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【Article from Italy】

CLIL Teacher Education: Issues and Direction

Carmel Mary Coonan

Abstract

CLIL - content and language integrated learning - developed in Europe in the '90's as a response to the need to find ways to promote higher levels of competence in a *foreign* language. It has attracted the attention and interest of many European countries, which have taken moves to integrate it, in various ways, into their educational systems. In order to explore the issues of CLIL teacher education (the focus of this paper), we first of all focus briefly on the Italian situation – country that has introduced compulsory CLIL into the High school system and which is promoting the presence of CLIL at other levels of schooling through its *National Plan for Teacher Education 2016-2019* and describe some of the CLIL-teacher Profiles that have been elaborated at a European level to highlight their utility. We then proceed to discuss what we consider to be some of the salient features of the CLIL teaching/learning environment and which have been chosen to underpin the Venice CLIL teacher-training model for in-service teachers.

Keywords

CLIL issues; CLIL teacher profiles; CLIL teacher training

1. The Italian Context

In 2009-10 the Reform of the secondary school system in Italy introduced the compulsory teaching of a non-language subject through a foreign language in the final (5th) year of high school (with the exception of the Linguistic lyceum which introduces foreign language medium (FLMI) teaching in one foreign language from the third year and in another foreign language medium for another school subject from the fourth year).

Lyceum high schools can choose whatever foreign language they like for whatever school subject they wish. Technical institutions on the other hand must opt for English and must choose a school subject that characterises the specialist curriculum being followed. Professional schools are not part of compulsory CLIL but on the basis of the law on school autonomy (1999) and the aforementioned National Plan of 2016 CLIL will be extended to these institutions also.

The Law on Teacher Education, passed in 2010 in response to the reform of the school system the year previously, added further specifications for compulsory CLIL: the CLIL teacher is a *non-language subject* teacher with a *C1* level in the medium language. The specific reference to non-language subjects excludes the foreign language medium teaching of school subjects such as Latin, Greek and Italian¹.

In consideration of the need to satisfy the new law requirements pertaining to compulsory CLIL, a nation-wide plan for the training of qualified practising teachers was approved in 2012. The plan foresees: language courses for the language development of future CLIL teachers (from B1>B2>C1); methodological courses for qualified practicing teachers. All courses are financed by the Ministry.

The focus of this paper is the methodological training of CLIL teachers.

The national plan specifies that such courses be delivered by universities who have to follow the lines set out for them by the Ministry of Education (D.D. n° 6, 16/04/2012). These indicate:

- the learning outcomes to pursue through the courses must be based on the CLIL Teacher Profile especially devised by the Ministry (see Appendix);
- the courses are articulated around a total of 20 CFU². 18 CFU divided into: 9 focusing on basic principles (knowledge focus) and 9 focusing on laboratorial activities (skills-building focus). Of these 18 CFU, 3 CFU must be delivered in the co-presence of a non-language subject CLIL expert. The remaining 2 CFU are dedicated to a practicum at school.

Apart from these indications, and an initial restriction (later removed) that limited the amount CFUs that could be delivered on-line, the universities were free to plan the content and mode of delivery of the courses in whatever way they wished.

Universities nation-wide (mainly one for each region³ of the country) have been running such courses since 2014 – each one on the basis of a model of its own.

¹ Prior to the School Reform, experimental CLIL projects were to be found that proposed the teaching of Latin through English.

² For the Courses offered by the University of Venice, 1 CFU equals 25 hours of which 6 hours are dedicated to direct contact with the teacher (lessons) and the remaining hours are dedicated to self-study and the carrying out of learning tasks. For the Practicum: the 50 hours (2 CFU) are distributed between planning for observation, carrying out CLIL lesson, observations of CLIL lessons and collective reflection of what has been observed.

³ Not all the universities of each region responded to the Ministry's public Call. Venice, for example, runs all the courses for the Friuli-Giulia Venezia region.

2. CLIL Teacher Education

The emergence of the ‘CLIL teacher’ has naturally led to reflections on his/her professional profile and training needs.

A first consideration concerns who the CLIL teacher actually is: a non-language subject teacher, a teacher with a combination profile (non-language subject teacher & language teacher), foreign language teacher (cf. Eurydice, 2006; 2012 for details about the distribution in Europe of the different types of CLIL teacher). Different countries allow for different solutions so training needs will differ accordingly.

Normally speaking, the CLIL teacher has already been through initial teacher education⁴. Thus, CLIL training tends to be developed through in-service, professional development paths, embedding itself into an already existing professional profile. What is important, for the provision of the training path, is the nature of the existing professional profile itself.

Since the new millennium, some specific CLIL-teacher profiles have been produced in Europe, many with European funding and each with slightly different characteristics. We mention three:

a. The *CLIL Teacher’s Competences Grid*⁵. The profile, developed within the CLIL Cascade Network (CCN), is intended to serve as a framework for developing pre-service or professional development training courses for CLIL. It is articulated around two macro areas – ‘Underpinning CLIL’ and ‘Setting CLIL in motion’ each of which is subdivided into macro-competences, related micro-competences and related skills, the latter expressed in terms of ‘can do’. Here is an example:

CLIL policy > Adapting CLIL to local context

- *Can contextualise CLIL teaching with regard to the school curriculum*
- *Can link programme parameters and the needs of a particular class of students*
- *Can identify and engage CLIL stakeholders, and help stakeholders (students, parents, inspectors, non-CLIL teachers, etc.) manage expectations with regard to language and content learning targets.*

b. The *European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education*⁶ (ECML European project) “focuses on macro-level universal competences of CLIL educators. These have been

⁴ This will be different for country to country - cf. the situation in Italy, § 1.

⁵

http://ccll-eu.eu/cms02/fileadmin/daten/Dateien/Konferenzen/THE_CLIL_TEACHER_latest_version.pdf

⁶

<http://clil-cd.ecml.at/EuropeanFrameworkforCLILTeacherEducation/tabid/2254/language/en-GB/Default.aspx>.

identified through an examination of teacher education learning and curricular needs in CLIL contexts, and through a pan-European process of consultation”. The Framework tackles CLIL teacher training from a wide angle, relating CLIL to good pedagogy. On the basis of ‘are able’ competence standards, the Framework proposes three major training modules ‘Approaching CLIL’, ‘Implementing CLIL’ and ‘Consolidating CLIL’ each of which is internally articulated into subthemes for an overall total of 11 components or sub-modules.

c. The *CLIL Teacher Profile*⁷ was developed within the EUCLID European project and specifically focuses on CLIL at the primary school level. It is based around 6 main themes – Foreign Language Competence, Subject Competence, Planning Competences, Materials and Resources, Teaching Actions and Strategies, and Assessment Competences each of which is declined in terms of ‘knowledge and cognition’, ‘skills and strategies’, ‘attitudes’. Unlike the previous two projects, a series of actual teacher-training packages based on the Profile were also created.

The Profiles we have briefly mentioned are highly detailed and cater not only for in-service training (of qualified teachers) but also for initial pre-service training as well (Profile a. above explicitly states this). For this reason, those institutions wishing to focus only on main CLIL issues (perhaps for reasons of time), will have to filter the descriptors. By way of example (CCN Grid, above):

Implementation > Lesson planning

- ***Can design tasks that support planned learning outcomes***
- *Can design tasks that have students use several learning styles*
- *Can find and adapt authentic material which speaks to student interests and learning needs*
- *Can select, design and make use of visual support materials and realia*
- *Can decide when and how visual material should be used*
- ***Can analyse content in terms of language needs***
- *Can create cross-curricular themes and related activities in cooperation with colleagues*

In italics are those skills that we feel are probably more immediately related to CLIL teacher needs. The other teaching skills do not seem to be specifically related to CLIL issues but contribute to the quality of the learning process in general. If CLIL training takes place after initial training, then it is possible to assume that much of the above is already in place (but see § 5b below).

⁷ <http://www.eera-ecer.de/ecer-programmes/conference/5/contribution/18960/>.

3. CLIL Issues

The University of Venice has been working in the CLIL field since the 1990's both in terms of research (national and international projects) and in terms of regional in-service CLIL teacher training (Coonan, 2007; 2008; 2012). The experience gleaned from these activities has allowed the identification of some of the main issues that most concern the teachers when trying out CLIL.

3.1. Language – the 'New' Variable

CLIL, developed with reference to *foreign* language medium situations, declaredly highlights the close knit between language and learning and by so doing has led to a 'rediscovery' of the overall import of language in education and schooling in general. One has only to notice the various European-funded projects underway⁸ that explore the link language and (subject) learning to understand that CLIL is an approach that sits well in current reflections on quality (language) learning.

The effective difficulty posed by the use of a *foreign* language medium, and the requirement that the foreign language be also learnt, has opened teachers' eyes to the pervasiveness of *language* in schooling, heightening their attention to language to a degree that teaching through the normal school language does not. In fact, the *foreign* language medium situation leads to language emerging more openly as an issue: it reveals the role of language in (the success of) learning (problematic in a foreign language); it reveals the role of language in teaching (problematic in a foreign language); it reveals language as competence (problematic in a foreign language for both the teachers and the students); it shows how language must be understood and used effectively (problematic in a foreign language); it reveals the linguistic nature of content (immediately evident in the foreign language because of comprehension difficulties).

In consideration of this, we feel that CLIL as a teaching approach can best be understood from the vantage point of the variable 'language' as it is through this that the pedagogical features that characterise CLIL can best be explained and justified.

In order to overtly promote the *integrated learning* of language and content (as CLIL calls for) the CLIL teacher requires knowledge, understanding and awareness of many aspects of the *language* dimension, such as:

⁸-Developing language awareness in subject classes:

<http://www.ecml.at/ECML-Programme/Programme2016-2019/Languageofschooling/tabid/1854/language/en-GB/Default.aspx>.

- Language skills for successful subject learning: CEFR linked descriptors for mathematics and history/civics <http://www.ecml.at/ECML-Programme/Programme2012-2015/LanguageDescriptors/tabid/1800/Default.aspx>.

- A pluriliteracies approach to teaching for learning: <http://www.ecml.at/F7/tabid/969/language/en-GB/Default.aspx>.

- Languages of schooling: http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/langeduc/boxc2-schooling_EN.asp?

- a. *Language characteristics of the subjects taught* = lexis, cognitive language structures, text types and genres;
- b. *Nature of the language learning that can take place* = language as a learning outcome of subject-learning and, transversally, *through* subject learning (cf. point f. below);
- c. *Language demands of subject learning for the students* = knowing the demands of the materials and teaching procedures and knowing where linguistic complexity lies. In particular it requires knowledge and awareness about:
 - the reading and listening challenges the students will face: what are they required to read/ listen to; what preparation and on-going support do they need? what conditions will they operate in?
 - the use of language on the part of the students: writing: text types/genres? speaking: argumentation, narration, description; The difficulties these pose? The preparation and on-going support the students need?
- d. *Managing language as a tool for teaching* = requires an adequate level of communicative competence that allows for flexibility of response and suitable levels of intelligibility; knowledge about how language can be manipulated and integrated with non-verbal aids in order to scaffold student comprehension and learning;
- e. *Language as a tool for (language) learning* = language is the means whereby content is learnt (speaking to learn/writing to learn; speaking/writing to show learning; presentational talk; exploratory talk (Green, Dixon, 1994; Barnes, 2008; Mercer, 2000; 2006; Mercer, Davies, 2008; Mercer, Hodgkinson, 2008). Through the process of learning the content, the students' language and communicative/expressive competence is further developed (Vygotsky, 1978; Halliday, 1993). Furthermore, an understanding is required as to why comprehension/comprehensible input (Krashen, 1987) is so important for language acquisition; why language production (output/linguaging: Swain, 2006) is so important for language acquisition (Swain, 1985; 1995).
In sum, the CLIL teacher requires some knowledge and understanding of second/foreign language learning/acquisition processes – areas of knowledge that are not normally part of his/her professional baggage.
- f. *Language education* = as can be seen, language in CLIL occupies a strong position. This is not surprising as CLIL originated in Europe as a means to promoting better foreign language learning following the examples of bilingual education and immersion models in second language areas and of the elite bilingual schools (e.g., European schools model: Baetens Beardsmore, 1993). It was adopted by the European commission as a model for promoting plurilingualism (Marsh, 2002) and for the safeguard of European minority languages (Eurydice, 2006; 2012). In synthesis, CLIL must be viewed as an integral part of language education. At a local

level therefore the CLIL teacher needs to understand the role his/her non-language subject plays in promoting language education.

This could imply playing an active role in the promotion of literacy. The role of non-language subjects in the promotion of literacy is not always openly recognised and this observation was behind the ‘language across the curriculum (LAC)’ movement that developed in the UK in the 80’s as a result of the Bullock Report’s findings (1975) on literacy levels among the general public. LAC recognises the need that all the subjects on the school curriculum contribute to the language education of the students. The identification of a role for CLIL in promoting *foreign* language literacy takes the learning of the foreign language beyond mere communicative competence (of a BICS type – *basic interpersonal communicative skills*) towards a level of cognitive academic competence that Cummins (2008) has termed CALP (*cognitive academic language proficiency*).

In our view, it is not too exaggerated to say that knowledge of the above represents a fundamental stepping stone in succeeding in one’s teaching mission. The next step is to know how to transform this knowledge into teaching.

3.2. From Knowledge to Action – the Methodological Impact of CLIL

As said, to consider CLIL means to consider first and foremost the link between *language* and teaching and learning. In fact we consider *language* to be *the* main variable that sets CLIL apart from other teaching practices that do not afford overt attention to language issues. In our view, it is these that ultimately inform the methodological choices that are made in CLIL, over and above those procedures and strategies that the teacher adopts anyway, in accordance with the pedagogical principles s/he embraces.

In order for the dual goals of CLIL (content and [foreign] language integrated learning) to be reached, CLIL programmes *have to* be language-sensitive and *have to* be language-enhanced (meaning specific action needs to be taken vis à vis § 3.1 above). Thus, the sensitivity that arises out of knowing and understanding the various language issues needs to be transformed into strategies, into specifically focussed teaching procedures, all of which require skills. For example:

- a. skills in identifying the *language characteristics* of the school subject. This is something that a non-language subject teacher is not normally trained to do. The complexity of the operation naturally increases when the language involved is a foreign language.

- b. skills in declining *language* learning outcomes specific to subject learning and, transversally, to other subjects. Experience has shown that teachers tend to do two things: describe what they, as teachers, will do (thus describing a *teaching* objective); describe the learning objective in terms of knowing or understanding, omitting reference to the (cognitive/manual) skills the learner must acquire and their competence in managing them. This omission has consequences for possible language learning outcomes: if, for example, cognitive skills are not declined as learning objectives, activities for their development, which require the use of language to carry them out, e.g., using language to hypothesise, speculate, compare, associate, define, etc., will most likely not be provided for during the lessons. Furthermore, we have seen that CLIL can play a role in literacy development. This will require setting learning objectives where reading and writing activities not only function as the means for subject learning, but are developed as language skills in their own right.
- c. skills in managing the language demands of subject learning for the students requires being able to adopt methodological strategies and techniques for guiding comprehension; being able to support language use (written/oral) with scaffolding techniques that take account of complexity and which incorporate, precisely for this reason, a gradual approach – from more experiential, concrete tasks to more theoretical, abstract tasks (cf. Mohan, 1986); knowing how to propose lexical activities for consolidating important concepts (e.g., glossaries, concept maps...).
- d. skills for managing language as a tool for teaching means being able to regulate one's (the teacher's) output to facilitate access to content (speed of speech, reformulation techniques, questioning techniques, interaction, intonation ...); it requires a suitable competence level (the minimum competence level varies from country to country – from B2 to C1) and the ability to go off *piste*, e.g., in response to student requests for clarification, natural curiosity...
- e. recognition of the role of language as a tool for learning (both of content and of language) may require a paradigm change in teaching style to provide more space for language use, e.g., through pair/group work as opposed to the more common whole-class, lecture-like delivery; the provision of a variety of learning activities/tasks to better ensure reaching (language) learning objectives; scaffolding techniques....

In sum, the 'change' in teaching style/methodology that comes about as a result of tackling the different language issues inherent in CLIL could be considerable, depending on how 'distant' the teacher's existing pedagogy (the methodology adopted

by the teacher in daily non-CLIL practice) is from what is needed to promote CLIL learning.

4. The Venice Model

The above considerations were taken into account for the decisions concerning the Ministerial courses to offer to the in-service teachers for the Veneto and Friuli-Venezia Giulia regions. The decisions concerned the *content* to propose and the *delivery mode* to adopt.

a. Contents of the courses

The amount of time available for the courses and the type of users (practising teachers) suggested that the content-focus of the course be built around some limited issues from which reflections and activities could radiate. The questions that guided the choices were: *What makes the difference in CLIL? How might CLIL impact on regular teaching methodology? What 'extra' knowledge and skills will the teacher need, over and above that which s/he already knows and is able to do?* Reflection on these questions confirmed the need to take *language* as the door through which to enter the CLIL teaching/learning environment (§§ 3.1 and 3.2 above).

Thus, the course was articulated into two main components 'Language' and 'Methodology'. A third component was devoted to ICT (as this requirement was specified in the Ministerial CLIL-teacher profile (cf. Appendix below). The ICT component was designed to support learning during the Course itself as well as to see their applications in school.

Course content

Language

Using language to teach: strategies

Using language for classroom management: strategies

How to identify the micro-language of own subject: strategies

Strategies for dealing with language difficulties of the subject

Methodology

Planning: simple steps

Supporting oral and written comprehension: strategies

Choosing and using a text/multimedia material: exercises, activities and tasks

Supporting and guiding learning: questioning strategies

Speaking and writing: teaching strategies and techniques

Collaborative learning (pair/group work)
Assessment in CLIL: problems, strategies

ICT

Flipped learning
Using software for video lessons (Screencast-o-matic, Camtasia)
Story telling

The topics were approached inductively through discussion and elaboration (elaboration of materials, creation of tasks, making lesson plans,...) Input (through readings provided on-line and the input ‘spots’ during the lessons *in praesentia*) served to consolidate growing knowledge and awareness.

b. Delivery

Traditionally, the training model underpinning teacher training (pre-service or in-service) has been described as the ‘applied science model’ (Wallace, 1991) which is very much based on the lecture mode of delivery. It is the easiest to organize but probably the least effective in terms of learning, especially if it is skills that have to be learnt. The choice instead was to deliver a course that was as inductive as possible and which had the following characteristics:

- based on the ‘reflective model’ which combines theory and practice (ibidem);
- incorporated ‘variety’ in learning activities that capitalise also on technology
- incorporated a very strong experiential learning component;
- created CLIL-like learning conditions (similar to what the teacher’s students will face);
- allowed for the practice of the foreign language as a tool for teaching and learning.

In synthesis, the *learning* model underlying the Course (experiential, learning by doing, constructivist) is precisely the model of learning that we wish the teachers to adopt with their students as it is considered more conducive to learning in CLIL conditions: learning language, learning to use language, using language to learn;

The *teaching* model underpinning the course wishes to convince the teachers of the motivational effects of variety, to show them that reducing the quantity of input in favour of more learning tasks (the building blocks of learning) can lead to deeper understanding and learning, to show them effective ways of delivering input in the

foreign language (effective slides, voice modulation, etc.), get them to experience, first hand, the difficulties and problems encountered in elaborating thoughts in the foreign language, in reading and understanding concepts, in understanding someone lecturing - as these are all things that their students will experience. The strategies that they, the teachers, will adopt in class therefore will be informed by this direct, concrete experience.

The course was articulated in the following manner:

A. Four online, asynchronous, learning modules, each 4 weeks long (total 12 CFU):

Model:

1 week: Input and forum discussion

2 week: Input and forum discussion

3 week : Tasks to develop and present (orally in the foreign language using Screencast-o-matic loaded online)

4 week: Feedback

B. Six six-hour lessons *in praesentia* (total 6 CFU), conducted entirely in the foreign language⁹, interspersed and thematically linked with the on-line modules.

Model:

1. Input session: in order to avoid a situation of information overload and to allow for a greater degree of experiential learning and linkage to practice, the input sessions were limited to max. 40 minutes overall;

2. Conversation with non-language subject experts (experienced CLIL teachers) whose job it is to link the theme of the lesson to their personal CLIL teaching experience;

3. Micro teaching: the choice for microteaching sessions was made for three reasons: to bridge the gap between ‘planning to do’ and actually ‘doing’; allow opportunities to practise the foreign language as a tool for teaching; put into actual practice ‘new’ strategies and procedures in a ‘safe’ environment.

C. Action research path for the Practicum.

⁹ Due to economic restrictions and in order to allow for the widespread use of the foreign language by all participants during the course, it was decided that there would be only one foreign language per course. So far, the chosen language has been English – also on account of the very low numbers of practising teachers in the Region with a B2-C1 competence in any other foreign language.

5. Some Outcomes

The results of the training experience have revealed aspects of interest: i. a cultural view of teaching which explains the degree of resistance, by some of the participants, towards change in teaching practices; ii. absence of adequate knowledge and skills upon which to graft the CLIL course.

a. A cultural view of teaching

There is the idea that the ‘active’ methodology associated with CLIL is ‘Anglo Saxon’ in origin and it is perceived as a form of colonisation or take-over of the traditional, well-established *ex cathedra* mode of delivery which typically characterises teaching in Italian high schools. On the basis of this view, change is not accepted at all or it is accepted only for the CLIL programme. This attitude may be the result of not understanding that the ‘new’ teaching strategies and procedures are primarily suggested as suitable for the characteristics of the CLIL teaching/learning environment rather than as a specific pedagogical approach. Let us take two examples:

i. Language comprehension: without comprehension of content, content learning will not be successful. In CLIL, content is delivered in a foreign language so it is safe to assume that, linguistically speaking, comprehension of input may represent a hurdle for the students – hence the need for strategies that support comprehension (strategies such as pre-reading/listening activities, while-reading/listening activities and post reading/listening activities). Furthermore, the Theory of Comprehensible Input (Krashen, 1987) informs us of the importance of comprehensible input for the purposes of language acquisition. Language comprehension therefore plays an important role for the dual learning objectives of CLIL. Teaching strategies that guarantee comprehension (very similar to those one finds used in the foreign language teaching field) need therefore to be adopted;

ii. Language production: the Theory of Comprehensible Output (Swain, 1985; 1995) explains the importance of language production, including *linguaging*¹⁰, in the process of language acquisition. Given that CLIL requires the foreign language to be learnt (alongside the content), it becomes clear that opportunities for language use need to be provided for in the CLIL lessons, e.g., through pair work/group work in order to maximise the opportunities (Dalton-Puffer, 2007). In addition to this, the sociocultural view of learning as postulated by Vygotsky (1978; Lantolf, 1994; Lantolf, Appel, 1994; Lantolf, Thorne, 2006) sees learning taking place first of all in interaction with others

¹⁰ *Linguaging* refers to the cognitive processes of producing comprehensible output. It is a “process of making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language” (Swain, 2006).

before becoming an individual activity. This places the use of language in interaction in a prime position for content learning as well (cf. also §3.1.e above). From the perspective of a lesson, the promotion of interaction through a variety of collaborative tasks implies restricting the lecturing format to allow for different modes of classroom organisation.

The two examples above show how activities appear as part of CLIL methodology because they respond, *in primis*, to a language-related teaching/learning issue and not because they are associated with a specific pedagogical approach (e.g., collaborative learning, constructivism, cooperative learning, etc.).

b. Absence of adequate knowledge and skills

The CLIL course was an instance of in-service professional development and the expectation was to build on existing knowledge and skills. The problems arose when such existing knowledge and skills revealed themselves to be extremely patchy with the result that what could have been taken as a given, could not¹¹ (e.g., ICT skills; managing group activities, the concept of teaching for skills and competences rather than just delivering knowledge). From this perspective, the CLIL training course represented an unexpected opportunity for filling these gaps. The teachers gained new forms of awareness and were up-skilled in methodology – especially with regard to the role of language in teaching and learning (irrespective of whether it is a foreign language or not). Through examining this relationship, the teachers were introduced to innovation, learning to rethink procedures such as the learning objectives, methodology, technology and assessment.

Conclusion

In this paper we have presented a series of considerations concerning the training of CLIL teachers. Our reflections are rooted in the experience acquired working with CLIL teachers in Italy and for this reason the reflections and, especially, the choices made for the Ministerial CLIL course, may not be suitable for situations in other countries.

One issue has appeared which will occupy our concerns in the future, especially in the light of the policy in Italy to encourage the spread of CLIL to other school levels. The increase in demand for CLIL training is leading to the demand for CLIL trainers. In our particular situation, the ‘trainers’ involved so far have mainly been foreign language

¹¹ The participants in fact were teachers who had been in service for some time and for whom in-service professional development had not been compulsory. This is a characteristic of the Italian situation. Many of the teachers in service will not have been through the Specialisation School for initial training and will have got there teaching qualification (*Abilitazione*) by sitting a written exam. In-service professional development only became compulsory in 2016 (cf. *National Plan for Teacher Education, 2016-2019*).

teachers and/or a language didactics specialists. Regarding the Ministerial courses, non-language subject experts also took on a training role. In no situation whatsoever have the trainers received any training for CLIL teacher training.

The question is: who can be a CLIL teacher trainer? What profile must he have? Who can train them? This will be our work for the future.

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Appendix

CLIL Teacher Profile for 20 CFU CLIL Methodology Course, Italian Ministry of
Education

(D.D. n° 6 16-04-2012: Appendix A)

A CLIL teacher

- has C1 level in the foreign language
- is linguistically able to manage the subject matter in the foreign language materials
- is competent in the specific language (lexis, text types, genres ...) of the subject matter
- is able to integrate content and language in his/her teaching
- is able to programme CLIL learning units in synergy with the foreign language teacher
- is able to find, choose, adapt, and create materials and other teaching resources to optimize the CLIL lesson, also using ICT
- is able to prepare a CLIL course on his/her own using methodologies and strategies that favour learning through the foreign language
- is able to elaborate and use systems and instruments of assessment which are coherent with the CLIL methodology

【Research paper from Germany】

Global Citizenship Education in English Language Teaching: A German Perspective

Christiane Lütge

Abstract

Internationalisation and globalisation are phenomena that have reached the EFL Classroom in different contexts. Global Citizenship Education is one of the most influential concepts currently conquering curricula and educational institutions around the globe. Firmly rooted in the paradigm of inter- and transcultural learning, the potential of the global dimension and its impact on language learning is developing at very different paces worldwide. This paper briefly sketches some major developments and challenges for EFL with a special emphasis on global (citizenship) education in Germany.

Keywords

global education, citizenship education, English language learning

1. From Intercultural Learning to Citizenship Education?

Internationally, Global Citizenship Education (GCE) has become a professional concern of many teachers and teacher educators. Its impact on foreign language teaching is constantly growing. Global issues such as peace, human rights, globalisation, sustainability and the environment enter the school curricula in different subjects worldwide. In fact, internationalisation and globalisation are phenomena that have meanwhile reached the EFL Classroom in different contexts. As many scholars argue, it is important to consider that the purpose of foreign language learning is not only to combine utility and educational value but also to show learners how they can and should engage with the international globalised world in which they participate. Whether we are in fact faced with a “global turn” stretching into English language teaching requires more theorizing, particularly on the role of culture in the global age and what it stands for in such a phrase as “global culture” – and its alleged paradoxical nature. The imminent danger of a “new imperialism” has to be taken seriously in order to move beyond approaches that tokenize and exoticize foreign places and people from the perspective of e.g. the US, Canada, Australia, New Zealand (cf. Ho 2009, Pashby 2012 and 2015, Porto 2014, Osler/Starkey 2015). Decolonizing the educational mind may thus be seen as an important agenda outlined in Andreotti’s and de Souza’s (2012) book “Postcolonial Perspectives on Global Citizenship Education”. While this issue is important for education in general, the ELT context is a special one.

Over the past decades Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) has developed as a major paradigm in foreign language education and has become an integral part of the curricula both in Europe and particularly in Germany (Byram 2008). Recently, the discussion is moving towards more transcultural and global aspects. Intercultural approaches have sometimes been criticized for stressing the “inter” too much in the sense of differences, difficulties or a general lack of understanding which needs to be overcome. As a contrast, transcultural learning – allegedly transgressing cultural borders and stressing the commonalities more than the differences – has been discussed in ELT and seems to be partly feeding into the discourse on Global Citizenship Education (GCE) with its strong emphasis on political education. There may not be a unidirectional and simplified line leading from intercultural towards transcultural learning and global citizenship education as a final step. However, it is quite remarkable to see how the academic ELT discourse on cultural aspects of learning has developed. Byram – as he points out himself – uses the term intercultural citizenship for what others call world, global or cosmopolitan citizenship (Byram 2008).

The development is characterized by a variety of different challenges, e.g. terminological questions in a multitude of different concepts (global education, education for sustainability, global citizenship, service learning etc.) that need to be more clearly defined. Other challenges address questions of cultural representation and cultural relativism with a view to the development towards “intercultural speakers” and “global citizens”. This may also shed some light on the perspectives and challenges for the concept of global citizenship in Europe amidst more recent developments like migration and transcultural contact. According to Pennycook we live in a world of wide-ranging and ongoing cultural “borrowing, bending and blending” and there seems to be a constant “fluidity of cultural relations across global contexts” (Pennycook 2007). However, this somehow does not really help the teachers in EFL classrooms whose mission it must be to implement concepts of GCE in institutionalized classroom settings. Establishing what Claire Kramsch (1998) has called the “intercultural speaker” and now adding what Michael Byram (2008) and others refer to as the “global citizen” remains difficult for many teachers and teacher educators worldwide – especially when the notion of globalisation is not univocally cherished but comes under the threat of destroying alleged national identities or regional varieties. Mistaking these approaches as harbingers of a new – somehow even threatening – “global culture” could be obstacles to intercultural understanding.

2. Terminology

The concept of global citizenship and its underlying ambiguity may be universally relevant, however – as Byram and Parmenter (2015) point out, the global discourse of

global citizenship is not universally, i.e. “globally” representative but has been dominated by researchers of the Global North and Western thinking on globalisation. Any conceptualization for educational contexts and particularly for the EFL context must bear this in mind. The recent focus on global citizenship has triggered a debate over the term itself, e.g. concerning concepts such as “world citizenship”, “cosmopolitan citizenship”, or “globally oriented citizenship” (Byram and Parmenter 2015). Other concepts include e.g. “global education”, “education for sustainability” or “world-centred education”; and some global scholars use these terms interchangeably. Other authors speak about concepts such as “international education”, “developmental education”, “education for development”, “global perspectives in education”, or “world studies” (Pike 1997, Tye 1999).

These terms revolving around different facets of global education, however, still remain fuzzy and ambivalent. Whether they are seen as buzz words or as travelling concepts, Graham Pike rightly points out:

“A major difficulty in any comparative study of global education – and a hindrance, perhaps, to a global dialogue – lies in the use of the terminology itself. First, the term global education is not universal; although commonly used in North America, a host of other labels are attached to similar educational initiatives around the world [...]” (Pike 2000:64)

According to Kirkwood, inconsistencies in the use of terminology are not uncommon in the process of defining a new field:

“Since its evolution after World War II, the alleged incongruities surrounding the definition of a global education have given way to a general consensus among scholars that “global education”, “world-centred education” and “global perspectives in education” have similar if not identical meanings. Proponents seem to agree that each construct stands for an education that brings the world into the classroom, where teachers teach from a world-centric rather than an ethno-specific or nation-state specific perspective.” (Kirkwood 2001:3)

In the EFL context, “global education” and “intercultural citizenship education” are the terms most widely used (cf. Byram 2008, Cates 2004, Lütge 2015) for similar approaches within language teaching. Kip Cates from Tottori University in Japan describes global education as an approach to language teaching that involves

“integrating a global perspective into classroom instruction through a focus on international themes, lessons built around global issues (peace,

development, the environment, human rights), classroom activities linking students to the wider world and concepts such as social responsibility and world citizenship” (Cates 2004).

For him, global education entails the following four dimensions:

1. knowledge about world countries and cultures, and about global problems, their causes and solutions;
2. skills of critical thinking, cooperative problem solving, conflict solution, and seeing issues from multiple perspectives;
3. attitudes of global awareness, cultural appreciation, respect for diversity, and empathy;
4. action: the final aim of global learning is to have students ‘think globally and act locally’. (Cates 2004: 241)

In response to criticism concerning allegedly universalist tendencies of the concept it needs to be stressed, though, that “the global education movement does not signal a globalisation of education: rather it reflects the development of more globally-oriented models of national education.” (Pike 2000:71)

3. The International Context

An increasing number of national governments and educational institutions have taken up issues of “global education” and/or “citizenship education” into their curricula and are publishing definitions or frameworks that may be used as guides for activities. According to Byram and Parmenter (2015), one of the earliest examples is the Oxfam definition from 1997 focusing on responsibilities for action, awareness of the wider world, respect for diversity and the aim of making the world a more equitable and sustainable place. Governments worldwide have also incorporated global citizenship into their curricula. Australia was among the first to develop a framework with the goal of having students take responsibility for their actions, respect diversity, and contribute to a peaceful, just and sustainable world. This emphasis on the values of respect and responsibility can meanwhile be found in many statements by national ministries of education. Other examples are the Maastricht Global Education Declaration of 2002, as Byram and Parmenter (2015) point out, one of the groundworks for European initiatives. The Global Education Guidelines published by the Council of Europe provides a list of the required knowledge, skills, values and attitudes including suggestions for teaching methodologies.

Worldwide the UNESCO set the Sustainable Development Goal. The global education agenda is part of the 17 UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), that make up the Agenda 2030 for sustainable development (UNESCO 2002). The Global Goals and

targets aim to stimulate action over the next fifteen years in the Five Ps of critical importance: People, Planet, Prosperity, Peace and Partnership. Topics and learning objectives comprise cognitive, socio-emotional and behavioural dimensions of global citizenship education. These translate into several types of different domains of learning:

- The cognitive domain involves the acquisition of knowledge, an understanding and critical thinking about global, regional, national and local issues and the interconnectedness and interdependency of different countries and populations.
- The socio-emotional domain involves a sense of belonging to a common humanity, sharing values and responsibilities, empathy, solidarity and respect for differences and diversity.
- The behavioural domain involves acting effectively and responsibly at local, national and global levels for a more peaceful and sustainable world.

The topics and learning objectives of Global Citizenship Education are grouped according to these three domains featuring certain key learning outcomes, key learner attributes and topics (cf. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002329/232993e.pdf>):

Domains of learning		
Cognitive	Socio-Emotional	Bahavioural
Key Learning outcomes		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners acquire knowledge and understanding of local, national and global issues and the interconnectedness and interdependency of different countries and populations • Learners develop skills for critical thinking and analysis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners experience a sense of belonging to a common humanity, sharing values and responsibilities, based on human rights • Learners develop attitudes of empathy, solidarity and respect for differences and diversity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners act effectively and responsibly at local, national and global levels for a more peaceful and sustainable world • Learners develop motivation and willingness to take necessary actions
Key Learner Attributes		
Informed and critically literate	Socially connected and respectful of diversity	Ethically responsible and engaged
Topics		
1. Local, national and global systems and structures 2. Issues affecting interaction and connectedness of communities at local,	4. Different levels of identity 5. Different communities people belong to and how these are connected 6. Difference and respect for diversity	7. Actions that can be taken individually and collectively 8. Ethically responsible behavior 9. Getting engaged and

national and global levels 3. Underlying assumptions and power dynamics		taking action
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4. The German Context

Since the mid-1990s the federal administration and the federal states in Germany have been adapting their policies to the basic concept of sustainable development as defined by Agenda 21. Below is a chronology of the most important steps:

- In 1998 the German Parliaments Commission of Inquiry on the “Protection of Man and the Environment” published its final report entitled “The Concept of Sustainability – from principle to implementation”.
- In 2000 the German Parliament unanimously passed the resolution “Education for Sustainable Development (ESD)”.
- One year later the German government set up a state secretary committee for sustainable development, which is maintained by the present government, and appointed the Council for Sustainable Development.
- To implement the concept of sustainable development into all educational levels in Germany, a National Plan of Action for the UN Decade was developed in 2005 on the basis of a resolution unanimously adopted by the German Parliament. The aim is to integrate ESD cross-sectorally in all policy areas that are relevant to sustainable development. Some federal states have already initiated their own plans of action for the promotion of the UN Decade, while several others are preparing those plans.

The National Plan of Action includes numerous measures for planning, dissemination and embedding Education for Sustainable Development (ESD). The programme “Transfer 21” is one of these measures. The concept of participatory skills in ESD is being developed within the framework of Transfer 21, together with the “Cross-Curricular Framework for Global Development Education”. The Cross-Curricular Framework for Global Development Education offers support for schools, school book publishers and all those in the education system who administrate and plan curricula. The project goal is to integrate global development into school curricula, thus promoting “Education for Sustainable Development”. The framework

- is a conceptual framework for the development of syllabi and curricula, for designing lessons and extra-curricular activities as well as for setting and assessing requirements for specific subjects and learning areas;
- offers inspiration for school profile and full-day school programme development, for cooperation with external partners and for teacher education;

- offers concrete recommendations and suggestions for the interdisciplinary and cross-disciplinary organisation of instruction, and offers classroom materials (for vocational schools as well), to work out intricate global development issues.

The *Cross-Curricular Framework for Global Development* in Germany is focusing strongly on three aspects connected to the foundations of intercultural learning, i.e. on “recognizing”, “evaluating” and “taking action” (Kultusministerkonferenz 2016). These general goals have been transferred into the specific situation of every single subject and its specific requirement.

For foreign language learning these categories are explained in the following way:

- “Recognizing” refers to knowledge about the language and language learning, about language varieties, language as a medium for encountering the global world and linguistic variety as prerequisite for cultural pluralism.
- “Evaluating” refers to the impact of the global dimension of language learning and is concerned with the pupils’ judgement, e.g. with a view to manipulation through language, the representation of global development and power structures, relating their world views to those of others, questions of discrimination and their impact on teaching and learning about languages and cultures.
- “Taking action” involves communicating and resolving conflicts, maintaining the ability to act during global change, participating and shaping cultural contexts. Most importantly, this involves building up the motivation for lifelong participation in encounters with foreign languages and cultures as an active global citizen.

The “Crosscurricular Framework” provides suggestions for application in the English Language Classroom and specifies the following areas and topics as examples:

Areas	Topics
Diversity and inclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Arranged marriages• Festivals
Globalisation of religious and ethnic role models	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Creation vs. Evolution• Church meets state• Democracy – an ideology for the whole world?

History of Globalisation: from Colonialization to the global village	<i>Australia</i> : Aborigines, (Aboriginal) Languages, Immigration <i>English in India</i> : The heritage of British colonialization <i>New Englishes</i> : Remaking a colonial language in post-colonial contexts
Goods from all over the world: Production, commerce and consumption	Coffee – the world’s most traded commodity The “Play Fair” campaign and the international sportswear industry
Agriculture and diet	<i>Hunger in a world of plenty</i> , e.g. global food production
Health and diseases	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public health in emergencies (Oxfam) • Fighting famine in the Horn of Africa
Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Internet • Illiteracy – barrier to cultural growth
Globalised leisure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This thing called “Youth Culture” • Football as the world’s game • An internet lifestyle
Preservation and usage of natural resources and generation of energy	<i>How green is your future?</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The carbon footprint • Low impact living

5. Perspectives and Challenges

Educating for global citizenship has increasingly become a shared goal of educators and educational institutions worldwide and is not restricted to foreign language teaching. In fact, almost all subjects might be connected to questions of globalisation, which, however, carries the danger of blurring the terminology. The impact of global topics is likely to gain even more importance in foreign language teaching due to the significance of the English language. Inter- or transcultural learning and global issues are in fact mutually connected and it may well be that the conceptual integration of both will lead to innovative impulses for English language education.

However, the ‘global turn’ in English language education is not exclusively about “greening the classroom”. Education for sustainable development must explore the economic, political and social implications of sustainability by encouraging learners to reflect critically on their own areas of the world, to identify non-viable elements in their own lives, to explore the tensions among conflicting aims and to use the chances:

A big chance for global issues in the EFL classroom lies in the universal scope of topics relevant for different people and cultures, i.e. in their potential as global interfaces transgressing culture boundaries and conflicts and turning into a collective learning experience. (Lütge 2013:145)

Another thorny issue extends to questions of developing world or “global citizens”. Like citizenship education, both global education and multicultural education vary greatly when incorporated into the national curriculum of different countries. As global education scholars like Pike contend, global education is “infused with distinct national characteristics” (Pike 2000:71). Likewise Schweisfurth (2006: 42) argues that education that aims to develop global perspectives in learners is a “distinctly culture based exercise.”

As Michael Byram points out, the strengths of education for intercultural competence in a foreign language lie in the critical comparative analysis of ‘other’ cultures and ‘ours’. On the other hand, the weakness may be seen in the lack of focus on action in the world. The weaknesses of citizenship education, might thus be called its lack of criticality of ‘our’ cultures and the limitation to a national perspective. Citizenship education attempts to educate ‘good citizens’, which implies a certain degree of conformity. On the other hand, the strengths of citizenship education are its focus on action in the world, and on action which takes place now. (cf. Byram 2006 and Byram 2008)

In fact, the danger of ideological shortcomings must not be underestimated. Both relativist and universalist positions have to be critically evaluated in a context that may sometimes seem to overemphasize the potential of global education as a common denominator besides cultural and allegedly culture-specific aspects of learning. As Hilary Landorf (2009) points out, the future of the global dimension in education might need to be defended against reproaches of cultural relativism. This certainly requires the development of a philosophy of global education and makes it worthwhile to consider the challenges for teaching and generally for education, as Elizabeth Heilman positively puts it:

Globalisation, which increases the moral reach of human concern, has the potential to increase the critical, imaginative, and ethical dimensions of our education and our capacities and dispositions to respond to our world (Heilman 2009:46).

However, despite worldwide endeavours to implement intercultural and global perspectives of citizenship in English language teaching there are some major challenges.

In fact, the “global citizen” still seems to be an unknown species for many and for some even rather wishful thinking than a realistic goal for the EFL Classroom.

Challenges and chances for the future might be seen in three major fields:

1. The extreme diversity in terminology: diverse national curricula and heterogeneous approaches to various dimensions of global learning and citizenship education exist side by side and need to be more carefully sorted.
2. The issue of evaluation and assessment: the question whether the global dimension in learning can be put to a test, whether a global awareness may be evaluated at all and – in the long run – might be implemented as a competence in foreign language learning needs to be thoroughly discussed.
3. The normative character of the concept: an unquestioned perception of the global dimension as positive and educationally desirable requires more theorizing. Whether “global” is automatically good may be as disputable as the question who defines the concept of “citizen” and from which cultural context.

Educational concepts suited to the particular circumstances of various cultures in the pursuit of shared development goals might be crucial in the future and deserve to be an integral part of foreign language teaching. Universally relevant topics of cultural learning – both in local and global dimensions – are likely to enrich EFL Classroom worldwide and in versatile ways.

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【Article from Rumania】

EPOSTL has Crossed the Continents: Is There a Follow-up Needed?

Anca-Mariana Pegulescu

Abstract

Training student teachers of languages is very important for their future professional development. The *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* and *The European Profile for Language Teacher Education* made possible the appearance of *the European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages* (EPOSTL). This document can help student teachers as well as practising teachers to identify the necessary teaching competences, irrespective of the learning context. EPOSTL launches a very challenging set of didactic competences, as an opportunity for student teachers and practising teachers of languages to reflect on their didactic knowledge and teaching skills. The triangle formed by the pre-service key competences, the teaching descriptors and the teacher's dossier has been thought as a permanent exchange of ideas and examples of good practice. Having worked on the EPOSTL Romanian version, I have understood better the student teachers of languages' training role for improving the mutual respect and flow of linguistic diversity and cultural values. The document includes student teachers of languages own experience and expectations, a self-evaluation set, a teacher's dossier, a glossary, the index and a user's guide. I personally appreciated the descriptors' core that should be interpreted through an on-going process. The glossary is equally important because it ensures the understanding of the concepts and makes possible the use of didactic theory within the teaching practice. This is the most efficient approach towards acquiring solid teaching skills. In Romania there is still an obvious need for a common European evaluation framework regarding the teaching competence for student teachers who intend to become language teachers. Language knowledge should be regarded as an integrative ability. The 'learning to learn' orientation is the learner's autonomy and it means a set of skills and abilities that learners need to master in order to learn independently. Language teaching practice (LTP) focuses more on how language teachers use *class time* and how *decisions* are made. Universities, school inspectorates and schools selected for the teaching practice process form a triangle that can work if the legal framework is improved.

Key words

assessment, framework, knowledge, learner, teaching competence

1. From Theory to Practice

Modern languages acquisition and the linguistic competences evaluation process, in order to support the learner, imposed integrated education activities meant to broaden the world perspective, encourage excellence and innovation in language learning and teaching.

The *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* publication supported reflection and self-assessment of the didactic knowledge and skills necessary to teach languages. It has also contributed to the training and development of good quality foreign/modern languages curricula and languages examinations. Furthermore it favored the appearance of several portfolios that have contributed to the development of reliable working instruments leading to different analyses, surveys, and discussion documents.

The same *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* has been needed for several reasons, among which the following ones are the most important:

- it refers to different languages in different countries with different ranges of learners;
- it has promoted quality education when describing language policies at the European Union level;
- it has facilitated communication about language levels and has introduced the notion of communicative proficiency;
- it has developed syllabuses;
- it has enhanced tests for exam creativity and the assessment of a foreign language mastery, along four skills criteria: reading, writing, speaking and listening;
- it has fostered the development of marking schemes;
- it encouraged the evaluation of language learning needs;
- it has opened a common space for designing language courses, displaying topics of general interest;
- it has developed language learning and teaching materials;
- it is addressed to teachers, assessors, textbook writers, trainers.

The *European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (EPOSTL)* is:

- a reflection tool;
- an assessment tool for both pre-service and in-service teacher professional development;
- a means to an end and not an end in itself.

The document has two main functions: an informing one, offering the image of the specific linguistic competence level, as well as a pedagogic function where the image of the individual teaching competence progress and self-evaluation is the key to the learning process.

2. A Challenge Facing Different Teaching Situations

Why have I decided to translate the EPOSTL in Romanian?

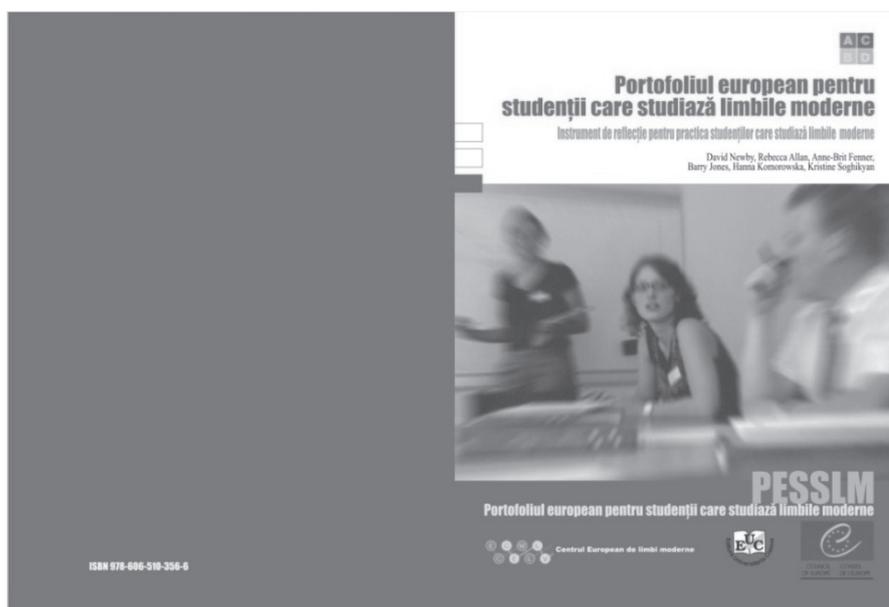


Fig.1 Cover of the Romanian version

The answer may have multiple facets. Among these answers there is a very simple one which targets every language student teacher's teaching proficiency: the language and the teaching program needs to be extended beyond the university language and methodology courses.

Here is an overview of English teaching levels in Romania:

- the primary level (ages 6-10);
- the lower-secondary level (ages 11-14);
- the upper/high secondary level (ages 15-18);
- the higher education (ages 18-23).

When referring to the teaching of modern languages in Romania, one should keep in mind not only the above mentioned levels – the pre-school level (3-6 olds) can be added as an option that parents have during the kindergarten period of time – or the

post-high school level lasting 1-3 years of study, but also the rich variety of the possible modern languages that can be taught: English, French, German, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, Chinese, and Japanese. It is very true that the level of the human resource teaching competence, for the above mentioned modern languages is not the same for each modern language, for the different parts of the country or different levels of language education. English, French, German, Spanish, Italian and even Chinese and Japanese are taught in the pre-university education but we cannot affirm that all the levels are equally covered. While English, French and even German are taught from the pre-school level to the university level, Chinese, Japanese are taught in the lower secondary, upper secondary and the university education.

Irrespective of the teaching level, student teachers of languages should aim for the quality of the teacher training and, later on, practising language teachers have to rely on:

- support for autonomous professional development;
- continuous teaching competences improvement;
- team work in a multicultural setting;
- digital literacy and use of ICT.

A student teacher of languages should be viewed as the sum of:

- his/her language knowledge and pedagogical skills;
- his/her knowledge of new conceptual ways of classroom management;
- his/her command of action plans and experiments;
- his/her capacity for self-evaluation and reflection.

In addition to the native language practice and the target language performance, what is needed is the support for the learner. This means that a future language teacher should incorporate education/training activities into his/her classroom language practice, including conversation, expanding his/her students' active vocabulary, and new cultural knowledge. At a European level, language student teachers education should aim at:

- common understanding and principles;
- common challenges;
- a cutting edge approach to training and professional development;
- new attitudes towards teaching skills: teachers can decide which elements should be included into their teaching.

EPOSTL in Romania has been used as a ‘pre’ and ‘in-service’ language teaching training instrument, presenting:

- a set of necessary teaching competences;
- a number of practical guidelines;
- the validation of a theoretical model;
- a way of maximizing the potential for the best practice in ELT.

Many linguists and language researchers admit that plurilingualism, culture and values within a language education approach should improve the human resource’s skills, knowledge and understanding and here we have in mind the student teachers of languages and practising teachers of languages.

University methodologists as well as Romanian mentors see EPOSTL as a language teaching guide, focusing on:

- a quality assurance of the evaluation practice;
- a language teacher’s continuous professional development; the student teacher of languages as an ELT practitioner.

EPOSTL has been and still is the image of assessment change. Its implementation facilitates a number of important factors:

- a network of interrelated decision-making factors; (universities, school inspectorates, schools)
- a different approach to the evaluation of language teaching;
- a deeper focus on student teachers of languages’ interests;
- a clear and updated framework of social and cultural contexts of learning.

3. Why should We Use EPOSTL?

EPOSTL offers first of all its innovative nature. It meant a change in both pre-service and in-service student teachers/teachers of languages training design. The new approach regarding the teaching competences led to appropriate evaluation procedures.

In the 2012-2013 academic/schoolyear in Romania, EPOSTL has been used in:

- the pre-service teacher education program by the University of Bucharest, the University ‘Dimitrie Cantemir’ of Bucharest, the University ‘Vasile Alecsandri’ in Bacau, the ‘Transilvania University’ in Braşov;

- the language teaching practice by more than 120 schools in different counties of Romania;
- the in-service teacher education programs by 210 mentors.

Dissemination activities took place mainly at a national level – mentors’ conferences, the annual Romanian Association of Teachers of English (RATE) conferences, seminars and workshops organized at a regional and local level. Another very important level was the institutional level, represented by well-known Romanian universities and the Teaching Staff Houses (that are organized at the level of each one of Romania’s 42 counties). The role of the Romanian Ministry of National Education should also be underlined. The Ministry as a central institution had the role of a catalyst that enhanced the regular connection and cooperation among the other educational institutions which are tasked with the student teachers of language training.

Besides its role as a modern languages teaching guide, EPOSTL enabled the issuing of valuable materials that can be grouped in two categories: the teaching practice documents (lesson plans, teaching practice descriptors – very useful and necessary in the pre-university education) and the masters’ dissertations, which have the aim to combine theory and teaching practice aspects as well as classroom management.

EPOSTL as well as the CEFR display options and encourage the practitioners to reflect on the decisions they make. Verbs like **do**, **allow**, or **act** should be included in questions of the following type:

- what are the teachers supposed to **do** in order to facilitate the exchange of information?
- are the teachers **allowed** to use only the target language or should they use the mother tongue too?
- which role is to be **acted**? The prompter, the facilitator, the co-team player?

(I will skip the teacher-centered role which is no more a desired one, even if it might be encountered occasionally.)

Such questions and many more ones are meant to guide student teachers of languages towards personal reflection and dialogic reflection. The purpose of the reflection is not just to answer the questions but also to justify certain choices and/or decisions that are made in a principled, reasoned and informed way.

The descriptors included in EPOSTL refer to the teaching context (curriculum, aims and needs, the institutional resources and constraints), the methodology and to the assessment of the teaching/learning process.

In this context, autonomous learning is to be understood as three-fold:

- a matter of learning individually
- an activity done in cooperation with peers
- an activity done with the guidance of a teacher

This means that the individual learners and groups of learners have the opportunity to take control of aspects of their own learning and develop their full potential. The verb that appears as a common denominator is no doubt the verb **can** but it is accompanied by verbs like **evaluate, guide, assist, help, and assess**. The learner's autonomy is seen and described in terms of what the language student teacher **can** do. The EPOSTL authors called it 'an integral part of learning foreign languages'[p.44].

The student teacher of languages is also a learner. Using EPOSTL, a double aim is attained:

- student teachers of languages become more independent in their learning and less dependent on the mentor;
- student teachers of languages develop a sense of self-worth and achievement.

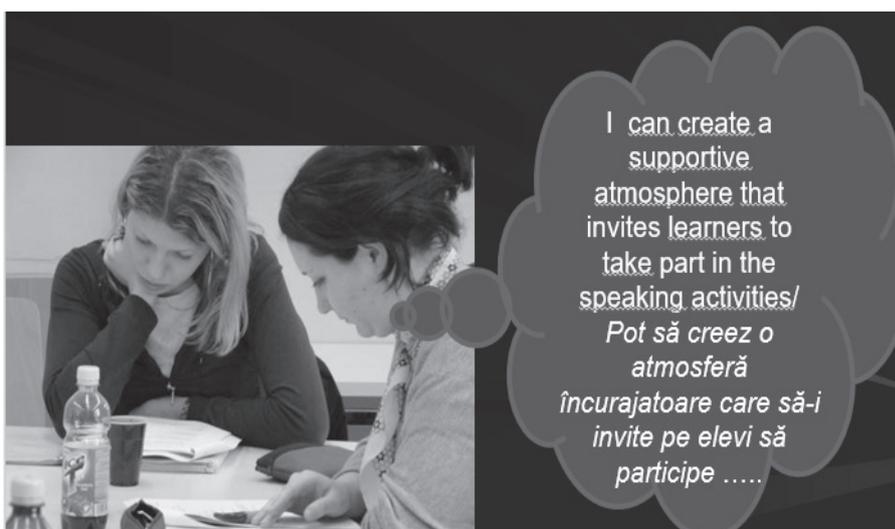


Fig.2 Student teachers of languages working together and becoming at the same time independent in their learning



Fig.3 Student teachers languages can reflect on what is important in their class management

Sharing the aims of EPOSTL/PSSLM, institutions as well as practitioners of the teaching training process, will:

- lead to the creation of a university supply network which will shape independent (future) teachers of languages;
- create a distance education training course support and network;
- re-build a theory of change and a frame as a starting point for life-long professional development.



Fig 4 Student teachers of languages and mentors have to analyse and come to agreed conclusions when referring to classroom management

Another very important aspect is the student teacher of languages' perspective. How do student teachers of languages understand EPOSTL/PSSLM? From a Romanian mentor's point of view, the EPOSTL/PSSLM is a useful guide and a self-evaluation instrument at the beginning of any student teacher of languages' teaching career. It is also extremely helpful for the teaching-learning process in the domain of modern languages as it displays a glossary of the most necessary terms in language teaching and learning. We can add that the self-evaluation is facilitated and the student teachers' teaching competences are measured according to clear criteria. EPOSTL/PSSLM bridges the dialogue between language student teachers, their tutors and language teaching mentors.

After having translated EPOSTL in Romanian, I could understand better the context (the teaching process), the way drivers (student teachers of languages and experienced teachers of languages) act and what the end-users do. I could also work more constructively with partners and colleagues (university methodologists, language inspectors and mentors). From the double mission I had – a general language inspector for English, Japanese and Chinese in the Romanian Ministry of National Education and a language teaching mentor, I have encouraged learning and training opportunities as well as collaborative efforts.

The fact that EPOSTL has become a universal instrument is a truth that cannot be denied. It has not promoted a particular methodology, it has demonstrated how teaching can support learning, the way a student teacher of languages can become an effective language teacher and probably above all, that being a teacher is a complex job. I have used the adjective 'complex' because any teacher should be aware of the two 'worlds' that are supposed to work together. There is on the one hand the student teacher and later the experienced teacher's inner world displaying language knowledge and understanding, teaching models, cultural values and on the other hand there are the pupils/students' world where diversity, challenges, creativity, games and humor are but some of the elements that should be taken into account.

There is no perfect 'recipe' for becoming a perfect teacher. From the hundreds and even thousands of the modern languages classes I have observed and the teachers I have assessed, I can tell that a teacher of languages whose target is a primary level audience should work differently as compared to the lower secondary or the upper secondary teacher of languages. The pre-school, the primary level demand more games, fun and creativity than the lower/the upper secondary levels where projects, presentations and debates should be the leading activities. Furthermore, in higher education, teaching does enter the areas – in very many cases – of what it is called 'English for specific purposes' (ESP). Between the pre-school/primary level and the

higher education level, the teacher training for a student teacher of languages should offer a different complexity coefficient.

4. Pre-conclusions

I cannot conclude my article on the importance of EPOSTL and the student teachers of languages understanding of the learner's autonomy, without referring to two documents and working instruments financed by the European Commission which play an important role in teacher education. The first of these (that I also translated into Romanian, working under the direct coordination of Professor Michael Kelly) is the *European Profile for Language Teacher Education*, developed and coordinated by Michael Kelly and Michael Grenfell. The *Profile* is an important tool in the design of curricula for teacher education programs. The *Profile* can be used to complement the *EPOSTL*. The second document referred to is the *European Profiling Grid*, a tool for mapping and assessing language teacher competencies internationally.

According to the 2014 conference on EPOSTL, held in Graz, the document has been used in 14 different countries and in a variety of contexts. Numerous ideas for using the EPOSTL have emerged, reflecting the very flexible tool that the EPOSTL represents. The most important use is in the pre-service education. The context of use is essential. It is very important to have a clear concept of how it will be implemented. Special training is necessary for both student teachers of languages as well as for mentors. When referring to teaching practice, the value of using the EPOSTL to define aims, to assess teaching competences by both students and mentors and to discuss teaching observation and practice was attested by several participants in the 2014 conference. One area that appears to be largely unexplored is that of in-service teacher development. The 2014 Conference on EPOSTL presenters also pointed to various challenges that have arisen from the *Portfolio*. Two general problems areas have been identified by several participants where solutions were sought: acceptance of the EPOSTL among students and mentors and maximizing the effectiveness of the EPOSTL.

The EPOSTL has had a considerable impact on teacher education in a large number of countries, as it has been translated into 14 languages. The question of the 2014 conference was – *does the EPOSTL cross continents?* The answer was a resounding 'yes'. However, this also means that, on the one hand, it needs to be firmly embedded in local educational contexts and on the other, that its use must take sufficient account of its underlying rationale and principles.

As a continuation of the project that produced EPOSTL, educators from the United States and Austria conducted a collaborative project on behalf of the American Council

on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and the European Centre for Modern Languages of the Council of Europe (ECML). The above mentioned project required the active participation of practising language teachers and student teachers of languages. The project was named **ACTOSTL**. The acronym comes from the ACTFL/NCATE (the National Foreign Language Standards Collaborative) (CAEP: the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation) Teacher Standards and the EPOSTL descriptors of teacher competences to define excellence in language teaching.

The central aim of this project was to determine what student teachers of languages and beginning teachers consider to be good practices in foreign language teaching. Student teachers of languages and beginning teachers of languages in the USA and throughout Europe have been asked to observe foreign language classes and to document ‘indicators’ of good practices in specific areas.

At the core of the project is an online survey, consisting of a **structured observation sheet** to be used to evaluate foreign language classes (I am going to attach this document to the present article). This document is concerned with what constitutes good teaching. ACTOSTL has the following objectives:

- to highlight good practice for the purpose of determining high-leverage teaching practices;
- to focus on effective development of communicative and cultural competencies and assessment identified in both frameworks;
- to develop student and beginner teachers of languages’ abilities to observe and evaluate language teaching practices.

Not very long ago, in 2014, a refreshed approach was reanalyzed. I am referring to the authors of *The Autonomy Approach*, Morrison and Navarro who presented a comprehensive collection of teaching activities, still grounded in theory, written for the experienced and novice teacher. This volume has a dual focus: to support teachers in the transition from student-centered to student-led classroom activities and to support learners in creating their own learning plans and achieving their learning goals, thus becoming 'experts in their own language learning'. With the autonomy approach, emphasis is placed on the support offered to learners *within* the classroom to help them effectively self-direct their own learning, *beyond* the classroom. The authors examine and explain the theory behind metacognitive knowledge and skills (the roots of successful learning-related endeavors), and support this with an extensive sequence of activities for the teacher and the learner to use – to help learners take the development of their language learning into their own hands. What is meant here for learners should be envisaged for student teachers who can become more creative and definitely more enjoyed by the pupils/students they address to.

Conclusion

‘Learning by doing’ has been labelled as a pragmatic approach. Learning and teaching through competences practice is not the prerogative of the educational system and not even of the modern languages teaching domain. The skills and competences were born in the labour market and they are achieved through action and during action sessions.

That is why student teachers of languages need EPOSTL. They need it because it:

- allows a student teacher time for planning, design & implementation;
- teaches student teachers how to be transparent in their evaluation and build consensus, trust and engagement;
- makes evaluation itself a learning process;
- monitors progress on a regular basis;
- favors harmonising personal planning with curricular objectives, according to the teaching needs.

In other words, student teachers of languages need a lot of support so that they can become autonomous. They are still learning the content, while learning the methodology. Typical points for professional development are: observing classroom management, formative and summative ways of assessing learners on a regular basis, making content meaningful, drawing up action-research plans. In the process of observing a language class, what is learnt about teaching leads to advantages/disadvantages of using descriptors. Any student teacher of languages should realize that being a teacher of languages is a complex job. It is a very rewarding profession for the teachers who care about their students, but can be a very boring profession for those teachers who seem not to care about their students. That is why a student teacher of languages should appreciate the role and value of reflection. EPOSTL/PSSLM can help by improving the reflection assessment and the teaching in itself.

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Appendix

OBSERVATION SHEET

Using the *ACTFL/NCATE (CAEP)* Teacher Standards and *EPOSTL* descriptors of teacher competences to define excellence in language teaching (*ACTOSTL*)

Please provide the following details:

In which country is your observation taking place? ____

What language is being taught in the classes you observe? ____

(Please fill out a separate sheet for each language.)

Tick one of the following:

a. I am a student teacher _____

b. I am a newly qualified teacher undergoing my induction/probation period ____

c. I have 0-3 years of teaching experience. ____

d. I have more than three years of teaching experience. ____

If you need instructions on how to fill out the observation sheet, click here ([hyperlink to infoletter](#)).

Note that:

- You do not need to give feedback on all 22 competences in the observation sheet! Select those which are of particular interest or relevance to you.
- It is possible to enter up to four items under each competence. You do not need to fill in all four spaces.

A. ACTFL/CAEP Standard 3 (Planning)

1. The teacher structures the lesson plan in a coherent and varied sequence of content.

a.

b.

c.

d.

2. The teacher ensures smooth transitions between activities and tasks for individuals, groups, and the whole class.

a.

b.

c.

d.

3. The teacher varies and balances activities to include a variety of skills and competences.

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.

4. The teacher takes into account different levels of ability or educational needs.

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.

B. ACTFL/CAEP Standard 4 (Teaching)

5. The teacher settles a group of learners into a room and gains their attention at the beginning of a lesson.

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.

6. The teacher creates a supportive atmosphere that invites learners to take part in speaking activities.

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.

7. The teacher provides grammar exercises and activities which support oral and written communication.

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.

8. The teacher provides a variety of activities which help learners to learn vocabulary.

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.

9. The teacher relates the content to learners' knowledge and previous language learning experiences.
 - a.
 - b.
 - c.
 - d.
10. The teacher keeps and maximizes the attention of learners during a lesson.
 - a.
 - b.
 - c.
 - d.
11. The teacher helps learners to develop appropriate learning strategies.
 - a.
 - b.
 - c.
 - d.
12. The teacher encourages learner participation whenever possible.
 - a.
 - b.
 - c.
 - d.
13. The teacher takes on different roles according to the needs of the learners and requirements of the activity (resource person, mediator, supervisor, etc.).
 - a.
 - b.
 - c.
 - d.
14. The teacher uses various strategies when learners do not understand the target language.
 - a.
 - b.
 - c.
 - d.
15. The teacher supports learners to use the target language in their activities.
 - a.
 - b.
 - c.
 - d.

16. The teacher finishes off a lesson in a focused way.

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.

C. ACTFL/CAEP Standard 2 (Evidence of Culture)

17. The teacher uses texts, source materials, and activities to make learners aware of stereotyped views.

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.

18. The teacher uses materials and activities which make learners aware of similarities and differences in sociocultural “norms of behavior.”

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.

19. The teacher uses a variety of materials and activities which help learners to reflect on the concept of “otherness” and understand different value systems.

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.

D. ACTFL/CAEP Standard 5 (Assessing)

20. The teacher deals with errors that occur in class in a way which supports learning processes and communication.

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.

21. The teacher monitors and assesses learners’ participation and performance.

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.

22. The teacher uses appropriate assessment procedures to chart and monitor a learner's progress (reports, checklists, grades, etc.)

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.

What have you learnt from carrying out the observation tasks? Please write any comments you may have in this space.

【Research Note】

What English Language Educators Can Do with Global Citizenship Education: an Insight from the Survey Results on J-POSTL Self-assessment Descriptors

Fumiko Kurihara & Ken Hisamura

Abstract

The relationship between English language and global citizenship education has not been seriously examined or discussed in Japan. For example, in the Course of Study (2008, 2009), the national curriculum guidelines for junior and senior high schools in Japan, terms such as “global citizenship” or a “global citizen” do not appear in any subjects. The purpose of this paper is to gain insights on the concept of global citizenship in the context of English language education in Japan. To achieve this, relevant concepts or notions regarding citizenship education in a European context will be first explored, and then some key concepts which can be integrated into English language education in Japan are specified. They are “participation”, “cooperation”, and “responsibility”. Next, the national survey conducted on the descriptors in the *Japanese Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages* (J-POSTL) (JACET SIG, 2014) will be analyzed to find out how English language teachers at secondary school in Japan self-evaluated the ability to incorporate those concepts into their classrooms. The results will be discussed from exploring a potential of integrating global citizenship education into English language education.

Keywords

global citizenship, participation, cooperation, responsibility

1. Introduction

1.1 Global Citizenship in a Japanese Educational Context

The concept of global citizenship has not been explicitly addressed in the educational curricular guidelines in Japan. While notions such as “a citizen”, or “citizenship” are typically taught in a *Koumin* or Civics classrooms, which deal with a broad range of issues pertaining to modern society, ethics, politics and economics, the concept of global citizenship is far from being clearly understood by educators in Japan or effectively integrated into the course syllabi. Moreover, attempts to provide Japanese young people with global citizenship education have been criticized. Tezuka (2007) argues that pedagogical effort in this direction

threatens to undermine the identity of students as Japanese. However, it is well documented that people develop multiple identities depending on their social, educational or cultural backgrounds (see Burke and Stets, 2009), so this fear is misplaced.

Although not being referred to specifically as global citizenship education, Japanese students have opportunities to learn about various related topics, such as rights and duties, freedom and responsibility, and prejudice and discrimination. In addition, the notion of social responsibility is often highlighted through volunteering or community activities. Students also have opportunities to learn about international environmental and political issues outside the classroom, mainly through school trips to foreign countries or international exchanges. Therefore, many teachers and learners are already familiar with the notions of global citizenship or global citizens to some extent.

It is also important to realize that while the notion of global citizenship may receive only scant academic attention from the education policy-makers in Tokyo, Japanese youth nationwide have been exposed to the ethnic, religious and socio-cultural diversity which has become a prominent characteristic of most industrialized states, including Japan itself. Thus, it is imperative to construct cohesive pedagogical instruments which would foster a sense of belonging to the global community and transform the students from passive observers of the changes happening around them to active participants with a sense of responsibility for social, political and environmental developments.

1.2 English Language Education Policies in Japan

With the emphasis on English language education in Japan on communicative competence and measurable outcomes, educational policies regarding English instruction at secondary schools have been changing. One of these changes is the incorporation of can-do statements into school EFL curricula (e.g. *Guide for Setting Learning Goals in the Form of Can-do Lists in Foreign Language Education at Each Secondary School*, MEXT, 2013), which is an attempt to create can-do statements that are similar to those presented in *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment* (CEFR, Council of Europe, 2001). However, the Japanese government has chosen to adopt a narrow interpretation of the competency guidelines focusing merely on developing learners' linguistic skills, not taking other essential components of communicative competence into serious consideration.

1.3 Can-do Statements in CEFR

On the basis of the definition of a language learner as both a language user and a social agent (CEFR pp.1-9), CEFR guidelines specify two sets of competencies necessary for becoming a competent language speaker. One is general competences, which include declarative knowledge, skills and know-how, existential competence, ability to learn, etc. and another is communicative language competences, which include linguistic competence, lexical competence, grammatical competence, semantic competence, etc. (CEFR pp.108-130) The lists suggested by the Japanese education authorities deal exclusively with the linguistic aspects of language learning while competences that refer to the broad knowledge of the world, sociocultural skills, and cognitive and affective skills which cumulatively are essential for building and sustaining democratic values in a pluralistic society are not clearly addressed.

1.4 CEFR and J-POSTL

The J-POSTL was developed by adapting the self-assessment descriptors in the *European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages* (EPOSTL) (Newby et al., 2007) to suit the Japanese teaching environment. Since the EPOSTL builds on the CEFR and the European Language Portfolio (ELP), the self-assessment descriptors in the EPOSTL cover both communicative language competences and general competences described in the CEFR (Newby, 2012). Likewise, J-POSTL includes self-assessment descriptors not only for communicative language competences, but also for general competences, and some of which are the key factors to fostering global citizenship as is explained in section 2.4.

2. The Concept of Global Citizenship and the Points of Analysis

2.1 “Global Human Resources” and Global Citizenship

The term “global *jinzai*” or “global human resources” has been frequently used in various social and educational contexts in Japan. It should be pointed out that the concept of the “global human resources” used in the government document is directly related to the national, economic and social development of Japan (Yonezawa, 2014). The government is concerned with creating competitive human capital among Japanese youth and gaining more global competitiveness in the future. Therefore, the expression “global human resources” and the term “global citizens” have different implications. The former refers to a selected group of people who can work globally using their advanced language and communication skills, have study abroad experiences, and can contribute to *Japanese* society. The government targeted about 10% of the young population of the same age group (approximately 110,000 every year) to help become “global *jinzai*” for

2012-2022 (MEXT, 2012). On the other hand, the term “global citizens” applies much more broadly. All the students should be educated to become “global citizens” (UNESCO, 2016). It is important to note that although the terms have been developed in different contexts and used for different purposes, obviously they are not mutually exclusive. Both emphasize the importance of nurturing globally-minded individuals with strong foreign language communicative skills who can work effectively in the globalized world.

2.2 Global Education and Global Citizenship Education

“Global education” and the “global citizenship education” are overlapping concepts in some ways, but they are not identical. According to Davies (2006), global citizenship education is a more recently developed concept. Global education or World Studies, have been taught in the UK schools since the 1970s. It was often linked to development education where “global interdependence” and “global village” were key concepts. The aim of global education was to help students gain awareness of mutual independence and cultural diversity in the globalized world. The concept of global citizenship, however, has become particularly important after the bombings in London in July, 2005 (Davies, 2006). The word “citizenship” was added to the concept which enabled the term to incorporate the issue of social justice in the globalized world. In the next section, we will focus more closely on the term “citizenship” by drawing on two related concepts, democratic citizenship and intercultural citizenship.

2.3 Democratic Citizenship and Intercultural Citizenship

Democratic citizenship and intercultural citizenship are interrelated concepts (Byram, 2006). Both are associated with the concepts of plurilingualism and pluriculturalism, the underlying principles of the CEFR. The former is more closely connected with the political contexts of language policies, whereas the latter is linked to the sociocultural contexts of education.

The skills associated with understanding and supporting human rights can be those for democratic citizenship because human rights underpin democracy (Starkey, 2002). The key skills for human rights described in *Teaching and learning about Human Rights in schools* (COE, 1985) are intellectual and social skills. The former includes the ability to collect and analyze information, media literacy, and the ability to identify discriminatory behavior and attitudes. Social skills encompass abilities to recognize and accept differences and establish relationships based on tolerance and inclusion; resolve conflicts through discussion and negotiation, and actively support the mechanisms responsible for the protection of human rights. Starkey claims that these skills can be developed through the study

of languages, and many of them are listed in the CEFR (Starkey, 2002).

Intercultural citizenship emphasizes the importance of developing intercultural competence in learners (see Byram, 2006, 2008). It is pedagogically implemented by encouraging learners to compare and understand the different viewpoints by “making the familiar strange and the strange familiar” (Byram, 2008: p.187). This requires the learners to examine their own and others’ values or behaviors from different perspectives and to “decentre” them. The CEFR stresses that “the learner of a second or foreign language and culture does not simply acquire two distinct, unrelated ways of acting and communicating”, but he or she “develops interculturality” (p.43). Developing interculturality is at the core of intercultural citizenship, and this might be realized through cooperative learning in communicative settings in which learners engage in intercultural negotiations with others and develop intercultural competence as a result (see Carton 2015). Thus, the ability to cooperate is one of the key components of intercultural competence.

2.4 The Definition of Global Citizens

Oxfam (2015) defines a global citizen as someone who:

1. has a sense of their own role as a world citizen
2. respects and values diversity
3. has understanding how the world works
4. is passionately committed to social justice
5. participates in the community
6. works with others to make the world a more equitable and sustainable place
7. takes responsibility for their actions.

Competences 5, 6, and 7 are related to the social skills necessary to foster democratic citizenship as discussed in the previous section (e.g. “establish relationship”, “resolve conflicts through discussion and negotiation”, “actively support the mechanisms responsible for the protection of human rights”). In the present study, therefore, we will focus on these three dimensions as key skills to promote global citizenship education, and will examine their implementation in English language education. “participation”, “cooperation”, and “responsibility” are used to refer to the key components required in each skill development.

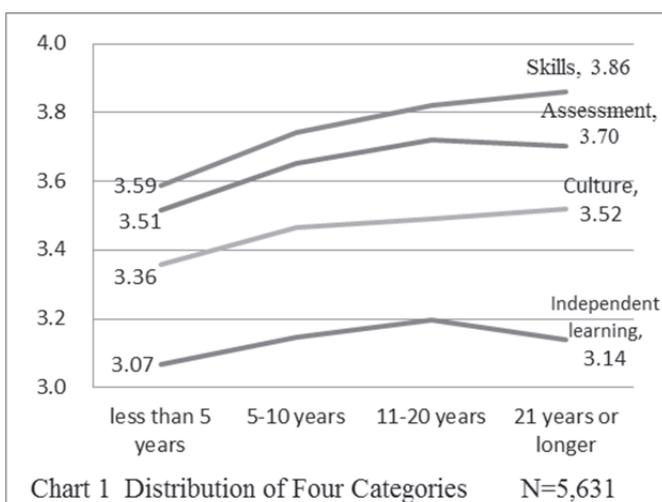
3. Analyses and Discussion of the Survey Results on the J-POSTL Self-assessment Descriptors

3.1 Overview of the Specification Process of J-POSTL Self-assessment Descriptors

J-POSTL self-assessment descriptors are based on the original EPOSTL model which was translated, carefully analyzed to ascertain appropriateness for the Japanese educational context, piloted among pre-service teachers and further streamlined to determine suitability for various levels of classroom. The process resulted in 185 self-assessment descriptors with 160 of them successfully categorized into five career stages. (for a more detailed overview of the background and the development of J-POSTL descriptors see JACET SIG, 2010: pp. 16-55; Takagi, Nakayama, 2012: pp. 8-46; Nakayama, Yamaguchi, Takagi, 2013: pp. 73-93; JACET SIG, 2013: pp. 11-59; Hisamura, 2014: pp. 5-13).

3.2 Didactic Competences of In-service Teachers

To explore the challenges of the dissemination and pedagogical implications of J-POSTL, the national survey results were re-analyzed, and gaps in didactic competences among the four categories (skills-, assessment-, culture-, and independent-learning-related descriptors) were identified (Hisamura, 2016 : p. 17) (See, Chart 1). The results show that English education in Japan focuses almost exclusively on language skills, while little attention is paid to the development of independent or collaborative learning competencies. Since the descriptors included in independent learning contain a number of terms reflecting European views of language and language education, some of them are probably unfamiliar or unrecognizable to the respondents. They relate to individual and group activities, such as portfolio and project work, and virtual learning by ICT resources, aiming to encourage learners to become reflective and autonomous. As was suggested by



a veteran EFL teacher in one of the workshops on J-POSTL, it is unlikely that many Japanese language educators, especially those with a long teaching record, have been exposed to such activities during their pre-service training or PD sessions. Therefore, most of the descriptors in this category were labeled as [Open] in terms of the career stage.

From the perspective of global citizenship, language teachers in Japan should be aware of the importance of independent learning which helps learners to be responsible for their own learning i.e. to become autonomous. Autonomous learning “forms the utmost level of independence, when all the decisions are taken by learners, who also monitor their own performance and assess their own competence (Dickinson 1987; Nunan 1986 in Komorowska 2012: p. 54).” Also, one of the features of autonomous language learners is to “display the will to learn, the desire to take initiatives, ... the capability of co-operating and collaborating with others and the openness to discuss their own progress as well as skills ...” (Benson 2001 in Komorowska 2012: p.59). Therefore, encouraging independent learning will lead to learners’ readiness to assume the responsibilities of global citizenship.

3.3 Self-assessment Descriptors Related to Global Citizenship Education

CEFR states, although the notions of global citizenship are not specifically mentioned, in the form of questions, “How far should learners be expected or required to: a)... b) participate actively in the learning process in co-operation with the teacher and other students to reach agreement on objectives and methods, accepting compromise, and engaging in peer teaching and peer assessment so as to progress steadily towards autonomy?” (CEFR, p. 144) Autonomy includes in its concepts “the ability to take responsibility for one’s own learning (Newby, 2011: p.78).” Therefore, this question of CEFR is associated with the key components necessary for global citizenship education, and can be linked to the specific competence descriptors of J-POSTL as well as EPOSTL (see Newby, 2012: p. 123).

Table 1 shows the examples of J-POSTL descriptors used in the 2012 national survey, each of which is partly related to the key notions of global citizenship. The re-analysis was conducted again to find out in-service teachers’ attitudes towards these descriptors.

All of these descriptors are dealing with the issue of cooperation and more specifically collaborative learning in the classroom. Also, descriptors #2, #3, and #4 in particular are related to the notions of “participating in the decision-making” and “taking responsibility for one’s own learning”.

Table 1 Self-assessment descriptors linked to the notions of global citizenship education

Self-assessment Descriptors [Career stage]	Category
1. I can use peer-assessment and feedback to assist the writing process. (Peer-assessment in writing) [SP: senior practitioner]	Skills
2. I can guide learners to produce materials for themselves and for other learners. (Producing materials) [Open]	Resources
3. I can involve learners in lesson planning. (Involving learners in lesson planning) [Open]	Lesson Planning
4. I can set homework in cooperation with learners. (Setting homework with learners) [Open]	Independent Learning
5. I can assess the process and outcome of project work in cooperation with learners. (Project work with learners) [Open]	Independent Learning
6. I can encourage self-and peer assessment of portfolio work. (Peer-assessment in portfolio work) [Open]	Independent Learning

3.4 Results and Discussion

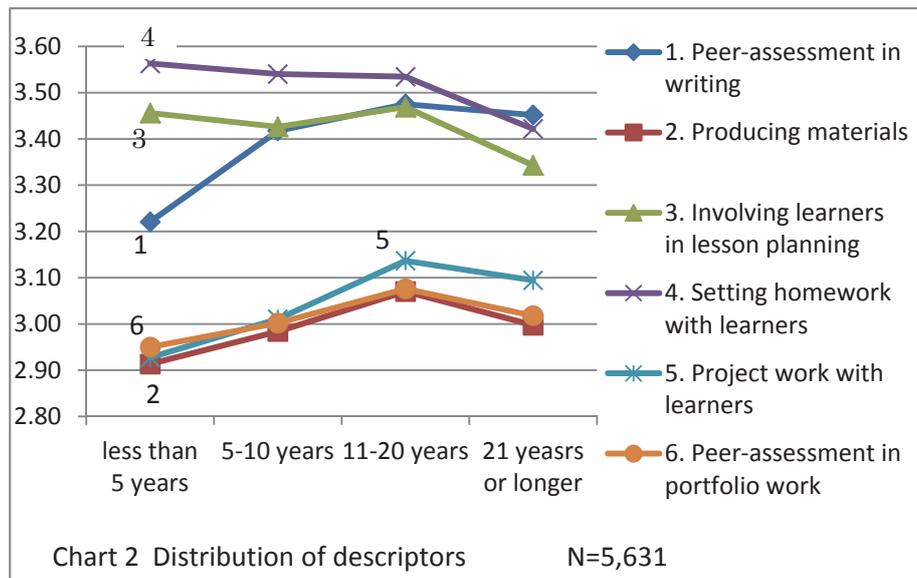


Chart 2 shows the results of the analysis. Judging from the aggregate results, the average 3.40 on a 5-point Likert scale indicates that about half of the teachers gave positive responses to the descriptors. Taking this into consideration, the results can be summarized as follows:

- A limited number of English language teachers have positive attitudes towards or confidence in these descriptors. Only #1 shows relatively sharp upward-sloping, which is comparable to the category ‘Skills’ in Chart 1.

- Respondents show discomfort particularly dealing with descriptors #2, #5 and #6 which are associated with creative and cooperative work, or active learning. Only a third of the respondents have practiced these activities in the classroom or have confidence in integrating them into their pedagogical repertoire.
- Experienced teachers (over 21 years in service) show more reluctance to incorporate these activities and less confidence in being able to conduct them successfully than teachers who have been working 11-20 years. This may be because they still cannot free themselves from teacher-centered or old fashioned chalk-and-talk way of teaching.
- Both #3 and #4 can be linked to the notions of participation in the decision-making and assuming responsibility: ‘participating in the decision’ and ‘taking responsibility for one’s own learning’ as well. In these two descriptors, teachers with less than 5-year teaching career i.e. novice or apprentice teachers show a higher level of confidence. It is expected that the graph will show upward-sloping as this group of teachers gains teaching experiences

4. Conclusion

As stated in Section 1, the framework of global citizenship education is not elaborated in Japanese education policy, let alone in the national curriculum i.e. the Course of Study. Educational activities related to citizenship education have been separately practiced in the field of development education. Under these circumstances, learners will not be able to become fully aware of the concept of global citizenship.

Global citizenship education is closely connected to language education in fostering learners’ awareness of the three notions: “participation”, “cooperation” and “responsibility”, which are linked to independent, interactive and reflective or autonomous learning advocated by CEFR. In English language education in Japan, however, enhancing language skills is a major priority, whereas independent learning skills are not valued or addressed by classroom educators. The limited empirical data presented in this paper clearly underscore the urgency for English language educators to:

- regard their learners as individuals who contribute to society, and encourage them to be independent lifelong learners,
- involve learners in planning lessons, deciding the contents of homework assignments, and producing learning materials,

- plan and practice cooperative learning activities such as project and portfolio work, and encourage self-and peer assessment of the process.

“Cultivating Japanese with English abilities” (MEXT, 2002) is a slogan of English language education. However, the emphasis on language skills, while obviously necessary, is not sufficient for nurturing multifaceted individuals who are capable of and prepared to interact with people from different cultural backgrounds. Language learners, therefore, should be encouraged to acquire knowledge, skills and know-how about global citizenship as well as literacy skills. Particularly, the notions of “participation”, “cooperation”, and “responsibility” should be implemented into the EFL classroom and become an integral part of foreign language education in Japan.

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【Practical Report】

In-service Training for Junior High School Teachers with J-POSTL: To Establish a Model of Learning English Teachers

Chihiro Kato, Fuminori Koide & Yuichi Maeyashiki

Abstract

Yokohama City University provides a one-year training program for two junior high school teachers every year. The purpose of this training project by the Yokohama City Board of Education is to develop teachers so as to acquire high communication skills and contribute to the actualization of practical English education in a globalized society. This university training program started with two dispatched teachers in April 2014 with the mission of acquiring enough English skills and appropriate teaching methods to conduct a lesson in English. However, the university has no English department or professor for English teacher training courses. Is it possible to provide effective teacher training without mentors or supervisors? Given these concerns, we held teacher training using J-POSTL, obtaining cooperation from JACET SIG on English Language Education. This paper reports on two junior high school teachers and their attempts to apply J-POSTL, and verifies the effectiveness of this training program.

Keywords

J-POSTL, teacher training, teaching improvement, learning teacher

1. Introduction (by Chihiro Kato)

The new curriculum guidelines for senior high schools in Japan implemented in 2013 detail educational policy with the requirement that: “classes, in principle, should be conducted in English.” This policy will be fully implemented for junior high schools in the school year 2021. Yokohama is widely recognized as an international city and expected to promote globalization more than other cities. Consequently, the city has formulated “the course of study Yokohama City version” since 2009 and shown that it is necessary to change, connect, and improve the lesson for teaching improvement. The reaction of junior high school teachers in Yokohama, however, is puzzlement and doubt as to “how they can improve their lessons.” Many Japanese teachers have learnt English through the grammar-translation method, which has been discredited by MEXT (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology). Instead the communicative learning method has been promoted. Under these circumstances the city has been making efforts to shift its English education towards communication-oriented teaching methods, emphasizing in-service teacher training programs, one of which is the

junior high school teacher dispatch project to the Practical English Center of Yokohama City University.

The one-year teaching training for junior high school teachers started in 2014 at Yokohama City University, and the main objective of this program is to improve English skills and acquire teaching methods to conduct lessons effectively in English. However, at the beginning there were no clear goals and policies for this program, let alone mentors and supervisors. How can the trainees improve their teaching skills just going to university for a year? Then I decided to introduce J-POSTL as a part of the training program in order to make this training period fruitful while also obtaining cooperation from JACET SIG on English Language Education. The purpose of introducing J-POSTL was to let trainees reflect on their past teaching methods and recognize what they should acquire to improve their teaching skills and develop their lessons. J-POSTL is based on the European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (EPOSTL), following the philosophy of action-oriented views of language and life-long learning. Therefore, it will be a good opportunity for trainees to learn the communicative approach in teaching and autonomous learning which fosters learners' intrinsic motivation.

This paper reports on the experiences of two junior high school teachers who joined the teaching training program at Yokohama City University in the school years 2014 and 2015, and shows how they made use of J-POSTL to improve their language skills and acquire teaching methods. This paper also investigates how J-POSTL can be utilized in in-service teacher training, what benefits participants can gain, and what will be the problems. Fostering autonomous learners must be one of the objectives and roles for teachers. In the same way, fostering autonomous teachers who can keep learning through their careers should be the objective of this one-year teaching training at university. This paper investigates whether J-POSTL can effectively help to train teachers who can lead English education in Yokohama. In this paper, Koide (trainee) wrote Chapter 3, Maeyashiki (trainee) wrote Chapter 4, and Kato (mentor), university professor in charge of this training program, wrote the other parts based on the written and oral reports by the trainees.

2. Teacher Training at YCU (by Chihiro Kato)

2.1 Practical English Center

Yokohama City University (YCU) provides three types of teaching training for English teachers. The first is the annual summer workshop for Yokohama city senior high school teachers, which began in 2012. The second is the semiannual training session for Yokohama city and Kanagawa prefectural senior high school teachers. In this session,

started in 2013, participants observe Practical English (PE) classes of YCU and have a discussion with PE instructors and other attendees over ways to apply the teaching methods in a university setting to high school classrooms. The third is the one-year teaching training program for junior high school teachers, which will be discussed in this paper. In any such program, the main objective is to acquire teaching methods so as to “conduct English lessons in English.”

The above programs were started at the request of the Yokohama City Board of Education. However, why was YCU offered such an opportunity by the educational board? The answer must lie in the English curriculum provided by the Practical English Center (PE Center). PE is a required subject for all students of YCU regardless of their majors; students are required to achieve 500 on TOEFL-ITP in order to advance to the third year. The PE Center was established in 2007 to manage all English programs except for teacher training courses. There are three main policies for PE classes: classes are conducted all in English; the focus is communication; teachers are all TESOL experts. Since the establishment of the PE Center the passing rate of the PE subject has been steadily increasing to 92.9% at the end of the 2015 school year. Owing to these successful results, the PE program has been highly evaluated inside and outside the university. As a consequence, the PE Center now offers some teaching training programs for junior and senior high school teachers.

2.2 Teaching Training for Junior High School Teachers

Every year two junior high school teachers are dispatched by the City Board of Education to take the one-year teaching training program at YCU. The participants are between 30-40 years old and they can be categorized as younger and middle-ranking members. They are all expected to promote English education in Yokohama city. Their mission is to acquire teaching methods which can shift classrooms from traditional passive learning styles towards an active learning style, and to expand these new teaching methods to their colleagues.

In this training program, the participants sent by the City Board of Education strive to improve their English and teaching skills while engaging in duties for the PE Center. Their duties are mainly as follows: 1) attend PE classes as teaching assistants; 2) audit Advanced PE classes; 3) audit teacher training courses such as “English Language Education”; 4) demonstrate his/her lesson to undergraduate students in teacher training courses; 5) take English exams such as TOEFL-iBT or IELTS; 6) join overseas training; 7) assist in PE Center operations; 8) advise students taking teacher training courses. In addition, we (university professor and junior high school teachers) have a weekly discussion using J-POSTL to reflect on our teaching so far and deepen our reflective discussions over didactic competency required as English teachers.

2.3 Reflective Activities with J-POSTL

J-POSTL mainly consists of three sections based on EPOSTL: personal statement, self-assessment, and dossier. The first section, personal statement, is about “himself/herself” and lets the user reflect on his/her own past English learning experience and competency as an English teacher. The second section, self-assessment, is composed of “can-do descriptors” which facilitate reflection and self-assessment about his/her teaching ability. The third section, dossier, is a kind of “record” of learning and practice in which the user can recognize the evidence of his/her progress. The advantage of using this teaching portfolio is, according to the “Introduction” of J-POSTL, as follows:

- clarify the competences a teacher should strive to attain
- encourage you to reflect on the didactic competences and on the underlying knowledge and skills which feeds these competences
- promote discussion between you and your colleagues and between you and your mentors
- facilitate self-assessment of your developing competence
- provide an instrument which helps chart progress (JACET SIG, 2014, pp. 1-2)

All the junior high school teachers taking this training have teaching careers of more than seven years, and have already attempted to develop their teaching beforehand. However, it is necessary for them to objectively assess themselves in order to develop further as language teachers. They should recognize what kind of qualification, knowledge and skills are required to make their lessons better. Furthermore, the “self-assessment descriptors” help them to foster discussion and collaboration with their colleagues and mentors. As the “Introduction” of EPOSTL also describes: “It is important that they [descriptors] act as a stimulus for students, teacher educators and mentors to discuss important aspects of teacher education which underlie them and that they contribute to developing professional awareness.” (Newby, 2007, p.7), this portfolio enables users to enhance their professional awareness for didactic competency as a language teacher through discussion. With this one-year training program the trainees have enough time to reflect on their teaching with J-POSTL, which can be a superior learning material. Considering the advantages mentioned above, we have decided to work together, discussing the “self-assessment descriptors” over a period of one year.

As described above, J-POSTL follows the philosophy of action-oriented views of language and life-long learning as proposed by EPOSTL. It can therefore be a useful tool for trainees to learn Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and autonomous learning which, in turn, fosters learner’s intrinsic motivation. The shift to the CLT

method is currently required for teachers in the classroom, as Kiyota points out (Kiyota, 2015, p. 22), and this must be the heaviest burden for them. The dispatched junior high school teachers are, beyond a doubt, expected to achieve the shift in their teaching from the outset.

2.4 Participants

The participants reported in this paper are two junior high school teachers dispatched by the Yokohama City Board of Education. They were all hired by Yokohama city and have worked as full-time teachers for 15 and 7 years, respectively. The two teachers received the training in the school years 2014 and 2015 and conferred with other trainees taking part in the program in the same year. There was also consultation with the mentor (university professor) over the “self-assessment descriptors” of J-POSTL over the respective period. In addition, they utilized J-POSTL outside the university. The next two chapters introduce reports on practical activities carried out by the two trainees.

3. Use of J-POSTL in a Demonstration Lesson (by Fuminori Koide)

This part is a report from a teacher who was sent to the Practical English Center, Yokohama City University in 2014. This on-the-job teacher training program at YCU started from this year. Groping for an effective approach, I had carried out reflective activities with Mr. Kato and another trainee through one year using J-POSTL to make the program complete. To fulfill the training requirements, I held a demonstration lesson and introduced the self-assessment descriptors into my teaching plan. The aim was to verify whether J-POSTL was available or not for planning and practicing English lessons.

3.1 Reflective Activities Using J-POSTL

J-POSTL mainly consists of three sections: personal statement, self-assessment, and dossier. At the beginning of April, we conducted our first discussion concerning J-POSTL. The colleague and I referred to the personal statement section at the beginning of the reflective activities. This section requires users to reflect on their methods of teaching English, their experiences as a learner of English, and their qualities and abilities. We wrote down things we thought and realized through the reflection. I got the opportunity to learn what my colleague thought about English teachers' qualities and abilities through sharing what we wrote down on J-POSTL. This process gave us both a fresh perspective.

After our first discussion, the three of us – including Mr. Kato – began to work on each self-assessment descriptor from J-POSTL. In each session, my colleague and I noted low-marked self-assessment descriptors and those we could not understand; Mr. Kato

then gave us some comments and advice. I checked 180 self-assessment descriptors that were reflected upon, as well as the scales I used to mark my own assessment. There seemed to be a tendency to assess lower on the articles I do not usually focus on and to assess slightly higher on what I mainly teach in my daily classes and have confidence in.

I took some English tests such as IELTS in the middle and at the end of the training, to measure my four English skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The scores and dates of the tests were recorded in the dossier stage. *The Fundamental Theories and Practice of English Education in the New Era for Professional Development of English Teachers* states that the relations between English skills, which can be measured by tests, and competence as a teacher, are as follows:

‘English skills which can be measured by certificate examinations’ and ‘knowledge and culture for teaching English’ are not directly related to the actual lessons. However, to improve these two qualities and abilities helps teachers develop their ‘qualities and abilities which are required in the actual teaching’ and it might be shown as remarkable progress on the behavior in their lessons. (JACET SIG, 2012, p. 62)

Our activities at Yokohama City University focused on these two abilities; the role of J-POSTL was to put them together and help us to understand in a lucid manner what to improve. I realized that it was my listening and writing skills that I needed to develop, as I gleaned from taking IELTS. In addition, my self-assessment showed that I assessed lowly the self-assessment descriptors to do with listening. Most pertinently, the two descriptors: “*I can design and select different activities which help learners to recognize and interpret typical features of spoken language*” and “*I can help learners to apply strategies to cope with typical aspects of spoken language (background noise, redundancy) etc.*” were placed lower than other descriptors of listening. The notion that I tended to avoid activities that called for skills I lacked confidence in had unconsciously affected my self-assessment. Retention of the J-POSTL record allowed me to visibly reflect on what I somehow intuited but I didn’t consciously notice.

3.2 Content of the Lesson and Teaching Plan

I had an opportunity to be evaluated by the students who had previously taken my English lessons, to make use of what I had learnt through this training program. I held a demonstration lesson at the junior high school where I worked before, in March 2015. The point is whether the instructor uses proper English that can be understood by the students and encourages them to use English as much as possible. Accordingly, the language of instruction was English, and I planned the lesson to focus on

student-centered language activities. The session was designed for second-grade students (21 males and 17 females), most of whom I had taught during the previous year.

To plan the lesson, self-assessment descriptors were experimentally introduced into the teaching plan. The lesson was focused on the students' speaking activities; accordingly, self-assessment descriptors about such activities were utilized from J-POSTL. There were two aims: the first, to inform the observers of J-POSTL and to reflect on the lesson from a common viewpoint through the self-assessment descriptors during the discussion, as this demonstration lesson was open to Yokohama teachers; the second, to remind me how to help or encourage students to use English by including supportive points based on self-assessment descriptors in the teaching plan.

Let us reflect on these two aims. First, most of the observers did not know about J-POSTL at that time, as it had only been about a year since its publication. I asked some of them about the inclusion of self-assessment descriptors in the teaching plan. Here are some of the comments they gave: "To narrow down the items might make the teaching plan clearer and the discussion might be deepened because teachers could also narrow down the subjects to discuss"; "Visitors might focus on the instructor as the instructor's didactic competence was written down in the teaching plan." As the comments imply, students should be focused on the lesson, which in turn should be aimed at assessing whether it is student-centered or not. Teachers may be able to reflect without including self-assessment descriptors in their teaching plans as J-POSTL becomes more popular. This demonstration lesson could constitute a first step toward the widespread application of J-POSTL.

Next, let us move on to the second aim. While I was making the lesson plan, I was thinking about the self-assessment descriptors; I could also have done so while discussing with my colleague what activities would be needed for the students. One of the speaking aims of this lesson was "Students can communicate what they have experienced to their teacher and friends using words and phrases they have learned." What should the instructor do to enable pupils to achieve this goal? The descriptors from J-POSTL provided useful information for resolving this question. J-POSTL is a reflection tool, but it can also assist us in making teaching plans.

3.3 Reflection on the Lesson

I introduced eight self-assessment descriptors from J-POSTL into the teaching plan as "didactic competence aimed for by the instructor in today's lesson." In this part, I will focus on three descriptors extracted from the section "*II Methodology A. Speaking/Spoken Interaction.*" Let me expand on how I came up with the ideas for the

lesson and how the students felt about it.

Descriptor 1: I can create a supportive atmosphere that invites learners to take part in speaking activities. (J-POSTL, 25)

According to the book *The Fundamentals and Practice of English Education in the New Era for Professional Development as English Teachers*, the above descriptor is explained as follows:

Moreover, students need to become friendly with one another through pair work or group work designed by teachers in order to take part in speaking activities independently and actively by themselves. To make it work better, teachers need to consider how to organize pairs or how many people are needed for each activity, etc. (JACET SIG, 2012, p. 108)

In the lesson, the groups were divided simply by seat order. Each group consisted of three or four students. I gave the students directions to introduce themselves in each group, as a warm-up activity. The first speaker introduced only two things: his or her own name and favorite thing. The second speaker had to introduce the first speaker using phrases such as “This is He or she likes,” before talking about himself or herself. The third speaker introduced both the first and second speakers. I reassured them that they did not have to memorize the former speakers’ information and that they should help each other. I also encouraged students to ask their group members to repeat their favorite things. Although these directions were given in English, most students could understand them because I provided examples. When observing their activities, it appeared that students did not feel anxiety over the task and continued to talk and help one another.

The following are some comments from the students’ reflection papers: “We helped each other and could talk about the words we did not know.” “I could tell a lot of things to my friends.” “I could clearly express what I thought.”

Descriptor 2: I can evaluate and select various activities to help learners to identify and use typical features of spoken language (informal language, fillers, etc.). (J-POSTL, 25)

Descriptor 3: I can help learners to use communication strategies (asking for clarification, comprehension checks, etc.) and compensation strategies (paraphrasing, simplification, etc.) when engaging in spoken interaction. (J-POSTL, 26)

I intentionally used fillers such as ‘well’, ‘you know’, ‘I mean’, and nods as an example for students using them. I also gave an example of how to explain things they did not know, as in the following: “If you do not know the word ‘apple’, you can say ‘red,’ ‘sweet,’ and ‘fruit,’ showing the round shape with your hands.” One of the goals of the lesson was for students to find alternative methods of communication, such as using gestures or a partner’s help, when they did not know the correct expressions. Here is another example: a student wanted to express the phrase “the place she went to was ‘crowded,’” but she did not know the word ‘crowded.’ Her friend, who was in the same group, suggested ‘many people’ instead.

Here are some more comments from the students’ reflection papers: “The gestures and visual aids helped me somehow understand the content even though I did not understand the teacher’s English.” “I could somehow understand what the teacher was talking about even though I did not understand some words and details because he used gestures.” “I could ask some questions to my friends and listened to them while nodding.” These comments demonstrate that the lesson, as based on the self-assessment descriptors, was useful from the students’ point of view.

3.4 Achievement and Challenge of Reflective Activities Using J-POSTL

I could reflect on the lessons I had conducted as a result of using J-POSTL for one year. I also experienced not only the sharing of mutual thoughts, but the formation of new ideas through the above-mentioned discussions. In addition, I realized that J-POSTL follows the English education policy based on the Course of Study determined by MEXT. I could deepen my understanding of the Course of Study. I referred to both the Course of Study and J-POSTL when constructing the lesson plan.

It is obvious that J-POSTL is an effective tool for improving teaching skills in a long-term teacher training program at the university level. The demonstration lesson made it clear that the use of J-POSTL could be adapted effectively for making lesson plans and actual teaching. I could make it clear what I should focus on in the lesson through the introduction of self-assessment descriptors from J-POSTL into the lesson plan. It can also help us to focus our lessons on the goals. Moreover, we can have instructive discussions through the common perspective in the sessions after demonstration lessons.

The issue is how to utilize J-POSTL effectively in schools, where teachers are faced with a great deal of work aside from their daily lessons. There are still some self-assessment descriptors which I cannot find out how I should connect to the actual teaching activities. However, I believe that I will integrate them when I find out the answers in the future. The point of effective use of J-POSTL is stated in J-POSTL itself.

It says “Once you use J-POSTL, it is better for you to keep using it through your careers.”(JACET SIG, 2014, p. 2) I need to judge when to get and use J-POSTL again in my career for my development as a teacher.

4. Using J-POSTL in School Training (by Yuichi Maeyashiki)

I took training at YCU in 2015 and had a demonstration lesson in the school where I worked the previous year. While preparing for the demonstration lesson, I helped a new part-time teacher who had no teaching experience for 2 months. During that term, I used J-POSTL and had a meeting for “reflection” with the new teacher. What follows below is the report on how I made use of J-POSTL.

4.1 The Circumstances of Using J-POSTL in School Training

In the middle of September (in 2015), I had a demonstration lesson, which was a part of the dispatched training program. That demonstration lesson was held in the school where I worked the previous year (in 2014). The aim of the lesson was to adapt YCU’s PE lessons to junior high school students. Although the training started only 6 months before, I tried to adapt what I had learned at YCU into the junior high school lessons. I was planning to go to that junior high school from the end of August to the middle of September to plan a demonstration lesson and observe the students because it was easy to arrange the schedule during the summer break of the university. Before that, I came to know that the English teacher, in whose class I was going to give the demonstration lesson, would take a temporary leave from school and a new part-time teacher would replace her to teach that class. The new teacher had just graduated from university and didn’t have any experience teaching in a junior high school. Given the current situation in public junior high schools, changing teachers in such a season had a big influence not only on students but also on teachers. Regular teachers are too busy every day to instruct a new teacher in the middle of the term. Because of this, as a part of preparation for the demonstration lesson, I decided to help the new teacher to get her lessons well under the way. My job was to advise her in planning a lesson and to support her in the classroom as an assistant teacher, and so on. In addition to these tasks, we had a reflective discussion using J-POSTL.

4.2 How to Reflect

For the reflection, we used the part of “*IV Lesson Planning*” in J-POSTL. The reason why we selected that section was that to have a meeting over that part would be beneficial for each of us. I also considered this part problematic.

The new part-time teacher reflected on the section titled “*IV Lesson Planning*” at the end of August when she started her career as a teacher. At that time, we didn’t have a

meeting for reflection yet. We had the first meeting at the end of October, when two months had passed since she became a part-time teacher and it was close to her final stage as a substitute teacher. But the teacher was going to take another part-time teaching position after completing the term from August to October. We had the second meeting for reflection at the middle of January, when she was teaching at another junior high school.

When we had reflective discussions, I led the part-time teacher to check the scale of the self-assessment descriptors with each other and introduce our own episodes and some problems or trouble related with the statements of the descriptors. The first meeting in October was accompanied by another full-time teacher who was my ex-colleague and had the same teaching career. In the second meeting in January only the part-time teacher and I had a discussion over our teaching skills.

4.3 To Find out “What We Don’t Know”, “What We Don’t Understand” and “What We have Never Thought about”

Through the reflective activities with the part-time teacher using J-POSTL, I discovered several things. Through the discussions, I strongly felt that I found out “what we don’t know”, “what we don’t understand” and “what we have never thought about.” For example, in the first meeting in October, we had a question about the interdependence of language and culture in the statement of “*IV Lesson Planning B. Lesson Content*”: “*I can plan activities to emphasize the interdependence of language and culture.*” At that time, we considered this deeply. I thought I had unconsciously taught my students about interdependence through my lessons; however, I didn’t remember whether I had made or carried out such activities with comprehension of the clear aim. In our discussions, there were certain opinions: for instance, “English sentences need their subjects, but Japanese sentences do not always require their subjects” or “in Japanese, people use two different words like ‘ani’ (older brother) and ‘otouto’ (younger brother) by their ages, but in English they don’t distinguish them.” Through such a discussion, gradually we found out what the statement of the descriptor meant. And then, we expanded our argument to the topic, “some of our past experience of English activities can be related with this kind of aim.” This example shows us that it is important to find out what we don’t know, what we don’t understand, and what we have never thought about. Through the meetings over the specific statements of J-POSTL, we touched on what we have never thought about, and we recognized it, and we reflected our past and future teaching. To find out what we don’t know can be a good opportunity to learn new things and develop as a teacher. I discovered this fact and felt that these discussions were really beneficial.

4.4 The Gap of “What We Don’t Know”, “What We Don’t Understand”, and “What We have Never Thought about between Teachers”

I found one more thing through reflection with J-POSTL. There was a gap between ourselves as teachers as to what we didn’t know, what we didn’t understand, and what we had never thought about.

Here is another example in the statement of “*IV Lesson Planning B. Lesson Content*”: “*I can plan to teach elements of other subjects using the target language.*” I could guess that this statement had a link with CLIL, but the other two teachers had no ideas about the statement. Then I explained CLIL as far as I understood it.

As in this case, J-POSTL includes many words and teaching methods that English teachers should know or understand. I think that through reflection with J-POSTL, we can confirm our knowledge and experience of teaching and evaluation, while working together with other teachers. I also think that we can recognize how far our knowledge and experience differ among us through reflection over specific statements of the descriptors while talking about our own experience (I know this but the others don’t, and vice versa, and so on).

Especially for new teachers or less experienced teachers, it is difficult to specifically and independently discern what they don’t understand and other current issues. By finding gaps of knowledge and experience among teachers using J-POSTL, we could then learn customers’ needs for teacher training. Because we are required to have in-school training on a very tight schedule, for both trainers and trainees, a well-fitted training which meets the demands of participants will be very effective and reduce their burden.

4.5 The Part-time Teacher’s Impressions

What follows are the part-time teacher’s impressions on the reflective activities with J-POSTL. Firstly, she strongly emphasized that she could feel her growth as a teacher through the reflection. We had the first meeting for reflection after she had spent 2 months teaching, and the second one after 4 months. Between the first and second meetings, there were only 2 months, but she could feel her growth. For example, she wrote down on the dossier that she had more positive comments than before. She explained that she could not judge herself from some of the descriptors by herself in the beginning because she could not understand the meanings. But at the time when we had the second meeting, she could answer almost all the statements of “*IV Lesson Planning.*” She also mentioned that when she read some of the statements, she came to imagine specific ideas for them. In this way, the reflection with J-POSTL could let her feel her growth through visualizing “what she can do”, “what she can understand” and “what

she can imagine.” The period for the reflective activities was not so long, however, the part-time teacher seemed more positive and confident after finishing our meetings.

To feel the growth in ourselves motivates us to take the next step: what we should learn next, and what skill we should acquire. Subsequently, when we have the next reflection, we will feel further growth in ourselves. Of course, we will also find new issues to be solved in the reflection, but it will also motivate us for the next steps. From the impressions of the part-time teacher, we can understand that the “reflective activities” are strongly connected to “learning teachers.”

4.6 The Results and Issues of the Reflective Activities with J-POSTL in School Training

Firstly, the good effect of using J-POSTL in school training was that we could have deep discussions with clear points of discussion owing to the specific statements of the self-assessment descriptors. I felt that for the first time I had such a deep discussion of reflection with my colleagues although time was limited. The reason why we had such a satisfying discussions was because we had a meeting for reflection with a specific theme using J-POSTL. The meetings for reflection were not time-wasting, but very significant for us to understand each other and plan and make better lessons. Especially in school training, the use of J-POSTL will be highly profitable because teachers can discuss deeply specific themes.

Another good effect of using J-POSTL is its high use value in the case of training for new teachers. As mentioned above, J-POSTL is an effective tool to bridge the gap between younger teachers (trainees) and older teachers (trainers). It will be very useful when we would like to make a training program seeking an effective result with limited time. It also can be utilized in different ways. For example, we can have a demonstration lesson with a theme extracted from a part of J-POSTL and have a discussion over the lesson. We can say that J-POSTL is a useful tool for in-school training in that we can arrange it in various ways.

On the other hand, there are some concerns when using J-POSTL in school training. We had a meeting for reflection, but it is not certain whether the method of our discussions was the best way to reflect our teaching in order to improve our skills. For example, we used the section of “*IV Lesson Planning*,” but that part might have been too difficult for the part-time teacher who had little experience. It is ideal to check all the descriptors in school training, but it is almost impossible to do it in a limited time. Questions remain: how to select the appropriate statements from the section of self-assessment descriptors; how to hold a meeting for reflection; how to make use of J-POSTL in the future. These are some of the challenges we should consider and overcome when utilizing J-POSTL

for in-school training.

5. Conclusion (by Chihiro Kato)

This paper has reported on the cases of two junior high school teachers who conducted reflective activities with J-POSTL via the one-year teacher training at YCU and utilized J-POSTL in their own ways with the view to returning to their schools and classrooms. The first trainee attempted to adopt the self-assessment descriptors of J-POSTL in his lesson plan for a demonstration lesson. The aims of his attempt were: firstly, to let himself have a lesson while clarifying the focal points to make his students achieve their goals in the lesson; secondly, to let the observers review the lesson from the same viewpoint as the teacher and the other members. As to the first aim, it was found that when introducing an activity which the teacher used to have less confidence in such as speaking, he could conduct the activity with more confidence because the points to be aware of became clear. As to the latter aim, he was not able to share his reflective activity with the other participants because the teaching portfolios were not familiar to them. However, the aim of his lesson based on a communicative approach was highly apparent not only for his students, but also for the observers. It is obvious from this case that the use of J-POSTL is very beneficial in open discussion settings such as a demonstration lesson, but there is a question, too: whether junior high school teachers, who are very busy with daily school duties apart from the classroom, have enough time to make use of J-POSTL in regular school settings. Therefore, the training period at a university away from school duties is even more beneficial for the teachers to devote themselves to teacher development through reflection.

The second trainee attempted to use J-POSTL to instruct a new teacher for in-school training. He worked together with his colleague to assist the new teacher and had reflective activities with them focusing on the part of "*Lesson Planning*." It was a reflective activity for the two teachers, each with a 7-year teaching career, but was new learning for the novice teacher. Through discussions over J-POSTL they realized what they did not know, what they did not understand, and what they had never thought about, and therefore what they lacked as teachers was visualized. They also found out that there were gaps among teachers according to their experience and backgrounds in terms of what they lacked. This incident shows us that to recognize these gaps will help us set clear goals for ourselves or criteria when giving advice to younger teachers. There are certain problems, too. It is not easy to select appropriate parts from J-POSTL, which has many self-assessment descriptors, in school training with limited amounts of time. It is not certain how reflective activities among teachers can lead to self-development in classroom setting. This shows that it will be profitable to advertise a teaching portfolio like J-POSTL through various training programs and make it widely known so everyone

can consider “what competences are required for English teachers.”

Junior high school teachers are now exposed to the situation of unprecedented reform in English education. They cannot rely on experienced teachers for guidance because this kind of reform is unprecedented. Under such circumstances, the two junior high school teachers took part in the teacher training program at Yokohama City University. The main objective of the training is to acquire enough English skills and appropriate teaching methods to conduct English lessons in English. The trainees had experienced “all-in-English lessons” based on Communicative Language Teaching by attending many English classes and delivering demonstration lessons. They used to have a feeling of reluctance to conduct “all-in-English lessons” themselves at junior high schools. However, through this training program, they understood the ways, benefits, and issues of “all-in-English lessons” and deepened their confidence about the practicability of those lessons.

There is no English department or full-time professor for English teacher training courses at YCU. YCU is a small-scale public university which provides an English language program called ‘Practical English’ based on CLT. Under circumstances in which no one knew a model of ideal lessons at junior high school, J-POSTL was the only tool we could rely on to conduct a teacher training program with limited resources. The trainees attempted to adapt J-POSTL to their junior high school classrooms apart from the university and they realized the results and issues of its usage. They showed us that the reflective activities with J-POSTL, which clarifies the didactic competency teachers should acquire, would provide a new perspective for teaching improvement, and visualize self-analysis conducted intuitively before, and make teachers develop by knowing what they don’t know. The two teachers utilized J-POSTL by reading carefully and deepening their understanding of it. There are still many descriptors which they don’t fully understand, but this indicates their potential to develop in the future. They benefitted from practical reflection in line with educational settings because they used J-POSTL in the actual classrooms as well as had discussions at the university. Always considering the classroom situation will enhance the effectiveness of training for teachers who are away from their teaching places to study at university. In this sense, it is meaningful to provide an opportunity for demonstration lessons or research lessons for trainees. It is judged from the reports of the two junior high school teachers that the one-year university training program is a good opportunity for teachers to reflect on their teaching objectively away from their teaching places. Yet, it is also important to always imagine their classrooms and students. The teachers taking this training program, who are expected to lead reform of English education in Yokohama, will return to their junior high schools and develop themselves as English teachers while consistently improving their teaching. Ultimately, J-POSTL can be considered as a navigation

compass for them.

It becomes clear that this teaching portfolio functions as a bridge between the university as a training place and junior high schools as a teaching place. It will be better if the university effectively incorporates class observation at junior and senior high schools and demonstration lessons into this training program. It will be also beneficial if trainees have a chance to get advice from a junior high school teacher who practices CLT ahead of anyone else. For university students, trainees are good models as English teachers, English users, and as working adults. It will be worth considering how to give further benefit to university students.

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【Research Paper】

Japanese Engineering Students' Attitudes toward Studying Abroad and Living with Other Cultures in an Increasingly Globalized World

Rie Adachi

Abstract

This study was conducted to examine engineering students' attitudes toward studying abroad, learning foreign languages, learning about other cultures, and intercultural communication in Japan. A questionnaire survey was administered to a sample population of the students at a local private university. The results of the analysis revealed that students who had a positive attitude toward foreign residents and toward the study of Asian languages tended to have a positive attitude toward studying abroad and toward other cultures. However, there were some differences between their attitudes toward studying in the United States and studying in China or Korea. Moreover, students who had a conservative mindset tended to have a negative attitude toward foreign residents. Although the Japanese government puts emphasis on the importance of learning English to students, these findings show that teachers should also encourage students to take more interest in multiple languages and cultures and to nurture intercultural attitudes which will enable them to develop a global mindset. In addition, a multicultural perspective will also be required of students who do not expect to go abroad, since they will have more and more intercultural contacts with people from Asian countries who will be living and working in Japan.

Keywords

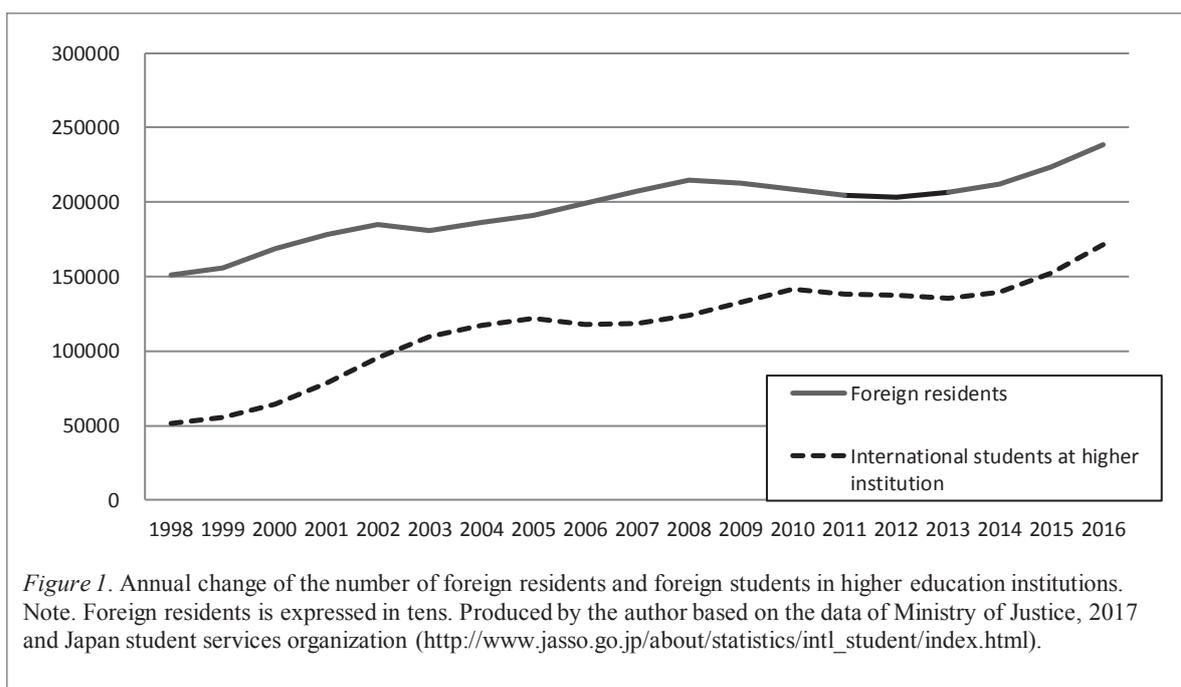
studying abroad, intercultural communication, a global mindset,
multiple languages, a globalized world

1. Introduction

The Japanese government has worked on “strengthening English education in elementary school in addition to further advancing English education in lower/upper secondary school” and “constructing necessary frameworks for new English education” corresponding to globalization (the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (hereafter MEXT), 2014a). It has also launched “Tobitate Japan! Study Abroad” program (MEXT, 2014b), whose goal is to provide opportunities for another 10,000 students and to make formal offers for students to avail various opportunities for studying abroad and to nurture a positive and ambitious attitude toward studying abroad.

In the meanwhile, the number of Japanese students who study in universities abroad has not seen an increase over the past twenty years (MEXT, 2016; ICEF Monitor, 2015). It was 51,295 in 1993, 89,246 in 2004, and decreased to 55,350 in 2013. This decrease can be attributed to several reasons, such as students' lack of awareness of the benefits of studying abroad, financial problems, or the anxiety of living abroad (Funatsu, 2012). Furthermore, Funatsu noted that the population of Japan is also on the decline. In fact, according to the Ministry of International Affairs and Communications (2015), the number was 128 million people in 2010, which is expected to decline to 100 million by 2045. In contrast, there is an increase in the number of both foreign residents and foreign students coming to Japan. Figure 1 shows the changes in the numbers of both "foreign residents" and "international students at higher institutions," both of which have been increasing almost at the same pace. It would be expected that this tendency of accepting more foreign people will continue to resolve its labor shortage. In addition, most of the foreign residents and visitors in Japan are from Asian countries, such as China, South Korea, and so on (Ministry of Justice, 2017, JASSO, 2016).

This implies that Japanese students would now be required to develop not only English communicative skills, but also intercultural communicative competence. Intercultural communicative competence, or intercultural competence, comprise multiple factors; they are attitudes, knowledge, skills of interpreting and relating, skills of discovery and interaction, and critical cultural awareness/political education (Byram, 2008, pp.230-234). While studying abroad can possibly lead to various positive outcomes, such as cross-cultural adjustments, intercultural competencies, and foreign-language proficiency (Byram and Feng, 2006), students can develop skills to adapt themselves to

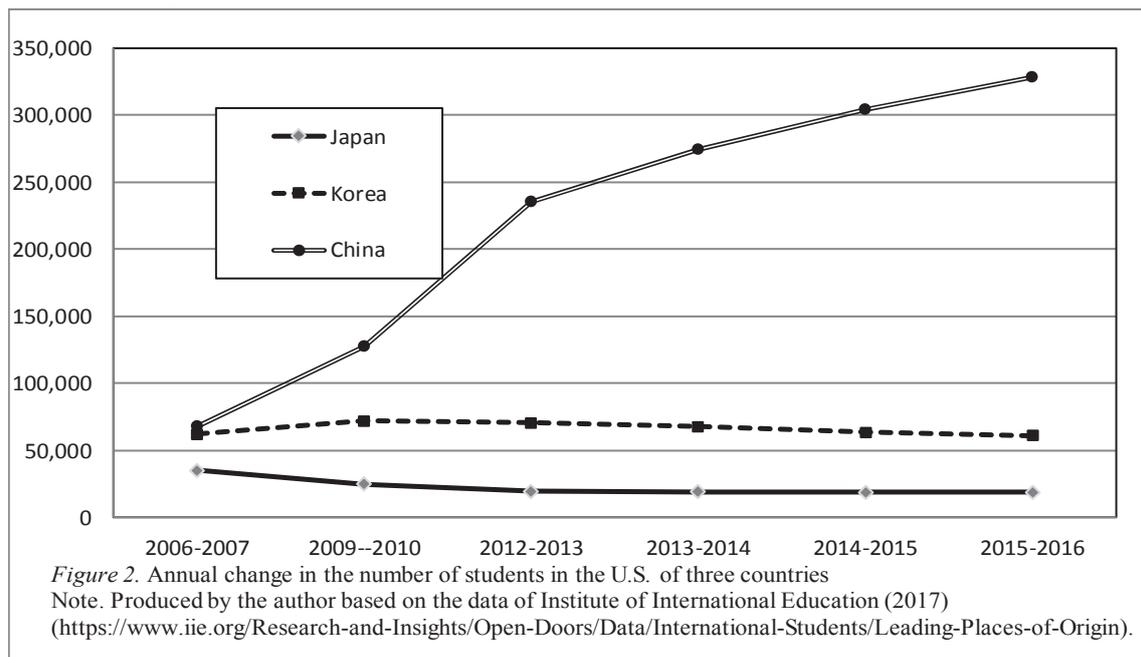


different cultures and intercultural communicative competence to some degree even within their home country. This study focuses on what kinds of skills and attitudes will be needed for students to correspond to globalization.

2. Japan's Position in the Globalized World

In the globalized society, Japanese will need to interact with people from other countries in various places—workplaces, schools, shops, stations, and neighborhoods. However, while an increasing number of Chinese students are studying abroad, there is not much of an increase in the number of Japanese students abroad (OECD, 2016). For example, according to the Institute of International Education (2015), the gap between the number of students in the U.S. from Japan and from China is widening (Figure 2). There has been a dramatic increase in the number of Chinese students in the U.S. Funatsu (2012), who investigated Japanese students' motivation in studying abroad, pointed out that universities need to offer Japanese students preparatory programs to encourage them to study abroad.

The Japanese government has proposed English learning objectives for every level of the educational system (MEXT, 2014a) and introduced new policy reforms, such as starting English language education in elementary schools and conducting lessons in the principles of using English in lower secondary schools. In addition, the government plans to increase its intake of foreign students to 300,000 (MEXT, 2013). It also proposes expanding tourism activity to increase the number of foreign visitors from 20 to 40 million by 2020 and benefit from the profits derived from tourism (The Japan Times, 2016).



However, there are potential difficulties in Japanese students gaining intercultural communicative competence. Since intercultural contact in their daily lives is minimal, they can neither acquire a high level of English proficiency nor develop a receptive attitude toward outsiders. For example, a study by Adachi (2008) showed that Japan's elderly tended to have a more negative attitude toward foreign residents than people of other ages. The study also indicated that the elderly did not have direct contact with foreigners and tended to have an image of foreigners based on TV news broadcasts and rumors.

Given these circumstances, the Japanese government recently launched new educational projects, such as the "Top Global University Project" (MEXT, 2014c) to help students in higher education institutions. The aim of the project is "to enhance the international compatibility and competitiveness of higher education in Japan" and it focuses more on the "competition." In this project, Type A universities are expected to be ranked in the world's top 100, while Type B universities must lead the internationalization of Japanese society (JSPS, 2014). In fact, the selected institutions are predominantly national or public universities or large universities. The "Tobitate" program mentioned in the previous section is sponsored by leading Japanese companies and the number of students who can avail this chance is limited. Moreover, applicants are required to pass a screening of their application documents and an interview to qualify for the scholarship. Therefore, students enrolled at large universities with various support systems for developing good writing and presentation skills tend to have an advantage.

The educational policies by MEXT do not seem to offer enough support to all students who would like to go abroad. However, average students, not just "select students," will have some intercultural contact. It is increasingly important for each student to develop intercultural communicative competence. Japanese higher education institutions are now required to encourage their students to have a positive attitude toward going abroad, and, if not, at least need to prepare the foundation for students to acquire intercultural competencies.

3. The Effects of Studying Abroad

Many studies show that studying abroad has a positive influence on students (Byram and Feng, 2006; Taguchi, 2008, 2011; Kinginger, 2013; Dewey, Brown, Baker, Martinsen, Gold, and Eggett, 2014). For example, Kinginger (2013, p. 11) classified the abilities gained from a study-abroad experience into two aspects: pragmalinguistic ability and sociopragmatic ability. Although some studies showed that students have limited learning opportunities while studying abroad and that the effects vary depending on each student, learners in study-abroad programs generally have significant

opportunities to develop their linguistic and cultural experiences while living in another country.

On the contrary, Soria and Troisi (2013) found that student participation in activities related to internationalization in their home country brought great perceived benefits, as much for studying abroad as for developing students' global, international, and intercultural competencies. As the internationalization-at-home-efforts had higher rates of student participation and engagement than traditional study-abroad opportunities, they concluded that students could achieve greater fluency from interacting with international students and participating in global and international activities. Their study also suggested that there is a high possibility that students can reap the benefits of global, international, and intercultural (GII) competencies when they have opportunities to learn about diverse global and international cultures. Thus, the experience of living abroad itself is not important, but the quality of the stay or the learning they undergo are crucial wherever they live.

Furthermore, the length of study abroad is also important, although even a short period sometimes brings significant benefits in studying abroad. For example, Allen (2010) reported that in a short-term study-abroad program, American participants at the college level were oriented toward two primary motives—linguistic and career-oriented—and that their decisions to study abroad were viewed either as a critical step in achieving linguistic goals or as a means of traveling and learning about another culture. With regard to Japanese students, Naito (1998) noted that some benefits of studying abroad were identified in high-school students who spent a mere two weeks in Australia. His study showed that their fluency and attitudes toward learning a foreign language improved in that short period. He concluded that students' motivation to learn English increased even if the stay was of short duration, and this enhanced their learning attitude and improved their foreign language skills to some extent. Kimura (2006), who conducted a study on the influence of a three-week language study program in an English-speaking country, found a significant difference in the listening section of a post-test between the group that went abroad and the group that stayed in Japan. She concluded that students' general English proficiency, especially in their listening proficiency, changed through the three-week stay, implying the possibility of an increase in their "willingness to communicate" (WTC).

From these results, although language proficiency is not highly improved, it is clear that motivation toward learning foreign languages and a positive attitude toward intercultural communication show an increase after a short-term study abroad program. King, Findlay, Ahrens, and Dunne (2011) investigated sixth-form students' views in England about studying abroad and demonstrated that many respondents viewed study

abroad as an adventure and an exciting rite of passage into adulthood. However, since their decision to study abroad depended not only on their academic results but also on prior connections abroad, and a range of overlapping factors such as parental wealth and social class, it was concluded that socially powerful groups “see international mobility as a way of strategizing to enhance the educational capital of their young people” (p. 177). Wako (2014), who investigated the motivations of two Korean students studying Japanese and one Japanese student studying Korean, also found that the main motivations for studying abroad included not only studying a foreign language but also realizing a good career path and promoting the personal growth. Hoshino (2016) pointed out the tendency of Japanese students not choosing Southeast Asian countries as their destination for study abroad because they did not perceive any benefits from studying there.

Although there are several studies on Japanese students’ development during their studies abroad, most of them focus on language learning or language proficiency (Taguchi, 2008, 2011; Tanaka, 2007; Sasaki, 2011). Therefore, it is desirable to investigate Japanese students’ attitudes toward studying abroad and toward intercultural communication in order to help them cope with an increasingly globalized world. Even a short-term study abroad program helps students improve their oral or pragmatic skills in English and gain benefits in the future (e.g., career, educational capital, human growth). Intercultural experiences, like studies abroad, have diverse effects; they can develop both linguistic and intercultural skills and sometimes bring about a change in students’ cultural identities. Soria and Troisi (2013) showed that on-campus co-curricular experiences were beneficial for students because these comprehensive experiences offer students an opportunity to gain knowledge about other cultures in engaging ways and that the factor of “intercultural competency” induced qualities such as the “ability to appreciate, tolerate, and understand racial and ethnic diversity,” and “to appreciate cultural and global diversity” (pp. 267-268). Some students lack opportunities to go abroad because of challenges such as costs, transferring credits, and delay in graduation (Aichi University International Exchange Center, 2015, Soria and Troisi, 2013, p. 263). However, teachers and educators should find ways to help such students develop their intercultural competencies and enhance their intercultural sensitivity through on-campus global/international activities, such as considering global themes in class, exchanging opinions with foreign students, discussing causes of intercultural conflicts in a local area and so on.

4. Objectives

As discussed earlier, there are limited studies on Japanese students’ attitudes toward studying abroad. Most of them focus on the relationship between foreign language

proficiency and studying abroad, and rarely address students' attitudes toward study abroad or intercultural communication. This study tries to ascertain the relationship between Japanese students' attitudes toward studying abroad, learning foreign languages, understanding other cultures, and intercultural communication. In order to find it, the first aim of this study is to focus on their attitude toward studying abroad and learning foreign languages. However, since not all Japanese students go abroad for study, it is important to investigate the determinative factors that enable students to hope to study abroad. In addition, students who remain in Japan also need to acquire some degree of intercultural competence to interact with foreigners who come to Japan for study or other purposes. The second aim of this study is to consider the attitude that will help Japanese students build positive relationships with people from different cultures.

The research questions are as follows.

1. What kinds of attitudes do students need to develop toward going abroad and studying foreign languages?
2. What kinds of attitudes do students need to develop to interact with people from different cultures and acquire intercultural communicative competence, even if they do not go abroad?

5. Procedures

5.1 Participants

This survey was conducted among a sample population of engineering students at a local private college in central Japan, toward the end of the 2011 academic year. Several small and medium-sized companies are situated around the college, in an area called Mikawa, which is famous in Japan for the density of manufacturing companies located there. The department of technology is the only department in the college and it offers three major programs of study. The students involved in this study (N = 379) majored in robotics, mechanical systems, and information technology, and only a few were females and majority were male. Many were not fluent in English and were not keen on going abroad. Their characteristics are discussed in detail in a later section.

5.2 Questionnaire

There were 30 items listed in the questionnaire, two of which asked about students' grades and majors, on a nominal scale. The remaining 28 items gathered information on students' attitudes toward studying abroad, learning foreign languages, future possibilities of using foreign languages, attitudes toward other cultures and foreign residents, their Japanese identity, and so on. Some of the items were constructed using the author's previous research into Japanese attitudes toward foreigners and different cultures (Adachi, 2006, 2008), some items relating to study abroad were developed

based on Daly's (2011) work, and the remaining items were developed specifically for this study. Each item was rated on a six-point Likert scale, using a range from strongly disagree (0), to strongly agree (+5), except for the above-mentioned two on a nominal scale and the question on English test scores. Participants responded by selecting one of the six options.

Questions related to study abroad

These questions considered the extent to which students would have liked to study abroad, based on destinations and durations. Destinations were the U.S., China, and Korea, and the durations were for a short period (approximately ten days to one month), or for a long period (approximately six months to one year). The U.S. and China were the two countries most preferred by Japanese students for study abroad; Korea was also preferred because the college has a sister relationship with a private college in Korea, and several students traveled there every summer. The students were asked to select from responses such as the following: "I would like to study in the United States for approximately ten days to a month, if there is an exchange program" or "I would like to study in China for approximately six months to a year, if there is a subsidy system for recovering half the cost." This section consisted of eight items: "study in United States (short)," "study in Korea (short)," "study in China (short)," "study in the United States (long)," "study in Korea (long)," "study in China (long)," "subsidy for a short time," and "subsidy for a long time."

Items related to attitudes toward intercultural communication

These questions referred to the extent to which students considered other cultures or people were interesting or important. The "interest in other cultures" question asked whether participants had an interest in the news and lifestyles of other cultures. The "make friends" question probed whether they wanted to actively make friends with, and get to know, foreigners. The "learn other cultures" question asked whether they wanted to learn about the lifestyles and customs of people from other cultures. The "feel familiarity" question asked whether they felt comfortable with foreign people whom they had met before. The "homestay foreign friends" question asked whether they would like to accept foreign students as homestays.

Items related to learning foreign languages

This section referred to students' attitudes toward learning foreign languages, their level of interest in learning English and two specific Asian languages (motivation toward learning foreign languages), and to what extent they expected to use these foreign languages or whether they planned to go abroad in the future (future possibilities for using foreign languages). It included a "test scores" section (divided into six stages based on the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) scoring): "learn

English,” “learn Korean,” “learn Mandarin,” “future English,” “future Mandarin,” and “future travel abroad.”

Items related to familiarity with foreign residents

This section asked Japanese students on their friendliness toward foreign residents (students’ positive attitudes toward foreign residents). It included “be friends with Chinese,” “be friends with Koreans,” and “be friends with Brazilians.”

Items related to attitudes toward heterogeneity

This section examined students’ acceptance levels toward people different from themselves or belonging to other cultures. The “foreign visitors” question asked whether they preferred to continue accepting foreign visitors in a globalized society. The “boundary” question asked whether they feared the loss of Japanese culture and language, and if yes, to what extent, because of the increasing number of foreigners. The question on “ethnocentrism” asked them about their views on Japanese culture, and whether they felt the need to learn about other cultures. The question on “identity” asked them to what extent they considered themselves as Japanese. The final question on “intolerance” asked them to what extent they avoided people with different thoughts or opinions.

5.3 Data Collection and Analyses

With the cooperation of the students’ professors and/or instructors, all the completed questionnaires were collected during classes. After the responses were converted into numerical data, they were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24.0 and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) version 4.0, an added statistical software SPSS module. As a first step, the author evaluated all items using descriptive analysis to verify each item of distribution. Four items showing (or almost showing) floor effects were excluded (three study abroad items for a long period and a TOEIC score). Since all the omitted items indicated very low values, most of the students in this study did not appear to want to stay abroad for a long time and had very low levels of English fluency (TOEIC score less than 250–400). The average values for each item were study in the United States (long) = 1.9, study in China (long) = 1.0, study in Korea (long) = 1.0, and English level = 0.9.

A factor analysis using promax rotation¹ was then conducted on the Japanese engineering students’ attitudes toward studying abroad, foreign languages, and other attitudes related to intercultural competences. During the factor analysis, one item (intolerance) was omitted, because of its low communality. As a result, five factors were extracted from the 23 items, and the results appear as seen in Table 1.

Table 1.

Factor analysis of students' attitudes and other items with promax rotation:
Pattern matrix, eigenvalue, and Factor correlation matrix

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	
Foreign friends	.859	-.086	.103	-.029	.036	
Learn other cultur	.847	-.116	.174	-.027	.085	
Interest in culture	.731	-.184	.053	.115	.078	
Study in US(s)	.668	.301	-.183	.003	-.074	Intercultural communicative attitudes ($\alpha=.91$)
Subsidy for short	.662	.393	-.131	-.047	-.095	
Subsidy for long	.620	.352	-.139	-.005	-.115	
Learn English	.613	.093	.000	.149	-.001	
Feel familiarity	.570	-.104	.218	-.110	.197	
Homestay	.478	.243	.058	-.045	.051	
Study in Korea(s)	.004	.873	.029	-.042	-.004	Learning Asian languages ($\alpha=.89$)
Study in China(s)	.078	.782	-.022	-.017	.012	
Learn Korean	-.070	.717	.241	.017	.046	
Learn Mandarin	-.061	.654	.221	.134	.105	
Be friends C	.008	.122	.879	-.013	-.068	Foreign residents ($\alpha=.89$)
Be friends K	-.069	.171	.851	-.038	.007	
Be friends B	.159	-.010	.743	.000	-.050	
Foreign visitors	.274	-.102	.490	.082	-.133	
Future Eng	.131	-.150	-.050	.867	-.047	International future ($\alpha=.84$)
Future Mand	-.156	.151	.054	.791	.071	
Future Abroad	.061	.047	-.018	.736	.000	
Ethnocentrism	-.042	.106	-.144	-.027	.611	Conservative attributes ($\alpha=.53$)
Boundary	.162	.080	-.128	.015	.514	
Identity	.114	-.072	.046	.040	.459	
	Factor 1	.594	.456	.500	-.099	
	Factor 2		.445	.397	-.194	
	Factor 3			.446	-.006	
	Factor 4				-.064	

Note. (s) = for short period. "Be friends C" stands for "Be friends with Chinese," "Be friends K" stands for "Be friends with Koreans," and "Be friends B" stands for "Be friends with Brazilians."

Next, the values of items belonging to each subscale were totaled, and Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients of the five subscales were also calculated, as shown in Table 1. The results of these subscales were considered to have high reliability, except for the "conservative attribute," which contained a few items. Construction of a model was attempted using AMOS considering the relationship and the nature of the subscales.

6. Results

Each of the five factors that resulted from the analysis are labeled as follows: Factor 1 included nine items related to interest in other cultures and study abroad, such as foreign friends, learning about other cultures, interest in other cultures, and study in the U.S. (short). Therefore, it was labeled, “Intercultural communicative attitudes.” Factor 2 was constructed with four items concerning studying in two specific Asian countries, and learning two Asian languages; so, it was labeled “Learning Asian languages.” Factor 3 comprised four items concerning familiarity with foreign residents in Japan and was labeled “Foreign residents.” Factor 4 included three items about future possibilities for using foreign languages, and it was labeled “International future.” Factor 5 included three attitudinal items with regard to preserving Japanese culture or rejecting different cultures, and it was labeled “Conservative attributes.”

Among these factors, “intercultural communicative attitudes” included the most items, and generally represented positive attitudes toward other cultures and studying abroad; therefore, it was considered similar to intercultural communicative competence.” The reason why it was called as “intercultural communicative attitudes” is that it is not a competence, rather “willingness to communicate with outsiders” (Adachi, 2009) and includes positive attitudes toward different people. With regard to learning foreign languages, students’ attitudes toward studying in the U.S. and studying in two Asian countries were separated into two factors, which meant there were some differences between the two learning attitudes. While the factor “foreign residents” represents students’ positive attitudes toward foreigners, “conservative attributes” represent feelings of fear toward people who are from different cultures.

Path Analysis was applied to confirm the relationships among students’ attitudes, and the final model appears as seen in Figure 3. The summary of fit statistics for the model is as follows: CMIN/DF2 = 1.096, $p = 0.357$, CFI (Comparative Fit Index) = .999, NFI (Normal Fit Index) = .991, RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) = .016. The goodness of fit indices³ of the model indicate a good fit with the data, including RMSEA. Although the model is presented as a case study of college students’ attitudes toward studying abroad, it provides useful suggestions for examining a global mindset among Japanese college students.

First, the subscale “intercultural communicative attitudes,” which included items such as foreign friends, Learn other cultures, Interest in cultures, and Study in US, was directly affected by “learning Asian languages.” It shows that students with positive attitudes toward languages of neighboring countries tended to have positive attitudes toward vastly different cultures and people. In addition, “foreign residents” had some

impact on both “learning Asian languages” and “intercultural communicative attitudes.” It reflects that students’ attitudes toward foreign residents had an important role in nurturing positive attitudes toward neighboring countries’ languages and English, and developing a high interest in other cultures and studying abroad.

Next, since “intercultural communicative attitudes” and “foreign residents” also influenced “international future,” students who thought positively of other cultures or other people tended to be sensitive to future possibilities for using foreign languages. On the contrary, “conservative attributes” had some negative effect on “foreign residents.” In fact, when the author checked the detailed relationships between the items under the two subscales, the results of the Pearson Correlation showed that “ethnocentrism” significantly influenced the three items under “foreign residents.” This indicated that students who had an ethnocentric view turned out to have negative attitudes toward foreign people in Japan.

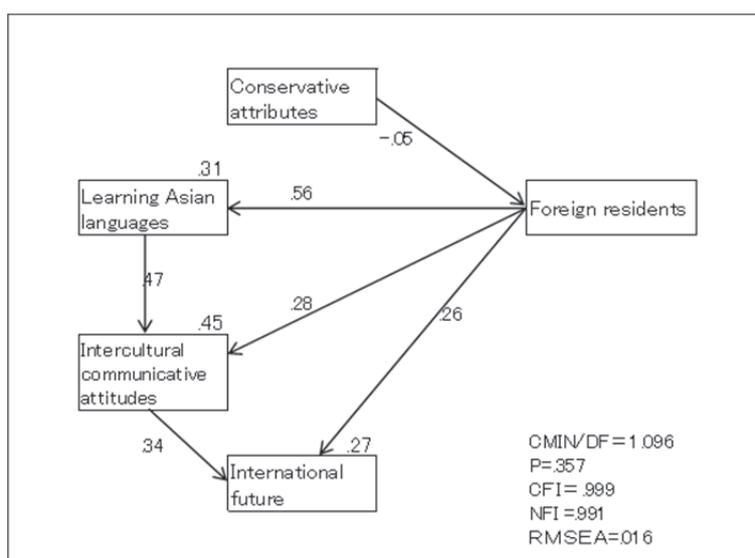


Figure 3. The result of the relationship among Japanese students’ attitudes toward studying abroad, foreign languages, foreign residents, and other intercultural attitudes.

7. Discussion

1. What kinds of attitudes do students need to develop toward going abroad and studying foreign languages?

One of the aims of this study was to find the relationship between Japanese students’ attitudes toward studying abroad and learning foreign languages. The findings of Path Analysis showed that “foreign residents” had an effect on “learning Asian languages” and “intercultural communicative attitudes.” When students had a positive attitude

toward foreign residents living in Japan, they tended to have a positive attitude toward learning foreign languages (including Asian languages), studying abroad.

The result of factor analysis also showed that students' attitudes toward studying in the U.S. were different from their attitudes toward studying in China or Korea, since they were divided into two different factors. The average scores of the two Asian language items, "learn Korean" ($M = 1.31$) and "learn Mandarin" ($M = 1.37$), were lower than "learn English" ($M = 2.15$). Although the two subscales, "learning Asian languages" and "intercultural communicative attitudes" are interrelated, they do not seem to share the same traits. This implies that some students who hope to study in the U.S. did not want to study in Asian countries, nor did they want to study the two Asian languages as foreign languages.

Why could students who have positive attitudes toward foreign residents develop intercultural communicative attitudes? It demonstrates that the students who believe they need to have good relationships with foreign residents in Japan tend to have interests in foreign languages, studying abroad, and other cultures. Conversely, if students cannot have a positive attitude toward people from different cultures, they are not able to adapt themselves well to other cultures. Here, "other cultures" means not only Western cultures, but also Asian cultures or different domestic cultures. It is likely that having a general interest in different people would lead to having a positive attitude toward other languages and cultures. Students will need to develop positive attitudes toward not only learning English but also learning other foreign languages and nurture students' interest in other cultures.

2. What kinds of attitudes do students need to develop to interact well with people from different cultures and to acquire an intercultural communicative competence, even if they do not go abroad?

The factor, "intercultural communicative attitudes," included the items "Foreign friends, Learn other cultures, Interests in cultures, and so on" and as these items represent an open attitude toward other people, this factor would form the foundation of intercultural communicative competence. As previously mentioned, the result of Path Analysis showed that this factor was influenced by "learning Asian languages" and interacting with "foreign residents." Therefore, interest in Asian languages and an open attitude toward foreign residents could be important constituent elements of developing intercultural communicative competence. In addition, "intercultural communicative attitudes" influenced "international future," which illustrates that students with intercultural communicative attitudes acknowledge the importance of foreign languages, and they are future-oriented.

Moreover, as “conservative attributes” negatively influenced “foreign residents” in the model, students with conservative attitudes tended to have negative attitudes toward foreign residents. The item of “ethnocentrism,” which was the main component of “conservative attributes,” is an attitude that considers one’s own ethnic group or culture as superior to that of another. This self-centered attitude might be a drawback to developing a global mindset. Likewise, a distorted view of a specific language and culture is not compatible with a global mindset. However, most foreign students and visitors come to Japan from Asian countries (JASSO, 2016, JNTO, 2015), and it is expected that young people will have more contact with people from Southeast Asian countries (Hoshino, 2016, Adachi & Sakai, 2016). It suggests that students need to develop more familiarity with people from Asian countries.

Foreign language education in Japanese universities now favors Western European languages (Kobayashi, 2013). However, Adachi and Sakai (2016), who surveyed more than 600 small and medium-sized manufacturing companies in Japan, described that the companies have more business contacts with Asian countries than with the U.S. or European countries, plan to expand more business relationships with Southeast Asian countries, and that comprehensive intercultural communicative competence is an essential trait for future employees. According to Hoshino (2016), since Japanese students do not understand the advantages of using English in and acquiring familiarity with Southeast Asian countries, they tend to have a high level of interest in studying only in Western countries. On the contrary, as mentioned in the section 2.2, Soria and Troisi (2014) included an appreciation of “diversity” in the GII competencies and implied that many universities have come to recognize GII competencies (p. 262). Nowadays, not only English proficiency, but also the attitudes and the skills needed to live with people from diverse cultural backgrounds is needed to eliminate ethnocentrism. These attitudes and skills will become increasingly important for students even if they do not go abroad.

8. Conclusion

This study suggested that students need to develop a positive attitude toward foreign residents in Japan in order to have a positive attitude toward learning foreign languages and studying abroad. Considering the situation on the ground, Japanese students will increasingly have more contact with people from other Asian countries and they arguably need to expand their perspectives regarding respecting other cultures; teachers should encourage them to have more intercultural contacts through some activities in or out of the classroom. Students also need to acquire intercultural communication competence, which will be necessary whether they go abroad or remain in their home country.

It is equally important, even for the students who do not plan to go abroad, to nurture desirable attitudes for dealing with people from different cultures and to cultivate a global mindset. Kim and Goldstein (2014) also indicated that favorable expectations about study abroad were best predicted by the level of interest in language learning, followed by low levels of ethnocentrism and intercultural communication apprehension; they suggested that interest in international study programs may be facilitated in part by interventions addressing intergroup attitudes. Nurturing a positive attitude toward interacting with people from different cultures would help to some degree (Soria and Troisi, 2013). The author concludes that scholars and practitioners should not only emphasize the importance of developing English language proficiency although this is the main component of the Japanese government's education policies. We would need to introduce more student-centered teaching styles to adjust students to a global environment.

The study also suggested that students with positive attitudes toward other cultures, or foreigners, tend to be sensitive to future international situations. Acquiring some intercultural experiences will provide them with the opportunity to adapt their identity to suit the globalized world. In addition, intercultural communicative competence and interest in multiple cultures and languages would also be required of all students, since the future includes intercultural contacts with people from other Asian countries even within Japan. The Japanese government should emphasize not only gaining English proficiency for students but also acquiring knowledge about different cultures and raising awareness about importance of intercultural communication even if they do not plan to study abroad.

9. Limitations and Implications

This study has some limitations as well. First, since the participants were from one private college, the results cannot be generalized to all Japanese students. However, the author's previous study (Adachi, 2002) of high school students showed that differences in learning attitudes were influenced by the foreign language being considered and by the interests of different people depending on the foreign country being considered. Another study on faculty members in a university (Adachi, 2013) showed that there were differences between their learning attitudes toward English and other foreign languages and that their familiarity with foreign residents depended on which country the residents came from. Second, the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of factor 5 was low and further detailed investigations and examinations will be needed to clarify the constituent elements validate the subscale. Last, in this study the destinations of study abroad were limited to only three countries and again it will be necessary to confirm the

result with other countries.

However, this study may offer some useful ideas on how to cultivate students' global mindsets. Although this study investigated students at only one local private college and further investigation is necessary to expand this research, it did shed some light on study-abroad research by focusing on Japanese students who need to acquire intercultural competence in the future, even though they hardly ever communicate in English in their daily lives. Teachers need to explain to students the reasons to prepare for an increasingly globalized world. The more globalized Japanese society becomes, the more the Japanese people will need to develop intercultural communicative competence and nurture positive attitudes toward foreigners. Students will in the future interact with foreign residents both inside and outside Japan. However, it may be more important for them to understand different cultures, respect cultural diversity, and learn to coexist with people from different cultures and languages rather than merely develop English proficiency. The author is conducting another study on other students about their attitudes toward studying abroad, learning foreign languages, learning about other cultures and so on, and examining whether similar results could be found. It would be expected for researchers to identify the attitudes and traits of the future students who will live in a more globalized world.

Notes

1. In a promax rotation, the factors are permitted to be correlated with one another.
2. The minimum discrepancy between observation and hypothesis (known as χ^2 (chi-square) divided by its degrees of freedom.
3. Concerning these Fit Indices for Structural Equation Modeling in further detail, see the following link. <http://www.sicotests.com/psyarticle.asp?id=277>

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【Research Note】

**The Effect of Corrective Feedback on English Writing:
A Comparison of Different Types of Focus ⁽¹⁾**

Mitsuru Kato

Abstract

This study investigated the effect of different types of focused written corrective feedback (WCF) on the acquisition of English articles by Japanese learners of English. Forty-one freshmen at a private university in Tokyo, Japan participated in this study and were divided into three groups: (1) a group in which indirect WCF is given to article errors; (2) a group in which indirect WCF is given to article errors and noun errors; and (3) a group in which no WCF is given. Mixed two-way analysis of variance revealed a significant increase in the grammaticality judgment test scores over time in treatment groups 1 and 2. However, a comparison of the scores between the three groups in the post-test showed a significant difference and a large effect size only between group 2 and group 3. This seems to be because the associated grammatical elements, namely articles and nouns, have been concomitantly acquired with each other. The results obtained in this study suggest that WCF on articles as well as associated nouns had a greater effect than conventional WCF, which is only given to articles.

Keywords

English writing, corrective feedback, focus, articles

1. Introduction

It is difficult to learn a language other than one's mother tongue. In the field of language education, teachers routinely encounter scenarios in which learners make errors, and they try to help learners improve their English through instruction techniques, such as error correction. However, there is a problem in terms of what errors should be corrected and when and how they should be corrected. A number of previous studies on written corrective feedback (WCF) have selected articles as the target of error correction. Articles are one of the most difficult parts of speech for Japanese learners of English because there is no grammatical equivalent in Japanese. Moreover, there is a wide variety of meaning and usage in articles, and sufficient instruction on articles in English education has not been provided in Japan. Ishida (2007) stated that article errors should be considered to be local errors, and appropriate instruction has not been carried out in English education in Japan.

Discussion about how errors should be corrected has addressed the question of directness of the instructional approach that is used, that is, whether or not the correct language form is given. Many studies have reported that direct WCF, in which the correct language form is given, is more effective than indirect WCF, in which the correct language form is not given. Less instruction time is required for indirect WCF in comparison to direct WCF (Chandler, 2003). A study conducted by the Benesse Educational Research & Development Institute (2015) reported on the troubles faced by junior high and high school English teachers in Japan. According to the report, more than 70% of teachers responded that they do not have enough time for lesson preparation and that they feel burdened by school-related tasks. Ferris (1999) pointed out that providing feedback to students is the most time-consuming aspect of teachers' work, and "it is reasonable to ask whether grammatical correction is effective and appropriate at all, and if so, what the best ways are to approach it" (p.1).

This present study investigated what WCF method is most effective for giving feedback to Japanese learners of English, especially for correcting articles indirectly. In order to properly use articles, it is essential to understand nouns. Thus, in this study, WCF was given to article errors as well as associated noun errors to examine the possibility of promoting the acquisition of articles synergistically. In addition, in order to present an effective methodology for English teachers, this study aimed to examine the effect of indirect WCF, which helps decrease the burden felt by teachers.

2. Issues Addressed in Studies on WCF

2.1. The Effectiveness of WCF

Ever since Truscott (1996) asserted that WCF is harmful, its effectiveness has provoked a great deal of controversy. He concluded that WCF is ineffective unless English teachers have a high level of knowledge about developmental sequences and they carefully monitor each individual student. Ferris (1999) was one of the researchers that refuted Truscott's argument; she stated that error correction can and does help some students if it is selective, prioritized, and clear.

Xu (2009) was also skeptical about the effectiveness of WCF, and pointed out that an increase in test scores over a period of time does not mean correct use of the specific functions of articles. In contrast, Bitchener (2009) noted that WCF is a tool for activating existing knowledge rather than a mechanism for introducing new knowledge. In Bitchener's study and in previous studies, the difference between a treatment group and a control group is whether or not the students receive WCF. Therefore, one may conclude that the improvement of accuracy in the treatment group is due to the benefits of WCF.

According to Ellis (2006, 2010), the term *acquisition* can have different meanings. Ellis (2006) presented three definitions: (1) the acquisition of an entirely new linguistic feature; (2) an increase in the accuracy with which partially acquired features are used; and (3) progress along a sequence of stages that characterize the acquisition of grammatical features, such as past tense or question formation. Ellis (2010) noted that studies on WCF have focused exclusively on the second definition. Hence, in this present study, acquisition is defined as an increase in the accuracy with which partially acquired features are used (Ellis, 2010).

2.2. The Focus of WCF

The question of focus, that is, whether WCF is given only to a specific grammatical element, is also the subject of scholarly discussion. Shintani et al. (2014) compared the effects of WCF given to a hypothetical conditional and the indefinite article. They divided 214 Japanese learners of English into five groups: (1) a group which received metalinguistic explanation; (2) a group which received direct corrective feedback; (3) a group which received metalinguistic explanation with revision; (4) a group which received direct corrective feedback with revision; and (5) a comparison group. The results showed that both types of feedback led to increased accuracy for the hypothetical conditional, but not for the indefinite article over a period of time. Based on the findings, it appears that learners pay more attention to the structure that contributes to the meaning of the text. Thus, from the viewpoint of learners' selective attention on the type of WCF that is given, focus is very important.

In Shirahata's (2015) study, 10 first-year university students, whose average Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) score was 450, participated. He corrected all of the errors in the English writing assignments that the participants completed every week, and he made them revise their work. Consequently, the number of errors did not decrease and it thus turned out that correcting errors in learners' assignments for 10 weeks had no effect on their writing skills. Shirahata (2015) concluded that error correction had no effect commensurate with effort, and it should therefore be discouraged.

A number of studies have investigated the effect of focus and have supported its effectiveness. Since Ferris (1999) cited article errors as one grammatical concern that is treatable, article errors have been viewed as a target of correction. Although it is not easy for Japanese learners of English to learn articles, Suzuki (2014) noted that it is an important learning task for them; thus, focused feedback is an effective way to teach learners about articles.

2.3. The Directness of WCF

Previous studies have repeatedly discussed whether or not direct WCF is more effective than indirect WCF. Bitchener and Knoch (2010) placed 63 advanced second-language (L2) learners at a university in the United States (US) into four groups: (1) a group in which written metalinguistic explanation was given; (2) a group in which indirect underlining of errors; (3) a group in which written meta-linguistic feedback and oral form-focused instruction; and (4) no feedback group. After the authors compared the effects of the four types of WCF given to article errors, they found significant differences in the immediate post-test scores between the three feedback treatment groups on one hand and the no feedback group on the other hand; whereas significant differences in the 10-month-delayed post-test results were found between the two direct treatment groups on one hand and the no feedback group on the other hand.

Van Beuningen et al. (2008) studied 62 high school students learning Dutch as a second language to investigate the effects of four types of WCF: (1) direct WCF, (2) indirect underlined WCF; (3) practice writing; and (4) self-correction. The practice writing and self-correction groups were treated as the control groups because they did not receive any type of WCF. Similar to the findings reported by Bitchener and Knoch (2010), Van Beuningen et al. (2008) found significant differences in the immediate post-test results between the two treatment groups and the two control groups; however, significant differences in the two-week-delayed post-test results were found only between the direct WCF group and the two control groups.

Hosseiny (2014) focused on the correction of article errors and compared the effects of three groups: (1) a group which received direct WCF was given; (2) a group which received indirect underlined WCF; and (3) a group which received no WCF. Sixty pre-intermediate female students in an Iranian institution in Ardabil participated in this research study. Significant differences were found between the two treatment groups on one hand and the control group on the other hand. In addition, a marginal difference was found between the two treatment groups: the indirect WCF group outperformed the direct WCF group. According to Hosseiny (2014), this is because “indirect feedback always encourages the learner to take part in the process of repair, which puts him or her in the appropriate framework to at least acknowledge the suggested solution and, therefore, to notice it” (p. 672).

Scholars have argued that direct WCF is more effective than indirect WCF. Bitchener and Ferris (2012) cited three studies (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Van Beuningen et al., 2008, 2012) and concluded that there is no difference between the two types of WCF in the short-term. In contrast, according to these same studies, direct WCF is more effective in the long-term. Suzuki (2015) noted that the different types of WCF are

associated respectively with different views that teachers have on language acquisition: direct and indirect WCF are associated respectively with a view that attaches importance to input and one that attaches importance to output. In particular, he explained the latter as follows: teachers may be able to encourage learners to produce output by having them consider and modify their errors on their own instead of giving them the correct form. However, he also mentioned that although there is a consensus on the effect of input for language acquisition, there is disagreement on the effect of output; thus, direct WCF is often labeled as a more effective method than indirect WCF. Nevertheless, Kang and Han (2015) conducted a meta-analysis of the efficacy of WCF and reported that while the effect size for direct WCF ($g = .598$) was larger than it was for indirect WCF ($g = .361$), no significant differences were found between the two types of feedback ($Q^b = 1.58$)

Chandler (2003) mentioned that one feature of indirect WCF is that it requires less time for instruction in comparison to direct WCF. To summarize the studies mentioned above, it should be noted that it is important to identify a way to make better use of each type of WCF rather than to finalize the discussion on which technique is more effective.

2.4. Summary and Purpose

Thus far, previous research on WCF has been reviewed. In addition to a discussion about the effectiveness of WCF, it is also important to discuss the type of WCF that is most effective. In accordance with the previous discussion, the present study investigated the most effective way to provide WCF to Japanese learners of English, with special reference to cases in which article errors are corrected indirectly.

It has been noted that it is necessary for Japanese learners of English to receive instruction in articles (cf. Ishida, 2007). Additionally, this present study focused on articles and nouns because it is essential to understand nouns in order to use articles properly. Shirahata (2015) noted that language (grammar) learning and related grammatical items should be acquired concomitantly rather than only by focusing on one element. Following this viewpoint, the present study investigated the effect of WCF given to article errors and the effect of WCF given to article errors and noun errors. Considering the possibility of concomitant acquisition may provide a view that is different from what has been presented in previous studies.

As mentioned in Section 2.3., a number of research studies have argued for the efficacy of direct WCF; however, Kang and Han's (2015) meta-analysis reported no significant difference between direct WCF and indirect WCF. However, indirect WCF requires less instructional time so it has a practical advantage over direct WCF in that it reduces the burden on busy teachers. The present study investigated the effect of indirect WCF

based on the background presented above. It aims to identify the most effective teaching method that requires the least amount of effort; it also seeks to provide teachers with suggestions on the most effective way to give WCF.

3. Methodology

3.1. Purpose

This study aimed to investigate whether different indirect WCF options have a differential effect on article acquisition: (a) providing indirect WCF on articles, (b) providing indirect WCF on both articles and nouns, and (c) providing no WCF.

3.2. Participants

First-year students attending a private university in Tokyo, Japan participated in this study. Students whose first language is not Japanese and those who have been abroad for one year or more were excluded from participating. Power analysis was carried out in advance to calculate the sample size of the present study using G Power Ver.3.1 (Mizumoto, 2014). Simultaneously, the following conditions were set under mixed two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA): significance level ($\alpha = .05$), statistical power ($\beta = .2$), and effect size ($F > .4$). Consequently, a total of 39 students were needed, statistically. Additional two students participated, and finally 41 students participated in this study.

3.3. Materials

3.3.1. Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT). The GJT questions used in this present study were those cited in Cho and Kawase (2011), Ishii (2001), Master (1994), Sheen (2007), Shintani and Ellis (2013), and Turton and Heaton (1996) (see Appendix 1). The GJT was conducted online, without time limitations. Each question contained two related sentences, and the pre-GJT and post-GJT each contained 25 questions. Seventeen of the 25 questions were about article errors, and the rest were distractors. Either sentence in each question had an error that was underlined. The questions were shown in random order, and the participants were required to identify and correct the error in the underlined portion of the sentence. To consider counter-balance, two different test patterns, test A and test B, were prepared. Words used in more than four English textbooks for junior high school in 2012 or words contained in the below level 3 vocabulary list of the Japan Association of College English Teachers (JACET) 8000 word list (Aizawa, Ishikawa, & Murata, 2005) were used in the GJT to control for the difficulty of the vocabulary. The GJT was proofread by three native speakers of English, and only questions that two or three of them judged not to be a problem were used. Target-like use (Pica, 1983) was adopted as the GJT scoring method.

3.3.2. Picture Description Task (PDT). Tasks, such as four-panel comics, were prepared as a PDT based on Muranoi (2000) (see Appendix 2). The pre-PDT and post-PDT each contained three tasks and each of the tasks included 4 pictures. The participants were required to describe each picture, that is, a total of 12 pictures were included in each PDT. Two different types of tasks were prepared and the questions were shown in random order as they were in the GJT. In addition, the PDTs were treated as targets of the WCF. Among the studies on WCF, PDTs were generally used to measure implicit knowledge. However, studies, such as those conducted by Adams (2003) and Sachs and Polio (2007), investigated the effects of WCF given to the participants' PDT products. Hence, in the present study, WCF was given to the PDT products. Moreover, in this study, the language form was considered to be more important than the content of what was written. Thus, WCF was not given to content errors.

3.4. Procedure

This study was conducted over the course of five weeks. In week 1, participants took the pre-GJT and engaged in the pre-PDT on CreativeSurvey.com, a website that offers user services, such as questionnaires. The participants were then divided into three groups based on their pre-GJT score to make sure that there were no significant differences between the groups. In week 2 and week 3, the participants' pre-PDT products were returned to them. At that time, the type of WCF given to each group differed depending on the groups (see Table 1). The products were returned with WCF when the participants belonged to the group in which WCF was given only to article errors (G1) and the group in which WCF was given to both article and noun errors (G2). The products were returned without WCF when the participants were in the group in which no WCF was given (G3). In week 5, the participants took the post-GJT and engaged in the post-PDT. Two different patterns of tests and tasks were prepared, as mentioned above, to take counter-balance into account. Participants took test B in week 1 and test A in week 5.

Table 1. Characteristics of the WCF given to each group

Group	Characteristics of the WCF
G1	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Underline articles when articles were replaced or overused.• Enter ∇ where articles were missing.
G2	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Underline articles and nouns when articles or nouns were replaced or overused.• Enter ∇ where articles or nouns were missing.
G3	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• No WCF was given.

3.5. Analysis

The GJT scores were analyzed using two-way mixed ANOVA (three groups x 2 times) to investigate the extent to which different types of WCF help learners acquire the use of articles. The groups were levels of three *between-subject* factors, and the times were levels of two *within-subject* factors. IBM SPSS Statistics Premium Grad Pack Ver. 24 software and the sheet containing the effect size calculation (Mizumoto, 2009) were used to analyze the data.

4. Results

The means and standard deviations for each of the three groups by times are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics for the mean test scores by group and time

	Pre-GJT		Post-GJT	
	M	SD	M	SD
G1 (<i>n</i> = 13)	9.615	1.805	12.615	2.103
G2 (<i>n</i> = 14)	9.929	1.817	14.214	3.265
G3 (<i>n</i> = 14)	10.143	2.033	10.643	3.365

The mean score of the pre-GJT for each of the groups were similar, but the mean scores of the post-GJT increased in each group. While the mean scores increased over time in each group, the degree of the increase differed depending on the group. To clarify whether these differences were statistically significant, two-way mixed ANOVA was performed. The results were as follows: Groups: $F(2, 38) = 1.933, p = .159, \eta^2 = .06$; Times: $F(1, 38) = 62.253, p < .001, \eta^2 = .20$; and Group x Times interaction: $F(2, 38) = 11.691, p < .001, \eta^2 = .07$. A significant difference was found in the main effect of time factors and in the interaction, but not in the main effect of the group factors. The results are shown in Table 3. Because the result of the interaction was significant, a simple main effect test for each factor was carried out. The results of the simple main effect test for group factors were as follows: Pre-GJT: $F(2) = .26, p = .769$; Post-GJT: $F(2) = 5.03, p = .012$; thus, no significant difference was found between the groups for the pre-GJT; however, a significant difference was found between the groups for the post-GJT. The results of simple main effect test for time factors were as follows: G1: $F(1) = 26.41, p < .001, \Delta = 1.67$; G2: $F(1) = 58.04, p < .001, \Delta = 2.36$; G3: $F(1) = .79, p < .434, \Delta = .25$; thus, while the participants in G1 and G2 increased their scores significantly over time, the participants in G3 did not.

Because the results of the simple main effect test for the post-GJT were significant,

Bonferroni's post-hoc multiple comparison was conducted. A significant difference and a large effect size were found between G2 and G3 ($p = .009$, $d = 1.08$). Although no significant difference was found between G1 and G3 ($p = .283$, $d = .70$), a medium effect size was found. Similarly, no significant difference was found between G1 and G2 ($p = .517$, $d = .57$), but a small effect size was found. Figure 1 presents a visual representation of the mean scores over time for each group.

Table 3. The ANOVA results

Factors	SS	df	MS	F	partial η^2	η^2
Groups	39.688	2	19.844	1.933	.092	.06
Error	390.190	38	10.268			
Times	137.904	1	137.904	62.253*	.621	.20
Groups x Times	51.797	2	25.899	11.691*	.381	.07
Error	84.179	38	2.215			
Total	703.758	81				

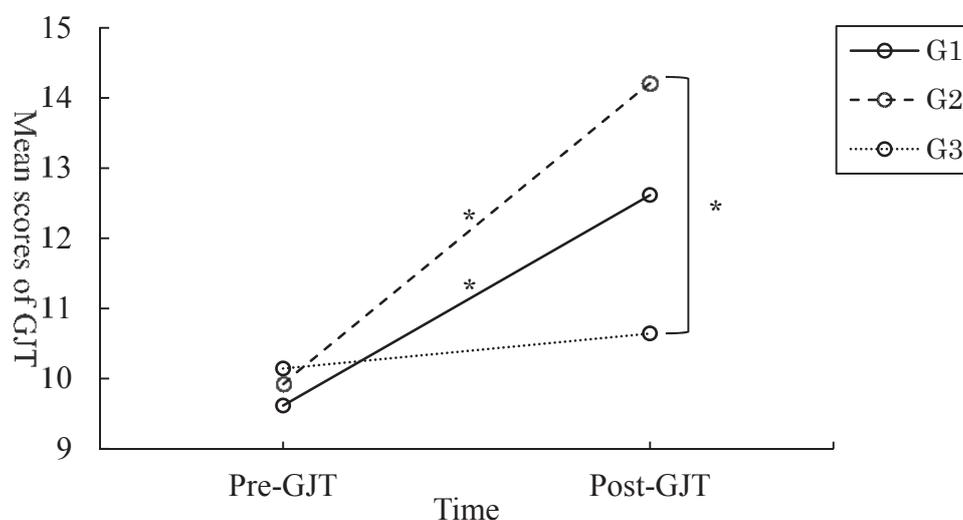


Figure 1. Mean pre-GJT and post-GJT scores over time (*: $p < .01$)

5. Discussion

The results of this study show the possibility of promoting the acquisition of articles simply using indirect WCF given to article errors (and noun errors) and noticing the gap. The participants in the two WCF treatment groups were given indirect WCF and they were simultaneously given two opportunities to produce output using the PDTs. Through the pre-PDT, the participants noticed what they could express, what they were

having trouble expressing, and what they could not express; that is, they noticed hole (Doughty & Williams, 1998). Due to indirect WCF, the participants in the treatment groups also realized that their output included errors. This made the participants focus on articles, and it increased their ability to notice the gap (Schmidt & Frota, 1986). For example, during the pre-PDT, it was frequently observed that participants made the mistake of replacing the definite article “the” with the indefinite article “a” or “an”. An example of a PDT product by a participant is shown below.

Example (1): A boy could not catch a ball.

This sentence describes a scenario presented in the third panel of Appendix 2 where a girl hit a ball and a boy was unable to catch it. It was the first time the sentence referred to the boy, so the participant could use the indefinite article, a, with the noun, boy. With respect to the noun, ball, which should have been anaphoric because it was mentioned in a previous panel, the participant failed to maintain his/her focus on the articles. These types of examples were frequently observed. The participants in the WCF treatment groups had tested their hypothesis and promoted the internalization of the correct form into metalinguistic knowledge after receiving indirect WCF during the pre-PDT. In addition, the participants could acquire articles because they had another opportunity to produce output during the post-PDT. The frequency of errors, such as the one shown in example (1), tended to decrease in the WCF treatment groups over time ⁽²⁾. It was suggested that a teaching method which tends to be effective for promoting output, such as indirect WCF, nevertheless promotes acquisition of the target grammar item as well. This is in line with the theory advanced in Swain (1995). The result also suggests the possibility that indirect WCF, in which less time is needed to correct errors, may be more efficient than direct WCF and that it might be effective for grammar instruction. Although the indirect WCF in the present study was only underlining the grammatical errors, the participants were able to notice their own errors. It is important to note that the result of this study does not mean that indirect WCF is the only effective way to correct errors because occasionally it is necessary to give explanations or provide correct language forms. For this reason, teachers should choose indirect WCF as an option based on their students’ language proficiency and attitudes toward WCF.

While a significant difference and a large effect size were found between G2 and G3 for the post-GJT, differences between G1 and G2, G1 and G3 were not significant, even though some differences in effect sizes were found. The difference in effect sizes between G1 and G2 was due to the type of WCF that was given; that is, whether or not WCF was given to article errors as well as noun errors. Research on WCF has focused on articles, not nouns. In contrast, this study investigated the effect of indirect WCF given to both article errors and noun errors, and its results showed the possibility that

focusing on articles and nouns promotes the acquisition of articles. This study found that indirect WCF was not so effective in G1 as to result in a large effect size in comparison to G3.

These findings seem to be due to concomitant grammar acquisition, as Shirahata (2015) reported. Similarly, other researchers, for example Tono (2007), noted the possibility of instruction on both articles and nouns, and this possibility was also suggested in this present study. If learners make article errors and then they receive in direct WCF on both articles and nouns, they could easily pay attention to articles and they would learn to navigate the English language article system properly.

It is also worthwhile to consider the reason why the difference between G1 and G2 was not significant. One possible reason is the effect of input enhancement. Input enhancement is defined as “the deliberate manipulation of input learners are exposed to in order to induce learning” (Ellis, 2008, p. 966). Han (2013) pointed out that negative evidence, such as corrective feedback, is one type of input enhancement and positive evidence is another. In other words, participants in both G1 and G2 were given enhanced input due to the underlined words provided by indirect WCF. Moreover, participants in G2 received more noticeable input than participants in G1 because the indirect WCF given to G2 participants targeted both articles and nouns so that the underlining of errors spanned both types of parts of speech. It should be noted that Han (2013) emphasized that the WCF effect depends on whether it is significant for participants. Namely, while some participants benefited from having the error underlined, others did not in this study. Thus, enhanced input affected some of the G2 participants, but its effect was limited to some extent. Hence, the difference between G1 and G2 was not significant.

6. Conclusion

Three limitations in the present study must be discussed. The first limitation is the number of study participants. While the sample size was calculated in advance using power analysis, it cannot be said that it was large enough. Therefore, the interpretation of the results could be limited. We also need to remember that the present study was conducted in the context of Japanese university students learning English. Before the results can be applied to other contexts, the context needs to be further investigated.

Second, the participants took the GJT and engaged in the PDT online without any time limitations. With respect to the acquisition of articles, the present study only measured explicit knowledge; it did not investigate implicit knowledge or automatization. The amount of time the participants spent on the GJT and the PDT varied; it was difficult to

estimate how long the participants spent on the present study. Further research that sets time limitations is needed in order to investigate implicit knowledge or the automatization of articles.

Finally, the long-term effect of the type of WCF used in this study was not examined due to its one-shot design. It is also necessary to consider how WCF affects the learners' writing process; thus, it seems worthwhile to study the way in which learners write their products after some twists and turns in order to understand how they process and use articles. Using software, such as a recording key log, can be one way to possibly analyze learners' thought process. Further research on this type of methodology would clarify the process for language learners.

Notes

- (1) This study was based on part of a master's thesis "The Effect of Corrective Feedback on English Writing: The Relationship between Article Errors and Acquisition by Japanese Learners", which was submitted in 2017 to the Graduate School of Intercultural Communication, Rikkyo University Graduate School in Ikebukuro, Tokyo, Japan.
- (2) The frequency of missing definite articles also tended to decrease.

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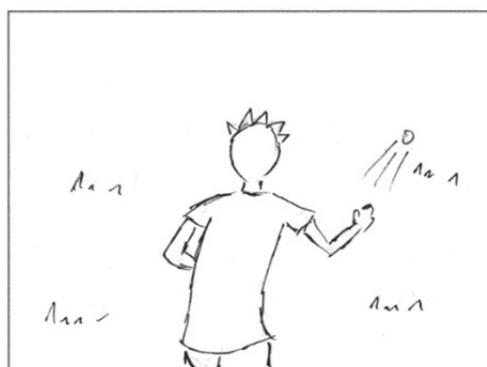
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Appendix

Appendix 1.

1	It wasn't your fault. <u>It was accident.</u>
2	It's amazing! <u>The table is made of a glass.</u>
3	Are you hungry? <u>Would you like some cookie with your coffee?</u>
4	We rented a boat last summer. <u>Unfortunately, a boat hit another boat and sank.</u>
5	<u>We went to basketball game on Saturday.</u> The players at the game were all very tall.
6	I saw an interesting result of a survey. <u>According to it, a lot of people are afraid of the death.</u>
7	" <u>How much pizzas are we going to need?</u> " "About eight large ones."
8	I took three tests yesterday. <u>Tests were so difficult.</u>
9	My mother was fired yesterday. <u>She will have to find the new job.</u>
10	Once there were many trees here. <u>Now, trees are gone.</u>

Appendix 2.



【Chronicle】

April 2016 — March 2017

Presentations by the SIG members:

Date	Title and Presenter(s) Venue	Event
June 1	Invited speech: “On Active Learning” Yoichi Kiyota. Cultural Center of Ibaraki Prefecture, Ibaraki Japan.	Lecture meeting sponsored by English Department of Ibaraki Teachers’ Research Association.
June 25	“Considering elementary school English education from the perspective in CLIL practices in Italy” Rie Adachi. Suzuka University of Medical and Science, Mie Japan	CELES The 46 th Conference in Mie
June 30 - July 2	Invited speech : “Promoting plurilingualism throughout language classrooms in East Asia” Shien Sakai. Paper: “The possibility of practicing CLIL in Japanese elementary schools: problems and expectations” Rie Adachi. The Far Eastern Federal University, Vladivostok Russia	Asia TEFL 2016
August 20 - 21	Aug. 20 “Effective teaching methods in Foreign Language Activities: Learning from CLIL practices in Italy” Rie Adachi. Aug. 21 “Elementary School CLIL Practice and Problems the teachers face – A case in Trento, Italy” Eri Osada, Kazuko Kashiwagi, Takane Yamaguchi ; “A Reflection Tool for Teachers: Prospects and Opportunities” Shien Sakai & Yoichi Kiyota; “The Development of English Learning Portfolio stressing learning process – The Case Study of Junior High School Students” Yoichi Kiyota, Hanae Matsuzu. Dokkyo University, Tokyo Japan	JASELE The 42 nd Conference in Saitama
August 26	“Teachers’ use of L1 in the classrooms: as a tool of making the classroom interaction authentic” Eri Osada. Jyväskylä Paviljonki, Jyväskylä Finland	EuroSLA26
August 30	“EFL Student Teachers’ Perspectives and Experiences of their Professional Development: The Case of Japan” Chitose Asaoka. University of Eastern Finland	4th International Symposium of New Issues in Teacher Education. Association for Teacher Education in Europe
September 1 - 3	Sept. 1 Invited speech: Life-long Learning of Languages Reconsidered” Hisatake Jimbo. Symposium: “Significance of enhancing elementary school students’ Intercultural Competence and implications for English language teaching” Natsue Nakayama, Satsuki Osaki, Rie Adachi, Fumiko Kurihara. Sept. 2 “EAP Curricula in Japanese Universities: Analysis from a Global Assessment Perspective” Shinya Hori. Hokusei Gakuen University, Hokkaido Japan	JACET International Conference
September 10	Lecture: “The Gap between Theory and Practice: EFL Student Teachers’ Experiences and Reflections” Chitose Asaoka Aoyama Gakuin University, Tokyo Japan	Lecture meeting cosponsored by Aoyama English Education Research Center & JACET Kanto Chapter

October 5	Invited speech : “Workshop: The teaching methods in Foreign Language Activities: Learning from CLIL practices in Italy” Rie Adachi. Welfare Center, Kasugai City, Aichi Japan	The 42 nd Teachers Research Meeting of Kasugai City
October 7	Lecture: “Global Citizenship Education” Christiane Lütge (Munich University). Presentation: “ Enhancing students’ intercultural communicative competence in Japan: Focusing on junior high school English textbook analysis and its implications” Natsue Nakayama. Symposium : “ Developing key skills for global citizenship through English language education” Fumiko Kurihara, C. Lütge, & Kahoko Matsumoto. Waseda University, Tokyo Japan	Lecture & symposium cosponsored by JACET SIG on English Language Education, Matsumoto kaken, Nakayama kaken & Kurihara kaken
October 22	Invited speech: "Intercultural competence in the global age - Current situation and issues in EFL classrooms" Natsue Nakayama, Fumiko Kurihara. Eiken Foundation of Japan conference room	International Education Institute 167th Monthly meeting
October 23	Paper : ” Enhancing children's intercultural competence in EFL classrooms through use of J-POSTL descriptors” Natsue Nakayama, Kagari Tsuchiya, Rika Wakamatsu. Osaki Seikei University, Osaka Japan	JASTEC The 37 th Conference In Autumn
November 2	Lecture 1: “ The Global Greenglish Project for Intercultural Exchange” Hitomi Sakamoto (Toyo Gakuen University); Lecture 2 : “ A small scale study for enhancing pre-service teachers’ awareness and skills of culturally and linguistically diverse students: Findings and lessons learned” Amany Habib (University of West Florida) Waseda University, Tokyo Japan	A Roundtable on Teaching Intercultural Competence in Practice co-sponsored by Kurihara <i>Kaken</i> & JACET SIG on English Language Education
November 4 -7	Poster: “How students’ intercultural competence (IC) can be enhanced in a foreign language classroom: A comparison of the US, the EU and Japan” Fumiko Kurihara, Amany Habib; Paper: “Global literacy in English language education” Mika Ito; Paper: “Relationships between intrinsic values and the use of cognitive strategies among Japanese college learners of English” Takane Yamaguchi, Shien Sakai. Ehime University, Ehime Japan	JUSTEC The 28 th Annual Conference
December 3	Paper: “Fostering intercultural competence through English language education” Fumiko Kurihara. Chuo University, Hachioji Japan	Lecture meeting sponsored by Institute of Cultural Science, Chuo University
December 18	Invited speech : “The possibility of practicing CLIL in Japanese elementary schools” Rie Adachi. Aichi university, Aichi Japan	JALT Toyohashi
January 28, 2017	Invited lecture: “Plurilingualism and CLIL in Japan” Shien Sakai. Fukuoka University, Fukuoka Japan	LET Kyushu Chapter Academic lecture meeting
February 24	“Promoting plurilingualism throughout language classrooms in Japan” Shien Sakai & Ken Hisamura. Bremen University, Bremen Germany	Bremen University Symposium 2017
March 5	Language Education EXPO 2017 was held at Waseda University under the auspices of the JACET SIG on English Language Education supported by seven academic societies and fourteen research project teams. Carmel Mary Coonan, professor, Università Ca’	

	Foscari Venezia, made a key-note speech, followed by fifteen symposia and workshops, and 25 presentations. The event was attended by approximately 300 participants	
March 15	Paper: “Transporting the rationales behind European language teacher education to a Japanese context” Ken Hisamura, Hisatake Jimbo; Paper: “Relationships between intrinsic values and the use of cognitive strategies among Japanese college learners of English” Shien Sakai; Paper: “Japanese students’ attitudes toward other cultures and a globalized world” Rie Adachi. Regional Language Centre (RELC), Singapore	The 52nd RELC International Conference
March 20	Panel Discussion: “Teaching and connecting elementary, junior and senior high school based on the three pillars of the coming Course of Study” Natsue Nakayama Seisen University, Tokyo Japan	ELEC Friends Association Workshop

Abbreviations

CELES: Chubu English Language Education Society

ELEC: English Language Education Council

EuroSLA: European Second Language Association

JALT: Japan Association of Language Teachers

JASELE: The Japan Society of English Language Education

JUSTEC: Japan-U.S. Teacher Education Consortium

LET: The Japan Association for Language Education and Technology

RELC: Regional Language Centre

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Submission Guidelines

1. Requirements

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

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

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4. Formatting guidelines for submissions in English

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

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代表 清田洋一

〒169-8050 東京都新宿区西早稲田 1-6-1

早稲田大学商学大学院 神保尚武 気付

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Language Teacher Education and Related Fields



成長のための省察ツール 言語教師のポートフォリオ

JACET教育問題研究会 <<http://www.waseda.jp/assoc-jacetedu/>>
監修：神保尚武／編集：久村 研，酒井志延、高木亜希子、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。
- 本ポートフォリオの中核には，Can-Do形式の180の自己評価記述文があります。これらの記述文は，授業力に関する体系的な考え方を提供しており，単なるチェック・リストではありません。教職課程の履修生，現職教師，実習や教員研修の指導者・メンターなどが利用したり，お互いに意見を交換したりする際に，省察を深めるツールとして機能すること，教職の専門意識を高める役割を果たすことが期待されます。