Explorations in Teacher Development

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EDITORIALS

Maps for Further Exploration: Paths Through Article Types

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The articles in this issue and in previous issues have created paths for others to follow, extend, and branch off from. As Ahmed (2019) develops the metaphors of used and unused paths, she repeatedly reminds us in an apparent tautology, "The more a path is used, the more a path is used" (p. 41). A used path is an invitation to use it more, which can be enabling and disabling at the same time. A used path eases the way for some, it also makes it more difficult to deviate or use different paths (p. 121). Yet it is also possible to "widen the routes" (p. 196) and "queer" the use of paths to release inherent potentialities (p. 200). Indeed, the quintessential *ETD* article inspires further exploration for those who might otherwise find the territory unwelcoming and shows the possibility of taking a different turn.

The maps these articles offer are often necessarily implicit, visible only when viewed from a particular angle. They typically do not have the space that an editorial provides for surveying the landscape and the spaces it might afford for differently positioned writers, teachers, and researchers. In this editorial, then, I elaborate on some of the potential paths within each article type, though contributors are sure to continue finding ways to broaden or queer these routes.

As general initial guidelines, submissions should range from 1,000 to 6,000 words. Although it depends on the article content, Research Articles typically range from 4,000 to 6,000 words; Explorations and Reflections typically range from 3,000 to 4,000 words; and Perspectives typically range from 1,000 to 2,000 words. However, it bears repeating: *ETD* articles are not beholden to the typical.

Article Types

Research Articles

In *ETD*, research articles follow relatively standard conventions drawn from the social sciences in most cases and from the humanities in some cases. Scholarly rigor involves careful attention to validity and reliability, engagement with relevant academic literature, and development of deeper understanding. Typically, these articles will be based on empirical data, whether more qualitative/interpretative or quantitative/probabilistic, with conventional structures introducing the topic and the academic conversation up to the present, explaining the methodology and its rationale, presenting the results, analyzing the findings, and finally discussing interpretations and implications. However, there is also space for articles with a more theoretical focus or a more post-qualitative or arts-based-research approach.

Explorations

As the "E" of *ETD*, explorations are a vital part of the journal's aims and scope. There are at least two main forms that such papers may take.

1) A personal essay, likely taking a narrative form, that engages with a relatively unfamiliar concept, theory, field/sub-field, or practice in a scholarly way – Resembling in some ways a literature review, the article relates a narrated journey of personal engagement and potential implications. It need not come to any solid conclusions or offer empirical evidence; rather, it merely aims to introduce the reader to something with potential (or something that seemed initially to have potential but after all seems best abandoned) by bringing them along for the ride. Unlike a reflection, it serves as a prompt to examine a new subject, something without a prior experiential basis.

2) A rich description of an early experiment with a particular practice or aspect of practice, such as a form of professional development, teaching approach, a learning activity, research methodology, or anything else relevant to teacher development – The scholarly literature may or may not be the impetus for this experiment, but the article forges links wherever possible—sometimes in creative ways. For example, in some cases, the exploration shares a detailed and well-justified new procedure with readers who might be inspired to follow and adapt it. In other cases, the exploration identifies and elaborates an aspect of practice, a relatively new concept, so that readers might attend to it in their own

contexts and find new resonances.

While "this paper explores…" might raise red flags in thesis statements for research articles in some mainstream scholarly outlets (Belcher, 2019, p. 93), *ETD* encourages this type of raw, open-minded searching—yet it still demands a clear focus and scholarly engagement for the exploration.

Reflections

Taking seriously the idea that reflective practice is at the core of teacher development and of teaching itself, *ETD* also gives pride of place to reflections. Reflective pieces draw upon previous experiences and observations for more thoughtful interpretations. These can take at least four different broad forms.

1) A narrative of a salient experience, whether a single moment or an extended continuity

2) A narrative of an entire "teaching journey" or "learning journey" with an emphasis on changes along a specific dimension, such as a form of becoming/unbecoming or of learning/unlearning

3) A thoughtful, fresh consideration of what at first glance seems a familiar, taken-for-granted aspect of teaching practice

4) A sustained examination of changes in one's thinking after a thought-provoking event such as a conference or workshop

Perspectives

Views from the field, involving practitioners drawing on their experiences with teaching in their particular contexts, also have an important place in *ETD*. Perspective pieces might take a less scholarly approach and instead privilege the practical or lived experience. They are typically argument-driven, articulating a clear position and supporting it with reasoning and relevant evidence. These pieces aim to broaden readers' own viewpoints, encouraging others positioned differently to perceive new aspects of teaching, teacher development, and the teaching profession—or to perceive familiar aspects from different angles. These articles will typically go through an editorial review process, but contributors can request a full peer review process for more scholarly perspective pieces.

Interviews

Interviews with scholars, practitioners, or others are another way to broaden the perspectives presented in *ETD*. Please contact the editors with a brief proposal before submitting the transcript of the interview, which may be edited for length and clarity.

Book Reviews

ETD welcomes reviews of relevant recent publications. These reviews not only summarize the book's overall contents but also critically engage with its ideas and potential relevance for readers. These articles may cite other literature to help readers contextualize the book and its ideas in the broader academic conversation. Please first contact the editors with a brief proposal.

Columns

Columns offer a space for sharing reports on events such as conferences and workshops, as well as briefly introducing ideas still in development.

Contributions to This Issue

This issue has three research articles representing a range of approaches. Steven Lim investigates the relationship and gaps between policies promoting communicative language teaching and teacher beliefs about the appropriateness of this approach in junior high school classrooms. Andrew A. Kirkpatrick and Tom J. A. Batten report on research into perceptions of team-teaching roles in eikaiwa for young learners. Marc Jones and Matthew Noble's duoethnography probes the interrelations of teachers' ADHD and their teaching.

Additionally, Akiko Takagi, Yuya Yamamoto, and Tomohide Warabi reflect together on differently positioned feedback on a practitioner's teaching journal for professional development. Robert J. Lowe, Luke Lawrence, Daniel Hooper, Matthew W. Turner, and Nick Kasparek add another reflective layer to their aligned duoethnographic projects while demonstrating the potential of this accessible method. Denver Beirne explores the potential of movie-making for English language teaching.

Other important contributions were the careful, constructive reviews from Deryn Verity, Chhayankdhar Singh, Daniel Hooper, Nate Olsen, Robert J. Lowe, Peter Clements, Junyuan Chen, Patrick Mannion, James Taylor, and Yutaka Fujieda, as well as Andrew Hofmann's excellent proofreading. Nick Kasparek and Matthew W. Turner contributed to the final layout, and Ewen MacDonald has continued his amazing work as Webmaster.

An Open Call for Papers

We welcome your submissions throughout the year for any of our article categories. Exploring previous volumes at

https://td.jalt.org/index.php/etd-volumes/ and editorials, especially "Editorial beginnings" from Volume 27, Issue 3 (Kasparek, 2021), might help you find additional guidance and inspiration. Please submit your manuscript with a brief cover letter to the email address below.

JALT.TED.ETE.editor@gmail.com

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RESEARCH ARTICLES

Do Education Policies Change Teacher Beliefs? The Impact of 30 Years of CLT in Japan

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For more than 30 years communicative language teaching (CLT) has been promoted by the Japanese government through its curriculum guidelines. Yet the postponement of the implementation of the four-skills test as part of the university entrance examinations process means that communicative English remains an under-represented aspect of Japan's English education system. This study examined teachers' level of approval of CLT activities and the factors that influence their implementation through a questionnaire responded to by 21 Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) and 29 assistant language teachers (ALTs) at junior high schools. The results indicated that while teachers approve of CLT activities they tend to rely on the audio-lingual method and yakudoku, a translation-based method. The factors influencing teachers' classroom practice vary between JTEs and ALTs, with JTEs reporting entrance examinations and students' expectations as highly influential, whereas ALTs were concerned with the students' speaking ability and the class size. By comparing these results to Gorsuch's (2001) study it can be concluded that though CLT activities are viewed more favorably than 20 years ago, there are a number of factors still limiting their implementation. This suggests that government mandates alone are insufficient to change the culture of a country's education system.

The promotion of communicative language teaching (CLT) in Japan by MEXT (the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology) can be traced back to the 1989 Course of Study in which it was stated that English should be taught for the purpose of communication (Kikuchi & Browne, 2009). The 1999 iteration of the Course of Study reinforced this focus on communication by designating the primary aim of foreign language education as developing English for communicative purposes (Nishino, 2008). MEXT updates its guidelines for school curricula, the Course of Study, approximately every 10 years and includes aspirational goals for how English should be taught and for what purpose. The 2003 Action Plan to Cultivate Japanese with English Abilities stated that through the teaching of basic and practical language the entire Japanese population would be able to have daily conversations in English (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008) and that English classes should be taught in English (Tahira, 2012). The 2008 Course of Study Guidelines increased the hours that English was taught to allow teachers more time to use communicative activities, stressing that grammar instruction should be in support of communication rather than separate from it (Tahira, 2012). But to what extent have MEXT's policies transferred to the classroom?

Using the results of a questionnaire responded to by 876 high school teachers,

Gorsuch (2001) concluded that teachers moderately approved of CLT activities, but certain issues impeded their implementation in the classroom. Class sizes and the teachers' perception of their students' English-speaking ability were the most influential factors, followed by entrance examinations. Older teachers favored *yakudoku*, a pedagogical approach similar to the grammar translation method, and they were a strong influence on their younger colleagues. The high school teachers also approved of activities based on the audio-lingual method (ALM) in which students memorized speech or dialogs and practiced through repeated pattern drills. Pre-service training and CLT teacher-training workshops organized by local boards of education were shown to be uninfluential. One positive factor in the study was the influence of ALTs: teachers who worked with an ALT approved of CLT more strongly than those who did not.

In order to judge whether MEXT's policies have been successful, we need to reexamine teachers' attitudes in respect to CLT activities. It is also important to investigate the extent to which the influence of yakudoku, teacher training, entrance examinations, the classroom environment, and ALTs have changed. By investigating teachers' opinions regarding CLT and the factors that influence their classroom practices, the impact of MEXT's policies on teacher beliefs can be examined.

Teacher Beliefs

Research on teacher beliefs has shown the importance of not only observable actions but also the cognitive processes that teachers go through in determining their actions in the classroom (Fang, 1996). Studies into Japanese teachers' opinions regarding CLT have revealed that while Japanese teachers of English (JTE) tended to approve of CLT activities, they often did not employ them in their classes (Cook, 2012). In interviews with JTEs, Cook found that

unfamiliarity with CLT, a dependence on the grammar-translation method of teaching, a focus on university entrance examinations, and classroom environment concerns were all factors that contributed to the discrepancy between teachers' approval of CLT and the failure to use it in their lessons. Nishimuro and Borg (2013) noted that due to the restrictions of the environment in which they operate, teaching practices do not necessarily reflect teacher beliefs and we cannot understand the instructional decisions teachers make without knowing the context under which they work.

Yakudoku

Yakudoku was portrayed by Nishino and Watanabe (2008) as a form of the grammar-translation method in which teachers give explanations of grammatical forms in Japanese. The primary opportunity the students have to speak is in the form of repetition drills. In yakudoku classes, students are often more focused on the Japanese translation of the English text than on the English itself (Gorsuch, 1998). In a class Gorsuch observed, students were not encouraged to produce their own English as the teacher believed it would be too challenging for them. Gorsuch (2001) saw yakudoku as an impediment to bringing about a change in EFL education in Japan.

Despite MEXT's promotion of CLT, Gorsuch (1998) found that yakudoku was used by most high school teachers. Some teachers interviewed by Nishimuro and Borg (2013) justified their emphasis on grammar instruction as a necessary foundation for accurate and fluent communication. Other teachers did not believe that yakudoku was an effective method of teaching but reasoned that grammar-translation was more suitable for the low English proficiency of their students (Cook, 2012). Teachers often used Japanese almost exclusively in instructions and explanations in order not to confuse and alienate lower-proficiency students (Nishimuro & Borg, 2013).

Gorsuch's (2001) study found that younger teachers were more positive about CLT activities than older ones. Because younger teachers had gone through a more CLT-focused education system as students, this could explain their stronger approval of CLT activities. Nishimuro and Borg (2013) suggested that teachers' own English learning experiences tend to inform the teachers' pedagogies more so than secondary language acquisition theories or methodology do.

Teacher Training

Despite promoting CLT, few changes have been made to teacher training courses (Otani, 2013). Tahira (2012) suggested that as CLT is an approach rather than a method there was ambiguity as to what CLT was. Although objectives were provided in the 2008 Course of Study, MEXT offered no specific definition of CLT, leaving it open to interpretation (Otani, 2013). With little direction regarding CLT, JTEs might feel they only have sufficient training to follow the yakudoku method (Cook, 2012). Otani (2013) recommended teacher training be conducted in English as it was difficult for teachers to use a communicative approach if they themselves had not experienced it. Cook and Gulliver (2014) also noted university students aiming to become language teachers tended to major in English literature or linguistics, and that those courses were taught primarily in Japanese.

Gorsuch (2001) posited that pre-service teacher education programs were inadequate in bridging the gap between theory and practice. She portrayed in-service education programs as similarly lacking, being provided sporadically, and for too short a period. Though the participants in Nishino's (2008) study were knowledgeable about CLT, few had learned of it through the Course of Study, and none had learned of it through workshops held by local boards of education. That the implementation of CLT into the Japanese education system has not been entirely successful is due in part to the insufficient amount of training provided to in-service teachers (Steele & Zhang, 2016). Even teachers with the relevant training and a desire to use CLT were hesitant to do so because of social and contextual factors in their school environment (Underwood, 2012). This was confirmed by Kurihara and Samimy's (2007) study in which they interviewed JTEs who had participated in a MEXT sponsored overseas training program. The JTEs claimed that while the experience had emphasized the importance of using English communicatively, large class sizes, preparation for entrance exams and the need to keep pace with the other teachers in the school had hampered their efforts to implement what they had learned.

Entrance Exams

Kikuchi and Browne (2009) identified the pressure of preparing students for the entrance examinations as causing teachers to abandon the communicative goals of the Course of Study. While junior high school teachers focused on preparing their students for high school entrance examinations, most believed they also needed to prepare them for university entrance examinations (Sakui, 2004). Though teachers justified their heavy focus on translation by claiming that it was the best method of preparing for university entrance exams, more than 20 years ago Gorsuch (1998) showed that the majority of university entrance exams did not contain translation questions. Underwood (2012) found that translation questions were either absent from or very limited in many prestigious universities' entrance examinations, and discrete-point knowledge of grammar was similarly deemphasized. Underwood suggested teachers who claimed that university entrance examinations were central to their teaching practices should be provided with more information regarding the current make-up of said examinations. While teachers might be willing to set aside their own beliefs regarding education to

effectively prepare a student for an examination, their methods may not reflect the demands of the test (Underwood, 2010).

To ensure the more widespread implementation of CLT, Gorsuch (2001) suggested that university entrance examinations should contain questions that tested candidates' communicative ability. In response, teachers would likely utilize more communicative activities to reflect the contents of the high-stakes examinations, a phenomenon known as the washback effect (Saito, 2019). Cook (2012) urged universities to alter their entrance examinations to make them more compatible with the goals of MEXT and proposed that a change in those exams would lead to an adjustment in classroom practices.

In response to such concerns, MEXT's proposal of the four-skills tests, in which speaking would become a part of the university entrance examinations, was a shift towards the curriculum being better represented by the manner of assessment (Allen, 2020). However, the proposal was postponed after being met with resistance due to concerns over its implementation. Allen observed that the potential use of 23 different tests administered by private companies which differed in terms of purpose and target participant was problematic. For the educational system to function correctly, the curriculum, the delivery of the curriculum, and the assessment of the curriculum must work in harmony (Allen, 2020).

Classroom Environment

Gorsuch (2001) noted that because classes often contained around 40 students, teachers were concerned about losing control. CLT activities were considered challenging due to the need to rearrange the classroom to allow the students to interact with each other, an issue exacerbated by the number of students (Sakui, 2007). Teachers also worried that individual students' interpersonal issues would be aggravated by

CLT activities, and that English ability gaps between students would be exposed, leading to potential embarrassment for lower-proficiency learners (Cook, 2012). For those students, the cognitive demands of understanding the instructions and the purpose of the activities might be as much of a concern as the English used in the activities themselves (Sakui, 2007). When they struggle to understand instructions given in the L2, students prefer the judicious use of their L1 to facilitate communication in the classroom (Clancy, 2018). Grammar-translation English teaching was seen by some teachers as providing a greater ability to manage students (Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004). Sakui (2007) noted that even teachers who believed in the educational benefits of CLT instruction refrained from these activities, choosing to teach grammar instead to avoid potential loss of control of the class.

Average class sizes in Japanese secondary schools have decreased slightly since Gorsuch's (2001) study, but remain above 32 (OECD, 2020). However, since 2011, English has been a compulsory subject in elementary school in Grades 5 and 6. Until reforms in 2020, the curriculum focused purely on oral communication in the form of listening and speaking tasks (A. Nemoto, 2018). As such, students are now likely to be more capable of communicating in English and familiar with CLT activities than the secondary school students of 20 years ago.

ALTs

ALTs provide an avenue for EFL learners to communicate with a native speaker of English (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008). The JET Programme, introduced in 1987, brought ALTs into the Japanese education system on a national scale and in mass numbers, but recently there has been a shift towards ALTs being hired through private companies (Martin, 2010). JTEs interviewed by Lamie (2000) saw ALTs as a positive influence in the classroom and beneficial to a focus on a communicative

style of teaching. CLT activities using pair and groupwork configurations were more likely to be implemented in team-teaching classes (Nishino, 2008; Sakui, 2004). Gorsuch (2001) found that CLT activities had a higher approval rate among teachers who worked with an ALT and proposed that this may have been due to the greater ease of modeling pair work in a team-teaching environment. Students' perceptions of the role of ALTs may also influence the use of CLT activities in the classroom: in a study by Kasai et al. (2011) students regarded native-speaker English teachers as being more capable of teaching oral skills than nonnative-speaker English teachers.

While her study acknowledged the influence of ALTs in integrating CLT activities in the classroom, Gorsuch (2001) did not attempt to discern their beliefs and practices. Martin (2010) suggested there had been a change in what is expected from ALTs, from them being participants in a cultural exchange to teachers and employees. Due to the way in which their role has evolved over the past 20 years, it is appropriate to take into consideration their attitudes towards CLT and the factors which influence how they act in the classroom.

Research Questions

Gorsuch (2001) concluded her study by stating it was a period of extraordinary change in the Japanese education system, and that the policy changes laid out in MEXT's 1999 Course of Study and 2003 Action Plan could change perceptions about the viability of CLT activities. This study intends to examine the current status of CLT in the Japanese education system at the secondary level and to what extent it has changed in the last 20 years in relation to teacher beliefs surrounding CLT and its implementation. The purpose of the study was to answer the following questions:

1. What types of activities do junior high school teachers consider appropriate for their classroom?
2. What types of activities do junior high school teachers use in the classroom?
3. What factors influence the classroom practices of junior high school teachers?

Materials and Methods

Participants

The participants in this study were 21 JTEs and 29 ALTs in public and private junior high schools in Japan. The questionnaire used in the study was created using Google Forms and a link was sent to coworkers or former coworkers of mine by email in August 2020. I also utilized snowball sampling to increase the pool of respondents by asking these former coworkers to send the questionnaire on to other suitable candidates. Submissions were accepted until the end of 2020 at which point the survey was closed. The participants gave their informed consent to take part in the study and their submissions were anonymous. No data were missing from the questionnaire responses. The study received approval from the Temple University Institutional Review Board.

Instrumentation

The questionnaire used in this study was adapted from the one used in Gorsuch's (2001) study. It was provided in Japanese for JTEs and in English for ALTs. There were three sections to the questionnaire: Section 1 concerned background information, Section 2 concerned activity approval, and Section 3 concerned influences (see Appendix). Some questions were adapted to reflect that the participants were junior high school teachers as opposed to high school teachers. In Section 2 participants read descriptions of classroom activities (e.g., The teacher has students chorally repeat word pairs such as sheep/ship and leave/live) and chose to what extent they agreed that the activity was

appropriate for their classroom on a 6-point scale from *Strongly Disagree* to *Strongly Agree*. A follow-up question to determine whether the teacher used each activity in their classroom was included as in Cook's (2012) study. The CLT, ALM, and yakudoku activities in Section 2 were chosen and categorized by an expert panel of four Japanese and four native English speakers with at least an MA in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) in Gorsuch's (2001) study. Cronbach's alpha for Section 2 was good at α = .82. In Section 3 participants responded to a positive statement regarding influences (e.g., The textbook my students are using influences my classroom practice) on a 6-point scale from *Strongly Disagree* to *Strongly Agree*. Cronbach's alpha for the influences in Section 3 was fair at α = .71. While a 5-point Likert scale from 1 to 5 was used in the studies by Gorsuch (2001), a 6-point Likert scale from 0 to 5 was chosen for Sections 2 and 3 due to the greater potential for measurement precision and to remove the neutral option as suggested by T. Nemoto and Beglar (2014). All analyses were conducted using the statistical program JASP (Version 0.14.1).

Analyses

Descriptive statistics were calculated for all Likert-scale questions including means, standard deviations, and skewness coefficients. A principal component analysis was run on Section 2 to determine if any groupings should be considered beyond the CLT, ALM, and yakudoku method activity distinctions in Gorsuch's (2001) study, and on Section 3 to determine if the 17 influences could be combined under more overarching constructs.

Results

What types of activities do teachers consider appropriate for their classroom?

In response to Research Question 1 descriptive statistics for JTE and ALT activity approval are shown in Tables 1 and 2

respectively, in ranked order from highest to lowest mean. JTEs approved most strongly of CLT activities that involve speaking. They approved of all CLT and ALM activities, though they showed only mild approval of the CLT writing activities. JTEs disapproved of two of the yakudoku activities but approved of the unscramble sentences yakudoku activity.

Table 1

Ranked List of JTE Activity Approval

Activity Type	Activity Name	*M*	SD	Skew
CLT	Information gap	4.19	0.60	-0.87
CLT	Opinion gap	4.05	0.67	-0.05
ALM	Minimal pairs	3.90	0.77	-0.56
ALM	Memorize dialogues	3.90	0.70	0.13
CLT	Unscramble paragraph	3.90	1.00	-1.48
CLT	Match story to picture	3.81	0.40	-1.70
Yakudoku	Unscramble sentences	3.71	0.64	0.33
CLT	Picture story prediction	3.57	0.98	-0.75
CLT	Letter to student	3.43	0.75	1.46
ALM	Memorize patterns	3.29	0.78	0.80
Yakudoku	Translate to Japanese	2.14	1.32	-0.29
Yakudoku	Recite translations	1.86	1.15	-0.13

Note. N = 21. Responses on a scale from 0–5.

ALTs showed strong approval of all CLT activities and of the two speaking activities in particular. The CLT activities were the six highest ranked activities, with the ALM activities and the unscramble sentences yakudoku activity also approved of by the ALTs. The other two yakudoku activities had the lowest approval ratings from the ALTs.

Table 2

Ranked List of ALT Activity Approval

Activity Type	Activity Name	*M*	SD	Skew
CLT	Opinion gap	4.45	0.69	-0.87
CLT	Information gap	4.38	0.78	-1.30
CLT	Match story to picture	3.97	0.82	-0.35
CLT	Picture story prediction	3.93	0.92	0.73
CLT	Letter to student	3.72	0.96	-0.70
CLT	Unscramble paragraph	3.62	1.15	-0.70
ALM	Minimal pairs	3.55	1.30	-1.39
Yakudoku	Unscramble sentences	3.55	0.95	-0.83
ALM	Memorize patterns	3.31	1.00	-1.60
ALM	Memorize dialogues	3.31	1.37	-0.52
Yakudoku	Translate to Japanese	2.52	1.15	0.33
Yakudoku	Recite translations	2.24	1.22	-0.02

Note. N = 29. Responses on a scale from 0–5.

What types of activities do teachers use in the classroom?

In response to Research Question 2, the percentage of JTEs and ALTs that use the activities are shown in Table 3 in ranked order from highest to lowest. The JTE and ALT results were combined to better represent what the students experience in the classroom. The two most commonly used activities were ranked sixth and ninth in terms of approval. The activities ranked number one and two in terms of approval were the fifth and third most commonly used activities respectively. The translate English to Japanese activity was the sixth most commonly used activity, despite it being disapproved of by both JTEs and ALTs.

What factors influence the classroom practices of teachers?

In response to Research Question 3 descriptive statistics for JTE and ALT influences are shown in Tables 4 and 5 respectively, in ranked order from highest to lowest mean.

JTEs were most strongly influenced by entrance exams and student expectations, followed by their own experience as L2 learners. There was a notable drop-off to the next factors, the textbook and students' English-speaking ability. There were seven influences that averaged less than three points, suggesting they were not especially influential. The three weakest influences were membership of an academic organization, pre-service training, and the principal at their school.

Table 3

Activities Used in the Classroom

Activity	Activity use (%)	Approval *M*	Approval rank
Memorize dialogues	90	3.56	9
Minimal pairs	88	3.70	6
Opinion gap	78	4.28	2
Unscramble sentence	76	3.62	7
Information gap	64	4.30	1
Translate to Japanese	58	2.36	11
Memorize patterns	54	3.30	10
Unscramble paragraph	54	3.74	5
Match story to picture	46	3.90	3
Recite translations	36	2.08	12
Write letters to students	26	3.60	8
Picture story prediction	14	3.78	4

Note. N = 50. Responses on a scale from 0–5.

Table 4

Ranked List of JTE Influences

Influence	*M*	SD	Skew
Entrance exams	4.57	0.68	-1.36
Student expectations	4.52	0.60	-0.86
Learning experience	4.19	0.68	-0.25
Textbook	3.62	0.81	0.21
Student speaking	3.62	0.97	-0.55
Curriculum	3.52	1.12	-0.53
No. of students	3.52	1.25	0.03
Teacher speaking	3.38	1.16	-0.85
Syllabus	3.33	0.80	0.61
Co-teacher	3.05	0.81	-0.73
Peers	2.81	1.75	0.24
Private training	2.71	1.19	-0.17
Parent expectations	2.33	1.02	-0.13
In-service training	2.10	1.70	0.11
Academic organization	1.95	1.72	0.15
Pre-service training	1.86	1.42	0.16
Principal	1.71	1.52	0.16

Note. N = 21. Responses on a scale from 0–5.

Table 5

Ranked List of ALT Influences

Influence	*M*	SD	Skew
Student speaking	4.34	0.77	-0.70
No. of students	4.21	0.77	-2.37
Textbook	4.07	1.10	-1.53
Syllabus	3.97	0.94	-0.48
Co-teacher	3.93	1.16	-1.18
Peers	3.31	0.89	0.30
Entrance exams	3.17	1.26	-0.81
Teacher speaking	2.93	1.46	0.39
Student expectations	2.69	1.07	-0.63
Learning experience	2.62	1.66	-0.35
Private training	2.14	1.46	0.34
Curriculum	2.10	1.57	-0.00
Parent expectations	1.69	1.11	-0.01
Pre-service training	1.62	1.64	0.56
In-service training	1.38	1.40	0.85
Principal	1.34	1.37	0.93
Academic organization	0.97	1.18	1.05

Note. N = 29. Responses on a scale from 0–5.

The two strongest influences for ALTs were the students' speaking ability and the number of students in the class. There were nine influences that averaged less than three points, suggesting that they were not especially influential. Four of the ALT influences averaged less than the least influential JTE influence: parents' expectations, pre-service training, in-service training, and the principal.

Discussion

What types of activities do teachers consider appropriate for their classroom?

JTEs' approval of CLT activities over ALM and yakudoku ones is a positive sign for MEXT's promotion of CLT. The top two ranked activities were CLT speaking activities involving turn-taking and negotiation of meaning, both of which are important in real-world contexts. It suggests that JTEs understand the importance of teaching practical English to their students in line with the goals of MEXT.

The top four ranked activities all involve students speaking English, indicating that JTEs appreciate the importance of teaching English for the purpose of communication. In Gorsuch's (2001) study the two most highly approved activities were both CLT, but neither required the students to produce any written or spoken language, unlike the top four activities in this study. However, as two of those four activities merely involve rote memorization and repetition, it also shows JTEs are currently relying on some older and more conservative methods.

The declining influence of yakudoku is an important trend. Overall, teachers recognized that yakudoku activities are no longer appropriate for their classes. Whereas 20 years prior Gorsuch (2001) viewed the mild approval of all types of activities in her study as cautious and conservative, in this study the JTEs were bolder in their support of activities they approved of and firmer in their rejection of ones they disapproved of. ALTs were even more enthusiastic in their support of CLT activities than JTEs, with all six of the top positions taken up by CLT activities. The results suggest that ALTs understand that their role is not only to foster communicative activities in the classroom,

but to encourage students to use their own linguistic resources to do so.

What types of activities do teachers use in the classroom?

Approval of an activity does not equate to its incorporation in the classroom: the top two most commonly used activities were the ALM activities which ranked sixth and ninth in terms of approval between the JTEs and ALTs. However, both the first and second most approved of activities, the opinion gap and information gap, were used by the majority of teachers. The two CLT writing activities are likely at the bottom of the list due to their novelty when compared to many of the other activities which often appear in teaching manuals and textbooks. Of greater concern is how widespread the use of the yakudoku translation activity is, despite teachers not approving of it.

What factors influence the classroom practices of teachers?

The results further entrench the notion that JTEs are concerned with the ultimate aim of junior high school education: to prepare students for high school entrance examinations. Concerns regarding the implementation of CLT activities were deemed of lesser importance. Until the exams reflect the communicative goals of MEXT, CLT activities might be viewed as an unnecessary distraction for both teachers and students.

The third strongest influence for JTEs, their own experience learning English, could be a positive indication for the future. For the younger teachers who were brought up through the education system during a time in which CLT has been encouraged, it may explain their approval of CLT activities. In Gorsuch's (2001) study it was largely the older teachers who disapproved of CLT activities, and in the intervening 20 years it can be assumed that a significant number of them have retired. If new JTEs have been positively influenced by their experiences

with communicative English teaching, then in the future the trend towards the approval of CLT activities should continue to gather pace.

Disappointingly, training was as uninfluential for JTEs now as 20 years ago. What JTEs are taught in university to prepare them to teach bears even less influence now than it did in Gorsuch's (2001) study when she decried pre-service training programs as lacking practicality and providing only shallow instruction into teaching methodology. In-service training fared little better, suggesting that teachers are still too busy to attend, or that the training sessions they do attend fail to leave a lasting impression on them.

ALTs are most strongly influenced by the immediate concerns of teaching lessons and are not especially affected by influences beyond the scope of the classroom. As their responsibilities in a school are limited to the classroom and considering that ALTs are less knowledgeable than JTEs regarding the curriculum and entrance exams, this is unsurprising. The high school teachers in Gorsuch's (2001) study shared the same top two priorities as the ALTs in this study: the students' speaking ability and the number of students in the class. However, the high school teachers of 20 years ago were probably concerned with the relatively new methodology they were being asked to use and could have seen those two factors as justifications for abandoning CLT activities. One of the roles of an ALT is to facilitate the use of CLT activities in the classroom, so they likely see the students' English ability and the class size as logistical factors to be taken into consideration rather than impediments.

ALTs' relationships with their JTE co-teachers are more influential for them than for JTEs. As JTEs will almost always be present in ALTs' classes but ALTs are present in comparatively few of the JTEs' classes, this is to be expected. For ALTs to have a productive relationship with their JTEs is a necessity; for JTEs it is merely desirable. This

is still an improvement from Gorsuch's (2001) study in which ALTs were only the 14th strongest influence on the high school JTEs. In this study the junior high school JTEs ranked their ALT co-teacher 10th, slightly above fellow JTEs. This suggests JTEs consider ALTs to have a more prominent role in the classroom than previously.

Conclusion

The present study sought to examine the attitudes of junior high school teachers towards CLT and the factors that influence their classroom practices. The results reveal that though approval for CLT activities is higher than 20 years ago, many of the activities which actually take place in the classroom bear a striking similarity to those from before MEXT began its promotion of CLT. As such, the 30-year transition from the grammar-translation method to CLT cannot be considered a success.

The results of this study indicate that rather than promotion of CLT, some of the changes made by MEXT to the educational environment could lead to CLT finally becoming the dominant teaching methodology in Japan. One such change is that in 2020 English became a compulsory subject for Grades 3 and 4 with 35 hours per year, while the number of hours for Grades 5 and 6 increased from 35 to 70 per year. This increase in English lessons was for the express purpose of developing communicative English skills, with listening and speaking the primary foci (A. Nemoto, 2018). In addition, recent secondary school textbooks have placed a greater emphasis on the use of English as a communicative tool as opposed to achieving grammatical accuracy. Finally, though delayed, English speaking will likely become part of the university entrance examinations process. Since high-stakes entrance examinations are such an influential factor in Japan, the hope is for a washback effect to occur on teaching and learning throughout the secondary school system (Saito, 2019) leading to greater prominence of CLT activities. Future studies on a larger scale should be conducted to determine whether the change in university entrance exams brings about the desired effect in the beliefs and practices of teachers in secondary schools. As shown by this study, change in the Japanese English education system is slow to happen. However, if anything can bring about a more rapid and emphatic shift in how English is taught in Japan, it will likely come through a change to the entrance exams. Education policies do not change teacher beliefs and practices in and of themselves. Instead, changing the educational environment is necessary to bring about real change.

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Appendix

This link contains the English questionnaire https://forms.gle/soLPaRdgZtRsY8yK6
This link contains the Japanese questionnaire https://forms.gle/LnbhvKoj6Drzo8xAA

Activity Descriptions

1. The teacher asks students to translate English phrases or sentences into Japanese as preparation for class.

2. The teacher has students look at a page that has a picture strip story. Students can uncover only one picture at a time. Before uncovering the next picture, the students predict, writing the prediction in English, what will happen in the next picture. Students can then look at the next picture to confirm or disconfirm their predictions.

3. The teacher has the students work face to face in pairs. One student sees a page that has some missing information. The other student sees a different page that has that information. The first student must ask questions in English to the other student to find the missing information.

4. The teacher asks students to translate English phrases or sentences into Japanese in preparation for class. Then in class, the teacher calls on individual students to read their Japanese translation of an English phrase or sentence, and the teacher corrects it if necessary and gives the whole class the correct translation with an explanation.

5. The teacher has students chorally repeat word pairs such as sheep/ship and leave/live.

6. The teacher has students memorize and practice a short English sentence pattern. The teacher then gives the students a one-word English cue and has the students chorally say the sentence pattern using the new word.

7. The teacher pairs off students. Then the teacher asks the students to write a letter in English to their partner.

8. The teacher has students memorize an English dialog and then has the students practice the dialogue together with a partner.

9. The teacher has pairs or small groups of students ask each other and then answer questions in English about their opinions.

10. Students read a sentence in Japanese, and then see an equivalent English sentence below where the words have been scrambled up. The students must then rewrite the English sentence in the correct order suggested by the Japanese sentence.

11. On one page students see a picture. Underneath the picture are several short English stories. Students have to choose which story they think best matches the picture.

12. On a page, students see an English paragraph in which the sentences have been scrambled. The teacher then asks the students to put the sentences into order so the paragraph makes sense.

Influences
1. The Monbusho guidelines influence my classroom practice.

2. High school and university entrance exams influence my classroom practice.

3. The textbook my students are using influences my classroom practice.

4. The teaching license program I completed at university influences my classroom practice.

5. In-service teacher education specifically designed for English teaching offered by my prefectural or municipal board of education influences my classroom practice.

6. The way I learned a foreign language as a student influences my classroom practice.

7. My peers (fellow Japanese English teachers or fellow ALTs) influence my classroom practice.

8. The principal at my school influences my classroom practice.

9. Teaching courses I have taken privately influence my current classroom practice.

10. My membership in a private academic organization influences my classroom practice.

11. The syllabus used at my school influences my classroom practice.

12. The number of students in my class influences my classroom practice.

13. My co-teacher (Japanese English teacher or ALT) influences my classroom practice.

14. The expectations of my students' parents influence my classroom practice.

15. My students' expectations about how to study English influences my classroom practice.

16. My students' abilities in English influences my classroom practice.

17. The Japanese teachers' English speaking ability influences my classroom practice.

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Children's Eikaiwa Teacher Perspectives on Team Teaching

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Team teaching is a significant topic of academic inquiry throughout Japanese mainstream English language educational contexts. This study reported on the experiences and perspectives of a small sample of teachers employed within a children's conversational English school who practised team teaching regularly. Data was obtained via a survey and follow-up interview. In addition to brief statistical analyses, a thematic qualitative framework derived from the literature and the authors' personal reflections was used to analyse and interpret the survey results and interview transcripts. The literature indicated that teachers in mainstream contexts are primarily concerned over a lack of clarity regarding teacher roles, despite a relatively consistent convention regarding the assignment of roles existing elsewhere in the literature. However, the research presented here indicated the existence of and a preference towards an alternative team-teaching dynamic wherein roles are more dynamically negotiated. This presents researchers with a unique and yet hitherto unexplored perspective on team teaching within this context.

Keywords: team teaching, teacher roles, English as a foreign language, eikaiwa, young learners, assistant language teachers

Team teaching is a common feature of English language classrooms throughout East Asia and likely originated in Japan where it has been in use for over 50 years (Brown,

2016; Carless, 2006; Fujimoto-Adamson, 2010; Kano et al., 2016; Tajino & Smith, 2016). The practice of inviting assistant language teachers (ALTs) to Japan to work alongside Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) began as early as 1952 as part of a program that would eventually morph into the Japanese Exchange and Teaching Programme (JET) in 1987 (Juppe, 1998; Kano et al., 2016). At the time of its inception, the JET Programme began with 848 participants which in 1997 grew to a population of 5,030 (Juppe, 1998, p. 114). Since then, the program has grown to include approximately 4,500 ALTs annually (Tajino & Smith, 2016, p. 13), with 5,234 ALTs participating in the 2019–2020 period (JET Programme, 2019), bringing the overall total of past and present participants to around 70,000 (Carless, 2006, p. 342). In 2014, the Japanese government set out on an initiative to place "[ALTs] in all elementary schools by 2019" (MEXT, 2014, as cited in Kano et al., 2016, p. 74). With this proliferation in mind, it is perhaps little wonder that team teaching has become one of the key topics concerning English language teaching research in Japan (Tajino & Tajino, 2000).

Team-teaching research commonly focuses on Japanese elementary, junior, and senior high schools, what we will refer to collectively as mainstream contexts. To our knowledge, the present study represents the first time that team teaching as a topic of research has been examined within the context of English conversational schools in Japan, which are referred to as *eikaiwa* in Japanese. With regard to *eikaiwa* research, there is a scarcity of scholarly articles in

general (Cater, 2017; Hooper et al., 2020; Nagatomo, 2013; Nuske, 2014). This is despite the fact that, taken as a collective, *eikaiwa* are equal to the JET Programme in terms of being a major entry point for most foreign teachers into Japan (Cater, 2017, p. 1), not to mention their nationwide presence comprising a multibillion-yen industry (Hooper, 2018, p. 32; Taylor, 2017, p. 62), and employing approximately 15,000 foreign teachers (Nagatomo, 2013, p. 3), a figure which is similar in scale to the number of ALTs teaching in mainstream contexts (15,432) (MEXT, 2016, as cited in Kano et al., 2016, p. 74). Of the studies that do directly address *eikaiwa* (e.g., Bailey, 2007; Cater, 2017; Kubota, 2011; Tajima, 2019), most tend to focus on ideological critiques (Hooper, 2018, p. 33; Nuske, 2014, p. 108). A significant portion of this extracurricular context involves services called *kodomo no eikaiwa* that specifically target young learners, with some even catering to infants less than a year old, as can be seen by visiting the websites of the Aeon Corporation (https://www.aeonet.co.jp/kids/) or the Seiha Network (https://www.seiha.com).

Having first-hand knowledge of *eikaiwa* classes for children where team teaching is routinely practised, we can attest to the need for research that caters to teachers and policy makers working throughout this context. While principally following a reflective approach, we realised that our experiences and insights would be better supported by the inclusion of both quantitative and qualitative data obtained from a sample of teachers with similar backgrounds. This, alongside the literature review, would allow us to triangulate our perspectives within a broader framework. While modest in scope, we hope that this study will break new ground by examining the team-teaching dynamic within *eikaiwa* lessons for young learners. To that end, the present study approached the following research question: What are *eikaiwa* teachers' perspectives on and experiences of team-teaching roles in *eikaiwa* classes for children?

Literature Review

Team teaching can be defined as any team of two or more teachers cooperating in some manner to deliver a lesson (Sponseller, 2016, p. 123; Tajino & Smith, 2016, p. 11). Indeed, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) defines *team teaching* as "any time two or more teachers work together to guide an individual learner or a group of learners toward a set of aims or objectives" (MEXT, 1994, p. 14, as cited in Carless, 2006, p. 343). In Japan, *team teaching* typically refers to the arrangement commonly found throughout mainstream English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms: a "native" English speaker, working in cooperation with a licenced JTE (Hawkinson, 2016, p. 183; Johannes, 2012, p. 165; Martin, 2010, p. 146; Tajino & Tajino, 2000, p. 4). Later, we suggest that the term native may no longer be broadly applicable throughout this context. Being that the common denominator amongst these teachers is typically their foreign nationality rather than their L1, we will adopt the all-encompassing term foreign teacher of English (FTE) to refer to all such teachers within this particular teaching context. These descriptors, however, do little in the way of illuminating the various intricacies of team teaching in practice. This is one of the central issues reported throughout the literature related to team teaching in mainstream contexts; teachers lack a unified set of established team-teaching methods and principles to follow (Shimaoka & Yashiro, 1990, as cited in Tajino, 2002, p. 30).

According to Brown (2016), the topic of teacher roles is a shared concern across multiple studies related to team teaching in Japan. Indeed, his own study found that teachers' uncertainty regarding their specific roles during team teaching was a commonly reported concern (Brown, 2016). Another

study found that "unclear role distribution" was one of the five major concerns arising from instances of team teaching (Rao & Chen, 2020, p. 339). A study by Mahoney (2004) demonstrated that teachers envisioned specific roles for themselves and their team-teaching counterparts, and that these perspectives and expectations were often in conflict with one another. The terminology used within official JET documents may be partly responsible for these reported uncertainties as terms such as "partner" and "assistant," used in reference to the ALT, appear to confuse expectations over equality and subordinacy (Sponseller, 2016, p. 124). Carless (2006, p. 345) identifies three enabling features for successful team teaching in which the definition of "appropriate classroom roles" appears as a sub-category. Considering this, the lack of a clear consensus regarding team-teaching roles in practice warrants concern.

The idea that team teachers complement each other for the benefit of students strongly informs the designation of roles within EFL learning contexts (Carless, 2006; Rao & Chen, 2020). Medgyes (1992, as cited in Tajino & Tajino, 2000, p. 3) suggested that the presence of the two teachers balances their inherent strengths and deficiencies, and that this was an ideal arrangement for EFL contexts. This lends credence to the idea that each teacher has a specific role to play in the classroom, composed of activities and responsibilities that best match their abilities and traits (Tajino & Tajino, 2000). What follows is a breakdown of the components that contribute to each teacher's ideal role according to this logic. The FTE, due to their perceived English first language (L1) status, possesses greater communicative competency in the tutored language and is therefore suited to active communication and interaction with students, while the JTE possesses better intuitions about the students' L1 and is furthermore uniquely

positioned to appreciate the language acquisition process from a second language (L2) learner's perspective (Carless, 2006; Carless & Walker, 2006; Nuske, 2014; Rao & Chen, 2020; Tajino & Tajino, 2000). Each embodies a cultural element that further influences their roles. The FTE's possession of target cultural knowledge enables them to act as an ambassador, or "inter-cultural informant" (Tajino, 2002, p. 30), while the JTE's knowledge of local culture and language enables them to act as a classroom manager and language/intercultural mediator (Brown, 2016; Juppe, 1998; Miyazato, 2009; Rao & Chen, 2020). In practice, it would appear that each teacher leverages their inherent strengths in a delicate power struggle so as to maintain active participation and autonomy within the classroom; however, as Miyazato (2009) demonstrated, this is not always the outcome.

Despite the FTE's functional proficiency, grammar and linguistic instruction typically form part of the JTE's role as it is thought that they are likely to have a firmer grounding in "the grammar and syntax of the language they are teaching" (Juppe, 1998, pp. 120–121). The fact that the JTE is both fluent in their students' L1 and a trained and licenced teaching professional likely contributes to this expectation, as it is not expected nor required for FTEs to be trained or licensed teaching professionals in most situations. Furthermore, we should consider that, apart from their foreign national status and perceived fluent English language ability, FTEs are often only required to have a bachelor's degree, with said degree not needing to be related to the field of language education (Cater, 2017, p. 1; Hooper et al., 2020, p. 41; Nuske, 2014, p. 108; Sponseller, 2016, p. 123). While seemingly counterproductive, making FTEs "less threatening" may have been an intentional design choice "in order to equalise the power balance between" team teachers and to lower resistance on the part

of JTEs who feared a loss of autonomy within the classroom (Miyazato, 2009, pp. 41–42). It is interesting to note that while *eikaiwa*, and *eikaiwa* FTEs in turn, are often stigmatised (Hooper et al., 2020), FTEs in mainstream contexts are in no way inherently more qualified than their *eikaiwa* counterparts based on common hiring practices, which also rely on English proficiency and a bachelor's degree as being the standard requirement for employment eligibility. In contrast, JTEs in *eikaiwa* contexts are not typically required to be trained and licensed teachers. However, in both mainstream and extracurricular contexts, the JTE's perceived superior Japanese language ability as well as their perceived L2 language learning experiences appear to predispose them towards translating grammatical functions into their students' L1 where such teaching practices persist.

By fulfilling their roles, the teachers in effect come to represent complementary models; the FTE acts as a model for fluent English language discourse and as an embodied representation of foreign culture, while the JTE presents the students with a model of a successful second language learner (Juppe, 1998; Mahoney, 2004; Medgyes, 1992, as cited in Rao & Chen, 2020, p. 335; Tajino, 2002). It is assumed that such models will motivate students on two counts; the FTE model provides motivation to speak English and engage with foreign cultures, while the JTE model provides a proof of concept that learning an L2 is possible (Juppe, 1998). The JTE may be of particular benefit to the students as an inspirational role model given that the FTE is typically someone who is more socially and culturally distant to the learners, existing beyond that which is reasonably expectable as an achievement goal (Murphey, 1998).

Thus, to summarise, team teaching in mainstream contexts typically refers to a teaching partnership between a JTE and an FTE. By virtue of their unique attributes, it is expected that each teacher is predisposed to a specific role, and by performing these roles each teacher in turn represents a type of complementary model: the FTE acts as a model of fluency and as an embodiment of foreign culture, while the JTE acts as a model of a successful language learner. While other approaches to team teaching can and do exist (e.g., Kano et al., 2016; Tajino & Tajino, 2000), what we have outlined here might be fairly described as being the conventional approach to team teaching in mainstream contexts. Despite its emphasis on a principled delineation between teacher roles, the literature indicates that confusion over teacher roles remains a key issue. Finally, the roles that FTEs and JTEs are called upon to play in extracurricular contexts may not differ significantly from their mainstream counterparts. This study aims to help illuminate the unexplored intricacies of team teaching in *eikaiwa* for young learners.

Methods
Context and Participants
The persons involved as well as the data collected within this study originate from within the same institution. This study is thus not examining *eikaiwa* classes for young learners in general, but is instead looking at this context through the lens of a single institution in the hopes of furthering the discussion about team teaching within such a context. The current study involved teachers working within a professional *eikaiwa* for young learners, hereafter referred to as the institution. The institution caters to ages 0–16 with a maximum of ten students in each class. Lessons are taught by both an FTE and a JTE. Institutional policy dictates that, in principle, the FTE is to lead the lesson and has the final say on lesson content. The institution provides a curriculum that defines a list of monthly themes, each of which contains a specific language learning goal. These goals involve vocabulary lists (6–8 words) and corresponding grammatical examples that generate closed dialogues. This approach remains consistent across all

age groups with the key difference being relative increase in sentence length, instances of verb conjugation, and tense complexity over time. Teachers are free to plan activities in support of these goals and are trained to construct lesson plans using the presentation, practice and production (PPP) methodology (Harmer, 2015).

The study sample involved eight FTEs. The participants held positions as foreign teacher trainers, meaning that along with normal teaching duties, additional responsibilities included teacher training, lesson observations and evaluations, and self-initiated research and development. Individual demographic descriptors are unavailable due to the small sample size making it possible to identify individual participants, and they agreed to participate only when provided with anonymity. The minimum length of residency in Japan was 3–6 years and the maximum was more than 10 years. The minimum tenure at the institution was 3–6 years and the maximum was 6–10 years. Three teachers reported their Japanese language ability as below beginner, another three as intermediate, and two declined to answer.

Design

Participants gave informed consent to complete an anonymous online survey and to attend a follow-up online individual interview conducted using video conferencing software. All participants completed a survey; however, only six attended the follow-up interview. The survey contained multiple choice and checkbox questions related to the topic of team teaching in three distinct categories: teacher roles, lesson planning, and working alongside team teachers. The interview format was informal and unstructured, being designed to give participants an opportunity to expand on and better represent their perspectives and experiences.

The quantitative data obtained from the survey responses exist primarily for exploratory and supplementary purposes orientated towards a better understanding of this particular teaching context. This analysis is designed to illustrate the sample's general perspectives towards team teaching and is not intended to be generalised to a target population beyond this specific context. A theory-driven analysis of the interview transcripts provides qualitative data and is interpretative; participant accounts are analysed using an interpretive lens that is based on both the literature presented here as well as our own experiences as long-serving *eikaiwa* FTEs at the same institution as the participants.

Findings and Discussion
Quantitative Data

To illustrate their implicit perspectives on team-teaching roles, participants were asked to select which abilities they would use to describe both FTEs and JTEs from a list. The results are presented in Table 1. Participants commonly attributed both FTEs and JTEs with abilities that, according to the conventional approach to team teaching, would enable them to fulfil their counterpart's role. There was a particular lack of consensus between participants on FTE-exclusive abilities, with only half of the participants agreeing that FTEs' abilities include understanding foreign cultures and possessing "native"[1] English accents. Instead, FTEs scored highly in abilities that would predispose them to their counterpart's role such as having an understanding of English grammar and the ability to connect with students. Participants demonstrated a much stronger consensus on JTE abilities, with all participants agreeing with the notion that JTEs are able to understand and connect with the students, as well as manage the

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[1] The term "native" in this context is problematic and warrants unpacking, though this is beyond the scope of this article. For our purposes, the term may reasonably be construed as common parlance across the broader context of EFL education in Japan, which is why we included it within the survey.

classroom. Furthermore, seven of the participants agreed with the remainder of the JTE-exclusive abilities, except for "understand English language (grammar)," for which only six of them agreed. Unlike their mainstream counterparts, JTEs in this context do not require a teaching licence which might account for this being the lowest consensus for a JTE-typical type trait. JTEs did however score highly in the FTE-typical abilities "understand foreign culture" and "act as a model for English conversation." Overall, JTEs were more consistently attributed with a broader range of skills, as can be seen in Table 1.

Participants tended to see individual attributes in both FTEs and JTEs, suggesting that they felt that both teachers are not sufficiently predisposed towards exclusive roles. This sentiment was echoed to a mild degree in the participants' response to the question of who ought to act as the leader during lessons. Participants were evenly split

on assigning the FTE as leader or whether consideration of the actual teachers involved ought to be the deciding factor. Similarly, when asked about who should bear the main responsibility for lesson planning and content, half of the participants agreed that both teachers should share the responsibility, while the other half was split between FTEs and consideration of the actual teachers involved being the deciding factor. This is an interesting finding when we consider that FTEs in this context are explicitly charged with both leading lessons and having the final say on lesson content, which suggests that despite their empowered status, the FTE participants within this study demonstrate a mild preference towards shared responsibility with the JTE. The emergent theme here is that individual personal factors appear more important when deciding who should perform what role in a given team-teaching arrangement rather than assumptions about teachers' innate abilities.

Table 1

Comparison Between FTE and JTE-Typical Ability Scores as Reported by FTEs (N=8)

FTE-Typical Abilities	Foreign Teachers		Japanese Teachers	
1. Model for English conversation	(7)	87.5%	(6)	75%
2. Understand English language (grammar)	(7)	87.5%	(6)	75%
3. English fluency	(7)	87.5%	(4)	50%
4. Understand foreign cultures	(4)	50%	(6)	75%
5. Native English accent	(4)	50%	(0)	0%
JTE-Typical Abilities	Foreign Teachers		Japanese Teachers	
6. Able to manage the classroom	(6)	75%	(8)	100%
7. Able to understand and connect with students	(7)	87.5%	(8)	100%
8. Understand what it is like to learn an L2	(5)	62.5%	(7)	87.5%
9. Understand Japanese culture	(4)	50%	(7)	87.5%
10. Japanese fluency	(0)	0%	(7)	87.5%
Total	51		59	

Note. Participants could ascribe an attribute to both FTEs and JTEs.

Table 2 shows the results of a survey for FTEs about issues with JTEs. When we consider that, among other issues reported,

the most common (n=7) was the tendency for JTEs to not confront FTEs directly when they have an issue with their counterpart, we

might infer that the participants emphasise cooperation and interaction over strict adherence to predetermined roles. However, another finding was that despite strong agreement between teachers on the JTEs' theorised ability to manage the classroom, six of the eight participants reported that they had issues involving some of their counterparts' inability or unwillingness to enact classroom management and discipline.

Three other commonly reported issues (n=6, respectively) were JTEs spending large amounts of time on non-teaching duties, JTEs failing to enact classroom discipline, and difficulty with JTEs offering effective translations to students. These findings indicate that despite impartiality towards role-sharing, the participants consider translation and classroom management to be a necessary role exclusive to JTEs with the latter being of particular concern to FTEs.

Table 2

Problems Reported by Participants When Working with Japanese Teachers (N=8)

Reported Problem	Percentage	
1. JTEs don't confront you directly when they have a problem with you or your lessons.	(7)	87.5%
2. JTEs won't translate what you want them to say effectively	(6)	75%
3. JTEs don't manage the classroom and enact discipline	(6)	75%
4. There isn't enough time to discuss teaching and professional matters	(6)	75%
5. JTEs spend most of their time on non-teaching duties	(6)	75%
6. JTEs expect me to plan the entire lesson	(4)	50%
7. JTEs don't understand English	(4)	50%
8. JTEs rarely talk to you	(3)	37.5%
9. JTEs rarely speak English	(3)	37.5%
10. JTEs don't respect your ideas	(2)	25%
11. JTEs don't let you participate in lesson planning	(1)	12.5%
12. JTEs won't let you lead the lesson	(1)	12.5%
13. N/A	(0)	0%

Note. FTEs were requested to select all that apply. Questions based on Kano et al. (2016).

Qualitative Data

During the interviews, some participants questioned whether having a JTE present in the classroom disincentivises student engagement with both the FTE and the English language. Participant 5 (hereafter P5) described how JTEs provide an avenue for students to avoid engaging with the English language and that without them students would be forced to directly confront both English and the FTE. P2 and P6 made similar comments about JTEs actively disincentivising engagement by "spoon-feeding" the students, which they described as either unnecessary L1 explanation or translation. As P2 remarked, "Sometimes we take away, or most of the time the JTEs take away the 'ability to think' from the kids." P3 instead described how the JTE acts as a kind of interface between the FTE and the students, like a "security net" that protects the students when they do not understand the FTE.

On the topic of defining roles, P6 provided a description of roles that more closely aligned with the conventional approach, provided that the FTE was qualified to lead the lesson effectively, also mentioning that the JTEs' role included translation and classroom control. Some participants, however, echoed the neutral sentiment found in the survey results regarding clearly defined roles. P4, for example, wanted to avoid using the term "assistant" to describe the JTE's general role in practice while P2 remarked that rather than having a strictly defined role, the JTE ought to provide "support, not just appear to be a translator." In these examples, there is an expressed desire for the JTE to act as a complement to the FTE, not as an assistant, suggesting that the specific responsibilities each teacher must fulfil are more fluid. P4 best described this fluid dynamic:

> It's kind of like tag team wrestling. You know, like you put in your two cents and the Japanese teacher says something. You have this kind of vibe going on. You feel the

synergy, you know? You demonstrate the language, you demo a game together, those things are really important, really fun, and it really helps the kids learn.

The "synergy" this participant refers to perhaps best describes what the teachers in this study find valuable about team teaching. Several participants described a practical element to this dynamic, noting that it was useful to have another teacher in the room to help remember things or handle classroom materials. In the above excerpt, P4 suggested, as did others, that such teacher interaction was beneficial for the students. In this vein, P1 remarked:

> … sometimes when I ask the JT[E] about certain things that are not like, "Oh, you didn't forget...? Where's this...?" and they respond to me in English, they [the students] think we are just talking to each other. They can see we are communicating in the language we try and teach.

In summary, it was not a clear breakdown and allotment of responsibilities that some participants found most valuable, but rather it was whether the teaching partnership provided mutual support and the opportunity to interact with their counterparts in front of their students: the synergy dynamic. Despite the tendency for participants to assign JTEs the role of translator and disciplinarian, this may simply reflect that the one constant among teachers is the JTEs' fluency in the students' L1; ergo, it might simply be an unavoidable responsibility on their behalf.

The dynamic presented here provides a unique perspective that differs from the conventional approach to teacher roles. Rather than the teachers representing two exclusive models, with the JTE acting as an example of a successful L2 learner and the FTE acting as a model for fluent English communication, it is the act of the two successfully and positively communicating and negotiating meaning that provides the most beneficial model for the students.

Relating this to Murphey (1998), observing a "near-peer role model" (the JTE) successfully communicating and negotiating with a foreign English speaker may be exceptionally motivating for students in this context.

This sentiment was reflected in the participants' complaints; rather than describing specific role failures, participants were likely to report actions or behaviours that risk jeopardising this dynamic. Both P5 and P6 noted a lack of consistency between counterparts, potentially undermining the dynamic in these instances. Unlike the FTEs featured in the literature, participants did not report experiencing confusion or obscurity when it came to the matter of individual responsibility and who should act as lead. Again, participants tended to emphasise the personal-individual contribution to the team dynamic. As P2 put it:

> I think [our institution's] way of giving roles, it's very clear. To be honest, for me it's just a matter of how you deal with your workmates, so it boils down to each [other's] attitudes, you know, if you would fit, if they would fit with me or not, then both of us must make an adjustment so just we can do our job.

Quantitative data suggest that the barriers to achieving this synergy dynamic are a) a lack of non-teaching time available for collaboration, b) a lack of transparency on the part of the JTEs, c) the preoccupation of JTEs with non-teaching duties, and finally, d) personal differences. This is because these examples appear to directly impact both trust and rapport, elements that are integral to the development and maintenance of this dynamic.

Despite the promise of this dynamic, some participants noted that it was trust built on rapport and reputation for being a reliable FTE that led to some JTEs becoming disengaged from the partnership; trust and rapport ironically broke the dynamic rather than fortify it. As P4 reported:

> … the Japanese teachers, just in my case, they trust my judgement. And I think that's

one of the reasons why some of those teachers just go off and do whatever they do because they trust me. But that's not what their job is, their job is not to just let the foreign teacher do the lesson and they can do whatever they want. That's not what team teaching is.

P5 made mention of the same phenomenon. When JTEs become disengaged from the lesson they risk missing opportunities for dynamic support such as L1 intervention or operating classroom equipment, and this was a common source of complaint for the participants. In mainstream contexts, FTE hiring practices appear to be designed in such a way as to guarantee an intake of young, untrained, and inexperienced teachers who also possibly lack broader Japanese cultural and linguistic knowledge (Miyazato, 2009, pp. 41–42). This suggests that FTEs are more at risk of being pushed to the periphery of classroom involvement. However, Miyazato (2009) suggests that the FTE's language ability might trump the JTE's understanding of student language and culture, allowing the FTE to exert greater control over the team-teaching dynamic. In addition, it follows that FTEs with longer residency and institutional tenure, or some Japanese language ability may further upset this balance, as these traits effectively grant them access to JTE-typical roles. This might offer an alternative explanation for the participants' tendency to remark on JTE periphery involvement, although this contradicts the results recorded in Table 1, as the participants generally regarded JTEs as possessing a broader skill set. Another explanation may be the lack of time available for collaboration as reported in Table 2. In time-sensitive situations where teachers are under pressure to perform, without prior rehearsal or discussion, it seems that some teachers find it difficult to maintain active involvement, and the deciding factor may be their experience or confidence.

Conclusion

Team teachers in mainstream contexts appear chiefly concerned with a lack of clarity over teacher roles as well as issues encountered when attempting to negotiate their roles in practice. However, this study has shown that team teachers in an *eikaiwa* context tended to emphasise interpersonal qualities and behaviours that reinforce or damage a synergistic teamwork dynamic. In doing so, participants presented an alternate perspective on team teaching that challenges the conventional wisdom regarding the assignment of teacher roles. Despite the emergent preference for more dynamic roles, participants generally considered translation and classroom control to be a JTE default responsibility, something that reflects research findings conducted in mainstream contexts. However, we suggest that this does not necessarily contradict the alternative dynamic presented here, given that the one constant in typical team-teaching arrangements is the JTE's Japanese fluency and familiarity with cultural standards. Such traits might reasonably predispose JTEs towards assuming primary responsibility over these roles. Participants noted a phenomenon where too much positive rapport appeared to disincentivise JTE involvement. This phenomenon might be in part due to power imbalances favouring the FTE and/or to the reported lack of time available for collaboration. While generally holding positive perspectives towards team teaching, participants did question whether the JTE provided a net benefit by acting as an interface between students and FTEs. On reflection, we do acknowledge past instances of classroom communication between FTEs and JTEs, including ourselves, that demonstrated positive models of successful L2 learning on the part of the JTEs, which might in turn provide a significant source of motivation for the students. We conclude that more opportunities for team building as well as more time for collaborative lesson planning are key enabling features for fostering this alternative dynamic.

The insights gained from this small convenience sample, while not aspiring to generalisation, nonetheless present researchers with a unique perspective for approaching the topic of team teaching. Importantly, this study also provides critical insights into seldom represented *eikaiwa* contexts. Further research involving a larger sample size spanning multiple institutions, as well as input from a sample of JTEs, is required to provide a more complete picture of the benefits and challenges of team teaching within the context of *eikaiwa* classes for young learners. Finally, it is worth acknowledging that the participants' unique perspectives may reflect their relatively high average length of tenure; they have had the time to adapt their practice and assume dynamic roles that respond to the unique particularities of their context. While it is understandable that less practised teachers may desire or even benefit from more clearly defined roles, we have considered challenges to the current conventional reasoning behind teacher roles for FTEs and JTEs. The synergistic dynamic and the participants' responses promise a more give-and-take type relationship that we suggest is favourable for lowering conflict over roles and authority. Therefore, considering the suggested correlation between length of tenure and the development of a synergistic approach, one final conclusion is that encouraging a greater length of tenure amongst team teachers ought to be a concern for institutions interested in the stability that such a dynamic might promise, and as such, institutions should consider what incentives they can provide to inspire teachers to commit to longer terms.

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Appendix

Selected Questions from the Online Survey

1. What abilities would you use to describe foreign teachers in general? Select all that you think apply.
    (a) English fluency
    (b) Native English accent
    (c) Understand foreign culture
    (d) Understand the English language
    (e) Able to act as a model for English conversation
    (f) Japanese fluency
    (g) Understand Japanese culture
    (h) Understand what it is like to learn a second language
    (i) Able to understand and connect with students

       (j) Able to manage the classroom

2. What abilities would you use to describe Japanese teachers in general? Select all that you think apply.
       (a) English fluency
       (b) Native English accent
       (c) Understand foreign culture
       (d) Understand English language
       (e) Able to act as a model for English conversation
       (f) Japanese fluency
       (g) Understand Japanese culture
       (h) Understand what it is like to learn a second language
       (i) Able to understand and connect with students
       (j) Able to manage the classroom

3. How much do you agree with the following statement: The Japanese teacher's main role is to translate/explain grammar and manage the classroom while the foreign teachers' main role is to act as a model for English dialogue and native fluency, as well as act as an 'ambassador' for foreign culture.
       (a) Strongly disagree
       (b) Disagree
       (c) Neutral
       (d) Agree
       (e) Strongly agree

4. Who should be the 'leader' during team taught lessons?
       (a) The foreign teacher
       (b) The Japanese teacher
       (c) It depends on the teachers involved
       (d) No one should be the leader, because both teachers are equals

5. Who should have the main responsibility for lesson planning and the final say on lesson content?
       (a) The Japanese teacher
       (b) The foreign teacher
       (c) Both should share the responsibility
       (d) It depends on the teachers involved

6. What problems have you faced with Japanese teachers? Select all that apply.
       (a) JTEs rarely talk to you
       (b) JTEs don't understand English
       (c) JTEs rarely speak English
       (d) JTEs don't respect your ideas
       (e) JTEs don't let you participate in lesson planning
       (f) JTEs expect me to plan the entire lesson
       (g) JTEs spend most of their time on non-teaching duties
       (h) JTEs won't let you lead the lesson
       (i) JTEs don't confront you directly when they have a problem with you or your lessons

(j) JTEs won't translate what you want them to say effectively
(k) JTEs don't manage the classroom and enact discipline
(l) There isn't enough time to discuss teaching and professional matters
(m) N/A

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"What About Teachers?": A Duoethnographic Exploration of ADHD in ELT

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The prevalence of ADHD in the general population is demographically significant. However, in the language education literature attention is given only to learners with the condition, overlooking teachers. We consider how working and living with ADHD has affected our teacher identities and professional practice, from entry into the TEFL profession to the present. Using duoethnography, entailing critical dialogue between the authors -- a university English instructor in Japan, formerly working as a freelance business English instructor, and a university English instructor and teacher trainer -- questions are raised about the visibility of ADHD among English language teachers. The manifestations of ADHD in professional learning, particularly attention-related factors in informal observation and the multi-directional friction between teachers and stakeholders are discussed. The interplay between teaching and ADHD is explored, and the authors hope that more attention is given to the condition, particularly with regard to teachers living and working with ADHD.

Keywords: ADHD, duoethnography, ELT, teacher cognition, TEFL

There is a burgeoning literature on language teacher psychology focusing on language teachers as people with emotions and complex mental states (Mercer & Kostoulas, 2018; Gkonou et al., 2020; Morris & King, 2018). That is, teachers experience emotions and can, in turn, affect and be affected by the emotions and actions of others, mainly students but also other stakeholders such as administrators and managers. This development in the literature is a welcome one because there is acknowledgement that teachers' mental states matter in the language teaching ecosystem. Prior to this, much of the work on language teachers' beliefs related to skills teaching (Borg, 2015), and a focus on the social construction of teacher identities (Pajares, 1992). All of these areas of research are necessary yet the literature still has considerable gaps. The most obvious to us is that language teachers are assumed to be neurotypical by default.

Neurotypical is a term used to define normative neurological characteristics and conditions, with any characteristics not conforming to such norms being neurodivergent. Neurodivergent conditions include attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), autism, and dyslexia, among others. Such conditions can affect the executive function, or the will to complete certain tasks, or the ability to process and/or remember information easily. In language teaching, where there are large numbers of interactions even within one lesson, this can be problematic unless coping strategies can be found.

Despite work on neurodiversity in academia (e.g. Smagorinsky, 2011; Brown & Leigh, 2018, 2020; Green et al., 2020), neurodivergence or chronic neurological conditions are almost invisible in the literature on language teacher psychology. One exception to this is Gregersen,

MacIntyre and Macmillan (2020), which examined a language teacher with depression. As language teachers with ADHD, we do not see ourselves represented in the literature. We see our teacher identities represented only in literature that reports upon what is done; we do not see the crossover between the personal and the professional addressed for us and this leaves us as part of a potentially large group of unrepresented teachers. The rationale behind researching ADHD among teachers is to explore the potential constraints and challenges faced by a potentially large proportion of the language teaching community. While we both currently work in the university context, we have diverse experiences within ELT: Marc has worked in Japan as an *eikaiwa* instructor, as a business English teacher, and at junior and senior high schools; Matthew has worked in various EFL and ESL contexts around Asia as an instructor and teacher trainer, and has experience in ESOL and as a teacher trainer in the United States. While our experiences are important in our interpretations thereof, we expect that our work will resonate with many working teachers in various settings.

A lack of representation is a useful stimulus in duoethnography, where Sawyer and Norris (2013) state that questions grounded on those unrepresented "become both personally and socially resonant" (p. 1). The duoethnography method provides us with tools to examine ourselves and hold each other accountable for our beliefs, opinions and accounts of our experiences, in the hope that details can be applied to help change our professional settings for the better. In addition, duoethnography also brings about change in those writing it. Particularly for duoethnographers, "a fundamental disposition for their work is the reporting of changes in meaning throughout their life histories and during the duoethnographic process" (Norris & Sawyer, 2012, p. 19). For us, it has certainly helped to understand why we do what we do and what

we do not do in our work, and provided insights into some problematic aspects of handling our condition alongside a rewarding yet stressful vocation. Furthermore, we also seek to inform ELT professionals about their neurodivergent colleagues and how they may be able to support those they work with on a regular basis.

We hope to raise awareness of a neurological condition that affects an estimated 7.1% of the population (Thomas et al., 2015). We posit that it is potentially higher among teachers in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), and this term is specifically used because it tends to be applied to sojourning teachers, (Slagowski, 2014) due to the ADHD tendency to seek out novel situations (Barkley & Benton, 2011). Travelling to a new country, starting a new job, and possibly even dealing with a new language, are novel to an extreme level. Thus it is plausible that ADHD is prevalent in TEFL at a higher rate than the general population. While ADHD is not unknown in language teaching, all of the literature of which we are aware focuses upon students or language learners for the benefit of practitioners. Additionally, findings in interview-based research provides evidence that most teachers (Yphantides, 2021) and teacher educators (Cabaroğlu & Tohma, 2021) have an inadequate skill set in dealing with or understanding ADHD. By acknowledging and providing some minimal representation for teachers we hope to begin a discussion in which others will participate, and provide information on challenges that teachers with ADHD may face.

ADHD

Despite the name attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, ADHD is not simply one type of neurological developmental condition, but rather it consists of three variations: primarily hyperactive, primarily inattentive, and combined. The stereotype of the condition is that of the hyperactive male child, who is unable to control his own

behaviour. However, in adults, hyperactivity may manifest as fidgeting with items, such as pens or keys, or as a general feeling of restlessness, and thus go unnoticed. Inattention, or distraction, can manifest as problems in thinking (Barkley & Benton, 2011, p. 69). where the ability to focus on anything may be difficult, and this occurs frequently enough to cause disruptions to one's life. It may also be an inability to regulate attention, which results in difficulties with task-switching or giving attention to stimuli outside of one's current activities, owing to a state of hyperfocus (see Ashinoff & Abu-Akel, 2021), on the current task, creating an appearance of single-mindedness that often occurs when the individual is engaged in activities which they perceive as fun, interesting, or important.

There may be preconceptions about what ADHD is, such as the above described hyperactive male child. An additional belief can be that "we are all a bit ADHD," in which non-ADHD people describe ordinary episodes of forgetfulness or distraction. Unfortunately, ADHD is not about one-off episodes but pervasive quality of life issues. Nobody is "a bit ADHD"; there are differences in the brain, attested by brain scanning, between neurotypical and ADHD brains (Barkley & Benton, 2011. p. 110). While it may be said as a statement of support or empathy, this actually belittles the struggles that ADHD people face on a daily basis.

Research Methodology

We decided to undertake this study after becoming vocal about our struggles with ADHD on social media, and finding that many of our peers were curious but lacked knowledge about the condition. To guide our study, we began with two general research questions:

RQ1. How has ADHD affected our work as language teachers?

RQ2. How has ADHD affected our professional identities?

Our intended methodological approach required that we dig deeply into our lived experiences, emotions, and even trauma related to living as neurodivergent people in a world designed for neurotypical people. Lawrence & Lowe (2020) state that "Duoethnography is a qualitative research methodology in which two researchers utilise dialogue to juxtapose their individual life histories in order to come to new understandings of the world." (p. 1/32). In order to do this, we met on video chat, sent direct messages over social media, and wrote collaborative documents with exhaustive comments over the course of around eight months. These formats were chosen for convenience, which was a priority, because our ADHD could have caused this project to become a chore and thus something to avoid. In our discussions, we did not simply share stories , but rather we engaged one another critically in order to go deeper into the root causes of our behavior, actions, and affective reactions by building upon each other's discourse.

While the fundamental approach revolves around dialogic engagement, each duoethnography is different, with an emergent methodology (Norris & Sawyer, 2012, p. 25). However, on occasion, the duoethnographic process could be so challenging that it felt for Matthew "like staring into the sun" and for me (Marc) like a stomach-churning process wherein certain elements of my past, like alcoholism, had to be revisited. Although we sought to support one another, we also had a duty to be critical, and to dig deeply enough to provide substantial findings, yet not so deeply as to traumatise ourselves or one another. While we are both adults and can certainly provide informed consent for our own research, there is an ethical dilemma about wellbeing when addressing traumatic episodes in duoethnography, something that neither of

us anticipated at the outset of this project. We are certain of the importance of our research, due to the fact that we are unrepresented in the scholarly literature, and the ramifications of this are a blanket ignorance among those not living with the condition. While we are sure of a positive impact academically, we may have gambled with our own wellbeing, at least in the short-term.

In this article we briefly define ADHD and then examine ADHD's effects upon us as teachers and how the symptoms may manifest themselves in both positive and negative ways, by using conversational vignettes which reconstruct our inquiries in a somewhat linear fashion. While parts of the article appear to be conversational, they are not verbatim transcripts of speech, but are reconstructed for clarity. However, the article is an honest representation of our experiences, beliefs and knowledge.

Teacher Identity

In this vignette, we discuss how ADHD has affected our teacher identities with regard to the expectations and obligations society has of teachers, and the reasons that our ADHD may have resulted in our career choices.

Matthew: I remember initial confusion about what my ADHD diagnosis meant, largely because the H in ADHD (hyperactive) did not describe me at all. However, it was easy to see myself lucidly reflected in nearly every other descriptor: low frustration tolerance, weak time management skills, time blindness, poor self-esteem, and so on. The relief of recognition was profound and my school work improved immediately upon treatment. Still, I felt embarrassed and insecure, as if it might just be a cover-up for simply not being good or smart enough. This insecurity persisted and even intensified in my late twenties when I entered the teaching profession where

ADHD has always been focused on almost exclusively as a learner's disorder (e.g., Kormos, 2017). In fact, I have spent periods of several years at a time as an adult attempting to "undiagnose" myself, stop taking medication, and simply will myself to overcome ADHD. The quality and consistency of my self-care over time has been a victim of the "competing discourses" (McLeod et al., 2007, p. 626) around ADHD and it's been essentially kept in a lock-box during my entire path in ELT. How do you think ADHD may have influenced your route into TEFL and the specific career path you have followed?

Marc: The impulsivity aspect had something to do with it, but I was always attracted to TEFL because most of the positions advertised were in another country. I had almost given up on the idea of TEFL because the cost of a pre-service qualification as well as the flight was too high. When my first TEFL employer advertised a position with all training included it seemed like it was the perfect job. Since then, I have been working in education with only minor stopgap jobs in between. My ADHD has had more of an influence on my freelance teaching prior to working full-time in higher education. Freelancing suited me because the schedule was more flexible, thus amenable to my need to be constantly occupied with something. Fortunately, in my current role I have just one place of work, which reduces the cognitive overheads but still keeps me challenged enough so I never get bored.

What about your route into TEFL? I remember you telling me about volunteering at a Buddhist temple in Sri Lanka. Was this an impulsive decision?

Matthew: That was not so much an impulsive decision, though I'm no stranger to those. It was an extension of some long-running interests which

connect directly to how ADHD shaped my world. Since around the same time as my diagnosis I had an intense personal interest in Buddhism. I was a regular at local mediation centers and would attend months-long meditation retreats. These quiet but highly structured group meditation programs did wonders for my sense of cognitive control. I think it was a type of self-administered non-prescription ADHD treatment. I then majored in Buddhist philosophy in college. So, when I came across a volunteer program offering the chance to teach English to young novice monks at a monastery school in a Buddhist country for a year, I signed up. My mother had spent several years tutoring Eastern European immigrants in our house, so that was also a touchstone. Fueled by my ADHD, I had been skipping quickly from job to job. TEFL, it seemed to me, seemed to offer some built-in ADHD-compatible features: the ability to move countries, shorter-term courses and constant change, and the constant buzz of novelty generated, for example, by contact with other cultures and languages. However, because of my insecure academic history and lack of experience I did not feel justified taking a "real job" in TEFL at that initial stage. However, volunteering felt like an ethically appropriate and suitably low-pressure, high-interest match for me. This is just one example of how having ADHD has dictated my professional decision-making process.

You were diagnosed much later in life, and perhaps at a time when ADHD was a bit better understood. Have you felt self-consciousness or anxiety about the veracity of ADHD?

Marc: I went for almost 40 years thinking that I was just stupid and incapable of operating in the world, and I coped with this by drinking from my teens onward. Reliance on alcohol is a huge part of the

TEFL lifestyle in many countries (see Stainton, 2018), so it can be difficult to drink sensibly, especially if you are experiencing problems. It can also be easy to pretend that nothing is wrong and hide the drinking behind the mask of socialising. This drinking culture, combined with a lack of support, is one of TEFL's problems only addressed in research literature by Stainton (2018).

Both authors state effects of ADHD symptoms in descriptions of their identity in relation to the profession: impulsivity, lack of inhibition, a need to be occupied, and insecurity. As Matthew states, the discourse of ADHD in education implies that it affects learners but not teachers. This may be a reason that few teachers are not always open about the condition.

Impulsivity and lack of inhibition may be complex factors in ADHD. This can be seen in the influence they had upon Marc, who chose to enter an organization that provided the required training. However, Matthew felt that impulsivity did not affect his decision to enter the profession and decided to take a volunteer role as his initial step. This shows that ADHD symptoms may affect teacher identities not only in the way that they cause people to act on impulses, but also in how they can consciously react against impulses by deliberating over decisions.

Additionally, the TEFL culture of alcohol use and misuse may hide the nature of struggles with ADHD. Alcohol may even compound the problems faced in moving to a new country and dealing with a new environment, especially if teachers are undiagnosed and unaware of their condition.

Teaching Methodology & Continuing Professional Development
Methodology, the how of teaching, is affected by not only how one is taught and trained, but also by one's feelings of self-efficacy (Wyatt, 2018). Feelings of

self-efficacy may be affected in ADHD by prior experiences of mistakes, as well as an awareness of what one is knowledgeable about. In this vignette, we discuss how we have developed our beliefs regarding a personally appropriate methodology and using aspects of the Dogme approach (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009). Additionally, we consider how ADHD's effect on attention has helped us with our continuous professional development in staff rooms and schools.

> Matthew: ADHD is "not a disorder of knowing what to do, but of doing what one knows" (Barkley, 1997, p. 314). I have thought of this quote often throughout my career, especially after receiving thorough training (certificate and diploma courses, master's degrees, etc.) and yet still regularly struggling to reach both personal and professional performance goals as a teacher and teacher trainer. I have never lost that sense of being differently built. Perhaps the wide gap between knowing and doing caused by ADHD has a silver lining of sorts: it makes me aware of the value of hands-on training and point-of-performance feedback. I have, therefore, always jumped at the chance to observe and be observed, attend workshops, and engage in reflective practice activities. My ADHD has fueled an unusually intense interest in various continuing professional development (CPD) opportunities (webinars, online courses, discussions of professional issues on social media, etc.) I believe that I seek out and participate in them largely because of, not in spite of, my ADHD. If nothing else, these activities offer affirmation against the ever-present tension of self-doubt.

> Marc: I do not think self-doubt has affected my teaching, but there has been a tension between my knowledge and methodology in relation to what

employers wanted me to do. It is caused by my ADHD because I have a sense of perfectionism at work to mitigate the potential chaos caused by time blindness and mismanaged attention. I have always preferred a rough approach to lesson planning, even before I discovered Dogme (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009), and I have always reacted in the moment to what students were doing to help them progress. This was often well-received by students and employers but sometimes it was important for them that I stick to a set syllabus based on a textbook unit each week, going from front cover to back cover. However, I deviated from the syllabus according to my professional judgment. This caused conflict between me and my employers, which angered me because it conflicted with my professional identity of being the expert on language use and assessment in the classroom. In my view, my employers prioritized commercial interests before pedagogical concerns, making quality learning and intended outcomes less likely.

> Matthew: I can relate to your experiences of the multi-directional friction that can be caused by using the idiosyncratic planning approach that you describe. But what you called "rough," could we also call "real"? Certainly, in professional training experiences from CELTA onwards I was encouraged to plan classes in great detail, writing minute-by-minute procedural descriptions outlining extremely "well-scripted" lessons. Typically, this was presented as a basic professional requirement without alternative (one exception being Alexander, 2015). Producing these plans was helpful in many ways but, like most teachers, I found it virtually impossible to keep doing on the job. While this is likely true for most teachers, I cannot help but think this kind of planning is no match for the time blindness or "temporal myopia"

that is associated with ADHD (Barkley, 1997, p. 240). You mentioned conflict between you and your employers as a result of ADHD-related divergence from the syllabus. I would add another consequence: constant feelings of guilt every time ADHD prevents the level of detailed planning that I long assumed was standard.

All that said, I like to imagine there has also been some positive fallout from my chaotic efforts to organize my work as a teacher with ADHD. In a career requiring such a high degree of future-orientation (for planning) and self-regulation (for course management), I have learned to cope with and manage the many constant loose ends as I struggle to keep up. As you also mentioned, before I learned about Dogme (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009) it was never my intention to take a reactive, ad-hoc approach to planning; certainly most, if not all, of my training discouraged that! The Dogme paradigm, in stark contrast, highlighted the benefits of a radical focus on unplanned affordances and anticipating incidental teaching opportunities. Applying Dogme principles in the classroom over time and reflecting on these experiences helped me to harness my hyperfocus (Ashinoff & Abu-Akel, 2021) and react in the moment to make effective instructional decisions.

Another way my ADHD affects me is that it made me listen very intently to what other teachers talked about in the staff room just to pick up clues as to how they approached it. I kept my ears piqued for even the most off-handed comment in the staff room which might go into my mental file. I would peek over other teachers' shoulders when they were preparing lessons, scanning for evidence of their thought process heading into a lesson. For years, this was my primary technique to gain insight into how anyone could possibly keep it all under control. Perhaps employing the hyperfocus often

associated with ADHD (Ashinoff & Abu-Akel, 2021), I found colleagues' ways of thinking and knowing highly salient. Once a survival tactic for me, this intense level of attention to other teachers ended up being a resource and wellspring for me as a teacher trainer and educator later on. So this is another way in which, in my view, ADHD has played both direct and indirect roles in guiding my very career path.

Marc: I understand the need to be "always on the lookout." At the beginning of my career, I learned much more from gazing into other classroom cubicles in my language school and from staff room discussions than I did from formal training sessions provided by my employers (Jones, 2020). I had never thought about this curiosity as having anything to do with my ADHD until you mentioned it, but the distractibility inherent in the condition means that new threads of attention are taken up, even from the other side of a chatty staff room.

The need for a teaching methodology that is compatible with the reality of the workplace is not exclusive to those with ADHD but is more urgent for us. Teaching from a well-considered plan appears to be logical, but when the reality of the classroom requires reaction and response to learner output, less rigidity is likely to serve teachers better as they have space to react in the moment. This is an advantage to at least some aspects of Dogme (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009). Furthermore, informal CPD as a horizontal process with no hierarchy is important, because observing teachers and their thought processes can facilitate the spread of professional knowledge.

Assumed Prevalence of ADHD in TEFL
In this section, we discuss the potential prevalence of ADHD in TEFL and the ways that TEFL working conditions may

interact with ADHD symptoms, possibly in a way that teachers with ADHD are underprepared for, especially in the case of those travelling to an unfamiliar country. The ramifications for pre-service certificates are provided, and some problems that arise in the workplace and/or environment are considered, including access to clinical services.

Marc: Given the figures for prevalence of ADHD in the general population at 7.1% (Thomas et al., 2015), and that ADHDers are drawn to novel situations, I have wondered what proportion of the TEFL community has ADHD, particularly teachers whose careers stem from sojourning in a different country to the country they previously habitually lived in (Slagowski, 2014). Additionally, there may be dissonance between work pressures and a job that is often marketed as a de facto leisure activity. The pressures, such as dealing with different personalities, cultural misunderstandings, and unfamiliar administrative and legal processes, are difficult for anyone; however, when compounding this with overwhelm, which is a common ADHD symptom, instructors with ADHD will encounter severe difficulties if there are no adequate support systems in place to help them. As a pre-service trainer, do you get any correspondence from your trainees about how to deal with situations like this when they begin their first jobs?

Matthew: Yes, I have received many emails from initial teacher training course graduates describing anxiety and confusion during their early days in teaching positions. This is unsurprising, given their training programs may be a "basic starter pack" (Hobbs, 2013, p. 165) or even a "horrible set of compromises that more or less works in a commercial reality" (as quoted by a CELTA course tutor in Brandt, 2007, p. 163). These

emails often outline challenges with planning, teaching, and managing courses with little active support at their place of work. In my advice, I draw from my own experience of needing to proactively manage my work in similar conditions with ADHD. I have also been mindful to include discussion of overwhelm in my work in teacher training because I believe that the typical intensive four-week certificate course (e.g. CELTA, Trinity, SIT TESOL) that often initiates the careers of sojourning EFL teachers tends not to provide sufficient perspective on this aspect of the work. These courses are also extremely time constrained and rigid, and therefore very much not "ADHD-friendly." As a trainer, I simply assume that some percentage of trainee teachers have ADHD or are otherwise neurodivergent and will benefit from appropriate flexibility as well as insights and anecdotes beyond the scope of the course's core curriculum.

However, in my experience it has been extremely rare for trainee teachers to formally disclose ADHD status. The application process for the pre-service TEFL course I have worked on most includes an invitation to share any "health issues that we should be aware of." While I have not kept records of this, I cannot recall anyone reporting having ADHD until later in the course. Typically, this information has been shared with me or another trainer in a more personal capacity once trust was established. I assume many more trainees with ADHD came and went through the course without having ever shared it. Critiques of one-month teacher training courses have included issues such as promoting native speakerism, disproven "learning styles," overly conventional pedagogy, and so forth (Ferguson & Donno, 2003). I would add to that list a reticence to acknowledge, much less engage with, the

neurodiversity of teachers as a key concern.

Marc: If we assume that in the general TEFL community we have a similar prevalence of ADHD as in the general population, it means that around 7% of our colleagues have ADHD, or roughly one teacher in a school of 14. This is not a figure that lends itself to being swept under the carpet. It likely presents itself as the well-meaning teacher who is consistently late to show up for work, the one who frequently forgets which classroom they are assigned to, or the one who mislays materials and files. These behaviours can be mitigated, in my experience, by reducing the need to keep information in mind. I wonder whether these teachers get the support they need without feeling defective in some way.

At one of my former workplaces, I had conversations with other teaching staff who have ADHD, one of whom was unmedicated due to his inability to find a doctor with sufficient experience in dealing with ADHD. I had problems finding a psychiatrist to consult after my initial diagnosis and worsening of symptoms one year later. I assume that other colleagues with neurological conditions have problems accessing clinical support services, both here in Japan and across the world. Proficiency in the language of the host country plays a major part, but there may be other factors, such as cultural stigma related to neurological disorders, as well as a requirement to disclose any medical problems to visa-granting agencies and/or employers. Obviously solving these problems is difficult and likely rather expensive, but they are certainly deserving of consideration.

Matthew: Beyond medication use, many suggested treatments for managing ADHD include "externalization" of information, namely setting up reminders and cues in the physical environment (Barkley, 1997, p. 342). However, I believe the sojourning (Slagowski, 2014) and itinerant nature of TEFL work in many contexts can make this particular intervention particularly challenging. Something as simple as moving from classroom to classroom to teach lessons to different groups and lack of a proper office or desk area can preclude this. That was something I certainly experienced during the first several years of my career. Even working at a single school, you can feel like you're something of an itinerant within its walls.

Marc: That is frequently the case at language schools, where there is not often enough desk space for adequate appraisal of materials while referring to student information. In compulsory schools, I have found this less of a problem, and in my current position I am lucky enough to have my own office, with shelving, cupboard space and a couple of desks. This is conducive to lower cognitive load, because if I do not have something I need with me, it is in my office. It also gives me peace of mind that I have sufficient space to organise materials, projects, etc., and do not have to retain a lot of information in my memory and get back to it after teaching lessons.

In short, sojourning TEFL teachers may feel pressure from administrative processes in a new country as well as in the workplace, where support may be lacking. This is likely to be compounded for teachers with ADHD. The intensive pre-service certificate courses are unlikely to address these pressures because they are already full of information on planning, teaching, and basic course management. Course tutors would do well to assume the presence of neurodivergent trainees, and they should attempt to reduce

overwhelm by providing as much flexibility as possible, which would benefit all trainees and not only those with ADHD. Furthermore, a dedicated workspace provides teachers with a place to leave preparation work in progress, and thus increase focus on classroom occurrences as they happen.

Conclusion

The narrative inquiry into one another's lives and professional practices, as well as our own, has helped to bring about a deeper understanding of lives as teachers with ADHD by providing a validation that neither of us is alone in either the experiences and emotional reactions that we had to various aspects of our work. Beyond such validation, there has been a change of sorts. For Marc, it has helped him to feel more professional in his work by consolidating judgments about what it means to be an effective teacher living with ADHD. Matthew also felt that examining his life was somewhat stressful, and that he would like to take more time to consider the ramifications of how his condition and his occupation interact to affect his life. Additionally, we feel that we were able to answer the research questions listed above as follows.

RQ 1. How has ADHD affected our work as language teachers?

While working conditions affect everyone, it is clear from our inquiry that there are particular repercussions for teachers with ADHD. For example, it is difficult to externalise the things we need to remember if we are itinerant and there is no fixed desk space. It is likely that spiralling anxiety is unavoidable without access to clinical services and support in a language we understand sufficiently. These are not easy questions to answer, but they need to be asked in order that answers can be found, because they affect concentration and therefore also performance in the workplace.

Support networks across workplaces in any industry or profession are likely to be inconsistent. However, in a profession with high mobility and frequent cross-cultural work, it is particularly urgent that we support everyone in order to gain successful learning experiences for our students through a stable, supportive environment for their teachers to thrive in.

RQ 2. How has ADHD affected our professional identities?

Matthew referred above to conflicted feelings regarding medication and internalized attitudes related to societal expectations of ADHD people, and these feelings do not simply cease because we open a classroom door and enter it. To escape the negative feelings toward oneself, doing something one is passionate about can be helpful, and we are both clearly passionate about teaching, having spent so much of our lives in the profession. However, aspects of the work can exacerbate feelings of uselessness and not living up to expectations, such as paperwork issues, student evaluations, and being misunderstood by managers. While the workplace can benefit from ADHDers' passion, creativity and reactive thinking, a lack of clear communication between ADHDers and their neurotypical colleagues may result in both parties being frustrated in their efforts to do their best work.

As a final note, we wish to express that a limitation of this study is that we are both white cisgender men from countries associated with (frequently monolingual) English speakers. Thus, while we may dwell upon the negative aspects of ADHD as we have experienced them, we acknowledge our privilege and understand that while we as ADHDers are unrepresented, our privilege affords us a less punitive existence than other people from minoritised groups.

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Regular Feedback on Teachers' Journal Entries for Professional Development

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This paper explores the significance of teachers receiving regular feedback on their journal entries based on the three authors' collaborative reflections on their experiences. The practitioner, Tomohide, kept journals for two periods and received feedback from a teacher educator, Akiko, and a colleague, Yuya. Although both types of feedback were meaningful for Tomohide, he noticed that the types of feedback were different and that the two readers played different roles. Thus, we decided to analyze in detail what types of feedback were provided on the journal entries and reflect on the intentions Akiko and Yuya had with their feedback. Tomohide then reflected on the role of the feedback in his practice based on the results of the analysis and intentions of the two individuals who provided feedback. The results of the analysis showed that nine types of comments were provided. Of these, two types of comments were not made by the teacher educator, while one type of comment was not made by the colleague. According to the practitioner's reflections, the positionalities of the journal readers had different impacts on him, but at the same time, the presence of the journal readers and their encouraging comments were substantial motivations for him to keep a journal.

Keywords: reflection, journal, feedback, professional development

The purpose of this paper is to explore the significance of a Japanese high school teacher receiving regular feedback on his journal entries by comparing a teacher educator's feedback with that of a colleague. We aim to present three different perspectives on feedback on these journals, using narrative reflection to examine how the writer of the journal perceived the feedback from the two different commenters rather than following a typical research format.

The first author, Akiko, is a university teacher who has been involved in pre-service and in-service teacher education for about 16 years. Her main research interest is teacher education, and she has been interested in the role of reflection since she engaged in various types of reflection activities when earning her Master of Arts (MA) degree in teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) at an American university in her 20s. Tomohide (the third author) and Yuya (the second author) graduated from the university Akiko works for in 2012 and 2015, respectively. When they were undergraduates, they took Akiko's English

teaching methodology course in their third year. Tomohide majored in English and American literature, while Yuya majored in education. Both completed an MA in TESOL in England. Tomohide worked in a public junior high school for six years and now works in a private integrated junior and senior high school. Yuya worked for a different private integrated junior and senior high school for more than five years and then enrolled in a doctoral program in the US. Tomohide met Yuya in Akiko's study group on qualitative research methodology in 2019. Since then, Akiko has played the role of a mentor to the other two authors, and the three of us have communicated closely to facilitate our professional development.

We would first like to explain how Tomohide started to write a teacher's journal. When he visited Akiko's office at the beginning of spring semester 2016, he had a strong desire to improve his teaching. It was his first time contacting her after graduation from university. He struggled to develop his students' speaking and writing skills, especially in terms of fluency. Akiko recommended that he engage in practitioner research and write a journal regularly to support his reflections. She offered to read his journals and make comments to help him continue writing for a certain period. He was successful not only in keeping journals for two years (one year with Akiko's feedback, and the second year without her feedback) but also in improving his teaching practice.

Reflecting on Tomohide's experience (Takagi & Warabi, 2020), initially, he had had some difficulty in getting into a routine of reflection. However, as he became more comfortable with regular reflection in the process of his practitioner research, he gained a new perspective on his practice. He also improved his awareness of his teaching and students through increased dialogues with his colleagues both inside and outside the school. As a result, his cycle of reflection went smoothly, and he came to recognize the improvement of his practice and his own

growth, as he mentioned in an interview after his practitioner research was over (Takagi & Warabi, 2021).

A few years later, Tomohide decided to start keeping journals regularly again. This time, a colleague of his, Yuya, volunteered to read them and make comments. Tomohide was again successful in keeping journals for one year and improved his journaling and teaching practice as a result. Although both experiences were meaningful for Tomohide, each reader of his journal seemed to play a different role. Thus, in this article, we investigated what kinds of feedback comments were provided in the journals by the teacher educator and by the colleague. In addition, the role of feedback in Tomohide's reflection and professional development is discussed. Akiko took the lead in writing the article but collaborated with Yuya to write the results section. Tomohide took responsibility for the section "Tomohide's Reflections."

Journal Writing and Feedback for Professional Development

Journals play an important role as teacher reflection tools and are widely used for professional development. According to Farrell's (2016) analysis of 166 articles on reflective practice, journals were the second most used tool after discussions. Journal entries provide a means of generating questions and hypotheses about the teaching and learning process and exploring teaching and learning experiences (Richards & Ho, 1998). The act of writing enables teachers to recognize their own knowledge, skills, and attitudes, as well as to question their own practice (Rathert & Okan, 2015).

Feedback on journal entries is also beneficial for teachers to deepen their reflections because it allows them to reflect on their practice from various perspectives and question their personal values and beliefs (Farrell, 2015). However, few studies have examined different kinds of feedback on journal entries. Krol (1996) placed teacher

educators' comments into four categories: affirming comments, nudging comments, information-giving comments, and personal comments. In another study (Todd et al., 2001), nine types of responses were identified: supporting, probing, evaluating, understanding, analyzing, suggesting, adding information, agreeing, and thanking.
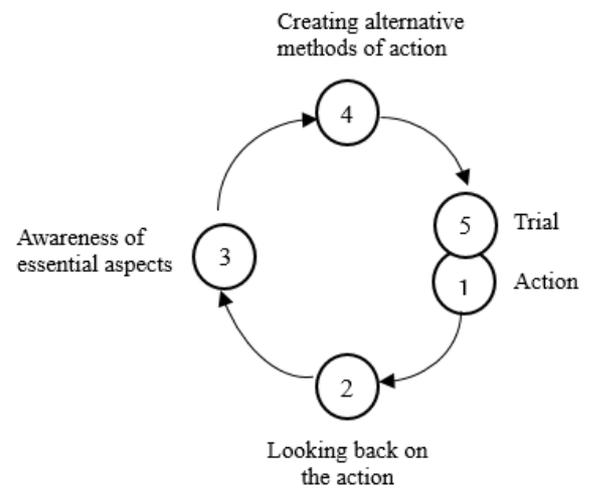
Our Journal Writing and Feedback

In the first period, Tomohide wrote journals in Japanese from April 2016 to February 2017. A total of 27 journal entries were written at a rate of one per week, excluding vacations, with each focusing on one class. Akiko received a journal entry weekly via email and returned it with comments. At that time, Tomohide intended to undertake a two-year practitioner research project to improve his teaching, so he used journals to enhance reflection on his practice and as a data sample for his research.

In the second period, Tomohide wrote 28 journal entries between April 2020 and March 2021. Yuya made comments on these entries after receiving one each week. One difference between Akiko's and Yuya's comments is that Tomohide replied to most of Yuya's comments. The main purpose of keeping journals during this period was to seek better ways to instruct students in a high school at which he had just started working. For this reason, he picked four classes (two from the first year, one from the second year, and one from the third year) to reflect on each week.

In both periods, the ALACT model (Figure 1) was used as the framework for the journal description. ALACT is named after the first letters of the framework's five phases: 1) action, 2) looking back on the action, 3) awareness of the essential aspects, 4) creating alternative methods of action, and 5) trial. The ALACT model was proposed by Korthagen et al. (2001) and is intended to help teachers change and improve through self-reflection.

Figure 1

ALACT Model (Korthagen et al., 2001, p. 44)

By reflecting on their practical experiences, specifically their concerns and anxieties about their actions in the classroom, teachers can become aware of the irrational aspects of their actions and the causes of their anxious feelings. An awareness of why particular actions occurred is important, as it leads to more options for subsequent action. Using this model, the journal is described from four perspectives: the learners' and teacher's goals, how the teaching procedure was implemented and how the students acted, what the teacher and students thought during the class, and what they felt when they spoke and acted in class.

Analysis of Comments

Comments on Tomohide's 55 journal entries over the two years were analyzed and coded to identify the categories of feedback. First, Akiko and Yuya extracted all the journal sections of entries about which comments had been made, the comments themselves, and Tomohide's responses to Yuya's comments. In Akiko's case, email messages concerning the journal entries about which comments had not been made were also extracted. Second, all the data were entered into an Excel file, and Yuya conducted trial

coding to develop preliminary categories for his feedback. The three authors then discussed and refined the names of the categories on the coding list. After Yuya's coding list was revised, Akiko used the list to analyze her data, added a new category, and refined the list with the other two authors. Finally, the three authors determined the frequency of the different categories of feedback.

In the next section, Akiko reflects on the types of comments she left and the intentions behind them based on the results of analyzing the comments. Following that, Yuya explains and reflects on his comments. After reviewing the types of comments left by Akiko and Yuya and the intentions behind them, Tomohide discusses the meaning of their feedback for him.

Feedback From a Teacher Educator (Akiko)

Table 1 shows the categories and numbers of comments Yuya and I provided. I made 62 comments on Tomohide's journal entries (56 comments made directly in the journals and six comments by email). The comments I provided were classified into six categories: giving opinions (18), encouraging (15), suggesting (11), asking for clarification of content confirmation (9), giving advice on how to write a journal (8), and asking for clarification regarding students' behaviors and changes (1).

The most frequent type of comment was "giving opinions." The following exchange shows my opinions on Tomohide's error correction assignment:

> Tomohide's statement: I will have my students work on error correction before the next writing task.
>
> Akiko's comment: It is a good idea to have students work on their own error correction tasks. Focusing on fluency and then shifting the focus to accuracy may create a good cycle of focusing on fluency and accuracy in turn. However, it is difficult to determine how much attention should be paid to accuracy, because it is natural for students to make mistakes in

the process of language acquisition when we consider their interlanguage. (8th journal entry)

Table 1

Categories and Numbers of Comments

Categories of comments	Numbers of comments	
	Akiko	Yuya
Asking for clarification of content confirmation	9	26
Asking for clarification regarding students' behavior and changes	1	22
Asking for clarification based on colleagues' teaching interests	0	13
Asking for clarification from the researcher's perspective	0	11
Giving opinions	18	38
Encouraging	15	18
Suggesting	11	7
Self-disclosing	0	15
Giving advice on how to write a journal	8	0
Total	62	150

Three out of 18 comments were opinions on research ideas related to Tomohide's practice, as the following excerpt shows:

> Tomohide's statement: The amount of writing students did in five minutes doubled in both sentences and words.
>
> Akiko's comment: It will be interesting to follow how the quantity and quality of writing changes, although you can work on this topic next year. (19th journal entry)

The second most frequently made group of comments was from the "encouraging" category. For the second,

fourth, fifth, tenth, nineteenth, and twenty-first journal entries, comments were made via email. They were all comments to encourage Tomohide to continue to write a journal, as seen in the following excerpt: "You wrote the journal in detail. Is this not a burden for you? I hope that you continue without putting too much burden on yourself. I have included a brief comment. Keep up the good work" (e-mail message for the 5th journal entry).

At a later stage, I encouraged Tomohide again by praising his continued reflection on his practice: "You are properly able to verbalize and engage in your reflections using the written word. However, some teachers do not seem to be good at such things. Time flies, and you have already written 21 journal entries" (21st journal entry).

The third type of comment was "suggesting." Nine comments included my teaching ideas. In contrast, three comments were suggestions for conducting a questionnaire to elicit students' thoughts:

> Tomohide's statement: He doesn't make any effort. Maybe the topic was of no interest to him.
>
> Akiko's comment: You might ask in a questionnaire about the impact of topic interest on students' motivation to write. (22nd journal entry)

I made nine comments "asking for clarification of content confirmation." The purpose of this type of comment was to clarify the content and facts of Tomohide's practice because some statements were unclear to me. Only one comment was made to ask for clarification regarding students' behavior and changes.

Finally, I made eight comments for the purpose of "giving advice on how to write a journal." For example, in the first journal entry, I made the following comment in the section of "students' thoughts":

It would be better to describe the basis for your judgment. Also, you have written collectively about all the students' thoughts, but do they all think the same way? Are there any student behaviors or thoughts that are of particular concern? (1st journal entry)

When I reflect on my feedback to Tomohide, I tended to take the perspective of a teacher educator consciously and unconsciously. For example, when I gave opinions about error correction, as seen in the above excerpt, I had a second language acquisition theory in mind, and tried to encourage Tomohide to connect theory and his practice. Additionally, the three comments related to research ideas indicate that I gave him some ideas for how he could conduct practitioner research.

At the same time, I always cared about encouraging him to keep writing journal entries at his own pace because keeping a journal is not an easy task for a busy teacher. As a teacher educator, I believed that keeping a journal would help him to reflect on his practice constantly for professional development based on the literature I have read and my own experience with having in-service teachers keep a journal. I also thought that journal entries could be utilized as data later for his research. Giving advice on how to write a journal also shows that I positioned myself as a teacher educator. I intended to deepen his reflections on his practice and make him aware of a new perspective on his students, which could lead to changes in his practice. Asking for clarification of content confirmation also reflects my position as a teacher educator because my intention was to have his tacit knowledge made more explicit to the reader of the journal, which would also help deepen his reflections.

On the other hand, my position as a teacher educator rather than a practitioner made me hesitate to offer practical teaching ideas as suggestions on his practice, as I have little experience with teaching secondary students. Moreover, I knew that

Tomohide constantly made a great effort to improve his teaching and try out various ideas he obtained from books or workshops he attended.

Feedback From a Colleague (Yuya)

In comparison with Akiko, I offered 150 comments on Tomohide's journal entries. The comments were categorized into eight types: giving opinions (38), asking for clarification of content confirmation (26), asking for clarification regarding students' behavior and changes (22), encouraging (18), self-disclosing (15), asking for clarification based on colleagues' teaching interests (13), asking for clarification from the researcher's perspective (11), and suggesting (7).

As with Akiko, the type of comments I made the most fell under "giving opinions." I offered my impressions of and ideas about Tomohide's journals, such as, "I hope that your students' sense of achievement will strengthen their learning motivation" (8th journal entry).

Regarding the second most frequent category of comments, "asking for clarification of content confirmation," Tomohide was asked to describe his statements in his journal entries in more detail to make them clear. This helped me more deeply comprehend Tomohide's teaching practice. One representative example of this can be seen in the following extract: "How often do you change topics when you implement a presentation task?" (28th journal entry)

I also left 22 comments "asking for clarification regarding students' behavior and changes." As one example of this type, Tomohide implemented the activity of having his students describe their reasoning when they answered true or false questions from the textbook over two weeks. I asked about any change in Tomohide's students in class: "Is there any change in your students' behavior toward the activity compared with that of last week?" (4th journal entry)

The fourth category of comments was "encouraging." When Tomohide changed the format of his journal to make it more understandable, I applauded him and thanked him for his revision: "The new style of your journal is more comprehensible than before. Thank you for revising the format" (11th journal entry).

Fifteen of my comments were "self-disclosing." I shared my experiences or thoughts as a teacher concerning English teaching. The following excerpt illustrates an attempt to share my teaching experience with having the students ask questions:

> Tomohide's statement: I let my students ask a question related to a friend's presentation and write it on a worksheet. I also had them evaluate other peers' presentations.
>
> My comment: As you did during the presentation task, I also asked my students to ask questions concerning topics in their news journals. I found that many of them were not good at questioning. (15th journal entry)

"Asking for clarification based on colleagues' teaching interests" was the sixth category of feedback, as I asked Tomohide to explain the teaching activities in which I was interested. For instance, Tomohide provided three criteria, including linking phonetics, to describe a test of reading aloud. As I had an interest in how I should teach the rules of linking sounds, I asked the following question: "Have you taught the rules of linking sounds and reduction since the first semester?" (10th journal entry)

The seventh category of comment was "asking for clarification from the researcher's perspective." I urged him to clarify things that may be related to his beliefs and perceptions as a teacher. In the following exchange, I asked Tomohide to clarify the purpose of a presentation:

> Tomohide's statement: I placed importance on the idea that the purpose of the presentation was to let the audience take action.

My comment: What made you recognize this purpose of the presentation?

Tomohide's reply: I might have been influenced by TED talks. Likewise, I saw the textbook that I used in class stating the importance of influencing others through presentations. (7th journal entry)

Finally, I made seven "suggesting" comments, which offered practical suggestions on Tomohide's reflections and English teaching based on my teaching experience: "It may be better to encourage your students to think profoundly about environmental problems and plastic garbage, as the lesson topic is fascinating" (3rd journal entry).

Reflecting on my comments to Tomohide, some of the types of feedback chosen could have been significantly influenced by my experience as an English teacher in Japan. For instance, I asked Tomohide to particularly elaborate on his students' behaviors and changes during his classes. Based on my teaching experience, I was convinced that students' behaviors and changes can be an effective measure for determining whether teaching works well because some students are often honest about evaluating their classes by adopting a positive or negative attitude in class. My teaching experience also led me to affirm and praise his reflections and taught me to encourage Tomohide to write journal entries regularly. I was impressed by Tomohide's busy life as an English teacher in Japan, as I had also experienced a teacher's workload within a Japanese secondary school. Thus, I wanted to motivate him to continue keeping a journal by offering positive comments on his teaching and ideas. Furthermore, I used the "self-disclosing" type of feedback to demonstrate empathy for his reflections on or concern about my English teaching.

Unlike Akiko, whose role was being a teacher educator, I also offered some kinds of feedback based on my teaching and academic interests. One clear example of this

can be seen when I asked for clarification based on my teaching interests. While my priority in this exchange with Tomohide about his journal was to help him reflect on his teaching, I also tried to incorporate some of Tomohide's teaching activities that appealed to me into my own classes. Regarding the type of feedback "asking for clarification from the researcher's perspective," I attempted to explore Tomohide's teaching beliefs and cognition by making comments on his teaching and reflection. This step was influenced by my research interest in teachers' professional development. Through dialogic interaction with Tomohide, I was able to identify factors, such as TED talks, that might have led him to think about listeners when his students made presentations.

Tomohide's Reflections on Feedback from a Teacher Educator and His Colleague

One of the main points in this section is how the feedback from Akiko and Yuya benefited me in different ways. The feedback received from Akiko was mainly based on a theoretical framework, and I began to reflect on my English classes in light of the ALACT model. Through the process of writing a journal, I realized that I only had a teacher's perspective on my classes. Reflective opportunities based on the ALACT model allowed me to consider not only my goals as a teacher but also the students' goals, so I began to observe how the students acted in response to the activities I introduced in class and imagine what the students were thinking and feeling while they were doing the activities. I realized that I had not been able to reflect on these experiences from the students' point of view and had only been able to see the students' superficial aspects. On the other hand, feedback from Yuya benefited me in practical ways. I was inspired by Yuya's self-disclosures, which Akiko did not provide: "In my case of conducting debate class, I let the audience evaluate the debate team's performance" (Yuya's

feedback, 14th journal entry). Yuya's self-disclosure allowed me to get a glimpse of the English classes at another school, which would help us form a mutually stimulating relationship.

Akiko and Yuya provided many comments "asking for clarification of content confirmation," which implied that a newly introduced activity that was not well explained in the journals had probably not been well explained to the students. The opportunity to explain new activities to Akiko and Yuya might have been important in improving the explanations given to my classes. They also provided multiple "encouraging" comments. It may seem difficult to find something problematic to reflect on during the class and to deal with problems, but I was able to continue writing journals and improving my teaching practices thanks to the encouragement from Akiko and Yuya. It is questionable whether I could have continued writing the journal if I had been writing it alone, but the presence of the journal readers energized me to carry on.

The feedback from Akiko and Yuya contributed to my keeping journals to be aware of the essential aspects emphasized by the ALACT model. As I wrote a journal on students' actions and inferred their thoughts and feelings, I began to come up with ideas for how to improve my teaching and what to do next. Akiko suggested that I write explicitly what I would do next time in my journal: "What will you do next to help students understand what they don't understand in this class?" (Akiko's feedback, 2nd journal entry)

Another main point in this section is how I acted on feedback from Akiko and Yuya in terms of journals and classroom practices. When Akiko gave me advice and suggestions on how to write a journal, I tried to incorporate them into my journals as much as possible: "Overall, there are not enough descriptions of the classroom. Describe it in more detail. Don't use too many bullet points, include evidence, and try to describe

the classroom in a vivid way" (Akiko's feedback, 1st journal entry). Since this was my first time writing a journal, I did not know what was appropriate to include. Thus, I added items (e.g., self-evaluations of my teaching practices based on students' reactions) to the journal accordingly. In Yuya's case, although I used his suggestions merely for reference purposes, I began to add the expression "New!" to make it easier for the journal reader, as a colleague, to understand which items were newly introduced. Yuya appreciated this: "The new style of your journal is more comprehensible than before. Thank you for revising the format" (Yuya's feedback, 11th journal entry). Yuya's positive reactions gave me the energy to continue enriching journal content and implementing new teaching ideas in my classes.

As shown above, how the journals were written was affected by the implicit audience of a teacher educator (Akiko) and colleague (Yuya). In fact, I felt pressure when I wrote journal entries for Akiko. I used much of my time writing, even on weekends, and I managed to submit the journal each Monday. I struggled with integrating the theoretical framework into my teaching practices. This struggle would be essential for my teacher development, as it helped me observe my teaching more carefully. In Yuya's case, I was able to write and send the journal early Monday mornings without taking much time. Since I had already established a journal format and knew what to write from my previous journaling experience, I enjoyed writing the journal entries. The enjoyment came from sharing teaching practices, which led to forming an equal and stimulating relationship.

Concluding Remarks

The analysis of the comments on Tomohide's journal entries and his reflections on these comments show that the different positionalities of Akiko and Yuya had a great influence on the types of comments left and intentions behind them. At the same time,

Tomohide's reflection revealed how he perceived the different types of feedback and the emotions he experienced.

Despite the different positionalities, both Akiko and Yuya respected Tomohide's endeavor to improve his practice and tried to encourage him to continue his journal writing. This helped Tomohide stay motivated to keep journals. The ALACT model seemed to work more effectively with the presence of a reader who offered feedback because Tomohide was able to verbalize his tacit knowledge and become aware of the essential aspects he needed to address in his teaching based on this model and the feedback he received.

Akiko always positioned herself as a teacher educator. She was concerned about how Tomohide could use the journal as a tool for his practitioner research and to reflect on his practice more deeply while keeping the theoretical aspects in mind. The relationships with Akiko and Tomohide were not equal, so Tomohide felt pressure to follow Akiko's suggestions and did not always enjoy writing the journal. Despite Tomohide's struggles in those moments, he reflected on his experience as an essential part of his teacher development. He was able to integrate a theoretical framework into his practice, which helped him observe his practice more deeply. One thing we need to remember is that feedback from a teacher educator can sometimes cause too much pressure or be a burden for practitioners, so teacher educators need to be careful not to impose their beliefs or opinions on practitioners.

In contrast, Yuya's position as a colleague enabled Tomohide to feel relaxed and enjoy writing a journal and reading comments. However, we also believe that the exchange of the journals might have been smooth from the beginning because

Tomohide had already established the format and routine of the journal after his existing experience of sharing a journal with Akiko. Some of Yuya's comments were influenced by his teaching experience as well as his practical and academic interests. He particularly focused on Tomohide's students' behaviors and changes, which were not referred to often in Akiko's feedback. Observing students' actions and inferring their thoughts and feelings is an essential aspect of the ALACT model. Tomohide received different perspectives and further questions about the students' thoughts, actions, and feelings. This stimulated his thoughts and contributed to deeper reflection. Although Yuya offered many other opinions and some suggestions about Tomohide's practice, Tomohide did not feel as pressured to use them, and as such he incorporated them selectively to enhance his teaching.

One notable benefit of feedback from a colleague is that practitioners can be stimulated by self-disclosing types of comments and feel that they are engaging in mutual professional development in an equal relationship.

This study revealed that the backgrounds, experiences, and positions of the two commentators explicitly or implicitly influenced their feedback and how it was perceived and adopted by the journal author. Since different roles of commentators thus have different benefits for practitioners, teachers need to be aware of journal readers' different positionalities and interests and proactively make use of their feedback for further reflection. In addition, if possible, getting feedback from different people in different positions can promote deeper reflection and, in turn, lead to teachers' professional development.

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Revisiting and Extending Duoethnographies: Reflections on Research, Development, and Practice

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Duoethnography is an innovative and accessible research method that is rapidly gaining popularity and recognition in the social sciences, as well as within applied linguistics and English Language Teaching (ELT). In this paper, we introduce the research method, clearly outline the steps needed to conduct a duoethnography, and offer suggestions to how it may be used in the ELT field: as a research methodology, as a form of professional development, and as pedagogical practice. The introduction and overview are followed by critical reflections by three sets of duoethnographers as they revisit and extend previous duoethnography projects in order to highlight how engaging in a duoethnography helped them to learn as a researcher, grow as professionals, and improve classroom practice, respectively. As well as reinforcing the idea that published research represents only one step on an intellectual and professional continuum, we hope that the paper inspires readers to engage in their own duoethnographic projects to match their personal interests, needs and circumstances.

Keywords: duoethnography, eikaiwa, special educational needs, reflective practice, project-based learning

Duoethnography is an emerging research methodology that has been gaining traction in the social sciences over the last several years. Pioneered by Joe Norris and Richard Sawyer in the US, duoethnography has now entered the field of English language teaching (ELT) and has found a home with a small community of ELT researchers in Japan. In this paper we introduce the methodology of duoethnography and reflect on its varied uses to date in ELT, as showcased in the recent book Duoethnography in English Language Teaching: Research, Reflection, and Classroom Application (Lowe & Lawrence, 2020).

In basic terms, duoethnography has been defined as "a collaborative research methodology in which two or more researchers of difference juxtapose their life histories to provide multiple understandings of the world" (Norris & Sawyer, 2012, p. 9). Rooted in poststructuralism and social justice, duoethnography embraces the subjectivity of ethnographic research by making the researcher the site (but, crucially, not the subject) of the research. And by juxtaposing life histories, researchers working collaboratively are encouraged to examine taken for granted truths and disrupt these grand narratives (Sawyer & Norris, 2013).

Duoethnographies capture a moment in the process of research or teacher development, but those processes

themselves do not end with the published work. These are ongoing, iterative processes of reflection, of which the duoethnography represents only one juncture, at one particular moment in time. As such, in this paper, we return to some of the duoethnographies published in Lowe & Lawrence (2020), and extend these published works by adding reflective commentaries from the vantage point of the present.

It is not necessary for readers to be familiar with the previously published duoethnographies mentioned here in order to benefit from the insights of this paper. The main purpose of the present paper is to highlight the affordances that we received from carrying out duoethnographies and to show how it affected our subsequent teaching and research practices. This is done with a view to encouraging readers to engage in their own duoethnographic projects, whether that be for research, professional development, or as a form of pedagogical practice.

How to Conduct a Duoethnography

As with any research project, researchers first decide on a topic to investigate. They then engage in multiple recorded discussions (these can be spoken conversations or written dialogic correspondences, for example, online messaging) using their own life histories to examine the research topic under investigation. This data is then transcribed (if the dialogue was carried out as written correspondence, of course this step is not necessary) and the researchers look for salient themes that emerge from the data. Once themes have been identified and agreed upon, transcript extracts are then chosen and reconstructed as 'play scripts' into readable and accessible dialogues. These data dialogues form the heart of the duoethnography. The final report can take many forms. For example, researchers may choose to write a traditional research paper with a literature review, dialogues as data,

and discussion and findings. Alternatively, researchers may choose to present the entire report as a dialogue, weaving in references to the literature as a natural part of the dialogue.

Uses of Duoethnography

Duoethnography was originally conceived of as a form of qualitative research, which first saw use in education, health, and related areas of social science (see Norris, Sawyer, & Lund, 2012). While it has primarily continued to be used in this way, its range of application has diversified in recent years. Alongside its use in research, duoethnography has also been employed as a form of reflective practice in education, in which two (or more) teachers compare and contrast their teaching experiences in order to gain insights from one another and critically question their practices (see Sawyer & Norris, 2016; Norris & Sawyer, 2016). Another way duoethnography has been used recently is as an activity in foreign language teaching. By getting students to engage in creating a duoethnography, teachers have sought to develop speaking, listening, writing, and reading skills, and also to encourage positive group dynamics and greater interpersonal communication in the classroom (see Part 3 of Lowe & Lawrence, 2020).

Overview of The Paper

The authors of this paper were all recently involved in an edited book project in which these three uses of duoethnography were explored (Lowe & Lawrence, 2020). This paper was inspired by a forum the authors convened at a conference in 2020 (see the Appendix for links to the recordings of these), and with some distance now between ourselves and the project, we would like to use this space to reflect on our experiences of engaging in duoethnographies as researchers, reflective practitioners, and language educators. In the first section, Daniel Hooper will provide his personal

reflections on conducting a duoethnography with two Japanese colleagues into perceptions and experiences working in *eikaiwa* (conversation schools). In the second section, Matthew W. Turner and Nick Kasparek will reflect on their discussions surrounding teaching students with special educational needs, and how their duoethnography was used as a basis for stimulating further exploration. In the final section, Robert J. Lowe and Luke Lawrence will reflect, through dialogue, on their experiences of using duoethnography with their students. One key component of duoethnography is the retention of the researchers' voice in the finished paper. To this end, the reader may notice a shift in writing and presentation style between sections. This is left intentionally so and reflects the individuality of each duoethnography project.

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Part 1:
Different, Not Better: Reflections on a
Research Duoethnography
Daniel Hooper

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Eikaiwa (private English conversation) schools are known in the field of Japanese ELT and the broader expat community in Japan as a ubiquitous but often stigmatized entry-level teaching context (Hooper & Hashimoto, 2020). In a trioethnography with Momoko Oka and Aya Yamazawa, two Japanese eikaiwa teachers, I was provided the chance to explore our different experiences of *eikaiwa* teaching and critically explore our frequently conflicting perspectives on this teaching sector (Hooper, Oka & Yamazawa, 2020). In this short reflective piece, I will describe some of the key things I learned from our trioethnography and discuss what I feel are the implications of my experience working on this project for the potential future role of duoethnography (or trioethnography!) in our field. Of course, I cannot speak for Momoko and Aya and their perspectives on our study, so the reader

must remember that this is one narrow and subjective account from one member of a three-person team and should not assume that my experiences in any way represents those of my co-researchers.

I was initially drawn to this project largely due to my pre-existing interest in research into *eikaiwa* schools and because of the valuable opportunity to hear the experiences and perspectives of Japanese *eikaiwa* teachers. In the school I was working at, Japanese staff were predominantly positioned in administrative roles with "native speakers"[1] being designated the primary teaching staff. Due in part to this institutional positioning, I and many other colleagues in our school came to internalize a sense of "us" and "them": foreign "teachers" and Japanese "administrators/salespeople," each with conflicting priorities. Therefore, discussing pedagogy in *eikaiwa* with two Japanese teachers was a fantastic opportunity for me at that time. Furthermore, as I was already actively conducting research within *eikaiwa* schools and reading a great deal of the academic literature on *eikaiwa* and related issues such as native-speakerism and the commodification of English in Japan, I saw our trioethnography as a way to explore whether or not the existing claims from research were congruent with what Momoko and Aya were experiencing in their schools.

Unearthing New Perspectives
I am unable to describe our study in detail due to word limits and the absence of my co-researchers. However, I can say that the dialogues with Momoko and Aya stimulated my questioning of two grand narratives I had previously subscribed to: 1) *eikaiwa* being a uniform context with negligible variation between schools and

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[1] The term "native speaker" is displayed in quote marks here due to my assertion that this distinction is socially constructed based on race and nationality rather than purely linguistic factors (Lowe & Kiczkowiak, 2016; Moussu & Llurda, 2008).

2) the "us" and "them" relationship between Japanese and non-Japanese staff. My eyes were opened to the broader lived experiences of other teachers who were actively negotiating a range of different affordances and constraints within their schools and doing this through the lens of their own unique personal histories. Listening to Momoko and Aya's experiences challenged not only my own personal biases formed through my narrow perspective on *eikaiwa* but also my tendency at that time to view existing research claims as unquestionable. I remember on a few occasions during our study where I would stubbornly insist that our perspectives on certain topics were not congruent with what academics (many of whom had never worked in *eikaiwa*!) had theorized. This was, I feel, in some part due to my lack of experience and confidence as a researcher. I would often assume that if someone had a paper in a high-tier journal that their perspective was unassailable and that everything I was experiencing "on the ground" could (or should) be interpreted through an established theoretical model. What our trioethnography taught me in this sense was that research should reflect experience or practice rather than the other way around. Due to this realization, what I initially thought to be one of the greatest difficulties in conducting our study—an imbalance in terms of familiarity with the relevant academic literature—was perhaps one of our greatest strengths. Momoko and Aya's desire to keep our study grounded in our actual experiences was crucial in keeping our study relevant and valuable to others in *eikaiwa*. If we had all spent the years before the study immersing ourselves in academic perspectives on *eikaiwa* and the issues surrounding it our study may have been in danger of becoming a mere parroting of extant theories with questionable value to either teaching or research spheres.

Duoethnography Bridging Research and Practice

When considering the implications of our study and the potential benefits of duoethnography for the dual spheres of teaching and research, I initially considered the accessibility of duoethnography to both researchers and readers as offering a means of legitimate peripheral participation (Lave & Wenger, 1991) for teachers in the research community. However, I soon dismissed this idea on the basis that it was flawed and chauvinistic. Why should teachers necessarily desire to gain access to this research sphere? One could, with some confidence, argue that the teaching community needs researchers far less than the other way around. Rather than teachers basing what they do in the classroom on formal research findings, pedagogic skills and knowledge generally develop out of individual experience or participation in a professional community of practice (Medgyes, 2017). That being said, from my own perspective, engaging in research while teaching has most certainly stimulated positive development in both areas. I do believe that "teacher" and "researcher" roles can be reconciled and in many cases with positive results. However, rather than considering duoethnographic research as a means of inviting teachers into the realm of the researcher, I prefer to see duoethnographies as a "boundary object" (Wenger, 1998): artifacts through which different communities may gain understanding of the interconnections between their distinct practices. Instead of, as I was guilty of in our study, framing knowledge from certain communities as more legitimate than others, I believe duoethnographies offer a means of developing researchers' understanding of and respect for teaching knowledge. Of course, I do not suggest that this is without obstacles. During a presentation that we did at a recent conference, one of the audience members asked us an important question about the realities of publishing

duoethnographies. Naturally, there is little point in creating a boundary object if we are unable to disseminate it for use by those in the field. The attitude towards innovative research methodologies such as duoethnography by many journals is indeed a cause for concern and may at times result in the accessibility and egalitarianism of duoethnographic research being compromised (Hooper & Iijima, 2019). That being said, the other participants in our forum agreed that the tide does indeed appear to be (slowly) turning regarding the recognition of duoethnography as "valid" research. My hope is that future duoethnographies can continue to chip away at prevalent conceptions of what constitutes legitimate knowledge in our field, thus creating new possibilities for empowerment and inter-community learning.

Part 2:
Reassembling the Puzzle: Returning to Our Duoethnography
Matthew W. Turner & Nick Kasparek

In our previous duoethnography (Kasparek & Turner, 2020), which detailed an exploration of our experiences around supporting students with disabilities (SWDs) in English language learning, we concluded that while the study captured "our thoughts, feelings and orientations in that particular period, our ideas about this complex topic have continued to develop since" (p. 130). Our current project sees us investigating this continued development by reflecting upon the data and our thinking in the earlier duoethnography as a way to spur further collaborative dialogue on the complex topic of special educational needs instruction and language teaching. Here, we look for how our orientations may have transformed. As such, we use the terms "reassemble" and "puzzle" in this project's title to demonstrate our belief that our understandings of the theme in question remain in a state of construction, discovery, and review. Although

a core theme of our shared inquiry involves the negotiation of definitions regarding inclusive education from a non-expert perspective, for clarity purposes and with respect to the limited space, our project broadly describes situations in which institutions respond to individual learner needs so that these differences do not hinder learning (Kormos, 2020). For educators working in Japanese higher education, such responses are gaining further significance on account of the 2016 implementation of the Act on the Elimination of Disability Discrimination, which has contributed to the increasing numbers of SWDs entering university (see JASSO, 2020). It is in this spirit that we continue to pursue our professional and personal learning of related issues.

New Conceptual Pieces to the Puzzle

We framed our first project as puzzling through the process of becoming teachers of SWDs, which involved finding pieces of the puzzle as much as arranging them into a coherent picture. In this next iteration of puzzling together, we found that we had yet more pieces to add, which changed how everything fit together. In particular, new concepts prompted reconfigurations, opened up new understandings, and allowed for growth in perceptions. We decided to use our part of the follow-up conference forum (see the Appendix) as the site for new dialogic inquiry to take place, in which the audience could observe the genuine unfolding of our learning in real time. In returning to our duoethnography, we take inspiration from Brown (2015) by using an earlier duoethnograhic study as a site for critical reexamination to glean further understandings. Several concepts that were raised in this new dialogue invited especially dramatic shifts.

Medical and Social Models

First, while our original chapter briefly referred to critiques of the dominant medical model of disability, it was not until this

renewed reflection that the positive concept of the social model emerged as a central component for both of us. In short, while the medical model locates a problem, deficiency, or deviation from a supposed healthy norm in individual students, the social model instead emphasizes the failure of society, of institutions, as actively disabling those who do not fit what we construct and maintain (see Hogan, 2019). In this light, a focus on diagnosing students as deserving of accommodation or not appears misplaced at best. A social model, by contrast, demands deeper changes in our own practices, institutions, and societies. In this vein, Matt reflected that although the term "difficulty" in reference to students with learning difficulties had troubled both of us from our early conversations, the concept of the social model illuminated why locating difficulties in students rather than in structures was so problematic. Similarly, Nick reflected that it is easy to revert to the medical model as a default mode of thinking in current systems, so repeated reflection on the social model becomes critical for lasting change. At the same time, we continued to question whether the medical model might still be strategically useful for prioritizing particular needs.

Misfitting

Second, the social model led us to concepts that have altered how we see the challenges of change. Garland-Thomson's (2011, 2014) concept of misfitting helped to refine our understanding of the dynamic reciprocal relationships of particular human bodies in particular environments in our shared constructed world. While this world tends to provide fitting, sustaining environments for those in the majority, we might all find ourselves "disabled" by spaces as they are currently configured, and "become disabled when what seemed to be the unremarkable and familiar bodies that we inhabit encounter an unsustaining environment" (Garland-Thomson, 2014,

Misfitting section, para. 4). Rather than an occasion for despair, though, this can become a powerful prompt for creativity toward mutual adaptation and steps toward truly universal design. As Garland-Thomson (2011) explains, "the formative experience of slamming against an unsustaining environment can unsettle our and others' occurrences of fitting" (p. 597). This became a central theme of Nick's reflections, in particular, as he repeatedly emphasized an expanding perception of misfitting and the ensuing need to be useful to more students by helping to construct more fitting spaces, or "shelter" (see Ahmed, 2019). Matthew also emphasized that all of our diversity work on disability issues must be fundamentally for students.

Accessibility

Third, and building on this idea of orientation toward students being disabled by current educational environments, we turned to the concept of accessibility. While the idea of universal design for learning (UDL), an inclusive teaching methodology (see Capp, 2017), had been a concluding orientation in our original duoethnography, we asked in this further reflection how accessibility in more intersectional terms relates to our and our institutions' responsibilities. As an example of this, Matthew spent some time discussing an ongoing personal project regarding the development of language learning materials and professional knowledge around the subject of accessible tourism. In fact, as he learned more about the tourism industry, the umbrella term "accessibility" emerged as potentially central to guiding further inquiry. It became increasingly clear that paying attention to accessibility has broad implications in multiple fields, industries, and discourses, even beyond disability-oriented themes. While this broadening seems important, we reflected again that it also seems critical to retain a special focus on accessibility in disability terms.

Reflective Summary

Our reflections introduced new concepts that have, albeit temporarily, coalesced into a more complex image of the whole. Here, we have emphasized that the social model of disability, especially conceptualized as misfitting in a particular built environment, has intensified the spotlight on accessibility for all. Yet tensions remain regarding specific strategies and focuses. Reassembling the puzzle thus remains an ongoing project, one that must remain oriented to being useful to SWDs themselves. We expect, and indeed hope, that our and others' understandings of being teachers of SWDs continue to deepen and shift as we consider the internal tensions, find new concepts that broaden our perception, and engage in further iterations of duoethnographic learning projects.

Part 3:
Reflecting on Classroom Experiments with Duoethnography
Robert J. Lowe & Luke Lawrence

In this section of the paper Robert J. Lowe and Luke Lawrence will reflect on our experiences of using duoethnography as a classroom activity with our students. The students were asked to engage in multiple recorded discussions with a partner on a particular topic. The students then listened back to and thematically coded their discussions before writing them up into fictionalised dialogues (for more details, see part 3 of Lowe & Lawrence, 2020). By encouraging our students to engage in duoethnographies, we hoped for them to develop their speaking skills through peer interaction, and also to develop their listening skills both through interaction with their discussion partner, and through listening back to their recorded discussions at home. In the writing up stage of the duoethnography, students had the chance to

develop their reading and writing skills. Additionally, the project was intended to contribute to positive group dynamics in the classroom, and help develop strong interpersonal relationships between the students through personal interaction (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003). In the dialogue that follows, we will discuss how successfully we feel our classroom experiments contributed to the linguistic and interpersonal development of our students.

Rob: I guess the first place to start is with language. In the book, we discuss some of the potential benefits that duoethnographic projects might have on language learning, and I document a few examples of students developing their language skills through peer interaction, both in the discussion and in the collaborative writing of the final piece, something that has been shown to be very effective for language teaching (Storch, 2013). Did you notice any similar development among your students?

Luke: Yeah, definitely. Actually, I hadn't paid much attention to it until I read your chapter about it, but I think it was a big part of the project. In my subsequent classes, I have thought a lot about student pairings and how to maximise this language development aspect of students carrying out a duoethnographic project. I think there are different scenarios, for example a higher level student paired with a less linguistically able one, or choosing two students of a similar level but with different strengths. I guess each type of pairing has its own affordances and drawbacks. Did you find any pros and cons of different pairings of students?

Rob: I did, yeah. The biggest issues I found in pairings were less with linguistic differences and more in terms of personality differences. We'll talk about

this soon, I'm sure, but for students who were a little less comfortable with each other, there was some tension in terms of them correcting or co-constructing language together. Students who got on well were quite willing to intervene in each other's talk and scaffold each other. They were also more willing to express a lack of understanding. As we explain in the book, this kind of scaffolding and co-construction is central to language development based on peer interaction (Philp, et al., 2014), but I found some pairings were more willing to "paper over" gaps in understanding and communication, rather than try to bridge them. What kind of pairings did you find most effective in terms of language development?

Luke: First of all, I think you are completely right. Although we separated the linguistic and the interpersonal in the book, it seems like they are totally bound up with one another. To answer your question though, I found a similar thing. The students that had a more comfortable working relationship seemed to benefit the most in terms of language development as they were more willing to negotiate meaning. Saying that, there was a group of three students that wrote a trioethnography in my class last semester that were all kind of quiet and reserved and not of a particularly high level compared to some other students in the class, but they produced the best duoethnography paper of the whole class. I think they each realised their own strengths and weaknesses and drew on each of them to produce an outcome that was greater than the sum of its parts in terms of the quality of the language and the writing. Can I ask you about the group dynamics aspect now? I'm interested to hear if doing the duoethnographies was helpful in promoting interpersonal relationships

between students and the overall dynamics of the class.

Rob: That's a good question. I think it's difficult to say, because in this particular class most of the students got along ok, and as I already mentioned, one or two of the pairings didn't seem to fully gel, even at the end of the project. For these groups it seemed like the whole thing was just another project, and predictably this produced the least interesting duoethnographies from the class. However, I did notice what seemed to be growing depths of understanding between pairs who were already quite good friends. By doing the duoethnography, they delved into experiences, and their feelings around those experiences, which seemed to surprise and help them get a deeper understanding of each other. This is just from my perspective, of course, but I think they finished the project knowing more about one another and understanding one another better than they did when they started. As for the whole group dynamics, I think there was an effect, but it was somewhat lopsided. The students who were open with each other shared that openness with the class, while the students who were more closed off had less to share. If I did this again, I would make a more conscious effort to address this. It seems like you had a more generally positive response?

Luke: Yeah, maybe. As you know, I put a lot of effort into fostering positive whole group dynamics in all of my classes right from the very first lessons. So, by the time we started the duoethnographies on Week 9 of the course every student already had a good working relationship with every other student in the class. I guess these are things that we could add to our recommendations if we did something similar again; the importance

of selecting the most appropriate research partner for each student and for setting up the right atmosphere in the class for students to have the most effective and meaningful language learning experience possible.

The main takeaway from the above is that a teacher cannot expect the project to do all of the work. While a duoethnography provides opportunities both for language development through peer interaction (Philp, et al., 2014), and for the development of positive group dynamics in the class (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003), these things do not happen automatically. Our reflections suggest that without a concerted effort on the part of the teacher to encourage frank and open communication, and the growth of sincere relationships with other members of the class, the full potential of the projects may not be realized. We see this reflection as an addendum, added with the benefit of hindsight, to our initial classroom experimentation. Looking back, we can see both the strengths of this kind of project and also the necessary role of the teacher in realizing the potential of using duoethnography in the classroom.

Conclusion

In this paper we have introduced the research methodology of duoethnography by giving a definition of the term, outlining how to carry out a duoethnography and showing the uses of it so far in the field of ELT. Following this, Daniel Hooper, and Matthew W. Turner and Nick Kasparek revisited their previously published duoethnographies by providing reflections and responses from their point of view in the present. This was followed finally by another reflection from Robert J. Lowe and Luke Lawrence on classroom experimentation using duoethnography, presented in a

duoethnographic style. The goal of these reflections has been to extend our original discussions and highlight the fact that duoethnographies are not closed systems with defined start and end points. Rather, they present one snapshot of an ongoing reflective process, which is made continually richer with the benefit of time, distance, and personal development. These reflections also do not represent an end point, but simply stand as another link further along the chain of reflection.

The paper has also aimed to show how duoethnography may be used to bridge the gap between research and practice. In Section 1, Daniel Hooper showed how it can be used to foster understanding and respect for teachers' practice. Similarly, in Section 2 Matthew W. Turner and Nick Kasparek's reflections on SWDs can be seen as helpful for practicing teachers with SWDs in their classes. Finally, Section 3 reflected on the successes and failures of using duoethnography as a pedagogical tool in the classroom, thus giving practical ideas and guidance for teachers wishing to use duoethnography in their own classes. In addition, the accessibility of the method makes duoethnography a useful methodology for busy teachers and novice researchers.

We hope that this paper has served as a useful introduction for any teachers and researchers that are new to duoethnography, and who may be thinking of using it as either a research approach for critical pedagogy, a tool for reflective practice, or as a classroom project for their students to engage in. For teachers and researchers already familiar with duoethnography and the use of it in our field, this paper may act as a useful reminder that the published duoethnography should not be understood as the end of a process, but rather as just one more step in an ongoing journey of research or reflection.

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Appendix

Link 1 - Forum: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gfy-OZKXCe4

Link 2 - Reflective Q&A session: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tpceb7UbpVQ

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EXPLORATIONS

A Mini-Unit for Communicative Language Classes: Student Created Short Films

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Keywords: Movies in EFL/ESL, Student-directed learning, Media English, Short Films

This paper explores the use of movie-making as a tool for language learning, through informal action research cycles. The piece will describe a mini-unit in which students develop original short movies within a communicative English class, and it will reflect on the refinements made in the light of teacher observations. Naturally, these were classes where students were learning English. Therefore, the focus was not on producing films of a professional standard so much as using the movie-making process as an engaging way to learn and practice authentic English communication. Consequently, the mechanics of script writing, directing, or editing were not taught in detail. The activities in these lessons instead embraced a DIY ethic where students learned by observing and then mimicking the professionals' endeavors on the screen. However, classroom tasks were carefully structured to highlight the practical production processes and language features the students should reproduce to create successful work. Thus, the paper will also investigate a learning style biased more toward learning through action and observation than explicit teacher instruction.

To give some background, I was teaching a Media English course that focused on using English to produce media outputs rather than one that analyzed media artifacts. Hence, it was practical and communicative, focusing on discussions and communicative activities. One area of media I had always been enthusiastic about was movies, and it seemed that my students were also interested in the format, as they often discussed movies in class. However, the media course had no specific movie section, even though it seemed like an ideal topic to stimulate student interest and provide a vast source of authentic communicative English.

There are many documented benefits of movie use in the classroom, including students' exposure to natural language in an appropriate cultural context. A study by Kabooha (2016) found that by using movies, students could learn how proficient English speakers "initiate and sustain a conversational exchange, negotiate meaning, and nonverbal communication" (p. 254). Thus, movies can help students navigate the gulf between their experiences of English in the classroom and the English they encounter in real-life situations, with its wide variety of accents/dialects, pacing and colloquial expressions. Studies have shown that exposure to movies can increase student motivation and interest in L2 culture (Baratta & Jones, 2008; Kaiser, 2011; Zhang, 2013). Moreover, movies help students improve vocabulary, listening skills, and critical thinking as long as the films are paired with pedagogically sound tasks to encourage these abilities (Curtis, 2007; Goctu, 2017; Ismaili, 2013).

With these benefits in mind, I set out to create a film unit consisting of three mini-units. The first two sections were based

on film reviews, which taught students useful descriptive and colloquial vocabulary. The movie review sections practiced this lexis with discussions that promoted student autonomy by allowing learners to self-select content. The students enjoyed the activities and assimilated the language, which improved their communicative ability incrementally. For the third section, I wanted to focus on language production by creating a movie-related output. I experimented with various formats, such as movie trailers and "sweded" film versions (where students created a short, unedited, and comical take on an existing film). However, I felt these formats were not able to support and reinforce the learning of previous sections satisfactorily. The film reviews in sections one and two focused on narrative movies, whereas the trailers and the sweded versions are promotional tools and reinterpretations or parodies, respectively. Consequently, this final section did not allow students to practice the language and understanding gleaned from the film review sections as cumulatively as I wished.

The creation of original short movies with students seemed like a more natural conclusion to the unit. However, having no movie-making experience, I was unsure of what to teach the students. Nonetheless, an approach I had used for other topics was to have students learn from professionals in the given field. I would choose exemplary content within the desired format and guide learners to extract the features that made the example successful. The students then mimicked these effective verbal and non-verbal techniques to produce their own original work. However, it proved surprisingly difficult to find good examples of short movies to use as models for students. The films needed to be readily available and short, ideally with a maximum length of five to six minutes, as well as containing appropriate content. While many short films were freely available on YouTube, for example, the ones I found were either too

long or contained unsuitable material for the classroom.

Nevertheless, I was determined to explore this idea of the short movie project, as I was convinced it would be an effective way to complete the film unit and also solidify the learning of the Media English course. Therefore, I persevered until I found enough suitable examples to create this short movie-making unit. This paper will now describe the iterative creation of the materials and their implementation, as well as reflect on the unit's refinements and the overall effectiveness of these explorations.

The Movie-Making Unit

This unit was created for classes of second-year English majors with 16 – 24 members of pre-intermediate to intermediate level (from around TOEFL ITP 450 or CEFR B1), which met for two 90-minute lessons each week. All the students used iPads and had access to Wi-Fi. This unit took around six to eight classes, plus homework. However, these students had previous experience with project-based tasks and video production. Therefore, an extra two to four lessons for the movie production phase might be necessary for students without this type of knowledge. Alternatively, learners could be given a foundational task, such as the production of a video diary or video introduction (of a favorite thing or place), for example. The short movie course outlined in this paper was developed over five years until I changed institutions and ceased teaching the course. The following sections describe the details of how the lessons and activities were implemented.

In the first lesson, I introduced students to short movies using the film *Vicky and Sam* (Rocha, 2010), which is somewhat longer than five minutes. Nonetheless, it illustrated so many points about the nature of short movies and the creative process that it proved invaluable. The first point I wanted students to understand was that short movies are not just truncated "Hollywood" movies.

Short movies usually have an unusual concept or striking set-up that drives the movie's storytelling rather than relying on special effects or famous actors. Therefore, the genre can be accessible to anyone with a camera phone and a good idea. The other key point was that a short movie still needs a narrative arc: a beginning, a middle and an end. *Vicky and Sam* clearly illustrated these points and depicted the creative process in an engaging and relatable manner, as will be described in the next section.

I used an observation quiz to foreground relevant structural elements exemplified by the movie and help students focus on the film while enjoying a competitive activity. The class was divided into groups of four. After viewing the film, learners were asked 10 questions (Figure 1), with the fastest correct answer earning points for their group.

After the quiz, the story was reviewed to ensure the students had understood the key points illustrated by the film. In the movie, the main characters are writing a screenplay in a diner. As the writers discuss the plot, the lead characters from their story enter the diner. Next, the lead characters start acting out the writers' suggestions in real-time, and the story unfolds on two levels. This contrivance was highlighted and discussed with students to give them a concrete example of how a reality-bending concept can drive novelty and increase impact. The film also modeled the writing process by depicting the writers discussing, rejecting, and accepting ideas rather than showing a single person sitting alone at a keyboard. This feature was underlined and discussed with learners, and I specifically encouraged them to copy this approach when creating ideas for their films. I believe this step was crucial in making the lessons enjoyable, interactive and task-based. Furthermore, through the movie, the students had this fun yet focused, collaborative process modeled for them.

Vicky and Sam is an excellent model of the creative process for short movie-making. However, I wanted to give students examples of storytelling and language patterns from different styles, genres, and cultures. To provide learners with the maximum exposure in the minimum amount of time, I opted to split the students into small groups and allocate one short film to each team from the following selection: *Happy Sushi* (Green, 2010), *The Right Place* (Sekine, 2005), *A Thousand Words* (Chung, 2008), *The Plan* (Kalish, 2010) and *The Elevator* (Glienna, 2010). The movies would then later be shared in a quiz activity. Each of these movies was chosen based on the criteria that they were available on YouTube, were around five minutes or less, and would be interesting for the students. The final feature is, of course, subjective. Still, within this criterion, I tried to choose films that I personally liked, that had an impact (either conceptually or comically), and either contained interesting language or could challenge students to use language thoughtfully in discussing the movie.

Each group watched their film and then created a short observation quiz in the style of the one modeled by the V*icky and Sam* activity in Figure 1. This task directed students' attention to salient features of the movies while practicing listening, writing, and speaking engagingly. The students' observation quizzes could sometimes seem trivial; however, many learners still detected deeper structural and linguistic techniques in the movies, as demonstrated when the learners discussed the short films in more detail later in the process. It appeared to be the close attention required to play the quiz activity that helped students absorb the valuable characteristics.

Figure 1

Vicky and Sam Quiz

Vicky and Sam Quiz

1. What are the names of the lovers? (1pt)
Vicky and Sam
2. Where does Vicky work? (1pt)
Video store
3. Who are the people in the diner? (2pts)
Writers of the movie
4. Where is the loudest/noisiest writer from? (3pts)
Scotland
5. How does Sam show his interest in the girl? (3pts)
He rents videos for which the first letter of the titles spell out 'LOVE YOU'
6. How does Vicky reply to Sam's interest? (3pts)
With a movie titled 'Meet me in St Louis' with a post-it note covering 'St Louis' and saying 'my place'
7. Where is their first kiss? (3pts)
On a swinging chair on Vicky's porch
8. What happens after the couple walk into the diner? (4pts)
They act out the writers' words
9. What happens to the couple in the end? (4pts)
They split up
10. What are the last words of the movie? (5pts)
'We need a rewrite'

Figure 2

Worksheet: Student Short Movie Quizzes

Round 2

- Watch the movie assigned to your group (5min)
- Then create 4 quiz questions for the class on (15 min).
- You choose how many points to give each question.
- Keep your questions and answers secret.
- You will ask the class each of your questions one by one.
- Each member will be the quizmaster for one question.
- **Please keep score on the whiteboard.**

Group 1 - Happy Sushi	Group 2 - The Right Place	Group 3 - A Thousand Words	Group 4 - The Plan	Group 5 - The Elevator

Students used the worksheet in Figure 2 to locate the videos and write their questions. I used Google Classroom to distribute the materials. However, the activity could be managed with paper worksheets by asking the students to search the movie titles on YouTube using their smartphones.

If there was time at the end of the lesson, I led a class discussion on the movies, asking students which movie they liked and encouraging them to elaborate on the positive and negative points. The students were usually quite enthusiastic in this discussion as many had never seen these kinds of movies before. Consequently, learners were typically curious and offered interesting perspectives on the movies, frequently giving unique or novel interpretations of the content.

In the second lesson, students analyzed the movies more thoroughly in a group discussion and an individual homework task. I found that combining individual and group work was more successful, with students creating a higher volume of quality ideas and observations. Students began with the two-part worksheet illustrated in Figure 3.

First, learners were allocated to groups of four, and then there was a warm-up activity to prepare students for their English discussion. Next, students were given roles in each group, as described on the worksheet. I discovered that the added responsibility focused students' attention on the task and encouraged participation. Figure 3 is a shared Google Doc with a text box provided for each group to write their answers. Consequently, the opinions of each

team were gathered together in one place and could be reviewed conveniently in the next stage. After the discussions, the spokesperson from each group outlined their answers to the class, and I asked questions or gave comments to help expand the explanations.

Next, students were shuffled into their final movie production groups and watched examples of previous students' movies (some of the highest-graded and most popular films of previous classes). This exercise really helped motivate students and stimulated their imaginations by seeing what peers had achieved. Naturally, students must consent to the use of their movies, so it took a few cycles to build up a stock of good example videos. However, this step undoubtedly improved the unit's effectiveness, so in my experience, this element proved indispensable. While building this stock, I used additional professional short movies, which were a valuable stop-gap. Alternatively, finding examples of student short movie projects online might be possible.

After watching the example student videos, the groups conducted a discussion similar to that in Figure 3, but with an alternative final question: "Did you get any ideas from the student movies that you want to use in your own movie (language, story or production)?" Finally, for homework, students were given a worksheet, Figure 4, where they could consolidate their ideas individually. Students then copied and pasted their answers from the individual worksheet into a shared document, which I edited and distributed to the class before they began creating their movies.

In the third lesson, I gave students the project instructions sheet, Figure 5, and the edited version of the shared document from the homework task. Students could choose from four predetermined roles within their group (lead writer, director, editor, fixer/facilitator). In the first instantiation of this project, I did not define these specific roles but just emphasized that these activities were crucial to complete the movie. Gradually, it became clear that designated roles would enable students to converge on the task. In addition, it seemed to help students develop skills in a particular area and become increasingly invested in the project. However, it also proved vital to remind students of the first video, *Vicky and Sam*, illustrating the collaborative, overlapping nature of the movie production process. Otherwise, students could tend to become siloed in their roles and forget the need to communicate continuously in English to complete the task effectively.

I gave students the remainder of Lesson 3 to begin planning their movies, in English, while I spoke to each group individually, helping them brainstorm or develop ideas. Groups were each given a template document for their notes (to plan their storyline, script, locations, camera angles, and music). Students used these documents to prepare a rough outline, which they presented to the teacher informally in the next lesson. When the project was initially developed, I gave students a storyboard document to detail ideas for each of their main scenes. However, during the COVID-19 pandemic, teaching this element over Zoom became impractical, so I cut this part of the process, which ultimately appeared to have no detrimental effect on the quality of movies produced. Therefore, after this experience, I permanently discontinued this practice.

Figure 3

Worksheet: Successful Features of Movies

Group 1 - Happy Sushi	Group 2 - The Right Place	Group 3 - A Thousand Words	Group 4 - The Plan	Group 5 - The Elevator

Short Movie Discussions - Class 1

Round 1: warm-up (2 minutes each question)

1. If you could meet one famous person, who would it be? Why?
2. Who is your favourite actor/actress? Why?
3. Do you like Hollywood movies or Japanese movies? Why?
4. What is your favourite genre? What genre do you dislike? Why?

Round 2: Analyse the short movies

Janken for the following roles:
  A. Leader (start/end discussion, decision-maker & timekeeper)
  B. Facilitator (keeps the discussion going, makes sure everyone participates)
  C. Notetaker
  D. Spokesperson

Group 1

1. What was your favourite short movie and why did you like it? (5 min)

2. What stood out about your favourite movie (language, speaking pace, gesture, facial expressions, humour, music, sound, colour, camera shots, editing,)? (5 min)

3. What key features make a good short movie, in your opinion? (5 min)

Figure 4

Worksheet: Individual Analysis of Movies

Short Movies - Analysis

1. **Which professional short movie did you like best and why?**

2. **Which student short movie did you like best and why?**

3. **How did your favourite movies use the affordances (language, speaking pace, gesture, facial expressions, humour, music, sound, colour, camera shots, editing) to tell the story?**

4. **What are some things from question 3 that you would like to try in your movie?**

5. **Think about all the short movies you watched and answer the following question.**

   What are the key features that make a good short movie?

   After you finish copy and paste your answers to the shared doc and submit

Figure 5

Short Movie Project Instructions

Make a Short Movie

You will make an **original** short movie in groups of 3 or 4 (review the good short movie document and re-watch some of the movies and the student examples). This activity is a review of all the techniques we have learned on the course, so be sure to check them and use them in your video, for example:

- Advertising (text and subtext, double meanings, grabbing attention)
- Photojournalism (use of images to convey narrative, storytelling, impact and themes)
- News articles and movie reviews (clear structure - understandability)
- Youtube videos (using effects, style and register to hold attention)
- Movies (plot, impact, filming styles)

To make the movie
1. Write an outline of your story (check the movie, *Vicky and Sam*)
2. Plan your movie (plan/storyboard, script etc)
3. Shoot your movie
4. Edit your movie

Notes
- Think about how you can use the **affordances** of the short movie (narration, dialogue, music, sound effects, location and shooting style, camera angles, colours etc) to tell your story and bring out your themes.
- You can use other people but make sure your group do most of the speaking
- **Each person in the group must speak in the movie**
- Scenes can be shot separately or as a group and the editor puts them together

Suggested roles
- Lead writer (script and story)
- Director (decides shots, style, locations)
- Editor (edits the shots together)
- Fixer/facilitator (fixes problems, communicates with all the team members). Groups of 3 students don't need this role.

Essentials
- The time limit is 5 minutes
- The deadline is xxxxxxxxxx
- 1-2 classes to plan, 1-2 classes to shoot, 1-2 classes to edit (use the classes as you like)
- You will need to use homework time to finish the project
- Denver will check your progress in the next class. Please be ready.

An enduring part of this lesson, though, was to give learners the project grading rubric (Figure 6). The idea was to direct students' efforts to the fundamental language and movie production features needed to produce high-quality movies. I concluded that the rubric and the discussions of good short movie features, along with the example student videos, were perhaps the most critical elements in enabling students to produce successful short movies in a relatively short period.

At this stage, I reminded students that all their story elements did not yet need to be finalized, as some details could be resolved during filming or editing. Nevertheless, it was crucial to keep students focused on deadlines and ensure they scheduled enough time for each production phase. After Lesson 3, there was one more class to check students' outlines and develop their plans (Lesson 4). Then, the groups began their filming as a homework assignment.

If this project was attempted with students who were inexperienced with video production and project-based learning, then the teacher could schedule between two and four extra classes here to allow learners to develop their stories under greater supervision. The teacher could help the students create a shooting schedule/plan and allow lesson time for filming, if appropriate. A further possibility could be to build a rehearsal into the activities, where each group demonstrates and explains their story in a live-action role-play before they commence the filming, with the teacher giving feedback on the students' efforts.

For these experienced groups, I scheduled the shooting period to coincide with a break from classes, such as the winter vacation, to give students more time and freedom to work on the project. After the break, the groups began the editing process in the classroom in Lesson 5. The edits could have been conducted as another homework task, but I found that it helped students to

manage the filming schedule if they were expected to edit their movies in class on a particular day. I did try to build some flexibility into the scheduling, so students had a degree of autonomy over how much time they spent on each phase. Hence, I allowed groups to record extra material, such as narration or an additional scene, if necessary, during this class. This autonomy helped the groups stay fully occupied and allocate their time appropriately according to the demands of their particular stories.

During Lesson 5, groups discussed ideas in English, and the editor led each team to create their film using Apple's iMovie software. This application was chosen because it is intuitive to use and freely available on the students' iPads. The members of these classes had used iMovie in previous tasks. At that time, I gave learners a concise two-page guide (Figure 7) and a short tutorial introduction. The instructions took a little time to prepare, but they improved outcomes and helped the lessons flow more smoothly.

The final lesson (Lesson 6) was framed as a film festival. The groups presented their movies to the class and explained their motivations. In addition, there was an awards ceremony where the class members voted for their favorite films in various categories. Initially, at the end of this project, the groups just presented their movies, and the class members commented on the work. However, I felt there could be a more dynamic, interactive way to celebrate the students' achievements. Therefore, I developed the lesson plan iteratively, gradually adding and refining elements to arrive at the format presented in Figure 8.

Figure 6

Short Movie Grading Rubric

	Language	Fluency	Video presentation	Affordances	Narrative / story
			Short Movie Rubric		
1	**Very basic vocab Many** grammar **mistakes.**	**Poor.** Long pauses. Stop-start hesitation. Can't finish sentences.	**Poor.** Timing is not smooth. Background noise. Sound not balanced.	**No** interesting use of sound, music, camera work, setting, colour etc.	**Poor** - difficult to follow. Boring. No conclusion.
2	**Basic.** Can't communicate well. **Some mistakes** - tenses, articles (a, the).	**Basic.** Some pauses and hesitation. **Not smooth.**	**Some** mistakes on-screen with the sound, text or timing that spoil the movie.	**Some** interesting use of sound, music, camera work, setting, colour etc. Doesn't match the story.	**Some** interesting points but a bit confusing and unclear.
3	**Small** vocab. A few new vocab words.. Grammar **simple.** Can communicate. Small mistakes.	**Ok. Quite smooth.** Some hesitation Uses fillers.	**Ok** production generally, with just small problems.	**Ok** use of sound, music, camera work, setting, colour etc. Matches the story.	**Ok** structure. Quite easy to follow. No underlying message, themes or subtext.
4	**Good** vocab. Many new vocab words. Grammar is simple but there is **good** use of tense, articles and verbs.	**Good. Smooth** speech. English fillers. Appropriate pauses.	**Good** production. Everything is neat and smooth, enhancing the content.	**Good** use of sound, music, camera work, setting, colour etc. Enhances the story and themes.	**Good.** Easy to follow. Story flowed well. **Enjoyable. Some** underlying message, themes or subtext. Some originality.
5	**High-level** vocab. More **complex** grammar (relative clauses, perfect tenses, for example).	**Excellent. Very smooth.** English fillers. Changes in timing and volume to give variety and impact.	**Excellent** production that enhances the content and makes it very professional.	**Excellent** use of sound, music, camera work, setting, colour etc. Tells the story well and expresses the themes in surprising ways.	**Excellent.** Very easy to follow. Builds to a climax. Message, themes or subtext clear and interesting. Very original.

Comments:

Figure 7

iMovie Basic Guide

Figure 8

Film Festival Information Sheet

1. The director introduces the movie: title, genre, setting, 1-2 sentence summary
2. We watch the movie – (turn off the screen, turn on when finished)
3. Q&A
    a. **Lead writer**
        i. Inspiration / how did you come up with the story?
        ii. Were there any parts you struggled with?
        iii. What was the theme / subtext / meaning / message?
    b. **Director**
        i. Describe some choices that you made
        ii. Eg: shots, locations, music, acting styles, clothes
        iii. Why did you make the choices described?
    c. **Editor**
        i. Describe some choices you made
        ii. Eg, music / sound, filters, colours, titles, cuts
        iii. Why did you make the choices described?
    d. **Fixer**
        i. What were some of the challenges you faced making the movie?
        ii. What did you learn?
        iii. What would you do differently?
4. Student Questions (Class Wheel if no volunteers)
5. Repeat for all movies
6. Vote
7. Announce the winners (10pts for each winner)

The groups presented their film with each member speaking about their role, their creative ideas, and the communicative intent of their decisions. Then, the group took questions from the other class members. I noticed that a limited number of students would ask the majority of the questions, so I introduced the rule that everyone must ask at least one question, which noticeably improved this Q&A section. At the end of the lesson, I used a Google Form to conduct a vote in the following categories: best story, best use of English, best sound/music, best filming, best overall movie and best actor/actress. The top three from each category received class points (separate from their project grade), which were points awarded throughout the semester, contributing to students' class participation scores. Finally, the videos were submitted and graded using the rubric in Figure 6, with some elements scored as a group and some marked individually.

Conclusion

Overall, this exploration into the use of movie-making proved fruitful; this mini-unit was well received and was always one of the most popular projects with learners in my Media English classes. As part of the broader film unit, students wrote a learning reflection; class members often stated that the project initially daunted them, but they ultimately enjoyed the task, producing something much better than originally imagined. Many students also cited the collaboration with their group as especially enjoyable and stated how happy

they were to be recognised by peers in the awards ceremony. One of the challenges students described was maintaining English communication throughout the classes to discuss complex creative ideas. Some students admitted reverting to L1 at times of difficulty. However, as evidenced by classroom observation, all members persevered and maintained a majority of English use throughout the lessons. As a result, many students were surprised by the level of ideas they could convey in English. In addition, the quality of many groups' movies was surprisingly accomplished.

The project investigated how students could learn from observing and mimicking experts in a field, such as by watching directors make short films and then making their own. The results demonstrated how, with engaging content, students could challenge themselves to accomplish complex tasks in English. Through this project and similar explorations, I have learned that while detailed instruction can be critical, at times, it is not always necessary to explain every detail explicitly to students. A well-chosen model can be highly effective in helping learners develop their skills autonomously, particularly if students' attention is concentrated on carefully considered activities. Hence, this iterative journey has convinced me that it can be extremely valuable to stimulate students' creative curiosity and then provide student-directed tasks that allow their abilities to bloom in the target language.

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