection after graduation.

5.2 Concrete contents of reflection and focused reflection

It is unlikely that the student teachers reflected on each descriptor equally because of the overly large number of descriptors. Rather, it is assumed that the student teachers put a greater emphasis on the categories, areas, or descriptors they regarded as being important. In fact, when I read through all the essays, I found a few that described only “overall awareness.” The student teachers referred to both/either of “what they acquired” and “challenges that need to be solved.” Among the six themes, many of the subthemes under the two themes “what they acquired” and “challenges which need to be solved” corresponded to seven categories or areas in the self-assessment of J-POSTL. The participants realized the development of their didactic competencies, deep understanding of each descriptor, and increase of theoretical knowledge of English education because of the self-assessment, which was conducted twice. Then, they reflected both on “what they acquired” and “challenges that need to be solved” over the year. This suggests that J-POSTL plays the role of fostering focused reflection on didactic competencies.

5.3 Problems of practical skills shown in the contents of reflection

The student teachers mentioned that they developed or acquired their didactic competencies based on their learning in a lecture course and experience in micro-teaching. Few student teachers referred to the experience of teaching or classroom observation outside of the university such as in a cram school. For pre-service teachers in a private university in Japan, what they learned in courses within the university played a crucial role to prepare them for the practicum. In other words, few of them try to find opportunities to deepen their learning outside of the university. Thus, many student teachers mentioned a lack of practical skills as a problem. In the current curriculum, they seem to have difficulty in acquiring sufficient didactic competencies in which to have confidence before the practicum. In fact, I cannot cover all the areas in my 90-minutes of class time per week. Generally, the participants have a confidence about the topics covered in class, while they have less confidence in the

areas I do not deal with. This indicates J-POSTL functions as a useful tool for a teacher educator to assess his or her own class. As for categories such as assessment, which student teachers do not practice in teaching practice in school, we have to consider further about how we deal with them within a course in a university.

A lack of confidence was also reflected in future aspirations. The student teachers did not mention any concrete measures to overcome their problems or develop their didactic competencies by the time of teaching practice. Rather, they vaguely referred to future aspirations. What is worse, they did not intend to prepare for teaching practice and mentioned that they wanted to overcome their problems in teaching practice. The length of teaching practice is short, and such a passive attitude puts too great of a burden on students and teachers in school. Although few mentioned any concrete measures to prepare for teaching practice, some commented that they wanted to read books to increase their knowledge and improve their English proficiency. In the future, the curriculum should be improved by integrating theory into practice.

6. Conclusion and future consideration

The study suggested the effectiveness of J-POSTL as a tool of reflection and the types of reflection the student teachers conducted based on descriptors to some extent. However, the amount of information written in a short reflective essay is limited and not all the reflection appears in these essays. Although I was able to capture the tendency as a whole, I did not clarify the details of an individual reflection and change over the year. In the future, I need to focus on several participants and investigate the more detailed contents of their reflections and change through the use of interviews.

In addition, more effective use of J-POSTL should be considered. It was too much of a burden for the student teachers to reflect on quite a few of the overly large number of descriptors in the first self-assessment at a stage at which they do not understand the descriptors and the ways of reflection. In the future, I will refer to a cycle of utilizing EPOSTL presented by Orlova (2011, p. 28) and integrate J-POSTL into an existing curriculum. I will introduce self-assessment and a peer discussion of a few descriptors step by step. In the second assessment, I asked the student teachers to overview all the descriptors. Some student teachers might have been overwhelmed and wondered what aspects they should have focused on. In the next trial, I will ask them to select a few categories in which they feel they have acquired some didactic competencies and they need to improve. In this way, student teachers can engage in more focused reflection. In addition, they should be encouraged to reflect more deeply on concrete measures and behavior to overcome their problems. I also use IV. Lesson Planning and V. Conducting a Lesson for peer discussion and individual reflection in order to promote critical reflection on their micro-teaching.

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APPENDIX : Codes and frequencies (examples omitted)

Code	Subcode	Definition	F
1. Overall awareness		What student teachers (STs) felt during and after working on J-POSTL—overall awareness on comparing first and second self-assessments	134
	1.1 Realization of growth	STs realized development of didactic competences and growth over the year.	37
	1.2 Understanding of descriptors	STs came to understand descriptors more deeply and could imagine concretely how to teach.	26
	1.3 Clarification of particular didactic competencies acquired and challenges to be resolved	STs clarified particular didactic competences acquired or developed and challenges to be resolved after working on J-POSTL, or realized the change.	25
	1.4 More appropriate self-assessment based on descriptors	STs made more appropriate self-assessment because of their deeper understanding of descriptors.	19
	1.5 Increase of knowledge	STs increased knowledge of English education in general.	10
	1.6 Clarification of challenges	STs clarified challenges after working on J-POSTL.	5
	1.7 Anxiety about teaching practice	STs realized many challenges and felt anxious about teaching practice in school.	4
	1.8 Gap between ideal and reality	STs realized the gap between what they want to do and what they can do.	3
	1.9 Little growth	STs realized they have not grown up very much.	3
	1.10 Importance of reflection	STs realized the importance of reflection.	2
2. What was learned		What was learned over the year, ways in which STs grew,	69

		and the degree to which they have a clear image of their classroom skills.	
	2.1 Methodology (II)	STs can perform well or have confidence in descriptors in Methodology.	8
	2.2 Aims and Needs (I • B)	STs can perform well or have confidence in descriptors in Aims and Needs.	8
	2.3 Lesson Planning (IV)	STs can perform well or have confidence in descriptors in Lesson Planning.	7
	2.4 Teaching that integrates the four skills	STs are aware of teaching that integrates four skills. STs can integrate the four skills or have confidence in integrating the four skills when they teach.	5
	2.5 Students' interest	STs can perform well or have confidence in descriptors in Students' Interest.	4
	2.6 Students' needs and level	STs can perform well or have confidence in descriptors in Students' Needs and Level.	4
	2.7 Context (I)	STs can perform well or have confidence in descriptors in Context.	4
	2.8 Using Lesson Plans (V • A)	STs can perform well or have confidence in descriptors in Using Lesson Plans (including making a lesson plan).	4
	2.9 Image of teaching	STs have a clear image of teaching based on theory learned in class.	4
	2.10 ICT	STs can perform well or have confidence in descriptors related to ICT.	3
	2.11 Culture (II • G)	STs can do or have confidence in descriptors in Culture.	3
	2.12 Conducting a Lesson(V)	STs can perform well or have confidence in descriptors in Conducting a Lesson.	2
	2.13 The Role of the Language Teacher (I • C)	STs can perform well or have confidence in descriptors in The Role of the Language Teacher.	2
	2.14 Reading (II • D)	STs can perform well or have confidence in descriptors in Reading.	2
	2.15 Assessment of Learning (VII)	STs can perform well or have confidence in descriptors in Assessment of Learning.	2
	2.16 Resources (III)	STs can perform well or have confidence in descriptors in Resources.	2
	2.17 Identification of Learning Objectives (IV • A)	STs can perform well or have confidence in descriptors in Identification of Learning Objectives.	1
	2.18 Writing/Written Interaction (II • B)	STs can perform well or have confidence in descriptors in Writing/Written Interaction.	1
	2.19 Listening (II • C)	STs can perform well or have confidence in descriptors in Listening.	1
	2.20 Curriculum (I • A)	STs can perform well or have confidence in descriptors in Curriculum.	1
	2.21 Feedback	STs can perform well or have confidence in descriptors in Feedback.	1
	3. Reasons for feeling that they had acquired particular didactic competences	Reasons why STs felt they had acquired particular didactic competencies or that they better understood the descriptors	83
	3.1 Learning about theory and deepening thoughts	Because STs learned about theory in class and academic conferences and deepened their thoughts on various topics	51
	3.2 Experience in	Because STs experienced micro-teaching in class or	22

	micro-teaching	seminars	
	3.3 Teaching experience	Because STs gained experience of teaching in a part-time job (in cram school or as a volunteer in school)	4
	3.4 High awareness of improving didactic competences	Because STs had high awareness of improving their didactic competences	4
	3.5 Opportunity for class observation	Because STs had an opportunity for class observation in school	1
	3.6 Practice as a language learner	Because STs improved the four skills as a language learner	1
4. Challenged to be resolved		Descriptions of didactic competencies that student teachers do not possess, lack, feel little confidence in, or feel anxious about	128
	4.1 Practical skills	STs lack confidence in actual teaching or are unsure whether they can actually perform in class.	24
	4.2 Resources (III)	STs cannot perform well or lack confidence in descriptors in Resources.	13
	4.3 Speaking/Spoken Interaction (II • A)	STs cannot perform well or lack confidence in descriptors in Speaking/Spoken Interaction.	11
	4.4 Lesson Planning (IV)	STs cannot perform well or lack confidence in descriptors in Lesson Planning.	10
	4.5 Assessment (VII)	STs cannot perform well or lack confidence in descriptors in Assessment.	10
	4.6 Flexible approach	STs cannot adapt to students' needs or adjust the time schedule as the lesson progresses.	8
	4.7 Conducting a Lesson (V)	STs cannot perform well or lack confidence in descriptors in Conducting a Lesson.	5
	4.8 Writing/Written Interaction (II • B)	STs cannot perform well or lack confidence in descriptors in Writing/Written Interaction.	5
	4.9 Grammar (II • E)	STs cannot perform well or lack confidence in descriptors in Grammar.	4
	4.10 Organization (IV • C)	STs cannot perform well or lack confidence in descriptors in Organization.	4
	4.11 English Proficiency	STs feel they lack command of English.	4
	4.12 Classroom Language (V • E)	STs cannot perform well or lack confidence in descriptors in Classroom Language.	3
	4.13 Students' needs and level	STs lack confidence in class in adjusting to students' needs and level.	3
	4.14 Teaching that integrates the four skills	STs cannot relate a skill to other skills in teaching.	3
	4.15 Identification of Learning Objectives (IV • A)	STs cannot perform well or lack confidence in descriptors in Identification of Learning Objectives.	2
	4.16 Methodology (II)	STs cannot perform well or lack confidence in descriptors in Methodology.	2
	4.17 Listening (II • C)	STs cannot perform well or lack confidence in descriptors in Listening.	2
	4.18 Vocabulary (II • F)	STs cannot perform well or lack confidence in descriptors in Vocabulary.	2
	4.19 Interaction with students	STs cannot perform well or lack confidence in descriptors related to interaction with Students.	2
	4.20 Understanding of Course of Study	STs do not fully understand the course of study.	2

	4.21 ICT	STs cannot perform well or lack confidence in descriptors related to ICT.	2
	4.22 Independent Learning (VI)	STs cannot perform well or lack confidence in descriptors in Independent Learning.	2
	4.23 Homework (IV • B)	STs cannot perform well or lack confidence in descriptors in Homework.	2
	4.24 Introduction and feedback	STs cannot perform well the introduction in teaching the four skills and giving feedback to students.	1
	4.25 Arousal of students' interest	STs cannot arouse students' interest by taking account of students' interests and needs.	1
	4.26 Ability to communicate	STs lack sufficient ability to communicate their thoughts or goals to students and their parents.	1
5. Reasons why STs found a particular element challenging		STs' self-assessment and reasons for present challenges	40
	5.1 Lack of practice	Because of STs' lack of experience as a learner in relation to the communicative way of teaching and because of a lack of teaching and teaching practice	28
	5.2 Lack of English proficiency	Because STs themselves lack English proficiency in areas such as speaking and writing	11
	5.3 Lack of knowledge	Because STs lack knowledge about challenges	1
6. Future aspirations		Descriptions of what student teachers hope to do or to prepare for teaching practice after grasping their challenges	127
	6.1 Continual reflection	STs want to continue reflection or use of J-POSTL.	18
	6.2 Overcoming challenges before teaching practice	STs want to overcome challenges or prepare well before teaching practice.	16
	6.3 Development of didactic competences	STs want to develop their didactic competences without referring to concrete didactic competences.	16
	6.4 Application of what I have learned to teaching practice	STs want to apply what they have learned in class to their teaching practice in school.	14
	6.5 Application of what I have learned to practice	STs want to put what they have learned into practice or feel a need for teaching experience.	13
	6.6 Increase of knowledge	STs want to read books to increase their knowledge about English education in general or about their challenges.	11
	6.7 Improvement of English proficiency	STs want to improve their English proficiency.	11
	6.8 Considering concrete measures	STs want to consider concrete measures to overcome their problems.	5
	6.9 Appropriate selection of teaching materials	STs want to select teaching materials that are appropriate for students.	4
	6.10 Clear image of teaching	STs want to have a clear image of teaching.	4
	6.11 Experience in micro-teaching	STs want to do more micro-teaching.	3
	6.12 Collecting teaching materials	STs want to collect teaching materials regularly.	3
	6.13 Imagining an ideal teacher	STs want to have a clear image of an ideal teacher.	2
	6.14 Flexible approach	STs want to adapt to students' needs and adjust the time schedule as the lesson progresses.	2

	6.15 Arousal of students' interest	STs want to arouse students' interest in class.	1
	6.16 Class observation	STs want to observe classes.	1
	6.17 Awareness of lifelong learning	STs want to be aware of the importance of lifelong learning.	1
	6.18 Understanding of Course of Study	STs hope to fully understand the course of study.	1
	6.19 Opportunity for students' self-assessment	STs want to create opportunities not only for their own assessment of didactic competences but also for students' self-assessment of learning.	1

【Research note】

The Integrative Usage of J-POSTL for Pre-service English Teachers
in Order to Enhance Reflection

Yoichi Kiyota

Abstract

This paper discusses the efficient usage of J-POSTL as a tool to encourage students to reflect on and assess their developing didactic knowledge and skills. It is a case study of an instructional course in teaching English language methods. This course was designed based on three main concepts, which were “gaining a practical understanding of essential English language teaching skills by designing a teaching plan,” “confirming understanding of English teaching skills by using J-POSTL,” and “examining students’ beliefs in teaching skills through group discussions.” These concepts were developed in order to enhance students’ awareness of their didactic competences. This paper discusses how the participants deepened their awareness through the course.

Keywords

J-POSTL, English teaching methods, tools for discussion, teaching plan, can-do list

1. Background

1.1 Reflective Activities for the Teacher Training Course

This paper is a case study of an efficient usage of J-POSTL during a class that is part of a correspondence course. J-POSTL is an adaptation of EPOSTL (European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages) (Newby et al., 2007) that was developed under the Japanese educational context. It is an instrument that allows Japanese teachers of English to “promote their professional growth through reflection and dialog. As such it should be seen as a means of enhancing autonomous learning” (*ibid.* p. 84). There are three types of texts, which are “Full-length version,” “Pre-service English teacher education version,” and “In-service English teacher education version.” However, it is difficult for the students to clearly understand practical didactic competences that are required for their future language classes because they do not have enough teaching experience.

In the author’s classes for teaching English language methods, most of the students realized the importance of reflection through self-assessment activities as they referred to various J-POSTL descriptors. However, their reflection alone has not deepened their

understanding and awareness. How their awareness can be enhanced has remained an issue to be solved.

Concerning enhancing the reflection of language teachers, Farrell (2014, p. 8) mentions as follows, “Within the field of second language education reflective practice has emerged as an approach where teachers actively collect data about their teaching beliefs and practices and then reflect on the data in order to direct future teaching decisions” (Underlined by the author). However, it is impossible for the students to collect these kinds of data. In order to solve this problem, it is necessary to support students in their identification of teaching skills; more specifically, those associated with descriptions found in J-POSTL.

Moreover, to improve students’ reflection, it is necessary for them to examine their didactic competences objectively from diverse perspectives. However, their examination of didactic competences tends to remain within the narrow framework that forms through their own learning experience because they do not have enough teaching experiences, which means their learning experiences transform into their teaching models.

Currently, a shift in teaching English language methods is expected from a teacher-centered teaching style that inputs knowledge of the target language to a learner-centered one, such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). In order to promote CLT, we ought to pay more attention to didactic competences that are necessary for action-oriented language learning. However, only a few students have learned how to teach from a learner-centered perspective through classes in CLT style, while others merely recognize CLT as knowledge. Therefore, it is necessary for them to obtain a wider point of view, rather than remain in the limited perspective obtained from their language learning, so they may acquire various teaching styles even though they have not directly experienced the CLT method. Considering these circumstances, two goals ought to be developed for teacher education: comprehensive skills necessary for language classes and acquiring an attitude that allows students to consider their skills from a variety of perspectives.

1.2 J-POSTL as a Tool for Encouraging Discussion

To enhance students’ reflection by using J-POSTL effectively, the following learning activities were designed:

- Activities during which students obtained specific images of teaching skills for upcoming language classes.
- Activities during which students exchanged opinions that aimed to examine their

teaching skills from diverse perspectives.

For “activities during which students obtained specific images of teaching skills for upcoming language classes,” students practiced an activity that required them to design a lesson plan based on a unit of an English textbook. At that time, to develop further awareness of CLT, students used a can-do list that established goals for their teaching strategy. It was expected that using the can-do list would make the students recognize that the goals of language learning should include understanding both the function and the knowledge of the target language.

For “activities during which students exchanged opinions that aimed to examine their teaching skills from diverse perspectives,” group discussion was thought to be most useful. The discussion was expected to be conducted with a common understanding of specific teaching skills that referred to J-POSTL descriptors. Students in the correspondence course usually conduct text-based learning individually, using the designated textbooks. Therefore, this short-term coursework would be an important opportunity for them that provided a direct exchange of opinions with other students and their teacher directly.

EPOSTL, the source of J-POSTL, suggests one of its aims as follows: “it can serve as the springboard for discussion.” Moreover, the User’s Guide section for EPOSTL suggests: “Although the descriptors provide a systematic way of considering competences, they should not be regarded simply as a checklist! It is important that they act as a stimulus for students, teacher educators, and mentors to discuss important aspects of teacher education which underlie them and that they contribute to developing professional awareness” (p. 84).

This discussion activity is expected to enhance students’ awareness of the teaching skills that are necessary for language teachers to master. Considering these suggestions above, using J-POSTL is also expected to enable the students to confirm the concepts of didactic competencies through active discussions among the participants (Refer to Figure 1).

This case study’s subjects were students enrolled in a correspondence course, the majority of which were working adults, many of whom understood well the needs of practical English learning. The occupations of some students were related to English education, such as assistants for English classes and English teachers of tutoring schools. Considering their backgrounds and the period of this schooling, it was expected that this case study might provide suggestions for training programs for in-service English teachers of junior and senior high schools in Japan.

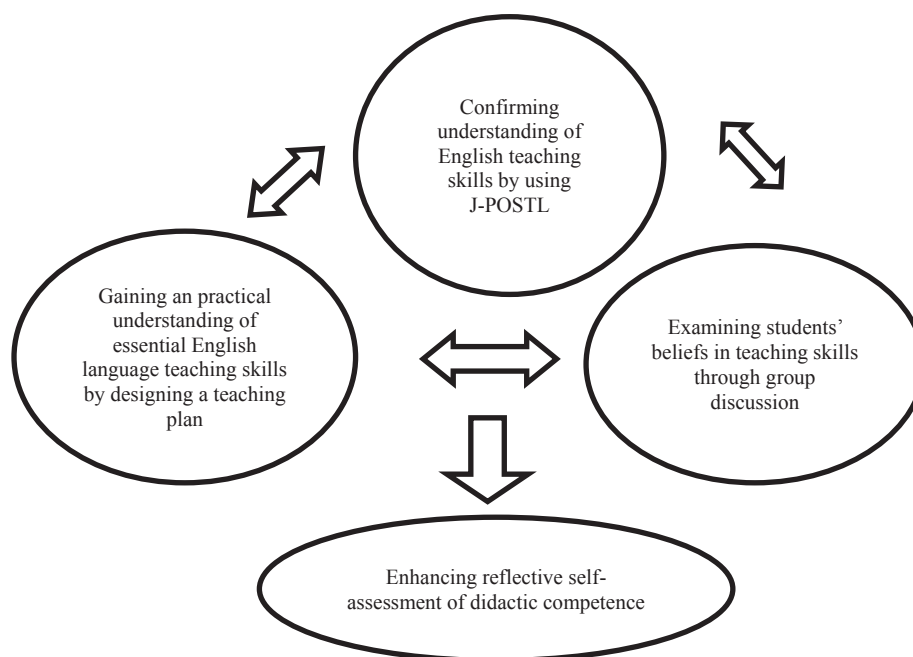


Figure 1: Usage of J-POSTL

2. Objective

The objective of this research is to develop an efficient usage of J-POSTL as a tool for enhancing students' reflective and language teaching skills. To fulfill this objective, the classes were designed based on three main concepts: "gaining practical understanding of essential English language teaching skills by designing a teaching plan," "confirming understanding of English teaching skills by using J-POSTL," and "examining students' beliefs in teaching skills through group discussions." Through these classes, how much the participants improved their reflective skills and enhanced their awareness of didactic competences was examined.

3. Method

3.1 Research Environment

3.1.1 Subject class. The subject class was an educational course, English Teaching Method 3, which implemented English-language teaching methods and was a compulsory class for students aiming to gain their English-language teaching licenses. The educational objective of this class was to understand specific English teaching skills. Students were required to take this class following the basic courses, English Teaching Method 1 and 2, which were courses that mainly provided an understanding of basic knowledge and theories.

3.1.2 Components of the subject class. The course was conducted as follows: As an introductory activity, students were asked for their opinions, derived from their own learning experiences, regarding the qualities of a good English teacher. Subsequently, they exchanged their opinions among the members of their groups. Based on the results of the discussion, students confirmed which qualities referred to the J-POSTL descriptors. This was the first step toward understanding the importance of exchanging opinions in the class, following which, two basic kinds of knowledge for language classes were confirmed. Both were necessary for the following activities. One was the purpose of learning foreign languages at junior high schools and senior high schools in Japan, which are regulated in the Course of Study. The other was basic knowledge of can-do lists for language learning, which would be necessary for considering their teaching plans. After these introductory activities, students started designing their own teaching plans based on a unit of an English textbook that was approved by the Ministry of Education for use in high schools. While developing their teaching plans, the students confirmed the teaching skills that were required for their plans, referring to the J-POSTL discussion among group members. Elemental components of the teaching plans were as follows: the can-do list as goals of their teaching, introductory activities, comprehensive activity of a textbook, self-expression activity, and evaluation.

3.1.3 Participants in the class. Most of the participants in the course were working adults whose occupations were related to educational ones, such as teachers in tutorial schools and assistant teachers in elementary schools.

3.1.4 Data. Data to be examined include the observation of students' learning activities, questionnaires to be distributed during the course, and the follow-up interview, which aims to examine the questionnaire results of further. The questionnaire asked the students about what they thought after attending the class.

3.1.5 Method of analysis. The analysis method involved analyzing data according to themes found in the text data through coding. Coding is one of the leading methods of qualitative analysis that explores similar categories of themes in text-based data and arranging those themes corresponding to subheadings. Within the questionnaires, there existed certain themes for which several descriptions were provided. This might reveal certain tendencies of the students' awareness. Descriptions were categorized according to the respective themes. Concerning the follow-up interview, the interviewees were asked about issues that are related to the three leading perspectives of the educational course.

4. Results

First, the results of examination of the group discussion were introduced. Topics of discussion concerned students' reflections about their learning and teaching experiences. Subsequently, the analytical results for the questionnaire and follow-up interview were examined.

4.1 Introductory Activity

A section of reflective personal experiences regarding learning English through J-POSTL offers appropriate topics for the introductory activity for the course and gives students an overview perspective for this course. Students examined their opinions regarding the qualities of "good or disappointing language teachers" according to the instructions of the relevant section in J-POSTL. They discussed their opinions with their group members, which revealed the following tendencies in their opinions.

"Qualities of a good English language teacher" (Figure in the parentheses shows the number of comments):

- A teacher can create a supportive atmosphere that invites learners to participate in learning activities willingly. (5)
- A teacher can strike a balance among the four language skills for language activities. (3)
- A teacher can facilitate interactions. (2)
- A teacher can provide students with opportunities to express themselves. (2)
- Others: considering students' feeling of achievement or enhancing learner autonomy and motivation/cheerful attitudes.

"Qualities of a disappointing English language teacher"

- Infrequent interaction with students.
- Conducting classes that involve translation into Japanese and providing inputs on grammatical knowledge style.
- Others: repeating routine steps without innovation or passive attitudes.

The most frequent comment on the qualities of a good language teacher included "encouraging students' positive attitudes," while the most frequent comment on the disappointing qualities was "infrequent interaction." Considering the results, it turned out that the students of the course regard an ability to engage students in interactive activities as an important skill. Students in the course confirmed that they shared a tendency toward CLT orientation rather than grammar-translated techniques.

Following this confirmation, students were asked about the necessary elements of CLT. Their answers were summarized as follows: “Learner-centered style would be essential” and “Activities to practically use what they have learned through textbooks.” Through this discussion, students recognized that exchanging opinions is a useful activity to build common ground of understanding target themes. They also confirmed that discussion is one of the leading activities of this course.

4.2 Questionnaire after the Class

4.2.1 Comments on attitudes and aptitudes as a language teacher (16). Several comments were made regarding this theme. The comments are thought to be derived from what the students had learned through the learning activities. Comments were classified broadly into two themes. Most of the comments were made on the theme, “readiness as a language teacher.” The second most frequent comments were on the topic “concern about students’ needs for English language learning.” Sample student comments are as follows:

Comments on readiness as a language teacher:

- ① “What I learned through this class is that teachers should continue to learn. After designing a teaching plan based on a unit of a textbook, I truly recognized that my abilities as a language teacher are limited. This class has provided me a lot of agendas to be learned more.”
- ② “I have noticed how I should have learned more about teaching, and now I have recognized what I have to learn as a language teacher through working on the learning activities of this class.”
- ③ “This class forced me to consider how to improve my teaching all through the learning activities. I noticed that some of the language classes I had been enrolled in were not appropriate ones, and this realization made me think how to improve those aspects.”
- ④ “What I was surprised to find out is that there exist a lot of approaches to teaching English language even for a unit of a textbook as a learning material. Language teachers need much time to consider their approaches for designing each class. As a teacher of a music class, I’d like to improve my classes by utilizing what I have learned during this course. I don’t want my classes to be classified as disappointing ones.”

As the above comments illustrate, there are two differences that recognize the importance of continuing education as a language teacher. One group of comments, ① and ②, indicates that the recognition was derived from the student’s realization of his or her insufficient ability as a language teacher. The other group, ③ and ④, indicates

that the recognition had been derived from the realization that the specialty of a language teacher requires continual learning.

Comments regarding concerns for students' needs for English language learning were as follows:

- ① “What I learned first is a need to understand differences clearly among classes in elementary schools, junior high schools and senior high schools. I haven't been concerned about the differences so far. I was surprised and bewildered to know that I can't explain the reasons for learning English language clearly. I need to consider this increasingly more in order to find the answer for myself.”
- ② “I haven't considered why learning English is regulated by the Course of Study. It was really helpful for my understanding.”
- ③ “This course is really meaningful for me providing me clear images and has provided me with a clear understanding of how to design my English language teaching practically, which I haven't clearly understood thus far. Even if there are several good reasons to learn English generally, those reasons won't have any effect on students' motivation unless they have realized these reasons by themselves. I noticed that it is important for each student to find his or her reasons for learning English.”
- ④ “I have been wondering how to make students aware of the value of learning English. Fortunately, this class provided me with suggestions for this, which is the most significant attainment of my learning.”

This theme was divided into two groups. One indicates that the student teachers cannot explain reasons for learning English clearly by themselves, such as ① and ②. The other indicates that they find it difficult to make their students aware of the reasons, although they themselves understand the importance of learning English, such as ③ and ④.

4.2.2 Comments on teaching methods. This is the second most frequent theme of the questionnaire. These comments show that many students regarded specific teaching methods as important. The most frequent topic is “composition of class,” and the second most frequent topics are about “interaction” and “comprehension of a textbook,” two apiece. Examples of the comments are as follows:

Comments on the teaching and lesson contents:

- ① “I have learned the following five important suggestions through this class. (i) Important perspectives for considering teaching methods; (ii) An integrative method

of four proficiencies; (iii) Various methods should be utilized according to each goal of unit of a textbook; (iv) Activities to encourage students' self-expression should be designed according to each learning subject, which should include topics and a target grammar; (v) I have obtained a specific image of a teaching method through the teacher's demonstration, and I'd like to know more."

- ② "As I am a teacher of Japanese language, I tried to observe the English classes of a school where I am working for my reference. However, they vary, which confused me. This course provided me with a basic framework for an English language class. Especially, a perspective of the balance between the four skills seems the most significant one for me. This recognition taught me not to conduct unbalanced teaching such as emphasizing just speaking or writing. I also learned how to make the best use of a textbook for my future classes."
- ③ "Concerning teaching English language methods classes, I usually conduct my classes mainly according to grammar-centered methods a teacher in a tutoring school. I found it interesting that classes included learning activities expressing what students think and feel. These activities could possibly lead to improvement of students' proficiencies not only in speaking but also in reading and writing."
- ④ "I learned how to conduct my language class through group discussions and designing my teaching plan."

With reference to class structure, many of the comments indicate that the students have learned basic composition successfully. In particular, many comments were made regarding the students' perspective of the balance of the four skills. Moreover, activities such as group discussion and designing a teaching plan were helpful in enhancing the students' further awareness.

Comments on other methods:

- ① "I hadn't acquired a full understanding on comprehending the textbook in Japanese, but I learned that understanding the content doesn't necessarily mean translating English into Japanese."
- ② "Through this schooling class, I learned that a handout and an oral introduction can be provided to help students understand the content of a textbook. As the teacher of this class coherently demonstrated, I would like to conduct my own classes under a concept of making students think for themselves while aiming to obtain their own answers."
- ③ "Classes based on interactive activities vary according to the students in a class. I think it is important to continue to work on the interactive method considering their language levels and needs. I would like to design interactive activities that consider situations familiar to students' daily lives"

- ④ “I have obtained a clear understanding of how to teach interactively. By experiencing learning activities as a student of the schooling class, I was able to learn a lot from a different perspective.”

Comments ① and ② are concerned mainly with understanding the content of a language textbook, and ③ and ④ are concerned with the interactive method. They indicate that understanding the content of a textbook does not necessarily mean translating English into Japanese and the importance of conducting classes, including comprehension of a textbook should be conducted based on an interaction-oriented method.

4.2.3 Comments on group discussion. Group discussion was one of the main activities during the course. Fourteen comments were made on this theme.

- ① “I had to listen to other members’ opinions carefully because I didn’t know the terminology used in their opinions. However, it was a new experience for me and very instructive. Especially while designing my teaching plan, I learned a lot about what I cannot learn just through reading a textbook on teaching method. Although I thought I couldn’t design the plan at first, I was able to complete the teaching plan with support from my teacher and group members.”
- ② “At first, I couldn’t understand how to design a teaching plan because I have never taught English in a class before. However, I have acquired specific understanding through active group work, which provided me plenty of suggestions.”
- ③ “I was able to learn a lot through active group work. Exchanging opinions in a group widened my perspective. This sort of experience is rare for my daily learning.”
- ④ “This two-day class was really instructive for me because I learned various ways of thinking and methods through hearing other informative opinions.”

Comments on this theme were classified into two groups. Comments ① and ② indicate that hearing the various opinions of other group members encouraged the students to directly design teaching plans. Alternatively, ③ and ④ widened the students’ perspective by hearing various opinions from the other members.

4.2.4 Comments regarding J-POSTL descriptors. It was most of the students’ first experience with evaluating their didactic competence by using a portfolio. Therefore, they commented on the use of J-POSTL as a self-assessment tool included the following:

- ① “I look forward to reflecting upon my growth as a language teacher after an interval because I was able to confirm it by evaluating my proficiency with a portfolio.”

- ② “I recognized the importance of a portfolio because it supports my reflection with my record of self-assessment. I need to examine specific teaching methods by referring to each descriptor.”
- ③ “I am sorry, but I remain uncertain about the descriptors of the four skills that comprise a portfolio. I would like some supporting handouts that provide specific examples.”

Most comments, such as ① and ②, indicate that students recognized the portfolio as an efficient tool for their self-evaluations of their didactic competence. However, a comment like ③ indicates that some students were unable acquire a complete understanding of specific teaching methods.

4.3 Follow-up Interview

A follow-up interview was conducted with one student for further examination of certain results of the questionnaire. After presenting themes on significant learning activities that took place during the course, questions were asked about these themes. The student is in her thirties, with an opportunity to use English approximately once a month, but she had no teaching experiences as a language teacher. Her parents offer their residence as a homestay accommodation for students from abroad. The student recognized the need to learn English though these experiences. Her opinions were introduced as directly as possible because they show the comprehensive process of enhancing her awareness.

4.3.1 Enhancing awareness of didactic competence through self-assessment with J-POSTL. On this theme, the student commented as follows:

I have learned that the teaching skills required for an English language teacher include a lot of elements imparted through a teacher education course. However, I don't understand their order, such as what skill should be obtained first. Therefore, a portfolio that provides opportunities for self-assessment that indicates specific skills to be obtained is an excellent tool. The ability to use the English language personally differs entirely from the ability to teach English. We can analyze what we can use from our learning experiences and what sort of skills we need with a portfolio. Descriptors of J-POSTL teach me the necessity of learning/preparation for my continuous growth as a language teacher. Moreover, I noticed that I have to continue my learning using J-POSTL, which supports my learning repeatedly. I really appreciate it as a supporting tool. (Underlined by the author)

This comment indicates that the student has readily found significant value in self-assessment by referring to descriptors of J-POSTL, which encourages her to understand

specialization in her occupation as a language teacher and the importance of continuous growth.

4.3.2 Understanding specific teaching skills by making a teaching plan. Concerning this theme, the student answered as follows:

I was able to work on a self-assessment reflecting my learning experiences, but it was the first time for me to design a teaching plan and I had difficulty even in understanding its format and composition. Therefore, I couldn't find any relation between designing my teaching plan and the self-evaluation. I was bewildered when you asked if I was making efforts to design my teaching plan for my deal English-language class. I forgot that suggestion when I devoted myself just to the teaching plan, which is far from my ideal class.

It was difficult for me to understand students' reaction to my instruction because I have no teaching experience I couldn't understand what the students have learned so far for the teaching plan, either. Understanding concepts of a can-do list was also difficult for me. I think I need to have more examples of descriptors of a can-do list, which may help my understanding.

The student's comments, given above, indicates that simultaneous activities that require her to reflect didactic competence and design a teaching plan are too much work for her, which did not lead to the result that the author had expected.

4.3.3 Exchanging opinions with various learning experiences. The student commented on the theme as follows:

Discussion of designing a teaching plan was really helpful for me to acquire various ideas as I had difficulty because of my limited knowledge. Discussion was a meaningful activity during the schooling class. For example, in-service teachers have informative ideas and understand students' reactions even though their teaching subjects are not English language. Although I faced significant difficulties in creating my plan, I believe that trying to create a plan is important. After designing the first version, we exchanged opinions about our plans. After getting ideas, we were able to revise it again. This cycle is efficient to understand the necessary steps of designing a teaching plan. I couldn't evaluate my plan because I am unaware of the standards used for evaluating a plan. When we had a chance to make a teaching plan for another class in a three-student group, it was helpful for me and I successfully made progress in developing the plan.

This comment indicates that exchanging opinions with other students directly

encouraged her to design the teaching plan. Moreover, she found significant meaning in the process of exchanging opinions itself.

4.3.4 Summing up opinions regarding the course. The student made a comment summing up her opinions as follows:

I think designing a yearly teaching plan at first is helpful to make a teaching plan of each unit of a textbook. Analyzing yearly teaching plans leads to grasping a broad understanding of teaching in a certain educational environment, which will be efficient in understanding the overall process of designing a teaching plan.

This comment indicates that the student recognized that a teaching plan for each unit of a textbook should be created as part of the yearly teaching plan, which shows that she has deepened her awareness by working on the course's learning activities.

5. Consideration

This case study aimed to develop efficient usage of J-POSTL as a tool to promote pre-service English teachers' professional growth through reflection and dialog. Therefore, classes were based on three main concepts, which were "gaining a practical understanding of essential English language teaching skills by designing a teaching plan," "confirming understanding of English teaching skills by using J-POSTL," and "examining students' beliefs through teaching group discussions." In order to examine whether the class, based on the concepts above, enhanced students' awareness, a post-class questionnaire and a follow-up interview were conducted. Analysis of those data reveals the following features.

5.1 Analysis of the Questionnaire

The most frequent comments were provided regarding the "attitudes and aptitudes of a language teacher." They were divided into two subthemes, "readiness as a language teacher" and "concern for students' needs regarding English language learning."

Concerning the "attitudes and aptitudes of a language teacher," there are two differences in the recognition of the importance of continued learning from the perspective of a language teacher. One indicates that the recognition has been derived from the realization of the student's insufficient ability as a language teacher. The other indicates that the recognition has been derived from the realization that specialization as a language teacher requires continuous learning. This realization shows that the J-POSTL descriptors might have prompted students' understanding of the specialization of a language teacher.

Concerning the theme “students’ needs for English language learning,” it was also divided into two groups. One indicates that students could not explain the reasons for learning English clearly themselves. The other indicates that they found it difficult to make students aware of the reasons even, though they themselves understood the importance of English. The following comment, “Even if there are a lot of good reasons to learn English generally, those reasons won’t have any effect on students’ motivation unless they have realized them for themselves. I noticed that each student finds his or her own needs to learn English” shows further awareness of the student, who examines this theme from both perspectives, as a student and a teacher.

Regarding “teaching method,” the comments show that the majority of students learned a great deal about practical teaching methods, such as the basic composition of the class, through what they learned during the course. In particular, several comments were made regarding the importance of balancing the four skills. Considering other comments on teaching methods, students noticed the importance of conducting teaching interactively, including comprehension of textbooks, which shows that they have become aware that English language classes should be designed from a CLT perspective. This indicates that the activity of making a teaching plan, including a can-do list of the target language functions, was helpful for them to consider basic components of the language class.

Regarding a can-do list, one of the comments, “A can-do list is really helpful because a teacher can set specific teaching goals, which enables a language teacher to understand what kind of activities are required,” indicates that making a can-do list for a teaching plan promoted students’ understanding of the teaching skills required for the plan. Moreover, the comment, “Teacher’s demonstration provided me a clear understanding of English class” indicates that a demonstration of teaching by the teacher of the course was efficient to promote students’ understanding.

Many comments were provided on the topic of “group discussion.” Comments were classified into two groups. One indicates that knowing various of other group members’ opinions directly encouraged them as they designed their teaching plans, while the other widened students’ perspective by enabling them to hear various opinions from other members, which is thought to be a form of indirect support. This difference is thought to emerge from the variation in students’ teaching experiences and degree of understanding. However, exchanging opinions was efficient for both groups, unlike the one-way methods in which the inexperienced receive instruction from the experienced. In particular, the following comment shows students’ recognition of the importance of self-awareness through exchanging various opinions, which indicates that they noticed the significance of group discussion.

Comments on J-POSTL were made as a tool of self-assessment. The following

comments on self-assessment show students' recognition of importance of reflection, "I recognized the importance of a portfolio because it supports my reflection through my record on self-evaluation. I need to examine specific teaching methods referring to each descriptor." and "I have recognized what language learning actually is through this course. As a basic attitude, self-analysis for understanding is a necessary competence for a language teacher. I'll try to regard this perspective as my basic attitude." This suggests that J-POSTL should be used in an integrative way to achieve the common ground of discussion, which leads to students' further awareness.

Considering the results of the analysis, classes were based on three main concepts, which are "gaining a understanding essential teaching skills by designing a teaching plan," "confirming the concept of didactic competences using J-POSTL," and "examining students' beliefs in their teaching skills through group discussion." According to the results, the course successfully enhanced students' awareness of didactic competence in an integrative way.

However, a comment, "I am sorry for remaining uncertain about descriptors of four skills of a portfolio. I want some supportive handout introducing specific examples." shows that some teaching skills are difficult to understand only by making teaching plans. In the process of developing J-POSTL, it was discussed that specific teaching activities should be presented according to J-POSTL. However, students in this class were expected to examine necessary teaching skills by making their own teaching plans. Efficient guidance that encourages students to try and discover specific ideas on their own should have been presented. This kind of scaffolding to enhance students' autonomy should be examined as a future subject.

5.2 Analysis of the Follow-up Interview

A follow-up interview provides informative perspectives on matters that seem to require further examination. The interview results indicate that the combination of each learning activity should be enhanced. The interviewee made a positive comment on utilizing J-POSTL for a class of schooling as follows: "Descriptors of J-POSTL teach me the necessity of learning/preparation for continuous growth as a language teacher." This comment suggests that the interviewee recognized J-POSTL as a tool that can support her growth as a language teacher.

On the other hand, the following comment suggests a subject to be improved. "I am bewildered when you (the author) asked if I was making efforts to make my teaching plan as my desirable class of English language. I forgot that suggestion when I devoted myself to the teaching plan. I couldn't have a clear image of my desirable class." This suggests that there is a gap between designing a teaching plan and an ideal class. This

gap could possibly be found in any teaching method class and, therefore, should be considered.

Then, the interviewee explained her problem as follows, “As I didn’t know how to make a teaching plan, I couldn’t combine the teaching plan and the portfolio as an integrative activity. A portfolio is a self-assessment tool, which was comparatively easier to work on, while designing a teaching plan needs more specific ideas and examples.” This suggests that there needs to be some guiding instructions in order to conduct these activities in an integrative manner.

The interviewee replied as follows when she was asked if guiding instructions by a teacher are necessary to work on several activities simultaneously. “I think the teacher’s guidance or instruction is necessary because I get distracted when surrounded by a lot of information about learning activities which is not familiar to me.” This comment suggests that activities such as designing a teaching plan and assessing teaching skills with a portfolio were completely unfamiliar to the student, especially in a situation where she found it difficult to work on the activities simultaneously.

The interviewee also expressed her opinion on a successful integration of activities as follows: “Introducing examples of a teaching plan according to priority issues would be helpful for students who are not familiar with them.” At this point, an introduction about creating a teaching plan was presented by using a section of the J-POSTL lesson plan. However, the instruction did not successfully support her understanding.

Concerning designing a teaching plan and assessing teaching skills through a portfolio, an article in a reference book for EPOSTL makes a meaningful suggestion (Anne-Brit Fenner, 2012, p. 47).

If, however, the teaching of foreign languages is to improve, feedback sessions after the student’s lessons need to be based on critical reflection. Such feedback sessions can be planned in advance by student and mentor agreeing on specific competence descriptors, for instance competences with which the student has problems (Underlined by the author). They can be agreed upon either because the student is aware of his or her weaknesses or because the mentor has observed such weaknesses.

The underlined part suggests that focusing on specific competences beforehand is possibly helpful for improvement through further reflection. Designing a teaching plan demands various teaching skills. Therefore, we can take a similar step for promoting further understanding.

Regarding using a can-do list for making teaching plans, the interviewee pointed out that it is difficult to understand unless he or she has already had sufficient knowledge, as follows: “Understanding concepts of a can-do list was also difficult for me. I think I need to have more examples of descriptors of a can-do list, which may help my understanding.” This comment indicates that it is difficult for students without any teaching experience to understand the concept and goals of a can-do list. Considering the difficulties encountered by the students, some guiding instructions should be developed to support their understanding.

A suggestion was made on creating the teaching plan, as follows: “I think making a yearly teaching plan at first is helpful in designing a teaching plan for each unit of a textbook. Analyzing the yearly teaching plan leads to an overall understanding of teaching in a certain educational environment, which will be efficient in understanding how to design a teaching plan.” This suggestion shows that the students understood the concept of a teaching plan well and that each teaching plan based on a certain unit should be part of the whole year’s teaching plan, which shows that the student deepened her awareness through the learning activities we designed for the course.

6. Conclusion

It can be concluded that the integrative learning activity using J-POSTL was effective in enhancing students’ awareness of their didactic competences, considering the results of our analysis of the questionnaire and the follow-up interview. Concerning research on the usage of J-POSTL, its descriptors and self-assessment activity were highly focused. However, the aspect of J-POSTL as a tool to promote discussion should be given more attention.

A few issues to be solved have also emerged from this study. For this course, designing a teaching plan and assessing teaching skills were meant to be conducted in an integrated manner. However, some supporting instruction is necessary for further understanding because not all of the learning activities are familiar for the students.

Moreover, many of the students provided suggestions for an in-service teacher training program. The instruction given was a two-day course, which is the typical length of a short-term teacher in-service. Therefore, the course’s programs could be utilized for in-service teacher training. During the course, a few in-service teachers whose subject is not English were included. They attended the class aiming to acquire an English-language teaching license and played the role of good informants for other students without any teaching experience. The in-service teachers supported the other students by providing necessary ideas and hints during the discussion. Generally, in-service

teacher training is conducted as an essential part of similar teaching careers. However, considering the result of this case study, in-service teacher training programs can apply this integrated approach for participants with various levels of teaching experience.

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Appendix

Comments on readiness as a language teacher

- What I learned through this class is that teachers should continue to learn. After designing a teaching plan based on a unit of a textbook, I truly recognized that my abilities as a language teacher are limited. This class has provided me a lot of

agendas to be learned more.

- I have noticed how I should have learned more about teaching, and now I have recognized what I have to learn as a language teacher through working on the learning activities of this class.
- This class forced me to consider how to improve my teaching all through the learning activities. I noticed that some of the language classes I had been enrolled in were not appropriate ones, and this realization made me think how to improve those aspects.
- What I was surprised to find out is that there exist a lot of approaches to teaching English language even for a unit of a textbook as a learning material. Language teachers need much time to consider their approaches for designing each class. As a teacher of a music class, I'd like to improve my classes by utilizing what I have learned during this course. I don't want my classes to be classified as disappointing ones.

Comments on concern on students' needs for English language learning

- What I learned first is a need to understand differences clearly among classes in elementary schools, junior high schools and senior high schools. I haven't been concerned about the differences so far. I was surprised and bewildered to know that I can't explain the reasons for learning English language clearly. I need to consider this increasingly more in order to find the answer for myself.
- I haven't considered why learning English is regulated by the Course of Study. It was really helpful for my understanding.
- This course is really meaningful for me providing me clear images and has provided me with a clear understanding of how to design my English language teaching practically, which I haven't clearly understood thus far. Even if there are several good reasons to learn English generally, those reasons won't have any effect on students' motivation unless they have realized these reasons by themselves. I noticed that it is important for each student to find his or her reasons for learning English.
- I have been wondering how to make students aware of the value of learning English. Fortunately, this class provided me with suggestions for this, which is the most significant attainment of my learning.

Comment of teaching methods

- I have learned the following five important suggestions through this class. (i) Important perspectives for considering teaching methods; (ii) An integrative method of four proficiencies; (iii) Various methods should be utilized according to each goal of unit of a textbook; (iv) Activities to encourage students' self-expression should be designed according to each learning subject, which should include topics and a target grammar; (v) I have obtained a specific image of a teaching method through the

teacher's demonstration, and I'd like to know more.

- As I am a teacher of Japanese language, I tried to observe the English classes of a school where I am working for my reference. However, they vary, which confused me. This course provided me with a basic framework for an English language class. Especially, a perspective of the balance between the four skills seems the most significant one for me. This recognition taught me not to conduct unbalanced teaching such as emphasizing just speaking or writing. I also learned how to make the best use of a textbook for my future classes.
- Concerning teaching English language methods classes, I usually conduct my classes mainly according to grammar-centered methods a teacher in a tutoring school. I found it interesting that classes included learning activities expressing what students think and feel. These activities could possibly lead to improvement of students' proficiencies not only in speaking but also in reading and writing.

Comments on other methods

- I hadn't acquired a full understanding on comprehending the textbook in Japanese, but I learned that understanding the content doesn't necessarily mean translating English into Japanese.
- Through this schooling class, I learned that a handout and an oral introduction can be provided to help students understand the content of a textbook. As the teacher of this class coherently demonstrated, I would like to conduct my own classes under a concept of making students think for themselves while aiming to obtain their own answers.
- Classes based on interactive activities vary according to the students in a class. I think it is important to continue to work on the interactive method considering their language levels and needs. I would like to design interactive activities that consider situations familiar to students' daily lives
- I have obtained a clear understanding of how to teach interactively. By experiencing learning activities as a student of the schooling class, I was able to learn a lot from a different perspective.

Comment on group discussion

- I had to listen to other members' opinions carefully because I didn't know the terminology used in their opinions. However, it was a new experience for me and very instructive. Especially while designing my teaching plan, I learned a lot about what I cannot learn just through reading a textbook on teaching method. Although I thought I couldn't design the plan at first, I was able to complete the teaching plan with support from my teacher and group members.
- At first, I couldn't understand how to design a teaching plan because I have never taught English in a class before. However, I have acquired specific understanding

through active group work, which provided me plenty of suggestions.

- I was able to learn a lot through active group work. Exchanging opinions in a group widened my perspective. This sort of experience is rare for my daily learning.
- This two-day class was really instructive for me because I learned various ways of thinking and methods through hearing other informative opinions.

Comments on descriptors of J-POSTL

- I look forward to reflecting upon my growth as a language teacher after an interval because I was able to confirm it by evaluating my proficiency with a portfolio.
- I recognized the importance of a portfolio because it supports my reflection with my record of self-assessment. I need to examine specific teaching methods by referring to each descriptor.
- I am sorry, but I remain uncertain about the descriptors of the four skills that comprise a portfolio. I would like some supporting handouts that provide specific examples.

【Practical Report】

**How Does English Teaching Practicum Help Student Teachers' Growth
in Pre-Service Education?
—An Investigation Using the J-POSTL for Pre-service—**

Sakiko Yoneda

Abstract

In 2013, the Japanese Government announced a reform plan to enhance English proficiency from 2020: homeroom teachers at elementary schools are being suggested to team-teach English with Assistant Language Teachers (ALT), however, there are no distinct regulations regarding pre-service teacher education of the related field at elementary school level. To guarantee quality education, there is a demand that the Government should stipulate that universities implement courses of teaching English to Japanese children in pre-service elementary school teacher education (Sakai et al., 2014).

This study was conducted to grasp the effects of teaching practicum of team-teaching at elementary school in order to gain insights for English education at elementary schools in Japan. In this study, 10 fourth-year Japanese university students in pre-service education participated. The participants taught Japanese children at an elementary school with American university students, who assumed the role of ALTs. The participants recorded their self-evaluation before and after the teaching practicum in the Japanese Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages for Pre-service English Teacher Education (J-POSTL) and completed an internally generated questionnaire.

The results indicated that the teaching practicum was effective to help student teachers become confident as well as to make them aware of a lack of required knowledge and skills. Besides giving the students hands-on experience, learning methodology and enhancing their language abilities turned out to be the skills that should be developed in pre-service education.

Keywords

English Teaching Practicum at Elementary School, Pre-Service Teacher Education, Japanese and American University Students, Team-Teaching, J-POSTL (Pre-service)

1. Introduction

1.1. Research Background and Objectives

Under the current Course of Study, which started in 2008, “Foreign Language Activities

(FLA)” in the fifth and sixth grades are compulsory to promote English skills of Japanese, but homeroom teachers without any training in this field are expected to teach this class. To assist homeroom teachers, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan (MEXT) promotes utilizing external staff like Assistant Language Teachers (ALT) or local people who have good English skills (MEXT, 2008: 19).

This policy raises problems mainly in two regards: English ability and teaching skills. According to a survey conducted in 2012 (MEXT, 2014a), 70% of FLA is mainly taught by homeroom teachers, but 57% of the teachers answered ‘unconfident’. A lack of English proficiency was a barrier for communication between the homeroom teachers and ALTs. Needless to say, teachers must have adequate English proficiency, which is claimed to be 550-600 in TOEIC (J-SHINE, 2014). Two credit hours of English are mandatory to obtain a teacher’s certificate under current regulations, but two credit hours’ study is too little to have enough English ability to reach the level of 550-600 in TOEIC.

Besides a lack of English abilities, a lack of teaching skills is claimed to be solved right away (Sakai et al., 2014; J-SHINE, 2014). English education in elementary education is very different from that of secondary education: the lower the ages of students, the more age-appropriate teaching techniques are required. Yet, the educational system that requires courses in this field is not established (The Japan Association of English teaching in Elementary Schools & Japan society of English Language Education, 2014)

According to the MEXT’s reform plan (MEXT, 2013), besides moving FLA to the third and fourth grades, “English Language” as a subject is going to be newly established in the fifth and sixth grades. While the aim of FLA is to nurture the foundations for communication skill, the new course, “English Language” as a subject is aimed to nurture basic English language skills. Yet, the instructors will be “class teachers with good English teaching skills, actively utilize specialized course teachers (MEXT, 2014b).” The plan is still suggesting the utilization of external staff like ALTs or community members. This indicates that it is urgent to implement an effective way to produce elementary school homeroom teachers good at English.

Hatta claims that reflection, experience, and on-site training are important in student teacher training (2000). Based on previous research and surveys, this research was conducted to investigate the effects of teaching practicum and to grasp student teachers’ communicative abilities in English with ALTs, native speakers of English, which was expected to contribute to pre-service education in Japan’s current situation.

1.2. Trial of J-POSTL for Pre-Service in Teaching Practicum at Elementary School

English teachers, whether for elementary or secondary education, need English ability, didactic competences, and professional aptitude. However, it appears that these competences are not considered important for instructors in the current Japanese elementary school system. As long as homeroom teachers have to teach English, they need teacher training as English teachers to some extent.

To educate student teachers to be good English instructors, they need clear guidelines. The Japanese Portfolio for Student Teacher of Languages (Pre-service) (J-POSTL, 2014a) is expected to be useful (Yamamoto, 2013:103-104). J-POSTL (Pre-service) helps students become aware of the required knowledge and skills through practicum or in class by using descriptors. Prior to this research, relevant descriptors for this practicum needed to be selected. Yamamoto (2013) claims that 47 descriptors are relevant for FLA. Yet, the school where the practicum was held had English as a subject. That means four skills were taught, and in all the grades. Out of 96, 63 descriptors were selected: the ones that were related to the practicum on the site as well as background knowledge of TESOL (cf. Chapter 3). The textbooks were *Magic Time 1*, *English Time 1* and *English Time 2* (Oxford University Press, 2002). This series was developed for students in the EFL environment. Enhancing four skills, it introduces language in a spiraling syllabus based on various theories, methods and approaches (Taylor et al., 2002). Each unit consisted of a conversation in a situation, vocabulary, target sentence, and phonics (only for *English Time*). In planning, the student teachers were told to include communicative activities that would involve many skills to attain the lesson objectives of the class.

2. Outline of Teaching Practicum: HGU-AU Teaching Collaborative

The teaching practicum in this research was called HGU-AU Teaching Collaborative. As the name indicates, it was a team-teaching between a Japanese university (HGU) in mid-western Japan, and an American University (AU) in the southeastern United States.

2.1 Objectives of the Teaching Collaborative and Principles of Student Training

The teaching collaborative had two objectives: through the whole procedure of planning and conducting team-teaching with ALTs, the Japanese students would realize the gap between their current skills, English proficiency and teaching skills and those required for teachers at elementary school. The role of ALTs was taken by AU students, who took a semester long course and learned how to teach English in Japan before coming to Japan. The other objective was the students would learn the importance of communicative skills of English and work toward establishing a relationship with people from another culture.

2.2 Teaching Collaborative as a Component of a Course

The practicum was a component of a course in both schools. At HGU, the practicum was an academic component of a course of “Methods of Teaching English to Children” in Year Four. At HGU, two courses were compulsory for elementary school teacher certification from 2011. Therefore, all the participants had been studying about teaching English related topics, including methods of teaching English in general. AU had a 15-week elective course “Building Cross Cultural Relationships Using English as a Foreign Language”, the focus of which was learning culture. Teaching English/practicum was a part of the course. The students studied about the language, culture, and education system of Japan as well as making lesson plans.

2.3 Background Information of the students

The participants were 10 fourth-year HGU students and six AU students. Most HGU participants were pursuing a teaching career. They entered university in 2011 when FLA started. This could have stimulated their English studies, but they did not feel obligated to learn English because FLA was called an “activity”, which indicates that English was not considered as important as other subjects like Japanese or math. Also, higher level English classes had scheduling conflicts with their compulsory classes, which indicates the institution failed to recognize the needs of the students to enhance their English abilities. As for their English levels, one student had STEP 2nd Grade (approximately CEFR B1), but the rest at Pre-2 Grade (approximately CEFR A2). They studied English once a week, two credit hours, in their freshman year. Their encounters with people from other cultures were limited to ALTs in secondary school. From AU, six students, two juniors and four seniors participated: one of them was education major, and the others’ majors were psychology, art, English and English literature. Their motivation to join this course was their interest in Japan. Their background knowledge of education and applied linguistics was not ample. These features were typical of most ALTs working in Japanese schools.

2.4 Lesson Planning and Conducting Class

There were only six classes in the school, all the participants were divided into six groups. Each group was expected to collaborate in planning and teaching. HGU assumed the role of homeroom teachers and AU, the ALT. Preparation began in February, 2014. The students exchanged lesson plans among their partners for three months by email prior to the practicum. After AU’s arrival in the end of May, both students practiced in pairs/threes using the enclosed CDs from textbooks and teaching materials. After practicing in pairs/threes, they had a standing rehearsal.

The practicum was held on June 3rd and also on the 5th. Classes were held twice a week for each grade (one to six), totaling 12 hours of student participation. The school was

small with one class per grade. Usually, first and second grade students have only one class per week, but the elementary school kindly offered two class hours so that all the HGU and AU students would have the opportunity to teach the same class twice. The contents of lessons for each grade and class are showed below (Table 1).

Table 1. Grades, Language Materials and Objectives of Class

Grade	June 3		June 5	
	Language Material	Objective	Language Material	Objective
1	vocabulary of shapes like <i>circle, triangle</i> , etc.	can understand and say the words	<i>I see a star.</i>	can tell what students see
2	vocabulary of body parts like <i>hands</i> , etc.	can listen, say, read and write the words	<i>I have two hands.</i>	can talk about their body
3	vocabulary of animals like <i>rabbit, dog</i> , etc.	can listen, say, read and write the words	<i>I love my rabbit.</i>	can tell their favorite animals
4	conversation to ask for and answer first and last names: <i>What's your first name?</i> , etc.	can ask and answer the first and last names with partners; can read and write the conversation	numbers: <i>1 ~12</i>	can understand by hearing, count, read and write the numbers
5	telephone conversation: <i>What's your telephone number?/Pardon</i> , etc.	can ask for a person's phone number; can ask for repetition; can read and write the conversation	vocabulary of occupation: <i>doctor, nurse</i> , etc.	can understand by hearing, pronouncing, reading and writing the words
6	conversation of stating problems and making suggestions: <i>Oh, no. What a mess! /Let's clean up.</i> , etc.	can state the room is messy and suggest cleaning up; can read and write the conversation	vocabulary of classroom furniture: <i>computer, shelf</i> , etc.	can understand by hearing, pronouncing, reading and writing the words

Note. There was only one class per grade, so grade numbers indicate the class.

All the AU and HGU students had to observe and participate in all classes. Therefore, each group first discussed the details of the plan, rehearsed, and then demonstrated their plan in front of the whole group. Since the observers were supposed to take part in class, they had to understand what the instructors wanted them to do. English was used throughout the whole process, gaps in English abilities and didactic knowledge and experience were expected to be crucial issues. The “subject” was English, so AU had an advantage and could claim dominance in discussions and conducting class; HGU had a good understanding of children and didactic knowledge but lesser English skills, so they could not make good use of their abilities throughout the process from planning to conducting lessons. Both teachers should use their strengths and work equally to succeed team-teaching. Based on this principle, the instructors from AU and HGU told their university students that both parties were equal and that their respective skills should be valued in equal measure. To give them clear guidelines, a rubric¹ was made bilingually and presented to the students. They were told to attain the highest level of

each criterion. During discussions and classes, the university staff observed each group and intervened when needed.

An example of the plan after several exchanges appears in Figure 1. This is a simplified version of the actual plan that AU and HGU students collaboratively made. In the corresponding class, two instructors conducted the class as instructors. The objective was that the children would be able to use English to ask for/give a telephone number and ask for repetition. The student teachers chose a situation where a police officer would ask a lost child's phone number: an everyday occurrence. This is based on the premise that the conversation needs to be authentic, and the need to converse in English is essential for the non-native speaker. In addition to these principles, a lot of repetition is required. Combining the language material and these principles presented the students with a challenge. To give the fifth graders a lot of practice, the rest of the university students assumed the role of lost children and the fifth graders assumed that of police officers. Since there were many "lost children", the "police officers" repeatedly asked the same questions.

Lesson Planning			
Lesson Title: p.43 Conversation Time, Around Town Grade: 5 Day: 6/3/2014			
Name: XXX, AU and YYY, HGU			
Teaching Objective: The students will be able to use English to ask for a telephone number, give their telephone number, and ask for repetition.			
Materials needed: CD player, wall chart, timer, magnets, worksheets			
Lesson Analysis (JT: Japanese Teacher; ET: English Teacher; SS: students; S: student)			
Lesson Part	Directions	JT /ET	Comments, etc.
Warm-Up and Review (5 min.)	Introduction of teachers: JT/ET introduces themselves by having SS ask questions.	JT & ET	Bring in a global map some pictures
Talk about the picture (5 min.)	1. ET asks what students see in the poster. 2. Teachers model the conversation between a police officer and a lost boy: P: What's your telephone number? B: It's 765-1234. P: Pardon? B: 765-1234	JT & ET	Poster of p. 43 Elicit words in ENG/JPN. Check pronunciation of words & phrases
Practice the conversation (10 min.)	Practice the conversation 1. Choral Reading 2. Role-play with partners	JT & ET	Move around and listen for correctness.
Activities (20 min.)	"What's Your Telephone Number?" All AU & HGU pretend to be lost children and SS pretend to be police officers.	JT & ET	Worksheets to write names and numbers on.
Finish the lesson (5 min.)	Feedback about the activity. JT explains the directions and assign the workbook, page 43.	JT	
A valuation basis: Tackle activity positively. And understand conversation mean "What's your telephone number?" and "Pardon me ?"			
The problems expected: Students will mistake the conversation scene. For example, a police officer asks a boy "what do you know your address?"			

Figure 1. Sample Lesson Plan, Grade 5

The first day was a big shock to both AU and HGU students. A big factor was language use. An AU student greeted the children “How are you, guys?” instead of “How are you?” –a phrase the children were familiar with. The children were puzzled, kept quiet, and could not respond to the student teacher. The HGU student was supposed to step in and told the AU student to delete “guys”, but the HGU student was at a loss and had no idea what to do. Likewise, the whole class proceeded at AU’s pace. In a meeting after the classes with the English instructors who usually team-taught English classes, the ALT, a native instructor, pointed out two problems: first, AU and HGU should have tried to use the HGU students’ strengths more since understanding was very important for a successful class. Second, the AU students should have simplified their language for Japanese children. Being EFL students, they rarely get exposed to English outside of class. The ALT’s comment was persuasive for AU and also encouraged the HGU students since they were aware of cultural strengths such as language background and child development. Based on this advice, both students worked hard, and faced a lot of difficulty during preparation. They were, however, able to make it through and had a successful class with good cooperation on the second day.

3. Investigation on the Effects and Challenges of Teaching Practicum by Using the J-POSTL

3.1 Method

3.1.1 Participants: 10 HGU fourth-year students in teacher certification course.

3.1.2 Time: the participants self-assessed in the beginning of April, 2014, and end of June, 2014.

3.1.3 Material: free descriptive survey and J-POSTL (Pre-service) (JACET SIG, 2014a). Out of 96, 63 descriptors were used for this research. The descriptors were related to the teaching practicum in terms of English as a subject and a four-skill based teaching.

3.1.4 Procedure: the J-POSTL (Pre-service) was passed out to the students in class in April, 2014. The students self-assessed themselves before and after the practicum, which were at the beginning of April and end of June respectively. The students were told to fill in their assessment using a 5-point scale according to the direction of the J-POSTL (Pre-service).

3.2 Results

The data were scored by points based on the students’ self-assessment using the following criteria: “no change” was recorded between April and June if the participants’ responses fell within the bounds of one point, even if at the limits of division. “0.5” was allocated to scores where the participant made an assessment straddling the boundaries between two points. For example, an entry straddling “2” and “3” was considered as “2.5”. Based on these criteria, the results were calculated and analyzed. Table 2 shows the average, median, standard

deviation, maximum and minimum scores of April and those of June for each category of J-POSTL (Pre-service).

Table 2. Average, Median, Standard Deviation, Maximum Score, and Minimum Score of Pre- and Post-Practicum

	Avg.		Med.		S.D.		Max.		Min.	
	Apr.	Jun.	Apr.	Jun.	Apr.	Jun.	Apr.	Jun.	Apr.	Jun.
I Context	3.0	3.6	3.0	4.0	0.749	0.700	5.0	5.0	1.0	2.0
II Methodology	3.1	3.3	3.0	3.0	0.738	0.719	5.0	5.0	1.0	1.0
III Resources	3.2	3.7	3.0	4.0	0.744	0.808	4.0	5.0	1.0	1.0
IV Lesson Planning	3.1	3.6	3.0	4.0	1.083	0.685	4.0	5.0	1.0	2.0
V Conducting a Lesson	3.2	3.5	3.0	4.0	0.804	0.734	5.0	5.0	1.0	1.0
VII Assessment of Learning	3.1	3.5	3.0	3.0	0.712	0.776	4.0	5.0	1.0	1.0

It was hypothesized that the scores would decline after the practicum because the students would realize a lack in their abilities, however, the results showed their self-assessment generally improved. The medians of Categories of Context, Resources, Lesson Planning and Conducting a Lesson increased by 1.0, while those of Methodology and Assessment of Learning remained constant. The standard deviation generally got smaller in June compared to that of April especially in the category of Lesson Planning. The maxima of all categories were 5.0 in June, while minima were 1.0 in four categories.

The average score corresponding to each descriptor is displayed in Table 3. The descriptors highlighted in light gray increased their scores by 0.9-1.0, IV-C-4, I-A-1, I-C-2, I-C-5, II-C-5. Descriptors I-B-1, I-C-5, III-4, IV-C-1, V-D-1, and V-D-2 reached 4+ in June (highlighted in dark gray). On the contrary, V-E-1 “I can conduct a lesson in the target language, and if necessary use Japanese effectively.” was the only descriptor that decreased.

Table 3. Self-Assessment Descriptors and the Average of Pre- and Post-Practicum

Category	Self-Assessment Descriptors*	Avg.	
		Apr.	Jun.
I Context			
A. Curriculum	1. I can understand the requirements set in the Course of Study.	2.7	3.6
B. Aims and Needs	1. I can understand the value of learning a foreign language.	3.5	4.0
	2. I can take into account attainment of target based on the Course of Study and students' needs.	2.7	3.4
	3. I can take into account learners' motivation to learn a foreign language.	2.9	3.4
	4. I can take into account learners' intellectual interests.	3.2	3.5
	5. I can take into account learners' sense of achievement.	3.2	3.8
C. The Role of the	1. I can explain the value and benefits of learning a foreign language to learners and parents.	2.3	3.1

Language Teacher	2. I can take into account learners' knowledge of Japanese and make use of it when teaching a foreign language.	2.7	3.6
	4. I can critically assess my teaching based on learner feedback and learning outcomes and adapt it accordingly.	2.9	3.6
	5. I can accept feedback from my peers and mentors and build it into my teaching.	3.4	4.3
	6. I can observe my peers and offer them constructive feedback.	3.1	3.7
	7. I can identify specific pedagogical issues related to my learners or my teaching in the procedure of plan, act, and reflect.	3.3	3.7
	8. I can locate information related to teaching and learning.	3.2	3.8
D. Institutional Resources and Constraints	1. I can assess how to use the resources and educational equipment available in school and adapt them to my teaching as necessary.	2.9	3.4
II Methodology			
A. Speaking/ Spoken Interaction	1. I can create a supportive atmosphere and provide a specific situation for language use that invites learners to actively take part in speaking activities.	3.2	3.5
	2. I can evaluate and select meaningful speaking and interactional activities to encourage learners to express their opinions, identity, culture etc.	3.0	3.1
	3. I can evaluate and select meaningful speaking and interactional activities to help learners to develop competencies for presentation, discussion, etc.	2.8	3.1
	4. I can evaluate and select various activities to help learners to use typical features of spoken language (fillers, supportive responses, etc.) and engage in interaction with others.	2.8	3.1
	5. I can evaluate and select a variety of techniques to make learners aware of and help them to use stress, rhythm and intonation.	3.5	3.6
	6. I can evaluate and select a range of oral activities to develop accuracy (vocabulary, grammar, etc.).	2.7	3.0
B. Writing/Written Interaction	6. I can evaluate and select writing activities to consolidate learning (grammar, vocabulary, spelling etc.).	2.6	2.6
C. Listening	1. I can select texts appropriate to the needs, interests and language level of the learners.	3.6	3.6
	2. I can provide a range of pre-listening activities which help learners to orientate themselves to a text.	3.1	3.5
	3. I can encourage learners to use their knowledge of a topic and their expectations about a text when listening.	2.8	3.0
	5. I can design and select different activities which help learners to recognize and interpret typical features of spoken language.	2.6	3.4
D. Reading	7. I can evaluate and select a variety of post-reading tasks to provide a bridge between reading and other skills.	2.7	3.1
E. Grammar	2. I can recognize that grammar affects learners' oral and written performance and help them to learn it through meaningful contexts by providing a variety of language activities.	3.2	3.4
F. Vocabulary	1. I can evaluate and select a variety of activities which help learners to learn vocabulary in context.	3.2	3.6
G. Culture	1. I can evaluate and select a variety of activities which awaken learners' interest in and help them to develop their knowledge and understanding of their own and the target language culture.	3.2	3.8
III Resources			
-----	1. I can identify and evaluate a range of coursebooks/materials appropriate for the age, interests and the language level of the learners.	3.4	3.7

	2. I can select texts and language activities from coursebooks appropriate for my learners.	3.2	3.5
	3. I can locate and select listening and reading materials appropriate for the needs of my learners from a variety of sources, such as literature, mass media and the Internet.	3.0	3.2
	4. I can make use of ideas, lesson plans and materials included in teachers' handbooks and resource books.	3.5	4.3
	5. I can design learning materials and activities appropriate for my learners.	3.1	3.9
IV Lesson Planning			
A. Identification of Learning Objects	3. I can set objectives which challenge learners to reach their full potential.	2.6	3.2
	4. I can set objectives which take into account the differing levels of ability and special educational needs of the learners.	3.3	3.6
B. Lesson Content	1. I can plan activities to ensure the interdependence of listening, reading, writing and speaking.	2.6	3.2
	2. I can plan activities to emphasize the interdependence of language and culture.	2.8	3.5
	3. I can plan activities which link grammar and vocabulary with communication.	2.8	3.5
	4. I can accurately estimate the time needed for specific topics and activities and plan work accordingly.	3.2	3.5
	5. I can design activities to make the learners aware of and build on their existing knowledge.	3.4	3.4
	6. I can vary and balance activities to enhance and sustain the learners' motivation and interest.	3.4	3.8
	8. I can take account of learners' feedback and comments and incorporate this into future lessons.	3.0	3.7
C. Lesson Organization	1. I can select from and plan a variety of organizational formats (teacher-centered, individual, pair, group work) as appropriate.	3.7	4.0
	2. I can plan for learner presentations and learner interaction.	3.1	3.8
	3. I can plan when and how to use the target language, including metalanguage I may need in the classroom.	3.0	3.3
	4. I can plan lessons and periods of teaching with other teachers and/or assistant language teachers (team teaching, with other subject teachers, etc.).	3.2	4.2
V Conducting a Lesson			
A. Using Lesson Plans	1. I can start a lesson in an engaging way.	3.2	3.3
	2. I can be flexible when working from a lesson plan and respond to learner interests as the lesson progresses.	2.7	3.2
	3. I can time and change classroom activities to reflect individual learners' attention spans.	3.0	3.5
	4. I can finish off a lesson in a focused way.	2.7	3.1
	5. I can adjust my time schedule when unforeseen situations occur.	2.5	3.1
B. Content	1. I can relate what I teach to learners' knowledge, current events in local context, and the culture of those who speak it.	3.1	3.6
C. Interaction with Learners	1. I can settle a group of learners into a room and gain their attention at the beginning of a lesson.	3.7	3.8
	2. I can be responsive and react supportively to learner initiative and interaction.	3.3	3.4
	3. I can encourage learner participation whenever possible.	2.9	3.5
D. Classroom Management	1. I can create opportunities for and manage individual, partner, group and whole class work.	3.8	4.0
	2. I can manage and use resources (flashcards, charts, pictures, audio-visual aids, etc.) effectively.	3.8	4.2

E. Classroom Language	1. I can conduct a lesson in the target language, and if necessary use Japanese effectively.	3.7	3.6
	2. I can encourage learners to use the target language in their activities.	3.3	3.8
VII Assessment			
D. Language Performance	1. I can assess a learner's ability to engage in spoken and written interactions.	3.3	3.7
E. Culture	1. I can assess learners' ability to make comparisons between their own and the culture of the target language communities.	3.3	3.4
F. Error analysis	1. I can analyze learners' errors and provide constructive feedback to them.	2.7	3.3

Notes: The numbers of descriptors indicate the numbers of the J-POSTL (Pre-service).

The English descriptors used here are from *J-POSTL—Self-assessment Descriptors* (JACET SIG, 2014b: 15-25).

With respect to individuals, self-assessment is designed with personal growth in mind so the results should be analyzed from that point of view. For this purpose, differences pre- and post-practicum were calculated by categories for analyses. Each category had different numbers of descriptors: 14 in I, 15 in II, 5 in III, 13 in IV and V respectively, and 3 in VII, so the scores of positive and negative differences were separately accumulated. The results are presented in raw scores in Figures 2-7. The total scores showed on the vertical axis differ according to the category, the initial under the horizontal axis indicate the participants.

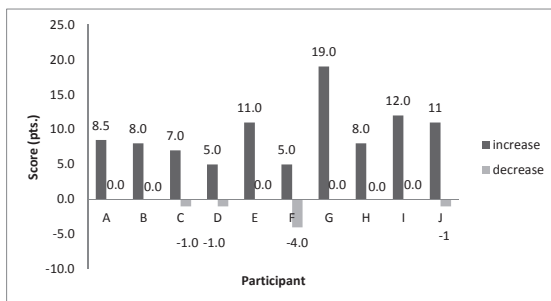


Fig. 2 Accumulated Difference: I Context

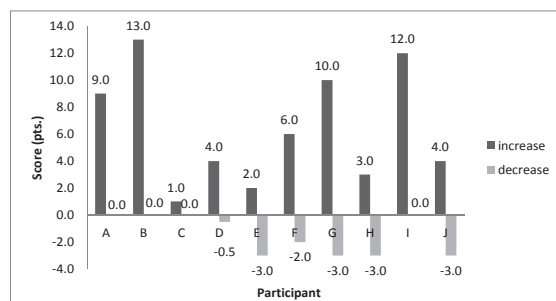


Fig.3 Accumulated Difference:
II Methodology

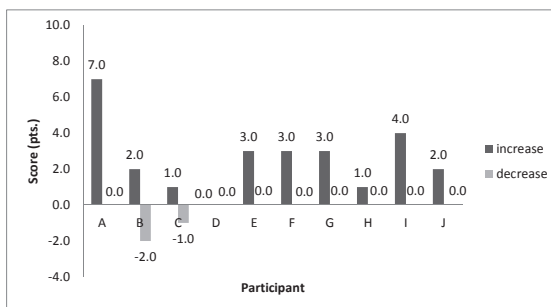


Fig. 4 Accumulated Difference:
III Resources

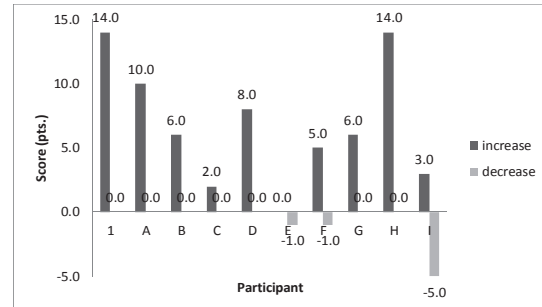


Fig.5 Accumulated Difference:
IV Lesson Planning

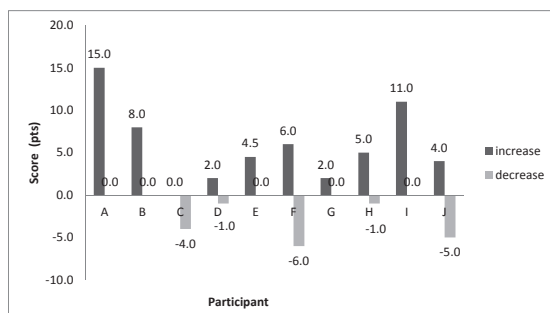


Fig. 6 Accumulated Difference:
V Conducting a Lesson

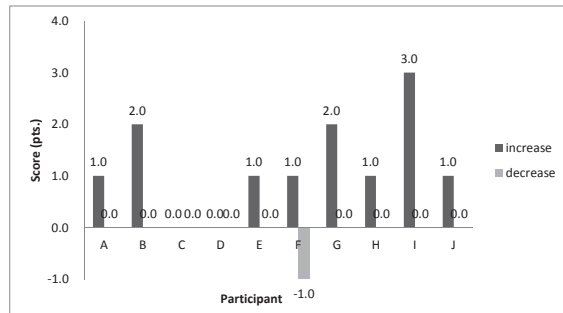


Fig.7 Accumulated Difference:
VII Assessment

From these results, the cumulative scores of positive differences increased in all the categories in general, but Categories II and V also had more frequent and larger decreases compared to those of other categories. On closer examination, the descriptors that decreased the score were A-1, A-3, A-4, C-1, E-2 in Category II and B-1 in Category IV, and A-1, C-1, C-2, D-1 in Category V. Among all these descriptors, the descriptor, V-E-1, “I can conduct a lesson in the target language, and if necessary use Japanese effectively.” had a 4-point drop (three students). A deeper analysis on individuals revealed that categories/descriptors of Methodology, language use in class, and Conducting a Lesson had a lot of drops as well as increases in self-assessment.

Comparing the results with staff observations, students who were able to overcome problems had a lot of rises even though they had drops (Students A, G, H). Conversely, self-assessment scores from students who struggled to communicate with AU did not show changes (Students C, D) or showed drops (Students F, J).

3.3 Students' Comments in Free Descriptive Survey

The students were asked to write their comments after the practicum; some comments of HGU were “I was shocked to know many differences between the two cultures. I had some knowledge but the reality was very different from my understanding.” and “This was a great chance to enhance English proficiency. Without this occasion, I would not have felt that communication in English was so fun that I would like to learn it more. FLA is implemented in elementary school, so doing this practicum gave me a lot insight. This kind of practicum should be continued in the future.” The students' comments imply that they struggled with teaching English to children, communicating in English, and working toward a common goal with people from different cultures, but they felt that their goals were achieved.

Typical comments of AU's were: “Fantastic cultural experience. Rewarding to watch the children learn”; “The second teaching day was a blast. Actually executing our lessons

was extremely rewarding”; “English language barriers”; and “Cultural differences such as HGU partners being reserved.”

3.4 Discussion

The results show that the teaching practicum (Teaching Collaborative) has an impact on pre-service education. The maximum scores of all the categories increased to 5 (Table 2), which indicates that the practicum gave confidence to the students. At the same time, the minimum score settled at 1 in some categories, indicating that hands-on experience did not make some students confident. The medians in Category VII were the same in pre- and post-practicum, and its standard deviation became larger. These may indicate that students’ confidence improved from less confident to more confident. However, some students did not have confidence to assess children’s learning due to cultural and language barriers.

The descriptors that increased the scores, IV-C-4, I-A-1, I-C-2, I-C-5, II-C-5 or reached 4+ like I-B-1, I-C-5, III-4, IV-C-1, V-D-2, were all related to the practicum. This could be taken to imply that the students gained confidence through the practicum. In other words, they felt that they gained the corresponding skills and abilities. The only descriptor that decreased in magnitude was V-E-1, “I can conduct a lesson in the target language, and if necessary use Japanese effectively”. This indicates that the students realized language use and switching languages appropriately in class was difficult and could not overcome the problem. Reflections from individuals also revealed that methodology, language use, conducting a lesson were the areas in which the students learned a lot but also realized the necessity of gaining more knowledge, ability, and skills.

Students’ comments in the free descriptive survey indicates that Japan has to work on enhancing language and cross-cultural communication skills as well as teaching skills in pre-service education. HGU’s comments endorse the results of the research as well as the students’ exchanges in both preparation and classes proper. Useful English phrases and strategies for team-teaching should be taught in pre-service education as well as having authentic cross-cultural communication.

These results and comments show that the practicum has an effect, but also creates challenges. These clear results were obtained thanks to the J-POSTL (Pre-service), which gave detailed guidelines in terms of the skills required of English teachers at elementary school. This research gives important insights as to what should be done in pre-service English teacher education in elementary schools in Japan.

4. Conclusion

This research was able to capture the effects and challenges of the practicum by using the J-POSTL (Pre-service). The research revealed that the practicum/team-teaching with native speakers of English in pre-service education had effects: The practicum made the students aware of the required skills, increased their confidence, and allowed them to realize that communication in English was fun. At the same time, challenges included language barriers and cultural differences that took a lot of energy and time, and in some cases, could be demotivating. These findings are important for university teachers involved in pre-service teacher education as well.

Compliment

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to Hokuriku Gakuin Elementary School and its staff for their great understanding and support. Without which, this project could not have been completed. I also thank Sagano and Anthony Duggan for editing my English.

Notes

- ¹ The author modified rubrics of *Collaborative Work Skills: Team work* (Kansai International University, n.d.) and *Teamwork Value Rubric* (Association of American Colleges and Universities, n.d.) to match for this teaching collaborative.

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【Research Paper】

Satisfaction des besoins psychologiques fondamentaux pour
l'apprentissage d'une deuxième langue étrangère et l'auto-efficacité pour
l'apprentissage de l'anglais

Shinya Hori and Takane Yamaguchi

Résumé

Dans cet article, nous cherchons à vérifier la relation entre la satisfaction des besoins psychologiques fondamentaux pour l'apprentissage d'une deuxième langue étrangère et l'auto-efficacité pour l'apprentissage de l'anglais en analysant les données quantitatives d'un questionnaire réalisé au premier semestre de l'année 2012 auprès de 17055 apprenants universitaires de six deuxième langues étrangères (l'espagnol, le français, l'allemand, le russe, le chinois, le coréen) au Japon. Concrètement, nous analysons la corrélation entre les mesures cognitives des trois besoins psychologiques fondamentaux (pour la compétence, l'autonomie et l'affiliation sociale) dans l'apprentissage de chaque deuxième langue étrangère et celle de l'auto-efficacité dans l'apprentissage de l'anglais. De plus, nous classifions les participants de trois groupes selon la mesure de l'auto-efficacité (supérieur, moyen, inférieur) et comparons les moyennes des besoins fondamentaux parmi ces trois groupes. En conséquence, dans toutes les langues, la corrélation entre les besoins pour l'autonomie et l'affiliation sociale est la plus forte, et cela suggère que les facteurs liés à l'enseignant ont déjà une influence sur l'acquisition de l'autonomie par les apprenants au début de l'apprentissage. D'autre part, il y a peu d'influence de l'auto-efficacité dans l'apprentissage de l'anglais sur les besoins psychologiques fondamentaux. D'après ces résultats, nous faisons quelques suggestions pour l'enseignement de la deuxième langue étrangère.

Mots clefs

Motivation, Apprentissage de deuxième langue étrangère, Besoin psychologique fondamental, Théorie de l'autodétermination, Auto-efficacité

1. Introduction

Le besoin psychologique fondamental est une conception proposée dans la théorie de l'autodétermination (Deci and Ryan, 1985; 2000) qui traite de la motivation en fonction du degré d'autodétermination qui est la mesure de la cognition pour l'initiative. D'après cette théorie, il y a trois besoins psychologiques innés : besoin de compétence, besoin d'autonomie et besoin d'affiliation sociale, et lorsqu'il satisfait ces besoins l'individu

est plus intrinsèquement motivé.

Dans l'enseignement de la langue étrangère, l'importance de motiver intrinsèquement les apprenants est de favoriser l'apprentissage autonome et, en conséquence, cela conduit à élever la possibilité de la maîtriser à un haut niveau. Par exemple, dans les recherches de Hori (2008; 2010) auprès des apprenants universitaires du français, il apparaît que la motivation intrinsèque est statistiquement corrélée avec les résultats de l'examen et la compétence de l'apprentissage autonome.

Pour la relation entre les besoins psychologiques fondamentaux et la motivation, les recherches de Hiromori (2003 ; 2005), auprès des apprenants lycéens et universitaires de l'anglais, montrent que la perception de la compétence joue un rôle plus important pour les motiver (Hiromori, 2003), et en ce qui concerne les mesures de chaque besoin psychologique fondamental, le groupe plus motivé est supérieur au groupe concurrent (Hiromori, 2005). De plus, dans les recherches de Hori (2008; 2010) aussi, la corrélation statistiquement significative entre la motivation intrinsèque et chaque besoin, notamment corrélation avec le besoin de compétence est la plus forte, est démontrée. La théorie de l'autodétermination ne fait pas spécialement mention de cela, et pourtant, d'après les principes de cette théorie, la satisfaction de chaque besoin psychologique fondamental mène à une motivation plus intrinsèque et selon les résultats des recherches de Hiromori (2005) et Hori (2008; 2010), il est probable que la satisfaction de chaque besoin ait une influence sur les autres. Car, il se peut que, par exemple, d'une part, la perception de l'affiliation sociale à travers une relation positive avec l'enseignant ou l'activité en groupe ou par paire conduise à augmenter la perception de la compétence ou de l'autonomie, d'autre part, la perception de la compétence par la valorisation de l'enseignant ou d'un camarade de classe et la représentation de l'autonomie par une activité centrée sur les apprenants valorise la perception de l'affiliation sociale.

Or, ce sont les activités en classe qui influencent directement ou principalement la satisfaction des besoins psychologiques fondamentaux, et même si l'on effectue la même activité, l'interprétation est naturellement différente pour chacun. L'un des facteurs probables est l'expérience passée d'apprentissage, c'est-à-dire l'expérience de l'apprentissage de l'anglais pour la plupart des étudiants japonais qui sont débutants dans l'apprentissage de la deuxième langue étrangère. On peut supposer que la reconnaissance de l'auto-efficacité occupe une place importante dans l'expérience d'apprentissage. C'est pourquoi il est probable que l'auto-efficacité pour l'apprentissage de l'anglais touche à la perception de la compétence, de l'autonomie et de l'affiliation sociale dans l'apprentissage de la deuxième langue étrangère.

2. Méthodologie

2.1 Objectif

Pour montrer la relation entre la perception des besoins psychologiques fondamentaux

des apprenants de deuxième langue étrangère et leur auto-efficacité pour l'apprentissage de l'anglais, cette étude a pour objectif de proposer des pistes pour l'enseignement d'une deuxième langue étrangère, pour motiver les apprenants, pour favoriser l'apprentissage autonome et pour élever l'effet d'apprentissage, au moins en partie, en collaboration avec l'enseignement de l'anglais. Concrètement, auprès des apprenants universitaires de six deuxième langues étrangères (l'espagnol, le français, l'allemand, le russe, le chinois, le coréen) au Japon, nous analysons la relation entre la perception de la compétence, de l'autonomie et de l'affiliation sociale dans l'apprentissage d'une deuxième langue étrangère, et leur auto-efficacité pour l'apprentissage de l'anglais, en montrant par ailleurs le caractère propre de chaque langue.

2.2 Enquête

Dans cette étude, nous faisons l'analyse des données quantitatives de l'enquête réalisée au premier semestre de l'année 2012, dans le cadre du projet de recherche soutenu par la Société Japonaise pour la Promotion de la science : « Projet de recherches sur le cadre commun de l'enseignement de langues » (représentant : Nishiyama Noriyuki), auprès de 17055 étudiants (y compris quelques lycéens) qui étudient l'une des six langues indiquées ci-dessus au Japon comme deuxième langue étrangère.

2.3 Mesures des besoins psychologiques fondamentaux et auto-efficacité

Le questionnaire que nous avons utilisé est présenté dans l'article d'Ohki (2014) (Annexe 1, 2). 12 questions sur les besoins psychologiques fondamentaux ont été établies par Ohki et Hori (Ohki et al, 2007; Hori 2008; 2010) d'après le *Basic Psychological Needs Scales* (Deci et al, 2001). Et 5 questions sur l'auto-efficacité pour l'apprentissage de l'anglais ont été établies par Ohki et al. (2009) d'après le modèle expectation-valence d'Eccles et Wigfield (1995; 2000). Elles ont été examinées par des chercheurs des six langues et la validité des mesures a été confirmée. Les statistiques descriptives de chaque mesure et question sur les besoins psychologiques fondamentaux sont présentées en annexe (Annexe 3,4). Les participants ont coché le chiffre correspondant le mieux à leur perception pour chacune des questions, sur une échelle de type Likert allant de (1) « pas du tout d'accord » à (5) « tout à fait d'accord ».

2.4 Méthode d'analyse

Nous faisons deux analyses dans cette étude. D'abord, nous faisons le calcul des fonctions de corrélation de Pearson par langue entre les mesures des trois besoins psychologiques fondamentaux dans l'apprentissage des six langues et l'auto-efficacité dans l'apprentissage de l'anglais. Ensuite, nous classifions les participants en trois groupes (supérieur, moyen, inférieur) selon la réponse à un énoncé sur l'auto-efficacité : « Je maîtrise bien ce que j'ai appris au cours d'anglais du premier semestre », et comparons par langue les mesures de ces trois besoins parmi ces trois groupes.

3. Résultats et discussion

3.1 Corrélation

Le tableau 1 présente la corrélation par langue entre les mesures des trois besoins psychologiques fondamentaux (compétence, autonomie et affiliation sociale) dans l'apprentissage de chaque langue et l'auto-efficacité dans l'apprentissage de l'anglais.

Tableau 1. Corrélation entre les mesures (par langue)

Espagnol					Français				
	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
1. Auto-efficacité	-	.267**	.119**	.096**	1. Auto-efficacité	-	.166**	.061**	.030
<i>n</i>	3228	3213	3213	3217	<i>n</i>	2799	2781	2782	2782
2. Compétence	.267**	-	.574**	.507**	2. Compétence	.166**	-	.599**	.540**
<i>n</i>	3213	3451	3443	3446	<i>n</i>	2781	3002	2999	2997
3. Autonomie	.119**	.574**	-	.575**	3. Autonomie	.061**	.599**	-	.605**
<i>n</i>	3213	3443	3451	3446	<i>n</i>	2782	2999	3003	2998
4. Affiliation sociale	.096**	.507**	.575**	-	4. Affiliation sociale	.030	.540**	.605**	-
<i>n</i>	3217	3446	3446	3456	<i>n</i>	2782	2997	2998	3001

Allemand					Russe				
	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
1. Auto-efficacité	-	.249**	.129**	.092**	1. Auto-efficacité	-	.213**	.096**	.065*
<i>n</i>	2513	2504	2502	2503	<i>n</i>	968	963	962	963
2. Compétence	.249**	-	.610**	.458**	2. Compétence	.213**	-	.540**	.473**
<i>n</i>	2504	2699	2695	2696	<i>n</i>	963	1108	1106	1106
3. Autonomie	.129**	.610**	-	.634**	3. Autonomie	.096**	.540**	-	.573**
<i>n</i>	2502	2695	2698	2695	<i>n</i>	962	1106	1107	1105
4. Affiliation sociale	.092**	.458**	.634**	-	4. Affiliation sociale	.065*	.473**	.573**	-
<i>n</i>	2503	2696	2695	2699	<i>n</i>	963	1106	1105	1108

Chinois					Coréen				
	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
1. Auto-efficacité	-	.240**	.101**	.077**	1. Auto-efficacité	-	.193**	.059*	.049
<i>n</i>	4544	4507	4501	4510	<i>n</i>	1565	1558	1558	1556
2. Compétence	.240**	-	.571**	.535**	2. Compétence	.193**	-	.581**	.516**
<i>n</i>	4507	4895	4877	4889	<i>n</i>	1558	1770	1768	1768
3. Autonomie	.101**	.571**	-	.595**	3. Autonomie	.059*	.581**	-	.592**
<i>n</i>	4501	4877	4886	4879	<i>n</i>	1558	1768	1769	1766
4. Affiliation sociale	.077**	.535**	.595**	-	4. Affiliation sociale	.049	.516**	.592**	-
<i>n</i>	4510	4889	4879	4899	<i>n</i>	1556	1768	1766	1768

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Tout d'abord, pour ce qui est de la relation entre la satisfaction des besoins psychologiques fondamentaux et l'auto-efficacité, la perception de la compétence et celle de l'autonomie sont corrélées faiblement mais significativement, d'un point de vue statistique, dans toutes les langues avec l'auto-efficacité pour l'apprentissage de l'anglais. Quant à l'affiliation sociale, la corrélation est plus faible et, dans le français et le coréen, elle n'est pas significative statistiquement. Comme caractère commun parmi les six langues, on peut dire que les trois besoins ont un rapport étroit à l'auto-efficacité de l'apprentissage de l'anglais dans cet ordre : la compétence > l'autonomie > l'affiliation sociale. Cependant, il est peu probable que l'auto-efficacité ait une influence sur la perception de chaque besoin parce qu'elle n'est pas élevée dans l'ensemble

(Annexe 3). Comme mentionné ci-dessous en détail, les apprenants plus auto-efficaces pour l'apprentissage de l'anglais ont tendance à choisir l'espagnol ou le français, les apprenants moins auto-efficaces ont tendance à choisir le chinois ou le coréen, donc il est probable que cette auto-efficacité a une influence dans la phase du choix de langue, mais après c'est la conscience propre de l'apprentissage de chaque langue choisie qui domine. C'est pourquoi on trouve une corrélation forte parmi les trois besoins dans toutes les langues, et notamment, en tant que le caractère commun parmi les six langues, la corrélation entre la perception de l'autonomie et celle de l'affiliation sociale qui est la plus forte. C'est seulement 2 ou 3 mois après le début de la classe que cette enquête a été effectuée, mais ces résultats signifient qu'à ce moment-là, l'ambiance de la classe comme l'indique les énoncés « en classe, je peux communiquer avec mes camarades », « le professeur se fait du souci pour les étudiants », et l'organisation de la classe comme l'indique les énoncés « en classe, les étudiants peuvent prendre des initiatives » ou « je me sens isolé en classe » (énoncé renversé), ont déjà une influence sur la perception de l'autonomie.

3.2 Comparaison des trois besoins d'après l'auto-efficacité dans l'apprentissage de l'anglais

Ensuite, pour les mesures des besoins psychologiques fondamentaux, nous faisons une comparaison parmi les trois groupes d'après l'auto-efficacité dans l'apprentissage de l'anglais avec une analyse de la variance (ANOVA) et une comparaison multiple (Tukey's test). Le tableau 2 présente les résultats.

Avant de discuter les résultats, ce que nous devons mentionner est la différence de la proportion par langue. Tandis que dans le français et l'espagnol, la proportion du groupe supérieur est la plus élevée, dans l'allemand, le chinois et le coréen, celle du groupe inférieur est la plus élevée. Il n'est certainement pas possible d'en tirer une conclusion parce que cette enquête n'est pas réalisée auprès de tous les étudiants japonais, mais elle est assez importante, donc ces résultats signifient que l'auto-efficacité dans l'apprentissage de l'anglais a une influence dans la phase où les étudiants japonais choisissent une deuxième langue étrangère.

L'un des résultats les plus marqués est que la mesure moyenne de la compétence entre groupes supérieur et inférieur est nettement différente dans chaque langue (sauf le russe). Cependant, on ne peut pas dire pour autant que l'auto-efficacité influence la perception de la compétence, parce que comme mentionné ci-dessus, elle n'est pas élevée dans l'ensemble et en plus, la corrélation est faible aussi. Pour l'autonomie et l'affiliation sociale, ce n'est pas aussi notable que pour la compétence. On retrouve une différence statistiquement significative entre les groupes supérieur et inférieur dans la plupart des langues. On ne peut pas dire que l'auto-efficacité dans l'apprentissage de l'anglais soit une condition nécessaire et suffisante pour la satisfaction des besoins psychologiques fondamentaux dans l'apprentissage d'une deuxième langue étrangère à cause d'une

corrélation faible. Mais grâce aux résultats des trois groupes, il est possible de penser que la baisse de cette auto-efficacité est l'une des causes de la difficulté à motiver les apprenants dans l'enseignement d'une deuxième langue étrangère.

Tableau 2 : Comparaison des trois besoins d'après l'auto-efficacité dans l'apprentissage de l'anglais (par langue)

Espagnol								
	S (n=1104)		M (n=1068)		I (n=1039)			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	Tukey
Compétence	3.45	.73	3.30	.61	3.07	.68	87.75***	S>***M>***I
Autonomie	3.43	.72	3.32	.63	3.23	.70	22.25***	S>***M>***I
Affiliation sociale	3.90	.78	3.78	.74	3.74	.80	12.65***	S>***M>I

Français								
	S (n=1006)		M (n=929)		I (n=856)			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	Tukey
Compétence	3.37	.77	3.36	.65	3.13	.70	31.33***	S>M>***I
Autonomie	3.42	.78	3.43	.69	3.33	.74	5.09**	M>S>*I
Affiliation sociale	3.84	.88	3.79	.81	3.73	.83	3.72*	S>M>I (S>*I)

Allemand								
	S (n=723)		M (n=886)		I (n=905)			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	Tukey
Compétence	3.48	.72	3.40	.63	3.17	.72	45.33***	S>*M>***I
Autonomie	3.53	.73	3.50	.68	3.40	.77	6.89**	S>M>*I
Affiliation sociale	4.11	.75	3.96	.78	3.93	.84	11.27***	S>***M>I

Russe								
	S (n=305)		M (n=299)		I (n=359)			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	Tukey
Compétence	3.36	.71	3.36	.64	3.13	.74	12.61***	M>S>***I
Autonomie	3.43	.78	3.52	.69	3.38	.76	3.14*	M>S>I (M>*I)
Affiliation sociale	3.78	.90	3.82	.82	3.70	.87	1.76	M>S>I

Chinois								
	S (n=1178)		M (n=1562)		I (n=1779)			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	Tukey
Compétence	3.55	.74	3.39	.63	3.21	.70	88.42***	S>***M>***I
Autonomie	3.40	.75	3.29	.67	3.24	.75	17.70***	S>***M>I
Affiliation sociale	3.86	.82	3.73	.78	3.70	.81	15.09***	S>***M>I

Coréen								
	S (n=388)		M (n=566)		I (n=610)			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	Tukey
Compétence	3.55	.70	3.49	.58	3.31	.67	19.61***	S>M>***I
Autonomie	3.62	.72	3.56	.65	3.50	.68	3.92*	S>M>I (S>*I)
Affiliation sociale	4.09	.69	3.93	.73	3.95	.74	6.22**	S>***M>I

*** $p<.001$, ** $p<.01$, * $p<.05$ S : groupe supérieur, M : groupe moyen, I : groupe inférieur

4. Implications pédagogiques et conclusion

À la suite de cette étude, dans toutes les langues, on trouve une corrélation forte parmi les trois besoins psychologiques fondamentaux, et de plus, en tant que caractère commun parmi les six langues, la corrélation entre l'autonomie et l'affiliation sociale est la plus forte. Cela signifie qu'il y a une possibilité que dès le début ou peu après le début de la classe, la création de l'ambiance ou l'organisation de la classe, c'est-à-dire les facteurs liés à l'enseignant ont une influence sur la perception de l'autonomie des apprenants.

D'après la théorie de l'autodétermination, les trois besoins psychologiques fondamentaux n'ont pas des relations juxtaposées mais étagées, et elle présente un modèle dans lequel d'abord la perception de la compétence, puis l'autonomie, et ensuite l'affiliation sociale touchent à la motivation intrinsèque (Uebuchi, 2004). Ce en quoi, on peut dire qu'il s'agit de la perception de la compétence. Dans cette étude, on a montré que l'autonomie et l'affiliation sociale sont fortement corrélées avec la compétence, ce qui signifie que la possibilité d'élever avant la perception de celles-là conduit à élever la perception de celle-ci, et ensuite à motiver plus intrinsèquement d'après ce modèle.

Pour ce qui est de la perception de la compétence, d'après les résultats de cette étude, on peut suggérer des propositions sur les occasions d'utiliser la langue. Dans le questionnaire, la moyenne de l'énoncé « en classe, il y a l'occasion d'essayer de communiquer par cette langue » (C12) avec celle d'un autre énoncé « j'ai acquis les éléments ce qui est déjà étudiés » (C2) est moins élevée que les autres. Dans l'enquête, nous avons donné un questionnaire aux enseignants concernés par ces classe, et le nombre des étudiants qui participent à la classe pour lesquelles l'enseignant a répondu « fréquent » ou « souvent » à la question sur l'occasion de parler cette langue en classe sont environ 40%. Ce n'est pas du tout négligeable, mais ça ne reflète pas la reconnaissance des apprenants. La prise en considération du nombre des occasions de faire des exercices ou de prononcer sont d'environ 80%, ce qui n'est pas encore suffisant. Pour la perception de la compétence, c'est la conscience non seulement de l'acquisition de la connaissance linguistique mais aussi de la pratique qui est un problème pour le moment.

Pour la corrélation entre l'auto-efficacité dans l'apprentissage de l'anglais et les besoins psychologiques fondamentaux, elle est statistiquement significative mais très faible. Donc, on ne peut pas dire que l'auto-efficacité influence la perception de ces besoins dans l'apprentissage de la deuxième langue étrangère. L'une des causes serait la baisse dans ensemble de l'auto-efficacité mentionnée dans l'annexe 3. Même pour le français et l'espagnol qui sont plus élevés, les moyennes sont inférieures à 3 (moyenne de 5 sur l'échelle). C'est surtout un problème pour l'enseignement de l'anglais que d'arriver à élever cette auto-efficacité, mais les personnes concernées par une deuxième langue étrangère ne peuvent pas être y indifférentes. Du fait que dans cette étude, on a aussi

montré que les apprenants moins auto-efficaces dans l'apprentissage de l'anglais ont une perception faible des besoins psychologiques fondamentaux, il est possible que ce soit un obstacle pour motiver les apprenants, favoriser l'apprentissage autonome et élever l'effet d'apprentissage à l'enseignement d'une deuxième langue étrangère. Ce n'est pas le sujet de cet article, mais dans cette étude, nous avons également évoqué la probabilité de l'influence de l'auto-efficacité sur le choix de la deuxième langue étrangère. D'après tous ces résultats, on peut dire que l'apprentissage de l'anglais joue un rôle important en tant que base pour celui d'une deuxième langue étrangère.

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Annexe 1 Questions sur les besoins de psychologiques fondamentaux

N°	Catégorie	Énoncé
C1	Affiliation sociale	En classe, il y a l'occasion de l'activié en groupe ou par paire.
C2	Compétence	J'ai acquis les éléments ce qui sont déjà étudiés.
C3	Autonomie	En classe, il y a l'occasion de faire ce que je veux.
C4	Compétence	En classe, il y a l'occasion de faire excercices pour reviser ce qui sont appris.
C5	Affiliation sociale	En classe, je peux communiquer avec mes camarades.
C6	Autonomie	J'ai l'impression que l'on nous fait travailler en classe. R
C7	Compétence	J'ai un sentiment d'accomplissement en classe.
C8	Affiliation sociale	Je me sens isolé en classe. R
C9	Autonomie	En classe, les étudiants peuvent prendre des initiatives.
C10	Affiliation sociale	Le professeur se fait du souci pour les étudiants.
C11	Autonomie	Je me sens fait pour étudier le français. R
C12	Compétence	En classe, il y a l'occasion d'essayer de communiquer par cette langue.

R: énoncé renversé

Annexe 2 Questions sur l'auto-efficacité pour l'apprentissage de l'anglais

N°	Énoncé
H2-E	Je suis plus compétent(e) en anglais que mes camarades de classe.
H5-E	Je maîtrise bien ce que j'ai appris au cours d'anglais.
H6-E	Je pense pouvoir maîtriser l'anglais.
H8-E	Je pense que je vais avoir de bonnes notes en anglais à l'examen.
H9-E	Je pense pouvoir atteindre mes buts en ce qui concerne l'apprentissage de l'anglais.

Annexe 3 Les statistiques descriptives de chaque mesure (par langue)

Auto-efficacité					Compétence				
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>α</i>		<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>α</i>
Espagnol	3228	2.95	.87	.84	Espagnol	3451	3.28	.70	.58
Français	2799	2.98	.88	.85	Français	3002	3.30	.72	.59
Allemand	2513	2.82	.86	.85	Allemand	2699	3.34	.71	.59
Russe	968	2.87	.94	.86	Russe	1108	3.28	.71	.56
Chinois	4544	2.81	.88	.85	Chinois	4895	3.37	.70	.61
Coréen	1565	2.69	.86	.86	Coréen	1770	3.44	.66	.58
Six Langues	15617	2.86	.88	-	Six Langues	16925	3.34	.70	-

Autonomie					Affiliation sociale				
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>α</i>		<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>α</i>
Espagnol	3451	3.34	.69	.63	Espagnol	3456	3.80	.78	.64
Français	3003	3.41	.74	.68	Français	3001	3.80	.84	.67
Allemand	2698	3.47	.74	.71	Allemand	2699	3.99	.81	.70
Russe	1107	3.45	.75	.66	Russe	1108	3.75	.88	.68
Chinois	4886	3.31	.72	.65	Chinois	4899	3.76	.80	.64
Coréen	1769	3.56	.68	.66	Coréen	1768	3.98	.72	.63
Six Langues	16914	3.39	.72	-	Six Langues	16931	3.83	.81	-

Annexe 4 Les statistiques descriptives de chaque question sur les besoins psychologiques fondamentaux (par langue)

	Espagnol			Français			Allemand			Russe			Chinois			Coréen		
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
C1	3235	3.70	1.35	2810	3.70	1.43	2527	4.08	1.29	969	3.45	1.48	4553	3.54	1.39	1572	3.97	1.22
C2	3233	2.86	0.97	2810	2.87	0.98	2526	2.88	0.94	968	2.81	0.98	4553	2.97	0.94	1571	3.00	0.96
C3	3231	3.03	0.98	2809	3.08	0.99	2527	3.09	0.96	967	3.12	1.01	4552	3.02	0.99	1571	3.23	0.94
C4	3234	4.03	0.97	2809	4.03	1.03	2527	3.99	1.01	969	3.98	1.02	4554	4.01	0.97	1571	4.12	0.88
C5	3234	3.80	1.12	2808	3.67	1.22	2527	3.84	1.14	969	3.57	1.31	4553	3.69	1.16	1571	3.74	1.11
C6 R	3234	2.63	0.99	2806	2.54	1.05	2522	2.43	1.01	969	2.48	1.07	4549	2.68	1.04	1569	2.37	0.96
C7	3231	3.24	0.98	2804	3.30	1.00	2523	3.34	0.97	968	3.42	0.97	4549	3.33	0.97	1568	3.48	0.92
C8 R	3230	2.11	1.04	2803	2.09	1.07	2521	1.96	1.03	968	2.11	1.09	4547	2.11	1.05	1567	1.96	1.00
C9	3230	3.70	1.01	2803	3.69	1.06	2520	3.84	1.02	969	3.65	1.09	4547	3.66	1.05	1568	3.81	0.94
C10	3234	3.84	0.96	2805	3.88	0.99	2522	4.01	0.94	968	4.15	0.88	4550	3.89	0.98	1568	4.15	0.86
C11 R	3234	2.79	1.04	2805	2.64	1.06	2523	2.61	1.04	968	2.55	1.08	4543	2.79	1.06	1569	2.48	1.03
C12	3230	2.97	1.24	2804	2.96	1.26	2522	3.15	1.25	969	2.88	1.29	4545	3.13	1.23	1569	3.13	1.17

R: énoncé renversé

【Research paper】

University Students' Self-Efficacy Beliefs about Learning English and Their Attitudes toward Learning a Second Foreign Language

Takane Yamaguchi and Shinya Hori

Abstract

In 2012 a survey was conducted in order to examine how university students perceive their foreign language learning. Its respondents were 17,055 university students across Japan who were studying Spanish, French, German, Russian, Chinese, and Korean. The present study, based on part of the above research, aims (a) to clarify the relationship between the students' ability to learn foreign languages autonomously and their perceived self-efficacy in the learning of the English language, and (b) to identify challenges in foreign language learning for university students in Japan. In order to elucidate the relationship, 19 items in five groups related to autonomous foreign language learning and one item asking about self-efficacy for English learning have been adopted from the 2012 study. The results show that (a) perceived self-efficacy has an effect on university-level learners' choice of the language they want to learn, (b) on the whole, the learners' ability to learn a second foreign language autonomously is relatively low, and (c) there are different patterns in the way in which students learn a foreign language autonomously depending on the language of their choice: learners of French and Spanish tend to use more knowledge of Japanese than learners of the other languages.

Keywords

self-efficacy, learning of second foreign languages by university students, awareness of what I'm learning, self-regulation, self-evaluation of learning

1. Introduction

According to Mizumoto (2011), Bandura (1977) first proposed the notion of perceived self-efficacy, which refers to learners' perception of how well they do when trying to learn something. Mori (2004) compared two groups of Japanese university students with different self-efficacy perception levels as regards English learning, and reported that the higher-level group used more strategies for learning the language, both in junior high school and college. Ohno et al. (2008) and Sakai et al. (2010), who examined learners' perceptions and their proficiency in English, suggested that learners who show high self-efficacy perception levels about learning English are autonomous in their learning of the language as well as being proficient in it. These studies show that

higher-proficiency learners of English tend to have higher self-efficacy perception levels and to be autonomous learners. Saito (2009) revealed that learners' Spanish-language proficiency was positively correlated with their motivation for learning English and with the frequency of their English language learning activities.

These studies suggest the hypothesis that the level of perceived English-language self-efficacy is positively correlated with the ability to learn languages other than English at university. The present study is intended to test the hypothesis by using a large volume of data obtained from the 2012 study.

2. Research method

2.1 Aim

The study aims to obtain information that would help university faculty to formulate common lesson designs for foreign language (Spanish, French, German, Russian, Chinese, and Korean) teaching in higher education. It also aims to identify challenges for English language teaching in secondary education. With this in view, we focus in this study first on the relationship between learners' ability to autonomously learn each of the six languages and their perceived self-efficacy for learning English. Then, learners of each language are described in terms of autonomous learning ability.

2.2 Procedure

The original data was obtained from an investigation carried out in May and June 2012 as part of the "Projet de recherche soutenu par la Société Japonaise pour la Promotion de la Science (23242030)".

Out of the original data, this study uses one section comprising 19 items which are grouped into five categories of autonomous learning ability (Table 1). As for English-language self-efficacy, another section of the original data is used.

2.3 Learner profile

The learners responding to the questionnaire in the 2012 survey were university students learning Spanish, French, German, Russian, Chinese, or Korean as a foreign language. Seventy-five percent of them were freshmen.

2.4 Five scales on the ability to learn autonomously and a scale on English-language self-efficacy

Nineteen items are employed from the original data (Ohki, 2014, p. 3) on autonomous learning ability. The items had first been laid down by Holec (1979) and then modified by Ohki (2011). They were carefully checked and classified into five categories: PLG,

AWL, CLS, SC, and SE. The other scale is for measuring perceived self-efficacy for learning the English language. Descriptive statistics on each item of the ability to learn autonomously are shown in Appended Table 1, and the correlation among measurements on the scales, including the one for perceived self-efficacy, are shown in Appended Table 2. Descriptive statistics on the 19 items are shown in Appended Table 3. Each scale has been checked to make sure that Cronbach's alpha, an index of internal consistency, would not rise greatly if any item were removed. The index on the SC scale, for example, is about .6 and would not increase greatly if any sub-category item were removed. Item S6 is treated as a reverse code item.

Table 1. 19 items concerning the ability to learn autonomously

No.	Category	Wording
S8	PLG	I have my own goals in learning the XXX language.
S2	AWL	When I study XXX outside the class, I spare time especially for working on my weak points.
S4	AWL	I know what I should do to achieve my goal in learning the XXX language.
S13	AWL	I know what are my weak points.
S17	AWL	I know what is important and what I should focus on to learn the XXX language.
S18	AWL	I know what I should study outside the class.
S1	CLS	I know in what way I should study the XXX language.
S3	CLS	I know how to find out what I don't know while studying the XXX language.
S5	CLS	I know what kind of materials I should use.
S14	CLS	I use my knowledge of the Japanese language.
S16	CLS	I know it is useful for me to use my knowledge of the Japanese language.
S6	SC	I feel uneasy when I study the XXX language outside the class.
S7	SC	Suppose I cannot find teachers, I will learn XXX grammar only if proper materials are available.
S10	SC	I know I will understand XXX grammar only if proper materials are available, even without explanation.
S12	SC	I spend enough time learning the XXX language outside the class.
S19	SC	I know how to secure time to learn the XXX language.
S9	SE	I sometimes evaluate my XXX skills myself.
S11	SE	I can see whether I understand what I am learning or not.
S15	SE	I know ways to evaluate my XXX skills.

Note. XXX means Spanish, French, German, Russian, Chinese, or Korean.

PLG = Possession of Learning Goals; AWL = Awareness of What I'm Learning; CLS = Comprehension of Learning Strategies; SC = Self-Control; SE = Self-Evaluation.

2.5 Method of analysis

Pearson's correlation analysis is used to capture the relationship between the perceived self-efficacy for learning English and the ability to learn autonomously.

3. Result and discussion

3.1 English-language self-efficacy

To find out learners' perceived self-efficacy for learning English, the researchers asked them if they had acquired what they were taught in English classes in high school. They answered "strongly agree", "agree", "I don't know", "disagree", or "strongly disagree". Learners who chose the first two answers are labeled "high-self-efficacy", while those

who answered “I don’t know” are named “middle-self-efficacy”, and those who chose the last two are categorized as “low-self-efficacy”. The summary is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Percentage of learners at three levels of perceived self-efficacy for English learning ($n = 17,055$)

	Spanish			French			German		
	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Low Group	1050 (30.2%)	1.63	0.48	865 (28.6%)	1.64	0.48	913 (33.7%)	1.64	0.48
Middle Group	1079 (31.0%)	3.00	0.00	940 (31.1%)	3.00	0.00	888 (32.8%)	3.00	0.00
High Group	1111 (32.0%)	4.20	0.40	1011 (33.4%)	4.20	0.40	730 (26.9%)	4.18	0.38
No response	237 (6.8%)	-	-	208 (6.9%)	-	-	162 (6.0%)	-	-
Total	3477 (100.0%)	2.97	1.11	3024 (100.0%)	3.01	1.10	2711 (100.0%)	2.85	1.08

	Russian			Chinese			Korean		
	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i> (%)	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Low Group	361 (32.4%)	1.61	0.49	1806 (36.5%)	1.62	0.48	612 (34.4%)	1.57	0.49
Middle Group	303 (27.2%)	3.00	0.00	1577 (31.9%)	3.00	0.00	572 (32.2%)	3.00	0.00
High Group	308 (27.6%)	4.28	0.45	1195 (24.1%)	4.22	0.41	390 (21.9%)	4.15	0.36
No response	142 (12.7%)	-	-	373 (7.5%)	-	-	204 (11.5%)	-	-
Total	1114 (100.0%)	2.89	1.17	4951 (100.0%)	2.77	1.10	1778 (100.0%)	2.73	1.08

It was found that the relative size of the three groups differed depending on the language which the students were taking at university. In the case of the learners of French and Spanish, the high-self-efficacy group accounted for the highest percentage and the low-self-efficacy group for the lowest percentage. In the case of the learners of Russian, on the other hand, the low-self-efficacy group occupied the highest percentage, and the middle-self-efficacy group was larger than the high-self-efficacy group. As for the learners of the other languages, the low-self-efficacy group was the largest of the three, and the high-self-efficacy group the smallest.

Although this investigation covered only a small segment of the university student population in Japan, it is safe to say that the sample used in it was large enough to provide a hint as to how university students choose a language as a second foreign language. The overall average across the languages is 2.8 on a five-point Likert scale, so the proportion of the university students who were learning a second foreign language autonomously is not large.

It can also be pointed out that there are larger percentages of students who perceive self-efficacy among those enrolled in French and Spanish courses than among those taking courses in other languages.

On the other hand, the data obtained from the learners of Chinese, Korean, and German shows that the largest group comprises those who do not perceive self-efficacy in terms of the average score on the five-point scale. As regards the learners of Chinese and

Korean, the largest group of students in each case does not have a sense of self-efficacy. This coincides with the information that the present researchers have obtained through personal communication. As for the learners of German, the data shows an unexpected result given that German is still one of the major languages taught as a second foreign language at universities in Japan. The results for the learners of German can be interpreted as a sign that some of them chose the language reluctantly and that they chose it simply because they were not attracted to any other languages with which to fulfill their second foreign language requirements. This interpretation can be supported by the fact that only the respondents learning German were slightly below 3.0 on average as regards item S8 (Scale: Possession of Learning Goals), which asked whether they had their own goals in learning the language (Appended Table 1).

3.2 The ability to learn autonomously

3.2.1 The five scales. The scores on the five scales of the autonomous learning ability were distributed in two different score ranges. All the learners' average values for PLG, AWL, and CLS are 3.08, 3.01, and 2.99 respectively, and their averages for SC and SE are 2.69 and 2.50 respectively. These results are understandable, considering that the first three abilities concern (a) what learners know to be their learning goals, (b) their perception of what they are doing, and (c) what they should do to improve the way they learn. On the other hand, in order to learn to control and evaluate themselves, learners have to put what they know into practice. In view of the fact that the investigation was conducted in May and June, when most of the respondents were in their first year of university and had just started learning their respective languages, and the fact that they had not learned to practice what they had learned, it is no wonder that the average scores on the last two abilities are comparatively low. In a future study, it might be necessary to focus on freshmen.

3.2.2 The scale of comprehension of learning strategies (CLS). Out of the five scales of the autonomous ability to learn a second foreign language, with the exception of Korean, CLS shows the highest correlation with perceived English learning self-efficacy (Appended Table 2). Although the correlation values are not so high (from .262 to .297), feeling self-efficacy in learning English seems to help university learners understand strategies for learning foreign languages.

Two of the five items in CLS (S1, S3, S5, S14, and S16) show an interesting result regarding the use of the Japanese language when learning foreign languages (Appended Table 3). One is item S14, which asks learners if they use their knowledge of Japanese when studying the language that they are taking. The averages for this item are: 3.54 for the students of Spanish, 3.34 for French, 3.34 for German, 2.90 for Russian, 3.07 for Chinese, and 2.81 for Korean. The difference between the maximum value 3.54 and the

minimum value 2.81 is 0.73. Another is item S16, which asks learners if they know that for studying the language that they are taking, a knowledge of Japanese is useful. The averages for item S16 are: 3.48 for the students of Spanish, 3.27 for French, 3.20 for German, 2.85 for Russian, 3.05 for Chinese, and 2.85 for Korean. The difference between the maximum value 3.54 and the minimum value 2.81 is 0.63. These are the largest two differences among the 19 items, and the other 17 differences are not so large. This result indicates that the extent to which university learners of a foreign language utilize their knowledge of the Japanese language depends on which language they study at university. Combining the above data with the data on learners' perceived self-efficacy for English, one may offer several interpretations: (a) learners of Spanish, French, and German tend to use their strategies for learning languages through the grammar translation method, with which they are familiar from their experience of learning English both in high school and junior high school, (b) they learn these languages through the translation method at university, (c) learners of Russian and Korean cannot use the method, probably because there are linguistic differences from the Japanese language in spelling, vocabulary, and grammar, and (d) they learn these two languages at university through other methods, without depending so much on the Japanese language. But these interpretations remain a matter of speculation, so more data and further research are needed to validate them.

3.2.3 The scale of awareness of what I'm learning (AWL). The scale comprises items S2, S4, S13, S17, and S18. The averages of S13 (from 3.15 to 3.32) are a little higher than the others on the scale, but the averages of S17 and of S4 are from 2.71 to 2.89, and from 2.76 to 2.99, respectively. These results show that learners of a second foreign language at university are aware of their weaknesses, but that they do not know how to overcome them. The research was done at a time when one or two months had passed since the learners had begun the course, so they might have gained the ability to learn autonomously at the end of the course. But the results suggest that university language teachers should do more to help learners.

4. Pedagogical implications and challenges in university language teaching

The results in this study showed the effects of learners' perceived self-efficacy for learning English on their decision as to which language course they should take at university. Some university learners of a second foreign language, particularly Spanish and French, feel that they have succeeded in learning the English language. On the other hand, other students of second foreign languages tend to avoid learning foreign languages similar to English in spelling, vocabulary, and grammar, possibly because their self-efficacy perception toward learning English is not as high. For some reasons, which remain to be clarified, the learners did not acquire the ability to learn a second

foreign language autonomously one or two months after they started their respective language courses at university. The findings presented above seem to suggest that students who perceive their experience of learning English as a failure tend to be poorly motivated to go through what they fear may turn out to be a similar experience when learning another foreign language. Teachers in charge of students who have chosen a language by a process of elimination should thus provide them with practical and moral support by making them aware of the importance of learning a second foreign language and by suggesting solutions to the specific problems that they may face in the course of their attempt to learn the foreign language. Without such help, learners would learn a second foreign language only to earn credits necessary for graduation. Facilitating their learning, however, will help them learn a second foreign language autonomously.

It was also found that learners of Spanish, French, and German tend to use their knowledge of Japanese when studying these languages, while learners of Russian and Korean do not use it so often. The proper use of their mother tongue can encourage learners to learn foreign languages, but on the other hand, depending too much on it can prevent them from learning the languages successfully. Further research is needed on this topic.

On the whole, the university learners in this study did not show a strong sense of self-efficacy toward learning the English language. This is one of the challenges in secondary English education, considering that these students are likely to have been more successful learners than those who were not planning to study at university just a few years ago. Better instruction for helping learners to develop a sense of self-efficacy toward English is needed in secondary English education.

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Appendices

Appended Table 1. Descriptive Statistics on 5 Scales of the Ability to Learn Autonomously

PLG ^a						AWL					
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	95% CI			<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	95% CI	
				<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>					<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
Spanish	3460	3.13	1.22	3.09	3.17		Spanish	3441	3.01	0.80	2.99
French	3008	3.11	1.26	3.06	3.15		French	2986	2.97	0.82	2.94
German	2702	2.98	1.20	2.93	3.02		German	2688	2.91	0.81	2.88
Russian	1109	3.24	1.29	3.17	3.32		Russian	1101	3.02	0.87	2.97
Chinese	4903	3.05	1.21	3.02	3.09		Chinese	4878	3.01	0.80	2.99
Korean	1771	3.27	1.18	3.21	3.32		Korean	1762	3.08	0.77	3.04
Total	16953	3.10	1.23	3.08	3.12		Total	16856	3.00	0.81	2.98

CLS						SC ^b					
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	95% CI			<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	95% CI	
				<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>					<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
Spanish	3438	3.11	0.79	3.08	3.14	.74	Spanish	3444	2.78	0.72	2.76
French	2987	3.01	0.84	2.98	3.04	.77	French	2989	2.67	0.75	2.64
German	2693	2.94	0.80	2.91	2.97	.75	German	2694	2.62	0.69	2.60
Russian	1106	2.87	0.86	2.82	2.92	.73	Russian	1106	2.65	0.75	2.60
Chinese	4871	2.95	0.80	2.92	2.97	.75	Chinese	4876	2.73	0.71	2.71
Korean	1763	2.91	0.76	2.87	2.94	.76	Korean	1762	2.69	0.70	2.66
Total	16858	2.98	0.81	2.97	2.99	-	Total	16871	2.70	0.72	2.69

SE					
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	95% CI	
				<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
Spanish	3445	2.41	0.81	2.38	2.43
French	2996	2.35	0.83	2.33	2.38
German	2696	2.34	0.80	2.31	2.37
Russian	1103	2.35	0.86	2.30	2.40
Chinese	4889	2.48	0.84	2.46	2.50
Korean	1764	2.48	0.80	2.44	2.52
Total	16893	2.41	0.82	2.40	2.42

Note. PLG = Possession of Learning Goals; AWL = Awareness of What I'm Learning; CLS = Comprehension of Learning Strategies; SC = Self-Control; SE = Self-Evaluation.

^a α is uncalculated because the scale is composed of one item. ^bThe scale includes the reverse code item, S6, which is properly reversed.

Appended Table 2. Correlation among Measurements on the Scales including the one for Perceived Self-efficacy

Spanish						
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. SEE	–	.163**	.267**	.285**	.220**	.226**
<i>n</i>	3240	3231	3213	3209	3215	3217
2. PLG	.163**	–	.410**	.351**	.293**	.352**
<i>n</i>	3231	3460	3439	3437	3443	3441
3. AWL	.267**	.410**	–	.699**	.517**	.570**
<i>n</i>	3213	3439	3441	3430	3435	3432
4. CLS	.285**	.351**	.699**	–	.511**	.512**
<i>n</i>	3209	3437	3430	3438	3432	3429
5. SC	.220**	.293**	.517**	.511**	–	.490**
<i>n</i>	3215	3443	3435	3432	3444	3435
6. SE	.226**	.352**	.570**	.512**	.490**	–
<i>n</i>	3217	3441	3432	3429	3435	3445

French						
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. SEE	–	.184**	.203**	.283**	.216**	.179**
<i>n</i>	2816	2804	2782	2783	2786	2791
2. PLG	.184**	–	.461**	.420**	.371**	.423**
<i>n</i>	2804	3008	2986	2987	2989	2990
3. AWL	.203**	.461**	–	.706**	.550**	.588**
<i>n</i>	2782	2986	2986	2976	2978	2979
4. CLS	.283**	.420**	.706**	–	.539**	.560**
<i>n</i>	2783	2987	2976	2987	2979	2980
5. SC	.216**	.371**	.550**	.539**	–	.516**
<i>n</i>	2786	2989	2978	2979	2989	2983
6. SE	.179**	.423**	.588**	.560**	.516**	–
<i>n</i>	2791	2990	2979	2980	2983	2996

German						
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. SEE	–	.163**	.255**	.297**	.233**	.224**
<i>n</i>	2531	2523	2510	2514	2515	2517
2. PLG	.163**	–	.464**	.395**	.347**	.393**
<i>n</i>	2523	2702	2688	2693	2694	2692
3. AWL	.255**	.464**	–	.696**	.513**	.580**
<i>n</i>	2510	2688	2688	2684	2685	2683
4. CLS	.297**	.395**	.696**	–	.488**	.528**
<i>n</i>	2514	2693	2684	2693	2690	2688
5. SC	.233**	.347**	.513**	.488**	–	.495**
<i>n</i>	2515	2694	2685	2690	2694	2689
6. SE	.224**	.393**	.580**	.528**	.495**	–
<i>n</i>	2517	2692	2683	2688	2689	2696

Russian						
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. SEE	–	.137**	.212**	.283**	.199**	.224**
<i>n</i>	972	968	960	965	965	962
2. PLG	.137**	–	.440**	.359**	.352**	.358**
<i>n</i>	968	1109	1100	1105	1106	1102
3. AWL	.212**	.440**	–	.673**	.540**	.570**
<i>n</i>	960	1100	1101	1099	1099	1096
4. CLS	.283**	.359**	.673**	–	.494**	.542**
<i>n</i>	965	1105	1099	1106	1104	1101
5. SC	.199**	.352**	.540**	.494**	–	.529**
<i>n</i>	965	1106	1099	1104	1106	1101
6. SE	.224**	.358**	.570**	.542**	.529**	–
<i>n</i>	962	1102	1096	1101	1101	1103

Chinese						
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. SEE	–	.177**	.255**	.262**	.242**	.244**
<i>n</i>	4578	4547	4522	4517	4525	4532
2. PLG	.177**	–	.456**	.427**	.360**	.417**
<i>n</i>	4547	4903	4876	4869	4876	4884
3. AWL	.255**	.456**	–	.725**	.557**	.601**
<i>n</i>	4522	4876	4878	4855	4859	4869
4. CLS	.262**	.427**	.725**	–	.524**	.602**
<i>n</i>	4517	4869	4855	4871	4853	4863
5. SC	.242**	.360**	.557**	.524**	–	.556**
<i>n</i>	4525	4876	4859	4853	4876	4867
6. SE	.244**	.417**	.601**	.602**	.556**	–
<i>n</i>	4532	4884	4869	4863	4867	4889

Korean						
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. SEE	–	.129**	.222**	.226**	.195**	.236**
<i>n</i>	1574	1568	1561	1562	1560	1563
2. PLG	.129**	–	.413**	.411**	.391**	.360**
<i>n</i>	1568	1771	1762	1763	1762	1761
3. AWL	.222**	.413**	–	.717**	.537**	.586**
<i>n</i>	1561	1762	1762	1759	1758	1757
4. CLS	.226**	.411**	.717**	–	.548**	.606**
<i>n</i>	1562	1763	1759	1763	1759	1758
5. SC	.195**	.391**	.537**	.548**	–	.523**
<i>n</i>	1560	1762	1758	1759	1762	1757
6. SE	.236**	.360**	.586**	.606**	.523**	–
<i>n</i>	1563	1761	1757	1758	1757	1764

Note. SEE = Self-Efficiency Beliefs about Learning English; PLG = Possession of Learning Goals; AWL = Awareness of What I'm Learning; CLS = Comprehension of Learning Strategies; SC = Self-Control; SE = Self-Evaluation.

** $p < .01$.

Appended Table 3. Descriptive Statistics on 19 Items of the Ability to Learn Autonomously

	Spanish			French			German			Russian			Chinese			Korean			Max ^a	Min ^b	Difference ^c
	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
S1	3230	2.61	1.04	2805	2.55	1.09	2523	2.47	1.02	969	2.56	1.11	4546	2.68	1.06	1568	2.75	1.03	2.75	2.47	0.28
S2	3228	3.06	1.08	2799	3.05	1.10	2520	3.03	1.10	967	3.02	1.16	4545	3.05	1.08	1566	3.08	1.05	3.08	3.02	0.06
S3	3232	3.06	1.16	2805	3.01	1.17	2523	2.94	1.16	969	3.04	1.23	4545	3.01	1.15	1568	3.07	1.11	3.07	2.94	0.14
S4	3229	2.91	1.10	2802	2.85	1.12	2522	2.76	1.08	969	2.89	1.18	4543	2.89	1.09	1567	2.99	1.05	2.99	2.76	0.23
S5	3226	2.84	1.14	2800	2.82	1.17	2523	2.72	1.13	969	2.86	1.20	4545	2.84	1.14	1568	2.97	1.08	2.97	2.72	0.24
S6 ^d	3230	2.90	1.23	2803	3.08	1.26	2523	3.09	1.19	968	2.96	1.28	4545	3.04	1.19	1567	3.03	1.18	3.09	2.90	0.19
S7	3231	2.83	1.17	2802	2.68	1.19	2523	2.64	1.13	968	2.54	1.22	4543	2.72	1.16	1568	2.66	1.09	2.83	2.54	0.29
S8	3231	3.11	1.22	2804	3.09	1.26	2523	2.95	1.20	968	3.20	1.30	4547	3.02	1.22	1568	3.25	1.18	3.25	2.95	0.30
S9	3227	2.10	1.04	2799	2.09	1.04	2521	2.07	1.01	967	2.07	1.07	4540	2.24	1.06	1566	2.25	1.03	2.25	2.07	0.18
S10	3225	2.62	1.18	2798	2.50	1.20	2522	2.41	1.12	967	2.32	1.16	4538	2.56	1.16	1567	2.38	1.10	2.62	2.32	0.30
S11	3221	2.78	1.04	2793	2.73	1.06	2519	2.74	1.03	965	2.70	1.12	4536	2.77	1.05	1566	2.77	1.00	2.78	2.70	0.08
S12	3223	2.30	1.10	2795	2.25	1.08	2520	2.23	1.06	966	2.22	1.14	4538	2.36	1.08	1564	2.32	1.06	2.36	2.22	0.14
S13	3225	3.17	1.14	2796	3.16	1.17	2519	3.15	1.17	966	3.20	1.23	4538	3.17	1.15	1567	3.32	1.12	3.32	3.15	0.16
S14	3222	3.54	1.14	2795	3.34	1.22	2520	3.34	1.16	966	2.90	1.31	4532	3.07	1.17	1566	2.81	1.05	3.54	2.81	0.73
S15	3221	2.33	0.99	2797	2.23	1.00	2521	2.21	0.95	964	2.21	1.03	4536	2.38	1.02	1565	2.37	0.95	2.38	2.21	0.17
S16	3223	3.48	1.16	2795	3.27	1.21	2520	3.20	1.15	966	2.85	1.29	4535	3.05	1.14	1566	2.85	1.06	3.48	2.85	0.63
S17	3224	2.87	1.07	2797	2.78	1.09	2521	2.71	1.04	963	2.80	1.16	4536	2.86	1.06	1567	2.89	1.03	2.89	2.71	0.18
S18	3224	3.01	1.09	2798	2.98	1.15	2522	2.87	1.09	967	3.02	1.18	4538	3.00	1.10	1567	3.06	1.06	3.06	2.87	0.19
S19	3224	3.03	1.12	2798	2.99	1.15	2521	2.98	1.11	967	3.04	1.20	4538	3.02	1.09	1566	3.07	1.04	3.07	2.98	0.09

Note. The maximum or the minimum average values in an item are in boldface.

^aThe maximum average value in an item; ^bthe minimum average value in an item; ^ca minus b;

^dreverse code item (raw data).

【Conference report】

Report on the 5th Bremen Symposium on Language Learning and Teaching

Masaki Makino

Abstract

This paper reports on the 5th Bremen Symposium on language learning and teaching, held in Bremen, Germany. The theme of the symposium was “Content & Diversity: New Challenges for Language Teaching and Learning in Higher Education.” Five questions were considered for discussion. Scholars from all over the world participated in the symposium, reported on their educational situation, research findings, and approaches to the symposium theme. In each session, the discussion saw active exchange of ideas, and a diverse range of thinking was found amongst the participants. The author attended several sessions presented in English. This paper reports on one of the keynote speech, one workshop, and one poster presentation, all of which represented points of interest to the author. An introduction to the city of Bremen is also included in the report.

Keywords

symposium, language, teaching, culture, diversity

1. City of Bremen

The city of Bremen is located in Northwestern Germany. Due to geographical reasons, the weather there in February was expected to be colder than that in Japan. However, the author felt no temperature difference between the two countries (Japan was essentially thought to be colder). Bremen is the tenth most populous city in the country. Its historical townscape, churches, buildings, and streets attract many tourists. The most popular attraction is the bronze statue of the Bremen Town Musicians. It is based on a folktale written by the Brothers Grimm that includes a donkey, a dog, a cat, and a rooster. The statue depicting these animals is a popular spot for tourist photos. In addition to the historical townscape, the city has an efficient transportation system. The trams and buses run in and around the city, and it only takes 15 minutes to go from Bremen airport to the central rail station by tram. Access to the symposium venue, the University of Bremen, is a convenient 15-minute tram ride from the city center. The national rail system DB (Deutsche Bahn = German Railway) is also very efficient and it links Bremen to other major cities. Therefore, tourists can travel easily from the city to their next destination. This convenient transportation system helps to attract tourists.

2. 5th Bremen Symposium on Language Learning and Teaching

2.1 Overview of the symposium

The original Bremen Symposium on Language Learning and Teaching was held in 2011, and one has been held every year since, making this year's the 5th one. Its theme changes every year; this year it was "Content & Diversity: New Challenges for Language Teaching and Learning in Higher Education." This theme was chosen because in recent years the number of immigrants has been increasing, not only in Europe but also around the world. What's more, international cooperation and global interdependence are on the rise. These have brought changes to language learning needs in higher education. The questions outlined for the symposium were as follows: (1) How can the subject and content of language courses in higher education be suitably integrated? (2) What role does intercultural learning play in competence-oriented courses and how can it be facilitated? (3) How can the linguistic and cultural diversity of different groups of learners be taken into consideration, in terms of curriculum and methodology? (4) How can individual learning processes be fostered, and what role do alternative and innovative forms of learning and teaching, such as online-learning, tutoring, and coaching play? To answer these questions, the two-day symposium consisted of 2 keynote speeches, 42 workshops, 8 commercial workshops, and 9 poster presentations, in either German or English. The number of participants was reported to be 325, from 28 countries.

2.2 Keynote speech

As previously noted, there were 2 keynote speeches at the symposium. In this section, the speech "Language practices and intercultural encounters in a multilingual and international university: The example of Luxembourg" is reported.

In contrast to Japan, Luxembourg has 3 official languages: French, German, and Luxembourgish. According to the speaker, French is the language spoken most. Thus, people in Luxembourg are exposed to multilingualism in everyday life. In addition, Luxembourg has accepted immigrants from other European countries, and the Portuguese population is the largest immigrant population. Therefore, citizens from other countries, as well as Luxembourg citizens, speak at least two or three languages.

The speaker teaches at the University of Luxembourg. It has 213 professors who speak at least 2 languages each, from 60 countries. There are 6300 students at the university, with over half of them coming from 100 different countries. The university has language rules that state that all degree courses must be bilingual and that the majority of masters' courses must be bilingual.

In the keynote speech, students were introduced to *Interkulturelle Kommunikation in beruflichen Kontexten*. It was a trilingual class, and the basic language instruction was German. English and Greek were sometimes used in certain cases. The choice of language by a teacher was content-related. In this system, students learned in their second, third, or fourth language and translated information into their first language. One particular case—of a student from the Netherlands—was reported. Her first language is Dutch, but she took notes in three languages. Among these three languages, she studied English the most and her English ability was enhanced by taking the course. She had nearly attained her goal to master English and she was planning to improve on her German next.

As languages reflect background culture, the students gain knowledge of multiculturalism, which can, in turn, be helpful for understanding course content. As for teachers, they can strengthen their second and third language skills through the practice of teaching in three languages. Consequently, this challenge has resulted in the development of multilingual pedagogy in teaching and added value for students and staff alike.

2.3 Workshop

At the symposium, 42 workshops were divided into four categories: (1) Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), (2) Multiculturalism and Language Integrated Learning, (3) Teaching Groups of Multilingual Learners, and (4) Learner Differences and Learning and Teaching Strategies. Each session was 25 minutes in length, with an additional 10 minutes for discussion. The author attended several workshops presented in English, one of which—“Learner differences and learning and teaching strategies”—is reported in this section. “We’ll see you on the flip side: the Flipped Classroom model in practice,” by an Australian presenter, was thought to be the most useful to the author.

Australia is the third most popular study-abroad destination in the world. Most universities there have language centers and accept students from various countries. However, not all students’ English abilities are at the level required to take regular courses at these universities. Therefore, students with low English proficiency usually need to study at language centers for several weeks.

The speaker introduced the concept of the “flipped classroom” teaching method whereby content is not immediately taught in class, but rather is viewed or listened to by the students in preparation for a lesson. Known as “flipped classroom,” it is popular in Australia. There, the teaching process commences with a teacher setting homework for students, which involves watching a video that shows the new learning content. The

students can watch it many times on their smartphone, iPad, or PC, outside the classroom. In the next class, the teacher asks follow-up questions about the homework. This means that the teacher does not teach new content in class, but tries to determine what the students have learnt for themselves. This autonomous learning method can deepen their understanding, and it produces more opportunities for communication between the teacher and the students, and among the students themselves, than ordinary teaching does.

In this workshop, the production of the homework video was not discussed, but a viewing of the content was held. The videos were interesting and enjoyable and could potentially attract students with low motivation. All were created with the presenter's iPad and a tablet computer using a free app and a website. As a result of flipped classroom, the rate of attendance has increased, and students' interviews made it clear that the class had become more fun and easier to understand. It is thought that this approach is useful, not only for overseas students but also for Japanese university students who need remedial English education.

2.4 Poster presentation

A unique poster presentation was held. In the language education field, research subjects are usually students. However, "How to Create Linguistic Scaffolding for Foreign Labor Migrants? Learner Differences and Learning and Teaching Strategies," by a Norwegian presenter, focused on construction workers from Poland.

In Norway, the number of foreign construction workers has been increasing. They are at risk of accidents caused by miscommunication. To reduce the number of accidents, worker unions have funded language education for workers from overseas, and the university cooperates with these worker unions.

The presenter taught the Polish construction workers the English course, which consisted of 40 classes. The workers attended 2-hour classes, twice a week, in either the afternoon or the evening. The main problem faced by the presenter was the workers' attitudes in class. They behaved poorly, most likely due to being tired after work and having had little language-learning experience. Therefore, the presenter chose authentic, practical, and construction site-specific language to motivate the workers. In addition, speaking Polish was allowed in class and the presenter spoke it well. In this challenge, 5 benefits were determined. They were: (1) promoting safety culture through language learning, (2) better integration into society and its local working culture, (3) promoting legal forms of employment, (4) more self-sufficiency and independence, and (5) improved future employment opportunities.

3. Closing Remarks

After attending this symposium, the author understood that the number of monolingual countries such as Japan are far fewer than multilingual ones. That is to say, there are many people who learn a third language using their second language. Therefore, the issues faced at the University of Luxembourg might not be problems in multilingual countries, though they would be difficult to resolve in Japan. The author realized that she had limited knowledge of diversity in language and culture. In the discussions of each session, there was an active exchange of ideas among participants and diverse thinking was demonstrated. It was quite inspiring for the author to experience such situations. To broaden the outlook of language education, regularly attending international conferences, and learning directly from presenters from all over the world, is indeed beneficial.

One last example of diversity was found at the symposium. It concerned the participants' manners. Some people left empty coffee cups on or under chairs. What was worse that banana skins and half-eaten sandwiches were also left under chairs. Experiencing these terrible conditions, the author was proud of herself for clearing away the litter. Japanese manners appear to be outstanding in international society.

【Conference report】

Report on TESOL 2015 International Convention

Mari Yamauchi

Abstract

This paper reports on TESOL 2015 International Convention & English Language Expo, held in Toronto, Canada, with the conference theme of “Crossing Borders, Building Bridges”. This was a huge annual event that attracted more than 6500 participants. It was too huge for a new comer to explore all the possible options thoroughly, but what the author touched on was really exciting to her, and provided her new perspectives to look at ELT. This paper takes up some of the sessions she attended in an attempt to illustrate how this international gathering could help TESOLers to develop professionally.

Keywords

conference report, ICC, diversity

1. Overview of the Convention

The 47th TESOL International Convention was held from March 25 to 28, 2015, in Toronto, one of the most diverse and multicultural cities in the world, where over 140 languages are spoken by its residents, more than half of whom were born outside Canada. Such diversity provided a perfect setting for the theme for this convention: “Crossing Borders, Building Bridges.”

The TESOL Convention is known as the largest event for TESOL professionals, and this 2015 event was no exception: more than 6500 participants were offered four keynote speeches, 14 invited speaker sessions, more than 800 concurrent sessions of various types (including practice-oriented and research-oriented presentations, workshops, and many more), and a lot of pre-/post-convention events (including about 30 practical PD workshops and several other types of half- or full-day education programs). It was overwhelmingly huge for a novice for this event (like the author), but the great TESOL agenda builder app (Fig.1) helped her choose which sessions to join and get there in time.

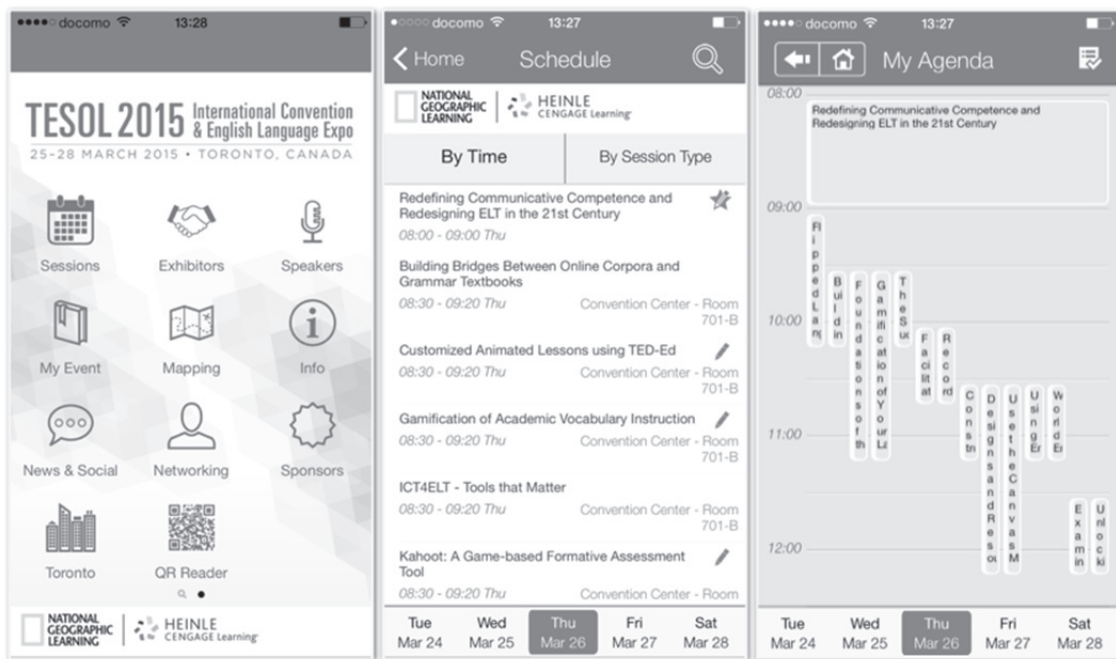


Figure 1. TESOL 2015 Agenda Builder

Those numerous sessions covered a wide range of topics. To give a rough idea of how wide it is, here is the list of relatively popular focus areas, where 15 or more sessions were offered: Second Language Writing (54), Technology in Education (51), Intensive English Program (48), Teacher Education (44), English as a Foreign Language (39), Adult Education (39), Higher Education (38), Personal and Professional Development for Teachers (31), Educational Linguistics (25), Elementary School Education (25), English for Specific Purposes (24), Social Responsibility & Sociopolitical Concerning (24), Intercultural Communication (23), Assessment & Testing (22), Nonnative English Speakers in TESOL (19), Listening & Speaking (16), Applied Linguistics (16), Vocabulary & Lexicon (15), and Content-based and CLIL (15).

This is “rough” because there are about 300 other unclassified sessions, but it is interesting to note here that topics related teacher education/development attracted as much attention as those related to teaching skills/students. This, combined with the above mentioned pre-/post-convention workshops and education programs, indicates that TESOL conventions provide great professional development opportunities for educators and researchers.

The following sections reviews one keynote session, with related online resources, and one post-convention institute (workshop), and a series of technology-focused sessions, called Electronic Village.

2. Keynote Speeches

There were four keynote sessions, as listed later in this section, only one of which is briefly reviewed here. This keynote, titled “Redefining Communicative Competence and Redesigning ELT in the 21st Century”, was in a newly introduced format of panel discussion among Jun Liu, Lourdes Ortega, and Michael Byram.

2.1 “Redefining Communicative Competence and Redesigning ELT in the 21st Century”

The session started with Jack Richards’ definition of “communicative competence” (CC), which covers “accuracy, fluency, complexity, appropriacy, and capacity” (Richards, 2012)¹. All the five dimensions (paraphrased as correctness, smoothness, sophistication, discourse and/or social competence, and something that is about content and/or everything non-linguistic) are important, but not enough to give a framework for teaching CC in ELT, according to the speakers.

With English as an international language, a framework of CC should include “critical intercultural awareness.” As Byram says, in order to interact with, and understand, people from another social group (each social group, small or large, has a shared set of beliefs, values, and behaviors, which is what he calls “culture”), students need to be critically aware that something normal to them may not be acceptable to others. To be able to do so, they need to acquire “skills” (to discover and interpret) and “attitudes” (openness), not just “knowledge” about another culture. Another important dimension to be included is “empowerment”, which is about “how we use a language so we can be seen/heard/judged in a favorable way”, as Ortega put it. According to her, to be interculturally competent, students need to know/understand that there is “World Englishes” and that differences do not come from superiority/inferiority. She also stressed that they also need to be aware that language-based discrimination does exist, so that they can deal with reality.

What would be challenges ESL/EFL/ELL teachers could face in applying this new framework of CC (or ICC) to their teaching? As the author understood from the discussion, the idea of “native speakers as a model” is hard to overcome, which is intertwined with other challenges. It is a wrong starting point for teaching ICC, as Byram stressed, and a recent notion of “intercultural speaker/mediator” should be taken as a goal, instead. However, students want a model to imitate, as Liu said, and it is harder to assess their performance without a model. “A match” should be a goal, instead of “perfection”, which is implied in the notion of a model, according to Byram. But that is not easy either. Also, there is a paradox from the point of view of empowerment, as Ortega pointed out: labeling (such as “like a native speaker”) can be empowering, while

teachers should not let their students be disempowered by any labeling.

Practical solutions to those challenges were left to be covered in the later session, but the discussion showed how ICC is content-based, interpersonal, and context-dependent, and that “there is no ultimate goal of competence”, as Liu put it. Therefore, teachers need to be always learning, with their students, to develop their ICC.

2.2 Recommendation

As mentioned above, there were four keynotes: (i) “Teachers’ Roles in Crossing Borders and Building Bridges” by Sonia Nieto, (ii) “Redefining Communicative Competence and Redesigning ELT in the 21st Century”, by Jun Liu, Lourdes Ortega, and Michael Byram (see 2.1), (iii) “Building Bridges: Journey to a Better Future for TESOL” by Yilin Sun, (iv) “Evidence-Based TESOL: Teaching Through a Multilingual Lens” by Jim Cummins. The abstracts are available at “Featured Speakers” page² of the convention website, and the full recordings are available to TESOL members at “TESOL 2015 Keynote Livestreams” section³.

It is highly recommended that you watch all these recordings. Nieto’s and Cummins’, which focus on language education for immigrants, might seem to be less relevant to us, teaching English in Japan, but there are things that can be applied or that we should be aware of, and their powerful messages and impressive presentation skills are worth a watch.

3. Workshops & Showcases

3.1 “Fluency-Building Across the Skills: Maximizing Implicit Learning Opportunities”

This workshop was one of the two ticketed events the author booked. At first, to be honest, she felt a little sorry for herself for having to stay another four hours after the whole convention, but soon after the session started, that feeling was gone. It was one of the best workshops the author had ever joined. The author was interested in this workshop because fluency building was important to most of her students, who have difficulty using the language they have. Doreen Ewert presented a variety of activities for building listening, reading, writing, and speaking fluency, in a well-structured combination of explanations, demonstrations, hands-on, and reflections. A few key tips were also provided, which could help the participants to capture the essence of these activities and customize them to suit their context.

A great speaking activity, called “4-3-2”, is taken up here as an example. In the activity, students have to speak about a single topic during a given time, 3 times, to a different

partner each time. They are given 4 minutes first, 3 minutes next time, and 2 minutes for the 3rd speech, which is why it is called “4-3-2.” However, how much time to be given does not really matter, according to Ewert. You could even increase the amount, like 2 minutes - 3 minutes - 4 minutes. The key features are time pressure, change in audience, and repetition. In addition, it should be kept in mind that this is for fluency, not accuracy, so the teacher should never pay attention to their mistakes. The teacher should make this clear to the students too. One more thing to be added here is that, based on the experience of another activity, for writing fluency, it was much easier (as a student) not to mind mistakes when speaking than when writing.

One of the most important effect to be expected from this speaking fluency activity is that each student is able to see his/her own improvement at the third speech. So, though it is common to choose an easy topic, sometimes you could choose to give them a harder one, to make the improvement even easier to see. In fact, when the workshop participants were trying this activity as “students”, half of them, including the author, were given a topic of “extraterrestrial being.” It was so tough to talk about that at first she thought it was impossible to say anything. However, hearing other people talking forced her to say something, and for the third time she did manage to produce something like a story, when she realized how it is like to see her own improvement in such a short time, and was convinced that it would work well with her students. Back to school it is working better than expected: during the speaking time, everyone keeps talking in English, and some are using English voluntarily.

On a final note, as she herself gives a workshop from time to time, the author learned a lot from the way Ewert led this workshop, especially from the way she put the participants into the students’ position.

3.2 Technology Workshops & Showcases: Electronic Village

TESOL CALL-IS (Interest Section) organizes presentations on CALL or technology in education as part of “Electronic Village.” This section briefly outlines a unique arrangement of concurrent sessions.

In one room designated for Electronic Village, multiple sessions happened during a given time in (Figure 3). Each presenter was provided with a table or a computer, where the audience gathered around. Participants could look around the presentations to decide which to join, and also could choose to join in the middle or wait for a next round, just like when browsing poster presentations. Some sessions looked more like a hands-on workshop, when some of the audience used their own devices to try out what was being presented. Other sessions looked more like a regular presentation, but in a smaller circle, where the presenter and the audience interacted actively in a more casual manner. The

author, in addition to enjoying the sessions she had planned to join, visited the room from time to time to find something interesting there, thinking this could be a great way to arrange some types of sessions at other conferences.



Figure 3. Electronic Village

4. Conclusions

Over all, TESOL 2015 International Convention was a great professional development opportunity for the author, as a teacher-researcher interested in learning/teaching EFL, technology in education, and intercultural communication, and as someone new to giving a workshop or being a member of conference organizer. Many thanks go to all the people who made it happen.

Notes

1. Richards, J. (2012) Jack C. Richards on Communicative Competence - Part 2 of 2. Cambridge University Press ELT. Retrieved May 20, 201 5, from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RpGvWYPL7cU>
2. Featured Speakers. TESOL 2015 International Convention & Language Teaching Expo. Retrieved May 20, 201 5, from <http://www.tesol.org/convention2015/featured-speakers>
3. TESOL 2015 Keynote Livestreams. TESOL 2015 International Convention & Language Teaching Expo. Retrieved May 20, 201 5, from <http://www.tesol.org/events-landing-page/2015/03/18/tesol-2015-keynote-livestreams>

【Chronicle】

April 2014 — March 2015

Presentations by the SIG members:

Date	Title and Presenter(s) Venue	Event
April 19	“The rationale and structure of <i>J-POSTL</i> ” Hisatake Jimbo & Ken Hisamura Waseda University, Tokyo Japan	TALK Seminar
May 31	“Developing and Implementing J-POSTL” Shien Sakai & Akiko Takagi Chukyo University, Aichi Japan	JALT Framework & Language Portfolio SIG Seminar
July 26	“Challenges of English teaching in elementary schools” Shien Sakai Kanto Gakuin University, Kanagawa Japan	JES National Conference
August 9-10	“Professional development of English teachers through reflection” Shien Sakai; “The use of learning portfolio” Yoichi Kiyota Tokushima University, Tokushima Japan	JASELE National Conference
August 10-15	August 11: International Symposium: “Perspectives on Improving Teacher Training: Meeting Challenges and Creating Opportunities”; “Overview of research projects on adaptation of EPOSTL to the Japanese context” Hisatake Jimbo, “Challenges in adapting the EPOSTL to the Japanese educational context” Ken Hisamura, “National survey regarding the development of professional competence of Japanese teachers of English” Takane Yamaguchi together with Peter Broeder (Tilburg University, Netherlands), Angela Scarino & Kathleen Heugh (University of South Australia, Australia) August 14: Presentation: “An Analysis of cultural descriptors in J-POSTL” Natsue Nakayama & Fumiko Kurihara Brisbane Convention & Exhibition Centre, Australia	AILA World Congress 2014
August 24	“Teaching English through English” Michiaki Azami & Takane Yamaguchi Meikai University, Chiba Japan	KATE Conference
August 29	“A Study on Enhancing Students’ Autonomy in Asian EFL Areas.” Shien Sakai Borneo Convention Centre, Kuching, Sarawak, Malaysia	International Asia TEFL Conference
August 30	“How Intercultural Competence of Japanese Junior High School Students Can Be Enhanced: Textbook Analysis and Its Implications.” Natsue Nakayama & Fumiko Kurihara Hiroshima City University, Hiroshima	JACET International Conference
September 13	“Overseas experiences and confidence of teaching culture among English language teachers in Japan” Ken Hisamura; “Intercultural competence and authorized English textbooks for secondary schools” Natsue Nakayama & Fumiko Kurihara; “Cultivating intercultural communication competence based on human rights in junior high schools” Michiko Daigo Chuo University, Tokyo Japan	Seminar cosponsored by JANTA and Natsue Nakayama’s research project team

September 14	“Intercultural competence of English language teachers in Japan” Ken Hisamura; “The realities of foreign language education based on the analyses of the surveys conducted in six languages among university students” Takane Yamaguchi Shinshu University, Nagano Japan	Summer Seminar 2014 cosponsored by Atsuko Tokui’s, Noriyuki Nishiyama’s and Mitsuru Ohki’s research project teams
October 24-26	Symposium of AILA East Asia on “Pre-service Teacher Education”: “Overview of English Language Teacher Education in Japan—Introduction—” Hisatake Jimbo; “J-POSTL—a Reflection Tool for Language Teacher Education: Rationale and Structure.” Ken Hisamura Nanjing University, China	The Seventh International Conference on English Language Teaching (ELT) in China
January 10	“Intercultural Competence to Be Required in the Globalized World—Challenges and Prospects of Teaching English” Natsue Nakayama & Fumiko Kurihara Aoyama Gakuin University, Tokyo Japan	JACET-Kanto Quarterly Seminar
January 31	“Life-long Learning of Languages” Hisatake Jimbo Waseda University, Tokyo Japan	Last lecture
March 15	Language Education EXPO 2015 was held at Waseda University under the auspices of the JACET SIG on English Language Education supported by 10 academic societies and 14 research project teams. Barbara Mehlmauer-Larcher (Vienna University, Austria) made a key-note speech, followed by 10 symposia, four workshops, and 30 presentations. The event was attended by over 300 participants.	

Abbreviations

AILA: Association Internationale de Linguistique Appliquée (International Association of Applied Linguistics)

JALT: The Japan Association for Language Teaching

JANTA: The Japan Australia New Zealand Teachers Association

JASELE: The Japan Society of English Language Education

JES: The Japan Association of English Teaching in Elementary Schools

KATE: The Kantokoshinetsu Association of Teachers of English

TALK: Tanabe Applied Linguistic Kenkyukai

Publications:

July 20. *Language Teacher Education Vol.1 No.1*

August 5. *Language Teacher Education Vol.1 No.2*

March 15. *Language Teacher Education Vol.2 No.1*

Language Teacher Education
Submission Guidelines

1. Requirements

Contributors and co-authors should be SIG or JACET members. However, contributions from the users of J-POSTL or researchers/practitioners of language teacher education as well as foreign language education are welcome.

2. Editorial Policy

Language Teacher Education, a refereed journal, encourages submission of the following:

Genre	Contents	Number of words
Research Paper	Full-length academic articles on the transportability or the use of <i>J-POSTL</i> or on language teacher education and related fields.	Within 8,000
Research Note	Discussion notes on <i>J-POSTL</i> or on language teacher education and related fields.	Within 6,000
Practical Report	Reports on classroom application of J-POSTL or on language teacher education and related fields.	Within 6,000
Other	Reports of conferences, activities, materials, research programs, etc. related to <i>J-POSTL</i> or language teacher education and related fields.	Within 4,000
Book Review	Book reviews on language education	Within 2,000

3. Submission Procedure

- *Language Teacher Education* invites submissions for both Japanese and English editions.
- Data Entry: The data with the name(s), affiliation(s), e-mail address(es), and abstract should be sent to the e-mail address below no later than November 31 for Japanese edition and April 30 for English edition.
- The complete manuscript for publication in March issue (Japanese edition) should be sent to the email address below no later than January 10, and that for publication in July issue (English edition) no later than June 15.

Email to: YAMAGUCHI Takane takane@aoni.waseda.jp

4. Formatting guidelines for submissions in English

Full-length manuscripts in MS W, conforming to APA 6 edition style, should not exceed 8,000 words on A4 paper (Leave margins of 30mm on all sides of every page / Use 12-point Times New Roman, 80 letters×40 lines), including title (14-point Times New Roman), headings (12-point Times New Roman in bold type), abstract (200-300 words), key words (no more than 5 words), references, figures, tables, and appendix. (See, template on the SIG website)

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代表 久村 研

〒169-8050 東京都新宿区西早稲田 1-6-1

早稲田大学商学学院 神保尚武 気付

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JACETSIG-ELF Journal

Language Teacher Education and Related Fields



成長のための省察ツール 言語教師のポートフォリオ

JACET教育問題研究会 <<http://www.waseda.jp/assoc-jacetenedu/>>
監修：神保尚武／編集：久村 研，酒井志延、高木亜希子、清田洋一

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 - ・ 英語教師に求められる授業力を明示する。
 - ・ 授業力とそれを支える基礎知識・技術の振り返りを促す。
 - ・ 同僚や指導者との話し合いと協働を促進する。
 - ・ 自らの授業の自己評価力を高める。
 - ・ 成長を記録する手段を提供する。
- 本ポートフォリオの中核には，Can-Do形式の180の自己評価記述文があります。これらの記述文は，授業力に関する系統的な考え方を提供しており，単なるチェック・リストではありません。教職課程の履修生，現職教師，実習や教員研修の指導者・メンターなどが利用したり，お互いに意見を交換したりする際に，省察を深めるツールとして機能すること，教職の専門意識を高める役割を果たすことが期待されます。