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【Research Paper】

Collegiality in Practitioner Research to Improve Teaching: Perceptions of an English Teacher in a Public Junior High School

Akiko Takagi and Tomohide Warabi

Abstract

Practitioner research contributes to professional teacher development. Previous studies have discussed the relationship between the professional development of teachers and collegiality mainly in the context of schoolwide in-school training. However, few studies have explored the role of collegiality in practitioner research undertaken and devised by an individual teacher to improve that teacher's expertise. This study investigated how an English teacher in a public junior high school perceived communication with his colleagues during practitioner research aimed at improving his teaching. After a two-year study, the practitioner reflected on his experience regarding his relationships with six colleagues in the English language department using PAC analysis and a follow-up interview. The results showed that the roles of his colleagues were divided into three categories: cooperators, a resistant, and an advisor, and that the participant developed different relationships with each colleague based on the role they played. The results suggested that teachers need a cooperator when they start a new practice, and that students' change based on the new practice can have a positive influence on resistants so that eventually, all the teachers develop cooperative relationships as a team.

Keywords

collegiality, practitioner research, teacher improvement, PAC analysis, interview

1. Introduction and Research Purpose

1.1 Positioning of Practitioner Research in English as a Foreign Language Education

It has become widely recognized in the field of English language education that practitioner research plays an important role in a teacher's understanding and improvement of their practice and how this affects their professional development (e.g., Takagi, 2017). Based on the definition of "teacher research" by Borg (2010), Tanaka et al. (2019) define "practitioner research" in the following way:

> Practitioner research is research conducted by teachers on "their own initiative" in the classroom contexts "individually or collaboratively" using a "systematic" approach which is made "public" for the "purpose" of teachers' understanding of

their practice and/or improvement of teaching, which contributes to the improvement of the quality of the teachers' practice (p. 18).

One of the challenges we have faced for a long time in English education in Japan is to develop students' communicative competence, that is, four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) in a balanced way. The *Course of Study for Junior High Schools Foreign Languages (English),* which was implemented in 2021, required advancing language activities since English was introduced as a required subject in elementary schools. However, teachers have difficulty changing their practices because many have used traditional teaching methods, such as a grammar-translation method. Teachers may apply theories and teaching techniques they learn in a workshop in their practice, but they cannot understand and improve their practice in a true sense without learning by trial and error in their own context. (Brown, Collings, & Duguid, 1989). Thus, practitioner research that allows teachers to set up a research question based on their own practice plays an important role in understanding and improving their practice in the long term.

1.2 Teacher Professional Development and Collegiality

Individual teachers face some limitations when they engage in professional development that includes reflection on their daily practice or practitioner research. For example, Owen (2005) claimed that teachers should collaborate with their colleagues using a trial-and-error approach to explore new ideas, reflect on their practice, and collectively share and discuss classroom practice.

Schoolwide in-school training has played an essential role in teacher professional development in Japanese schools. Kihara (2010) argued that in-school training helps teachers develop a mutual relationship to learn from one another with their colleagues as well as enhance the potential for nurturing students. Kuroha (2017) also pointed out the importance of in-school training based on collegiality, where teachers learn from and feel motivated by one another in their professional development. He added that one benefit of in-school training is that it provides teachers with the opportunity to become aware of implicit knowledge that regulates their practice in their inner world.

The concept of collegiality advocated by Hargreaves (1994) is often cited in research on in-school training and school organization. Hargreaves (1994) categorized teachers' culture into five types: individualism, balkanization, collaboration, contrived collegiality, and moving mosaic, and he discussed their influence on school organization. In a presentation at an international conference hosted by the *Japanese Society of Educational Sociology*, he presupposed that Japanese teachers have a collaborative culture in contrast to Western teachers who are forced into a contrived collegiality. However, Kurebayashi (2007) claimed that Hargreave's presupposition about Japanese teachers' collegiality was a fallacy. He added that, according to a survey he conducted, compared with teachers in England and China, teachers in Japan were less willing to invite their colleagues to

observe their classes. Japanese teachers do not develop relationships with their colleagues, which extends to their private domain, nor do they share their practice with one other voluntarily. This implies that Japanese teachers are individualistic and put more emphasis on their private world, which is referred to as privatization. Although in-school training contributes to teacher professional development and the improvement of collegiality, Japanese teachers do not always engage in in-school training on their own initiative. Lesson study is often conducted in a Japanese school within the framework of schoolwide in-school training, but some teachers are unwilling to invite other teachers to observe their classes. In other words, in-school training is sometimes conducted under contrived collegiality.

Little (1982) conducted an ethnography in six schools (105 teachers and 14 administrators) to investigate the organizational characteristics of the schools as a workplace. The study showed that characteristics were categorized into seven themes: range, location, frequency, focus and consequences, relevance, reciprocity, and inclusivity. In range, it was revealed that as a characteristic of a workplace, or collegiality which promotes ongoing teacher professional development, teachers continuously engage in concrete talk about teaching practice, observe classes, and provide critiques of their teaching with one another, and they develop teaching materials collaboratively.

Konuma and Araragi (2013) used Little's (1982) theory to investigate the support systems among teachers in terms of school psychology. They pointed out that observation of teaching practice and human relationships were two especially important factors to nurture collegiality. This is because a human relationship is the basis of forming teachers' mutuality, and with the existence of the relationship, the process of observing, criticizing, and improving teachers' practice works. In other words, even if teachers have a contrived relationship with one another, establishing a human relationship through dialogue about teaching practice is meaningful.

To build a human relationship, we should keep in mind how teachers communicate with their colleagues through dialogue. Kurihara (2016) conducted interviews with teachers of various ages to investigate how the quality of teachers' daily communication with their colleagues through dialogue contributed to and functioned in building relationships with one another. The results showed that an increase in the frequency of communication closes the psychological distance, and teachers tend to feel more comfortable with accepting colleagues' words. Then, dialogue among colleagues simulates the teachers' inner reflection, which leads to changes in their words and actions.

Research has proved that in-school teacher training in Japanese schools has had some achievements in teachers' professional development and improvement of collegiality. However, improving teachers' practice and professional development can be achieved not only through schoolwide mandatory in-school teacher training but also through voluntary actions by individual teachers and groups of teachers. In schoolwide in-school teacher training, a common theme on which all the teachers must work is

usually set up. Such a theme does not always correspond to a teacher's own interests. Also, the theme should be applicable to the teachers of all the subjects, so it tends to be a general one, and it does not allow teachers to work on a theme that is specific to their subject matter.

Sato (2015) used a figure of concentric circles to illustrate the places where teachers learn and grow. This figure has six layers, starting from the center, with the following names: "teachers' reflection on practice in their classroom," "support from teachers in the same grade or the same subject," "advice from a school principal and a vice principal," "lesson study as an in-school teacher training," "teacher training hosted by a board of education or a study meeting in a local area," and "training in a university or a university professor's lecture." Teacher professional development through practitioner research is especially related to the two inner circles. When teachers conduct practitioner research based on a theme generated from their own awareness of issues, they cannot limit their practice to their own class. They usually share their curriculum, goals, lesson contents, and so on with their colleagues in their daily practice, and sometimes they need to co-teach with them. This indicates that teachers cannot conduct their new practice and practitioner research without their colleagues' understanding and support.

In the field of English education in Japan, practitioner research conducted by a variety of individuals has been published (e.g., Fujita, 2017; Kawai, 2019). However, there is a paucity of research on how teachers interact with their colleagues and how the colleagues respond during the practitioner research. Thus, this study investigated the roles that colleagues played while a teacher conducted practitioner research for the purpose of improving his own teaching practice and how the teacher responded to those roles.

1.3 Research Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of a junior high school English teacher of communication with his colleagues while he was engaged in individual practitioner research to improve his teaching practice. It also aimed to clarify the teacher's relationship with individual colleagues and to identify the implications for how teachers should collaborate in conducting practitioner research. The following three research questions were addressed:

RQ1. What are the teacher's perceptions of communication with his colleagues while he was engaged in practitioner research?
RQ2. What are the teacher's relationships with individual colleagues?
RQ3. What are the implications for how teachers should interact with their colleagues while conducting practitioner research?

2. Research Methodology

2.1 Participants

The participant (the second author) was a Japanese English teacher in a public junior high school. He engaged in practitioner research in 2016 when he taught his first-year students and in 2017 when he taught the second-year students. He was in his late 20s, and he had five years of experience as a teacher when the research began in 2016.

He started the practitioner research in April 2016 and finished in March 2018. Before he engaged in this effort, he put emphasis on developing students' English accuracy, so he taught new grammar and sentence structures first and he had his students practice them repeatedly. Later, he allowed the students to use the language in a more open-ended context. However, he realized that his students' oral and written fluency[1] did not improve as he had expected.

The purpose of his practitioner research was to change his teaching procedure and implement new tasks to improve students' writing and speaking proficiency, considering the balance between accuracy and fluency over the two years. The first-year study focused on improving the students' writing. The study investigated how the teacher changed his feedback to students to improve their fluency and accuracy in writing, and the extent to which the students' writing improved (Warabi, 2018). The second-year study focused on students' speaking. That study investigated how the teacher's assessment of his "interaction" and "presentation" skills in speaking changed after he implemented new tasks into his instruction, and how the students' speaking proficiency improved (Warabi, 2019).

The participant interacted with six colleagues in the English department while he conducted this practitioner research (see Table 1).

Table 1. Participant's colleagues in the English language department

Colleagues	First year	Second year
Part-time teacher in her 50s (Colleague A)	○	
Novice teacher in her 20s (Colleague B)		○
Part-time maternity leave substitute teacher in her 30s (Colleague C)		○
Head English teacher in her 30s (Colleague D)	○	○
ALT in his 40s (Colleague E)	○	
ALT in his 20s (Colleague F)		○

In the first year, he interacted with a part-time teacher in her 50s (Colleague A) and an assistant language teacher (ALT) in his 40s (Colleague E). In the second year, he interacted with a novice teacher in her 20s (Colleague B), a part-time maternity leave

substitute teacher in her 30s (Colleague C), and an ALT in his 20s (Colleague F). The head English teacher who was in her 30s (Colleague D) was involved in both years.

English classes were offered four times a week in small-sized classes, which the participant co-taught with his Japanese colleagues by turn. The participant prepared all the lesson plans, handouts, and regular exams for the classes of the grade he oversaw and shared them with his colleagues. In the first year, the participant had difficulty collaborating with his colleagues. In his school, full-time teachers taught the classes with part-time teachers who taught three classes a week by turn. The participant provided the lesson plans and handouts to part-time teachers beforehand, and he had a meeting with them in the morning to make the class consistent as a regular routine. Four of the teachers did not have a chance to observe their classes with one another. On the other hand, the participant and the ALTs co-taught the same class four times a month, and they gave feedback to the students' writing collaboratively.

There are two main reasons why the researcher (the first author) chose the participant for this study. First, the participant was successful in improving his practice to the level with which he was satisfied, and the speaking and writing proficiency of his students improved while he engaged in his practitioner research over the two years. Second, the participant had to be engaged with his colleagues during his practitioner research in a context where he could not avoid collaborating with them. As a result, his colleagues' involvement had some influence on the success of the practitioner research. The participant agreed to participate in this study because he thought that it was a valuable opportunity to reflect on his involvement with his colleagues during his practitioner research.

2.2 Methods of Data Collection and Analysis

2.2.1 PAC analysis. As a main method of data collection and analysis, personal attitude construct (PAC) analysis was conducted, following the procedure presented by Naito (2002). PAC analysis is a research method to clarify an individual's personal attitude construct. It combines multivariate analysis and qualitative analysis based on dialogue between a researcher and a participant with a series of data collection and analysis. PAC analysis combines features of operative, experimental, and descriptive statistics methods with intersubjective, counseling, and case study methods (Naito, 2002). PAC analysis was employed for the study because it can explore a schema (a construct of perceptions and images) of which the participant himself is not aware.

In October 2019, the first author conducted a measurement of orders of generated thought items, ranking of importance of generated thought items, and distance of generated thoughts based on the participant's reflection on his experience during his practitioner research. First, the researcher presented and read aloud a stimulus written as "Please reflect on your involvement with your colleagues during your two-year practitioner research. Write down words or phrases that come to your mind about

behaviors and feelings about your involvement with your colleagues and the order in which the thoughts came to mind." The participant wrote down a word or phrase on each slip of paper and generated thoughts freely until he could not generate any more. Then he ordered the slips according to their importance to him. Next, the researcher showed and read aloud the instruction (Figure 1) asking the participant to rate the distance between the items in each pair to create a matrix based on the distance between the generated thought items based on seven scales.

When this procedure was finished, the first author conducted three processes. She prepared a distance matrix of the generated thought items[2] (see the Appendix) using HAD16 (Shimizu, 2016), conducted a Ward's method cluster analysis, and developed a dendrogram[3] (Figure 2). In November 2019, the results of the cluster analysis were presented to the participant. In that session, comparing the clusters, the participant expressed his interpretation and images that came to his mind. All his utterances were audio-recorded. First, the researcher read each item in a cluster aloud, and she asked the participant questions about images that were common to the items in the same cluster or his interpretation. After all the items in the five clusters were reviewed in this way, the researcher asked the participant to compare pairs of clusters to each other (for example, Cluster 1 to Cluster 2). She asked the participant to express the similarities and differences between the clusters. Then, she asked the participant his interpretation or image about the clusters as a whole. Next, the participant noted whether each generated item had a positive (+), neutral (0), or negative (-) image for him. Finally, the researcher and participant named the clusters collaboratively.

Please evaluate the extent to which each pair of words or phrases about your behaviors and feelings toward your colleagues are similar, using the scale below. When you evaluate distance, use your intuitive sense of each word, not its literal meaning.

Very close……………………1
Close…………………………2
Somewhat close .………………3
Neither close nor far ..…………4
Somewhat far..…………………5
Far……………………………6
Very far………………………7

Figure 1. Instruction and scales

2.2.2 Follow-up interview. After the PAC analysis, a 30-minute follow-up interview was conducted in December 2019. The PAC analysis did not focus on each colleague. Rather, it investigated the participant's perceptions of overall behaviors and feelings toward his

colleagues. This revealed a schema the participant himself did not realize. In addition, PAC analysis enabled the participant to recall his experiences thoroughly so he could investigate the relationships between the five clusters.

There are two reasons why a follow-up interview was conducted in addition to the PAC analysis. First, the follow-up interview allowed the participant to give meaning to his experience by reflecting on and verbalizing the relationships with each colleague based on the perceptions gained by the PAC analysis. Second, the participant's insights about his relationships with his colleagues during the study provided pedagogical implications that other teachers might be able to use.

The interview was based on three follow-up questions: 1) What were the relationships with each colleague? 2) What were distinctive episodes regarding communication with colleagues? 3) How do you want to interact with your colleagues during future practitioner research? In question 1, the participant explained the relationships with each colleague. In question 2, the participant sorted out some episodes identified during the PAC analysis, retold the story, and added new information when necessary.

The interview was audio-recorded and transcribed. The analysis method used was qualitative content analysis. First, the transcribed text was divided into segments of meaning. Then, a code was assigned to each segment, based on themes that indicated various meanings. After all the segments were coded, the entire text was read again. All the codes were reexamined and revised if necessary. Finally, the relationships between codes were examined, and some codes were grouped into categories. The analysis was conducted by the first author, and the second author checked if all the codes and categories were appropriate.

2.3 Ethical Considerations

The purpose of the research was explained to the principal and the colleagues in the school before the study was conducted, and all provided their informed consent to participate. To preserve privacy, the school and the colleagues have not been named.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Results of PAC Analysis
3.1.1 Results of the cluster analysis and the interpretation of each cluster. Fourteen items were generated from the written stimulus. Table 2 shows the thought items according to the order of importance, including numbers of order of thoughts. Among 14 items, seven items ("clarification of roles," "development of ideas," "being understood," "being cooperative," "feedback," "being able to ask anything," "feeling easy") were positive, and five items out of seven were ranked high in their order of importance. There were three neutral items: "asking for approval," "mentor," and "writing feedback." Four

images were negative: "difficulty of sharing," "compulsion," "being laborious," and "being troublesome."

During the cluster analysis, five clusters were extracted (Figure 2). The participant's interpretation of each cluster is presented in the following paragraphs with some quotations. As mentioned in Section 2.2.1, the clusters were named at the end of the PAC analysis, but those names are presented in this section.

Table 2. Generated thought items

Order of importance	Generated thought items	Order of generated thought items	Image
1	Clarification of roles	14	+
2	Development of ideas	11	+
3	Being understood	3	+
4	Being cooperative	4	+
5	Feedback	12	+
6	Difficulty of sharing	9	−
7	Asking for approval	10	0
8	Being able to ask anything	8	+
9	Feeling easy	7	+
10	Mentor	6	0
11	Compulsion	5	−
12	Writing feedback	13	0
13	Being laborious	2	−
14	Being troublesome	1	−

(1) Cluster 1. Cluster 1 had three items: "clarification of roles," "being understood," and "being cooperative." After the participant put a new task into his practice, he started to be aware of the roles of the other teachers. As the following excerpt shows, the participant regarded his role as someone who mainly taught output skills. The roles of the other Japanese teachers (Colleagues A, B, C, and D) were to teach grammar for output, and the role of the ALTs (Colleagues E and F) was to give students feedback about their speaking and writing: "I mainly teach output such as writing and speaking skills, while the other teachers taught grammar which supported the output. I asked ALTs to give feedback on the students' speaking and writing. These role allotments worked well."

Not all the colleagues understood the new task being implemented in the class. However, Colleague A, who was skeptical at first about the effectiveness of the new way of teaching, noticed that the students changed, and she gradually understood and started to cooperate with the participant.

First, the part-time teacher disagreed with my new practice, but she started to realize that the students had improved their speaking and writing skills in class and in their worksheets. When she had time, she started to help ALTs to give feedback on the students' writing. This shows that she gradually understood my new practice and became cooperative.
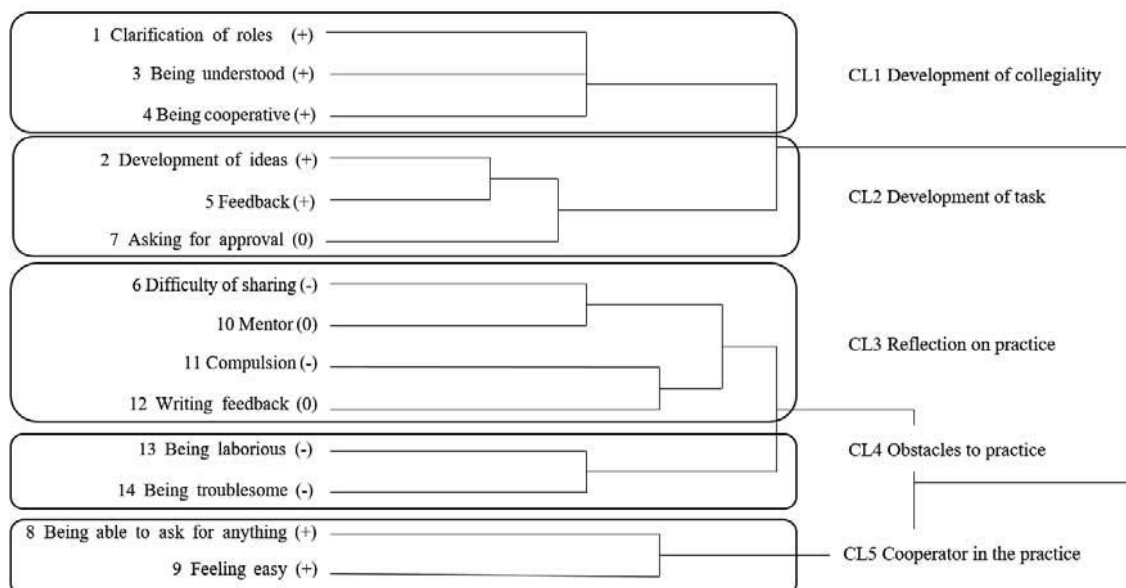
Figure 2. Dendrogram

Note. The left number shows the order of importance, and +, 0, and − indicate whether the generated thought items had a positive, neutral, or negative image.

Not only did Colleague A start to help Colleagues E and F give feedback on the students' writing, but she also implemented a new way of teaching in her class using shared materials. As the participant observed: "She first did not use a worksheet I prepared, but she gradually started to use it." The participant's continuous dialogue with her revealed a different way of thinking about teaching from his. At the same time, the dialogue provided an opportunity to communicate the participant's intention, and the colleague was able to understand his new practice. This enabled the participant to teach his class in the way he wanted to in collaboration with the colleague, and this gave him the experience of developing collegiality. Thus, Cluster 1 was named "Development of collegiality."

(2) Cluster 2. Cluster 2 comprised three items: "development of ideas," "feedback," and "asking for approval." The participant improved his teaching materials and methods through trial and error on a daily basis. He also considered the students' development in the long term. In the second year, he developed writing activities he did use in the first year, and he added new tasks. The following excerpt indicates that he was able to develop

or improve the writing activities because he received constant feedback from Colleagues E and F, with whom he co-taught: "When I implemented a new element into my class, ALTs gave me feedback or a piece of advice such as 'you could change this activity in this way.' Their feedback was useful to develop a further idea."

The participant had more opportunities to discuss the practice with ALTs than with the other colleagues, and he received constant feedback and ideas because they co-taught the class. Also, ALTs had cooperative attitudes toward his new practice from the beginning. Moreover, the head English teacher, Colleague D, provided unexpected ideas about the activity while the participant was preparing for a demonstration lesson. The next episode shows how Colleague D's advice led him to improve his teaching.

> I asked Colleague D for approval about the contents for a demonstration lesson. Then, she showed me a worksheet of fillers such as "let me see," which helped the students to continue their conversation. It was an idea I did not have. The use of the worksheet made the speaking activity more effective.

The feedback and ideas provided by the three colleagues allowed the participant to rethink and improve his teaching materials and methods, and he was able to develop task contents. As a result, Cluster 2 was named "Development of task contents." When the participant talked about Cluster 2, he did not refer to the other colleagues.

(3) Cluster 3. Cluster 3 had four items: "difficulty of sharing," "mentor," "compulsion," and "writing feedback." Small-sized classes were implemented in the participant's school, so he needed to share his teaching contents with his colleagues. However, he found it difficult to ensure time for a meeting and to have his colleagues understand the intention of his practice.

> My practice would not have been successful without collaborating with my colleagues. I had to share worksheets and teaching procedures with the other teachers. I had frequent meetings with them. Not all of them understood what I wanted to do in class at the beginning, and it took time until they understood my new practice and collaborated with me.

The participant was a mentor for a novice teacher, Colleague B, and he constantly offered advice on her teaching. During the interview, he reflected on the possibility that he imposed his way of teaching on her: "The novice teacher might have had an idea she wanted to try in her class. However, I imposed my way of teaching on her, so I should reconsider my behavior."

The participant thanked Colleagues E and F for their support in providing writing feedback, but he also reflected that he might have forced them to cooperate with the feedback, as the following excerpt shows: "I thanked the ALTs for supporting me with writing feedback, but I might have forced them to cooperate with me."

Based on such statements, the participant realized for the first time during the interview that he imposed a burden on his colleagues while conducting the practitioner research. Thus, Cluster 3 was named "Reflection on practice."

(4) Cluster 4. Cluster 4 comprised two items: "being laborious" and "being troublesome." The participant needed thorough preparation for the class since he implemented new tasks based on the research questions in his practitioner research. Moreover, teaching by the textbook was not enough to fulfill his aims, so he had to create new task materials and give feedback on the students' writing. That required an extra effort, so he felt troublesome: "I might have felt easier if I only used a textbook. Implementing new materials and tasks in addition to teaching by the textbook was laborious."

As the participant mentioned for Cluster 3, he had to collaborate with his colleagues to adjust the class content in small-sized classes. In other words, without the understanding of his colleagues, he could not implement new activities in his class. He felt troublesome because he had to secure extra time for meetings with the colleagues and to have them understand his new way of teaching: "I felt troublesome because not all my colleagues understood or agreed with my new way of teaching. I had to take care of the teachers who were opposed to my ideas and persuade them. It was hard for me."

The two items under Cluster 4 were related to obstacles to continue the participant's practice, so Cluster 4 was named "Obstacles to practice."

(5) Cluster 5. Cluster 5 had two items: "being able to ask for anything" and "feeling easy." Colleagues B, C, E, and F cooperated with the participant from the beginning. The participant's psychological hurdle was low in sharing his practice, and it was easy for him to ask for cooperation, as the following excerpt shows. Thus, Cluster 5 was named "Cooperator in the practice."

> I was able to ask for anything from the ALTs. For example, when I shared my idea for class with them, they accepted it willingly. Also, I found it easy to ask the novice teacher and the maternity leave substitute teacher for anything. I mean I asked for anything without hesitation.

3.1.2 Comparisons of clusters. The following are summaries of the participant's comments regarding the similarities and differences between clusters.

(1) Relationship between Clusters 1 and 2. The similarity was that asking the ALTs for writing feedback and asking the head teacher for approval (CL2) led to clarification of roles (CL1). Also, the cooperation of the ALTs (CL1) helped the practitioner develop new task ideas (CL2). No difference was reported.

(2) Relationship between Clusters 1 and 3. The similarity was that ALTs' writing feedback (CL3) was conducted because of their understanding and cooperation (CL1). The difference was that the difficulty of sharing and cooperation was contradictory.

(3) Relationship between Clusters 1 and 4. No similarity was reported. The difference was that laborious and troublesome practice (CL4) was difficult for the colleagues to understand (CL1).

(4) Relationship between Clusters 1 and 5. The similarity was that to be cooperative (CL1), asking for anything and feeling easy (CL5) were crucial. No difference was reported.

(5) Relationship between Clusters 2 and 3. The similarity was feedback (CL2) and writing feedback (CL3). Also, what was said by a head teacher (CL2) and what the participant said to the novice teacher (CL3) had to be accepted, which meant compulsion (CL3). No difference was reported.

(6) Relationship between Clusters 2 and 4. The similarity was that the development of ideas, giving feedback, and asking for approval (CL2) were laborious and troublesome (CL4). No difference was reported.

(7) Relationship between Clusters 2 and 5. The similarity was that the participant was able to ask ALTs to give feedback (CL2) without any hesitation (CL5). The difference was that the participant did not feel easy (CL5) asking for approval (CL2).

(8) Relationship between Clusters 3 and 4. The similarity was that giving advice as a mentor or writing feedback (CL3) were laborious (CL4). Also, compulsion (CL3) was the participant's regret and troublesome (CL4). No difference was reported.

(9) Relationship between Clusters 3 and 5. The similarity was that the participant felt easy (CL5) because he could ask ALTs to give feedback on the students' writing (CL3) and ask the novice teacher anything (CL5). The difference was that he reflected on his compulsion as a mentor to the novice teacher (CL3).

(10) Relationship between Clusters 4 and 5. No similarity was reported. The difference was that the participant felt easy to ask for cooperation from his colleagues (CL5), although he knew that asking for cooperation was laborious and troublesome (CL4).

The results revealed close distances between the following pairs of clusters because only similarities were reported: Cluster 1 (development of collegiality) and Cluster 2 (development of task contents), Cluster 1 (development of collegiality) and Cluster 5 (cooperator in the practice), Cluster 2 (development of task contents) and Cluster 3 (reflection on practice), Cluster 2 (development of task contents) and Cluster 4 (obstacles to practice), Cluster 3 (reflection on practice) and Cluster 4 (obstacles to practice).

In contrast, there were great distances between the following pairs of clusters because only differences were reported: Cluster 1 (development of collegiality) and Cluster 4 (obstacles to practice), and Cluster 4 (obstacles to practice) and Cluster 5 (cooperator in the practice).

3.1.3 Image of the clusters as a whole. The participant mentioned the positive aspects of the clusters as a whole: "The students' proficiency improved as I changed the teaching method, and accordingly colleagues' attitudes toward my practice changed into more cooperative ones." On the other hand, he also pointed out the negative aspects of his practice: "I forced the other teachers to cooperate with my new practice, and made them do laborious and troublesome tasks."

In addition to the positive and negative aspects, he stated that his colleagues' feedback played a crucial role in developing his teaching ideas.

> I realized that various teachers engaged in developing my teaching ideas. ALTs gave me advice on how to improve an activity in class when they noticed students' weaknesses in their writing. The novice teacher gave me feedback, such as which part was difficult to teach for her when I shared teaching materials and lesson plans. When I shared my lesson plan with the head teacher, she gave me advice and informed me about a new worksheet. All the colleagues' advice and feedback were useful to make my practice better.

Finally, the participant was asked if the five clusters could be grouped into a broader category. Clusters 1 and 2 and Clusters 3 and 4 in Figure 2 were linked, and the five clusters were grouped into three. The three clusters were named "successful factors of practitioner research," "obstacles faced in practitioner research," and "practitioner research cooperators" (Table 3).

Table 3. Grouped clusters

Superordinate concept	Subordinated concept
Successful factors of practitioner research	Development of collegiality
	Development of task contents
Obstacles faced in practitioner research	Reflection on practice
	Obstacles to practice
Practitioner research cooperators	Cooperator in the practice

3.2 The Results of the Follow-up Interview

3.2.1 Relationships with individual colleagues. From the analysis of transcripts, five categories related to RQ1 and RQ2 emerged: "resistance to practitioner research," "acceptance of practitioner research," "development of task activities," "behaviors toward colleagues," and "emotions toward colleagues" (Table 4).

Table 4. Categories and codes of relationships with each colleague

Category	Code	Category	Code
Resistance to practitioner research	Different teaching belief	Development of task activities	Writing feedback
	Passive attitude		Advice on feedback to the students
	Disuse of teaching materials		Sharing an idea
	Established teaching method	Behaviors toward colleagues	Mentorship as a mentor
Acceptance of practitioner research	Understanding practitioner research due to students' change		Sharing teaching materials and teaching procedure
	Acceptance of teaching materials and teaching procedure	Emotions toward colleagues	Diffidence
	Use of teaching materials		Feeling of comfort and easiness to ask
	Positive words		Reflection on compulsion of practitioner research
	Support for writing feedback		A sense of safety toward being accepted

According to the participant, Colleague A was a resistant, Colleagues B, C, E, and F were cooperators, and Colleague D was an advisor. In the following, we describe the relationships with each colleague, showing the categories (double quotation marks) and codes (single quotation marks) assigned.

Colleague A was a resistant at the beginning. She had a 'different teaching belief' that English should be taught in an order from accuracy to fluency. She did not use the teaching materials the participant shared ('disuse of teaching materials'), and she had a 'passive attitude,' which indicated "resistance to practitioner research." However, as the following episode shows, after she deepened her 'understanding [of] practitioner research due to students' change,' she started to provide 'support for writing feedback.' In addition, she uttered 'positive words' toward the feedback, and she showed "acceptance of practitioner research." In this way, her attitude changed to become more cooperative: "When she noticed that the students improved their output skills, she was convinced and started to be cooperative. Also, when she worked on feedback to students' writing with an ALT, she said that giving feedback was fun."

Colleague A had the participant reconsider how to develop collegiality because he required additional efforts before she understood his new practice, which provided an opportunity to think deeply about his own practice.

Colleague B was a cooperator. The participant had a 'reflection on compulsion of practitioner research' toward this colleague as an "emotion toward colleagues." Under the category of "behavior toward colleagues," the participant 'shared teaching materials and teaching procedure' as a "mentorship of a mentor." Colleague B asked the participant to share his teaching materials for the class earlier because she needed more time for preparation with the materials. This favor made the participant realize that he put an extra burden on her class preparation, which prevented her from conducting a lesson in her own way.

At that time, I believed that my new practice was effective for my students. Also, I was confident that sharing my new way of teaching was meaningful for my colleague. However, as a mentor, I should have provided an environment where she was able to engage in her own practice in her way.

Colleague C, a one-year contract substitute teacher, demonstrated 'acceptance of teaching materials and teaching procedure' as well as "acceptance of practitioner research." From the beginning, the participant had a 'feeling of comfort and easiness to ask' and 'a sense of safety toward being accepted' under the category of "emotions toward colleagues." As a result, he regarded her as a cooperator, as shown in the following excerpt: "The teacher did everything I asked for in her class, so I felt comfortable and easy to ask. When I explained a lesson plan I prepared, she understood and followed it, so she was very cooperative."

Colleague D was the head English teacher, so the participant had a sense of 'difference' under the category of "emotions toward colleagues." In addition, since she had 'a different teaching belief' from the participant's, he hesitated to ask for her cooperation with his new practice. However, when he consulted her about a

demonstration lesson, unexpectedly she began 'sharing an idea,' which helped the "development of task activities." As a result, she was regarded as an advisor, as he observed: "Her ideas were useful for my practitioner research. She is in the position of kind of an advisor."

Colleagues E and F were cooperators; they collaborated closely with the participant during the practitioner research. They made a direct and continuous contribution to the "development of task activities," which was the focus of the practitioner research in terms of 'writing feedback' and 'advice on feedback to the students.'

ALTs got involved in writing feedback very well. I did a writing task after a speaking task in my lesson. …The ALTs gave me advice on how I should give feedback to the students in the next lesson.

Colleague E had extensive experience in teaching, and he provided various teaching ideas ('sharing an idea') besides providing writing feedback. On the other hand, Colleague F rarely provided teaching ideas, but he showed 'acceptance of teaching materials and teaching procedure,' and he had a positive attitude when he provided 'writing feedback.' This brought the participant "a sense of safety toward being accepted."

3.2.2 How to engage colleagues during practitioner research. The results regarding RQ3 about being involved with colleagues during practitioner research, three categories emerged: "necessity of cooperators," "students' and resistants' change," and "acceptance of resistants" (Table 5).

Table 5. Categories and codes for the involvement of colleagues during the study

Category	Code
Necessity of cooperators	Cooperators who understand rather than practice together
	Finding a cooperator at first
Students' and resistants' change	Students' change after continuous practice
	Resistants' change due to students' change
	Acceptance of existence of resistants
Acceptance of resistants	Catalyst for development of ideas
	Possibility of becoming a cooperator

The following excerpt supports the "necessity of cooperators" because teachers must adjust the pace and contents of the lessons in small-sized classes when two teachers teach by turn. Practitioner research cannot be conducted without the collaboration of the other teachers.

Whichever position teachers take in school; they need to find at least one cooperator when they decide to start a practitioner research. Especially, when they share the same class with other teachers, they cannot conduct research without cooperators even if they are highly motivated to engage in practitioner research.

When teachers start to conduct and sustain practitioner research, 'finding a cooperator at first' is important. Colleague B at first did not fully understand the meaning and content of the practitioner research, but her existence as one of the 'cooperators who understand rather than practice together' supported the practitioners during the practitioner research. Resistants may find it difficult at first to understand the intention to improve teaching through practitioner research. However, the important thing is to continue a new practice or the practitioner research.

When 'students' change after continuous practice' becomes visible, teachers who had been skeptical may change their view ('resistants' change due to students' change') and become cooperative. In other words, "students' and resistants' change" cannot be separated, as the participant noted: "If teaching is effective, the students will change. When teachers see students change, even resistants or teachers who were skeptical about a new teaching method can be persuaded. Then those teachers gradually become cooperative."

A resistant can be a 'catalyst for development of ideas' as well as having the "possibility of becoming a cooperator." The participant's attitude of "acceptance of resistants" will allow their colleagues to build a collaborative relationship, which helps to make the practitioner research smooth. As the practitioner said:

A resistant teacher may support practitioner research as time goes by. Also, when a practitioner researcher considers how to promote the understanding of such a teacher, he may come up with a new idea about his practice. We should not exclude such a teacher, but think about how we can include all the teachers and work together as colleagues in the long run. We should not create an enemy but build a collaborative relationship in school.

4. Comprehensive Discussion

4.1 Perceptions of Communication with Colleagues During Practitioner Research

The aim of RQ1 was to clarify the participant's perceptions of communication with his colleagues while he was engaged in the practitioner research. We discuss the results in light of the characteristics of collegiality that promote continuous teacher professional development identified by Little (1982). The introduction of new tasks into class in this study provided the participant with a continuous discussion with his colleagues. During the two-year practitioner research, the participant did not observe classes or provide

critiques about his Japanese colleagues' classes. However, he co-taught his classes with the two ALTs and received regular feedback about the class activities and worksheets from them. Also, he shared his teaching materials and teaching procedures with the other teachers and received feedback from them. This feedback was helpful for improving the teaching materials and procedures. As a result, the "development of task contents" in Cluster 1 was successful, and it was regarded as one element of "successful factors of practitioner research."

Collegiality in practice in this study was not built collaboratively under the theme all the colleagues shared, as can be seen in a typical lesson in schoolwide in-school teacher training. So, we cannot claim that the collegiality matured into a "collaborative culture" where all the teachers cooperated with one another as a team, as Hargreaves (1994) saw it. Although the teachers in this study developed collaborative relationships to some extent, theirs was definitely not a "contrived collegiality." The participant decided to improve his practice by conducting his own practitioner research, and his colleagues collaborated with him of their own free will.

The participant started his practitioner research with a strong intention of improving his practice because he had a question about his teaching after he noticed a student who could not communicate well in an authentic context. To change his teaching practices, he could not avoid collaborating with his colleagues because they were in a school where class sizes were small and team-teaching was employed. This created a situation where all his colleagues had to become involved in his new practice.

In Cluster 3, "reflection on practice," the participant struggled with the way to share his new practice while he was conducting the practitioner research. At the same time, he realized that he put psychological and physical burdens on his colleagues. Conducting a new practice was laborious and troublesome for the participant himself, and this was reflected in Cluster 4 "obstacles to practice." Thus, Clusters 3 and 4 were grouped as "obstacles faced in practitioner research."

Although the participant faced those obstacles, the four colleagues who were "cooperator in the practice" in Cluster 5 were valuable for him because they understood his approach from the beginning. Including the other two colleagues, the participant built a human relationship where they could exchange their opinions honestly about their practice and the students because their discussion focused on the new task activities and the students' performance. This contributed to the "development of the task contents" as well as the "development of collegiality," which became "successful factors of practitioner research."

4.2 Relationships with Colleagues and Implications for Involving Colleagues in Practitioner Research

RQ2 aimed to clarify the relationships with individual colleagues, and RQ3 aimed at identifying implications for involving colleagues in the practitioner research. In this

practitioner research, the colleagues assumed three kinds of roles: cooperators, a resistant, and an advisor. Cooperators accepted the participant's teaching materials and teaching procedures, and they implemented them in their classes. In other words, they accepted what the participant wanted to do in the practitioner research. Moreover, their feedback on the teaching materials and procedures helped the participant develop task contents. On the other hand, when the participant shared his new practice with the resistant, different beliefs about teaching appeared. The resistant withstood the new approach of the practitioner research, as seen in the disuse of shared teaching materials. However, because the students changed, the resistant gradually adopted a new attitude. The participant experienced various emotions when he faced mixed colleagues' reactions, but he had a strong belief about his new practice, and he did not give up pursuing dialogue with all his colleagues.

The study shows that, in the process of sharing his new practice, the practitioner had more opportunities to engage in dialogue about his approach and the students' progress with his colleagues. Kurihara (2016) pointed out that the basis of teachers' psychological sense of security is their physical closeness with their colleagues and frequent communication. In this study, the participant did not exclude the resistant. Instead, he tried to establish a dialogue with her. This reduced their psychological distance. In addition, the students' change contributed to the development of a collaborative collegiality.

As noted earlier, in schoolwide in-school teacher training, a common theme is presented for teachers to address. During voluntary practitioner research, teachers might not be understood or supported by their colleagues at first. However, if they could find at least one colleague who understands their new practice, they would have a psychological support. Also, teachers should not impose their ways of thinking on their colleagues in the process of practitioner research. Even if some colleagues look resistant, practitioner researchers must accept such colleagues. At the same time, teachers should continue their new practice by trial and error, engaging in continuous reflection in the long run. When students' change becomes visible, colleagues will gradually understand the meaning of new practice as well as practitioner research.

5. Conclusion and Future Study

This study clarified how an English teacher in a public junior high school perceived communication with his six colleagues during his practitioner research, which aimed at improving his teaching. It also investigated how he maintained and built collegiality with each colleague. The results of the study revealed that the participant developed a different relationship with each colleague, and the roles of colleagues were divided into three categories: several cooperators, a resistant, and an advisor. The results implied that teachers need cooperators when they implement a new practice, but they should accept

that there might be resistants. Teachers should continue the new practice by trial and error until students begin to change. Then, even resistants may understand the effects of the new practice and change their attitudes. In this way, eventually, all the teachers may develop a cooperative relationship as a team.

The benefit of PAC analysis as a research method in this study was that the participant was able to explore his inner self and investigate the schema that he himself had not been aware of concerning his behaviors and feelings toward his colleagues. Moreover, PAC analysis allowed the participant to visualize the structure of his perceptions and to verbalize the meaning of his experience clearly in the follow-up interview.

The relationships with the colleagues in this study are seen only from the viewpoint of the participant. In other words, the distinction in roles of colleagues during practitioner research (cooperators, a resistant, and an adviser) was made from the participant's viewpoint. In future research, interviews of the colleagues can be added to reveal differences in perspectives about collegiality between the participant and his colleagues. This could provide more beneficial insights into building constructive collegiality. Also, the study focused on colleagues who taught the same subject. When we investigate how teachers engage in professional development in school, we should consider not only support from the teachers in the same department, but also support from and relationships with the other teachers in various subjects and the roles of school administrators.

Notes

1. The participant's definition of "fluency" during this study related to the quantities of words and sentences students could produce as logical and connected content within a certain time.
2. According to Naito (2002), in PAC analysis, one participant is asked to rate the distance of all the combinations of all the items to make the distance matrix of the generated thought items intuitively. Cluster analysis is conducted using the distance matrix, and the results are shown in the dendrogram. The relationships between clusters are interpreted through dialogue between the researcher and the participant. The data in PAC analysis is extracted from one participant; it is not averaged or distributed, so calculating averages and standard deviations is not required.
3. The dendrogram in Figure 2 shows the results of the data after the analysis is complete. During the data collection, Figure 2 did not include positive, neutral, and negative signs or the names of the clusters.

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analysis.

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Appendix

Table A-1. Distance matrix of the generated thought items

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	0													
2	3	0												
3	2	4	0											
4	2	2	2	0										
5	5	1	2	2	0									
6	5	5	6	6	6	0								
7	3	1	2	2	2	3	0							
8	4	5	3	2	3	5	6	0						
9	6	5	5	5	5	5	4	3	0					
10	3	3	6	4	3	2	3	3	3	0				
11	6	7	6	7	6	3	5	4	5	3	0			
12	3	7	7	3	2	4	5	4	5	3	3	0		
13	6	5	3	6	3	2	3	5	6	3	5	3	0	
14	7	6	7	7	3	3	3	5	7	4	5	3	2	0

【Research Note】
Distinctive Differences in Priorities for Core Competences between Secondary and Elementary School EFL Teachers

Fumiko Kurihara and Ken Hisamura

Abstract

This paper compares and analyzes the categorizations of self-assessment descriptors (SADs) in the *Japanese Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages* (J-POSTL) and those of SADs in the provisional version of J-POSTL for Elementary-school Teacher Education in the competence matrix. The results show that there are differences in perceived importance in some didactic competences. Elementary school English teachers perceive didactic competences in the area of "use of ICT and digital materials," "teaching culture," "lesson planning, learning goals, and extra-curricular activities," "conducting interactive lessons," and "assessment" more fundamental than secondary school teachers. On the other hand, secondary school English teachers perceive didactic competences in the area of "reading," "teaching vocabulary and grammar" and "independent learning and learning strategies" more fundamental than elementary school teachers.

Keywords
J-POSTL, J-POSTL-E, self-assessment descriptors, competence matrix

1. Introduction

1.1 J-POSTL and J-POSTL-E

The *Japanese Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages* (J-POSTL) was completed in March 2014 after five years of research and examination by the JACET SIG on English Language Education (hereafter, JACET SIG) as the adaptation of the *European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages* (EPOSTL) (Newby et al., 2007). Most of the time and effort was devoted to the contextualization of the 195 self-assessment descriptors (SADs) which comprise a central section of EPOSTL as "a set of core competences which language teachers should strive to attain" (p. 85). Each of these SADs was carefully examined through consultations with academics, surveys to superintendents of education boards as well as in-service secondary school EFL teachers, and a two-year pilot experiment among pre-service teachers, and finally contextualized into 180 SADs to suit the needs of EFL pre- and in-service teachers in Japan. One of the aims of the J-POSTL is to identify the key didactic competences for English language teachers at secondary schools in Japan and encourage them to use SADs to reflect on and

improve their teaching practice. Since the launch of J-POSTL, it has been widely used in pre-service teacher training courses, in-service teacher education and academic research (Takagi, 2019).

The J-POSTL for Elementary-school Teacher Education (J-POSTL-E), on the other hand, started being developed in 2016 and has taken five developmental stages to be completed (Yamaguchi, Osada, Hisamura, & Benthien, 2019). From 2016 to 2017, comments and opinions on the 180 SADs in J-POSTL were collected from ninety elementary school teachers. After that, 167 SADs for J-POSTL-E were identified and drafted based on suggestions from a seven-member advisory board consisting of elementary school English education specialists and experienced in-service teachers. From January to August 2018, the first nation-wide questionnaire on the 167 SADs was administered to university faculty in charge of EFL teacher training courses. As a result of this survey, 93 descriptors were tentatively specified for pre-service elementary school teachers. Then, from October to December 2018, a nation-wide survey among in-service teachers was conducted to categorize the rest of descriptors (74 SADs) in terms of a competence matrix (novice, apprentice, practitioner and expert) (Nakayama & Yamaguchi, 2020). Finally, a long-term pilot experiment focusing on the usage of the provisional version of the 93 SADs (mentioned above) among students of teacher training courses at seven universities was conducted from 2018 to 2020 to finalize the SADs for J-POSTL-E.

Since 2020, English has become a mandatory subject for fifth and six graders, and the smooth and effective transition of English language education from elementary and secondary schools is critical for learners. In this paper, categorizations of SADs in J-POSTL and J-POSTL-E on the competence matrix derived from previous studies (JACET SIG, 2013; Hisamura, 2014a; Yamaguchi, Osada, Hisamura, and Benthien, 2019, Nakayama & Yamaguchi, 2020) are compared and analyzed to find out if there are any differences in perceived importance of the core competences between elementary school English instructors and secondary school English teachers.

1.2 Literature Review

1.2.1 Competence matrix of SADs. The 180 SADs in J-POSTL are divided into six stages in the competence matrix: pre-service, novice (1-2 years of teaching experience), apprentice (3-5 years of teaching experience), practitioner (6-10 years of teaching experience), senior practitioner or expert (over 10 years of experience) and open (see below). This matrix is considered to be a guideline or a roadmap of the career stages of the teaching profession. The SADs of each stage are identified mainly based on the results of the nation-wide survey conducted among in-service secondary school teachers (JACET SIG, 2013; Hisamura, 2014a). In the survey, respondents were asked to choose one of the five options for each descriptor (5 appropriate, 4 somewhat appropriate, 3 don't know 2 not very appropriate, 1 not appropriate). The number of valid responses was 5,658. The

mean and the proportion of positive responses (options 4 and 5) on each SAD were aggregated and categorized into five stages. Table 1 shows the number of SADs categorized into their appropriate target stages of teachers, from pre-service to open or unspecified. For example, there are 31 SADs which would be considered as an appropriate stage for novice teachers. The SADs in the stage of "open" suggest that they did not receive positive responses from in-service teachers in general and could not be categorized into any appropriate stage for teachers (see Hisamura, 2014b). Many of the SADs in the "open" stage are mainly concerned about fostering independent learning and intercultural competences suggesting that teacher education to develop these competences has rarely been provided.

Table 1. Competence matrix of J-POSTL SADs

pre-service	novice	apprentice	practitioner	expert	open	
SAD:65	SAD:31	SAD:30	SAD:20	SAD:9	SAD:25	Total:180

Table 2 shows how 167 SADs in the J-POSTL-E are tentatively categorized into five stages in the competence matrix. The 74 SADs for in-service teachers were categorized based on the results of the survey conducted on elementary school in-service teachers (Nakayama & Yamaguchi, 2020). A total of 583 teachers responded to the survey. There are 13 SADs perceived as an appropriate target for novice, 19 SADs for apprentice, 23 SADs for practitioner, and 19 SADs for expert teachers.

Table 2. Competence matrix of J-POSTL-E SADs

pre-service	novice	apprentice	practitioner	expert	
SAD:93	SAD:13	SAD:19	SAD:23	SAD:19	Total:167

The competence matrix of the SADs reflects the perceptions of secondary and elementary in-service teachers who participated in the questionnaires. The SADs categorized into each stage can be considered as the target competences for teachers with different experiences (Figure 1). For example, the SADs in "pre-service" or "novice" can be considered as more fundamental core competences than those in "expert" which indicate more appropriate targets for teachers with more than 10 years of experiences.
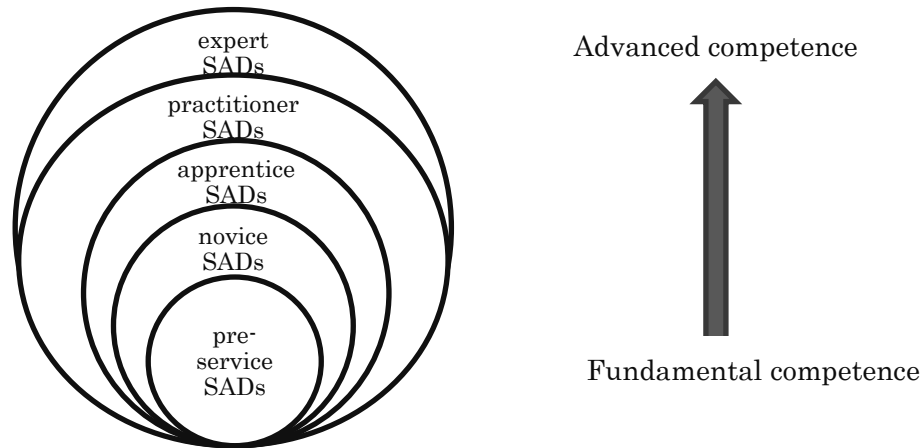
Figure 1. SADs categorized into appropriate stages for teachers

1.2.2 SADs and the Course of Study. Hisamura (2018) and Nakayama & Hisamura (2018) created tables that contrast the SADs in the J-POSTL and the first draft of those for the J-POSTL-E with learner abilities to develop as described in the four documents issued by the Japanese Government: 1. The section of Foreign Languages in the Elementary School Course of Study (hereafter, ESCoS) (MEXT, 2017a), 2. The section of Foreign Languages in Teaching Guide for the ESCoS (MEXT, 2017b), 3. The section of Foreign Languages in the Junior High School Course of Study (hereafter, JHSCoS) (MEXT, 2017c), and 4. A proposal for reforms and policies for the Course of Study of Kindergarten, Elementary schools, Junior and Senior high schools (Central Council for Education, 2016). MEXT states that there are three major areas in learning: "knowledge and skills," "thinking ability, ability to make their own judgment, ability to express etc.," and "ability to learn, ability to grow as a human being, etc." Also, in order to maximize students' learning, MEXT suggests that teachers should encourage "active, interactive, and deep learning" for learners. The detail explanation of these concepts is provided by breaking them down into concrete statements in the ESCos and JHSCoS. Hisamura (2018) and Nakayama & Hisamura (2018) examined the relationships between the SADs and the explanations of each concept. For example, "proactive learning" can be categorized into 6 groups of concepts: 1. life-long learning, 2. overview of learning, 3. reflection on learning, 4. becoming aware of learning process, 5. having interest and curiosity, and 6. sharing learning with others (Hisamura, 2018, pp.186-187). Using their analysis, the SADs in the study will be examined also in relationship to the key concepts in the CoS for elementary and secondary schools.

2. Aim of the Study

The aim of the study is to compare and analyze the categorizations of SADs in the J-POSTL and those in the J-POSTL-E provisional version in the competence matrix derived from the previous studies (JACET SIG, 2013; Hisamura, 2014b; Yamaguchi,

Osada, Hisamura, and Benthien, 2019; Nakayama & Yamaguchi, 2020). There are three research questions.

1. Are there any SADs in J-POSTL and J-POSTL-E categorized differently by two or more stages in the competence matrix?
2. If so, in what areas of teaching can the SADs be classified?
3. What are the pedagogical implications for teaching English at elementary schools with regards to the key concepts in the CoS?

3. Method

It should be noted that nearly 10% of SADs in J-POSTL-E are the same as those of J-POSTL, and a little over 70% were adapted with some modifications in wording or terminology to make them more appropriate in the context of elementary school teachers (Yamaguchi, Osada, Hisamura, & Benthien, 2019, p.40). For example, the following SADs in J-POSTL and J-POSTL Elementary provisional version describe more or less the same competence although the descriptors are not necessarily identical.

Table 3. Corresponding SADs in J-POSTL and J-POSTL-E

J-POSTL	J-POSTL-E （provisional version）
I can help <u>learners</u> <u>apply strategies</u> to cope with difficult or unknown vocabulary in listening activities.	I can help <u>children</u> <u>identify the pronounced letters of the alphabet and</u> cope with difficult or unknown vocabulary in listening activities.

（Translated and underlined by the authors）

In this paper, the stages in the competence matrix of the adapted SADs of J-POSTL-E and those of the original SADs of J-POSTL are compared and discussed in case there is a difference of two or more stages between the two. In the discussion, the SADs from J-POSTL-E will be used. For example, the SAD regarding the use of ICT in Table 4 is classified as "novice" in J-POSTL-E, while the corresponding SAD in J-POSTL is classified as "practitioner" in the competence matrix. This indicates a belief that the competence of this SAD is required of anyone who wants to teach English at elementary school, but it is not the case for those at secondary school albeit required at a later stage.

Table 4. SAD categorized differently according to competence matrix

SAD	J-POSTL-E	J-POSTL
I can design ICT materials and activities appropriate for my children.	novice	practitioner

In the next section, the SADs with a difference of two or more stages in the competence matrix will be discussed. Furthermore, the results will be examined in terms of the key concepts in CoS discussed in 1.2.2.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 SADs Categorized into Different Stages in the Competence Matrix

Out of the 144 SADs, 37 SADs (25.6%) are different by two or more stages in the competence matrix (JACET SIG, 2013; Hisamura, 2014a; Nakayama & Yamaguchi, 2020). Among 37 SADs, 26 SADs (70.3%) are regarded as more fundamental competences for English teachers at elementary schools and the remaining 11 SADs (29.70%) are categorized as more fundamental for secondary school teachers.

4.2 Competences Found More Fundamental for Elementary School Teachers

The 26 SADs considered as more fundamental competences by elementary school teachers can be divided into five categories: 1. use of ICT and digital materials, 2. development of intercultural competence, 3. lesson planning, learning goals and extra-curricular activities, 4. skills of conducting a lesson, 5. assessment. Note that the SADs found in the following tables are translated by the authors from the Japanese edition of J-POSTL-E. In the following sections, the SADs in each category are explained in detail.

4.2.1 The use of ICT and digital materials. Table 5 shows that four SADs related to ICT and digital materials are categorized into the "novice" or "pre-service" in J-POSTL-E while two SADs into "apprentice" or "expert," and two SADs into "practitioner" in J-POSTL. This does not suggest that English teachers at secondary schools are reluctant to use ICT in the classroom. In fact, MEXT reports (2018, 2020) 83.5% of junior high school teachers used ICT in English class in 2013 and the number increased to 96.6% in 2019. Nevertheless, it is likely that they are generally perceived as more fundamental competencies by elementary school than secondary school teachers. The emphasis on the ICT use in the classroom at elementary schools may be motivated by several factors. First, the Course of Study is explicit about using ICT and digital materials in the classroom. Second, the government-authorized English textbooks are equipped with digital content which can be accessed through QR codes using tablets or other digital devices. Finally, since 2020, computer programming has become another mandatory subject in the elementary school curriculum, and pupils have more opportunities to use ICT on their own to interact with others. It is possible that elementary school teachers are more eager and willing to use ICT in the classroom due to the rapid technological advancement and the needs to introduce digital materials.

Table 5. Use of ICT and digital materials

SADs	J-POSTL-E	J-POSTL
I can design ICT materials and activities appropriate for my children.	novice	practitioner
I can use and critically assess ICT learning programs for platforms for children.	novice	practitioner
I can select and use appropriate ICT materials and activities in the classroom which are in line with the children's interests and abilities.	novice	expert
I can manage and use instructional media efficiently (ICT, video etc.).	pre-service	apprentice

4.2.2 Teaching culture. The SADs in Table 6 are on teaching culture. These are categorized as "open" in J-POSTL, which indicates that they are not classified into any career stage for secondary school teachers in the matrix. This is because the perceptions of secondary school English teachers on these SADs were not generally positive regardless of their teaching experiences (JACET SIG, 2013; Hisamura, 2014b). One reason why those SADs were perceived less positively by secondary school teachers might be that they are mostly focused on improving learners' linguistic skills rather than intercultural competence. It was also reported that about half (46.4%) of the teachers had no overseas experience and only 27% had studied abroad before (JACET SIG, 2013, p.16). This implies that English teachers at secondary schools do not necessarily have a wide range of intercultural experiences outside Japan and they find it challenging to promote intercultural learning in the classroom.

Table 6. Teaching culture

SADs	J-POSTL-E	J-POSTL
I can create opportunities for children to explore various regions, people and cultures by using the ICT.	novice	open
I can evaluate and select a variety of texts, source materials and activities which make children aware of similarities and differences in sociocultural 'norms of behavior (customs or rules, etc.)'.	novice	open
I can evaluate and select a variety of texts, source material and activities which encourage children to reflect on the relationship with others and become aware of or understand different value systems.	novice	open
I can assess the child's ability to respond to and act	apprentice	open

appropriately in encounters with different cultures.		
I can evaluate and select activities which enhance the children's cultural awareness.	pre-service	apprentice

Fostering awareness of and interest in different cultures was found as a more fundamental competence for elementary school teachers. However, teaching culture would vary in content and depth depending on the school stage. Especially, pupils at elementary schools are still at the early stage of developing their metacognitive skills, so it might not be easy to become aware of "similarities and differences in sociocultural norms of behavior," to "understand different value systems," nor to "behave appropriately when interacting with others who have different cultures." Nevertheless, those competences as well as raising intercultural awareness were perceived as more essential competences for elementary school English language teachers. This might be because learning culture can be associated with realizing "deep learning" or "ability to learn, ability to grow as a human being, etc." in learners (Hisamura, 2018), and it is appealing to elementary school teachers who are focused on laying a foundation in young learners for communicating with others.

4.2.3 Lesson planning, learning goals and extra-curricular activities. In order to help acquire "*Shutaiteki na Manabi* or proactive learning" (MEXT, 2017a), it is essential for teachers to encourage learners to have *Gakushu no Mitoshi* (MEXT, 2017a) or an outlook for learning, particularly elementary school children. The top three descriptors in Table 7 suggest that elementary teachers should be prepared to be able to show their children clear learning goals and lesson plans or to answer questions such as "Why do we have to study English?" or "What benefits can we get if we learn English?" This kind of metacognition is crucial in promoting active engagement in children's own learning and helping them become independent learners.

Table 7. Lesson planning, learning goals, and extra-curricular activities

SADs	J-POSTL-E	J-POSTL
I can design language courses and year-round teaching programs around the requirements of the Course of Study.	pre-service	apprentice
I can set objectives for the four macro skills of listening, speaking (spoken interaction and production), reading and writing respectively, according to the focus of individual lessons and/or a period of teaching.	pre-service	apprentice

I can structure lesson plans flexibly based on the year-round teaching plans.	pre-service	apprentice
I can help to organize exchanges in cooperation with relevant resource persons and institutions.	apprentice	expert
I can recognize when and where the need for extra-curricular activities to enhance learning arises and organize them appropriately for various circumstances.	apprentice	expert

The bottom two SADs in Table 7 are concerned with organizing exchanges or extra-curricular activities with relevant resource persons and recognizing the needs for those activities. These SADs were categorized as "expert" in J-PSOTL, but as "apprentice" for elementary school teachers. This seems to suggest that elementary school teachers are expected to maximize the opportunities to organize extra-curricular activities such as interactions with international visitors or students, or field trips to increase motivation to learn English or raise interest in learning about different cultures.

4.2.4 Conducting interactive lessons with care for individual learners. Cooperative learning among learners and interactions between teachers and learners are necessary to facilitate "interactive learning" which is one of the key concepts of the CoS. The SADs in Table 8 are mostly about competences to conduct interactive lessons with care for the concentration, comprehension, and language proficiency of individual children, and they are found more fundamental in didactic competence for elementary than for secondary teachers. At secondary school, it appears that acquiring language teaching skills comes before the skills of caring for individual learners. Therefore, most of these competences in Table 8 are regarded as more appropriate to secondary teachers with comparatively longer teaching experience. For elementary teachers, building a learner-centered classroom environment and mutual understanding and trust with their children could be a priority challenge: they are expected to gain these competences at the earlier stages of their teaching career.

Table 8. Conducting interactive lessons

SADs	J-POSTL-E	J-POSTL
I can appreciate and make use of the value added to the classroom environment by children with diverse cultural backgrounds (children from overseas, children of foreign citizens, returnees, etc.).	novice	open
I can help children to identify the pronounced letters, of the alphabet and cope with difficult or unknown	novice	practitioner

vocabulary in listening activities.		
I can plan to teach elements of other subjects using the target language (cross-curricular teaching, etc.).	apprentice	open
I can ensure smooth transitions between activities and tasks for individuals, groups and the whole class.	pre-service	apprentice
I can keep and maximize the attention of children during a lesson.	pre-service	apprentice
I can encourage children to relate their knowledge of Japanese to English learning contents where and when this is helpful.	pre-service	practitioner
I can use appropriate strategies if children have trouble understanding classroom English.	pre-service	apprentice
I can explain learning content and methods in English using visual aids, gestures, demonstrations, etc.	pre-service	open

In Table 8, three "open" SADs in J-POSTL are classified into "novice" "apprentice" and "pre-service" respectively in J-POSTL-E. First, the existence of classes of students with different cultural backgrounds (the top SAD) is a reality, albeit with differences by region, in many elementary schools in Japan (MEXT, 2019). In the near future, it is very likely that this SAD will be perceived more important by secondary school teachers. Next, the third SAD from the top indicates teaching English in a manner of content and language integrated learning or CLIL. In elementary schools, cross-curricular teaching called *goka* has long been promoted in the ESCoS (MEXT, 1998, 2008, 2017a). Therefore, in pre-service teacher education courses, student teachers learn how to design and conduct *goka*. This might be the reason why this SAD is regarded as a more fundamental competence. Finally, regarding the bottom SAD, the difference of the appropriate stages between the two might indicate the differences of levels in content and methods. It requires a high proficiency of English for secondary school teachers to explain learning content and methods in English. However, elementary school teachers may find it easy to do if they use visual aids or non-verbal communication to support the learning processes of children. The remaining five SADs are on introductory level listening activities (the second SAD from the top), classroom management (the fourth SAD from the top), interaction with learners (the fourth SAD from the bottom), and classroom language (the second and third SADs from the bottom). These SADs reflect that it is crucial for elementary school teachers to have various methods, techniques or strategies to help children overcome difficulties that they encounter in learning a foreign language.

4.2.5 Assessment. Elementary school teachers need to pay attention to the developmental stages and learning process of every single child under their charge. Assessment will be

made in consideration of these factors. In other words, assessment is closely related to the result of observation of individual child growth. It is no wonder that the SADs in Table 9 are all categorized into "pre-service" in J-POSTL-E. However, in reality, it will be difficult for students of teacher training programs to acquire assessment skills because of the constraints of time and opportunities for practice of teaching. Nevertheless, these abilities to assess are found to be required of pre-service teachers, which indicates that they are strongly expected to gain at least knowledge of assessment in elementary or whole-person education.

Table 9. Assessment

SADs	J-POSTL-E	J-POSTL
I can assign grades using procedures which are reliable and transparent.	pre-service	apprentice
I can assess a child's ability to work independently and collaboratively.	pre-service	practitioner
I can use a valid grading system in my assessment of a child's performance.	pre-service	apprentice
I can deal with errors that occur in class in a way which does not disrupt the flow of the lesson or communicative activities.	pre-service	apprentice

4.3 Competences Found More Difficult for Elementary than Secondary Teachers

There are 11 SADs found to be more difficult in didactic competence for elementary than for secondary school teachers. These SADs fall into the areas of instruction of "reading," "vocabulary and grammar (including dictionary use)," and "independent learning and learning strategies."

4.3.1 Reading. Most of the J-POSTL SADs in the areas of writing, speaking, and listening were replaced by new descriptors in J-POSTL-E; therefore, the SADs in these areas were not included in the surveys. On the other hand, seven out of eight J-POSTL SADs in the reading area were modified and adapted in J-POSTL-E. Three SADs in Table 10 are found to be different in competence stages between elementary and secondary school teachers.

Table 10. Reading

SADs	J-POSTL-E	J-POSTL
I can apply appropriate ways of reading a text in class (e.g., aloud, silently, in groups etc.).	apprentice	pre-service

I can help children to develop different strategies to cope with difficult or unknown vocabulary in a text.	expert	novice
I can help children to develop reading strategies (e.g., skimming, scanning etc.) to gather information from a text.	expert	novice

For secondary school English teachers, who are likely to have more expertise in developing learners' reading skills, the SADs on reading or reading strategies are essential core competences (pre-service or novice). On the other hand, these SADs are classified as "apprentice" or "expert" levels for elementary school teachers. This is reasonable because most elementary teachers are not specialized in English. They are expected to learn and improve their English ability, particularly reading, while gaining teaching experience.

4.3.2 Teaching vocabulary and grammar including the utilization of dictionaries. It is not surprising that there is a big gap between elementary and secondary teachers in the competence stage of the SADs in Table 11. The ESCoS does not require elementary school teachers, mostly non-English teachers, to teach grammar explicitly or to teach how to use dictionaries. However, when English is taught in elementary school by teachers with specialized English education or subject teachers of English, there will be no gap.

Table 11. Vocabulary and grammar instruction

SADs	J-POSTL-E	J-POSTL
I can select and recommend appropriate dictionaries (e.g., English pictorial dictionaries, Japanese-English dictionaries) and help children learn how to use them.	expert	pre-service
I can recommend dictionaries and other reference books useful for my children.	expert	novice
I can help children learn vocabulary by paying attention to high / low frequency words or receptive / productive vocabulary.	expert	novice
I can plan activities which link grammar and vocabulary with communication.	apprentice	pre-service

4.3.3 Independent learning and learning strategies. The four SADs in Table 12 are mainly concerned about independent learning and learning strategies. The first two SADs from the top are about learners' taking an active role in planning a lesson or choosing

tasks or activities in class, which will lead to autonomous learning from the perspective of making learners aware of the responsibility for their own learning. At elementary school promoting such independent learning through English may require somewhat longer teaching experience. The third SADs is on instructing learners to use a library and Internet. Although most SADs on the use of ICT are perceived as fundamental competences for elementary school teachers as explained in 4.2.1, this SAD is perceived as more difficult because pupils are generally not competent enough to read English books on their own.

Table 12. Independent learning and learning strategies

SADs	J-POSTL-E	J-POSTL
I can encourage children's participation in a lesson whenever possible.	apprentice	pre-service
I can assist children in choosing tasks and activities according to their individual needs and interests.	practitioner	novice
I can help children use the library and the Internet for information retrieval.	apprentice	pre-service
I can help children develop appropriate learning strategies.	practitioner	novice

The bottom SAD is about developing pupils' learning strategies. Teaching learning strategies requires expertise, and it is likely that secondary school teachers generally have more areas of expertise and opportunities to teach them in the classroom than elementary school teachers.

5. Conclusion and Implications

This paper has mainly clarified the distinctive competences which elementary school English instructors need to acquire in earlier stages of their teaching career compared with secondary school English teachers. The areas of these competences are: 1. Use of ICT and digital materials; 2. development of intercultural competence; 3. Lesson planning, learning goals and extra-curricular activities; 4. skills of conducting interactive lessons with care for individual children; and 5. assessment. Regarding the areas of competences such as reading and independent learning/learning strategies, they are what elementary school teachers are recommended to take time and effort to attain.

There are practical reasons why the use of ICT and digital materials is essential for elementary school teachers. They are expected to use digital versions of the new MEXT-authorized textbooks in class and access materials through QR codes in the textbooks. Thus, elementary school teachers are expected not only to use ICT effectively in the classroom, but to help pupils use ICT themselves when they learn English.

The four SADs on teaching culture (see Table 6) are categorized as "open" in J-POSTL which indicates that classroom activities and professional development opportunities related to culture have rarely been carried out in secondary school English teaching. On the contrary, these SADs were found fundamental for elementary school teachers. This is probably because at secondary school teachers tend to have greater emphasis on developing learners' linguistic skills whereas at elementary schools developing linguistic skills and intercultural competence go hand in hand. In elementary schools in Japan, "foreign language activities" have been taught to 5th and 6th graders from 2011 to 2019. This was a mandatory subject but pupils did not receive any official grades. The goal of foreign language activities is to "form the foundation of pupils' communication abilities through foreign languages while developing the understanding of languages and cultures through various experiences, fostering a positive attitude toward communication, and familiarizing pupils with the sounds and basic expressions of foreign languages" (MEXT, 2008). Thus, it is assumed that elementary school teachers are familiar with developing pupils' understanding of languages and cultures through various experiences, which is closely associated with some elements of "deep learning."

Setting clear learning objectives, establishing a lesson plan throughout the year (Table 7), coping with pupils with different cultural backgrounds and those facing learning difficulties (Table 8), and assessing students from multiple perspectives (Table 9), are also considered as fundamental didactic competences for elementary school teachers. This shows that elementary school teachers are required to have more flexible and inclusive approach to dealing with individual pupils who have different abilities and needs. Cross-curricular teaching and extra-curricular activities also play an important role in elementary schools and teachers are expected to have didactic competences on managing this type of learning more than secondary school teachers. This implies that children have opportunities to learn other subjects (e.g., geography, history) through "foreign language activities" and to interact with others in extra-curricular activities.

In order to realize the meaningful transition from elementary to secondary school English education, we need to take into account these differences in aspects of teaching English between elementary and secondary school teachers. Paying attention only to linguistic aspects such as grammar or vocabulary would be insufficient. Based on the findings in this study, we would like to make the following three suggestions for English educators and stakeholders.

・To university faculty in charge of elementary school English teacher training programs: It is often the case that those teacher trainers who are specialized in secondary EFL teacher training courses design the curriculum or syllabi and/or teach English methodology of elementary English instructor training courses. In such a case, they should give due consideration to the characteristics in didactic competences of elementary school teachers as discussed in this paper. It should

be avoided to bring the know-how of teaching in secondary into elementary school without any adjustments. In addition, it is pointed out that English proficiency of pre-service teachers has much to be improved in order that they can teach English as a required subject (Yoneda, 2017, p.12), thus teacher trainers need to help student teachers to acquire enough language skills to manage English classes. Nevertheless, the trainers should be careful not to merely provide specialized knowledge that is required in teaching English at secondary school but might not be applicable to the elementary school teachers.

・To secondary school English teachers who teach at elementary schools and elementary subject teachers of English: According to the report issued by MEXT (2020), out of the 82,590 respondents who teach English at elementary schools, 55,234 teachers are homeroom teachers who are expected to teach all the subjects, and 12,981 (about 20%) teachers are called *senka* or subject teachers of English which includes both secondary English teachers and those who have a diploma to teach English in elementary schools. Since these *senka* teachers have more specialized knowledge and higher proficiency in English, they are likely to bring the view of secondary English education into primary education. However, as this study reveals, there are distinctive differences between elementary and secondary English education. The teachers who are trained to specialize in teaching English need to consider the cognitive and affective factors in children, analyze English textbooks full of digital contents, and design and set appropriate goals and lesson plans for children with different needs and backgrounds.

・For collaboration between elementary and secondary school teachers of English: It is important that teachers do not get overwhelmed by the number of SADs in J-POSTL and J-POSTL-E. We recommend that teachers choose several SADs at a time and reflect on their practice for a certain period of time. Then, they can exchange their ideas or improvements that they have made in their teaching with colleagues at professional development opportunities. J-POSTL and J-POSTL-E can also be used as a tool to bridge the teachers at elementary and secondary schools. Likewise, some of the SADs discussed in this paper can be selected and discussed when elementary and secondary school teachers have a chance to meet and discuss different perspectives on teaching English to explore effective ways of bridging English education at elementary and secondary schools.

English was officially introduced as a mandatory subject to 5th and 6th graders in 2020. To maximize the benefits of earlier implementation of English language teaching, teachers at elementary and secondary schools need to recognize the different characteristics revealed in this paper. It is urgent that elementary schools as well as pre-

service teachers have opportunities to develop their didactic competences appropriately and efficiently to promote "proactive, interactive and deep learning" in young learners.

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【Research Note】
Lesson Study in Teacher Community and its Problems: Implications for Practitioner Research Conducted by English Language Teachers

Akiko Takagi and Takeo Tanaka

Abstract

Practitioner research conducted by a teacher promotes teacher growth and professional development. How the practitioner research should be conducted and promoted is a subject of discussion not only in general teacher education but also in the field of English language education. We regard practitioner research as a type of research that teachers conduct voluntarily to understand and/or improve their practice in their own classroom context. Most practitioner research that has been conducted in Japanese schools has taken the form of lesson study. However, as lesson studies are not always conducted by teachers willingly, professional development through lesson study in school has some limitations. Thus, this paper focuses on lesson study in school and revisits lesson study in terms of a "learning community" and "professional learning community," which are well-known concepts of in-school teacher communities. It also discusses the possibility of a teacher community in and out of school, where teachers share their practitioner research voluntarily with one another and engage in collaborative reflection.

Keywords
practitioner research, lesson study, learning community, professional learning community, English teacher

1. Introduction

It is widely acknowledged that practitioner research conducted by teachers contributes to teacher growth and professional development, and there is a growing interest in practitioner research in the field of English language education in Japan. Practitioner research takes various forms. For example, Hanks (2017) includes lesson study, action research, exploratory practice, reflective practice, and narrative inquiry as kinds of practitioner research in the context of English as a second or foreign language education. Of these, action research and exploratory practice have been employed widely among practitioners.

The authors started a research project on practitioner research approved by the Chubu English Language Education Society in 2014. Since then, the members of the project, including the authors, have explored various forms of practitioner research

collaboratively and refined and disseminated a practitioner research design. The definition of practitioner research in this paper follows that of Tanaka et al. (2019):

> Practitioner research is research conducted by teachers on "their own initiative" in the classroom contexts "individually or collaboratively" using a "systematic" approach which is made "public" for the "purpose" of teachers' understanding of their practice and/or improvement of teaching, which contributes to the improvement of the quality of the teachers' practice. (p. 18)

Many practitioner studies conducted in schools in Japan under this definition are categorized as lesson studies. However, lesson study, which is not always willingly undertaken by teachers, has some limitations regarding teacher growth. In order to disseminate the meaning and possibilities of practitioner research as well as support teachers who engage in such research, it should not be limited to lesson study in school. In addition, we should note the importance of a teacher community both in and out of school, where practitioners discuss their practices and practitioner research and reflect on them collaboratively.

However, there is little research discussing practitioner research in terms of teacher communities in and out of school in the field of English language education in Japan. In addition, there is a scarcity of research dealing with the theoretical framework of teacher communities for English language teachers. Thus, this paper focuses on lesson study in school, providing an overview of its characteristics and framing it in terms of "learning community" and "professional learning community," which are widely used concepts to explain teacher community in general education research. Based on the problems that emerge, we also discuss how practitioner research can be conducted in a teacher community to promote English language teachers' professional development, the possibilities of out-of-school teaching community, and how collaborative reflection should be enhanced.

2. Characteristics of Lesson Study in School

2.1 Characteristics of Lesson Study in School

The concept of lesson study is broad and varied. Lesson study is an umbrella term that includes the lesson plan, study of teaching materials, demonstration lesson, and discussion meeting after a research lesson. In this paper, the term lesson study includes the series of activities mentioned above.

Kawano (2020, p. 46) categorized lesson study in terms of agents who conduct a lesson study: research or training related to practice by a practitioner, scientific research by a researcher, and collaborative research by a practitioner and a researcher. This paper focuses on lesson study as research or training related to practice by a practitioner in

accordance with Tanaka et al.'s (2019) definition presented in section 1. According to Kawano (2020), lesson study in this context is "the place where teachers learn about teaching methods and the form of their lessons from one another through their own practice as well as where teachers do research on their own practice (p. 46)." Lesson study is sometimes carried out voluntarily by individual teachers based on their own practice, but in most cases it is planned and managed by a school through schoolwide in-school teacher training.

Lesson study as practitioner research started in the 1880s and has developed and spread to the present (Kimura, 2019). The history of lesson study can be divided into ten periods. In the third period (from 1897 to 1911), lesson study was institutionalized, and teachers' discretionary power and autonomy decreased. In the seventh period, a top-down training system by public administration was established, so the procedures and methods of lesson study were manualized and standardized. In the eighth period (from 1975 to 1989), lesson study was formalized and became a one-shot event due to teachers' busyness. In the ninth period (from 1989 to 1998), a paradigm shift of lesson study occurred, and it was reevaluated as a collaborative and reflective case study; in the tenth period (from 1998 to 2015), it spread overseas.

According to Akita and Lewis (2018), the English translation of the Japanese term "jyugyo kenkyu" is "lesson study" (p. 12), but the terms do not have the same meaning. Lesson study was introduced in 1990s overseas (e.g., the U.S.) and spread to over 20 countries after the 2000s. Initially, some teachers regarded lesson study as practice to improve a lesson plan. However, educators soon realized that just improving a lesson is not satisfactory, and creating a culture where teachers learn from one another is important. Thus, not only individual teachers' lesson improvement but also the way they collaborate was emphasized (Morishita, 2012). In contrast to "jyugyo kenkyu," which has a diverse meaning, the concept of "lesson study" is more focused. Morishita (2012, 2015) used the term "lesson study[1]" when referring to "jyugyo kenkyu" in the framework of a "learning community." According to her, the term "jyugyo kenkyu" itself does not connote a school reform, and the term "in-school training" does not reflect the aspects of a lesson in a strong sense. Meanwhile, the term "lesson study" focuses on improvement of a lesson and includes aspects of a school reform.

2.2 Reality of Lesson Study in School

What is the reality of lesson study in Japan? The National Institute for Educational Policy Research of Japan (NIER) (2010) conducted a survey on in-school teacher research, including lesson study, as a part of a national survey of student achievement and learning situations, targeting 2,500 elementary, middle, and high schools all over Japan (return rate was 70.5%.). This section presents a summary of the results of the survey in terms of organization for conducting in-school teacher research, problems of in-school teacher research, organization for conducting lesson study, and discussion meetings following a

research lesson. The results showed that 90.5% of elementary schools, 79.1 % of middle schools, 26.8% of public high schools, and 16.9% of private high schools organized a school-wide committee for in-school teacher research. In addition, 55.6% of elementary schools, 45.1% of middle schools, 8.3% of public high schools, and 6.5% of private high schools set up several sub-committees according to the research theme. This indicates that most elementary and middle schools engaged in in-school teacher research as a whole school, while high schools did not.

In terms of the most frequent problems of in-school teacher research, 33.9% of elementary schools, 46.9% of middle schools, 55.5% of public high schools, and 57.1% of private high schools reported that teachers do not have time to work on in-school teacher research because of their busyness. The other frequent responses were "The research is not fully persistent nor developmental," "Study of teaching materials and preparation of lesson plans are insufficient," and "Discussion following a research lesson is insufficient."

Regarding organization for conducting lesson study, 99.3% of elementary schools, 93.5% of middle schools, 81.5% of public high schools, and 72.7% of private high schools mentioned that "several teachers observe a research lesson[1] and have a discussion meeting after the lesson." The average frequency of research lessons per year reported by most schools was between six and ten in elementary schools and one and five in middle and high schools. In 72.1% of elementary schools, 44.9% of middle schools, 24.2% of public high schools, and 25.0% of private high schools, all the teachers have an opportunity to conduce a research lesson at least once per year, indicating that the frequency of research lessons decreases as the grade increases. The average frequency of a research lesson conducted per teacher was once a year for 70 to 80% of all schools.

With regard to a discussion meeting following a research lesson, the most frequent response in elementary and middles schools was "only whole school discussing meetings are conducted" (67.3% in elementary schools and 44.2% in middle schools). Moreover, 41.5% of public high schools and 48.2% of private high schools answered that "only group discussion meetings are conducted," which was the most frequent response. In addition, only 20% of high schools reported discussing a lesson plan for a research lesson beforehand. These results indicate that lesson study is not conducted at the whole-school level in high schools in general.

2.3 Reality of Discussion Meetings Following a Research Lesson

According to the NIER (2010) survey mentioned above, one of the problems of in-school teacher research was that "discussion following a research lesson is insufficient." It is assumed that one reason for this problem is related to the way of having a discussion meeting. For example, Kishino (2012) pointed out that observers of a lesson tend to only make a superficial remark on the lesson or criticize teachers' teaching skills harshly. According to Murayama (2008), setting points for discussion is the key in a discussion

meeting. Otherwise, the meeting will only result in exchanges of impressions about a lesson, which will not lead to a constructive discussion.

Relatedly, Tanaka et al. (2020) also clarified the challenges of a discussion meeting based on a focus group interview of English language teachers and researchers. First, teachers who conduct a research lesson have difficulty in sharing their teaching context with all the teachers in a limited time. Second, both the teacher who conducts a lesson and the observers cannot deepen their learning because of the gap in perspective between them. For instance, English language teachers find it difficult to share a subject-specific view with the teachers of the other subjects when they conduct a research lesson, and they sometimes cannot carry out a deeper discussion about the lesson.

3. Teacher Learning in Teacher Communities in School

3.1 Teacher Learning in Lesson Study and Teacher Communities in School

This section deals with lesson study, discussing "learning community" and "professional learning community" as concepts of teacher community in school. As we saw in section 2.1, lesson study is viewed as a form of in-school teacher training, and teachers are required to collaborate with their colleagues. Thus, we need to consider how teachers relate to one another, how they generate new knowledge on their teaching practice, and what influence lesson study has on building and developing a teacher community where intricate factors are intertwined.

Sakamoto (2007) notes two effects of lesson study on teachers from the perspective of teacher communities in school. First, teachers deepen their reflection on their teaching through collaborative reflection in a dialogue with their colleagues based on an observed lesson. Second, lesson study changes teacher relationships and promotes respect and collaborative learning among teachers in school. This leads to the promotion of collegiality and teacher learning on a daily basis. Regarding teachers' professional development through lesson study, Matsuki et al. (2004) argue that teachers learn new knowledge and skills when they reconstruct issues they are aware of in an educational context. They also state that when a teacher demonstrates a research lesson and observers verbalize what they see and feel, the teachers engage in reflective practice and grow collaboratively through mutual communication.

Shulman and Shulman (2004) present teacher learning at the individual and community levels and the relationship of learning at both levels as a conceptual framework of teacher community (Figure 1). The inner layer shows teacher learning at an individual level and consists of motivation, vision, understanding, and practice. Individual teachers develop a clearer vision of student and teacher learning in class and school community, are motivated to improve their own teaching practice and reform their school, and pursue improved understanding of their curriculum, pedagogical knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge. At the same time, they need to continue their practice

and learn by trial and error in a complicated context. In this process, teachers need reflection.

The outer layer shows teacher learning at a community level and consists of shared commitment, support, and incentives, shared vision or ideology, knowledge base, and community of practice. Teachers as community engage in practice and collaborative reflection, and teacher learning at the individual and community levels has a reciprocal relationship with each other.
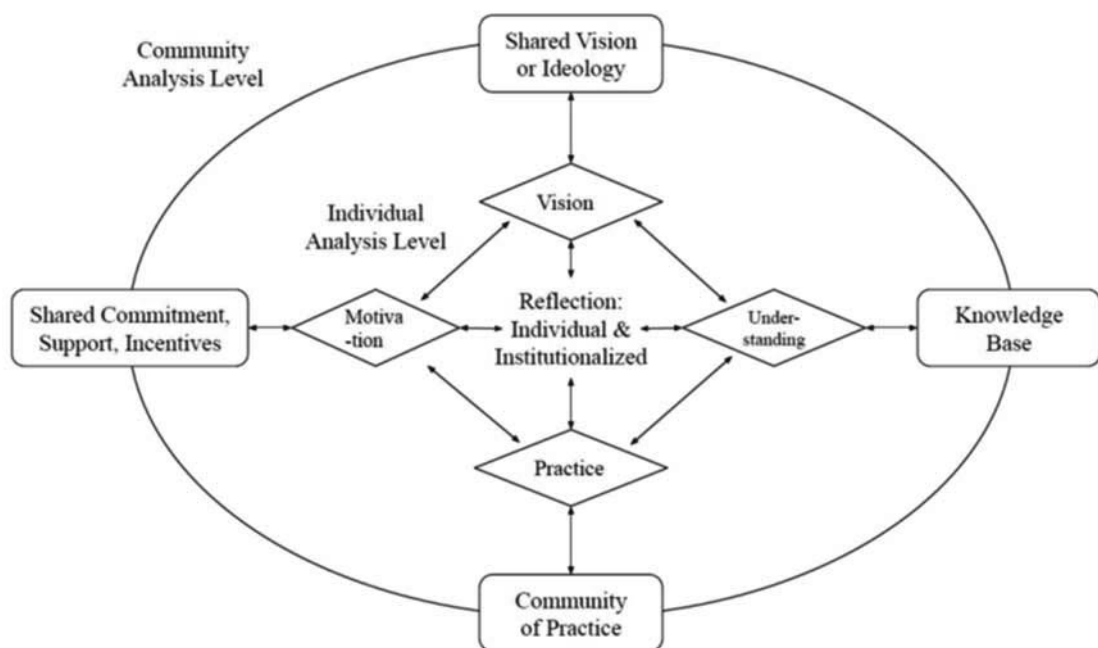

Figure 1. Teacher learning at individual and community levels
(Adapted from Shulman & Shulman, 2004, p. 266)

In this section, we have presented an overview of the relationship between teacher learning in lesson study and teacher community. In the next section, we will summarize the concepts of "learning community" and "professional learning community," which are often referred to as teacher community in school.

3.2 Two Concepts of Teacher Community in School

3.2.1 Learning community. Teacher and learner learning in teacher communities in school have been discussed extensively in the field of educational methods (Oda, 2011). The most well-known concept in Japan is "learning community" (LC), which connotes a vision of school reform and philosophy (Sato, 2012, p. 15). The main sources of LC's vision, philosophy, and activity system are a social democratic philosophy based on philosophies proselytized by Rousseau, Spinoza, Marx, and Dewy; a new education movement influenced by Dewy, Freinet, Piaget, Vygotsky, and Wallon; a tradition of

lesson study in Japan; a trend of education reform overseas; revolutionary academic and art movement; and Sato's (2018) experience and knowledge of all of the above.

Sato's (2012, p. 17) vision of LC refers to "schools where not only students but also teachers as a professional learn and grow collaboratively as well as parents and local people are expected to participate in and collaborate for school reform." Philosophies in LC include "public philosophy," "philosophy of democracy," and "philosophy of excellence" (Sato, 2012, p. 17). In public philosophy, teachers are required to open their class to the public at least once a year. In philosophy of democracy, it is recommended to build a relationship of listening to one another and have a dialogic communication among students, students and teachers, teachers respectively. In terms of philosophy of excellence, teachers should strive for graciousness and subtlety in their practice and seek the best practice in teaching by increasing the level of task they should be able to solve under any condition.

The activity system for LC consists of "collaborative learning," "building professional learning community and collegiality," and "parents' and local people's learning participation for reform" (Sato, 2012, p. 21). The term "collaborative learning[2]" here is clearly distinguished from "cooperative learning," which refers to small group work through which teaching skills are formulated. Collaborative learning based on Vygotsky's theory of the zone of proximal development is regarded as "an active, collaborative, and reflective learning which is recognized as a cultural and social practice through a dialogical communication" (Sato, 2012, p. 32). In order to secure students' collaborative learning, whole-class and pair learning are employed in low grades in elementary school, while a co-gender group of four students are utilized in higher grades in elementary schools and in middle and high schools. In collaborative learning, two kinds of tasks are designed in class: a common textbook-level task that any student can work on and a challenging task beyond a textbook level.

As of 2015, more than 3,000 elementary, middle, and high schools were engaging in teaching improvement and school reform under the LC framework nationally. Currently, more than 1,000 research lessons open to the public are held in about 300 pilot schools, which take the initiatives for school reform in Japan (Sato, 2018). In addition, national networks support an LC. There are more than 100 supervisors and 50 study groups that hold monthly meetings.

3.2.2 Professional learning community. The concept of a "professional learning community" (PLC) is similar to that of an LC (Oda, 2011, p. 211). PLC is widely used overseas in reference to teacher communities in school and has recently attracted attention in Japan as well. According to Tsuyuguchi (2013), in a PLC "teachers share an educational mission and visions related to teaching and learning, focus on students' academic achievement and learning activity, and share and build knowledge about students' current situation, context, and methods of improvement collaboratively through

observation of one another's class and continuous reflective dialogue" (p. 67). LCs and PLCs are similar in terms of teachers' collaboration based on a culture of collegiality. However, LCs place more emphasis on students' collaboration in order to build a smooth teaching system, whereas PLCs regard teachers as an agent of school reform and includes the aspects of school administration (Fukuhata, 2017).

According to Fox and Poultney (2020), PLCs can be traced back to Dewey's (1933) notions of reflective practice and extended to school-based development research based on the ideas of the teacher as a researcher (Bolam et al., 2005), the reflective practitioner (Schön, 1984), and learning organizations (Senge, 1990). After adopting terminology from the business sector in the 1990s (e.g., Hord, 1997; DuFour, 2004), PLCs spread widely in the U.S. in the 2000s as a mechanism for school reform. Subsequently, it was developed in other English-speaking countries as part of an international school improvement and effectiveness movement (Hargreaves, A., 2007; Stoll and Louis, 2007). In England, PLCs came into focus through the large-scale research project entitled *Creating and Sustaining Effective PLCs* (Bolam et al., 2005). These developments indicate that the focus of PLC is not on students' collaborative learning but on the reform of teacher organizations.

Although there is no broad international consensus regarding the definition of PLC, researchers agree that the term refers to "a group of people sharing and critically interrogating their practice in an ongoing, reflective, collaborative, inclusive, learning-oriented, growth-promoting way" (Stoll et al., 2006, p. 223). Moreover, Stoll et al. (2006) apply PLC in a school context, citing Hord (1997, p. 1), noting that in a PLC "the teachers in a school and its administrators continuously seek and share learning, and act on their learning. The goal of their actions is to enhance their effectiveness as professionals for the students' benefit" (p. 223). PLCs contain five components, which are mutually related to "shared beliefs, values, and vision," "shared and supportive leadership," "collective learning and its application," "supportive conditions," and "shared personal practice" (Hord & Sommers, 2008, p.8). In order to build a PLC that includes these components, the roles of principals are crucial.

The application of PLC in a Japanese context is limited to theory, and little empirical research has been conducted (Fukuhata, 2017). Sakata (2013) reviews discussions in previous research in a Japanese context on teacher professional development, pointing out that the position of PLC is not established in Japan. Hence, further research is required to investigate the learning process and mechanism of learning effectiveness in PLC.

4. Lesson Study in Terms of Learning Communities

4.1 Lesson Study in Learning Communities

We will take a look at lesson study in terms of LCs in this section. All teachers in school where lesson study is conducted in the LC framework are required to open their classes to the public, learn from one another in a discussion meeting following a research lesson, and build collegiality for the purpose of professional development (Sato, 2012). The core of teacher professional development in an LC is the integration of practice and theory, so lesson study as a case study plays an important role. In an LC, all the teachers are expected to open their lessons to the public and engage in many reflection-centered discussion meetings following a research lesson because it is thought that such activities will lead to a positive outcome. Thus, schools that work on a school reform involving an LC conduct lesson studies between 30 and 100 or more times. In order to activate each lesson study, individual teachers set up their own research themes. Additionally, teachers in neighboring schools are invited to join a research study and a discussion meeting at least once a year. The purpose of public study meetings is to learn from one other based on a shared lesson and energize lesson study in school. The collaboration of teachers and supervisors or researchers is a key condition to energize a discussion meeting following a research lesson and to substantiate a school reform.

According to Sato (2018), the content in lesson study in the LC framework focuses on teachers' "collaborative learning," not "evaluation and advice" about the lesson. The purpose is shifted from "seeking for an excellent lesson" to "building collegiality." In this way, teachers can depart from a traditional view toward a lesson and a traditional procedure of conducting a discussion meeting. In other words, a new style of lesson study has been established by changing the view from how to teach to how to learn. Therefore, lesson study in the LC framework should be distinguished from a traditional lesson study as one form of in-school teacher training in general.

Table 1 summarizes the differences in the characteristics of traditional lesson study and lesson study in LCs according to Sato (2012). Compared with traditional lesson study, lesson study in an LC has some advantages, such as the positioning of teacher training in a daily practice, improvement of teaching practice based on frequent lesson study, establishment of a research theme by an individual teacher, and equal participation of teachers in discussion meetings to focus on students' learning. In order to clarify the characteristics of lesson study in an LC, Sato (2012) discusses the differences between two types of lesson study; there are other various forms of lesson study, although he does not refer to them.

Table 1. Characteristics of traditional lesson study and lesson study in an LC

	Traditional lesson study	Lesson study in an LC
Positioning of lesson study	Teachers work on a research activity intensively when their school is designated as a research site. However, their activity does not continue when their research period finishes.	Teacher training is positioned in a daily practice.
Numbers of lesson study	Research lessons are held about three times a year, and the outcomes are compiled in a written report that few people read.	All the teachers open their lessons to the public. Lesson study is held between 30 and over 100 times a year.
Setting of a research theme	A school establishes a common research theme, but individual teachers rarely set up their own theme.	Individual teachers set up their own research theme. Individual teachers support the research of one another.
Focus in lesson study	In order to test a hypothesis, collaborative lesson planning involving several teachers is emphasized.	Teachers who conduct a lesson design the lesson by themselves. Discussion after a lesson is given more emphasis.
Objects observed	How to teach.	Students' learning and teachers' response.
Participants' observation	Observers observe a lesson in the back of the class, standing in line.	Participants observe a lesson in various places in a class, where they can view subtleties of individual students' actions and utterances as well as the teacher's response.
How to conduct a discussion meeting	Observers evaluate positive and negative aspects of a lesson and offer advice, focusing on teaching materials, the lesson procedure, and teacher's questions and instruction. There is an unequal proportion of observers who actively participate in discussion and those who do not.	Participants reflect on and consider successful and difficult aspects of students' learning and possibilities in detail based on the students' learning in class. All the participants have a chance to make at least one comment.

Purpose of an open study meeting	Teachers in charge of lesson study present a research outcome.	All the participants learn from one another by opening the usual classes to energize lesson study in school.

4.2 Problems of Lesson Study in Terms of Learning Communities

Lesson study in LCs, which focuses on students' collaborative learning, has some problems. Moriwaki (2014) points out the following three problems. First, lesson study in LCs respects teachers' uniqueness and variety in their practice. However, actual lessons are systemized to use small-group learning and challenging tasks beyond a textbook level, which limits the teachers' uniqueness and variety in their practice.

Second, teachers are required to open their lessons to the public and have discussion meetings focusing on students' learning. Because of the time limits of the discussion, there is no guarantee that collaborative reflection will occur in the meetings, and teachers' reflection may be limited to individual reflection based on their subjectivity. Lesson study in LCs is unlikely to fully contribute to teachers' professional development in terms of interpretation of teaching materials and subject expertise.

The third problem is that the class becomes the object of observation. When observers are in class, teaching practice can be different from typical daily practice. In other words, both teachers and students will be influenced by the existence of observers. There is a high possibility that "teachers face observers' eyes not students in front of them" (Moriwaki, 2014, p. 139).

Another problem is that conducting between 30 and over 100 lesson studies per year places too much burden on busy teachers. According to the study by NIER (2010) mentioned in section 2.2, teachers' busyness was the biggest problem related to in-school teacher research. This indicates that preparing for and conducting a research lesson will be too great of a burden for teachers. In fact, some teachers are unwilling or feel obliged to conduct a lesson, and they do not engage in lesson study voluntarily (Tanaka, et al., 2020). Another problem is that inviting a supervisor and a researcher to participate in lesson study is a prerequisite for school reform. When schools do not have access to a professional who promotes the ideas of LCs, they encounter difficulties in improving teaching and school reform.

We have reviewed lesson study in LCs and the associated problems. Although lesson study in the framework of an LC overcomes some problems of traditional lesson studies, complying with the LC system creates new problems.

5. Lesson Study in Terms of Professional Learning Communities

5.1 Relationship of Lesson Study and Professional Learning Communities

In this section, we will examine the relationship between lesson study and PLCs, where teachers are regarded as an agent of school reform, and include aspects of school administration. Kimura (2019) states that the promotion of practice based on teacher collaboration enhances collegiality, which is a source of teachers' social capital, helps to build a learning organization, and nurtures the culture of the PLC. However, engaging in lesson study itself does not build a PLC unconditionally because in lesson studies which can build PLC, teachers need to design a dialogue and discussion based on the evidence of students' learning in order to secure all students' learning and growth and to encourage teachers' collaborative and mutual care. In addition, schools must alter and adjust the focus of lesson studies according to their developmental process to mature the culture of the PLC in the long term.

What are the factors that promote the construction of a PLC? Chichibu (2014) suggests that lesson study in school builds a PLC, considering the relationship between lesson study in school and PLCs (Figure 2) based on the study by NIER (2010). According to the results of a cross-tabulation of several items, there was a correlation between methods of lesson study and communication among teachers, quality of teachers' instruction, and students' academic ability. A significant correlation shows that elementary schools are involved in more advanced and developed practices than middle and high schools in terms of building PLCs.
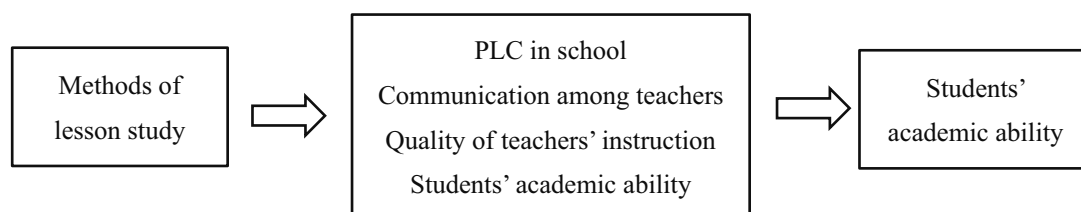

Figure 2. Relationship between lesson study in school and PLCs
(Chichibu, 2014, p. 255)

Chichibu (2014) discusses the relationship between lesson study and PLCs in terms of the research theme, research organization, and system for discussion of a lesson plan. First, when elementary schools set up not only a common school research theme but also a research theme for individual teachers, and when middle schools set up a common school theme, both the quality of teachers' instruction and students' academic ability improve. Second, communication among teachers becomes more active when elementary schools set up not only a school-wide research team but also a small research team that

deals with various problems. The same holds for middle schools when they set up a school-wide research team. Third, when teachers discuss a lesson plan collaboratively, principals give advice in elementary schools, and subject teachers or teachers in the same grade discuss a lesson plan in middle schools, communication among teachers is enhanced.

Next, we will look at another study that investigated the relationship of PLCs in school with teachers' effectiveness of instruction. Tsuyuguchi (2013) conducted a survey on the influence of a PLC in school on teachers' effectiveness of instruction in 33 public elementary and middle schools in Japan. The questionnaire consisted of a measurement of teachers' effectiveness of instruction and a measurement of PLC. The factor analysis of teachers' effectiveness of instruction extracted two factors: ability to conduct an effective lesson (the teacher's understanding of the students, basic instruction skills, and learning environment) and ability to design a lesson (interpretation of teaching materials and ability in lesson planning). As for PLC, three factors were extracted: "sharing mission and responsibility" (sharing educational mission and vision toward learning with colleagues), "public reflection norm" (making practice in public and a reflective reflection) and "collegiality" (sharing of information, mutual trust, and mutual support). The results of multi-level analysis indicated that PLCs in school do not have a direct influence on teachers' effective instruction. Moreover, daily improvement of teaching in a small team for lesson study is more effective for teachers than school-wide lesson study. Specifically, conducting lesson study with a small team of subject teachers, teachers in the same grade, or teachers who share the same theme as a daily routine helps teachers to realize the meaning of PLCs and improve their instruction skills.

5.2 Problems of Lesson Study in Terms of Professional Learning Communities

PLCs emphasize teacher professional development in school. Considering this, lesson study in a PLC has the following three problems. The first problem is the limitation of lesson study to in-school teacher training. The purpose of most lesson studies has been in-school teacher training, so all teachers in school are forced to participate in it. Lesson study can be successful when administrators and all the teachers share a clear goal and work together toward it. However, some teachers may be unwilling to engage in lesson study. Additionally, we should consider that a gap may exist between the common research theme in school and teachers' own problems they would like to solve in class. For instance, Miyazaki (2019) points out based on his own experience as a junior high school English teacher that, when a common research theme is set up in school, individual teachers tend to be confined to the theme.

The second problem is related to professional development in terms of subject expertise. The study by NIER (2010) showed that lesson study is actively conducted in elementary and middle schools but not in high schools, illustrated by the fact that only 30% of high schools set up in-school teacher training systems. In addition, lesson study

is mainly conducted in a small-group team, not as a school-wide activity in high schools. One of the reasons is likely that advanced subject knowledge is required in high schools. Teachers in elementary school teach many subjects, so it is not difficult for teachers to share their practices with one another. Thus, there is no obstacle to conducting school-wide lesson study and discussion meetings. On the contrary, more advanced subject knowledge is required for teachers in middle and high schools, so when teachers engage in lesson study and deepen their discussions, they must have not only pedagogical knowledge but also subject content knowledge.

The third problem is related to the school environment in which lesson study leads to the construction of a PLC. As Tsuyuguchi (2013) shows, promotion of PLCs itself does not immediately result in an improvement in teachers' teaching skills. In order to enhance PLCs where school reform is promoted, the way in which lesson study is conducted and shared is the key. Accordingly, we should consider setting a meaningful research theme for individual teachers, performing lesson study and discussion meetings with a small team of teachers in the same subject or the same grade, and engaging in meaningful and collaborative reflection. Discussion in a team and collaborative reflection are difficult when collegiality is not well established. Further, in a small school, teachers will have difficulty forming a lesson study team with teachers of the same subject or the same grade.

Having reviewed the relationship between PLCs and lesson study and the associated problems, we conclude that, although lesson study is related to building a PLC, it has some limitations in terms of in-school teacher training and the development of teachers' subject expertise.

6. Possibility of New Teacher Communities That Contribute to the Growth and Professional Development of English Language Teachers

6.1 Teacher Communities in and out of School Where Teachers Share Their Practice Voluntarily

The common problem of lesson study in LCs and PLCs is that, since lesson study is conducted as in-school teacher training, teachers' voluntary and active participation is not guaranteed.

Lesson study has a long history in Japanese schools, which should be respected. However, when it is held only a few times a year or if teachers are passive, teachers' teaching skills will not improve. In addition, the increasing number of lesson study sessions imposes a burden on teachers. When we consider teacher growth and professional development in the long term, we should not be confined to only the form of traditional lesson study in school. Ideally, teachers should work on their practitioner research voluntarily at their own pace based on the theme they set up and share their practice collaboratively in a teacher community.

Tanaka et al. (2020) created a guidebook for practitioner research, whose main target is English language teachers. In their guidebook, they claim that practitioner research, consisting of "questions," "data," and "analysis and interpretation," is a process through which teachers themselves seek answers to questions that have emerged from their daily teaching practice. When we view practitioner research in this way, lesson study in which other teachers observe a lesson is not simply a method for improving teaching practice. Sharing teachers' questions, data, analysis, and interpretation with other teachers will also enhance English language teachers' autonomous professional development. Data can include students' test scores, questionnaires, worksheets, students' reflective comments, and teacher journals. Teachers can understand or change their practices through trial and error or continuous reflection based on the data obtained in daily practice. Teacher communities where collaborative reflection is shared can be run voluntarily by teachers in and out of school.

6.2 Intercommunication Between Communities in and out of School That Contributes to the Development of Teachers' Subject Expertise

Another problem of traditional lesson study is the difficulty of improving teachers' subject expertise. Although various subject teachers exist in school, a research theme set up by a school does not specialize in one subject but rather deals with an overarching theme. It is also possible that teachers will be unable to deepen their subject content knowledge or receive feedback from a viewpoint of subject content knowledge when a school has few teachers or no experienced teachers in the same subject. In order to overcome such problems, it is important to consider a teacher community outside of school.

Lave and Wenger (1991) proposed the concept of "Community of Practice (CoP)" (p. 29) to explain voluntary learning in an informal setting. The terms CoP and PLC are sometimes used interchangeably (Vangrieken et al., 2017). However, these terms should be distinguished clearly from each other because a CoP is not limited to a community in school. Becoming a member of a CoP is especially meaningful for teachers who work for a school with a lack of collegiality or who cannot obtain ample feedback from colleagues in the same subject in a small school. Moreover, teachers gain different perspectives on their practice through communication with teachers in other schools in various contexts. This provides teachers with opportunities to take another look at their own practice and can lead to changes in their practice (Niesz, 2017). Additionally, teachers can bring new perspectives gained in a teacher community out of school into a teacher community in school.

Tanaka (2019) conducted several interviews with three English language teachers in the same school over a few years to investigate the relationship between the development of their pedagogical and subject content knowledge and teacher communities in and out of school. The teachers belonged to several different communities out of school. Two of

them were members of two different communities related to English language education. The other teacher belonged to a community of English language education and a teacher education community in graduate school. All three teachers reflected on their teaching practice individually from both educational and research perspectives in English language education in their communities, shared their learning with their other two colleagues in school, and created a new dialogue and stimulus. This is a good example of enhancing collaborative reflection within the same subject by giving back learning from a community out of school to a community in school.

6.3 Collaborative Learning in a Teacher Community and out of School

Based on the problems of lesson study in PLCs, it was suggested that teachers should ensure constructive, critical, and collaborative reflection when they share their practice. With regard to this, Tanaka et al. (2020) imply that in a successful discussion meeting following a research lesson "when participants engage in reflection on the issues which can occur also in their context with a teacher who demonstrates a lesson, and explore remedial measures for the issues in the lesson with the other participants collaboratively, the participants can manifest the problems in their own practice, which is a meaningful learning" (p. 35).

In traditional lesson study, a discussion meeting following a research lesson is the main place for collaborative reflection. In order to deepen teachers' collaborative reflection in a teacher community both in and out of school, we can refer to two measures suggested by Tanaka et al. (2020). First, the perspective and objective of a lesson should be shared. At the beginning of a discussion meeting, teachers need to explain their teaching context, what problems they have with their practice in general and a particular lesson observed, and what they would like to specifically discuss about their practice. This helps the participants to make the focus of discussion clear.

Second, teachers who share their lesson and all the participants should learn from one another. To realize this outcome, we should create an environment in which the participants are able to express their candid opinions on level ground with an understanding of the perspectives and objectives of a lesson. For example, it is recommended that teachers discuss how to hold a constructive meeting beforehand, considering the order of expressing opinions, the time schedule, and the ways of discussion.

A discussion meeting after a lesson is useful for a collaborative reflection to some extent, but the time is limited. Thus, we should consider how we can have a regular cycle of collaborative reflection in our teaching practice. Matsuki et al. (2004, p. 34) propose setting up three opportunities, "an opportunity to share implicit knowledge," "an opportunity to change implicit knowledge into tacit knowledge and accumulate it," and "an opportunity to make a discussion based on an open lesson and written record" to promote collaborative reflection as part of long-term lesson study. This allows the

teachers to follow a cycle of sharing, verbalizing, organizing, and practicing. More concretely, four or five teachers of different subjects observe one another's lessons regularly and share their thoughts in an open forum on the Internet. Subsequently, the teachers have a discussion based on the lesson observed and the written record on the online forum. In this model, teachers have regular opportunities to verbalize their implicit knowledge and reorganize their own practice in light of their colleagues' verbalizations. This cycle can lead to deepening collaborative reflection. When teachers get together voluntarily and autonomously in a teacher community in or out of school, even if it is a small group, they will be able to continue such sustainable collective reflection following the process mentioned above.

7. Conclusion

This study reconsidered lesson study in terms of LCs and PLCs, which are well-known concepts of in-school teacher communities. Then, based on the problems revealed, we discussed the possibility of a community in and out of school that contributes to the growth and professional development of English language teachers. More concretely, we referred to teacher communities where teachers share their practitioner research voluntarily in communities in school and out of school and presented a method for collaborative reflection in a teacher community. Further research is still needed on what kinds of support are necessary for English language teachers to encourage them to engage in professional development in a teacher community in and out of school in collaboration with teachers of other subjects.

Notes

1. "Research lesson" here means a lesson that is made public for the purpose of studying it as a process of lesson study.
2. Sato (2012) translated "collaborative learning" into "kyodoteki manabi" and "cooperative learning" into "kyoryokuteki manabi" and pointed out the confusion in translation among researchers. A group of Japanese educational psychologists who promoted buzz learning translated "cooperative learning" as "kyodoteki manabi" and "collaborative learning" as "kyodo gakushu" or "kyocho gakushu." In this paper, the distinction between collaborative and "cooperative" is made based on the latter researchers. However, for the parts cited from Sato's publication, the distinction between the two words is made based on his view.

Acknowledgements

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【Practical Report】
Students' Growth and Learning in Elementary English Teacher Pre-Service Education: Follow-up Research Using the J-POSTL Elementary over Time

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to determine students' growth and learning by using the Japanese Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (J-POSTL) Elementary for a year and a half. The participants were 13 students enrolled in a teaching course to obtain a first-class teaching license (English) for junior high and high school, as well as a second-class teaching license for elementary school. The materials used were the students' term papers in the second semester of the fourth year and the J-POSTL Elementary. The 150 frequently occurring words and co-occurrence networks using KH Coder indicated that the students used their teaching practice as a stepping stone for reflection. Based on the students' descriptions, the results of the discussion of the "Personal Statement" and "Self-Assessment" sections of the J-POSTL Elementary showed that the students' perceptions of their own qualities and competencies as teachers were not clear when they received the J-POSTL Elementary in October of their third year. However, the results also showed that their qualities and competencies became clear by January 2020; the students' understanding of self-assessment descriptors (SADs) deepened. In addition, it was suggested that teaching practice and learning support were important in order to realize growth, and students felt they had gained a lot of knowledge, teaching skills, and teaching methods from in-class discussions.

Keywords
elementary school English teacher training in pre-service education,
J-POSTL Elementary, record of growth and learning

1. Introduction: Qualities and Competencies Required of Elementary School English Instructors

1.1 The Institutional Background on the Training of Elementary School English Teachers

The new Courses of Study (COS) were fully implemented in elementary schools in 2020. Elementary school English requires a high level of expertise in English-language teaching as it becomes a subject and the teaching/learning period becomes longer. Against this backdrop, various amendments were made: In November 2016, the Educational

Personnel License Law was amended; in November 2017, the Enforcement Regulations of the Educational Personnel License Law was amended and the Core Curriculum for Foreign Languages (English) was created; in the 2018 academic year, all university teaching programs were re-accredited (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; hereafter MEXT, 2019a). This was a breakthrough for teacher training programs, which have lacked a common understanding of the qualifications and competencies for elementary school English instructors.

This paper first confirms the qualities and competencies required by the core curriculum and then examines what the students learned using the J-POSTL Elementary, which is aligned with the core curriculum. The material used for the examination was students' term papers from the second semester of their fourth year.

1.2 The Qualities and Competencies Indicated in the Core Curriculum

Due to the increasing sophistication of elementary school English expertise and the need for elementary and junior high school cooperation, some local governments are trying to obtain elementary school teachers with English expertise by giving points to those who have obtained junior high school licenses, as shown in "3-3 Exemption from examinations and special selection (point-earning system)" (MEXT, 2018). In this context, the qualities and competencies required of English-language instructors were clearly stated in the "Core Curriculum for Foreign Languages (English)" (MEXT, 2019b). The core curriculum for junior and senior high schools contains more detailed descriptions of the requirements for teachers specializing in English language arts, so it appears to have more items, but there are no major differences in content between the elementary, junior, and senior high school core curricula, indicating that elementary school instructors are also required to have expertise as English-language instructors. Even though there is no significant difference between the core curriculum for junior high and high schools in terms of content, only three credits are expected for elementary school. Compared to the 28 credits for junior high and high school, it is clear that areas not mentioned in the core curriculum must be covered for pre-service elementary teaching courses. In addition, students need to understand the purpose of communication and the importance of meaningful interaction depending on the situation, and to apply this understanding in their teaching to create appropriate language activities and to be able to teach effectively with ALTs or assistant language teachers. To achieve this, students need to have a level of proficiency equivalent to B2 of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (hereafter CEFR) (MEXT, 2016; JACET SIG on English Language Education, 2017) or CEFR B1 (Spratt, Pulverness, & Williams, 2011). It takes time to enhance English proficiency; thus, it is necessary for the syllabus to clearly state that students taking elementary school English teaching courses are required to have the above level of English-language proficiency.

The author believed that the Japanese Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages

(J-POSTL) Elementary, a tool for promoting growth as a teacher, would be useful to clarify whether students would be able to acquire the qualities and competencies required in the core curriculum and what pre-service students would gain in the teaching program.

2. J-POSTL Elementary

2.1 What is J-POSTL Elementary?

The J-POSTL Elementary is a tool developed by the Japan Association of College English Teachers' Special Interest Group on English Language Education (hereinafter referred to as "JACET SIG on English Language Education") for in-service teachers and students of elementary school teaching courses to enable them to reflect on the qualities, competencies, and classroom skills they need to acquire to enhance their own expertise and growth (JACET SIG on English Language Education, 2014). Reflection is the process of first observing and recording facts, and then trying to understand the recorded data, so students can make the deep reflection that is essential for growth (Spratt, Pulverness, & Williams, 2011).

J-POSTL Elementary shares the philosophy and characteristics of four documents: (1) the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), which is considered to be the global standard for language teaching, learning, and assessment; (2) the European Portfolio of Students Teaching Languages (EPOSTL), which was developed based on the CEFR; (3) the Japanese Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (J-POSTL), which is an adaptation of the EPOSTL for use in Japanese education; and (4) the elementary school Course of Study, which was published in 2017. The four documents share the same principles and characteristics and have a high affinity for the new COS and CEFR. Therefore, the J-POSTL was used in this study.

2.2 Contents of the J-POSTL Elementary and How to Use It

The J-POSTL Elementary (Trial Version) (hereafter, J-POSTL Elementary) consists of the following four parts: (1) Personal Statement: Students write down and discuss their past experiences with learning English and their expectations and concerns about the teaching program. (2) Self-assessment descriptors (in can-do format) (hereinafter referred to as "SADs"): A total of 93 self-evaluation statements in seven areas (I. Context, II. Teaching Methods, III. Resources, IV. Lesson Planning, V. Conducting a Lesson, VI. Independent Learning, VII. Assessment). (3) J-POSTL Elementary Glossary: A glossary of terms used to describe basic concepts of teaching methods is provided. (4) Personal Study/Practice Record (related to English study and teaching practices): Record of English Study/Practice (examinations, mock classes, etc.) and Record of Ongoing Study/Practice (tutoring, off-campus volunteer work at elementary schools, etc.).

It is recommended that the students complete all the items immediately after receiving the J-POSTL Elementary and self-assess regularly, for example, every six

months (JACET SIG on English Language Education, 2014, 6). The "Self-Assessment" is performed using a 5-point scale (1: 'cannot do' … 5: 'can do'). The students were encouraged to record their own reflections and self-analysis and to use them for discussions among teaching faculty and students (JACET SIG on English Language Education, 2014, 6-7).

3. Method

3.1 Overview

In the second semester of the fourth year, the students were required to discuss and reflect on their results and write a term paper by reviewing their experiences over time.

3.2 Details of the Method

3.2.1 Participants. Participants were 13 students in the College of Humanities at a private university in Tokyo, who wanted to obtain a first-class teaching license (English) for junior high and high school and a second-class teaching license for elementary school (14 students were enrolled, but one who did not meet the requirements for this study was excluded). All the students who participated in the survey had studied abroad for nine months, and their English proficiency levels were B1 to B2 on the CEFR. The students had three weeks of teaching practice in junior or senior high schools in the first semester of their fourth year, and two weeks of teaching practice in elementary schools in the second semester. In the second semester of their fourth year, they also took the elective course, "Teaching English at Elementary Schools."

3.2.2 Materials. J-POSTL Elementary and students' term papers for "Teaching English at Elementary Schools" were used.

3.2.3 Timing. The students were asked to fill out the J-POSTL Elementary at the beginning and end of each semester from the second semester of 2018 (October) to the second semester of 2019 (January). The number and timing of self-assessments and surveys were as follows:

      1st time October 2018   2nd time January 2019   3rd time April 2019
      4th time July 2019   5th time October 2019   6th time January 2020

In January 2020, the students were also asked to discuss the results in class, and were required to summarize their reflections based on that discussion on an A4 sheet (about 1,000 to 1,200 words) as a term paper.

3.2.4 Implementation of the J-POSTL. The J-POSTL Elementary was implemented and used as follows:

(1) Distribution. At the start of the second semester of 2018, the students who wanted to obtain the second-class certificate were gathered, the survey's purpose was explained, and they were asked to participate in the survey; those who agreed signed a consent form. The significance of reflection was discussed, and some students were expected to fill out the J-POSTL Elementary even though it had no relevance to their current classes. Therefore, the author tried to motivate them by saying that it would be useful when they took the teacher employment examination in the first semester of their fourth year, and instructed them to write down any experiences, such as English learning support at elementary schools. When filling out the J-POSTL Elementary, they were told that it would be beneficial for them to record not only in the SADs but also in the "Personal Learning and Practice Record" and to carefully write down how much and what they learned outside the university. After the first completion of the J-POSTL Elementary, the portfolios were collected to check the contents. If a student did not write enough, the J-POSTL Elementary was returned to the student for additional information. During the spring and summer vacations, the author kept their portfolios for confirmation.

(2) Outline of the course that implemented the J-POSTL Elementary. "Teaching English at Elementary Schools" was added as an elective in the department, and 13 students enrolled in 2019. One student who did not start using J-POSTL was excluded from this study.

The course aimed to understand the content of the core curriculum for elementary school teachers to teach English, that is, to acquire the knowledge necessary for elementary school English and practical teaching skills. The course outline was a review of various theories of English-language instruction, language acquisition theory, English phonetics and syntax, and songs, chants, phonics, picture-book reading, and mock classes using MEXT's transitional materials.

Since the theoretical information had already been taught in most of the junior- and senior-high-school license courses, each student was asked to summarize and present the part that he or she was in charge of. Students who were not assigned to give a presentation were asked to prepare a summary and submit it at the beginning of the class, creating a system for active discussion. When conducting the mock class, the students were allowed to choose the unit/lesson they wanted to work on. Since many elementary schools use team teaching with ALTs, English-speaking teachers played the role of ALTs in the mock classes.

(3) How the J-POSTL Elementary was used. First session: The first day of class, the first-class session after the J-POSTL Elementary was returned. Students were asked to discuss the "Personal Statement" section in groups. They were told to add any changes in red.

Second session: Each student had a mock lesson with an ALT, which was

compressed from 45 min to 15 min. At the end of the lesson, the students were asked to list SADs whose scores had changed and to write a report on why they increased or decreased.

The third session: In the 15th and final lesson of the class, the students discussed each section of the J-POSTL in groups of four or five. Participants were told to look for any changes. They wrote their reflections on a sheet of A4 paper, referring to specific items, areas, and experiences.

3.2.5 Analysis method. The content of the term papers was analyzed in two ways: first, KH Coder was used to identify frequent words and co-occurrence networks; second, the KJ method was used to summarize themes. The instructor's observation of the in-class discussions is used as supporting evidence for the analysis of the term papers.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Analysis by Text Mining

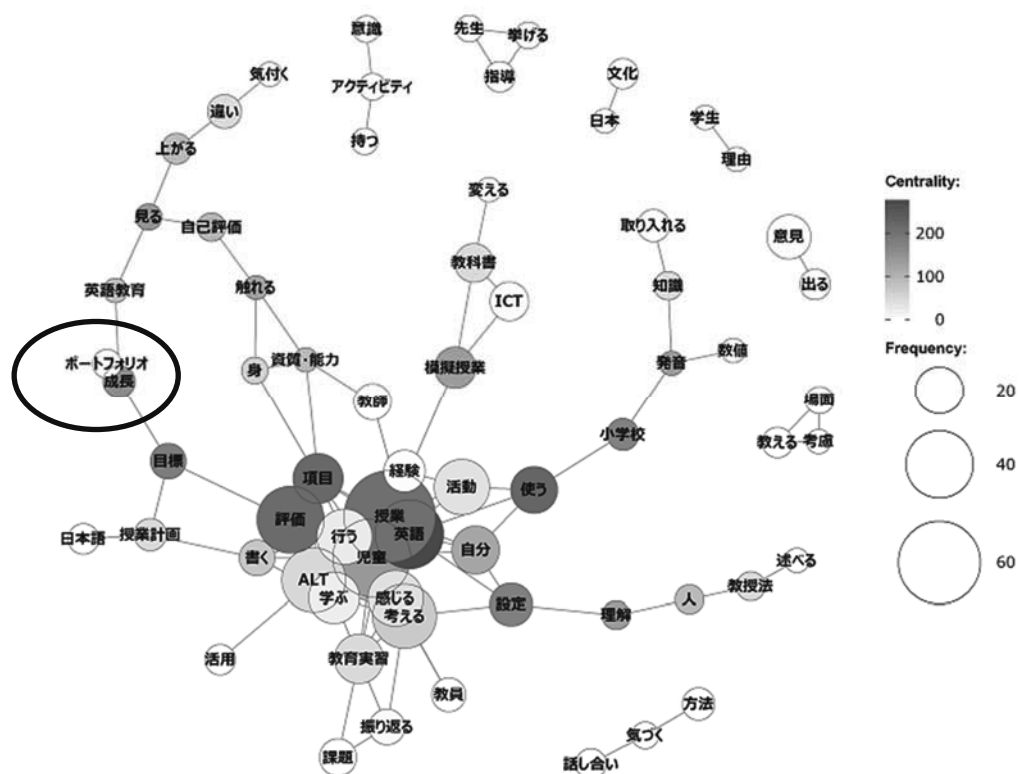First, the number of frequently occurring words was examined using KH Coder (See Fig. 1).

Figure 1: Co-occurrence Network of Words in Students' Reflections *N*=13

The total number of extracted words was 7,651, the number of different words was 1,172, the number of sentences was 261, and the number of paragraphs was 65. The most frequently occurring words were "class" (75 times), "children" (54 times), "ALT" (36 times), "activity" (27 times), "teaching practice" (21 times), "self" (20 times), "opinion" (17 times), "experience" (15 times), and "mock class" (15 times). It was confirmed that "portfolio," or the J-POSTL, was perceived as having a close connection with "growth."

Now that we have a general picture, we will look into each section of the J-POSTL to investigate (1) what students felt they learned over the previous year and a half, and (2) how they felt about the effectiveness of the discussion and reflection based on J-POSTL.

4.2 Personal Statement

The "Personal Statement" is the first section of the J-POSTL, and it asks students to reflect on their past and current selves in three areas: past English learning experiences, concerns and aspirations as an elementary school English teacher, and qualities and competencies as an elementary school English teacher. By answering the questions, students could reflect on their past and present. This process is in line with the philosophy of J-POSTL, and allows students to experience the process of reflection. Here are two examples of how students felt about their growth.

Example 1
In the past, I had described my anxiety prior to the teaching practice as "how to 'fill in' the gaps in children's academic ability and knowledge." However, through teaching practice, I felt that "it is natural that there are differences in academic ability and knowledge among children." Therefore, I now feel that the most important thing is to focus on how to conduct a class that can adjust to everyone in the midst of these differences.

Example 2
When I first received J-POSTL, I was not involved with the children at all. I was very worried about the appropriate distance between me and my children. I avoided them because I was too self-conscious or because I was not compatible with them. Now, I have been helping out as a student tutor and teaching elementary school children as a paid volunteer for the city. With these experiences, I was able to finish my teaching practice without any worries.

The second example shows that practical training and volunteer experience played important roles for the student to know the facts and realities at schools, as well as gain confidence.

As for teachers' qualities and competencies, at the beginning of October 2018,

many students did not add anything to the list of the J-POSTL, so they had only three items that were already part of it. However, almost all the students added up to ten items in January 2020. This suggests that the students were beginning to understand the qualities and competencies of teachers. It should be noted that students added competencies from the SADs, such as "can cooperate with other teachers," "can develop lessons based on the actual situation of the children," and "can select and use appropriate English for the children."

4.3 What Students Learned Using SADs

Most of the students wrote that their scores in the Self-Assessment section improved overall. The sections that could not be assessed were "VI. Independent learning" and "VII. Assessment," because they had no experience with the contents of the sections. Therefore, these two sections were omitted from this study (see Appendix).

In the first section, "I. Context," the students commented that their self-assessment scores were higher toward the end of the research period, especially those related to teaching practice (observation and contact with children) and to what they learned at university (study guidelines and mutual assessment in mock classes) (SADs #1, #2, #6, #7, #8, #11). However, the students also stated that they could not judge SAD #14 (dealing with parents) because they did not deal with parents during their teaching practice. In addition, while some students said that their self-assessment of SAD #2 had improved, others said that they could not judge it because they did not "plan curricula and annual teaching plans." From this, we can conclude that the students' judgments relied on their experiences.

In "II. Methodology," there were 21 comments referring to SADs (#16–#31, #34–#39). A student commented, "Thinking back to the fact that I did not even know how to make a lesson, I feel the growth in being able to create a one-hour lesson in the teaching practice, and to conduct a team-teaching lesson with ALTs." There were other, similar comments about students gaining confidence in their teaching practice.

While the scores of many SADs improved, those related to the following competencies emerged as challenges: (1) pronunciation: chants and songs used in class were different from actual pronunciation of the ALTs, (2) incorporating chants and songs into the activities, and (3) setting up various activities.

SADs #28–30 involve writing. In class discussions, many students pointed out the importance of phonics instruction and writing letters on four lines. It is noteworthy that, while writing was challenging, no student mentioned reading as a challenge.

As for section, "III. Resources," all of the items (SADs #42–#46) were mentioned to have improved. Only #46, "I can locate and select materials appropriate for the needs of my children from a variety of sources, such as pictorial books, encyclopedia, illustrated books, literature, mass media and the Internet." did not improve. The use of YouTube was noteworthy; one student claimed that they used YouTube videos in their moral education

class at a junior high school. This student stated that YouTube had videos of chants suitable for foreign language education, and other video materials were suitable for other subjects.

As for "IV. Lesson Planning," it was expected that the scores would increase, but only in seven descriptors (#47, #49, #51, #55, #59, #60, #62) they were claimed to have increased. A student wrote that he/she wanted to teach English in a way that was both enjoyable and educational.

Team teaching with ALTs (#60) turned out to be a big challenge: the students had difficulties managing team teaching, the children, and ICT at the same time. Through their struggles in the mock class with ALTs, they wrote that they gained a lot of insights.

In "V. Conducting Class," two SADs were mentioned (#74, #76) as improved teaching skills. The forms of activities, such as individual study, pair activities, group activities, and whole-class activities (#74) were similar to those used by the students' teachers at university and in study abroad programs. However, regarding ICT (#76), although students saw the merits of using MEXT's digital teaching materials in their classes, the lack of training hindered their confidence.

4.4 What Students Learned from the In-class Discussions

The students conducted many peer evaluations and discussions in their pre-service education, as well as during "Teaching English at Elementary Schools" class. The results showed that in-class discussions were useful and effective. There were comments such as, "I thought this class (Teaching English at Elementary Schools) was a good way to increase my own knowledge because I was able to hear many effective opinions from others." Also, many students wrote that teaching practice, learning support experience, and experiential learning of team teaching helped them improve their own skills. One student wrote, "There were many new discoveries through discussions with classmates. I would like to grow by sharing my opinions." From the students' comments, it was confirmed that they felt that the discussions affected their knowledge and skills and led to new discoveries.

Discussions based on actual experiences were also very persuasive: One student mentioned SAD #49, in "IV. Lesson Planning," saying that setting goals that would motivate children was vague. One of her group members suggested that setting goals that began with "why" and "how" would work well; statements such as "How can you tell your friends what you like in English?" made the children think of the class. This suggestion was highly appreciated by her classmates.

Through this observation, in-class discussions based on students' experiences are effective in enhancing their skills and knowledge.

4.5 What Students Realized Through Reflection

As stated above, students recorded and discussed experiences and observations

regularly over a year and a half. Below are some examples from their term papers on their reflections. For ease of understanding, comments were grouped into categories:

Qualities and Competencies
- ・I now have a better understanding of what SADs mean than I did the first time in October 2018.
- ・When I received the J-POSTL, I had only a vague idea of the qualities and competencies of a teacher, but a year and a half later, I was able to list a number of them.

Anxiety
- ・I was able to compare how I felt a year and a half ago with my current feelings. This made me think that I had grown through practice and volunteer work.

Experience
- ・Through volunteer activities and teaching practice, I have been able to think based on experience.

Reflection
- ・By using J-POSTL, I was able to reflect on my own teaching.
- ・By using J-POSTL, I was able to identify my own changes, growth, and areas that I need to work on.
- ・The reason why my SAD scores increased was because I was able to think based on my experience. (This could be categorized in "Experience.")
- ・I think the reason for my improvement is that I frequently thought about English education in elementary schools, had elementary school teaching practice in my fourth year, and took the teacher employment examination. In addition, I think that studying theory in my seminar, or "zemi," and conducting lessons or experiences outside school contributed to my growth.

From the above, it can be stated that the students were able to learn a variety of necessary skills, competencies, and qualities over the year and a half. These comments indicate the merits of using J-POSTL over time by visualizing students' changes.

5. Conclusion: Achievements and Limitations

This paper discusses students' growth and learning by using the J-POSTL Elementary for a year and a half. The 150 frequently occurring words and co-occurrence networks using KH Coder indicated that students used teaching practice as a stepping stone for reflection. Furthermore, J-POSTL was closely related to growth. We conclude that reflection based on teaching practice is essential in pre-service education.

The results of the analyses of term papers showed that students came to understand the requisite qualities and competencies over time by having teaching practice, in-class

discussions, and reflection using the J-POSTL Elementary. It could be concluded that the J-POSTL Elementary played an essential role for the students to learn and acquire qualities and competencies, and grow as teachers with confidence.

Since the number of students in this study was small (13 participants), the results cannot be generalized. In addition, the J-POSTL Elementary was closely connected with the class for only one semester. Further studies should be conducted in the future.

Acknowledgments

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Appendix

Selected SADs Mentioned in the Term paper

Notes: SADs in gray descended in score or did not change.

English translation is based on Yamaguchi & Yoneda (2020: 45-47)

I. Context

1. I can understand the requirements set in the Course of Study.
2. I can design language courses and year-round teaching programs around the requirements of the Course of Study.
6. I can take into account children's intellectual curiosity.
7. I can take into account children's sense of achievement.
8. I can identify specific pedagogical issues related to my children or my teaching while planning, teaching, and reflecting on classes.
11. I can observe my peers and offer them constructive feedback.
14. I can explain the value and benefits of learning English to children and parents.

II. Methodology

16. I can create a supportive atmosphere and provide specific situational English usage opportunities that invite children to actively take part in speaking activities.
17. I can evaluate and select meaningful interactional activities to encourage children to greet people they know or meet for the first time, and to respond to or decline instructions / requests from them.
18. I can evaluate and select meaningful interactional activities to encourage children to express their feelings and opinions about familiar topics.
19. I can evaluate and select meaningful activities to help children develop interactive competences to initiate or respond to simple utterances.
20. I can evaluate and select various activities to help children make effective use of non-verbal communication (facial expressions, gestures, etc.) and engage in interaction with others.
21. I can evaluate and select meaningful activities to help children develop skills to confirm and clarify utterances made by the other person.
22. I can evaluate and select various activities to help children develop the ability to describe likes, interests, or strengths by using simple phrases and expressions.
23. I can evaluate and select various activities to help children develop the ability to describe their everyday life or events by using simple phrases and expressions.
24. I can evaluate and select various activities to help children develop the ability to describe their feelings or opinions about the area they live in, school life, friends and acquaintances, etc., by using simple phrases and expressions.
25. I can evaluate and select various activities to raise children's awareness of stress, rhythm, and intonation.
26. I can evaluate and select a range of oral activities to encourage children to communicate using vocabulary they have learned or non-verbal communication without hesitation.
27. I can evaluate and select meaningful activities to motivate children to copy or write letters, words, phrases and expressions.
28. I can evaluate and select activities which help children copy or write familiar phrases

and expressions.

29. I can evaluate and select activities which help children write familiar words, phrases and expressions, paying attention to lower and upper case letters, word units, basic symbols, etc.

30. I can evaluate and select familiar sentences for copying to help children become aware of word order.

34. I can use picture book storytelling strategies such as voice and actions to get children interested in the content and text.

35. I can select texts appropriate to the needs, interests and language level of children.

36. I can set activities to help children identify the letters of the alphabet and learn their proper pronunciation.

37. I can recognize that grammar underpins communication, and can create a variety of language activities (for introducing a grammatical item) that will help children become aware of grammatical patterns through meaningful contexts.

38. I can introduce vocabulary which will enable the children to be able to express themselves appropriately.

39. I can evaluate and select activities which enhance children's awareness of register differences.

III. Resources

42. I can make use of ideas, lesson plans and materials included in teachers' handbooks and resource books.

43. I can identify and evaluate a range of materials appropriate for the age, interests and the language level of my children.

44. I can select expressions and language activities from textbooks or source materials appropriate for my children.

45. I can design learning materials and activities appropriate for my children.

46. I can locate and select materials appropriate for the needs of my children from a variety of sources, such as pictorial books, encyclopedia, illustrated books, literature, mass media and the Internet.

IV Lesson Planning

47. I can identify the Course of Study requirements and set learning aims and objectives suited to my children's needs and interests.

49. I can set objectives which challenge children to reach their full potential.

51. I can set objectives which take into account the differing levels of ability and special educational needs of the children.

55. I can design activities to make the children aware of and build on their existing knowledge.

59. I can select from and design a variety of organizational forms (teacher-centered, individual, pair, group work) as appropriate.

60. I can plan lessons and periods of teaching with other teachers and/or assistant language teachers.

62. I can plan lessons taking into account where, when and how to use English, including metalanguage I may need in the classroom.

V. Conducting a Lesson

74. I can provide opportunities for and manage individual, partner, group and whole class

work.
76. I can manage and use instructional media efficiently (OHP, ICT, video, etc.).

【Practical Report】

Foreign Language Learning in Cooperation with Museums: A Case Study of Project-based Learning in Elementary School

Yoichi Kiyota, Georgette Wilson and Shino Abe

Abstract

This paper is a report on a project-based English learning program using resources from art galleries and museums, which aimed at integrated learning of content and language skills. Specifically, we practiced English using artworks in three stages: "introduction," "understanding," and "creation." The three important learning perspectives were "lifelong learning perspective," "experiential learning perspective," and "cognitive communication skills." Starting with understanding the diversity of "observation" in appreciating artworks, we engaged in learning activities to promote students' voluntary self-understanding. The final step was to engage in creative art activities. As a result, the integration of visual and verbal literacy encouraged students' engagement in the experiential learning activities.

Keywords
museum learning, learning resources, independent learning

1. Background

1.1 The Situation Surrounding English Learning

Foreign language learning has undergone major changes. For example, the need for learning English in schools has gone beyond mere daily conversational levels because of increasingly sophisticated technological translators and the drastic changes of global issues such as environmental problems and international economic disparity. This change is linked to a change in expectations for English speaking ability, thus, the development of attitudes and cognitive skills for learners to respond proactively to changes in the world are necessary.

In Japan, the main purpose of English education in schools has been the development of verbal skills. In other words, there has been little discussion about the quality of foreign language learning in schools. Unlike adults who learn a foreign language for practical reasons, in an educational setting, English learning should be discussed in the context of content. Moreover, it is necessary for learners to foster an attitude of continuing their search for a theme—which uses the English language—that suits their needs and interests.

English language learning, by its very nature, has an ambivalent aspect: the learning of language skills and the learning of content materials using the target language. In

general, the study of English in schools is based on textbooks with a variety of topics, for example, social, scientific and literary topics, and thus has a cross-curricular perspective. However, textbook-centered learning is completed on a unit-by-unit basis, making it difficult to learn in an integrated and internalized manner. The cross-curricular perspective is a limitation if the learning remains superficial, but if this learning becomes more integrated and developmental, there is a possibility that learning can be deep and can go beyond the boundaries of the school curriculum.

This is a particularly important point of view in elementary schools in Japan, where learning English has become mandated recently by the government. There have been many attempts to link English learning with other subjects and school events, but it seems that in many cases, learning activities prioritize conversational skills rather than content.

1.2 Visual Literacy in English Learning

In junior high school and high school, students generally learn English according to the units of their textbooks with the limited time schedule, which may result in superficial learning of the content of the unit. Due to the non-integrative nature of language-literacy-centered learning, the class tends to take time in comprehension and retention of language literacy materials. Thus, it is necessary to recognize the limitations of such language-literacy-centered learning. For example, Kress (2000) points out the need for multiple modes of knowledge transfer in an information society:

> Technologies of information lend themselves to 'visualization,' the phenomenon in which information initially stored in written form is 'translated' into visual form, largely because the transport of information is seen as more efficient in the visual rather than in the verbal mode. Economic changes in the post-industrial world are, in any case, likely to be characteristically 'information-driven,' or knowledge-based. And one other fundamental reason, may be that information of various kinds may be more aptly expressed in the visual rather than in the verbal mode.
> （Kress, 2000）

Kress suggests that multimodal literacy leads to the academic ability to analyze highly complex texts and to examine the values, cultures, and ideologies incorporated into them. Thus, one of the main purposes of English learning is to obtain necessary information through the target language. When English as Foreign Language (EFL) Learning resources are considered from this perspective, visual resources along with language literacy resources are needed. Thus, this project utilized both visual and language literacy resources, in the context of a museum, to foster language skills. This multimodal literacy, using museums for foreign language learning, has already been carried out (The Language and Literacy Learning through Art Project, 2018). For example,

the CLIL Museum Program, developed in collaboration with the Natural History Museum of Venice, helps learners acquire the target language—English, by using museum exhibits. This project involved museum education staff, secondary school teachers, and students (Fazzi, 2018). In light of this, our aim is to develop an integrated learning practice utilizing visual and language literacy resources.

2. Collaboration with Museum

2.1 Museum as a Learning Resource Center

For promoting proactive and continuous language learning, we considered it necessary to activate learners' personal interests and concerns about the learning content and collaboration with various museums and art galleries that disseminate a variety of developmental learning resources would be one of appropriate resources. Experiential learning that a museum facilitates is expected to integrate with the knowledge acquired from school subjects. For example, when visiting a natural science museum, both adults and children are sometimes attracted by large dinosaur skeletons. The excited expression on their faces indicates their engagement as a result of experiencing in reality the knowledge they have acquired from textbooks. Learning in a museum, through viewing exhibits, provides a learning experience that directly appeals to emotions, which is different in quality from the usual desk-based learning. It specially stimulates curiosity, which is considered to have the potential to improve textbook-centered learning of foreign languages into an integrated, developmental learning experience that transcends the boundaries of subject matter.

In the past, learning activities to appreciate exhibits in museums could only be done in person. In recent years, however, with the development of information technology, it has become possible to benefit from museum resources in the classroom. For example, museums offer digital resources on their websites, these resources allow students to "view" the exhibits of distant museums in the classroom or at home. In addition, various learning tools have been developed to support learning activities. For example, the Yokosuka Museum of Art in Kanagawa Prefecture has created "Art Cards," that have converted the artworks in the collection into educational material. They also developed a web version of the cards, which can be used to look up information such as the artist and the year in which an artwork was produced. Furthermore, students can select several cards based on their own concepts and present them as personal exhibitions. In this practice, we worked on the practice using the Art Cards as a learning resource for foreign language learning.

2.2 Perspectives of Foreign Language Learning in Museum Collaborations

The benefit of foreign language learning in collaboration with museums is the promotion of independent learning. There are three aspects that are expected to enhance independent learning: lifelong learning, experiential learning, and communicative skills,

which involve observation and thinking. The learning practice was based on the following three perspectives.

2.2.1 Lifelong learning. Various museums provide learning programs related to lifelong learning. Sugiura (2008) discusses the elements of lifelong learning in gallery literacy as follows:

> What is important in lifelong learning through art museums is not the acquisition of knowledge, but to take the various information available at art museums by personal ability and to refer to his or her own memory, and ultimately to enrich his or her own life.
> (Sugiura, 2008. Translated by the author)

This perspective of gallery literacy leads learners to recognize an appropriate way of learning for themselves. Rather than relying on the knowledge they have learned in schools, learners will acquire the ability to form versatile concepts through their own experiential learning in a museum or art gallery, which can promote their learning by conducting the necessary research to solve problems. This overlaps with the basic procedure of learning a foreign language, which needs to be done continuously according to individual needs.

2.2.2 Experiential learning. The perspective of experiential learning is an important feature of museum learning, and Jees (2018) refers to experiential experiences as a rich combination of emotion, cognition, sensation, and reflection. Experiential learning promotes internalization of subject matter. Where the syntactic knowledge of English learned at school and the knowledge of science, culture, history, etc. learned as an individual subject at the museum can be integrated using experiential project-based learning.

2.2.3 Observation, thinking, and communication skills. One of the educational strategies to develop observation and thinking skills using museum resources is the "Visual Thinking Strategy." This is a learning strategy developed from the Visual Thinking Curriculum originally produced at the Museum of Modern Art in New York in the 1980s, and is an educational method that fosters observation, critical thinking, and communication skills through art appreciation (Yenawine, 2013). These skills assist in the development of communication in foreign languages.

3. Project at Yokosuka Gakuin Elementary School

3.1 Overview of Yokosuka Gakuin Elementary School

Yokosuka Gakuin Elementary School is a private elementary school with 175 pupils in grades 1 through 6. The participants of this study were from the fifth grade English class; they consisted of two classes of 15 pupils each. English learning in the school is approached from the following three perspectives:

- Tools for exploring English culture
- Cross-curricular learning
- Measures of global communication

In line with the above goals, Yokosuka Gakuin Elementary School focuses not only on basic knowledge and skills, but also enriches the content of learning that are age appropriate. For example, cross-curricular learning has been applied to the following project-based learning.

Table 1. Examples of project-based learning at Yokosuka Gakuin Elementary School

Grade	Title & Procedure	Learning Style	Related Language Skills
The 3rd grade	*Teddy Bear Project* Exchanging stuffed animals with overseas partner schools, and to keep a diary of their stay in English. Organizing the learned information of the partner country in their lap book.	Project-based learning	Language skills Knowledge ability Thinking ability Practical skills
The 4th grade	*My Name Around the World* [iEARN] After learning about general ideas of the origin and meaning of letters and their own names, students make their name card and make a presentation at the International Forum.	Project-based learning	Language skills Knowledge ability Thinking ability Practical skills
The 5th grade	*Chocolate Project* After doing research on the processing of chocolate from a single cocoa bean, they organize their learning in their lap book. Additionally, the students make their own chocolates and learn about global issues (economic disparity, child labor, etc.) through the beans.	Project-based learning	Language skills Knowledge ability Thinking ability Practical skills

As shown in the examples above, the English department at Yokosuka Gakuin Elementary School has been working to teach English in an integrative manner through topic learning and project learning, rather than just learning language materials and skills. For this project, they took a similar approach to learning in cooperation with the museum. In this practice, in addition to the above three basic perspectives, they emphasized the perspective of fostering independent learners, which is one of the necessary aspects of language learning. This practice was conducted once a week for a total of 10 times from June to December 2019.

3.2 Outline of the Project

This project aimed to improve "observation, thinking, and communication skills" by using the resources of the museum, which are considered beneficial for foreign language communication. Specifically, the following objectives were set considering the cognitive level of fifth graders. Understanding of museum facilities (observation skills), improvement of observation skills through museum exhibits by art cards (observation skills), understanding of diversity in appreciation (thinking skills), improving self-esteem through self-expression activities (communication skills), and acquisition of English vocabulary and expressions necessary for the entire activity (communication skills). The actual activities were conducted in three phases: introductory, comprehension, and creative phases.

> Introductory phase: In this phase, as an introduction, the students aimed at understanding the basic direction of this project, which was to conduct various activities using museum resources.
> Comprehension phase: This phase aimed at a more advanced understanding of the meaning of museum learning and its benefits using visual materials.
> Creative phase and summary: In this phase, the students aimed at improving their self-expression skills by verbalizing and applying their learnings from the museum.

3.2.1 Example activities.

This section describes the specific activities that were conducted during the project (Table 2). All the exchanges were conducted in English. When the students had difficulty understanding some of the content or vocabulary, the teacher provided additional advice and explanations in Japanese.

In the introductory phase, the students were asked to present examples of museums and art galleries they had visited in the past to get a general idea of what the students' understanding of a museum is. In addition, the following activities were conducted to provide the students with opportunities to think about the interpretation of visual information and diversity in art appreciation. In the "Finish the Picture" activity, the

students were asked to guess what item should be painted in the hidden part of the picture using Art Cards created by Yokosuka Museum of Fine Art. In "Favorite Art Card," students selected their favorite picture from the art cards and compared it with other students as a group activity. In the comprehension stage, "Art Card Labeling," students labeled the objects in the picture on their chosen art card in English. In "Virtual Museums," the students viewed the exhibits of the Louvre Museum and the Smithsonian Institution through the Google Cultural Institute, an Internet-based street view search of the museums. In the creative phase, the students participated in expressive activities such as "Character Building" (an activity where they remarked on the nice aspects of their classmates and analyzed the remarks by themselves), "Character Kimono" (an activity in which students designed their own kimonos based on the information from "Character Building"), and "Shadow Box" (an activity in which students collected their favorite objects in a shadow box and displayed them). In the Shadow Box activity, the students showed their kimono designs, objects representing their hobbies, and illustrations of their favorite things on a box-shaped file. At this creative stage, students are expected to enhance their self-esteem. Throughout the project, the students learned to utilize visual and verbal information in an integrated manner.

Figure 1. Exhibition of the Shadow Box

Table 2. Learning stages and activities

Stage	Activity
Introductory	"Introductory Question" (think about what kind of place a museum is)
	"Finish the Picture" (guess the hidden part of the picture)
	"Favorite Art Card" (choose favorite art card and compare it with others)
Understanding	"Art Card Labeling" (label the objects in the picture on the art card in English)
	"Virtual Museums" (view museum exhibits on the Internet)
Creation	"Character Building" (remark on the nice aspects of the classmates and analyze the remarks)
	"Character Kimono"（design a kimono based on one's character）
	"Shadow Box"（collect favorite things in a box type file and display them）
Wrap up	"Feeling & Title"　（observe a picture or photo and give a title）

3.3 Results

In this project, we aimed to develop "observation, thinking, and communication skills" by using the resources of the museum. These skills are not something that can be improved in the short term and are difficult to measure. For this reason, we conducted a

questionnaire survey on each learning activity after the completion of the project to examine the attitude towards the activity.

In the questionnaire, the students were rated on the following four levels of proactivity in each learning activity: 4 - I worked on it voluntarily; 3 - I worked on it a little voluntarily; 2 - I did what the teacher told me to do; 1 - I did not participate in the class very much.

The overall average was 3.3, indicating that the students had a positive attitude toward all learning activities. In particular, "Character Building" and "Character Kimono" had high values of 3.60 and 3.67, indicating that the students were motivated to engage in self-expressive activities. These are creative activities aimed at improving the observation and communication skills.

In addition, the most common comments in the free writing section were about "Character Kimono," which collected their favorite objects in a shadow box (SB) and displayed them. The following are comments from the students:

"It was hard to decide what to put in the SB."
"Virtual museum was fun."
"Title was difficult but interesting."
"It was hard to collect materials for SB, but I think it was good because I was able to do most of the things willingly throughout the museum learning."
"Thinking of ideas for SB was difficult but mentioning nice aspects of classmates was fun. What I want to do more is to fill the SB with new ideas."

Table 3. Results of the questionnaire

1. Introduction Question	3.07
2. Finish the Picture	3.40
3. Favorite Art Card	3.30
4. Art Card Labeling	3.24
5. Virtual Museums	3.07
6. Character Building	**3.60**
7. Character Kimono	**3.67**
8. Shadow Box	3.37
9. Feeling & Title	3.27

3.4 Evaluation of the Learning by The teachers

The following is an evaluation of the results from the teachers' perspective:
"The students' learning motivation improved in a way that they became more interested in the activities and actively participated in the learning activities."
"Through creative activities such as the Shadow Box, students showed self-awareness

and empathy toward their classmates. These attitudes had a positive impact on their expressive activities in English."

"By using the app *LoiLo Note* in the introduction and comprehension stages, the students' skills in digital tools were improved."

In terms of teachers' instruction, they recognized that risk taking and adaptability to the new learning practice of museum learning improved their teaching skills in mentoring and creative teaching. Although teachers mainly involved in this project had some anxiety because they had never conducted these educational practices before, the evaluated results showed them that students found the activities engaging.

4. Conclusion

4.1 Consideration

We used visual materials developed by a museum to improve the observation, thinking, and communication skills that are considered necessary for foreign language communication. The following is a chronological summary of the learning activities. "Finish the Picture" (activity to complete the hidden part of the picture) and "Favorite Art Card" (activity to choose one's favorite picture card and compare it with others) were conducted by using the digital tool *LoiLo Note*, which enabled students to visualize their learning procedure. By comparing their favorite art cards with those of their classmates, the students had an opportunity to learn about the diversity of observations. This diversity of views seems to have led to the perspective of not evaluating classmates with one-sided expressions in "Character Building" (an activity to remark on nice aspects of classmates). "Character Kimono" (an activity to design a kimono based on one's personality) and "Shadow Box" (an activity to collect favorite things in a shadow box and display them) were creative activities in which students visualized verbal expressions such as happy and smart, which represent the affirmative sides of the personalities, as artworks. In the concluding activity, "Title" (an activity to look at a picture or photo, think of words and phrases that express their emotional feeling, and give it a title), the students were able to understand that observation skills are linked to the language skills to express their ideas by giving their own English titles to the artworks. From the questionnaire after the project, we demonstrated that they were able to experience and realize the meaning of the project as an integrated learning experience that fosters complex literacy using visual and language literacy resources. In addition, since the works of "Character Kimono" and "Shadow Box" can appear as artifacts, the students can visualize their own learning activities and could provide effective evidence in their reflection.

In this project-based learning, there was no predetermined goal that enabled the students to create their own learning goals as they went along the project. This was also true for the teacher in charge. The fact that they cited "creative teaching" as an evaluation of their own teaching ability also indicates this. In language learning, the acquisition of

basic vocabulary, grammar, and skills is essential. However, if we stop at that level of learning, we lose the necessary complexity of English learning in elementary schools. As mentioned above, the goals of the English department at Yokosuka Gakuin Elementary School are to provide "tools for exploring English culture," "cross-curricular learning," and "measures for global communication." To realize these goals from a comprehensive perspective, an English learning project like this one, which utilizes the creativity of the learners, would be effective.

4.2 Issues for the Further Research

In this study, we used art cards and their digital versions as teaching materials to appreciate museum exhibits. In addition, virtual teaching materials on the Internet were used for introductory activities. We had planned to visit the nearby Yokosuka Museum of Art as a future developmental activity, but because of COVID-19, a group visit was not possible. In museum learning, the impact of viewing actual exhibits can be expected to be a driving force for related English learning. Given this situation, we were able to develop knowledge of utilizing the virtual resources of museums in a limited environment. However, in the future, we would like to incorporate activities to view actual exhibits when the situation improves.

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【Research Note】
The Use of L1 in the University Classroom of Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs) and Non-Japanese Teachers of English (NJTEs)

Julia M. Kawamoto

Abstract

This paper examines the use of the mother-tongue (L1) in the university classrooms of Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) and non-Japanese teachers of English (NJTEs), based on the teachers' data in the "Teaching English in English" (TEE) Project. This project focused on whether changes in the attitudes towards English could be observed between students who were in the high school system before and after the TEE mandate was introduced by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) in 2013. The main question is if there were changes in the English attitudes of first-year university students, comparing those of students taught using the old system versus those taught using the new TEE system in high school. The current study focuses on the university teachers (n=24) from four universities in Western Japan. It aims to ascertain teacher beliefs regarding the use of the L1 and L2, used as mediums of instruction in the classroom. The data obtained throughout the study included an analysis of classroom observations on their use of L1 and teachers' interviews. While there were some differences between JTE and NJTE views on English use, there were some similarities in their reasoning and use of the L1. The study discusses the teachers' pedagogical choices to motivate and support students and to encourage their active English use throughout the class.

1. Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The use of the L1 in the classroom has been controversial among language teachers and researchers for over four decades (Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008). Approaches to language teaching that solely focused on translating from the target language to the L1, such as Grammar-Translation, were inefficient at teaching students how to use the target language effectively (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). Subsequently, other second language teaching methods also gained popularity, including the Total Physical Response and the Natural Approach methods. These methods were based on the way a child learned

their mother tongue and avoided using the L1. Those who opposed the use of the L1 (i.e., Chaudron, 1988) maintained that students must be exposed to a maximal amount of L2 input. The main reason for this is the claim that students will acquire their L2 more quickly without the interference of the L1 (Turnbull, 2001). In addition, this would prevent teachers and students from excessively depending on the L1, which in turn would enable students to gain confidence in communicating in the L2. Students would also not lose opportunities to practice the L2 in the classroom (Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Turnbull, 2001). However, over the past thirty years, research has shown (Cook, 2001; Canagarajah, 2011) the advantages of L1 use in the classroom.

Many researchers (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 1992; Scott & Fuente, 2008; Carson, 2018a) have found that the use of the L1 increases teaching efficiency and learning success in terms of second language acquisition when used carefully and effectively as a pedagogical tool. Moreover, the use of the L1 is a humanistic approach enabling students to express themselves freely (Harbord, 1992). Moreover, this can reduce cognitive overload and anxiety levels among the students which could otherwise block learning (Bruen & Kelly, 2014). In their study, Carson and Kashihara (2012) found that students preferred L1 use for emotional support. Students with low L2 proficiency felt it was important that their teachers use the L1 to joke around and help them to feel more comfortable and confident. At the same time, even high proficiency students needed L1 support since they felt an increase in anxiety when they had to deal with more difficult materials and tasks beyond what they had experienced in high school.

This paper aims to examine L1 use in the classroom as it differs among Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) and non-Japanese teachers of English (NJTEs), because English teachers tend to assume there is a difference between these groups (Llurda, 2006; Cohen, 2018). For example, in Yazawa's study (2017), she found that the students' negative emotions towards the JTEs because of their "bad pronunciation" had a negative influence by lowering students' self-efficacy. The author has experienced many institutions that have a strict policy requiring NJTEs to use only English and avoid the use of Japanese. This was supposed to provide students with "authentic" English. The author's position in this paper is not to judge which of these groups are considered more appropriate for students studying English (Medgyes, 1994, 1999). The question is whether these teachers adapt their use of the L1 and target language to different situations and purposes. Therefore, the author focuses on their approaches to and perceptions of their use of the L1 in their classrooms.

1.2 Background to the Present Study– The TEE Project

The data for this study originated from research funded by the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science grant under Professor Chiaki Iwai from Hiroshima City University. Seven researchers from four universities in Western Japan examined university students' and university teachers' reactions to the Ministry of Education,

Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) 2013 policy mandating to teach English in English (TEE) in the high schools (Iwai, et al., 2017; Iwai, et al., 2018).

The project members examined the influence of the TEE policy on Japanese high school teachers' use of English and students' attitudes toward this method of instruction. Data collection took place from 2014 to 2017 (comparing the views of 1st-year university students in 2014 and 2015 who were taught English in the old system with 1st-year university students in 2016 and 2017 who experienced the new system), consisting of questionnaire surveys with about 6,000 students, student interviews, university teacher interviews, and class observations. The students were non-English majors taking general English classes required in their universities, and the teachers were teaching these first-year students.

The main findings from the quantitative surveys showed that there was a slight increase of the JTEs' use of English, but they appeared to be unsuccessful in executing the English-only policy stipulated by the MEXT mandate. As for students' attitudes about TEE, there was almost no change in their preferences or their desire for teachers' L1 support. Finally, most of the university teachers did not feel that their students' attitudes had changed.

The author felt that the TEE project had not yet addressed some critical questions about these university teachers. The first research question (RQ1) is, do these teachers use the L1 in their classrooms? If so, how much? The second question (RQ2) is, do these teachers have reasons for using the L1 in their classrooms? If so, what are they? The following section will explain how to collect the teachers' data, focusing on the classroom observations and interviews about their L1 use.

2. Methods

The primary goal of this study is to ascertain the university teachers' actual use of L1 and L2 in the classroom; the secondary aim is to identify their teaching beliefs of the use of the L1 and L2. From the class observations and interviews, this might clarify difficulties faced by teachers choosing whether to use the L1 because this would depend on students' proficiency levels and attitudes toward the L2. With low proficiency classes in an English-only classroom, students might feel inhibited since they may have difficulty understanding their teacher's instructions. Potentially, there is an increase in stress, anxiety, and even fear that they might be reprimanded for revealing their confusion, which prevents them from speaking. Therefore, this study was undertaken to spotlight the justification and validation for teachers' use of L1.

2.1 Participants

In this study, there were 24 university-level English teachers, 13 (11 female and two male) JTEs, and 11 (two female and nine male) NJTEs from four universities in

Western Japan. These teachers had more than five years of teaching experience each. They were asked to read the consent form outlining their voluntary, anonymous participation and to sign it.

2.2 Data Collection

The teachers were observed and video-taped in their classes and interviewed individually. In the classroom observation, each teacher was observed teaching their regular 90-minute classes. According to Borg (2006), classroom observation gives direct evidence of teaching methods and practice. This study used qualitative methodology to understand their use of the L1 and L2 in the classroom based on the teachers' actual practices and beliefs (Phipps & Borg, 2009). After their lessons, the teachers were asked to participate in an interview to discuss their beliefs on using the L1. All the interviews were conducted in English or Japanese for an hour and were audiotaped.

2.3 Classroom Observations

Before the class observations, the teachers were asked to fill in a questionnaire about their educational background, language learning, and teaching practice. This questionnaire was to ascertain their approach and teaching experience in foreign language teaching and their learning environment. Then, classroom observations took place in the teachers' typical 90-minute classroom setting to observe how teachers regularly teach and interact with their students.

2.3.1 Data analysis methods. The classroom observations were transcribed. After transcribing the data, the researchers encoded the classroom data, as explained below.

2.3.2 Encoding Data. In the first stage, using a code the TEE project team created, following the numerical codes shown in Table 1.

Table1. Teachers' Use of Japanese/English

0 = No language use	4 = Mixed English/Japanese
1 = English only	5 = Mainly Japanese
2 = Mostly English only	6 = Mostly Japanese only
3 = Mainly English	7 = Japanese only

Below is an explanation of the proposed scale for teacher language use (shown in Table 1), along with examples for each:

0. No language use (i.e., students working on an individual activity or watching a DVD).

1. English Only.

   Teacher: OK in sports, oh first we'll do the summary on the left side here this is a summary of the story and then we'll read the story. The summary can help you to understand it a little more, OK, you will read about two anthropologists, uh, does anyone know what an anthropologist is? … No? OK?

2. Mostly English Only; just a Japanese word or two used (mostly unrelated to instruction, like fillers or words used for "fun").

   Teacher: Bump Bump. OK. See you later. Bye. Dun Dun OK. Duh number 1, please tell me 一、二、三、はい *ichi ni san hai* [1, 2, 3, yes], they decided to go to a   一、二、三、はい *ichi ni san hai* [1, 2, 3, yes].

3. Mainly English; English is the instruction language but some Japanese words/expressions used for clarification, etc.

   Teacher: I'm dying for. Some people said 喉乾いた *nodo kawaita* [I'm thirsty]. Thirsty, thirsty. OK. I'm dying for equals I really want, or I really need something. OK? So, I'm dying for a drink, means I really really want a drink.

4. Mixed English/Japanese (English and Japanese are both being used as the instruction language, roughly equally) and basically saying the same thing in both languages.

   Teacher: OK. では、チェックをして行きましょうか。○○君、はい、じゃあ。 *Dewa chekku wo shiteikimashouka. ○○-kun Hai, jyaa.* [Check your answers. "A" Traffic is congested with many scooters.]   合っていますか。 *Atteimasuka?* [Is that correct?] Congested は，キイボキャブラリ、一、二、出て来ましたね。混乱 した。 *ha, kii bokyaburari ichi ni detekimashitane. Konranshita.* [Congest is the key word. We already did numbers one and two.] OK. じゃ *Jya* "B" Players, players, are ready for a game to begin. Who chose B? Raise your hand. Who chose B? Raise your hand. Nobody? OK.

5. Mainly Japanese; Japanese is the instruction language but some English words/expressions used for instructional purposes.

   Teacher: そうです。男性も女性もテニスをしていましたね。で、そう、女性があ る問題を抱えています。それが一番最初の問題、 *Soudesu. Dansei mo josei mo tenisu o shite imashita ne. De,-sō, josei ga aru mondai o kakaete imasu. Sore ga ichiban saisho no mondai* [Yeah. Men and women play tennis. This woman has a problem. That is the first question.] What is the woman's problem? じゃあ *Jyaa* [So] Please raise your hand. Who chose A? Raise your hand. Who chose B? Who chose C? Who chose D? OK.

6. Mostly Japanese Only; just an English word or two used (mostly unrelated to

instruction, like fillers or words used for "fun").

Teacher: はい、じゃ、*Hai, jya,* [OK, so] Number 2。ちょとこれ、えーと、英語でちょっとだれか書いてくれますか？出来てる人、ちょっと出て来て書いて。だれか。*Cho to kore, eˉto, eigo de chotto dare ka kaite kuremasu ka? Deki teru hito, chotto dete kite kai te. Dare ka.* [Uh, can someone write this in English? Anyone? Can someone come up here and write it?] Anybody? ちょっと、早く出て来て書いて。*Chotto, hayaku dete kite kai te.* [Come quickly] Quickly。one それから *Sorekara* [then] two。

7. Japanese Only; (English is only used when reading examples from textbook, etc. and not being produced by teacher).

Teacher: あの、なんかマクドナルドの宣伝で、*Ano, nanka Makudonarudo no senden de,* [MacDonald's promotion] "I'm loving it." というのを聞いたことないですかね？古いかな、ちょっと？普通、*to iu no o kiita koto naidesu ka ne? Furui ka na, chotto? Futsū,* [Have you heard of it? I guess it's old? Normally] love はね、*Wa ne,* I'm loving it. とあるんだけど、普通は、*to arun -dakedo, futsū wa,* [this is what it says, normally] I love you. みたいに、*mitaini,* [It's like saying] I love chocolate. とか、*toka* [or] I love hamburgers. とか、こっちの方が普通なんですね。で、だけど宣伝でこれ使ってたんですね。*Toka, kottchi no kata ga futsūnan desu ne. De,dakedo senden de kore tsukattetan desu ne.* [Here, this is what's normally said, but this is used as a promo.]

Macaro's (2001) 5-second sampling technique was applied to focus on teachers' use of Japanese and/or English in their lessons, as shown in Figure 1. The first column in Figure 1 shows time of every 5-seconds of the video-recording, which the author marked and coded each teachers' language use for the entire lesson. The second column named "Activities & Episodes" indicates the function of the teachers' utterances for each segment. In this way, teacher utterances were systematically labeled every five seconds according to coding categories.

Time	Activities & Episodes	Eng. Only	Mostly Eng.	Mainly Eng.	Mixed Eng/Jap	Mainly Jap.	Mostly Jap.	Jap. Only
0:01:15	Giving instructions	✓						
0:01:20	Giving instructions	✓						
0:01:25	Giving instructions				✓			
0:01:30	Giving instructions				✓			
0:01:35	Video							

Figure 1. Encoding the classroom data

2.4 Teachers' Interviews

　　After the teachers' classes were observed, they were interviewed to delve into their thought processes and gain insight into their teaching methods. The semi-structured interviews were designed to grasp teachers' practices and perspectives on Japanese use. The teachers were asked how much Japanese and/or English they would use in the lesson if there were situations in which they use Japanese. Then the interviews were transcribed by professional transcribers and analyzed qualitatively by identifying the content of the interview and codifying the answers and then classifying them within the categories (Richards, 2009). JTEs' interviews conducted in Japanese were translated into English by the author.

3. Results

　　This section answers the two research questions written previously in section 1.2. The data were assessed based on the outcome of how much Japanese or English JTEs and NJTEs used in the classrooms. The findings presented in this section shed some light on comparisons between the Japanese and non-Japanese teacher groups. Moreover, the interview data reveal the teachers' line of reasoning regarding their use of L1 in the classroom.

3.1 RQ1 - Do Teachers Use L1 in Their Classroom?　If so, How Much?

　　The answer to the first research question is discussed in this section. The content of Figure 2 illustrates the JTEs teacher's approach to the use of L1 and L2 in the classroom while Figure 3 focuses on NJTEs. Table 2 provides the actual percentages of the JTEs, which is similar to Table 3 for the NJTEs.
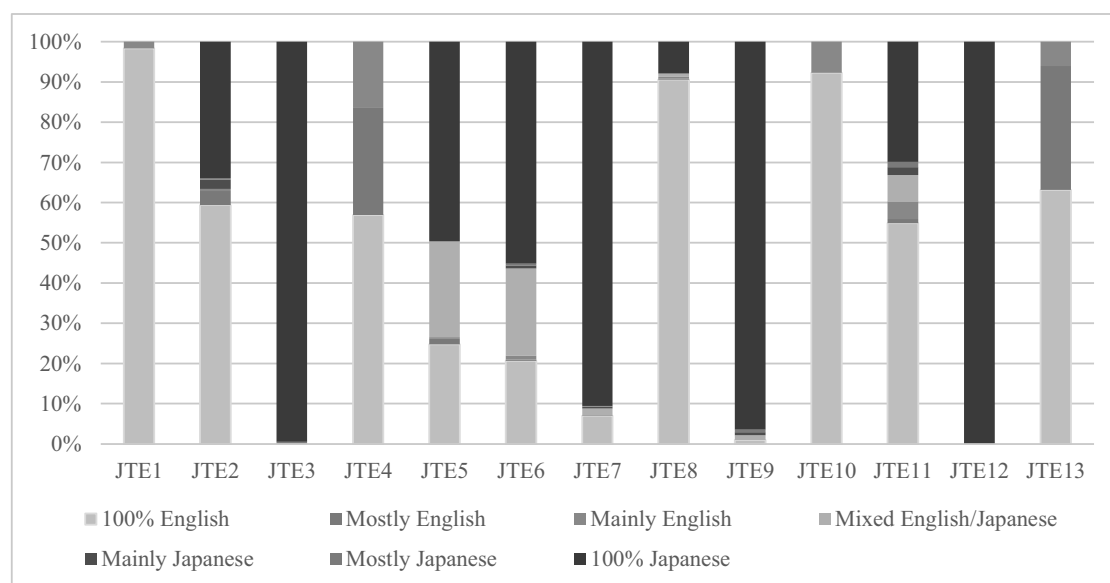

Figure 2. JTEs use of English and Japanese in the classroom

The results indicate that the JTEs vary greatly from each other about of the amount of L1 they use in the classroom (see Figure 2 and Table 2). For example, comparing JTE1 and JTE10 to the other JTEs, they used English throughout their lessons and used only a little Japanese to assist students' comprehension. In contrast, JTE3, 7, 9, and 12 felt they had to use Japanese only or almost all Japanese because they were teaching lower-level students.

Table 2. Percentage of JTEs' English/Japanese use

	100% English	Mostly English	Mainly English	Mixed Eng/Japan	Mainly Japanese	Mostly Japanese	100% Japanese
JTE1	98%	0%	2%	0%	0%	0%	0%
JTE2	59%	4%	1%	0%	2%	0%	34%
JTE3	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	100%
JTE4	57%	27%	16%	0%	0%	0%	0%
JTE5	25%	1%	0%	24%	0%	0%	50%
JTE6	21%	0%	1%	22%	1%	0%	55%
JTE7	7%	0%	0%	2%	0%	0%	91%
JTE8	91%	0%	0%	1%	0%	0%	8%
JTE9	1%	0%	0%	1%	1%	1%	96%
JTE10	92%	0%	8%	0%	0%	0%	0%
JTE11	55%	1%	4%	7%	2%	1%	30%
JTE12	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	100%
JTE13	63%	31%	6%	0%	0%	0%	0%

Note: Percentages may not total 100 due to rounding.

All NJTEs implemented the English-only method in their lessons regardless of students' English proficiency, as shown in Figure 3.
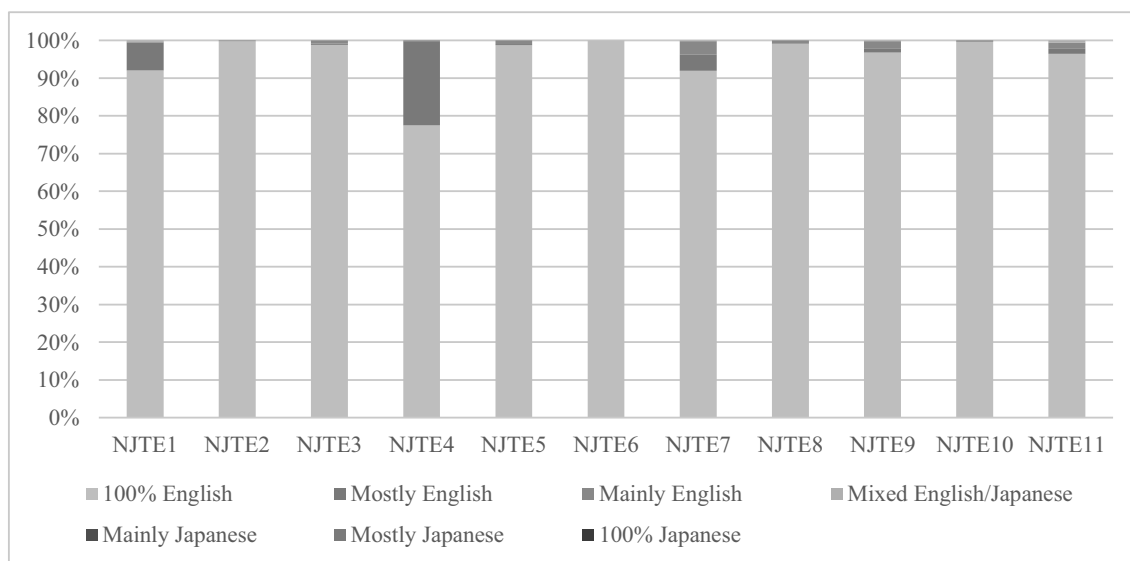
Figure 3. NJTEs' use of English and Japanese in the classroom

Table 3 shows the actual percentages of the use of L1 and L2.

Table 3. Percentage of NJTEs' English and Japanese in the classroom

	100% English	Mostly English	Mainly English	Mixed Eng/Japan	Mainly Japanese	Mostly Japanese	100% Japanese
NJTE1	92%	7%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
NJTE2	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
NJTE3	99%	0%	1%	0%	0%	0%	0%
NJTE4	77%	22%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
NJTE5	99%	0%	1%	0%	0%	0%	0%
NJTE6	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
NJTE7	92%	4%	4%	0%	0%	0%	0%
NJTE8	99%	0%	1%	0%	0%	0%	0%
NJTE9	97%	1%	2%	0%	0%	0%	0%
NJTE10	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
NJTE11	96%	1%	2%	1%	0%	0%	0%

Note: Percentages may not total 100 due to rounding.

Among them, seven incorporated some Japanese in their lessons for various purposes. For example, NJTE4 used Japanese to get the students to relax in class and motivate them through humor, as shown below (Excerpt 1).

Excerpt 1 (NJTE4 use of L1 collecting students' attendance slips)
Line 1:　Thank you. Thank you. *Shuseki* (attendance slips). It doesn't matter. Thank

you.

Line 2: OK *hai* [yes] Good morning. Okey Dokey. OK so turn on your computers. Log in.

Line 3: Thank you. Thank you. Thank you. Thank you. OK *chotto matte* [just a moment]. Line 4: Doo da doo da do do do do do. *Shuseki* bliss. Thank you very much. OK

Line 5: *Arigatou. Arigatou.* [thank you, thank you] OK thank you. Thank you. OK

Line 6: *Shuseki* name card, name card, yeah.

In lines 1 and 2, NJTE4 asked and collected the *shuseki* (attendance) slips from his students by saying *shuseki* and *hai*. Then on line 2, he wanted the students to get ready for class. Line 3, and then continued to collect the slips. He also noticed a student with his slip, but he was on the other side of the room and then said, "*Chotto matte*". Once NJTE4 was able to reach him and get his slip, he could still use humor (with the overly enthusiastic, hyperbolic "bliss") on line 4. This situation may also be a tactic to show students that if he already knows simple Japanese words and expressions, they do not have any excuse not to use simple English.

3.2 RQ2 - Do Teachers Have Reasons for Using L1 in Their Classroom? If so, What are They?

With respect to the second research question, the answer is based on the teachers' interviews. The following sections will provide excerpts from both the JTEs and NJTEs. "Int" indicates the interviewer.

(1) JTEs reasons for L1 use.

(a) Affective reasons

When considering social interaction with students, the L1 can be a useful communication tool to get students to communicate with the teacher. JTE6 viewed this as a crucial component of classroom management and felt that effective teaching would require establishing a good relationship with students.

JTE6: They are bit getting noisy and I had the feeling that I probably need to feel close. I wanted them to feel close to me and I didn't think English was appropriate language to do that because that would keep distance from them and I didn't want that. I wanted it to be casual but just wanted to get the attention for the class. So I felt that Japanese was appropriate for the situation.

Int: Japanese is a kind of way to develop some connections to students. That may be difficult to do that in English.

JTE6: Exactly. I found that, yes. (JTE6, Interview, November 11, 2015)

When observing JTE1's class, the author found she rarely used any Japanese. Nonetheless, in the interviews, she acknowledged that she would sometimes codeswitch unconsciously. For example, she would say, "My mother is *genki* [fine], but my computer is not." (JTE1, Interview, November 15, 2014).

(b) Supporting low-level classes

The five JTEs (JTE 2, 3, 7, 9, and 12), who basically used L1 throughout their lessons, felt that their students' proficiency levels were too low for them to speak only in English during their classes. Their lessons focused on grammar and vocabulary instructions in all four skills: speaking, listening, reading, and writing.

JTE12 expressed a concern that university students' overall academic ability has declined significantly so that their English academic ability is insufficient, and it was impossible for her to use English only. She felt that there could be potential problems to face if the university, where she was teaching, had followed an English-only policy.

> English in English is already difficult for high school students because their level is already limited unless they are returnees. They have limited listening abilities and have difficulty expressing themselves. I think it's almost impossible to do English-only lessons even in the university level because college academic ability has declined significantly. (JTE12, Interview, May 15, 2017)

JTE2 admitted that in her TOEIC classes, students with low TOEIC scores might not be able to understand her lectures if she taught in English.

> Int: Do you use Japanese in your class?
> JTE2: Yes, I do. Especially in the TOEIC class. I use the textbook, so when it comes to grammatical explanations, students with low TOEIC scores can't understand it. That is why I have to use Japanese. (JTE2, Interview, December 11, 2014)

In the case of JTE3, her main concern was her students' motivation. If English was too difficult, her low-level students tended to disengage from the lesson. However, if she used Japanese, she noticed students were more likely to listen to her.

> The most difficult for me is to motivate Japanese students. I will use it [Japanese] because it is easier for students to understand if you explain the lessons in Japanese. For low-level students, if they do not understand me, this will reduce their motivation to learn English. (JTE3, Interview, October 15, 2014)

With regards to JTE9, at the time of the interview, she was teaching a "Basic English"

course, which was a grammar-centered class. Therefore, most of the explanations about English grammar were in Japanese. She added that there was some difficulty using the target language as a teaching language due to time constraints.

> Most of the explanation in my lesson is in Japanese because I am teaching English grammar. I have to speak Japanese because of time constraints, it is actually difficult for me to use L2 as a teaching language. (JTE9, Interview, May 12, 2016)

As for JTE7, she had a very different perspective since she was trained as an interpreter. She said that she would often use Japanese when comparing the difference between Japanese and English.

> My purpose is to make the students understand that they need to think one way in Japanese and another way in English. The most critical aspects of studying a foreign language was that students need to understand that they must know their language in terms of grammar, vocabulary, and expressions. No matter how much English they must study, it would be a wasted effort if they could not understand their mother tongue. (JTE7, Interview, May 21, 2015)

(c) Maintaining lesson flow

One of the most interesting issues revealed in the data was that two of the teachers (JTE8, and JTE13) used Japanese to facilitate understanding without disrupting the flow of their lectures and communication with their students. For instance, JTE8 provided Japanese feedback in intermediate-level students' essays when it came to explaining why a particular sentence structure should have either a transitive or an intransitive verb.

> Int: I noticed that you suddenly used Japanese when you were explaining about the essay.
> JTE8: That's right. While explaining the essay, I was explaining it my mother tongue. I write the feedback in English but since I am only explaining very briefly about the transitive and intransitive verb. (JTE8, Interview, November 22, 2016)

In JTE13's interview, he said he rarely used Japanese unless he felt it was necessary, as follows:

> If more than two students couldn't understand I'll translate into Japanese. I don't directly translate difficult words into Japanese. (JTE13, Interview, November 16, 2017)

(d) Grammar and Comprehension

Regarding TOEIC classes, JTE5 revealed that she used Japanese when explaining grammar points:

> For the reason I mentioned earlier that [for] the TOEIC, I have to explain those grammar or some detailed pronunciation, other things, giving some important points, explain to them, it's easier for me to do that in Japanese.   (JTE5, Interview, November 16, 2015)

However, JTE11 used Japanese for different reasons. She felt that if students comprehended the lessons, then maybe students would remember the concept better (Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008).

> I use Japanese and so for retention, in order to retain the meaning, they can easily retain what they learned in English if they know the meaning. In order to retain what they learned, I think they need the first language. It's easier for them to retain if they know the meaning. (JTE11, Interview, November 7, 2016)

(e) English-only policy

From his interview, JTE10 believed that the university at which he was currently teaching had an English-only policy:

> Actually, I took this for granted. I thought maybe I have to use English because it is written in the syllabus. I have to follow the syllabus, so okay, I have to use English then.   (JTE10, Interview, November 10, 2016)

In her interview, JTE4 revealed her own individual perspective. She felt that there were times that she wanted to use Japanese since it was natural to talk to other Japanese people using L1. Yet, she contradicted herself because of the conflict between what JTEs do versus what they believe students expect them to do and what JTEs believe the institution and parents think they should do.

> Int: I heard from other Japanese teachers that it is strange to use English only in the class. Could you tell us a little more about it?
>
> JTE4:   It's natural for us to use Japanese. It's normal for Japanese to speak Japanese. Of course, I do not dare to do so. In some way, speaking only in English doesn't seem natural for me in a classroom. (JTE4, Interview, November 13, 2015)

Throughout their interviews, the JTEs supported an English-only policy. However,

they had different approaches and views on their use of the L1. It seems that students' English proficiency was a big factor in how much English teachers could use in their lessons. The next section presents the results of the NJTEs interviews.

(2) NJTEs reasons for L1 use.
(a) Affective reasons

As shown in Figure 3, all the NJTEs basically followed an English-only policy in their classrooms regardless of the students' proficiency levels and attitudes. They were asked about Japanese use and their reasons if they used it. For those who used Japanese in the class, one of the main reasons the NJTEs did so was to create a positive affective environment.

> They might be nervous, they are 1nensei [1st year students], socially awkward, so coming in, the first thing I say is *eigo daikiraina hito te o agete* [Anyone who hates English, raise your hand] and shoot their hands up, 80%, and then they relax. . . . Yeah, as I said, first I intentionally do for a few reasons; just to relax them, to show them, hey this guy, he speaks bad Japanese but he's making an effort, oh I can relax here. (NTJE1, Interview, December 16, 2014)

As for NJTE11, he used to practice an English-only method but found it backfired in his relationship with his students. He pointed out:

> If they asked me a question in Japanese, I would say, "Sorry, you have to ask me in English." But, then I found a lot of them would start shying away from asking. (NJTE11, Interview, November 15, 2017)

NJTE10 adamantly insisted that he did not use Japanese at all in the lessons. However, he admitted that he used Japanese for entertainment purposes to keep them listening and awake:

> I've copied some of the students' phrases, some of the students' slang. I'm a lot older and a foreigner so I think that helps. That makes it funny. Instead of saying *muzukashii* or difficult, if I say *muzui* [difficult] or *chomuzu* [very difficult] or something like that, that's amusing apparently. (NJTE10, Interview, December 5, 2017)

From excerpt 1, it seems that NJTE4 used Japanese to add humor in his classes. Nevertheless, his view on the use of the L1 in his classes was that the Japanese he used in class was not "real" Japanese:

I usually don't use a lot of Japanese in my class, because I don't know a lot of Japanese. Plus, I was hired as a foreigner to teach English. . . . Intermediate courses like today, I don't use Japanese. I figure they know enough.   (NJTE4, Interview, November 4, 2014)

(b) Conveying important points

Another reason the teachers preferred to use the L1 was to be sure that students understood the lesson's content or the instruction. In NJTE3's case, he said:

I use it when something is crucial to the lesson or when they have an assignment or something, and I want to make sure they understand, especially the lower-level students. Sometimes you need Japanese for explaining difficult grammar points. (NJTE3, Interview, October 31, 2014)

(c) Maintaining communication flow

Two of the teachers said that the L1 should be used to maintain communication flow. They felt that this would help to prevent students' becoming bored in the classroom. For example, NJTE6 disclosed that using simple Japanese words and expressions is "lazy teaching," but it made it easy for him and his students to maintain the lesson flow.

I do *san hai*, [ready, go] because they can understand me. If I say, "OK, please repeat after me," they wouldn't understand when to say it after me. But *san hai*, [ready, go] they get it. It just cuts down on dead time.   (NJTE6, Interview, October 26, 2015)

In NJTE7's case, he noticed students' look of confusion whenever he attempted to use English to explain idiomatic phrases. He said that he was happy to fall back on using Japanese. He also understood there were cases of Japanese language and cultural aspects combined:

I use the word *Janken* as in place of rock, paper, scissors, just because . . . It's easier to say it.   (NJTE7, Interview, November 14, 2016)

(d) English-only

Four interviewees (NJTE 2, 5, 8, and 9) maintained an English-only method, assuming that by maximizing L2 use would improve students' learning (Ford, 2009; Ryan, 2002). In particular, NJTE9 believed that university students should be able to deal with an English-only lesson:

NJTE9:   At the university level, I believe that they should learn English, completely in English.

> Int: Okay, well, you do it. You're pretty strict about it as well.
>
> NJTE9: Yes, that's right. But you see, that's the thing. When you're strict with them, they will adapt.   (NJTE9, Interview, November 9, 2017)

NJTE8 realized that he naturally does not use the L1 in his classes. He felt that it might have been related to his experience when he was in the JET program. He believed that the students did not need Japanese explanations and rules because he had learned French through immersion when he was in high school. For this reason, students should be able to learn English through immersion, too:

> The teachers would be explaining lots and lots in Japanese. And yes, I would feel angry, "Why are they not doing this in English, we have got to teach English in English?"   (NJTE8, Interview, October 24, 2016)

As for NJTE2, she would only use Japanese if she needed to talk to a student privately or in an emergency. She felt that using English was character building for the students:

> Some students have very low confidence. So, when they don't understand what to do, they just deliberately don't listen. Because they feel "I don't understand anyway, so I won't listen and do something else." So yeah, I have to focus on those students and trying to build their confidence and ask them lots of questions.   (NJTE2, Interview, January 19, 2015)

Although NJTE5 did not use any L1 when her class was observed, she admitted that she used Japanese in other classes:

> I use it when something is crucial to the lesson or when they have an assignment or something, and I want to make sure they understand, especially the lower-level students. Sometimes you need Japanese for explaining difficult grammar points, sometimes you have to explain it in a Japanese sort of way. This is for the first-year classes.   (NJTE5, Interview, November 27, 2015)

Unlike their JTE counterparts, all the NJTEs were deliberately focusing on an English-only approach regardless of students' proficiency. All through their interviews, they maintained that if Japanese were used students would have limited opportunities for English practice, and they would not work and think as hard during the lessons. They also felt that it was their responsibility to provide an English-rich environment that the students would not have outside of class. The next section will discuss the results and implications

of the use of the L1 in the classroom.

4. Discussion and Implications

The findings indicate that both groups may have more in common than they think in terms of monitoring language use, attempting to become involved with their students' learning, and assessing their comprehension. The results indicate that some generalization may be made about how most JTEs and NJTEs feel about the use of Japanese in their university classrooms. By focusing the amount of the L1 teachers used in their classrooms and the reasoning behind its use, this section will answer to the following research questions:

・RQ1 - Do these university teachers use L1 in their classroom? If so, how much?
・RQ2 - Do these university teachers have reasons for using L1 in their classroom? If so, what are they?

From the results, the answers to research questions 1 and 2 are a "yes" for the JTEs, especially when teaching a lower proficiency class or teaching grammar. These results support findings for Tang's (2002) teachers in a university in China. When the teachers taught a low proficiency class, they tended to use Chinese in the English class. It also seems that when students' L2 proficiency is high, so is teachers' use of the L2, in keeping with findings in other research (Carson, 2014a; 2018a). However, from the interviews, most JTEs felt they had to use Japanese to have a closer relationship with their students, which is contrary to the NJTE's beliefs but supported JTE's beliefs in Carson (2014b; 2018b). She found that NJTEs in her research felt that emotional support using the L1 was unimportant, but the JTEJs thought it was even more important than their students (2018b). The teachers in the current study also felt managing the classroom and sustaining the flow of the lecture and conversation were important reasons to use the L1, concurring with similar findings by Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney (2008).

In contrast, the NJTEs implemented an English-only medium of instruction regardless of students' proficiency. Those who knew the L1 tended to conceal it. Like the rationale given by the JTEs, there were NJTEs who felt they had to use the L1 for important points during their instruction and to maintain a good relationship with their students. In addition, there were some opportunities when they consciously used the L1, either for humor or to create a positive, friendly atmosphere, much like the Turkish university teachers teaching English in Kayaoğlu's (2012) study.

When the students did not understand their teachers' English, the interviewer asked the teachers how they addressed this situation. Most of the JTEs said they tended to rephrase, talk more slowly, repeat, give examples, change the question structure, and/or let students use their dictionary. As for the NJTEs, most of them rephrased their words,

talked more slowly, used the board, gave examples, repeated, sent e-mails to students, and/or let students use their smartphones to translate problematic words and phrases. These findings echo those found in earlier research (Carson, 2018a).

The findings support some pedagogical suggestions. First, the JTEs who tend to use the L1 throughout their lessons could implement English scaffolding strategies that move students to more independence in their L2 learning process. One way is to provide a group activity introducing difficult vocabulary and essential key words and phrases that the students will learn throughout the semester. Students could collaborate and discuss these expressions with their peers. Second, the NJTEs could allow students to plan L2 production using their L1 especially after teachers' instructions of a particular classroom activity or project (Carson, 2018a). Third, all teachers should divide their instructions into smaller sections with activities students can engage in, and give them the time to reflect on what they had learned. Fourth, all teachers should systematically provide students' L1 feedback and check their students' understanding which in turn will foster more interactions between students and teachers and ultimately engagement in classroom activities. Lastly, more research, focusing on teaching strategies may be essential for efficient and effective use of the L1 in the L2 classrooms. One example is the new approach, "translanguaging" (Canagarajah, 2011), which argues for mixing the L1 and L2 in the classroom. According to Bartlett (2018), students draw on whatever language they know while developing the L2 simultaneously (Kroll et al., 2012) through their speaking and writing. Further research is required on whether the introduction and implementation of translanguaging would be useful and beneficial for students and teachers in the Japanese universities.

Finally, the author is unaware of research specifying the amount of L1/L2 switching between the JTEs and NTEs in articles written in English in Japan. In addition, further research on teachers' medium of instruction on their use of the L1 and L2 is necessary if the ultimate purpose is to minimalize pedagogical repercussions with their students (Carson, 2014b; 2015b). Perhaps teachers need to develop methods of using L1 by using surveys such as the Student Preferences for Instructional Language (SPIL), which Carson (2015a) created to systematically generate data about students' L1 preferences. In this survey, there were seven factors focusing on students' preference for L1 support: Lexico-grammar; tests and reports, review, comprehension, emotions; teacher's willingness to use the L1; and culture and society. Once teachers understand their students' preferences on using the L1 and L2, this could potentially improve both the teachers' and their students' relationship and classroom management. In addition, this would lessen the guilt for all teachers for using the students' L1, which may, in turn, encourage teachers to start using scaffolding for students to build up their comprehension and fluency. Additionally, this may increase students' motivation in learning the L2 and other languages.

5. Conclusion

This study aimed to investigate university teachers' use of the L1 and L2 in the classroom and teachers' beliefs about using the L1 and L2. The findings suggest that JTEs' L1 use differed among teachers depending on students' proficiency, especially the teachers who had lower-level students. As for the NJTEs, regardless of students' proficiency, they implemented an English-only policy. However, both JTEs and NJTEs had similar reasons for using the L1 in the classroom. Notably, they wanted their students to feel comfortable in class, to maintain the flow of the conversation and to convey essential points of the lesson.

Nonetheless, this study may be limited by two considerations. First, the teachers were convenience samples since they were friends and colleagues of the researchers in the TEE project. The generalizability of the results may come into question. Second, the institutional policy may influence teachers' beliefs and use of the L1. Both of these limitations should be addressed in future studies. In any respect, this study has contributed the understanding of teachers' beliefs and use of the L1 in the classroom.

In conclusion, if teachers use both the L1 and L2 as their medium of instruction, this might increase students' retention, use, and motivation in English classes. An English-only policy may result in additional communication barriers, exacerbate communication breakdowns, and increase confusion among students. Thus, this study highlights that an L2 only classroom may not always be the best option.

Acknowledgements

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【Chronicle】

April 2020 — March 2021

Presentations by the SIG members:

Date	Title and Presenter(s) Venue	Event
July 26	Invited lecture : "COVID-19 and Future Foreign Language Education and CLIL" Rie Adachi. Web conference with Zoom	The 1st meeting in 2020 of JACET-Kansai Chapter "Research on Foreign Language Education Abroad"
August 29	"Teaching Vocabulary and Using Dictionaries in Elementary-school EFL Classrooms: Implications from National Survey Results among In-service Teachers" Natsue Nakayama, Kagari Tsuchiya, and Takane Yamaguchi. Web conference with Zoom	The 13th Annual Convention of JACET Kanto Chapter
September 16-20	"Enhancing Cultural Understanding Attitudes through International Collaborative Learning Project" Yoichi Kiyota On-demand Video Presentations	International Network of Museums for Peace (INMP)
October 3	"Primary School Foreign Language Education in Italy from the Perspective of Teacher Education" Eri Osada Web conference with Zoom	Lecture hosted by JACET Kanto Chapter (2020)
October 10-11	**Oct. 11** "Relationship between CLIL Activities and Children's Emotional Factors in Foreign Languages Learning" Rie Adachi, Shino Abe, Hiroko Kashimoto, Yuki Kitano, Rika Takeda, Aki Matsunobu, and Mari Yasuda **Oct. 11** "Textbook Analysis of Foreign Language Education in Elementary School from the Perspective of Vocabulary"	The 20th The Japan Association of English Teaching in Elementary Schools (JES) Convention of Chubu-Gifu Chapter

	Kagari Tsuchiya	
	Web conference with Zoom	
October 25	1. "Improving English Teaching Practice Using Self-assessment Descriptors in J-POSTL" Yoichi Kiyota, Chitose Asaoka, and Fumiko Kurihara 2. "Intercultural Understanding Educational Practice and Teacher Awareness in Japanese Elementary Schools: RFCDC Perspective" Rie Adachi, Megumi Katahira, Yuki Kitano, and Nao Fukikoshi 3. "Developing Children's Intercultural Competence in Foreign Language Classes." Natsue Nakayama, Junya Narita, and Kagari Tsuchiya. 4. "Identifying the qualities and competencies necessary for future elementary school English teachers: Based on the survey results obtained from elementary school teachers and university students studying in the elementary school teaching program" Takane Yamaguchi, Sakiko Yoneda, Natsue Nakayama, and Sayoko Fujii 5. "Consideration of Research on Teaching the Alphabet in Elementary School Education" Kagari Tsuchiya 6. "Foreign Language Learning in Cooperation with Museums: A Case Study of Project-based Learning in Elementary School" Yoichi Kiyota, Georgette Wilson, and Shino Abe Waseda University/ Web conference with Zoom	Language Education EXPO2020: (Postponed March to October)

November 14-21	"Automatic Quantitative Discussion Analysis: Assessing Discussion in a Web Conference Environment" Miwa Morishita and Mayuko Matsuoka On-demand Video Presentations	The 2020 Conference of the JACET Kansai Chapter
November 16-23	Nov. 22 "Preservice Teachers: Practice and Reflection" Gaby Benthien and Takane Yamaguchi Web conference with Zoom	JALT 2020
December 6	"The Effect of English Storytelling Activities to Children on the Attitudes of Student Teachers" Natsue Nakayama and Kagari Tsuchiya. Web conference with Zoom	The Third JAAL in JACET Conference
December 12	Lecture: "The Learning-to-Teach Process of English Language Teachers and Collaborative Reflection" Chitose Asaoka Web conference with Zoom	JACET Kanto-Chapter Sponsored Lecture Series, the third lecture, 2020

Abbreviations

JACET: The Japan Association of College English Teachers

JES: The Japan Association of English Teaching in Elementary Schools

JAAL: The Japan Association of Applied Linguistics

JALT; The Japan Association for Language Teaching

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 primary/secondary 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 *J-POSTL* or on language teacher education and related fields.	Within 8,000
Research Note	Discussion notes on *J-POSTL* 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, PD activities, materials, research programs, etc. related to *J-POSTL* 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: 今村 洋美　Hiromi Imamura　imamura@isc.chubu.ac.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)

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、髙木亜希子、清田洋一

■　　「言語教師のポートフォリオ」には，【英語教師教育全編】【英語教職課程編】【現職英語教師編】の３編があります。それぞれの用途によって使い分けることができます。本ポートフォリオの主な特徴は次の通りです。
　　・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。

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