

Soyhan Egitim
Yu Umemiya *Editors*

Leaderful Classroom Pedagogy Through an Interdisciplinary Lens

Merging Theory with Practice

 Springer

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Editors

Soyhan Egitim
Toyo University
Tokyo, Japan

Yu Umemiya
Waseda University
Tokyo, Japan

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Foreword

The edited volume, *Leaderful Classroom Pedagogy Through an Interdisciplinary Lens*, presents some of the fundamental principles and applications of leaderful practice when used in the classroom. Introduced originally by co-author Soyhan Egitim in his book, *Collaborative Leadership Through Leaderful Classroom Practices*, leaderful pedagogy is applied in the current work across a range of contexts, such as in liberal arts, intercultural, and English language education. Dr. Egitim is fast becoming one of the most prominent authors in applying leaderful practice theory to the classroom. My own work in leaderful pedagogy was limited to so-called “post-experience” education, that being learning in association with work following formal education. My view has been that we need to get students out of the classroom in order that they generate learning from their collective interactions and practices arising in the solution of real-time work problems. In so doing, they would increasingly cultivate the proclivity of learning to lead together.

Drs. Egitim and Umemiya have challenged that view by pointing out the critical importance of starting the process of leadership democratization through “pre-experience” acculturation. However, for this to work, there needs to be a shift in instruction, namely, from vertical pedagogy, wherein knowledge originates from a single source of expertise, to lateral learning that is emergent from a contested interaction among a community of inquirers. The impact of this change in the classroom has everything to do with ultimate leadership practice because, as the authors squarely attest, the pedagogical dynamics of the classroom transfer to the habits of leadership in subsequent work practices. Thus, we would not expect the hierarchical performance of teachers, dispensing information to passive students, to transfer to the latter’s predisposition towards collective leadership.

In addition, the co-editors advance a subtle but highly powerful premise in establishing the foundation for the leaderful classroom. They assert that the instructor’s *leadership* identity “dictates their classroom decisions.” Consequently, the one sure way of instigating collective teaching practices is to shape the instructors’ leadership identity toward leaderful reasoning and practice. This means no less than transforming their worldview of leadership as not a position of authority but as a social

practice emergent in inclusive dialogue among fellow learners in a psychologically safe environment.

What this looks like in classroom dynamics is quite divergent from traditional top-down social conduct. Instead, through persistent and mutual reflection, students become receptive to challenges to their own thinking. They become willing to disturb their own worldviews on behalf of a collective understanding. Among the reflective practices that can be introduced would be testing available knowledge, challenging assumptions and inferences, exploring inter-subjective differences, and disrupting familiar meanings followed by reframing. Student learning would thereupon arise not from prepared scenarios controlled by classroom instructors but from working through the messy, implicit, and real questions of practice.

As readers make their way through this exciting volume, they'll be privy to some new conceptions and applications of *Leaderful Classroom Practices*. To just point out a few among many, see how Harriette Rasmussen uses humility, a mainstay of leaderful practice, as a professorial strategy to bring out student agency. Consider the application of self-determination theory as a means to guide subsequent leaderful behavior and cognition in the work of Watkins and Mynard, and Jones. Entertain the strategies of a teacher's dialogical engagement and leaderful peer review, the philosophy of partnership and "well becoming," or the use of deep reflective practice alongside lived experience in the chapters by Harumi, Kireeti, Hooper and Murphey, and Conroy.

Finally, I would like to highlight the international and intercultural nature of this volume. Its depictions display an appreciation of other cultures and acknowledge the need for sensitivity towards views that are at times less privileged than those in favor. Further, in concert with efforts to engender responsible and sustainable leaderful practices, it encourages students to participate in reflective dialogue to become more critical about subsequent work and organizational practices while concurrently enhancing their self-awareness and socio-political consciousness.

Boston, USA
2023

Joseph A. Raelin

Preface

Soyhan Egitim

Revisiting our leadership identity can give us an opportunity to re-examine what leadership tenets we demonstrate in the classroom and to what extent our leadership practices foster or limit our students' growth. The pedagogical framework, *Leaderful Classroom Practices*, which forms the premise of this co-edited volume evolved through this exact notion that teachers' leadership identities dictate their classroom decisions.

Leaderful Classroom Practices are based on “collective, concurrent, collaborative, and compassionate interactions” (Raelin, 2021, p. 283) between the teacher and students. The framework was informed by Joseph A. Raelin's *Leaderful Practice* theory which demonstrates leadership as a leaderful endeavor where all group members take the initiative to lead. In this dynamic, “One takes the stance of the learner who sees [their] contribution as dependent upon the contribution of others.” This notion suggests that leadership is not a position of authority, but it is a social practice, which emerges through interactions between members of the group. Viewing leadership in the classroom as a leaderful endeavor showed enormous potential to achieve effective outcomes in students. In the preceding book, “Collaborative leadership through leaderful classroom practices: Everybody is a leader,” I offer numerous practical methods and strategies that emerged from *Leaderful Classroom Practices*.

The first step of *Leaderful Classroom Practices* is to guide teachers toward viewing leadership as a collective endeavor in the classroom. In this regard, engaging in regular self-reflection is critical to developing an empathetic lens, which helps us view issues through the lens of others in our surroundings. Empathy is a powerful tool that can help teachers become more receptive to harnessing the talent and experiences each student brings into the classroom.

The next step of *Leaderful Classroom Practices* involves providing students with structure and scaffolding to establish a psychologically safe environment that would help them take ownership of their own learning. As students grow more autonomous, teacher leaders can yield some of their power to students by giving them a voice in

pedagogical and class management decisions. As students embrace leadership roles in the classroom, they should also be encouraged to engage in reflective practice and gain a deeper understanding of their learner identity and recognize their own potential as leaders.

The fundamental ideas behind the pedagogical framework first emerged during my doctoral studies at Northeastern University where I delved into contemporary leadership theories and their practical application in various organizational settings. As I was pursuing my doctoral studies, I was also working in English as a foreign language (EFL) settings at Japanese higher education institutions. Thus, I also felt the urge to experiment with contemporary leadership theories in classroom settings. Through these experiments, I realized that my leadership practices had a direct influence on my pedagogical decisions.

Furthermore, the prevalence of teacher-centered instruction in Japanese EFL settings made me believe that the system itself also reinforces top-down leadership practices in classrooms where all decisions are made by the teacher and students act as followers. Deep-rooted Confucian norms based on power distance between teachers and students also play a part in reinforcing the hierarchical relationship between the teacher and students in the East Asian context.

The major pedagogical implication of this hierarchical dynamic is that it imposes passive language learning habits through long-term exposure to teacher-centered instruction in the classroom. As the students of today become the educators of the future, the leadership approaches they are exposed to in the classroom would have a major influence on their leadership identities and thus, they may as well maintain the status quo leadership practices in the classroom. The question that comes to mind here is “How can we break this vicious cycle?”

As I emphasized, if we consider today’s children as future educators, we may need to look back on the leadership practices we were exposed to in the classroom and what we learned from those experiences. This kind of self-reflection would not only allow us to critically examine our own leadership identity, but also help us think beyond the boundaries imposed by those past experiences and learn to embrace open, democratic, and participatory principles of education in the classroom.

Finally, I would like to say a few words about my collaboration with my co-editor, Yu Umemiya, with whom I worked in perfect harmony which ensured the timely release of this edited collection while both of us were coping with work and family responsibilities. Yu’s hard work, dedication to structure, and attention to detail contributed to producing a cohesive edited collection that would otherwise be impossible to accomplish. We hope that this interdisciplinary edited collection will give educators across the globe the opportunity to reflect on their leadership identities, examine the ways their leadership stimulates and hinders growth in students, and hopefully, adopt a leaderful mindset in their respective disciplines.

Yu Umemiya

Everything started when we were casually chatting about our individual projects in the teachers' lounge of a university where we used to work together. I introduced my activities in the students' theatre group at another university and how they collaborated as emerging leaders. It was that moment when we decided to compose a book with contributions from various fields to enable the readers to have a glimpse into the practice of leaderful practices which can be applied in their own circumstances.

The project of editing a volume on *Leaderful Classroom Pedagogy* certainly seemed to be a challenging endeavour for me but I was very much honoured to undertake this important role. I seldom regard myself as an 'English teacher' because I know little about pedagogy and my interests have always been towards literature. However, through my experience teaching at higher education in Japan, there were several moments where I felt useful even for the students aiming to improve their language proficiency. During those moments, I was not using literature as material and often incorporated textbooks which were selected by the faculty. The only unique feature I could provide in class was my own ways of approaching the students sitting in front of me. The sensation of being needed, especially by the young with such prospects in life was so precious that it gave me a reason to stay in the business for almost a decade. The preferable distance I have created with some students might be a good example of developing their autonomous attitude, encouraging them to study outside the classroom. Since the recognition of the 'space' was dramatically altered with the sudden arrival of COVID-19, it seemed necessary to reflect on past practices and compile their analysis, in order to move forward.

Although my teaching experience is not too long, I have worked at private secondary schools in Tokyo for three and a half years. My decade-long time at the university contains compulsory English classes, lectures on English drama and literature, seminars on English culture and language policy, and supervision of graduation theses. Owing to various opportunities I gained, I have come to create a students' theatre group which I shall be exploring in the following chapter. It is quite rare to combine literary study and its practical side on stage in Japan. However, since I was exposed to theatre creation at the Shakespeare Institute in the UK, where I completed my MA, and at the Royal Shakespeare Company where I frequently visited as an audience and occasionally as a participant, letting the students perform in Japan has been a dream. I am very thankful for those who helped to construct my personality and students who supported such nature in me and even developed further.

As for the completion of this project, I am indebted to my co-editor, Soyhan Egitim, for not only giving fruitful advice on my chapter but also for managing every process that the project required. Soyhan's passion for the subject and his dedication consolidated the general frame of this volume. Needless to say, his punctual and swift correspondence with all contributors allowed the book to be ready in a timely manner while also achieving the highest possible standards. I could only assist with multiple revisions, proofreading, and the occasional exchange of ideas regarding the content or the procedure. Nevertheless, I am very happy and proud to have completed

the scholarly project and published an edited collection with unique insights and perspectives from academics in various corners of the world.

Regarding the Chapters in the Book

Establishing an open, democratic, and participatory learning environment for all learners is a major leadership responsibility of teachers, and this volume intends to demonstrate how to accomplish this mission both in theory and practice. Each chapter utilizes *Leaderful Classroom Practices*. The interdisciplinary perspectives offered in this volume should appeal to a wide range of readers from different disciplines and give them the opportunity to take a moment and reflect on their leadership identity, think about the limitations of their practices, and consider *Leaderful Classroom Practices* as a potential pedagogical choice in their respective disciplines.

Part I: Leaderful Leadership Education

The chapters in Part I examine leadership education in a wide range of contexts from around the world. In Chap. 1 Soyhan Egitim and Michael Boyce shed light on how they incorporated leadership education programs into undergraduate courses by utilizing duoethnography in two distinctly different educational environments. Harriette Thurber Rasmussen writes about the influence of professorial humility in student agency which she views as an evolving capacity developed in relationship with external sources in Chap. 2. Satoko Watkins and Jo Mynard explore how a self-access learning centre (SALC) in a small private university near Tokyo promotes leaderful practices in Chap. 3. Maeve Conroy explores the roots of the beliefs and practices she brings to her classroom and the consequent impact of her choices on leadership learning in the spaces she creates in Chap. 4. In the closing chapter of Part I, Marc Jones describes and evaluates teaching and learning processes and interventions that facilitated effective and ineffective learning of leaderful communication practices at a private Japanese university in Tokyo.

Part II: Leaderful Pedagogy in Liberal Arts

Part II focuses on how *Leaderful Classroom Practices* are implemented in various liberal arts disciplines. In Chap. 6 Yu Umemiya focuses on the application of leaderful pedagogy in relevant activities to English theatre to discover the hidden voices outside the classroom. In Chap. 7 Seiko Harumi explores ways in which learner-initiated questions in a Japanese classroom in the U.K. can function as a pedagogical resource for co-learning involving learners and teachers, one which also forges teacher identity

within a leaderful classroom. In Chap. 8 Ming Qu investigates classroom interaction with a focus on the teacher's leadership identity in a Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) class at a national university in Japan. Part II ends with Chap. 9 where Monica Housen sheds light on the experiences of three high school math teachers in the U.S. as they evolved into collaborative leaders by adapting leaderful pedagogy.

Part III: Leaderful Intercultural Education

Part III explores intercultural and global competence education through a leaderful pedagogy perspective. Chapter 10 co-authored by Soyhan Egitim and Roxana Sandu, offers a collaborative autoethnographic perspective through the personal experiences of the two teachers who focus on raising students' intercultural competence through *Leaderful Classroom Practices*. In Chap. 11 Miki Yamashita and Christine Cress investigate the most effective Collaborative On-Line International Learning (COIL) pedagogical practices in supporting students' understanding of the concepts of social-change-focused leadership and global agency development in Chiba, Japan, and Portland, Oregon, the U.S. In Chap. 12 Travis H. Past and Michael D. Smith explore the relationship between leaderful pedagogy and Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) and argue that ESD requires the transformative essence of leaderful practice, and leaderful practice, perhaps, needs the altruism of sustainability to supplant dominant power structures. Part III ends with Chap. 13 by Clifford H. Clarke who seeks to understand the ways teaching pedagogy and learning practices influenced the learning outcomes of the students and the teacher in an intercultural organizational communication course in Hawaii through a collaborative leadership perspective.

Part IV: Leaderful English Language Education Through Global Perspectives

Part IV starts with Chap. 14 by Burcu Gokgoz-Kurt and Figen Karaferye who examine the way EFL teachers' leadership styles relate to their perceived leadership self-efficacy in tertiary-level EFL classrooms in Türkiye. In Chap. 15 Daniel Hooper and Tim Murphey frame both research findings and practical classroom management techniques in relation to a coherent humanistic educational philosophy of partnership with the goal of building communities full of leaders in Japanese EFL classroom settings. In Chap. 16 Sandra Healy and Olivia Kennedy explore how teacher leadership identity changed during the integration of telecollaborative programs in Japanese university EFL courses over a period of two years.

Sanae Ejjebli examines the factors that shape educators' leadership identity and their impact on pedagogical decisions, and faculty development within Moroccan ESL/EFL settings in Chap. 17 while Kushal Kireeti analyses leaderful peer review

as a collaborative approach to improve students' academic writing skills in a Japanese university EFL setting. The final chapter of this co-edited volume by Motoko Abe and Raphaëlle Beecroft relates the concept of leaderful practice to the primary EFL context and gathers perspectives on this approach from pre-service primary English teachers from Japan and Germany.

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About the Editors

Soyhan Egitim EdD, has lived and worked in multicultural societies including Turkiye, where he is originally from, Canada, and Japan. Since 2006, he has worked as an English language teacher in a range of educational settings in the Greater Tokyo Area. Upon completing his MA in TESOL at the University of Chichester in 2011, he pursued an academic career in Japan. In 2020, he was awarded a Doctorate in Education from Northeastern University in Boston, where he concentrated on collaborative leadership in Japanese higher education contexts. Currently, he serves as an Associate Professor in the Faculty of Global and Regional Studies at Toyo University where he teaches global and intercultural competence. As a multilingual expert in intercultural communication, language education, and inclusive leadership practices, Dr. Soyhan Egitim has strived to promote open, participatory, and equitable language education through academic lectures, publications, presentations, and training workshops.

Yu Umemiya Ph.D., was introduced to Shakespeare at a young age and pursued his interest in studying Early Modern dramas during his undergraduate and graduate studies at Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan. After working as a part-time English teacher at secondary institutions in Tokyo for two and a half years, he moved to Stratford-upon-Avon, UK, where he completed an MA in Shakespeare Studies at Shakespeare Institute, University of Birmingham. While he was striving to fulfill his enrolment as an international student, he became an active member of a student theatre group where he served as a stage manager, a producer, and an assistant director in several theatrical productions. Also, he appeared in promotion videos by the Royal Shakespeare Company and Shakespeare Birthplace Trust. After he returned from the UK, Dr. Umemiya served as a research associate, and then as an assistant professor at Waseda University. During that time, he established a theatre group for students to perform plays in edited, yet original texts from 15th and 16th-century England. So far, the company has produced six shows despite the hardships caused by the global

pandemic. The group is still striving to challenge new projects, mainly publishing productions on their YouTube channel. Dr. Umemiya was awarded a Doctorate in English Literature from Waseda University in 2021, and currently, he enrolls as an Associate Lecturer at Seikei University while organising seminars on drama, English culture, and language policy at the universities in Tokyo.

Part I
Leaderful Leadership Education

Chapter 1

Incorporating Leadership Education into Undergraduate Courses: Utilizing a Duoethnographic Perspective



Soyhan Egitim and Michael C. Boyce

Abstract As contemporary leadership practices continue to evolve with rapid globalization, the need for leadership education has never been more urgent. Thus, in recent years, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) introduced new initiatives mostly targeting graduate education to foster next-generation global leaders. However, due to Japan's traditional recruitment system, which pressures students to secure employment even before graduating from university, most students never choose to pursue graduate studies. As a result, these initiatives have failed to bear fruitful results. In this chapter, we share our personal experiences as two Japanese university teachers on how we integrated leadership education into undergraduate-level courses in our distinctly different educational environments and discuss its potential implications for leadership education at the undergraduate level. We utilize a duoethnography method to share our lived experiences through dialogical narratives. As co-authors with similar educational backgrounds, we developed our individual leadership programs in different educational environments. Our experiences show that understanding the various possible leadership philosophies and incorporating insights gained from regular self-reflection, and feedback from students and other stakeholders into an adaptive and evolving program has the potential for effective leadership education at the undergraduate level.

Keywords Duoethnography · Leadership education · Leaderful pedagogy · Medical school · Undergraduate

The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) has recently introduced new initiatives through the *Leading Programs*. As of 2014, 62 leadership programs had been adopted by various national and private universities

S. Egitim (✉)

Toyo University, Faculty of Global and Regional Studies, Tokyo, Japan

e-mail: soyhanegitim@gmail.com

M. C. Boyce

Hamamatsu University School of Medicine, Shizuoka, Japan

(Okamoto & Matsuzaka, 2015). The goal of these programs was to ensure that leadership developed through training and practice and hence, in a deliberate attempt to move away from deep-rooted gender and seniority-based leadership practices. However, the current programs are primarily offered at the doctorate level. The conventional Japanese corporate system is based on lifetime employment, and hence, most undergraduate students in Japan are pressured to start their employment search during the third year of their university education. Given these circumstances, there is little merit in pursuing graduate education for most students, and they eventually opt out of leadership training at the academic level despite its well-documented benefits such as acquiring better decision-making and team-building skills and enhanced awareness of equity and inclusion. Several studies also reported that students who received leadership education at the undergraduate level showed a better understanding of the benefits of creating a positive work environment for organizations (Clapp-Smith et al., 2019; Egitim, 2023b; Yokota, 2021).

In this chapter, we shared our personal experiences of integrating leadership education into our undergraduate courses. We discussed the methods we used to promote leadership education at the undergraduate level while also reflecting on how our leadership identities influenced our pedagogical decisions, beliefs, and practices throughout this process. We employed a collaborative research method, duoethnography, which allowed us to share and analyze dialogical narratives to compare our experiences and perceptions of leadership education at the undergraduate level and the outcomes it produced in our distinctly different educational settings.

Literature Review

A Glance at Leadership Education in Japan

Recent studies show that leadership education at the undergraduate level is effective in helping students develop their leadership capacity which can have a profound influence on their college lives and beyond (Clapp-Smith et al., 2019; Komisev & Sowcik, 2020; Yokota, 2021; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhart, 1999). Komisev and Sowcik's (2020) study found that leadership education on campus helped promote leadership capacity in all students through peer influence, modeling, and its emphasis on leadership in the organizational culture. The findings from Zimmerman-Oster and Burkhart's (1999) study showed that students who were provided with leadership courses reported more growth in "civic responsibility, leadership skills, multicultural awareness, community orientation, understanding of leadership theories, and personal and societal values" (p. 12) than that of those who opted out of said courses.

In Japan, leadership education still lags behind other developed nations (Inoue, 2018; Okamoto & Matsuzaka, 2015; Yokota, 2021). The lack of emphasis on leadership education in the Japanese school system has been attributed to the prevalence of seniority-based leadership rooted in Confucian philosophy, which emphasizes

hierarchy and power distance between superiors and subordinates (Egitim, 2021; Paramore, 2016; Yokota, 2021). The influence of Confucian norms is notable in the structure and operational system of Japanese organizations, which is premised on seniority-based leadership (Bebenroth & Kanai, 2010; Egitim, 2022b). These deep-rooted norms also undermine the importance of leadership education in school curricula.

However, in recent years, the MEXT has ramped up its efforts to promote leadership education at the doctorate level by taking the initiative of the *Leading Programs* (Okamoto & Matsuzaka, 2015). The main objective of the *Leading Programs* initiative was to foster next-generation leaders by treating leadership as a skill developed through training and practice and moving away from seniority-based leadership. This initiative also found support from industry leaders who regarded leadership education as an essential component of internationalization. Despite its potential benefits, the *Leading Programs* initiative was primarily focused on doctoral students. As we mentioned earlier, most Japanese students focus on securing lifetime employment before they graduate from university due to Japan's traditional employment system (Yonezawa, 2019). As a result, they are usually unaware of the *Leading Programs* initiatives. As a result, they never end up taking advantage of them. Fostering global leaders for the next generation is an important mission of universities (Okamoto & Matsuzaka, 2015). Therefore, new initiatives may be needed to promote leadership education at the undergraduate level that students can benefit from before embarking on their careers.

Leadership Education in the Medical Field: A Comparison of North America and Japan

With the increasing complexity of medical education and practice, preparing health-care professionals for leadership roles and responsibilities at the undergraduate level has become a pressing need (Webb et al., 2014). As there is a “demand for greater accountability, changes in patient populations, and increasing regulation,” developing “leaders at all levels who can manage the organizational and systems changes necessary to improve health” has become the focal point of medical schools (Webb et al., 2014, p. 1563). Many medical schools worldwide started initiatives focusing on leadership education in their curricula (Maddalena, 2016). The reported benefits of promoting leadership education in medicine included enhancing knowledge, attitudes, and skills which are essential for practice, a greater ability to identify strengths and weaknesses, and a higher motivation and commitment to the field (Bligh & Brice, 2010; Maddalena, 2016; Steinert et al., 2003).

Although medical universities and national bodies around the world follow various guidelines, the Royal College of Physicians and Surgeons of Canadian Medical Education Directions for Specialists (CanMEDS) framework intentionally highlights the importance of leadership to the practice of medicine. Leadership is

one of the seven competencies outlined in the CanMEDS framework, the others being medical expert, communicator, collaborator, health advocate, scholar, and professional (Frank & Danoff, 2007).

Unlike North American medical schools, which require completion of a four-year undergraduate education before students can pursue a medical degree, Japanese medical schools accept students directly from high school. Considering these admission disparities represent differences of approximately five years, 18 and 23, respectively, and their corresponding mental and social development, one might conclude that Japanese medical students are at times more challenged by the practical realities and responsibilities of leadership than their North American counterparts due to the increasing levels of complexity relative to their age and experience (Kegan, 1980).

While including tremendous detail about medical education in Japan, the Model Core Curriculum for Medical Education does not specifically identify leadership as a physician competency (Medical Education Model Core Curriculum Coordination Committee, 2018). To understand the current foci of medical education in Japan, it is useful to recognize the nine basic qualities and abilities required of a medical university curriculum listed in the document;

- Professionalism
- Medical knowledge
- Problem-solving ability
- Practical skills
- Patient care
- Communication skills
- The practice of team-based healthcare
- Management of quality of care and patient safety
- Medical practice in society
- Scientific inquiry
- Attitude for life-long and collaborative learning

Considering the preceding list, it seems that only professionalism could be related to leadership and leaderful education (Medical Education Model Core Curriculum Coordination Committee, 2018; Ozeki et al., 2021). Medical students in Japan are treated as scholar-practitioners as they are not only immersed in medical content but also learn how to apply newly acquired knowledge to their practice (Teo, 2007). To complete medical school, one must pass the national certification exams with various practical elements (Suzuki et al., 2008; Teo, 2007). It is within this practical environment that my leadership educational training philosophy and methodology developed. Students are not just being trained to be leaders upon graduation; oftentimes, even before, they must demonstrate leadership to progress to public-facing medical roles. We would argue that the scholar-practitioner-oriented nature of medical education in Japan demands greater emphasis on leadership education in medical school settings. We believe that more robust research and individual efforts can help to spread awareness and, eventually, lead to more effective initiatives that can help support medical students in their challenging path.

Leaderful Classroom Practices

Leaderful Classroom Practices are defined as “pedagogical and class management practices which allow students psychological safety and freedom to engage in leadership roles in the classroom” (Egitim, 2022a, 2022b, p. 5). The pedagogical framework evolved from the *Leaderful Practice* theory, which views leadership as a “collective, concurrent, collaborative, and compassionate” endeavor (Raelin, 2021, p. 283). When leadership turns into a leaderful endeavor, all group members take the responsibility of leading (Egitim, 2023a). In this dynamic, “One takes the stance of the learner who sees [their] contribution as dependent upon the contribution of others” (Raelin, 2021, p. 285).

The question that arises here is, “How do teachers embrace leadership as a collective endeavor in the classroom while they are expected to exercise power and authority to lead?” Particularly, in East Asia, there is a deep-rooted perception that teachers are often viewed as leaders and students as followers (Egitim, 2021; King, 2013; Machida, 2015). In this dynamic, the teacher is viewed as the knowledge source, while students take on the role of passive recipients of the knowledge transferred by the teacher in a one-way flow (Egitim & Garcia, 2021; Loucky & Ware, 2016). The power relationship between the teacher and students originates from Confucianism, the influence of which is still visible in the Japanese education system (Aubrey et al., 2015; Smith, 2022). In Confucian-heritage education, virtue is achieved primarily by learning from teachers and imitating their attitudes (Matsuyama et al., 2019).

Given these sociocultural factors, embracing leadership as a collective endeavor and implementing leaderful pedagogy in a Japanese classroom may appear daunting. However, dynamic interactions between students and teachers working towards a common mission and objectives can create a favorable environment for implementing leaderful pedagogy. Once the teacher recognizes the value of reflective practice, the resulting empathy, and desire for collaboration should lead to *Leaderful Classroom Practices* (see Fig. 1.1).

The first step of *Leaderful Classroom Practices* is to guide teachers toward viewing leadership as a collective endeavor. In this regard, reflective practice plays a critical role in “helping teachers recognize their limitations and biases and the privileged position they are granted in the classroom” (Egitim, 2022a, 2022b, p. 27). As a result, teachers can develop an empathetic lens that would not only allow them to understand the challenges students face, but also stimulate their desire to collaborate with them. This process can make teachers more receptive to harnessing the talent and experiences students bring into the classroom.

The second step involves creating a psychologically safe learning environment for everyone in the learning environment. This is a critical step given that many Japanese students develop passive learning habits during their pre-tertiary education due to Japan’s highly teacher-centered learning environment (Egitim, 2020; King, 2013; Steele & Zhang, 2016). An orchestrated structure and scaffolding can provide students with a degree of psychological safety (Benson & Voller, 2014; Dörnyei,

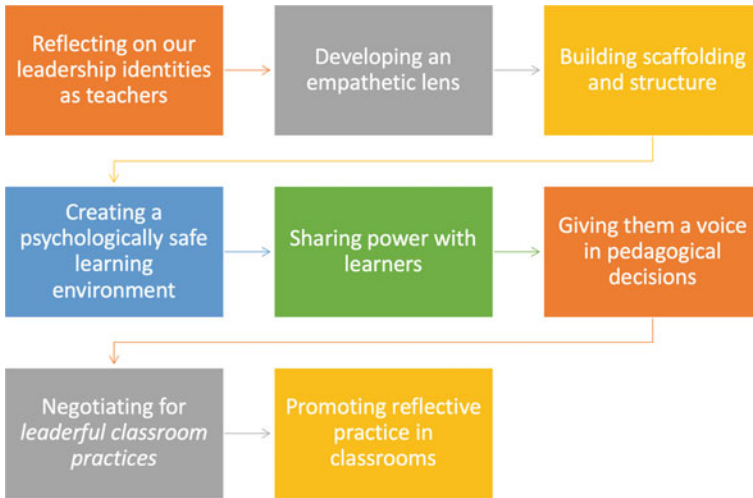


Fig. 1.1 Leaderful Classroom Practices. *Note* The figure outlines the framework demonstrated in the book, “Collaborative leadership through leaderful classroom practices: Everybody is a leader” (Egitim, 2022a, 2022b)

2014). The scaffolding and structure involve guidance in setting goals, planning activities, choosing resources, monitoring progress, evaluating outcomes, and reflecting on learning strategies (Egitim, 2022a, 2022b).

As students begin to take initiative within the structure, teachers can start yielding some of the power they are initially granted. This is when teachers can start engaging students in leadership roles and give them a voice in pedagogical decisions. As students embrace leadership roles in the classroom, they should also be encouraged to self-reflect. Adopting self-reflection as a habit can help students gain a deeper understanding of their learner identity and recognize what they can achieve as leaders (Egitim, 2021). In order to illuminate our lived experiences as two Japanese university teachers who embrace *Leaderful Classroom Practices*, we attempted to answer the following research question, “How do Japanese university teachers make sense of their personal experiences of incorporating leadership education into their undergraduate courses?”.

Method

Duoethnography

In this chapter, we used duoethnography to interpret and make meaning of our classroom experiences, pedagogical beliefs, and practices through our personal narratives. The self-reflective narratives, “referred to as reflexivity” allowed us to identify and interrogate the intersections between our leadership identities and classroom practices (Adams et al., 2017, p. 1). Duoethnography is not only a retelling of personal narratives, it requires a carefully organized research design and systematically collected and analyzed data (Roy & Uekasu, 2020). Hence, a narrative interview technique was adapted for this study where we shared our stories and expanded through further reflections through dialogue.

We used an instrument which had been approved by Northeastern University’s Institutional Review Board. We took our time and provided detailed written responses to the questions in a narrative style. Then, we set up an hour-long *Zoom* meeting where we reflected on our responses and provided further clarification through follow-up questions. We used introspective analysis to examine the duoethnographic aspects of our responses. In other words, we zoomed in on our personal, embodied experiences and zoomed out on wider concepts and frameworks for rich and authentic data (Hokkanen, 2017).

Participants

The first author, Soyhan Egitim, is an associate professor at a private university in Tokyo and teaches English and intercultural communication courses focused on building undergraduate students’ global competence. During his doctoral studies at Northeastern University, he developed a new pedagogical framework, *Leaderful Classroom Practices* which forms the basis of the present volume (Egitim, 2020). The co-author, Michael Boyce, is a full-time faculty member at a national medical university in Shizuoka, where he teaches international service learning (ISL), medical English, and a compulsory foundation course for medical and nursing students. The co-authors met through the Doctor of Education program at Northeastern University, studying the same curriculum with the same instructors, where they were exposed to the same theoretical, epistemological, and philosophical components of the doctoral program.

Narratives

Soyhan Egitim: Incorporating Leadership Education into Global Competence Classes

As I completed my doctoral studies with an emphasis on leadership in higher education, I felt the urge to understand students' perceptions of leadership and how they conceptualized it. Therefore, one day, I assigned all students a presentation assignment with a focus on the following four questions to understand their perceptions of leadership without any intervention on my part:

1. How do you define leadership?
2. What does it mean to be a leader within the Japanese context?
3. What kind of leader inspires you, please provide an example?
4. What kind of leader would you like to be, please provide an example?

In order to complete this task, the students engaged in research and critical inquiry, gathered data, wrote up presentation drafts, and designed PowerPoint slides. During week seven, which is considered the midway point in a Japanese semester, all students presented their perceptions of leadership to their peers in the classroom. Since I was also the teacher of the students, I observed their presentations, engaged in dialog with them, and took notes of their responses to the above questions. The data I gathered showed that students' perceptions of leadership were influenced by gender and seniority-based leadership notions in society (see Table 1.1). Although most of the students were female in this study, in most cases, leaders were illustrated as senior males with stern faces who walked in front of everyone and supposedly led them ($n = 290 > n = 109$). When the students referred to the leaders they were inspired by, the vast majority presented well-known male figures from politics, sports, and companies ($n = 77 > n = 19$).

These results indicated that it would only benefit students if we were to emphasize leadership during the rest of the semester. Therefore, I incorporated an eight-week leadership education program into the course with an emphasis on action learning, "the process by which a group of people works on a real issue, take on responsibility and produce solutions by taking action" (Zuber-Skerritt, 2021, p. 4). Hence, students were required to engage in critical inquiry described as "the process of gathering and evaluating information, ideas, and assumptions from multiple perspectives to produce well-reasoned analysis, leading to new ideas, applications, and questions" (Critical Inquiry, n.d.).

One of the goals of the student reflection was to help them gain perspective on their own mindsets, aspects they had previously taken for granted. The application of critical inquiry was essential for the students' recognition of their biases, and the resulting perceptual changes they experienced. Critical inquiry is also the first step of action learning. In this regard, action research gave the students an opportunity to recognize the flaws in their perceptions of leadership, identify the source of their

Table 1.1 Students’ perceptions of leadership in relation to gender

Variables (N = 107)	IF(MS) (N = 36)	IF(FS) (N = 71)	TF (N = 107)	RF(MS) (N = 36)	RF(FS) (N = 71)
Female images used to describe the concept of leadership	16	93	109	0.14	0.02
Male images used to describe the concept of leadership	160	130	290	0.25	0.20
Female leaders the students inspired by	3	16	33	0.004	0.025
Male leaders the students inspired by	54	23	77	0.08	0.03
Gender neutral human icons	24	24	48	0.03	0.03
Group images without a definitive	32	53	85	0.05	0.03

Note. The above data was extracted from the research study mentioned in this chapter. MS stands for male students. FS stands for female students. Image frequency (IF) shows the frequency of the images used by the students. TF stands for the total frequency, while RF stands for the relative frequency. In all cases, each image was assigned the value of one.

biases through group discussions and presentations, and take the initiative to address their misperceptions.

In order to perform critical inquiry and record their reflections, all presentation materials were uploaded to the university’s online portal where the students were able to access them with ease. During this process, I had minimal intervention yet raised questions such as “How did your peers perceive leadership in relation to gender” and “What do you think influenced their perceptions” to stimulate discussion. Performing critical inquiry allowed the students to re-examine their understanding of leadership and the factors influencing their perceptions.

The following week, the students reflected on their critical inquiry tasks through group discussions with their peers. During this process, they were able to see the issues from multiple lenses, critically evaluate their own presentations, share their assessments of other students, and enhance their understanding of the content. During the final few weeks of the course, the students were asked to prepare presentations focusing on the questions below:

1. Have there been any changes to your perception of leadership? If yes, how would you describe those changes?
2. What kind of leader inspires you, please provide an example?
3. Have there been any changes to your perception of what kind of leader you wish to be in the future? If yes, how would you describe those changes?
4. Could you reflect on what you learned from this action-learning experience?

While the presentations allowed the students to reflect on the action-learning process through critical inquiry, discussions, and presentations, I also had the opportunity to determine the changes in the students' perceptions of leadership. The experiment showed that integrating leadership education into a global competence course addressed the need for leadership education at the undergraduate level and allowed students:

- to research the concept of leadership
- to learn their peers' perspectives
- to engage in reflective practice, recognize their biases
- to gain a deeper level of understanding of leadership as an independent concept fueled by movement and influence rather than gender and seniority.

The action learning process, with minimal intervention on my part, resulted in a leaderful classroom environment where students embraced the initiative and guided each other. Hence, their engagement, motivation, and commitment remained alive during the whole process. Thanks to rapid globalization, higher education plays an integral role in the advancements of our societies. In this regard, university educators bear the responsibility of fostering students who embrace equity and social justice. Promoting these values at the undergraduate level not only enabled students to attain valuable knowledge that they could take beyond graduation but also helped them evolve as collaborative leaders who emphasized an open, democratic, and equitable society.

Michael Boyce: Incorporating Leadership Education into Medical University Classes: The International Service Learning Program

Although the classes in which I primarily teach leadership and leadership-related content are not English language classes, the classes are primarily taught in English because English is the language used to perform international service work. In this Japanese university environment, it is prudent to recognize the purpose and restrictions of our courses that contain leadership training content. As English language classes are generally administered under the purview of the English department, the purpose of classes is usually English language acquisition using leadership training content. Whereas the International Service Learning classes are content-based and taught primarily in English. Although a seemingly small matter,

the nuance is significant. It is important to note that the guidelines for medical English education in Japanese medical universities do not include requirements other than medical science-related vocabulary and clinical context dialogue. Additionally, neither leadership nor professionalism is specifically indicated (Fukuzawa et al., 2015).

Across the courses I am responsible for, the International Service Learning (ISL) program incorporates most of my leadership-oriented content. The ISL program consists of three distinct components; lectures/workshops, online reproductive health training, and fieldwork in three informal settlements in Kenya. Through scheduling and curriculum structure, the ISL course is specifically aimed at 3rd-year students, although upper years are free to join if they can find a way to incorporate it into their schedules.

During the lectures and workshops, we cover a range of content, including human rights, women's rights, action-learning, positive psychology, ethics and morality, effective altruism, conflict assessment, and resolution, resource allocation, cognitive dissonance, sense-making, social learning spaces, management and leadership, heterarchical leadership, authenticity, and conscious competence. It is an exhaustive list, and understandably we can only cover the content briefly. However, the philosophy behind this shotgun approach to social science thinking is to provide somewhat of a counterbalance to the quantitative science-based thinking that the students are generally surrounded by.

Utilizing an online system, students are required to write guided reflections on each of the lectures and comment on two other classmates' reflections. The reflections are guided by the CanMEDS framework borrowed from the Royal College of Physicians and Surgeons of Canada (ref). CanMEDS outlines the seven qualities: Medical Expert, Communicator, Collaborator, Leader, Health Advocate, Scholar, and Professional, that are necessary for Canadian medical students to meet the healthcare needs of their patient populations. The CanMEDS framework is particularly relevant because it specifically identifies leadership as a required medical student quality, something that the Japanese medical school guidelines do not specifically include. Students are first directed to choose one of the seven qualities and reflect upon how it relates to the materials presented in the lectures. As the program progresses, students are required to further refine their thinking by establishing if their reflections are based in action (present), on action (past), or for action (future). Three times throughout the year-long course, the students are required to submit positionality reports that address all seven CanMEDS qualities, specify if the focus is *in*, *on*, or *for*, and how their reflections relate to them as future medical professionals.

The online portion of the class runs concurrently with the lectures/workshops and provides an admittedly limited experiential component to the program but provides a framework to step up to the full experiential element of working in Kenya. Soon after the year begins, students are placed in rotating groups to teach reproductive health to elementary and junior high school students at a school in the Korogocho informal settlement of Kenya. We generally work with three groups of three medical students for each online class. The three students take the positions of lead teacher, assistant teacher, and observer. The lead teacher is responsible for bringing the group

together to practice before class, assigning duties in class, and addressing any issues that may come up. The assistant teacher is guided by the lead teacher to do various tasks, perhaps most importantly, recording questions and answers in the online chat to help overcome sound issues and add to the corpus of Q&A from which we build our materials. The observer does just that, watching student reactions, learning from the assistant and lead, and recording their observations for the post-class general reflection. At the beginning of the course, the lead teacher role is assigned randomly; then, as the class progresses, students can move in and out of roles based on an established rubric containing many elements of leadership. An example of this would be that students who miss a scheduled online class without alerting their group and the teacher, not demonstrating leadership qualities, are automatically skipped in the next round and must work their way up from observer again. This rarely happens, but it is necessary because we, as medical professionals, have an obligation to provide the best possible education that we can for the children in Kenya. Leadership skills are not only taught in an abstract context, but leadership, or the lack of it, has real-world consequences for the program stakeholders. The responsibilities of teachers to students are not so removed from those responsibilities of doctors to patients, and these authentic educational opportunities for medical students involve real trainers and students in Kenya. This is all the more critical when considering the cost that the school is allocating to their internet connection every month, and to our program, which could alternatively feed hundreds of their students. In the larger context of the six-year medical university curriculum, the positioning of this program in the third year is additionally relevant because between third and fourth-year students transition from academic learning to a more practical context working with patients and shouldering the responsibilities and leadership qualities that are necessary for this work.

Following each online class, the students and I engage in a group reflection on the day's class. Students then use the same online platform to answer a survey that directs them to reflect on their interactions with the Kenyan students and themselves as trainers and leaders. Finally, they write individual (non-guided) reflections and comment on each others' observations. Each portion of the ISL program is related to the other. A student cannot join the online training classes without also taking the lecture portion of the class which is composed of regular leadership training and workshopping to reflect upon and better use these skills in the leaderful environment of online work. Furthermore, students can not join the fieldwork in Kenya if they have not successfully completed both the lectures and the online classes because while living and working in Kenya, the students are constantly embracing various leadership roles as they adapt to a very fluid working environment.

Discussion and Conclusion

Despite having completed the same doctoral coursework at Northeastern University and sharing many of the same theoretical and philosophical influences, we have developed very different leadership education programs in response to our diverse teaching environments. With one of us teaching in a four-year liberal arts undergraduate program and the other in a six-year medical university, the demands and expected educational outcomes of leadership education appear to be vastly different.

In response to these different environments, we integrated and developed similar yet different approaches to leadership training, although one principle that is present and binds our educational philosophies is an acceptance of the need for an overall adaptive leadership approach (Heifetz & Linsky, 2017). Heifetz and Linsky (2017) recognize that leaders and leadership educators must recognize the need to constantly reassess their working environments and incorporate adaptive strategies to mitigate the challenges that all types of leaders encounter.

In Egitim's case, his leadership education focused on his classroom environment. Hence, he created an action-learning program to first use student inquiry to reflect on their perceptions of leadership, then, through the action-learning loops, students were able to critically investigate the concept of leadership and develop new perspectives on the concept independent from the social constructs of gender, nationality, and seniority.

With the two streams of lecture and online training, Boyce's program created a 'sink-or-swim' experiential environment. An example of this is the students' realization that communicating online with people using various accents and dialects is different from an English classroom in Japan. Another example would be the regular occurrence of Kenyan student questions that can socially, emotionally, and medically disrupt the medical students' understanding of their knowledge and experience. The greatest challenge of this experiential component is that real leadership is needed in an authentic situation. The Kenyan children rely on the group leaders to not only provide meaningful reproductive health training but to organize and prepare their individual groups even before the online meetings occur. The authentic nature of the experiential program does create an added element of risk to any leadership or leaderful training because mistakes do not only lead to poor grades or repeated assignments, but they could also in our context lead to real medical mishaps. The medical students are often asked questions that they are not qualified to answer, which could result in negative medical outcomes if the lead medical student trainer does not have the leadership to admit that they do not know an answer and will have to respond to the Kenyan student in the next class.

As the co-authors with similar educational backgrounds developed our individual programs in different educational environments, it was clear that a universal approach to leadership training is just as elusive as a universal approach to leadership. Understanding the various possible leadership philosophies and incorporating insights

gained from self-reflection, reflection, and feedback from students and other stakeholders into an adaptive and evolving program that utilizes what is needed, when it is needed, is the only safe way forward that we can see.

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Soyhan Egitim, EdD is an Associate Professor at Toyo University in Japan. He completed his Doctor of Education degree at Northeastern University, with a focus on organizational culture and leadership practices in higher education institutions. Recently, Dr. Egitim developed a new pedagogical framework, *Leaderful Classroom Practices* premised on the core values of liberty, equity, and social justice which forms the premise of this edited collection.

Michael C. Boyce is a Senior Assistant Professor at the Hamamatsu University School of Medicine, where he is actively involved in international service-learning program development. His current research is focused on guided reflection and peer-to-peer SRHR in social learning spaces. With a passion for global activism and education, his expertise and MA are in negotiation, conflict resolution, and peacebuilding. He is a doctoral candidate in organizational leadership education at Northeastern University.

Chapter 2

Professorial Humility: A Cornerstone to Student Agency



Harriette Thurber Rasmussen

Abstract The Opening: A Love Story

This is a love story about a sweet spot in my life—the first course I taught that brought almost 30 years of leadership development-oriented consulting to the hopeful aspirations of scholar-practitioner doctoral students. It is also a tribute to leaderful pedagogy that coincidentally explains my teaching practice. In this chapter, I explore the relationship of those practices to the core content of that particular course, leadership-as-practice (LAP; Raelin, 2016). It was in this course that I first encountered one of the editors of this volume and LAP, the theory that orients leaderful pedagogy and inspiration for this book. In doing so, I illuminate the relationship of professorial humility to student agency and how my leaderful pedagogical approaches contributed to both.

Keywords Leaderful pedagogy · Professorial humility · Student agency · Deep learning · Adaptive challenges · Dialogue · Perspective-taking · Psychological safety

The Premise: What Kind of Learning Are We Talking About?

I teach professionals—adults thriving in their careers and seeking to integrate scholarship into what they already know and understand about leading others. These are adult learners whose goals include increased agency to create a more socially just world. They are well beyond the quintessential undergraduate or even master's level student who is likely encountering content for the first time. In my courses, students draw upon critical academic foundations to push their practices to higher performance levels through reflection, scholarship, and new perspectives. Importantly, I am not an expert in their worlds; my role is to help them integrate scholarship into their practices in ways that will make them more effective at what they do. I

H. T. Rasmussen (✉)
Drexel University, Philadelphia, USA
e-mail: htr25@drexel.edu

have taught students who are leaders in their fields—engineers, collegiate scholars, athletic coaches, orthopedic surgeons, nonprofit leaders, higher education administrators, nurse educators, and authors To position me in a hierarchy of “I know more than you do” is not possible. Thus, the conversation about learning begins with humility.

Humility by Any Other Name

Much has been written, actually, about humility, although more in relation to leadership than to teaching and learning.¹ Humility is a cornerstone of Raelin’s (2016) leadership-as-practice theory, as he argues for intellectual humility as a key component of authentic discourse, where empathy is a key ingredient if people are to learn from one another. In the business world, thought leader Baer (2014) confirms that “if you don’t have humility—intellectual humility, to be specific—then you’ll never be able to learn” (p. 6). Sowick (2022) agrees that “humility is connected to both understanding and intellectual progress” (p. 14). Sowick also carefully distinguishes between humility and modesty, suggesting that productive humility is authentic, whereas modesty suggests a toning down of how one presents oneself. To be clear, I make the same distinction; modesty is not how I think of humility. I agree that humility should be authentic. What, then, is authentic humility?

Perhaps part of the answer is as simple as Grant’s (2021) discussion of confident humility, which he claims is, simply, when we “acknowledge what [we] don’t know” (p. 48). This was certainly my experience throughout my consulting career, even before entering the doctoral classroom, where I coached individuals who had expertise I did not. “I can’t tell you how to do your job,” I used to tell them, “But I can help you *think about* how you do your job.” Thus, I can attest that the presence of humility in my work with brilliant scholars and practitioners has been authentic. Sowick (2020) claims, however, that “humility, as a tool for proper perspective, can actually be utilized to reach an effective point between being overconfident on one extreme and underconfident on the other” (p. 60). Practicing humility, which Schein (2013) promotes as high curiosity and genuine interest, curbs the potential of an opinionated consultant (or professor) to over-function² (Gilbert, 2021), to transfer agency, rather than establish dependency. Authentic humility allows for perspective-taking and, importantly, positions my role as more of a partner than an expert in-all-things-you-need-to-learn.

¹ See, however, Hare (1992), Reid (2017), and Lung et al. (2022), and Waks (2019) for a sample of the available studies of humility and teaching.

² Over-functioning is a component of Murray Bowen’s family systems theory (Gilbert, 2017), where individuals may find themselves doing too much to maintain a relationship (over-functioning) or, on the other extreme (under-functioning), not doing enough. Both are essential caveats in an executive coaching relationship and, in the classroom. If the instructor is more concerned with a students’ learning than the student, it is likely they are over-functioning.

Another Kind of Partnership: Deep Learning and Agency

If I claim humility to be a cornerstone of agency, then it seems appropriate to clarify what is meant by student agency. Simply put, agency is one's belief that one can. Viewed through the lens of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1982), agency is an evolving capacity that develops in relationship with external sources. These external sources include people. Student agency, I argue, translates to a belief in one's capacity to learn and is an essential disposition to both embrace and push beyond Vygotsky's (1978) classic "zone of proximal development," where new learning involves some dependency on what Vygotsky terms as the "more knowledgeable other." This is a slippery slope. Agency is developed in concert with others *in order to* reduce dependency on others and Bandura's (1982) positioning of agency as an evolving capacity seems to speak to the developmental nature of learning. But the premise here, that agency is derived through interaction,³ aligns with leadership-as-practice (Raelin, 2016) and ties agency to collaboration and interaction with others.

With the goal of any educational endeavor being student agency and having established that student agency is derived through collaborative learning, I will go one step further and argue that real agency requires what Wergin (2020) asserts is deep learning. While deep learning is often studied as a component of machine learning, a machine's capacity to navigate complexity, the capacity of the human brain to learn, relearn and rethink complex content draws an important parallel to this discussion. This quote from Wergin (2020) serves to orient this chapter. It also orients my pedagogy.

Deep learning is... a way of being, a mindset, an orientation. It is a worldview that our understandings of the world around us are only temporary understandings, subject to constant inspection and scrutiny. Someone who is committed to deep learning does not simply react to experience, but engages fully with experience, knowing that the inevitable disquietude is what leads to efficacy in the world. (p. viii)

Efficacy in the world, efficacy of the individual—and agency. There you have it. Deep learning and agency, an essential framing for those who, like my students, intend to change the world. Wergin (2020) arrived at his explanation of deep learning through significant study, including a review of Pascarella and Terenzini's (1991, 2005) 50-year exploration into adult learning in higher education. Wergin's summary of Terenzini's (2014) work notes that deep-learning experiences:

1. Almost uniformly involve encounters with difference.
2. Require active engagement with those challenges.
3. Occur in a supportive environment.
4. Emphasize meaningful and real-world activities.
5. Involve other people and interpersonal activities.
6. Invite and encourage reflection and analysis. (Wergin, 2020, p. 31)

³ Complexity science, too, emphasizes that "everything depends on everything else" (Gharajedachi, 1999, p. 30).

In other words, deep learning is not always comfortable, although supported. Deep learning involves collaboration and, importantly, should be authentic—meaningful, and relevant to the learner. That is the fourth mention in this chapter of authenticity; I have already discussed authenticity in terms of humility (Sowick, 2022), discourse (Raelin, 2016), and agency (my contribution). My goal for my doctoral students is authentic, deep, learning—collaborative, often ambiguous, very complex, and always authentic, designed to develop the agency needed to lead a world that embodies those same characteristics: leadership pedagogy.

Leaderful Pedagogy

Now that I have positioned deep learning as essential to student agency, the outcome I hold for my students, and the collaborative aspects of both, I turn to my pedagogy and what makes it leaderful. I begin with a brief overview of leadership-as-practice, which, as noted above, orients leaderful pedagogy.

Raelin (2016) points out that leadership is not about position and can emerge from anywhere and anyone at any time. This is a frequent conversation with my students, many of whom are teachers, who freeze at the idea that they are “leaders,” equating the word leader with position or formal authority. I respond that successful leaders are authorized by those most impacted by the issue that calls for leadership—and that anyone can be authorized to lead. In fact, many failed initiatives have been attempted by those in formal positions of power but who were, in practice, never authorized by their followers. Raelin (2016) argues that “leadership becomes evident when agency [authorization] appears as a constraint to structure” (p. 5). Viewed through a pedagogical lens, course structures can inhibit or promote agency; leaderful pedagogy intends to establish the latter.

The basic premise of LAP is that leadership occurs through a collective effort. LAP also “emphasizes ... divergence, intersubjectivity, and ambiguity” (Raelin, 2016, p. 8), bearing a striking similarity to Wergin’s (2020) definition of deep learning. Raelin (2016, p. 6) further describes seven activities that occur within the LAP framework. These are summarized in Table 2.1 and displayed alongside Terenzini’s (cited in Wergin, 2020) related attributes of deep learning.

As shown, the overlap between LAP activities and deep learning is redundant, and many deep learning attributes depend on one another. For example, engaging in differences requires attention to a supportive environment; differences would not be visible without the involvement of others. The emphasis on meaningful and real-world challenges leads naturally to active engagement. Still, the encounter with differences may require that engagement be a mandate—with successful engagement dependent upon a supportive environment. Likewise, LAP represents a system of leaderful actions that contribute to learning, and together these represent a system of deep learning brought about by leaderful pedagogy. These intersections are explored below as I discuss my pedagogical practices, illustrating my version of leaderful

Table 2.1 LAP activities and attributes of deep learning

LAP practice	Deep learning
Scanning—identifying contributive resources such as information or technology	Emphasizes meaningful and real-world activities Requires active engagement with challenges
Signaling—mobilizing the attention of others	Emphasizes meaningful and real-world activities Requires active engagement with challenges Involve other people and interpersonal activities Almost uniformly involves encounters with difference
Weaving—creating webs of interaction, building trust between individuals	Occurs in a supportive environment Involves other people and interpersonal activities Almost uniformly involves encounters with difference Invites and encourages reflection and analysis
Stabilizing—offering feedback leading to learning	Invites and encourages reflection and analysis Occurs in a supportive environment Emphasizes meaningful and real-world activities Requires active engagement with challenges
Inviting—encouraging those who have held back to participate	Involves other people and interpersonal activities Occurs in a supportive environment Almost uniformly involves encounters with difference
Unleashing—making sure everyone who wishes to has a chance to contribute, without fear	Involves other people and interpersonal activities Occurs in a supportive environment Almost uniformly involves encounters with difference
Reflecting—triggering thoughtfulness within the self and with others	Invites and encourages reflection and analysis Involves other people and interpersonal activities

pedagogy and how these practices suggest (1) professorial humility and (2) student agency. I begin with the most basic of instructor moves: my name.

You Can Call Me Everything

I get called a lot of things in my classroom: Dr. R., Dr. H., Professor, Dr. Professor, and, yes, simply Harriette. Being referred to routinely as Dr. Rasmussen was somewhat of a shock after my consulting years, where titles were less emphasized, and

first names were the norm. I quickly realized that a desire to position myself in a learning partnership with my students—where we all had contributions to our mutual learning goals—was hampered by expected institutional formality. Being referred to as “doctor” became a power differential; I called my students by their first names. Wergin’s (2020) assertion that “power inequalities will hinder [the] ability to learn from one another” (p. 103) mirrored my own. My goal was to level the playing field, to position each of us as learners, and in so doing, to offer them permission to “not know.”⁴ I de-emphasized my power-over position to promote their power-to-do or, said differently, power-to-learn.

This was the first vision to my students of what Grant (2021) calls confident humility, the “confidence sweet spot” (p. 47). Grant distinguishes between believing in oneself—a pretty essential factor when teaching doctoral students—and maintaining uncertainty around aspects that may require learning. I began to outline this stance in the course syllabus when I wrote, *In my twenty-plus years of developing leaders, I have never once left a session without having learned as much or more than I have offered.* Notice that I never disclaim what I know, only that I expect to keep learning. This was my way of communicating that I was sufficiently confident not to claim I knew everything.

This communicate in the syllabus set the stage for what Raelin (2016) refers to as weaving—creating interactivity through webs of trusting relationships, beginning with my students’ relationship with me, also a factor in deep learning (Wergin, 2020). Related to the intentional involvement of others in a learning environment is the establishment of psychological safety (Edmonson, 1999, 2008, 2012; Higgins et al., 2011), or what Wergin (2020) refers to as a supportive environment. I started the weaving process in the first week of the course, grouping students into smaller units for dialogue around the resources provided, culminating in a team project. Teaming also represented an experiential component of LAP; without the presence of positional authority on their teams, they would need to grapple with the emergence of leadership to successfully fulfill the course expectations. The importance of these teams and their functioning was signaled (a LAP activity) through the course’s first formal assignment, the establishment of a team charter (Sverdrup & Schei, 2015). A team charter is a set of agreements on how team members plan to operate together, describing a supportive environment for challenging interpersonal work. The assignment pushed students to quickly apply LAP concepts as they were required to determine (1) how their collaborative efforts would mirror LAP principles; (2) common values and norms to develop strong relationships; (3) continuous communication strategies; (4) meeting functioning; and (5) the establishment of mutual accountability and equally distributed workloads. The charter elements involved each LAP and deep learning element identified in Table 2.1, and its development required processes that I argue were more influential to productive collaboration than the actual charter documents ultimately produced.

⁴ In Argyrus’ classic work, “Teaching Smart People How to Learn,” he explains what is particularly true for doctoral students—a reluctance to new thinking and the openness that can cause us to rethink.

Orpheus Orchestra Video Case Study

Most of my students had never worked on a leaderless team and were skeptical that production could occur without some authority. In a spirit that combined the proverbial “seeing is believing” with Wergin’s (2020) assertion that deep learning involves encounters with difference, and the need to introduce them to one of the most central of LAP’s constructs (the emergence of leadership in the absence of position), students were tasked with watching a video titled “Nobody on the Podium” about members of the acclaimed, and conductor-less Orpheus Orchestra navigating their differences (Orpheus, 2011). I asked them to work with a simple thinking routine (Ritchart et al., 2011), See, Think, Wonder, and carry on with a group-level discussion. This thinking routine begins with data (*What do I see or hear?*), then applies sensemaking (*What do I think?*), and finally, encourages inquiry (*What do I wonder?*).

Two aspects of this exercise were important to the development of student agency. One was the leveling of this activity; there was no possible right or wrong answer—only a requirement to watch, think, and wonder. There could be no expert, even if someone knew of the orchestra and its reputation, as the assignment questions were agnostic about expertise; this focused on process and, through translation, LAP in action.

The second critical aspect was the use of what I have called micro-structures (Rasmussen et al., 2018) to promote psychologically safe dialogue “through learner participation that [is] orderly and specific” (p. 243). Micro-structures,⁵ which include See, Think, Wonder, are “instructional scaffolds that require the learner to reflect and engage in making meaning through structured interactions with peers” (Rasmussen et al., 2018, p. 244). As may seem obvious, one of the goals of this exercise was to initiate what Raelin (2016) terms unleashing to encourage contribution without fear, as well as to trigger thoughtfulness. I argue that the use of protocols was instrumental in meeting those goals, especially given that it took place in Week 2 of a 12-week course, setting expectations early that students would be pushed to think and actively engage with each other. The excerpts below in Table 2.2 show the procession of student thinking and how the process they had witnessed aligned with LAP practices.

Storytelling

“See, think, wonder” was not the only micro-structure I utilized in that course to create psychological safety, develop trust, and promote discourse. A second required activity before constructing the team charter was storytelling. Each student was asked to.

think of a time when you were on a productive team, where you successfully contributed to the outcome, where you felt successful, respected, trusted, and engaged. What happened?

⁵ Microstructures are also referred to as protocols.

Table 2.2 Intersections of student responses to video case study with LAP activities

Thinking routine component	Student response	LAP activity
See	Members rotate who is part of the core group of leaders at certain times	Unleashing
See/Think	Whoever is in a leadership role at a given time has to be a good listener	Inviting
See/Think	It appears to me that the typical hierarchy within an orchestra is present within the leaderless orchestra	Reflecting
Think	Shared leadership creates a more complex scenario, but the outcome is a stronger sense of understanding among team members	Weaving
Think	I, for one, support the notion of modeling vulnerability, as this can create a safe space for open dialogue”	Weaving
Wonder	What happens after conflict and disagreements are resolved? Is there time for reflection/apology or does the group just move on?” (signaling)	Signaling

What were some of the small moments that made this so successful? Who was involved? What were their roles?

They were instructed to tell that story to their team members and then, as a group, list the attributes they had in common as a starting point for their charter. The process intended to encourage vulnerability, trigger reflection and analysis, and lay the groundwork for trust to grow, preparing for more challenging conversations as the course proceeded.

Vulnerability: A Cousin to Humility

In fact, I used storytelling as a key pedagogical strategy, carefully constructed to bring humanity into the leaderful classroom. I once told my class about a painful personal lesson that involved my (now late) husband, who suffered from dementia, exploring my realization that the way I had cared for my husband, by watching carefully for what he could not do for himself so that I could step in, had accelerated his decline—and that in hindsight his life would have been more rewarding (and perhaps extended), had our focus been on what he could do. That particular week we were exploring how one’s personal orientation and identity impact our decisions, with a teaching point related to the importance of reflection around perspective-taking in leadership. My perspective changed through experience and reflection.

Each week’s lessons began with a story to illustrate or bring that week’s content to life. During the first week of class, I established norms with a story about an allowance fiasco with my youngest child. In another week, I poked fun at myself, talking about an unnecessary trip to an emergency room to illustrate the relationship

between outcomes and decision-making. I revealed how I regained my appreciation for reflection when I suddenly became the primary caregiver to a grandchild during a medical emergency. And perhaps the most impactful story illustrated the power of collective agency through my young granddaughter's battle with cancer and her relationship with a member of Seattle's professional football team; they drew agency from each other in unexpected ways.

The specific teaching points, however, were minor compared to the culture I built through my stories. Storytelling is how I make myself human to my students, giving them permission to share their humanity with me, and with their peers. It is one way I exercise humility and is, without question, a vulnerable act. Wergin (2020), however, refers to storytelling as an art form and points out, that "what's wonderful about the arts is that [while] you can feel vulnerable, but you don't appear [vulnerable] at all (Allen, 2021). Storytelling also models a powerful leadership strategy (Aidman & Long, 2017; Harris & Kim Barnes, 2006; Mládková, 2013). Per Wergin (2021),

People can relate to stories. You can empathize with stories. And once you're able to do that, the stories can be incredibly powerful means of stimulating a deep learning kind of experience, because ... you are able to not just engage with, but in some ways identify with another person's story. (Allen, 2021)

Stories are personal, and our stories can make us feel vulnerable, even if, as Allen (2021) claims, we don't necessarily appear that way to others. But I argue that vulnerability may be a necessary partner to professorial humility. The relationship of vulnerability to humility does not populate the literature, but the association seems natural to me. After all, the admission that one does "not know" may cause feelings of vulnerability—which is how Grant (2021) and I explain humility. Vulnerability on its own has been well explained, though (Brown, 2012; Fuda & Badham, 2011; Gilson, 2014; Jackson, 2021) and according to Gilson (2014), it includes "the ability to put oneself in and learn from situations in which one is the unknowing, foreign, and perhaps uncomfortable party" (p. 309). To be clear, the type of learning I expect of doctoral students is not always comfortable, at times, intentionally so, as a route to student agency.

Deliberately Disorienting

The team charters were put in place to make learning safe for students among their peers and my stories established my brand of humility. With weaving taking place between students (trust-provoking interaction) and clear evidence of inquiry taking place in teams, I began to push my students into less comfortable learning experiences, drawing on multiple aspects of leaderful pedagogy and deep learning. One of these explorations related to what I called "the collectives." A key resource provided to students was Wenger and Snyder's (2000) model of communities of practice, a structure to enable what they were being asked to develop in their teams: collective

intelligence.⁶ They were also reading more deeply into LAP's discussion of collective agency. Along with these, I provided a case study of United States Army operations in 2004 Iraq (McChrystal et al., 2015) to consider the concept of collective consciousness. Raelin (2016) and Wenger and Snyder (2000) were contributive resources (LAP practice of scanning); the case study aligned with Wergin's (2020) assertion that deep learning requires grappling with real-world activities. The associated assignment was as follows:

Your discussion this week will begin with an analysis of how three of this week's authors discuss collective outcomes: agency (Raelin), intelligence (Wenger), and consciousness (McChrystal). You'll begin with your own thinking, reach out to gain additional perspectives from classmates, not on your team, and then process the ideas with your team. Secondly, you'll be adding leadership to your discussion as a way to further understand distributed and associated leadership theories and their role in creating the attributes of collective agency, intelligence, and consciousness.

The assignment also emphasized the challenges facing students while reassuring their capacity to engage in this type of thinking:

I want to acknowledge that the differences between the concepts of collective agency, intelligence, and consciousness are challenging and ambiguous. You may feel the need to rush to a "correct" answer when, in fact, your conclusions will require reflection, consideration, and reconsideration. Doctoral work, by its very nature, requires levels of thinking that stretch your brain, and which may cause some level of discomfort. I encourage you to sit with any confusion as you reach out to others, dialogue with your team, and evolve your own thinking. Know that you are in good company; this is challenging material, and I have every confidence that you are up to that challenge. Your work to date has shown me that.

It would be ludicrous (and false) to claim that students jumped right into this activity without consternation and seeking correct answers. One of the assignment's goals, however, was to help students become more comfortable with uncertainty. And they did. A few excerpts from our discussion board summary, appropriately titled "Mental Gymnastics," show how they rose to the occasion. I would argue that these reflections demonstrate active engagement. They certainly illustrate the type of deep reflection brought about by the structures of the assignment and, I would add, a route to the agency as these reflect independent thought.

Collective consciousness deepens the level and quality of interaction, which enhances the collective agency at work, which, in turn, develops the level and quality of the collective consciousness. Intertwined collective intelligence and collective consciousness are the two rocket boosters that fuel collective agency so that the team can achieve lift-off and break free of the atmosphere.

This was an important exercise in more closely examining one's perception of knowledge. However, these theories diverge when one considers how collective leadership is employed, including where these individuals are situated as part of a collective.

⁶ Collective intelligence was a label I used to describe the emergent outcomes of a community of practice (CoP), which Wenger and Snyder (2000) define as "groups of people informally bound together by shared expertise and passion for joint enterprise" (p. 139). CoPs involve most of LAP practices.

It does seem that regardless of the size of a leaderless group, the group will almost always end up reporting to someone in charge of the members of the group. I think this might be where McChrystal takes us. He knows that he is a leader, but he facilitates absolute involvement while allowing near-total transparency, from everyone on the team.

Rescuing or Scaffolding?

These types of assignments lead to one of the more challenging moments for professors, decisions as to how to scaffold students' learning without what Thomas (2015) refers to as rescuing. This is particularly true in a leaderful classroom, where a quest toward student agency fostered through deep learning requires challenging material and a supportive environment. At what point does professorial support become lower expectations? LAP claims that the act of stabilizing results from feedback to the learner, implying that grounding and learner confidence result from feedback. I had students attend office hours, representing their team and defiantly requesting clarity around the content I intended to be disorienting. The nuances between theories are often slight in doctoral work and, in this particular instance, very much so—designed with that intention. The point of these lessons was not to “get it right;” instead, they intended to provoke thinking and dialogue, key attributes of LAP and leaderful pedagogy. It was through those processes that students would collectively amass a deeper understanding of the content and each other to find a way forward. My role was to send them back to each other to do just that. This is how agency develops—through the type of struggle that provokes deep thinking. Too, there is a kind of arrogance in assuming one needs to fix others' confusion. Scaffolding shows respect for another's capacity to be agentic.

Triggering

Navigating the collectives was not the only way leaderful pedagogy provoked disorientation to reach deep reflective practices. Provocation was employed most weeks to mobilize students' attention, another LAP practice. At times students were tasked with analyzing real-world events that were meaningful to them, encompassing several key aspects of deep learning, e.g., relevance, engagement, interaction with others, and exposure to different perspectives. During our week focused on social justice, our content foci included the role of context in leadership, identity, and dialogue. Students were asked to depart their teams and choose between several movements related to social justice that were, in that time frame, significant to the United States (where the bulk of my students reside): Black Lives Matter, White Supremacy, MeToo, and NeverAgain.⁷ Their task: to clarify that movement's sense of marginalization

⁷ Black Lives Matter and White Supremacy both related to race relations in the United States; MeToo focused on sexual harassment in the workplace, and NeverAgain on gun violence. Students also had the opportunity to initiate a discussion around a grassroots movement relevant to them.

and analyze the collaborative leadership aspects of these movements, including how local and global context shaped its leadership and the role of dialogue in its success. This exercise required students to surface their assumptions about movements they may have found abhorrent. My goal here was perspective-taking, critical to LAP, where the dialogue required for progress is certain to surface conflict that can only be resolved through an empathic approach to understanding the need and intents of others. Student responses from this exercise illustrated a deepening understanding of the power of LAP through deep learning. Table 2.3 examines these intersections and shows the power of reflective perspective-taking that triggers learning.

Humble Curiosity: Letting Go to Let Come⁸

Decades ago, I watched an iconic leader comfortably acknowledge when he did not know something. That was, perhaps, my first exposure to humility exhibited by someone in a position of power. He always followed his “I don’t know” with “but I’ll find out,” eventually returning with an answer. But in today’s complex world, most leadership challenges are less about finding an answer than finding and experiencing a direction (Berger & Coughlin, 2023; Berger & Johnston, 2015). An “answer” is most likely in response to a technical question and less so about the aspects of leading that involve the human experience, what Heifetz et al. (2009) would term adaptive challenges. And so it is in a leaderful classroom. Although I tell my students from day one that we can always fix whatever is not working, leaderful pedagogy suggests fixing to be less about telling and more about collective learning, which brings me back to the roots of my argument: the importance of professorial humility to developing student agency.

It is hard to let go of what we know and to sit with the unknowing. It is even more difficult to do so publicly, particularly when one is in a position of authority and power. I argue that this is precisely when it is most important to let go—to stay open to the perspectives, ideas, and understandings of others, without which, according to Raelin (2016), we are unable to lead or, according to Wergin (2020), learn at a level that matters. This is the essence of leaderful pedagogy—acknowledging that necessary space of humble curiosity, of what I have termed professorial humility.

This chapter began with that central premise, that a disposition of humble curiosity, my professed professorial humility, is a central avenue to student agency. I positioned learning that matters as deep learning, researched by Teranzini (2005, 2014) and explained by Wergin (2020), and illustrated leaderful pedagogy through its orienting theory, leadership-as-practice (Raelin, 2016). This chapter also explained how I triggered uncertainty to help students experience the power of not knowing as a route to deep learning. And it showed examples of student thinking in response to deliberately disorienting prompts and assignments, all in service of student agency. I believe the

⁸ A major concept of Theory U and its discussion of presencing (Scharmer, 2016).

Table 2.3 Ways in which triggering connected students to LAP and deep learning

Student insight	Connections to LAP and deep learning
<p>The virtual nature of these communities allows unprecedented insight. To understand those that may not agree with me, I just need to wander over to their hashtag for a bit and see what they have to say. I can gain insight into the thinking of people I don't really understand more easily than I ever have before. If I can get past my own identity long enough to dissect and try to understand the root of what the other community is saying, a door to dialogue opens. I think we will see the best version of leadership come out of these virtual communities of practice when they understand this and work to ignite conversations with each other that may invoke lasting change</p>	<p>One can see here that the student has leaned into the concept of dialogue as an attribute and outcome of LAP. This post shows deep reflection, a rethinking of perspective, and has clearly actively engaged with the challenge of understanding difference</p>
<p>I find solace in the fact, that dialogue for issues of social justice can be filled with compassion and understanding. Tensions are inevitable but the values that we share as human beings, can mold and shape the world imagined</p>	<p>This post suggests the practice of weaving is taking place in the movement they studied, a deeper understanding of key elements of dialogue, and comfort with difference</p>
<p>I wanted to challenge myself to think through how white supremacists may feel marginalized. If I were to think of the white supremacist mentality, they would feel their identity is at risk</p>	<p>There is an element of invitation here—where the student has sought out the challenge of perspective-taking through encountering difference</p>
<p>From what I've seen, white supremacists aren't interested in hearing different ideas or for giving up any power; the power comes from lack of conversation as opposed to actually engaging in real dialogue</p>	<p>This student recognizes the role of dialogue in power-to-do and is engaged in an internal process of reflection and feedback (stabilizing)</p>
<p>Born out of emotionally charged political views, its cohesion is based on the relational leadership aspects which emphasizes the processes, with more emphasis on what is done than who is doing it</p>	<p>An example of unleashing and inviting, this post describes the power of involving others in a meaningful real-world challenge</p>
<p>The fact that I can't think of one primary leader for this movement says, in itself, a lot. Aspirationally, everyone sees themselves as equally responsible for the outcome of the movement</p>	<p>This student has grasped the basic premise of LAP through this examination, that progress comes from what people can do together</p>

excerpts of student thinking show agency, and the confidence to explore and lead the unknown.

I also explained how I established my classroom as a place of psychological safety, vulnerability, and humanity, through stories that allowed my students to know me so that I could, in turn, know them—as students, as leaders, and as people. Brown

(2012) claims vulnerability to be “the core, the heart, the center, of meaningful human experiences” (p. 12). Leaderful pedagogy, I argue, is about the human experience and is personal, as is leadership. Getting personal established my brand of humility, allowed trust to flow, and, ultimately, develop the relationships that allowed me to push my students into less comfortable ways of learning. So yes, this chapter was a love story, about a love of deep learning, about humble curiosity as a driver of that learning, and about knowing my students well enough to help them push their boundaries. As Wergin (2020) notes,

Deep learning happens when existing beliefs are challenged, but only within the limits of a person’s perceived ability to handle the challenge. To put it another way, *deep learning is achieved when an optional tension exists: between a perceived challenge to one’s existing belief system on the one hand, and a perceived level of confidence in one’s ability to create new meaning in that system on the other.* (emphasis in the original, p. 35)

This sounds like humility to me. What is not to love about that?

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Dr. Rasmussen is an Assistant Clinical Professor at Drexel University’s School of Education, where she teaches courses in leadership and supervises dissertations. She has also taught courses

and advised students at Northeastern University. She has three decades of experience in organizational and leadership development in K-12 school systems, creating learning systems in school districts that range in size from 500 to 50,000. She received her EdD from Fielding Graduate University, studying the effects of peer observation on collective efficacy among elementary school teachers.

Chapter 3

Leaderful Practices Beyond the Classroom: Examining How Students Thrive Within a Complex Dynamic Ecosystem



Satoko Watkins and Jo Mynard

Abstract In this chapter, the authors present a case study of how a self-access learning centre (SALC) in a mid-sized private university near Tokyo in Japan promotes leaderful practices. The SALC is a large and multifaceted space with many moving parts, all affected by the actions of people and projects within it. We draw on self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci and Ryan, 1985), a meta-theory of motivation and wellness to guide our environment and practices. Taking an SDT approach means promoting our learners' autonomy and feelings of competence within a supportive learning community. In this chapter, we examine examples of leaderful practices by students by re-interpreting the findings of several studies conducted in our context. Taking a complex dynamic systems perspective, we show that, as learning advisors with leadership roles, we intentionally support and empower both our students and our colleagues as part of the SALC ecosystem.

Keywords Student-led learning communities · Learning beyond the classroom · Self-access learning · Complex dynamic systems · Autonomy-supportive learning

Leaderful Practices Beyond the Classroom: Examining How Students Thrive Within a Complex Dynamic Ecosystem

This chapter explores how a self-access learning centre (SALC) in a mid-sized private university near Tokyo, Japan promotes leaderful practices. A SALC is (usually) a physical facility that supports language learning outside the classroom by providing

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S. Watkins (✉) · J. Mynard
Kanda University of International Studies, Chiba, Japan
e-mail: watkins-s@kanda.kuis.ac.jp

spaces, resources, facilities, courses, advising, and learning communities (LCs). The inspiration for the chapter came from the results of several recent studies conducted in our SALC that showed how students demonstrated and communicated leadership (Hooper, 2020; Knight & Mynard, 2018; Watkins, 2021, 2022). Drawing on findings from these and additional studies in our context, we examine examples of leaderful practices by students beyond the classroom in the SALC. Leaderful practices are defined as “collective, concurrent, collaborative, and compassionate” (Raelin, 2021, p. 283) practices and occur due to intentional effort to create the optimal environment. As Egitim (2022) writes, “When leadership turns into leaderful practice, the responsibility of leading is assumed by group members collectively and concurrently” (p. 8). Using Murray and Fujishima’s (2016) model as a starting point, we show how dynamic and interconnected systems associated with the SALC ecosystem contribute to leaderful practices. We (the two authors) are learning advisors in the SALC who also have leadership positions; Jo is the SALC Director, and Satoko is a Principal Learning Advisor. We explore our roles in creating the conditions for leaderful practices to emerge.

Background Information

Context

The study is set in the SALC at a university in Japan specialising in languages, international cultures, and global liberal arts (the interior of the SALC is shown in Fig. 3.1). The SALC mission states that we aim to “facilitate prosocial and lifelong autonomous language learning within a diverse and multilingual learning environment” (Mynard et al., 2022, p. 33). This is done by providing students with access to supportive and inclusive spaces, resources, and facilities so that they can develop ownership of their own language learning process. Our educational services, such as advising and workshops, help learners to reflect deeply on their learning and make the process personally meaningful.

Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

We draw on self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1985) to frame our environment and practices. SDT is a meta-theory of motivation and wellness which can be applied to all life spheres where we can examine the conditions that help people to grow and thrive. Such environments are considered ‘autonomy supportive,’ which we consider instrumental to promoting leaderful practices. One of the widely applied mini-theories in SDT is basic psychological needs theory which posits that three basic psychological needs must be present for people to perform optimally. These are



Fig. 3.1 The self-access learning center (SALC) at Kanda University of international studies

autonomy, i.e., agency and being able to make decisions based on inner motivations; *competence*, i.e., a feeling of optimal challenge and the ability to do a task (i.e., use a foreign language) proficiently; and *relatedness*, feelings of belonging, support, and acceptance. Mynard (2022) and Mynard and Shelton-Strong (2022) provide details of how SDT is a suitable theoretical framework for underpinning self-access and give examples of activities within a SALC that are particularly autonomy-supportive. One of these is the promotion of interest-based LCs, which we will explore in more detail in this chapter.

Case Study Research

The broad research question that guides this chapter is ‘How do we promote leaderful practices among LCs in a self-access centre in Japan?’ and we approach it using case study methodology. A case study approach is appropriate for this inquiry because we investigate an in-depth phenomenon in a real-life context which is particularly useful in a situation where the phenomena and context are interconnected (Yin, 2009). In addition, we are investigating a unique situation with many contributing factors requiring data and evidence from multiple sources. Yin (2009) notes that using a previously identified theoretical position can be beneficial as a starting point for exploring the case study. We have used the transdisciplinary framework of complex dynamic systems theory (Douglas Fir Group, 2016; Larsen-Freeman, 2017) to frame previous research studies, which themselves draw on multiple theories.

A Complex Dynamic Systems Approach

As we are looking at the role of multiple interconnected factors within the SALC context on the development of leaderful practices, we take a complex dynamic systems approach. As Cilliers (1998) writes, “a complex system is not constituted merely by the sum of its components, but also by the intricate relationships between these components” (Cilliers, 1998, p. 2). From this perspective, learners’ “understandings are to a great extent shaped by larger social institutional expectations, they, as individual agents, also play a vital role in shaping them” (Douglas Fir Group, 2016, p. 33). A SALC that is defined as a social learning space is certainly a dynamic system. In 2018, Murray conceptualised a SALC as a *complex dynamic ecosocial system* and notes that “complex dynamic systems cannot be created; nonetheless, their emergence can be encouraged or facilitated” (2018, p. 109). We refer to Murray and Fujishima’s (2016) model that outlines how educators can intentionally create a social learning space that has the potential to become a complex dynamic ecosocial system.

The SALC at KUIS is a large and multifaceted space with many moving parts affected by the actions of people and projects. As part of this ecosystem, we, as learning advisors with leadership roles, intentionally support and empower both our students and our colleagues. This, in turn, creates a culture where they also empower others. Figure 3.2 shows that leadership is a collective responsibility, where members of the community are all provided with the support to take initiative or become the leader and to support others in the process. The large circles in the figure represent communities within the SALC ecosystem. The connected lines show autonomy support in motion, and the small circles within them represent people. The arrows indicate how the leaderful practices are passed along (in all directions) within an autonomy-supportive environment. The dotted circles represent future generations of communities or even communities *beyond* the SALC, which are influenced by the SALC communities.

Research Paradigm

We frame our chapter within the interpretivist paradigm, which has the benefit of providing an in-depth and relevant account of a given phenomenon. We draw on findings from previous studies to support our ideas and use our own experiences to interpret the connections to present the results. We draw on our experiences and beliefs to present our findings about how leaderful practices exist within the ecosystem of the SALC. This approach is complicated, and stories are affected by personal researcher interpretations. We have made every effort to ensure rigour by drawing on multiple data sources and supporting our interpretations with extracts from relevant data.

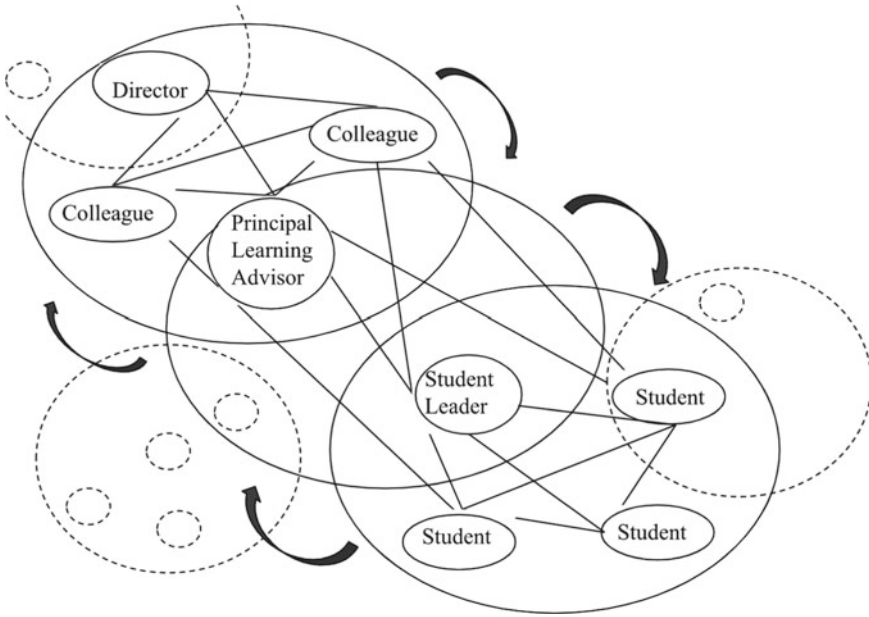


Fig. 3.2 The SALC as a complex dynamic social ecosystem for promoting leaderful practices



Fig. 3.3 SALC learning community posters

Researcher Positionality

In taking this approach, we acknowledge our positionality as researchers. As Miyahara (2019) writes, “more than we would like to admit, researchers are inevitably a part of the study as are the participants. How we take into account the effect of our presence on our research is a critical issue” (p. 87). Furthermore, Miyahara suggests that “researchers within a qualitative framework need to be more open about their professional as well as their personal background in order to make transparent their roles in the research” (Miyahara, 2015, p. xi). With this in mind, we acknowledge our positionality and roles as researchers as well as members of the dynamic system we are studying.

Satoko

Satoko worked as a university English Lecturer before becoming a Learning Advisor at the current institution in 2013. She was originally attracted to the new role as it would allow her to spend more time with individual learners and support their learning processes. Through her own reflective professional practice, she learned that social learning influenced learner motivation and empowerment as students had the chance to use language authentically and reciprocally. She initiated the early student-led activities, and these developed naturally into other projects such as, interest-based learning communities (Watkins, 2022), tandem learning (Watkins, 2019), and peer advising (Curry & Watkins, 2016). In her role as Principle Learning Advisor, she has the responsibility of fostering social learning in the SALC, which includes working with student leaders. Through her work, she realised that the SALC is a unique educational space where we work with individual learners and are not concerned with assessment. Our role as learning advisors means we can learn about who they are and what they bring to the community to encourage their prosocial learning behaviour. These behaviours, in turn, contribute to others’ learning - which leads to creating an inclusive and holistic learning environment (Watkins & Hooper, 2023).

Jo

Jo has been the SALC Director since 2008. She joined the existing SALC after working in the field of language education since 1993 and living and working in 12 different countries. Before coming to Japan, she established and managed a similar centre at a university in the UAE. She has a clear personal mission that aligns with the mission of the SALC (see Mynard et al., 2022). In 2020, she published an analytic autoethnographic narrative (Mynard, 2020a, b) in which she explained that her personal mission statement is to “make a difference to language education”

(p. 296). Her working philosophy has evolved over many years, and it originally stemmed from her academic interest in promoting language learner autonomy and motivation. She became interested in these fields while doing an M.Phil in Applied Linguistics at Trinity College Dublin, Ireland (1997) and an EdD in TEFL at the University of Exeter, UK (2003). Over the years, increasingly influenced by self-determination theory, she has expanded this scope in her leadership roles. She actively tries to create an autonomy-supportive learning and working environment. Her motivation for writing this chapter is to examine how/whether her autonomy-supportive leadership style has contributed to student leadership development.

Method

We answer our research question by taking two approaches. First, we explore the wider ecosystem of the SALC as a context for supporting the LCs and leaderful practices. We collated and synthesised the results of multiple research projects conducted in the SALC over the past five years.¹ We discussed and analysed the research results in line with Murray and Fujishima's (2016) model. We initially did this by writing an extended descriptive text exploring how features of the model were encapsulated in our previous research findings. The results of this process are summarised in Table 3.1. Next, we highlighted the nature of interest-based LCs as a way of promoting leaderful practices. We did this by drawing on two of our key studies and sharing excerpts of student narratives as evidence of how they develop their LCs.

Findings

Part 1: SALC as a Complex Dynamic Ecosystem: A Synthesis of Previous Studies

As there are so many elements to explore in a complex dynamic ecosystem, we decided to use a pre-existing model to guide our analysis. The model we chose was developed by experts in Japan (Murray & Fujishima, 2016), and based on the results of a five-year ethnography and a series of case studies (Murray, 2018; Murray & Fujishima, 2013) conducted in a similar self-access learning space to ours. Drawing on Davis and Sumara (2003), Murray and Fujishima (2016) include the following features in their model: *Vision, Diversity, Randomness, Cohesion, Space, Neighbour interactions, Reciprocity, Levels of engagement, Redundancy, Decentralised/distributed control, Archives/Social media, Personalisation, and Space*. We have

¹ The studies we included in our synthesis are indicated in the reference list with an asterisk.

Table 3.1 Results of the research synthesis following Murray and Fujishima (2016)

Features	Explanation (Murray & Fujishima, 2016)	Application to our SALC based on the research synthesis
Vision	Vision should be explicit; will shift over time	Vision clearly stated and has shifted over time, incorporating guiding philosophies: learner autonomy (since 2001), constructivism and sociocultural theory (since 2011), transformational learning (since 2016), complex dynamic systems theory (since 2020), and basic psychological needs and well-being (since 2018). (e.g., Mynard & Shelton-Strong, 2022; Mynard, 2012, 2020a; Yamaguchi et al., 2012)
Diversity	Diverse staff/students drawing on a variety of knowledge, talents, interests, and backgrounds	Diversity and inclusion acknowledged (e.g., Mynard et al., 2022a, b; Pemberton et al., 2023)
Redundancy	Some commonalities across members; commonalities facilitate interaction and lead to coherence	Redundancy incorporated; learners have common languages and often share similar interests and goals; staff interested in supporting learners (e.g., Mynard & Stevenson, 2016)
Randomness	Open and flexible to change	SALC is flexible; ongoing research; aims to improve services to students (e.g., Mynard, 2016)
Cohesion	Presence of organisational systems to ensure support and continuity	Efficient organisational systems, e.g., the system for encouraging the formation and support for LCs (e.g., Mynard, 2016; Watkins, 2021)
Archiving/Social media	Systems for sharing/saving details of activities important for increased stability and coherence; develops group identities	Presence of SALC news blog and regular journal publications; artifacts produced by LCs and social media activities (e.g., Watkins, 2021)
Space	Physical environment/virtual space is an active agent (Oblinger, 2006); "space has to speak to learners' imagination" (Murray, 2018)	Acknowledgement that the environment effects learning and activities within it (Mynard et al., 2020, 2022); SALC intentionally does not resemble a regular classroom (e.g., Cooker, 2010; Mynard, 2022)
Neighbour interactions	Instances of social interaction and modelling provided by other users of the space	SALC is intentionally conceptualised as a prosocial space (Mynard et al., 2022); collective responsibility of staff and students to promote interaction, and support others; supports learners' autonomous motivation for learning English (e.g., Mynard & Shelton-Strong, 2020; Yarwood et al., 2018)

(continued)

Table 3.1 (continued)

Features	Explanation (Murray & Fujishima, 2016)	Application to our SALC based on the research synthesis
Reciprocity	Learning from others; contributing to the group	Prosocial attitude; members of the LCs contribute to the group and learn from each other (e.g., Watkins, 2022)
Levels of engagement	Freedom to engage to different degrees	SALC use optional (but everyone receives an orientation); participants of the LCs are free to engage to a degree comfortable for them (e.g., Hooper, 2000)
Decentralised control	Avoidance of top-down leadership	Autonomy-supportive leadership style; autonomy supporting learning and working environment (Mynard, 2020b, 2022); presence of student staff and volunteers (Curry & Watkins, 2016; Namaizawa & Noguchi, 2018; Oki & Hall, 2022)
Personalisation	Participants can personalise their activities to ensure they are meaningful	Emphasis on individuals' goals, interests and other individual differences (e.g., Curry et al., 2017; McLoughlin & Mynard, 2018; Mynard & McLoughlin, 2020; Mynard & Stevenson, 2017)
Not included by Murray and Fujishima (2016)		
Intentional reflective dialogue for well-being	One-to-one conversation to help someone reflect deeply and feel listened to and valued	Effective advising service for students (e.g., Kato & Mynard, 2016; Shelton-Strong, 2022a); well-developed mentoring system for staff (Kato, 2022)

added: *Intentional reflective dialogue for well-being* to this model. For brevity, we summarise the analytic synthesis of our previous research in Table 3.1.

Intentional reflective dialogue for well-being was not a feature of Murray and Fujishima's (2016) model. Still, it is the cornerstone of our SALC both for staff and students, both inside and outside the classroom. Originally conceptualised to support language learners, intentional reflective dialogue (Kato, 2012, 2022; Kato & Mynard, 2016) is a one-to-one conversation with a trained advisor who helps the advisee to reflect deeply and take charge of their own learning. It is important that the advisor develops trust and rapport so that the advisee feels listened to, and accepted, that they reflect deeply, and make all important decisions related to their language learning (Shelton-Strong, 2022a, b).

Shelton-Strong and Tassinari (2022) showed how the advising dialogue is essential in creating an autonomy-supportive 'climate' in order for meaningful learning to occur. Similarly, when taking on a mentoring role, learning advisors also use intentional reflective dialogue with their mentees. In order to support their colleagues, they take a non-judgmental approach, enabling the mentee to grow at their own pace in a mutually supportive environment. In terms of our leadership approach, we (the two authors) focus on how we can promote the autonomy and well-being of our colleagues through reflective dialogue aimed at helping them to grow and thrive in

a supportive environment. The research outlined by Kato (2022) shows how this supportive approach promotes the well-being of learners, advisors, and mentors.

Part 2: Student-Led Learning Communities (LCs): Promoting Students' Prosocial Learning Behaviours

So far, we have described the dynamic ecosystem of the SALC, drawing on the model by Murray and Fujishima (2016). In this section, we look at a specific example of student-led LCs as leaderful practices and their relationship to the social dynamics in our SALC. Specifically, we will (1) explain what student-led LCs are, (2) clarify the roles of facilitator/advisor and student leaders, and (3) illustrate two approaches for leaderful LCs by utilizing the students' narratives from previous studies.

Student-led LCs emerge when students who share learning goals (e.g., achieving particular scores on IELTS) and interests (e.g., social issues, pop culture, languages) meet regularly in the SALC while using languages as a learning and communication tool. These students autonomously participate in their chosen LCs and learn collaboratively without a teacher and without the need for course credit. Each LC has a student leader (or leaders) who are also learners within the LC, and they create reciprocal learning environments for other community members. Any student can be a leader and start their own community after having an advising session with a learning advisor and registering their community in our administrative system. Core members of the existing LCs take on leadership positions when the former leaders graduate or become unavailable. Since we set up the administrative system for LCs, as Table 3.2 shows, the number of LCs and their leaders have gradually increased (except for the online period during the pandemic). Some LCs have successfully passed the leadership role to subsequent leaders; two communities currently have fourth-generation leaders, and another two communities have third-generation leaders.

On the other hand, the numbers of LC participants are difficult to count due to the fluid nature of communities. Wenger et al. (2002) suggest that an effective community invites different levels of participation and allows movement between the levels. For example, one of our popular English conversation communities once had over 50 students joining at the beginning of the semester, while there were around eight active members during exam weeks. While LC leaders promote active membership and learning advisors support the development of the communities, we also respect the students' autonomous decision over how much they engage in and contribute to the community considering their priorities and other needs; thus, the participants'

Table 3.2 Numbers of learning communities (LCs) and leaders

	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	Total
# of LCs	5	6	8	11	14	7	10	20
# of Leaders	6	7	12	19	19	12	17	58

movements from active to peripheral (and vice versa), and emergence and disappearance of communities happen naturally and organically. Such practice of developing ownership of their learning, connecting with others who share their interests and goals, supporting and contributing to each other's learning, and improving their skills and knowledge increases participants' psychological needs and fulfilment of autonomy, relatedness, and competence (Watkins, 2022). This autonomy-supportive culture is unusual for student groups in Japan as they tend to be more hierarchical, with senior students (or teachers) directing participation in activities and making decisions for the rest of the group (Egitim, 2022).

Facilitating Student-Led LCs

In her role as Principal Learning Advisor, Satoko oversees the LCs. Under her guidance, the student leaders experience an autonomy-supportive culture alongside a specially designed leadership course. The course has been offered to LC leaders and SALC student staff as one type of the SALC self-directed learning module, and they can receive one credit upon completing their 15 weeks of work. Each week, student leaders learn new theories related to autonomy-supportive leadership and communities, implement the concepts in their communities, and reflect on their experiences either through written dialogue in journals with an advisor or face-to-face advising sessions (see Watkins, 2021; Watkins & Hooper, 2023, for course details). In Appendix 1, you see the examples of intentional reflective dialogues on one of the course contents, *Community Visions*. In the dialogue, the advisor utilised various advising skills to elicit the community leaders' stories and helped her create her community visions. No matter whether student leaders are taking the course or not, Satoko is available to listen to the leaders but never makes decisions for their communities. Instead, she assists student leaders in creating their visions for their communities, facilitates their emotional and administrative needs, and shows opportunities for further community development. The student leaders, on the other hand, design and organise weekly meetings, reflect on their collaborative learning experiences, and make decisions for community improvements.

Assisting Communities in Becoming Communities of Practice

One of the approaches for enabling learning communities to be more sustainable, accessible, and prosocial is assisting communities in becoming Communities of Practice (CoPs). Wenger et al. (2002) describe a CoP as a group of people who share a common purpose, interest, and/or concern while they exercise collaborative control over their learning and the organisation of the community. Roth and Lee (2006) explain that communities can be "characterized by specific motives" while CoPs are "characterized by common ways of doing things" (p. 7). In other words,

members of CoPs need to be ‘practitioners’ of the community (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015), which aligns with the idea of leaderful practices.

In line with the idea, Satoko encourages the leaders to share their LC vision and principles, make collaborative decisions with other members, and explore their leadership styles, especially through the aforementioned leadership course. These ideas and practices are reported beneficial in Watkins’ (2021) study, which analysed five leaders’ experiences of taking this course, their needs, and the transformation of their beliefs. For example, as described in the excerpt below, all five leaders had a pre-existing image of a leader who was rather top-down and exercised full responsibility and control over every facet of the community.

I had a mindset that community leaders should lead a discussion and have enough knowledge to give advice to members. This belief was broken [...] I realised there is no one concrete form of a leader and we can create our own leadership style. It was new to me and my pressure was gone. (Watkins, 2021, p. 15).

Another excerpt below suggests the value of collaborative leadership, asking for help and delegating tasks, even if there were a few leaders in the community. As another LC leader suggested:

I noticed that we could ask members what to do when we do not know something. We had discussed how to solve problems with just three of us before taking this course. But we learned that it is better to rely on members, and that would grow our community’s autonomy. (Watkins, 2021, p. 16).

When the leaders decentralised control and involved other members in the decision-making process, it reduced the leaders’ pressure and further fulfilled members’ psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

Creating Autonomy-Supportive Chain Reactions Through Advising

As discussed in Part 1 of the findings, the advising approach is fundamentally autonomy-supportive in how advisors listen, invite, and accept various perspectives of others and promote their deeper reflection. These attitudes are carried from the advisors to the student leaders, and their influence spreads within the LCs like a chain reaction. For instance, one LC leader explained that (after advising training), “I began to make a constant effort not to say my opinion [...] I listen and accept what others need to say first—it makes a huge difference” (Watkins, 2022, p. 124). Moreover, another leader valued the opportunity for reflection enhanced by the advisor and her evidence of developing metacognition as the interview excerpt below shows:

There is a limit that I can think by myself, but when I was asked questions, I noticed a lot. [...] I had two views before, a leader and the members, but I learned the importance of seeing the community from the third person perspective [...] from outside of the community (Watkins, 2021, p. 19).

While reflective dialogue with advisors influenced the LC leaders, the leaders model the autonomy-supportive principles and create a key part of the domain of a community (Wenger, et al., 2002). As one leader suggested:

I realized that the way a leader organizes a community makes the atmosphere of the community [...] it is important for us to listen to members' voices and create the community together [...]. This way makes the best part of [community's name] which is a kind, warm and friendly atmosphere (Watkins, 2022, p. 15).

Within such an atmosphere, the members act pro-socially and take responsibility for not only their own learning but others, as illustrated in the excerpt below:

In my community, I don't only look up things that I cannot say but also things that others can't say. We solve problems together as a group. I don't feel that I 'have to' speak English. I want to speak English because everybody in the community is doing their best (Watkins, 2022, p. 120).

Discussion

To return to our research focus—how we promote leaderful practices among LCs—we can see from the excerpts from research by Watkins (2021, 2022) that the leaders change their conceptions of leadership as they work with other learners in their communities. This is largely due to the supportive guidance they receive from facilitators and other learning advisors. In addition, the leadership course they take gives them access to different theories and perspectives that they can immediately apply to their communities. As we saw from the analysis of the SALC as an ecosystem using Murray and Fujishima's (2016) model, the SALC would be considered to be a complex dynamic system which means that all of the parts are interconnected. As we saw in Table 3.1, one important factor that influences other elements in the ecosystem is *decentralised control*. This can refer to not only the student-centred, autonomy-supportive learning conditions in the SALC but also our approach as leaders in the SALC.

In our leadership roles, we (the authors) intentionally promote autonomy, responsibility and leadership in colleagues as well as students. We create conditions where teams and individuals assume responsibility for various aspects of their communities. This is facilitated through regular discussions within weekly meetings, and, in the case of staff, through the mentoring programme (Kato, 2022) and casual 'office talk' as everyone works in close proximity. Decentralised control by learning advisors and leaders in the SALC ecosystem affects the ways in which learners interact with each other. By empowering student leaders with autonomy support and necessary training, we are setting a positive 'trickle down' cycle in motion that spans both time and space (Watkins & Hooper, 2023)—from the director to the LC facilitators, from the LC facilitators to the leaders, from the leaders to the members, and even future generations and hopefully beyond the outside of the community (See Fig. 3.4).

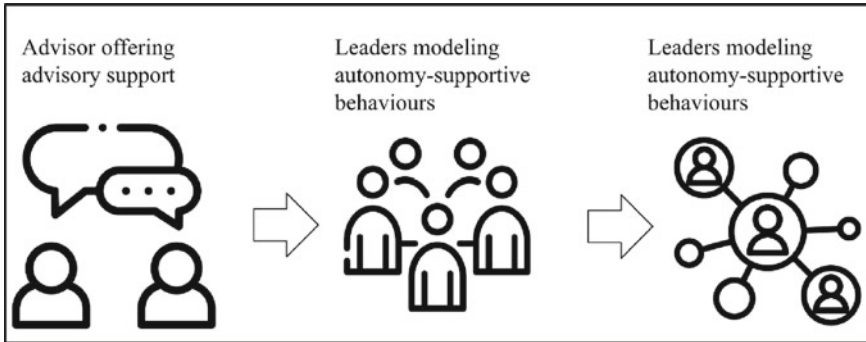


Fig. 3.4 Autonomy-supportive chain reactions

Image credit: Conversation icons made by Freepik; population icons made by Gajah Mada; society icons made by surang @flaticon.

Conclusion

To conclude, we will share some guidelines for creating leaderful practices in a SALC (or another outside-class learning ecosystems) based on our analysis of our context and synthesis of the research we have conducted in the wider SALC environment.

1. Conceptualise a SALC as a complex dynamic system. It may be unpredictable as there are many moving parts, but there are some elements that SALC staff can influence to create a supportive environment.
2. Commit to a conceptualisation of supportive leadership that spans throughout the organisation of the SALC. In our case, we chose the self-determination theory. This means that SALC staff can clarify their message and purpose, i.e., to create conditions where everyone can thrive and grow.
3. Understand that practices are going to ‘trickle down,’ so a supportive leadership culture among staff will influence the ways in which learners support each other when they are in leadership roles.
4. Acknowledge that learners (and staff) will come from different backgrounds and have different beliefs, i.e., they may be expecting a different kind of leadership. This means that some training, modelling, and opportunities for them to experiment and reflect on their own leadership are important.

(The studies conducted in the SALC and synthesised in this paper are indicated with an asterisk)

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Satoko Watkins is an Associate Professor and Learning Advisor in the Self-Access Learning Centre at Kanda University of International Studies, Japan. Her research focuses on learner autonomy, advising, self-directed language learning, learning communities, and inclusive practice. In her center, she has developed several student-led prosocial learning communities and programs.

Jo Mynard is a Professor and Director of the Self-Access Learning Center at Kanda University of International Studies in Japan where she has worked since 2008. She is also the Director of the Research Institute for Learner Autonomy Education. She teaches and advises undergraduate and graduate students in her research areas, which are learner autonomy, advising, self-access learning, and social and affective aspects of language learning.

Chapter 4

Excavating the Pathway of a Leadership Development Practitioner: A Narrative Account of Deep Reflective Practice Alongside the Lived Experience of Leadership Programme Delivery



Maeve Conroy

Abstract This chapter contains a narrative account of deep reflective practice carried out alongside a lived experience of leadership programme delivery. It focuses on the development pathway of the leadership development practitioner as she explores the roots of the beliefs and practices she brings to her workplace classroom. The consequent impact of her choices on leadership learning in the spaces she creates is analysed. Moving between the past and present day seminal moments, vignettes, and research findings are interwoven and discussed against the dilemma of remaining leaderful in the face of challenges to the contrary.

Keywords Reflective leadership practitioner · Leaderful pedagogy · Narrative inquiry · Co-created leadership knowledge · Lived environment for learning

Think about what kind of leader you are with your students and how your leadership identity is affecting the teaching and learning outcomes.....slowly begin to unpack what you have stored in your backpack of life. (Egitim, 2022, p. 39)

I recently stood back in a concerted way for the first time in my working life of 30 years to critically reflect on the impact of my beliefs and choices as a leadership development practitioner on the workplace classrooms in which I teach leadership. I positioned myself as an insider researcher (Costley et al., 2010), immersed in the delivery of a Leadership Development (LD) intervention to 29 participants over seven months in a large, multinational manufacturing company in Ireland (Conroy, 2021). I challenged myself as a practitioner to enter with intentionality into the lived experience of this delivery, to capture myself ‘in the midst’ (Clandinin, 2013, p. 203), as it were. I wanted to consciously see and understand the impact of my knowledge

M. Conroy (✉)

Critical Points Leadership, Coaching and HR Consultancy, 17 Caragh View, Caragh, Naas, Co. Kildare W91 Y49R, Ireland

e-mail: maeve.conroy@criticalpoints.ie

and power in the classroom, my pedagogic choices, and the dynamic created between practitioners, participants, and the idea of leadership. In so doing, I spent considerable time excavating my development pathway, asking powerful questions (Bolton, 2014) about my beliefs and where and why I hold them.

Ultimately, the study offered multiple recommendations to myself and fellow practitioners, including a suggested pedagogy for LD and an enhanced understanding of adult education theory and practice among those who deliver LD. This chapter does not intend to elucidate the breadth of findings, the detail of which is available elsewhere (Conroy, 2021). Instead, in line with this volume's theme, the discussion highlights one recommendation from the broader study; the benefits derived from ongoing, meaningful, and challenging reflective practice by those who stand in workplace classrooms and teach leadership.

Literature Review

Excavation Begins

Educationally, I exist where leadership, LD, and the learning space come together. As a *practitioner*, I invoke my expertise, acquired over time, drawing on reflexive experience, and contextualise both (Green, 2009) to the locus of teaching and learning leadership in the development environments I enable. As an LD practitioner in commercial learning environments, I view myself as enacting a professional service for a fee.

In my industry, I increasingly observe a disconnect between the espoused practice of leadership and the less-than-leaderful ways (Raelin, 2021) in which that education is delivered. In leadership learning, as in other areas of adult education, providing pedagogic scaffolding (Taylor & Hamdy, 2013) such as a curriculum, models, experiential exercises, and input steady the learning environment. However, a pervasive and growing movement towards leadership competency sets (Bolden & Gosling, 2006) risks stripping the LD arena of its ability to work with the owned and lived experience of the participants in the working world they inhabit. Leadership learning risks becoming impoverished as a result of such a mechanistic view of leadership possibility (Carroll et al., 2008, p. 364). The consequence can be the denial of the capacity of participants to decide for themselves (Ghoshal, 2005). Additionally, a mechanistic view of leadership learning risks positioning the LD practitioner, such as myself, as an agent for a managerial or economic emphasis in leadership education (Carroll et al., 2008), one which reinforces a narrow, hierarchical, and leader–follower view of leadership (e.g. Raelin, 2015; Rowland, 2016).

Locating Myself and My Purpose as a Starting Point

There is hope, however. Structures may pacify, but under dialogic conditions, they can also release agency (Raelin, 2016), and the LD practitioner, as an educator, is instrumental in this process. To truly access the “transformation of consciousness” (Lather, 1994, p. 104) that can take place at the intersection of the LD practitioner, the participant, and the topic of leadership requires bravery by the practitioner to engage in a collaborative and dialogic way in the workplace classroom. Such an approach works with the learners’ experience, encourages reflection and critique, and shared problem-solving (Brookfield, 1986) as well as strives for a mutually shared power for the learning that occurs in the workplace classroom. This is a leaderful pedagogy (Egitim, 2022) in action in LD.

Creating educationally meaningful LD experiences in such a way is an intricate, nuanced business (Dugan, 2011). Fostering genuine engagement only occurs with effort and self-awareness. Komives advises the need to “inhabit the gaps,” noting that for her, “the process of inhabiting our personal and institutional gaps perhaps models the learning process at its best” (2001, p. 32). I recognise that while I intend to be leaderful in the pedagogic practices (Egitim, 2022). I bring to my LD classroom, I am prone to repeatedly playing out my preferences, privileges, patterns, and habits, often without question or concern (Owen, 2015). Unpacking my backpack of experience (Franklin, 2014) through reflection (Faller et al., 2020) enabled me to examine and understand my gaps.

Method

Participants and Locus for Research

The study from which this chapter emerges sought to understand individual’s lived experiences of LD through which my own story as an LD practitioner is interwoven (Huber & Whelan, 1999). Twenty-nine participants took part in the research study in late 2018 and early 2019. All were senior or middle-ranking managers of people on a production site in Ireland (given the pseudonym JOF). I was chosen to design and deliver a seven-month-long LD programme for the organisation following a competitive tendering process. I approached JOF with my desire to research a pedagogy for LD alongside the live delivery of the programme. My express aim was to improve my own practice, and on this basis, they agreed. I received the informed consent of individual research participants at the start of the learning journey. I did not choose the participants for the LD programme; they were nominated to attend by JOF. Participation in the LD programme was not contingent on agreeing to the research process, which ran alongside. The participants were free to withdraw their consent anytime during the research process.

JOF is a unionised site where an agreement to voice or video recording was impossible to achieve and likely to undermine the primary purpose, which was the delivery of the LD programme itself. Nor were individual interviews possible. Despite this, the nature of a living programme, and the full informed consent of the participants, meant that data was available to me in many and varied ways. I had workshop outputs, coaching notes, facilitator notes, field notes, exercise responses, conversation, e-mail, and other communication; post-programme review and feedback, in-programme flipcharts and other visuals and outputs from creative exercises for research.

Narrative Inquiry

Seeking primarily to inform my own practice, the emphasis within Narrative Inquiry (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000) on experience, practice, and meaning-making meant that as a methodology, it enabled my research ambition. Using heuristic methods which focused on both verbal and non-verbal discourse to make meaning of the experience (Sultan, 2018), invited a broad range of data sources, tools, and perspectives into the research space where I sought to find the underlying meanings of human experiences. The final output of the study was a series of narratives of LD, re-storied from the researchers' perspective as a practitioner, informed and illuminated by recalled dialogue, visuals, and diary excerpts.

Reflexivity

Reflexivity is central to Narrative Inquiry (Cresswell, 2007). I engaged in extensive reflexive practice (Bolton, 2014; Etherington, 2004) before, during, and post-research to capture and make meaning of my multiple identities of researcher, practitioner, insider, and outsider in the story. In my attempt to make myself strange (Bolton, 2014), I was guided in my reflexive practice by several simple yet powerful questions. These questions emerged from an extensive reading of leadership, LD, and adult education literature combined with reflective practice and my own doctoral curiosity at the early stages of the research. Among the questions I asked were the following:

- Where does knowledge come from in leadership learning?
- What and who has influenced my beliefs about leadership and leadership learning?
- How leaderful am I when working with participants?

The output of this questioning yielded seminal moments from my past (Riessman, 2002), which were interwoven with vignettes from my reflexive facilitator/researcher diaries (Etherington, 2004), alongside re-storied narratives (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000) from the live delivery of the LD programme at the heart of the research. Field texts in Narrative Inquiry are constructed rather than gathered (Clandinin & Connelly,

2000). Constructing involves gathering together the many and rich strands of data available to explore deeply their meaning and message. Multiple iterations of human narrative coding of the vast amount of field data over the course of a year yielded a “nested set of stories” (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000, p.144), the participants and my own, interwoven with the lived experience of LD. In the next section, I offer a selection of moments and vignettes drawn from across this set of stories to elucidate the excavation process, clustered under each of the powerful research questions I asked myself. In line with narrative methodology, the findings are discussed with and informed by theory and are illuminatory rather than a definitive statement of fact (Creswell, 2007).

Findings

Where Knowledge Comes from in Leadership Learning

A range of experiences has led me to believe that knowledge is socially constructed. I see participants in LD strive for meaning, looking to make sense of their environment in terms of experience and their present reality (Kim, 2001). The reflective process propelled me backward to early experiences which shaped my approach to who knows what and the philosophical underpinnings of my beliefs about human knowledge and, in particular, how people learn:

I recall entering a job club for the long-term unemployed in a socially disadvantaged area of unionist Derry as a twenty-year-old female catholic ‘southerner’. I came offering help under the auspices of my upper-middle-class Belfast university.

Over the course of a day, I met with five different men in their forties and fifties who shared with me their perspectives on their individual situation. I had no tools to use and no ready-made solutions to offer. The piece of paper in front of me listed seven questions about interests and hobbies and no suggestions on what to do with the responses. There was no structure other than to ask and help if I could. I attempted to create a rapport, construct a direction, find a relatable use of their skills, a sense of hope, or, if nothing else, provided a listening ear and a connection with someone new who was trying to show they cared.

As far as I can tell I didn’t judge, instruct, diminish, take over, or impose a solution where one wasn’t possible. I listened and discussed dogs, football, pubs, and parades, each of which I knew very little about from my own life experience. I came away feeling I hadn’t provided much in the way of solutions but that I had connected with each person as I met him. Strangely I felt it was enough, although I couldn’t quantify why.

(Excerpt from reflective journal)

Pondering why this memory returns to me frequently—it was but one afternoon, many years ago—I see that I was focused on the person (Rogers & Freiburg, 1994). My eagerness was to access the other person’s knowledge and uncover their needs and values (Maslow, 1954) in the context of their lives, not mine. I could not have explained it then, but looking back, I recognise in myself the fledgling belief that

an individual's freedom to learn is supported by my ability to demonstrate genuine interest, empathy, and unconditional positive regard (Rogers & Freiburg, 1994).

As I dug deeper, another seminal moment emerged to illuminate the evolution of my beliefs about knowledge. It comes from the only time in my life when I officially bore the title of teacher. I barely graduated myself, yet I was teaching a module on psychology once a week on a pathway programme for long-term unemployed people of varying ages hoping to access third-level education:

Somehow I don't miss a day. I make teaching and learning decisions that are grounded in nothing more than gut instinct. In the absence of external guidance on curriculum, I choose to emphasise the parts of psychology which are most practical and relatable to the student's lives, the parts I too can relate to and would want to know. I find this energises and engages the students so I keep doing it. They ask lots of questions (I can't always answer) and I send them away to find out on behalf of the class. I avoid claiming to know all. They are bemused that I am not more teacher-like.

(Excerpt from reflective journal)

Brookfield (2015) uses the metaphor of white water rafting to depict teaching. He describes it as periods of apparent calm jolted by "sudden frenetic turbulence" (p. 5). I felt this way about this teaching job for which there was no specific brief, no one to consult, an age range of students from 23 to 75, and I did not own a computer:

The Sociology teacher for the class that follows mine arrives early one of the days halfway through the year and is surprised I'm not using any overheads. I don't tell her that I don't own a computer and it never occurred to me to use one! I draw things on the flipchart, I dish out my make-and-do handouts, and the class and I discuss.

I realise after my encounter with her that I've come to enjoy the talking, the relative informality, the utter chaos at times, and the two-way nature of the dialogue in the room. I recognise it was born of a combination of equal parts inexperience trial-and-error but also a gut instinct that it is the right way to get the most from the class.

(Excerpt from reflective journal)

Scrolling forward, I see the tentacles of these and other similar experiences emerge in my present lived experience of LD. I frequently bump up against a recurring pedagogic tension (Snook et al., 2012) that lies at leadership education's heart. That is the oscillation between the desire to tell what I know (about leadership) and the desire to elicit what the participants know in a co-created way. The general preference in leadership education is the prescription of thought and action (Pfeffer, 2016). On my first day of delivery in the LD programme under research, I tried multiple ways to extract from the participants what they believed leadership to be and why it is crucial. It is not going well. Then they ask the question I have been dreading:

Why don't you tell us Maeve?

I take a stretch break and reflect on where I find myself.

What is wrong with telling them I muse as I walk to the picture windows to look out on the history and grandeur of the original factory buildings. At this point, it feels like the energy in the room has moved back to me alone as the provider of knowledge. I could acquiesce to the request to answer the question myself and effectively perpetuate a banking model of knowledge (Freire, 1972). As a paid LD practitioner, I feel the powerful weight of

a commitment to my client to get the participants in front of me to where it is believed they need to be in leadership terms.

I consider how easy it would be right now to tell them what they should believe, and what sort of leaders they should be. To grab the flipchart, withdraw my questions and draw a model. A clear direction and a definition of leadership start from there. I know the statistics. Research shows that most LD programmes will begin from a rational thinking bias (Raelin, 2015; Rowland, 2016) to inform rather than seek to potentially transform (Snook et al., 2012). I will be among the majority if I take this path.

(Excerpt from a re-storied narrative)

The concept of the person and their resources, talent and experience motivated me to become an LD practitioner in the first place. True to my humanist psychology roots, this person-centred paradigm (Rogers & Freiburg, 1994) goes to the core of why I do what I do—to provide a supported and safe space in the workplace where there is freedom for adults to learn:

I ruefully smile. My capacity to withstand the demand to be told the answer, a demand I feel intrinsic and extrinsic to me, will irrevocably shape what follows. Suppose I define what the participants as leaders should do or be. In that case, I make a mockery of my pedagogic intention to co-create knowledge dialectically. Moreover, I deny my beliefs about leadership as an embedded and embodied way of being (Carroll et al., 2008). I realise as I turn my back on the historical buildings and return to the room, I ‘teach’ leadership by practising leadership, aligning my pedagogic choices with my idea of leadership (Ganz & Lin, 2012). I turn and dive back in.

(Excerpt from a re-storied narrative)

Believing in the possibility inherent in leadership learning space entails believing in the power of unfolding knowledge rather than directing it. Excavating my development pathway through reflection has strengthened this belief even as the forces of power and performativity in workplace education environments seek to undermine the value of an experiential and embodied nature of learning leadership (Raelin, 2016) and teaching methods that enable this.

Unpacking What and Who Has Influenced My Beliefs About Leadership and Leadership Learning

As a practitioner, I hold “a basic set of beliefs that guide action” (Guba, 1990, p. 17). It became increasingly clear through the reflective process that these beliefs have been instinctive, habitual, and recessed in my everyday practice ways of knowing, doing, and being in the world for many years. Early in the research, as I prepared to enter the field, I began to think deeply about where what ‘authored the author,’ as Western (2013, p. iv) puts it. I was surprised by how strongly my beliefs and practices about leadership were rooted in what I describe as my early career ‘apprenticeship.’

In the mid-1990s, having responded to an advert in a national newspaper, I found myself employed as a junior consultant in an Irish boutique management consulting business delivering LD programmes to large companies in the UK. With the benefit

of hindsight, what followed amounted to a grand awakening of my understanding of learning, psychology, and power in the workplace. I describe this time in retrospect as my LD apprenticeship and the most significant influence on my subsequent beliefs and actions in the field.

The model of leadership into which I was inducted centred on an emancipatory paradigm. This paradigm advocated that leadership could and should be taken by any person from any position. This manifestation of leadership is evidenced through considered use of thinking and communication skills, understanding of context, and willingness to listen, being assertive, and being brave in relationships with others. Fostering connection, interpersonal relationship building, and working together were further cornerstones of this embodiment of leadership. I recognise now a precursor to L-A-P thinking (Raelin, 2016) in the democratic, collaborative, and co-constructed understanding of leadership this organisation sought to build. The LD programmes which brought this model to life in client organisations were emergent, dialogic, and sometimes messy but potentially transformative in learning terms.

At the time, I struggled intellectually and personally with the passionate discourses swirling around me—the persistent critique and questioning of intent, action, language and a critical pedagogy in action (Freire, 1970). I was immature, inexperienced, and a book learner. My reflective journaling as I commenced the research process recalled the feelings of taking part in a learning review at the end of each day's delivery on a residential LD programme:

This preoccupation with the seemingly abstract notions of dynamic, learning cultivation, and climate was as intense as it was strange and new.

As an early career twenty-something-year-old sitting with forty and fifty-something-year-old practitioners night after night in what I now know to be the deeply reflexive practice of a fervent nature, there were times and occasions I felt woefully out of my depth and wanted to run a mile away.

In what was the hardest aspect of this learning zeal for an inexperienced rookie consultant like myself, we finished these daily reviews by offering our reflections on ourselves.

I learned early on that the emphasis in this personal sharing was not on a simple appraisal of performance or tasks completed, but rather on your contribution (or lack of) to the enabling of the learning, learners, and learning climate.

I frequently railed against what I saw as a tendency to naval gaze to the point of exhaustion.

I'd roll my eyes as I finally got to bed at 10.30 or 11 pm and wonder what I had signed up to.

Only to start over the next morning...

(Excerpt from reflective journal)

There were moments of energy and enlightenment too, where my heart soared. Despite my relative lack of relevant life and work experience, I knew what I witnessed differed from my prior educational experiences and that of the participants. Looking back, there was a concerted effort to walk the high-tension wire between performativity (Bierema, 2009) and embodied leadership in the lived environment of leadership learning. Paradigmatic and pedagogic stances bumped up against the sometimes limited reality of a managerial setting (Raelin, 2013) for learning. Nevertheless,

there was an opportunity carved out for a relational and collective form of learning, role-modelling an embodied type of leadership (Scharmer, 2018):

The female co-founder was a particular advocate of sitting among the participants rather than at the front or to the side, leading long and challenging discussions on urgent issues of leadership responsibility, which often overran our agreed timings. The learning space was a safe space for sharing and revealing, with frequent crying and laughter. In the midst of this, she was deadly serious in her intention to upend the traditional education approach in the workplace as stuffy, formal, and one-way (Hooks, 1994).

She was given to the abandonment of prepared slides in favour of drawing on flipcharts and creating hastily assembled models that sought to reflect where the session was going rather than what was planned. She removed her shoes when they hurt and laughed uproariously and regularly. In this, and in many ways, she decentred power as I had never before seen in an educational setting.

(Excerpt from research discussion)

I often felt overwhelmed by these people who championed leadership and leadership learning in such intense and zealous ways. Despite this, reviewing my reflective diaries from the research journey, I have absorbed and carried these practices (Guba, 1990) into every learning space I help to create today. A deeply engaged approach to teaching and learning and core beliefs about leadership is a legacy of my ‘apprenticeship.’

Moving forward almost twenty-five years to the LD programme under research, I recall this formative experience. The co-founder, by her example, influenced me to go where the energy was, deal with what was in front of me, and not dwell on how it should be. On a particular day when a participant is reluctant to join the LD programme at check-in, I channel her approach, trying not to feel undermined or challenged:

Participant B—

I went to my senior manager in a panic this morning. I’ve been out for 10 days. There’s so much needs doing, I really don’t want to be here today. He told me that the leadership programme is the most important thing happening today and I need to be here. But I really don’t want to be here.

He pauses...

I’m just being honest.

There is a collective intake of breath and some take a half step back. His fellow participants look to me for my response.

Inviting emotions, messy reality, and the ebbs and flows of adult learning to be articulated is essential to understand the leadership learning process as the participants are experiencing it. Such understanding informs my ability to critically reflect on my practice and avoid the naivety I presume to know and understand what is happening in the learning workspace.

I respond:

I hear you Participant B. The timing is clearly awful for you today. I understand.

I feel my hands move out in front of me before I speak again. I look at my hands and physically experience the sense of ‘holding’ the leadership learning environment at this point (Petriglieri, 2012). I try to be with the experience and not feel undermined by the resistance and struggle of the participant (Brookfield, 1986). I feel rejection in his displeasure at having to be here and a creeping feeling that the reflective dialogic style I have encouraged leaves me

vulnerable to following through on what I attempt to ‘teach’ (Ganz & Lin, 2012). In earlier sessions, I have encouraged the framing of questions, the disruption of assumptions, and prompted links to actual experience and feelings of doubt and vulnerability (Iszatt-White et al., 2017). Having stood ‘into this power’ with the participants, I cannot now adopt a ‘power over’ stance (Iszatt-White et al., 2017, p. 590) and hope to retain the integrity of my embodied pedagogic and leadership position. I need to step in and respond.

(Excerpt from a re-storied narrative)

Being Leaderful in Working with Participants in LD

The research process lays bare for me how challenging it is as an LD practitioner to be leaderful and fully occupy that identity against the prevailing discourses of how leadership and education should be experienced, too often the opposite of leaderful. As I reflected, echoes of an earlier time in my apprenticeship came flooding back when I was challenged to account for my thinking and actions:

The other co-founder was the first male feminist with whom I had worked. He set about challenging me to think deeply for myself for the first time outside the safe confines of formal education. He guided me to critically consider the aspects of power that could distort how things truly were, raising my power consciousness (Dugan et al., 2015) as a result. As my thinking capacity grew, the taken for granted belief systems and limiting cultural norms within leadership, LD, and our client organisations began to reveal themselves.

It was exhaustive. I rarely won (as I saw it at the time). However, I came out the other side with an enhanced capacity to question the status quo, explore taken for granted assumptions (Cresswell, 2007) and engage in challenging debate on more significant societal and professional issues for perhaps the first time. Reflexively, I view this time as sowing the seeds of an ability to stand outside the prevailing paradigm and begin to see the psychosocial influencing dynamic inherent in leadership (Western, 2013).

(Excerpt from research discussion)

As the latter stages of the LD programme under research unfolded, I experienced a significant challenge, this time to my pedagogic self-efficacy (Raelin, 2009) and with it my capacity to be leaderful. I reached a point of paralysis one cold December morning. While the earlier skills and communication pieces of the programme are complete at this point, the next day opened one of the biggest challenges for participants—a dialogic space on leadership as a collective, collaborative practice with the attendant questions over who owns it and the impact of power in the organisational system.

My head is swirling with unsettled thoughts. My shoulders are tense. I cannot seem to get them down from my ears this evening. I plan to open a bigger stage tomorrow, a discussion about the need for collective leadership. It will tie the programme right back to the company culture. It feels like I am taking the participants and myself out of a skills and communication bubble and into a tougher version of the real world.

Although we have worked with real-life issues all along, why does it feel like it will be hard?

I fear the participants will not see the need for debate, reflection, challenge and wonder what the hell I am doing. will they think I am a crazy woman?

I fear I will incite a riot if I light too vigorous a sparkalthough I think that is less likely.

Why am I afraid??

I am really fearful that they won't go there with me, out of their own fear, reluctance, or politeness for their employer (a good and caring employer, hugely respected and generous in many ways). I see glimpses of pushback and the ability to be critical, but I suspect they could see dialogue as odd and unsettling and out of step with the programme so far...

I am most fearful that.....

.....all I open is a window into helplessness.

I have been here before on other programmes... I initiate and encourage a conversation which leads to enhanced awareness and insight and energy enters the room.... but falls on the hurdle of institutional inertia, nothing changes, the people who should change are not here, people ask why us, or push back that it is too hard.... .. and I feel my lack of power, I can't take them any further!

(Excerpt from reflective journal)

Ironically, strengthening my researcher knowledge through reflection triggered a decrease in my practitioner certainty (Phillion & Connelly, 2004). The consequent impact is on my ability to align the topic I teach with how I teach it, embodying in my practice the leadership I aspire to for the participants (Ganz & Lin, 2012).

Discussion

Throughout the research study from which this chapter emerged, I engaged as an LD practitioner in reflection (Faller et al., 2020), examining and re-examining experience. My first research question sought to understand where knowledge comes from in leadership learning. To address this I engaged in ongoing critical reflection (Brookfield, 1986); questioning at more profound levels the culture, assumptions, and premise behind the lived experience of LD, in particular how leadership is taught and learned. I concluded that while the prevailing choice in leadership education is to prescribe thought and action (Pfeffer, 2016); an embodied, experiential and dialogic pedagogy is a richer source of leadership knowledge which favours the lived and live experience of participants. Such an approach is at least in part dependent on the capacity of the LD practitioner to hold the emergent learning environment into which it is invited (Petriglieri, 2012).

It was stretching and challenging to reflect on my thinking rigorously, the positions I take, and critique my choices and beliefs (McCormack & Ryan, 2011). I concluded that the ongoing tussle between performativity and pedagogy, between my rhetoric and the reality of my situation (Usher et al., 1997) deeply challenges my ability to own and deliver a leaderful pedagogy. This is an ongoing struggle in my practice, unearthed in response to my second research question.

Deep reflection has its unpleasant sides. It causes us to face the thoughts and emotions we might prefer to hide from. In my case, as I examined my third and final research question, whether I was leaderful in how I worked with participants,

I could conclude that in terms of knowledge creation, leadership beliefs, and LD pedagogic intent, I was indeed fostering collaboration and shared decision making in the classroom. However, when my reflection brought me closer to my own unpleasant edge emotions (Hoggan et al., 2017), I found myself having to work with rather than against my own fears and vulnerabilities which was hard. The upside of my research undertaking is that I am newly armed with empathy for my participants as they navigate being at the edge of their own transition in their leadership journey and the courage it takes to grow from there.

Conclusion

Post research, I continue to reflect on whether I have the necessary bravery and vulnerability to practice what I preach and teach leadership in a way concurrent with what I believe it to be (Ganz & Lin, 2012) when there are comparatively easier, faster and more prescriptive ways to do so. What keeps me on this path is that the research findings unequivocally highlight that I significantly shape not just the participants but act as an agent for the knowledge they encounter (Apple, 2012).

I invite my fellow practitioners of LD and researchers in workplace learning to consider the benefit of greater reflective practice for facilitators and participants alike. There is much more we can know and understand. Unpacking my backpack (Franklin, 2014) of experience and burrowing right to the bottom provided an invaluable bridge between my internal and external worlds and between research and practice (Etherington, 2004). Engaging in reflection pushed me to account for myself and my pedagogical choices, beliefs, and practices. As I strive to remain leaderful in the learning space I create, an ongoing meaningful commitment to reflective practice is, I suggest, critical to success.

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Maeve Conroy received her Doctorate in Higher and Adult Education from Maynooth University, Ireland following a narrative inquiry into leadership development pedagogy in workplace learning environments. She creates bespoke leadership interventions for workplace managers having worked with several hundred organisations over a 30-year career in workplace HR and Training. Her research interests centre on combining her occupational psychology training with adult learning principles to explore critical perspectives on workplace leadership learning.

Chapter 5

Communicating Information for Decision Making: Reflections on a Leadership Communication Course



Marc Jones

Abstract Communicating is a key skill of leadership because sharing information facilitates effective decision-making, which allows students to then put these skills into practice and become more effective leaders and learners, increasing self-advocacy in an increasingly neoliberalised society. I describe the teaching and learning practices during a leadership communication skills course at a private university in Tokyo, which was part of an English Medium Instruction programme of study. Through the use of an arms-length pedagogy, students were encouraged to be proactive in completing tasks as a group before reflecting upon their performance in order to improve in future sessions. Teaching and learning are evaluated by reflecting upon critical incidents related to self-efficacy and self-determination theory. Data is triangulated with my journal entries and student self-evaluations which were submitted for assessment. The outcomes of teaching and learning suggest that the arms-length pedagogy is effective and allows students to take responsibility for integration, effective communication, and taking on and ceding leadership roles within an autonomous group. However, for students with low self-regulation skills or those who are reluctant to communicate, such pedagogy may not be so effective. It is hoped that these findings can inform the teaching of leadership communication skills in other contexts.

Keywords Critical incident · English for academic purposes · Leadership communication · Self-determination theory · Self-efficacy

Communicating Information for Decision Making: Reflections on a Leadership Communication Course

The chapter describes and evaluates teaching and learning processes and interventions that facilitated effective and ineffective learning of leaderful communication practices in a leadership communication course. The main purpose of the course was

M. Jones (✉)
Toyo University, Tokyo, Japan
e-mail: jones056@toyo.jp

to develop language and communication skills for advocacy and problem-solving for undergraduates in the Department of Global Innovation Studies so that upon graduation, they can work to solve many of the problems in our world using innovative methods learned in our courses. I have no problem detailing my classroom successes but exposing my unsuccessful work leaves me vulnerable to criticism, yet providing an accurate account of teaching and learning requires both. Students' failed attempts at using the information to affect decision-making may not be my responsibility, because ultimately students have agency in whether they act on instructions and advice. By assessing how successes and failures occurred other education professionals may see similarities and differences in their own classroom practices and gain ideas for activities to try, or to avoid, in order to develop students' leadership communication skills.

Leadership is a multifaceted construct with a general vernacular meaning, assumed to be universally understood, but it varies greatly at an individual level as to what actually defines leadership. Raelin (2015) states that "We need a collective, self-correcting model of leadership in which participants learn to engage with one another and reflect on their own actions so that they can learn in the moment and improve their ongoing practices" (p. 95). That is, leadership is not a solo enterprise, but is supported by a network of advisers and specialists who are working on their own initiative, arguably leading the figurehead leader. This view is supported by Egitim (2022), who exhorts educators to "start perceiving leadership as a shared endeavor that all members of the group benefit from" (ch. 1, p. 3/13). Recognizing leadership quality, and knowing when to follow and when to make clear one's own argument is important. Providing leadership skills—processing large amounts of information from various sources, identifying pertinent parts, and critically engaging to identify ramifications—allows greater potential for self-advocacy in an increasingly neoliberalised society and also neoliberalised higher education context. As Egitim (2022) elaborates "Leaderful action in education gives learners the right to question, challenge, and demand reasons and justifications for their learning processes in and outside of the classroom. Thus, the potential gains for learners are countless" (ch. 2, p. 9/18). In this chapter, leadership will be defined as the ability to advocate for one's own interests relating to a problem or action to be taken, or to argue the point of view that one sympathises with, and the ability and willingness to plan for action based upon such perspectives.

Literature Review

Leadership Education

Much of the work on leadership comes from the fields of business, organizational management, or politics, and therefore it can be difficult to pin a precise definition on the term leadership. It is a common-sense term, and thus being so heuristic, one tends

to simply know what leadership is without having appropriately operationalised the term with a working definition. As mentioned above, I define leadership in the current study as the ability to advocate for one's interests and viewpoint, and the ability to create an action plan based upon these. However, leadership is not always defined in this way, and to be completely frank, it is often left undefined or operationalized in a way that anyone could ascribe their own meaning to it. In contrast to the nebulous lack of definition of leadership, the literature on leadership education tends to be in favour of group participation over the concept of a single charismatic leader making decisions and compelling followers to take action.

Leadership is a role that shifts within groups, with members taking and ceding it according to the demands of the situation, therefore examining it through a relational lens is useful. Ramsey (2016) notes that defining leadership is difficult and that much of the literature focuses on one particular leader in a given situation, which can cause researchers to pay little attention to the leadership displayed by other members of a group or community. Instead, Ramsey states that analysis "through the optic of conversational travel, point[s] to an ebb and flow in leadership relations that would not be so visible if looking at the relating activities of established leaders and followers" (p. 216). Clearly, in observing leadership communication and how we are to develop leadership communication skills in others, it is important to consider leadership as a shifting plurality, with a mantle taken on and ceded according to situational demands. Raelin (2015) provides Nelson Mandela as an example of a leader embracing the situational demands by "inviting participation, weaving interactions across existing and new networks" (p. 95). By refraining from modelling himself as a strongman, Mandela innovated leadership by embracing the ordinary notion that groups are hives of expertise, which must allow those experts within to step up to leadership roles.

A key study in the recent literature on leadership pedagogy is the review on teaching leadership skills to young people by Karagianni and Montgomery (2018). Despondently, they state that while the participants involved in the studies, they reviewed responded positively to the courses they participated in, there were major issues related to methodological rigour, possible selection effects, and content. One reason for a lack of rigour may be related to prioritising education, with research or scholarship outputs being an opportunist afterthought, to share what may be novel or interesting information. Certainly, what is considered rigorous in one epistemology may not be understood by those in another, especially when quantitative researchers examine qualitative work.

Rost and Barker (2000) believe that leadership tends to be taught through liberal arts, multidisciplinary programmes, student governance initiatives, or stand-alone elective courses. They remark that these are "20th-century approaches to the delivery of leadership education" (p. 4), which are unsuitable for groups that are less hierarchical than in previous eras. As an educator teaching leadership communication through an elective course as part of a multidisciplinary programme, I take issue with the need to situate effective leadership instruction in opposition to the traditional course structure. In fact, it may be the case that attempting to teach a more social leadership model without the structure of a course would lead to a nebulous, amorphous pedagogy. Before removing hierarchies, one must ensure that there is

at least some structure to serve as a frame of reference and orientation, otherwise, nobody understands the point of teaching and learning.

Self-Efficacy and Self-Determination

Psychology is one of the key disciplines for understanding learning, not only at the level of what is learned but how it is approached and learner orientation toward it. Self-efficacy (Bandura, 1984) and Self-Determination Theory (SDT) (Ryan and Deci, 2017) offer leaderful pedagogy a grounding in how people engage with tasks and their motivation to complete them. Both of these are important, particularly because education is not simply knowledge acquisition but knowledge enactment.

The nature of self-efficacy is such that it can lead to both positive and negative behaviours in learning, with some individuals who perceive their efficacy to be high undertaking tasks with little preparation, and conversely, those with lower perception preparing more. However, as Bandura (1984) also remarks:

People do not rely on enactive experience as the sole source of information about their capabilities. Efficacy appraisals are partly influenced by vicarious experiences. Seeing similar others perform successfully can raise efficacy expectations in observers who then judge that they too possess the capabilities to master comparable activities (pp. 126-127).

Therefore, seeing peer or near-peer task success facilitates success. It is worth remembering that learning tasks do not take place in a vacuum; peers can also evaluate the causes of failure in one another's learning processes and may find value in seeing both successful and unsuccessful task attempts by peers.

Critical engagement with tasks and task performance also informs SDT. Particularly pertinent to this chapter, learners' perception of competence and the ability to work autonomously can affect them, either positively or negatively. "We theorize that when any of these three basic psychological needs [*autonomy, competence, and relatedness*] is frustrated or neglected either in a given domain or in general, the individual will show motivational, cognitive, affective, and other psychological decrements of a specifiable nature, such as lowered vitality, loss of volition, greater fragmentation, and diminished well-being" (Ryan and Deci, 2017, p. 86). Therefore, while the tasks provided for learning should be challenging, there needs to be consideration of whether they can be performed competently by an autonomous group of learners, negotiating, and evaluating their own contributions.

Competence is, as stated above, one of the three basic needs in SDT, along with autonomy and relatedness. While feelings of competence are task-related, it would appear that teacher judgement is important in selecting tasks that are sufficiently challenging to ensure that learning takes place, yet not so difficult as to cause feelings of incompetence among learners. It is here that relatedness can play a part, with learners working together toward a common goal, a sense of solidarity is thus engendered within the community of learners. If this can be done in a way that flattens hierarchies, and learners feel that they have sufficient agency in how they complete their

work, the three needs are fulfilled, which should result in a community of motivated learners who are fully engaged in tasks.

One of the ways that the course in this particular study, and several in institutional contexts, may promote extrinsic rather than intrinsic motivation, is through the assigning of grades to performance or completion of tasks. With the vast majority of students unlikely to attain an outstanding grade (because if outstanding becomes the norm, it ceases to actually be outstanding) then the majority of learners will not attain this grade. This potentially could lead to those students having “low autonomy and low competence” (Ryan and Deci, 2017, p. 134.) This being the case, other ways of promoting intrinsic motivation through a sense of autonomy and competence need to be considered, and Deci and Ryan advocate positive feedback and an increase in autonomy support.

Successful leadership requires that those who are best equipped to deal with particular tasks in a given situation are the ones that do so and are given support. This may be the autonomy to identify tasks that one is suited to due to competence or a judgement of self-efficacy, or else identify group members to delegate the tasks to through competence judgements and group relations. In fostering self-efficacy and self-determination in students through a classroom environment that enables autonomous work on tasks with ongoing verbal feedback, one can provide the means to be proactive in achieving goals. By using contemporary notions of leadership with self-efficacy and self-determination it enables students to be more related to group members, thus reducing hierarchies (Hartling and Sparks, 2008) and creating more functional and therefore productive groups.

In summary, the ways that leadership can be taught are multifarious and may not necessarily be agreed on by all. Certainly, the ways in which practitioners have taught leadership skills failed to impress Karagianni and Montgomery (2018). Additionally, bearing in mind the psychology of self-efficacy and self-determination, it is clear that there are benefits from observing and interacting with peers as a way to improve task performance in learning activities. Therefore, in the classroom, when fostering leadership, a can-do environment that allows students to form deep relations with one another is key. This should be done through the use of sufficiently difficult tasks so that leadership responsibilities are required from all students, which may include taking on the responsibility of trying out new skills in order to solve problems, yet not so difficult as that the tasks appear insurmountable or that the students feel they lack the necessary skills to complete the tasks.

The Study

The primary purpose of this study is to identify examples of successful and unsuccessful behaviours related to the learning of leadership communication skills. This study is based on teacher reflection and student reflection submitted for academic credit as part of a course on leadership communication skills taught by the author at a private university in Tokyo. The student participants were enrolled in the course as

part of multidisciplinary English-medium instruction courses, and were mainly first and second-year students, with two fourth-year students also attending the class. Most of the students were Japanese nationals ($N = 24$), though there were also students from China ($n = 2$), South Korea ($n = 1$), Vietnam ($n = 1$), and the Philippines ($n = 1$). Informed consent was given by all of the students to use their work as part of this study, and they were given the opportunity to remove their consent at any time with no negative consequences to their studies. The primary data is students' reflections on task performance, and their learning of leadership communication skills, which they were asked to complete on pro-forma sheets after each task and then submitted at the end of the course for assessment. These task sheets were analysed in order to gain a cross-sectional observation of student impressions. These task sheets were required at the end of the semester, but students were encouraged to seek guidance on how whether they had completed the sheets effectively by emailing them to me. A small minority of the class failed to seek this guidance. Students were given the following prompt:

How well did you perform in the task? Why? Why not? Be completely honest. What are your plans for the next task to improve your performance further? Write more than just these simple points.

Reflection occurs, according to Schön (2011):

When there is some puzzling, troubling, or interesting phenomenon with which the individual is trying to deal. As he tries to make sense of it, he also reflects on the understandings which have been implicit in his action, understandings which he surfaces, criticizes, restructures, and embodies in further action" (p. 50.)

In the current study, this data is then combined with qualitative data from the author's recollections and weekly journal entries related to the course. All individual students are referred to by pseudonyms.

This chapter uses narrative research as its methodology. People are drawn to narrative because it is an inherently human way of making sense of the world, and therefore using it to reconstruct critical incidents (Tripp, 2012) provides a way of learning from events that may at first seem random. Due to the chronological flow of the narrative, critical incidents can be seen as a connected series of events with cause and effect flowing into one another. Adding my own narrative data to the students' reflective data also affords a triangulation, to understand what makes the incidents critical, and to understand the cognitive processes and resultant outcomes. Mathison (1988) explains that the benefits of triangulation are enhanced validity through the use of multiple methods and data sources, and the ability to "tap different ways of knowing" (p. 14). Ultimately, however, triangulation is not an analysis but a method of generating research evidence, and "places the responsibility with the researcher for the construction of plausible explanations about the phenomena being studied" (Mathison, 1988, p. 17). However, triangulation in the current study is a walk-through decision already made and acted upon, both by the students and myself, with many mutually exclusive paths. Therefore, reflections on possible alternative paths are merely reflections on what might have been, but can also be considered potential future teaching endeavours.

Course Aims

The class was conceived as a way to approach content and language-integrated learning (Coyle, 2007) and task-based language teaching (Long, 2015) for students in an interdisciplinary department. Additionally, it was hoped that the course would enable students to evaluate leadership decisions, and then participate in simulations. High levels of self-efficacy were necessary for the students, and therefore, as the model and domain expert of the subject being taught, for the teacher.

The 15-week course was organised as six task cycles of two 90-min periods each, with the first period focusing on a case study, where students evaluated the leadership decisions taken, as well as approaching academic literacies and critical discussion and small group interaction. The second period focused on performing a target task similar to but somewhat different from the case study, thus building skills through scaffolded learning in the first week, and more experiential, less scaffolded learning in the subsequent week. The target task often included information gaps (Long, 2015) or an opinion gap. The first lesson was an orientation session with some background regarding leadership decisions and the final two lessons were used as a student's reflective presentations and/or question and answers for video presentations.

The case studies frequently required students to navigate long texts in order to find information relevant to the task(s) at hand. In the early lessons, some students resorted to machine translation tools instead of actively using reading strategies such as skim and scan. Students were then advised that any findings would need to be reported in English (the working language of the department) and therefore overuse of the students' different first languages would increase their workload. This led to more productive use of translation tools, mainly at the sentence or word level, for language learning, rather than the production of unreliable text outputs (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1 *Course structure*

Week 1: Orientation	
Week 2: Case study: Corporate culture	Week 3: Simulation: Create a plan to attract and retain staff
Week 4: Case study: Entering new markets	Week 5: Simulation: Choose a corporate partner for a joint venture
Week 6: Case study: Start-ups and acquisition	Week 7: Simulation: Choose a start-up to invest in
Week 8: Case study: Crisis management	Week 9: Simulation: Devise a solution to a major threat
Week 10: Case study: CSR in the garment industry	Week 11: Simulation: Devise a CSR policy for a company
Week 12: Case study: Governments and corporate cooperation	Week 13: Simulation: Complete a risk assessment to assess a development project's merits
Weeks 14 & 15: Presentations and further reflection	

Pedagogy

My pedagogy is informed by SDT in that I seek a desirable level of difficulty in order for students to acquire language and skills that they did not have prior to the course. A desirable level of difficulty is essential so that students do not perceive work as impossible but not so easy that they complete the task with little challenge. However, this desirable difficulty is different to the space between frustration and boredom as proposed by Csikszentmihalyi (2008). The desirable difficulty I seek in my teaching is a higher level of difficulty than that required for what Csikszentmihalyi calls a “flow state” (2008, pp. 3–5) because I want students to understand what they are doing in the midst of completing difficult tasks whereas the flow state seems to obviate this, with individuals in such states so absorbed in tasks that reflection would be difficult if not impossible.

Within SDT there are different levels of regulation, such as extended regulation, introjected regulation, and identified regulation (Ryan and Deci, 2017), explicitly linked to second language learning by Noels et al. (2000) and developed by Dörnyei in his L2 selves model (2009), where language learners consider the possible futures available to themselves as (un)successful language users/learners. An example of this may be that an English learner imagines the job opportunities that open to them in the future if they improve their English proficiency, while they consider the potential limitations that may arise if they are unsuccessful. Reference to L2 selves was used implicitly in feedback to students regarding not only language use but also as an integrated part of their future identities as group leaders working on projects in globalised workplaces. Such future selves projections seem to focus upon extrinsic motivations in the form of obligations to complete in order to attain the ideal self status and bypass the unsuccessful self, it may also be the case that such binary categorisation of motivation as extrinsic and intrinsic does not work here. Students may actually have a multitude of different simultaneous motivations for engaging in a learning task, for example, the joy of edifying experiences, the ability to see developments in education as a prerequisite for future desired courses of study, familial and social expectations, and possibly many others. The level of success in the pedagogy is discussed below.

Data Analysis

Personal Reflection

In my own reflective journal entry relating to the course, I noted that I felt the sequence of the lessons was quite good, but perhaps having other lessons earlier in the course “could have been better because some of those skills could have been reused throughout the course” (Author’s research journal). These skills were risk management and also evaluating decision-making during crisis management, and

while I agree with my evaluation, I can also understand the feeling that easing the students into the course a bit more before some quite difficult concept could be worthwhile, particularly when considering the proportion of first-year students enrolled in the course.

I was also satisfied that my “Arms-length management of the class helped them to be more self-reliant” (Author’s research journal). I believe that this is highly appropriate, particularly for higher education, and especially for language teaching, because students need the opportunity to test hypotheses about communication in order to acquire language implicitly. Furthermore, if I adopted a more hands-on teaching style, this would mean that the teacher too easily accepts responsibility for solving learning problems best solved by the learners. As a result, “while a specific problem may have been solved, a more general one has been created—because the wrong person has taken responsibility for providing a solution” (Waters, 1998, p. 11). An arms-length teaching style then sends an additional message to students that at university their learning is their responsibility, and therefore self-regulation and self-direction are paramount, with the same hopefully being true across their other classes in the programme. This responsibility for their own learning was also reinforced by asking students to unofficially submit task sheets to me for preliminary checking, which put the onus on them to follow advice based upon the grading rubric. It is my belief that this contributed to an environment where autonomy could be developed, due to the specific feedback given on how to complete the task sheets most effectively. This feedback needed to scaffold student self-inquiry and reflection, and therefore answers to the questions could not be provided by me. Additionally, learners were asked to reflect upon task completion, thus evaluating their level of competence with the skills required for the task, and also deliberating upon how they might develop those skills beyond class time. This consideration of how to develop skills may stimulate self-efficacy in learning by providing a platform for listing possible self-study/practice options.

Critical Incidents

Sayaka Praising Masaya: Strategic Leadership Intervention.

Masaya, a first-year student, on the basis of my observations, did not always find group work to be a comfortable process. He was rather introverted and although engaged in the lessons, and sharing ideas with group members, it was less comfortable for him than analysing documents. Some of the second-year students remarked that certain first-year students were very quiet and therefore not contribute much to the learning process. One way that this was changed was due to Sayaka, a thoughtful second-year student, praising Masaya during a stage of whole-class reporting.

Masaya had performed the research required for a group task very well, by taking not only the information from the source material, but also critically engaging with it. This engagement, due to a high level of self-efficacy, allowed Masaya and his group

to evaluate the information quality and its importance in reaching a group decision as part of an information gap task related to resolving a crisis by providing summaries of data that each individual had. In addition, it allowed Sayaka to evaluate her own performance: “It was very difficult to tell orally, so we ended up showing the data to each other. Because of this, I thought I needed more vocabulary to explain those” (Sayaka, task sheet 2).

Sayaka’s praise of Masaya, in earshot of the rest of the class, provided constructive feedback to him (*keep doing what you are doing*), while providing implicit feedback to the rest of the class (*if we are not doing this, we should be*), in particular, the other first-year students (*he is capable of working well and therefore you are, too*). Hence, Sayaka took on a senior leadership role by providing authoritative class feedback, using a junior peer as a model of what successful work looks like, and thus became an arbiter of task success. Using Masaya as a peer role model could be considered as a way of flattening the existing hierarchy by initiating him as a bona-fide member of the community of practice (Wenger, 1998). Additionally, by initiating him, Sayaka helped to build a culture “that explicitly or implicitly support(s) growth through relationship, mutual empowerment, responsiveness, authenticity, and movement toward mutuality” (Hartling and Sparks, 2008, p. 169.) In other words, by reinforcing values that are assumed to be shared, Sayaka encouraged the rest of the class to follow Masaya’s self-efficacy because it creates greater potential for group autonomy, and therefore task completion is likely to be more fulfilling. Furthermore, such evaluation builds bonds between learners due to the recognition of shared values, which contributes to a feeling that one’s group is able to work autonomously in accord to complete tasks.

Yi and Xiao: Remote Participation

Another notable set of critical incidents relates to the difference in participation between two of the Chinese students enrolled in the course. Both Yi and Xiao were first-year students, and at the start of the academic year were unable to leave China to enter Japan due to COVID-19 restrictions. Both students were requested to participate via *Zoom* video chat, therefore the course was taught as a hybrid face-to-face and distance course. Learners in the classroom who were tasked to work with Yi and/or Xiao were asked to either log in to *Zoom* to converse with them, or else I would place my iPad on the desk of a learner, which could then be used by the group as a means of communication.

It was clear early on in the course that Yi was a confident and hardworking student, fulfilling all of the learning tasks and opportunities presented to him. Despite not being present in the classroom, he found no problems in working with other students and managed to build rapport significantly, so that he could comfortably sit and socialise with students whom he had never previously met face-to-face upon his arrival to Japan, therefore interact with peers in a highly-effective way. This

rapport-building meant that Yi had built a reputation for cooperation and high efficacy among the classroom community, and thus raising self-efficacy in many of his classmates who followed Yi's example of working without distraction and holding himself accountable for task completion.

Conversely, Xiao faced several problems. He managed to log in to the university portal in the first week but did not join the Google Classroom used for materials distribution until the midpoint of the course, despite having been provided with instructions several times. While one can sympathise with IT problems, by not requesting help but attempting to hide a lack of meaningful work, despite not being entirely at fault, Xiao had set a pattern for his participation, which was to greet group members and then disappear in order to hide a lack of preparation. Group members (including Yi) would frequently report that Xiao appeared to be absent, only for him to suddenly speak up with the words "I am here", or "I am still reading." Such limited interactions caused significant problems for both Xiao and his group members, including highly proficient students.

After placing Xiao in groups with various different learners, such as Yi, other first-year Japanese students, and also second-year Japanese students, I attempted to increase his participation by placing him in the same group as a very proficient international student, Dinah. This grouping served to challenge Dinah at first, as she considered how to lead Xiao to contribute meaningfully to the classwork, but she became frustrated in subsequent work, noting in her evaluation work accurately that she was participating well and undertaking preparation and revision work prior to class, while Xiao did little to help himself and his reading of task materials in class was slow and reduced the available discussion time unless she summarised the materials for him.

However, Xiao's work was not consistently poor. In lessons in April and May, I remarked in my classroom notes that he performed well. Perhaps his success was due to the modality of the lessons, with the class being a hybrid learning rather than a blended learning structure, the offline components were perhaps difficult for Xiao, and his motivation fell. Conversely, it could be the case that the modality was not the problem, and indeed if I had used asynchronous elements to be accessed independently then it is likely that these could have caused even greater problems for him.

I had noticed the difficulties that Xiao was facing in participating in group work, such as long periods of silence and overreliance on other students summarising and explaining the reading and listening materials. To raise his willingness to participate, I made greater attempts to build rapport, but it was unsuccessful, as there was no increased adherence to the advice given on how to be successful, such as reviewing learning after class and preparing questions to ask other students. However, when considering findings by Frisby et al. (2014), however much rapport-building a teacher engages in, it does not necessarily translate to increased participation by highly apprehensive students.

In the task sheets, submitted only at the end of the course, work was unsatisfactory, with very superficial detail only, with the only reflective statement being "I didn't do well in class, I was a little nervous, the teacher was very nice and active, and I should

try harder to be active in class” (Xiao, task sheet). Conversely, Yi was highly self-critical in spite of his high work ethic, and consistently found areas in his language and information literacy skills to develop. In his final task sheet, he wrote:

As a group task, I think *I actively motivated the group* to explore this issue if I was acting in a leadership role. *I assigned each member of the group* which part we were responsible for and then we discussed which ideas should appear in the realistic csr. [...] I think I need to improve my organization skills the most because I have a lot of ideas that I want to express but I don't express them accurately. I think I need to summarize my day in English every night in a story telling format to reinforce my English logic because I know what's wrong when I say something wrong, so it's a way to self-improve my organizational skills.

(Yi, task sheet 11. My italics and ellipsis.)

Additionally, although Xiao spoke and understood English sufficiently to navigate the day-to-day of participating in an EMI course, it is likely that a lack of practice and study of the language could have affected his performance because he was able to hide any shortcomings through his participation over *Zoom*. Disengagement due to language difficulties is unsurprising, and Bond (2020) documents this with a Chinese student in the United Kingdom studying a STEM course at the postgraduate level. With the somewhat younger students in the current study, who were perhaps less experienced in self-regulated learning, this should also be unsurprising, particularly if they were interacting minimally, which would bring about a lower relatedness with classmates and therefore lower motivation to work autonomously with them.

Nina and Misa: Increased Interpersonal Competence

Some of the second-year students made remarkable improvements in their interpersonal communication over the course. One student in particular, Nina, had been rather quiet when she had taken my classes in previous semesters. Prior to the leadership communication course, Nina had spoken quietly and only with groups of other students that she knew relatively well from other classes. However, over the course, she became somewhat more outgoing in her participation from my recording notes on her as “audible” to then remarking that she was “initiating discussions”, whereas prior to this she would possibly limit utterances to the shortest necessary to communicate her feelings unambiguously. The probable cause for Nina’s increased interaction is awareness of her competence, particularly through comparison with other students and recognising that she was also able to complete tasks by explaining her ideas in an English that may not always be in accord with standardised varieties, but is highly intelligible and comprehensible to everyone in the classroom. This awareness of competence then feeds into relatedness, because through realising she could readily understand and be understood, Nina may have felt more confident in achieving successful communication.

Another second-year student, Misa, while not particularly reticent in previous courses, seemed to develop greater confidence in leading discussions by around halfway through the course. Such confidence may be to do with her sense of duty

as a second-year student, with an awareness of the implicit relationship that senior students take on responsibility in order to show newer students how to work successfully. Certainly, she referred to her sense of duty several times in her task reflections, not only in regard to making domestic first-year students more comfortable but also first-year students of a different nationality. She was very considerate of the difficulties that Xiao may have faced when participating in a group with two second-year students who already knew one another well.

I also felt it was hard to explain uncertain information to other members. Also, Ayumi and I have been good friends for a long time, so it is easy to talk to each other, but Xiao seems to feel that it is very difficult to talk to each other because he has a different nationality. [...] I would like to be able to support my friends who have different nationalities if I join the same group.

(Misa, task sheet 2)

What caused this increase in confidence and communication output? It may be that as a second-year student, Misa had a feeling of no longer being one of the most junior students in the department, and this feeling increased her confidence. However, the necessity of solving difficult problems reinforced the self-efficacy required for the initiation of discussions and ensuring that communication breakdowns were minimised, which may have been the impetus for students to take up the mantle of leadership.

Discussion and Conclusion

The course composition of the leadership case study followed by the leadership task was successful with many students but by no means all of them. The main pedagogical problem faced was to bring students of disparate levels of English language proficiency and experience to a point where they could work together to complete tasks with a level of difficulty that does not induce overwhelm. This increase in language proficiency was achieved by the end of the course for the majority of the students, in particular, the examples of Masaya, Sayaka, Yi, Nina, Dinah, and Miyu. Increased language proficiency in turn raised the confidence of some of the less confident first-year students by the end of the course. It seems likely that the reasons for the increase in this proficiency are the awareness of competence through the completion of tasks and the solidarity engendered through cooperative leadership practices which were the keyway to interacting most effectively as an autonomous group in order to avoid repeating work that other classmates were completing. However, for others who were less proficient in their English ability, or who were more reluctant to communicate in English to complete tasks with classmates, such as Xiao, the effect of the course may have been negligible.

While certain pedagogical choices could have been made differently, there is also the responsibility for students to be proactive; certainly, as participants in an EMI

programme of study, an expectation of English language use with peers is a reasonable expectation, and most students showed sufficient self-regulation to achieve the ability to use English with few problems. With an ‘arms-length pedagogy’ students had an environment in which they could embrace their autonomy and develop their leadership communication skills. Aside from English skills, the use of integration, self-reflection, and inquiry to bring about greater personal development and smoother relations for the group was a success, and therefore by knowing that these can be fostered by teachers and students, there is a potential for this to be replicated with other groups and cohorts.

The primary limitation of this research is that it is situated in one university, with a diverse student intake. While the aim of the research is not to produce generalizable findings but to produce knowledge that can inform approaches to leadership pedagogy, the particular context must be noted, and not all of the aspects or outcomes may be replicable. In addition, the primary data, students’ reflections in task sheets, were submitted for assessment. While it would be pleasant to think that students could be completely frank, there is likely self-censorship or attempts to represent themselves in a positive light to varying degrees. Another factor to be taken into consideration is that students’ other classes may have explicitly or implicitly supported or consolidated the work or else contradicted or undermined it to varying extents; however, those other classes are beyond the scope of this chapter. In conclusion, the findings from the study provide an impetus for educators to consider the potential for students to take responsibility for their own learning and that of the classmates that they are involved in projects, and the possible limits of interventions to attempt increased engagement and participation.

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Marc Jones Marc Jones is an English instructor at Toyo University, Japan. He has worked in language schools, high schools, and at companies teaching English since 2003. His primary research interests are listening and phonology acquisition but he also works across quantitative and qualitative methods for applied linguistics research and ADHD in language teachers. He is a Ph.D candidate at TU Dortmund, Germany.

Part II
Leaderful Pedagogy in Liberal Arts

Chapter 6

Practical Pedagogy in an English Literature Course: English Drama Students' Experiences as Leaders



Yu Umemiya

Abstract With the continuous demand for internationalization, Japanese students are surrounded by opportunities to experience unique ways of pedagogy both in and outside of the country. New means of classroom management are also constantly invented to assist the young with fine prospects in universities around the country. However, most activities were put on hold when the unpredicted global pandemic arrived in 2020. Thus, Japanese higher educational institutions rapidly shifted to online. Although the swift adjustment helped students continue their education, the change in the medium was not the result of many years of research and negotiation, but rather it came out of necessity. It was clear that the students also needed to nurture their self-directed learning skills to maintain motivation and commitment to their studies. In this chapter, I reflect on my past and present activities at a university in Tokyo to demonstrate how students evolve from passive observers to active participants. Two significant steps involve students' contribution to the class design and their passion for creating a theatre group. Especially for the latter, the students were not disrupted during the period of quarantine, and therefore the process those particular individuals took to establish their leaderful mentality was worth exploring. The present chapter takes the approach of an autoethnography, reflecting on my own experiences, classroom notes, and student interviews. The six former production directors in the theatre group were given a questionnaire by email as a form of an interview. Their responses suggested that the facilitator role of the instructor combined with the students' personal approaches helped them discover their own voices in their respective groups, and hence, develop their leadership skills.

Keywords Undergraduate · Humanities · Art · Theatre · The pandemic · Motivation · Autonomy

Especially for the purpose of the smooth exchange of international students, Japanese universities are gradually changing their system of curriculum: from the annual to the

Y. Umemiya (✉)
Seikei University, Tokyo, Japan
e-mail: yu-umemiya@ejs.seikei.ac.jp

semester, and to the quarter (Tanaka, 2015). Because the beginning of an academic year in Japan is different from countries such as the US and the UK, this flexibility in the academic calendar is expected to accelerate the popularity of study abroad programmes. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) actively promoted those study abroad programmes to students by considering that the experience may nurture global talents with high productivity (MEXT, 2014).

However, due to the spread of COVID-19 in early 2020, the number of students visiting foreign lands decreased dramatically during 2019–2020 (Japan Student Services Organization, 2021). The sum plummeted the following year, but the trend had always been ascending until then (Japan Student Services Organization, 2022). Although the pandemic is finally easing around the world, the educational approaches of both learners and practitioners have been altered. As a result, reconsidering the ways to facilitate learning has become an urgent task. This chapter aims to highlight the emergence of new student leaders during the difficult time of COVID-19 to explore the path they have taken for their development. The discussion may contribute to the realisation of how to bring up the autonomous attitude among the young, and how such a character could affect those even if they have not dramatically changed their physical location.

It is not an exaggeration to state that most university students suffered mentally and emotionally for a considerable amount of time during the pandemic. Particularly in 2020, students were forced to change their lifestyles as universities across Japan adopted remote learning (Ishikawa, 2022; Morozumi et al., 2022). According to the report by MEXT (2021), students responded positively to the change as they could study wherever and whenever they desired. Nonetheless, with the isolation and detachment from the people or the institution, it seems that one characteristic became important more than ever: autonomy.

After investigating the current style of classroom management during and after the prevalence of COVID-19, this chapter shares an example of a seminar that took place in the academic year of 2017 and 2018. Each class included both lecture and discussion, which encouraged students to emerge as leaders through exchanges of knowledge and experience. What is more significant was that a limited few grew their autonomous attitudes and leadership quality, which led them to establish a student-run theatre group. Their positive frame of mind prevented them from being obstructed even by the pandemic. The unpredicted incident allowed the group to advance to a higher level by using filming technology and the publication of their works on the internet.

For the present study, personal interviews were held with six directors to understand how they evolved from being introverts in class into openly active collaborative leaders with a loud but considerate voice. This article thus introduces a pedagogy that aimed to discover the hidden voices outside the classroom, practised by myself that brought about a new leader before and during the pandemic, as well as the challenges that the current environment has established. The research questions this study intends to investigate are as follows:

1. What made the students with passive attitudes became active leaders?
2. How did the practice of theatre contribute to the development of leaders?

Literature Review

The Impact of COVID-19 on College Education in Japan

The spread of COVID-19 has undoubtedly changed the lives of people around the world. In Japan, the impact was prominent for university students whose prospect of fulfilling years was disrupted by the arrival of the new virus. According to a survey from April 2020, it was clear that both lecturers and students had not yet adjusted to remote education. Students experienced problems including eye fatigue, difficulty maintaining concentration, feelings of isolation, and distress in communicating with lecturers (National Federation of University Co-operative Associations, 2020).

The result of a survey conducted by the National Federation of University Co-operative Association (NFUCA) in October 2020 indicated the reason for the discontent, especially for first-year students. Since they attended classes mostly online and lacked sufficient information regarding club activities, the new students still could not lead their ideal university lives (NFUCA, 2021). From October to November 2021, the first-year student satisfaction rate seemed to recover, yet the result was still unsatisfactory for second-year students, which might have been caused by an imperfect beginning. Through comments from the students, the problem can be identified as their lack of opportunities to establish and maintain relationships in the changing environment (NFUCA, 2021).

Securing positive relationships in the university environment can be regarded as a significant factor for effective learning. The connection between the motivation toward studying and positive interaction with instructors is suggested by Mitate et al. (2008). Such a structure ultimately enhances the feeling of satisfaction with the overall university life. Nevertheless, Mitate et al. (2008) also added that the relationship between friends in the same generation does not necessarily affect their motivation. Kasuya (2014) researched the effect of an online learning management system, *Moodle*, with the expectation that the forum function would become a medium for stimulating interactive activities in class. However, the mutual exchange of opinions and comments was insufficient, and Kasuya (2014) assumed that students were not aware of its potential. In the present situation, educators should reconsider their understanding of student motivation because the surrounding environment has been dramatically altered due to the global pandemic.

Motivation and Learner Autonomy

For the improvement of learner autonomy, which is defined as having the ability to take control of one's own learning (Benson & Voller, 2014; Holec, 1981), self-reflective understanding is necessary, but it is quite a demanding task for university students in Japan. The dominance of the teacher-centred approach with a focus on the grammar-translation method is still prevalent in the Japanese educational environment (Egitim, 2021). With the reform initiatives by the government, language education is gradually shifting away from traditional practices, but total abandonment has not yet been achieved (Mitchell, 2017). According to Loucky and Ware (2017), Japanese students rely heavily on teachers' decisions in class and become "overly passive", meaning many of them are still far from developing the ability to self-monitor their own learning (p. 115). Students who aspire to become English teachers in the future value the teacher-centred grammar-translation method even though they admitted that the approach could decrease their interest in learning the language (Matsubayashi, 2016). It is not surprising that studies have explored new approaches due to the pandemic (Kim et al., 2021), but the establishment of a solid procedure is still not realized.

MacWhinnie and Mitchell (2017) argued that "While anxiety is a hindrance in developing language proficiency, motivation may be viewed as a better predictor of language ability" (p. 11). Hence, guidance by the teacher is key to learner motivation, which is indeed connected to the decrease of anxiety, and failing to reach such a preferable mental condition negatively correlates with proficiency. As mentioned by Horwitz (2001), the source of anxiety varies, and "Any task which was judged comfortable by some language learners was also judged stressful by others" (p. 119). Demerouti et al. (2001) illustrated in the model created by Maslow that success is one of the factors to prevent the loss of motivation. Therefore, educators should provide a sense of accomplishment to students to maintain their motivation (Araki, 2016).

My research (Author; 2020) also stated that even in an online environment, fulfilling the five categories by Maslow, "physiological, safety and security, belongingness, esteem, and self-actualization" (Lester, 2013, p. 15), enable the creation of a productive learning space. My previous project involved six university students in a distance learning condition. The aim of this experiment was to improve the pronunciation of the students by using Shakespeare's verse as learning material. I have contributed to the process by providing knowledge about the reading style and occasional assistance by listening and commenting on their recorded readings. The idea was that I can be the students' source of encouragement and safety, while the participants can develop their autonomous attitude for their practice. As a result, we created a psychologically safe learning environment, reduced anxiety, and raised the students' motivation and confidence.

Original Idea for the Leaderful Pedagogy

Your voices! For your voices, I have fought,
 Watch'd for your voices; for your voices, bear
 Of wounds two dozen odd; battles thrice six
 I have seen and heard of; for your voices have
 Done many things, some less, some more your voices!
 (*Coriolanus*; 2.3.125–129)

Coriolanus in William Shakespeare's play mentions as above when he asks for the general public to support him with the election to become a consul. He claims that all of his services in battles were for the voices (votes) of the citizen. Truthfully, he is a cold Roman marshal who cares less about the people by regarding them as burdens without having the ability to contribute to military activities. However, at least superficially, Coriolanus is allowing the public to verbalize their opinion to show their presence during the campaign of his election.

Voices should be recognized as one of the most significant components of a pedagogical approach. Charteris and Thomas (2017) claimed that "a student voice approach can provide further information in the form of a learner lens for teachers to reflect on and take pedagogic action" (p. 167). Baroutsis et al. (2016) noted that "Giving the voices to the students, in their term, student facilitator, can provide them with the chance to understand what it means to be a teacher and an opportunity to develop their pedagogic capabilities" (p. 20). Hence, listening to the voices of the students may encourage them to become active participants in the classroom environment (Baroutsis et al., 2016). As Egitim (2022) stated, "What really brings out the best in each individual is an open, participatory, and democratic classroom environment where all the members are given psychological safety and freedom to take the initiative" (p. 66). And such a desirable circumstance should be achieved by enabling the voices to be heard by every member that is involved in the project.

Method

The present research focuses on the activities in a student theatre group from 2019 to the present, which fostered new leaders in an autonomous learning environment. The creation of the group took two stages. The first was to organize a seminar related to theatre where students could acquire knowledge about the history of theatre and its practice. The second was the actual establishment of the group achieved by the students, who completed the seminar, with the aid of additional members who attended my other classes.

In both situations, I took on the role of a facilitator rather than becoming a dominant figure to nurture the autonomous attitude among students and help them grow as leaders. Thus, this chapter takes the approach of an autoethnography, with the

reflection of my own experiences, classroom notes, and interviews with students. Autoethnography is a qualitative research method that “uses a researcher’s personal experience to describe and critique cultural beliefs, practices, and experiences. Autoethnography employs deep self-reflection, referred to as reflexivity, to analyze the intersections between self and others” (Poulos, 2021, p. 4). Hence, this chapter involves my reflection on my beliefs, practices, and experiences with the students during their leadership development in a leaderful group environment.

The theatre group is active in the university, organized mainly by the assigned student representatives to produce two plays annually. There are no fixed membership regulations and occasionally the group invites visiting student actors when necessary. The plays are selected from a range of early modern English dramas, and students contribute by editing the script and composing music, alongside acting and directing. So far, the group has created six events, even during the period of quarantine, with eight directors.

Since the seminar, which started the group, was closed in 2018, four directors were the founding members, three of whom attended the seminar in either 2017 or 2018. The remaining four arrived later when the group had already produced some plays. The use of internet platforms, *Zoom* and *YouTube*, enabled the group to be known not only in Japan, but also in other Asian countries, such as China, Taiwan, Indonesia, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and also in the US and the UK. With the interviews from those directors, this chapter explored the support needed from the educator when inviting the students’ voices to become influential.

Personal interviews were proposed to all eight directors who had experienced the management of a project in this students’ group. Six of them agreed to provide their answers with the understanding that their comments would be used anonymously for research purposes only. The interview took place separately for the purpose of this study by distributing question sheet through email. Apart from the basic information, such as the year of participation and former experience in theatre, the result of students’ self-reflection was gathered especially by asking the following two questions: 1. Was there any support/advice from the artistic director about how to deal with the problems as a leader of the group/project? 2. What kind of leadership practice did you apply during your overall project? During the interviewing process, two of the participants were still registered in my modules, and they were clearly told that their answers would never affect their evaluations. The two who did not respond had either graduated or were not in the country.

Background of the Study

With the shift in the format of modules in Japanese universities from the annual subjects (30 weeks) to the semester (15 weeks), and then to the quarter (8 weeks), it became more and more difficult to develop the personality rather than overloading the students with knowledge (Oka et al., 2018). Although there are several advantages that correspond with the acceleration of globalization (Tanaka, 2015), the problems of

the quarter system had been argued even in the US from the perspective of university organizations (Maynard, 1984).

The arrival of the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 added more difficulty to the situation. It further distanced the bodies, both figuratively and physically, by introducing a novel method of teaching in the form of an online platform. While the new environment caused hardships ranging from problems with internet connections to insufficient teacher-student interactions and issues surrounding marking criteria (Japan Association of Law Schools, 2020), it also enabled the courses to continue in higher education institutions even under a state of emergency. However, without thorough consideration and suitable implementation of the new technology, educational efficiency was minimalized.

Origin of the Theatre Group

Most of the founding members of the theatre group first registered in a specific module without having any or very limited amount of interaction with me (the lecturer). The course had been offered during the autumn semester in the academic year 2017 and 2018, under the title of Theatre as Entertainment. It was a combination of lectures and discussions on various aspects of theatre tradition and practices. Every activity was organized in English, including the syllabus, the introductory talk, and feedback or comments. Therefore, the registered students had a variety of motivations, starting from cultural understanding, theatrical knowledge, and English language usage. After being verbally given the basic information and knowledge on the specific theme each week, students were provided with opportunities to exchange their views on topics explored in class. Apart from active participation, students were evaluated by two group presentations and one creative project: an assigned skit. The former was set as the chance to research a style of theatre or a country that was not covered in the module. The latter was designed to challenge the creativity of the eager students in the room, leaving the margin for passive ones to contribute as spectators. The registered members self-selected their enrolments from three options for this occasion: directors, actors, and audiences.

In the second from last class of the term, five selected scenes from Shakespeare's canon were prepared by a group of actors and a director. The first four options were chosen from *Macbeth*: 13 lines in Act I, Scene i, 82 lines in Act I, Scene iii, 81 lines in Act I, Scene v, and 65 lines in Act V, Scene i. The fifth option was from *Hamlet*, with 126 lines from Act III, Scene i. In order to narrow down the options, as well as to maintain the suitable duration and required number of actors, I selected the above five. The basis for the decision was the students' familiarity with each dialogue. The first option was chosen for its length, considering that a short scene would encourage less active students to challenge themselves. Additionally, there was a week to watch a video performance at the Globe Theatre in London, where professionals acted on an old-style thrust stage. One class was also devoted to verse reading where students learned different patterns of delivery depending on the lines including prose and

half-lines. These activities equipped students with sufficient knowledge to have the courage to read Shakespearean lines. The performances were held on the Elizabethan-style outdoor stage on the university premises, where students did not only explore the way of delivery and posture but also considered the use of space filled with their fellow actors in front of live audiences.

Participants of the Module

The breakdown of the 42 registered students in 2017 with eight who did not show up, four international students, and 30 Japanese students. The international students included those from Asian countries and Japanese students who had completed their secondary school education in an English-speaking community. The number of first-year students was the largest, with 18, followed by ten active second-year members. Four students joined the module from their third year, and there was also one from the fourth.

In contrast to the enrolment of 2017, 31 students registered in the following year. Similar to before, eight students had never turned up, and there were four students from abroad. Although both fifth-year and fourth-year students registered for the module, they did not attend the class even once. Nine students joined from their first year, eight from the second, and six from the third (see Table 6.1).

As was pointed out by Becker et al. (1973), the students sitting in the front section of the room are those with good academic performance, and the opposite only happens when the students at the back are examined with their ability. This categorization was commonly accepted when the classes were held face-to-face (Holliman & Anderson, 1986; Levine et al., 1980). Although Yazawa (2002) suggested a link between students' seating and their attitudes, it was not the case with the module mentioned in this study. Since the classes were not solely devoted to lectures but involved weekly discussions, students seemed to feel more relaxed when they were grouped with their usual friends.

Table 6.1 Class organization in the years 2017 (AY2017) and 2018 (AY2018)

	Total	International	5th year	4th year	3rd year	2nd year	1st year
AY2017	42(8)	4	0	2(1)	8(3)	13(3)	19(1)
AY2018	31(8)	4	(1)	3	10(4)	8	9

Note. Figures in brackets indicate the number of inactive students.

Reflecting on Findings

The First Step for the Founding of the Theatre Group

In addition to the discussion activities in class, one of the criteria for the evaluation was the presentation. The groups of four to five were fixed at the very early stage of the course. With a fair number of students registered to the course as shown in Table 6.1, they most likely have joined with various purposes, different from the one declared in the syllabus. Since the main focus of the module was to acquire knowledge and share opinions about theatre, each group had one or two students with a theatrical background. As a result, during group discussions, at least one student with high proficiency in English voluntarily took the initiative in leading the session, while others were sharing their experiences and thoughts. For the purpose of establishing such a healthy atmosphere, I constantly walked through the room as a facilitator, monitored the discussions, and made comments or offered additional assistance with the aim of enhancing students' language proficiency and knowledge. This intervention positively affected the students, especially the quiet ones, because it was an opportunity for them to understand that their opinions mattered, and the ideas of the well-spoken students were not the only *correct* answers. Those who did not have a high command of English gradually realized that they were surrounded by curious students who want to extract their knowledge by filling in the lack of language proficiency.

The module was conducted entirely in English, but it was not a language class. Therefore, the most valuable contribution was the students' ideas and not their language ability. Thus, each member was responsible for either providing commentary or interpreting the comments of others. This dynamic relationship was even noticeable with international students whose English was almost equivalent to native level. The domestic students' knowledge of Japanese theatre was a new finding for those who were from outside of the country. Because of their interest in Japanese theatre practices, the international students valued the input from the Japanese students even if they were not equipped with comparable language fluency.

In weeks 11 and 12, the module covered the topics of verse reading, as referred to above, and the problem of translation. Taking Shakespeare's works, for example, students learned different ways of dialogue delivery, as well as the problem of translating English into Japanese. The first line from Hamlet's fourth soliloquy, "to be, or not to be" can be translated into various meanings in Japanese because a fixed concept of "to be" is rather absent from the language. The expression can vaguely imply "be there," or more explicitly translated "to live or to die." There are some cases that changed the line into "to do it," or "to murder or be slaughtered." By noticing such unique features in English, students grew to understand that it is more important to follow the lines than to be cautious about fluency and pronunciation.

After successfully nurturing students' motivation and reducing their hesitation by providing enough knowledge and ideas, the module reached week 13, where the participants observed the venue for their final project. Those who were leading

the group discussion in most of the cases automatically chose their roles as actors. However, even the passive students also volunteered to perform on stage to help their classmates who wanted to direct. Although one-third of the class kept a distance from the stage and remained as the audience, they returned to the class in the final week to share their responses after witnessing five students' versions of Shakespearean scenes. Hence, it seems that all of them discovered their own voices in class, some leading others, and vice versa. The theatre is, in a way, a desirable place where participants can experience taking initiative in their area of expertise.

Second Step for the Development of the Theatre Group

In the following year, the same module was completed with similar results but with less enthusiasm from registered students. The remarkable point was that there were several returnees from the previous year at the final performance, revisiting the occasion with their original skits. This assembly of students created a theatre group at the university in April 2019, approximately three months after their experimental project, placing myself as an artistic director.

Establishment of the Performance Group

The group was established with 17 official members, including five students joining without having the experience of attending the module introduced above (see Table 6.2). There were several agreements in the group created by myself without consulting the students, such as performing early modern drama in cut-text with few original writings and producing low-budget stages emphasizing language rather than physical acting. Other than those details, the group was organized by two executive directors or one alongside a deputy chair who were selected by me and nominated with the agreement of all the members. Although these representatives had the responsibility of showing their presence when problems occurred, it was the director who led each production happening twice a year. In other words, the members who decided to take the reins knew they would receive all the support needed to become the leader of the group for a while. Since the period for their enrollment was not permanent, it seemed to be a suitable opportunity to assess their leaderful quality or train such ability. The leader was allowed to share the responsibility with another member, or to request further assistance from me, working as the artistic director. This system encouraged students with almost no experience in directing or even acting to volunteer in this significant challenge.

Table 6.2 Founding members of the theatre group in 2019

	Graduated	4th	3rd	2nd	2nd sep	1st	1st Sep
Sum	2	3(1)	3	4(2)	2	2(2)	1

Note. Figures in brackets indicate the number of students joining from outside of the said module.

Format of the Productions

As indicated in Table 6.3, six productions appeared in different formats. With no restriction required in 2019, the selected play was performed in front of live audiences. The second project started off as a normal-stage production, but an in-person performance was cancelled due to the spread of COVID-19. Some crucial members were unable to return to Japan from their spring break, and some had graduated from the university. Nevertheless, with the adjustment of the cast and creative team, the members who were involved came together to fight against the negative circumstances provoked by the pandemic. As a result, the group adopted a new medium of performance that implemented the online video conferencing system *Zoom*, and later *YouTube*. Digital theatre came in various forms even before the spread of COVID-19 (Lavender, 2017), but the regulation of social distancing encouraged theatre and other performative arts to move to the internet platforms even further (Aebischer & Nicholas, 2020). As Masura (2020) concluded, the technology seemed best suited in an environment where there were limitations of people and space:

Digital Theatre gives us the ability to stir the space of spectacle, extend, illusion, and merge the body of the performer into the playing space and set. It creates an interplay between theatrical roles and between performers and the audience. It offers a sense of a networked global place and creates new connections between people. As a theatrical form, developing in a liminal creative space between disciplines and techniques, Digital Theatre offers us a new way to embody the theoretical and social concerns of our world (p. 277).

With the success of the second production, the third followed its style but held all the necessary meetings such as auditions and rehearsals online. It was not a preferred decision, but the pandemic situation, which did not show any sign of improvement,

Table 6.3 Year, season, plays, number of directors, and format of the performance

Project	Year	Season	Directors	Format
A	2019	Fall	A	Live stage
B	2020	Spring	B+ α	Full-online
C	2020	Fall	C	Full-online
D	2021	Summer	D, E+ α	Hybrid
E	2022	Spring	α +F	Hybrid
F	2022	Summer	G, H+ α	Hybrid

Note. ' α ' suggests my involvement as an assistant director of the production.

voided other options. One of the positive outcomes of this specific project was that it proved the process can be completed fully online and directed even from abroad.

After the fourth production, the actors and the crews once again gathered in a room with the restrictions gradually eased. Nevertheless, COVID-19 was still visible in our daily lives, necessitating a degree of social distancing which noticeably impacted face-to-face rehearsals and recordings. Such circumstances established a unique but problematic situation among the group because the directors had to decide the roles by asking whether those actors were willing to physically attend the rehearsals or wish to stay online.

When creating the sixth production, the fear of catching COVID-19 had diminished, and the directors could focus on founding a positive workspace during the process of production with actively involved actors. However, the crucial presence of the actors occasionally depended on their personal affairs including several unfavourable behaviours, such as lateness and last-minute cancellation.

As mentioned so far, the group produced six shows in three different formats which corresponded to every necessary adjustment caused by the pandemic. Because the group was assigned to be mainly organized by the students, my involvement, as an artistic director who observes everything, also differed according to the request of the person in charge of the project.

Interviews

Description of the Directors

Directors A, B, and D have attended the module mentioned above, as well as other theatre-related classes organized by me. Directors C and G recently completed a module that focused on the Japanese adaptation of Shakespeare. When it first opened in 2020, the format was altered to full-online, but since 2022, the class is organised in hybrid, online and face-to-face style. The content had relevance to stage productions and early modern dramas, however, the course did not cover any information regarding verse reading or original practice. Directors F and H attended my other classes which dealt mainly with the English language, and Director E had never met me in any of the modules (Table 6.4).

The difference between each student can be identified by the degree of their relationship with me or the amount of knowledge they possessed regarding early modern practice. The innate individual character and unexpected reactions through various correspondence may certainly affect the making of leadership quality. For example, students A, B, C, and G could direct a show confidently with their pre-developed familiarity with the plays from the period; student F at least had a pre-established relationship with me before taking on the responsibility; however, student E had much to earn about directing with no foundation to rely on.

As shown in Table 6.5, the nationality, age, or experience in the university might have affected the way how each director approached the rest of the members in the

Table 6.4 Directors’ former experience in participation of theater related classes

Director	Year	Season	Former participation
A	2019	Fall	Said module and others
B	2020	Spring	Said module and others
C	2020	Fall	Theatre related module
D	2021	Summer	Said module and others
E	2021	Summer	None
F	2022	Spring	English language
G	2022	Summer	Theatre related module
H	2022	Summer	English language

Table 6.5 Directors’ detailed information

Director	Nationality	School year when directing	Year they have joined
A	Chinese	2nd year	2019 Spring
B	British/Japanese	4th year	2019 Spring
C	Chinese	1st year	2020 Summer
D	Japanese	4th year	2019 Spring
E	Chinese	3rd year	2020 Spring
F	Japanese	4th year	2019 Spring
G	Czech	1st year	2021 Summer
H	Singaporean	3rd year	2021 Spring

group. Nevertheless, this present study has not investigated those details which could require a different analysis.

My Actions that Contributed to Students’ Leaderful Practice

Director F noted, “The artistic director was always optimistic and that allowed me to relax.” Based on this comment, one could argue that maintaining calmness under stressful circumstances was important for the group. Additionally, Directors D, G, and H collectively referred to the advice they were given during the process which included specific acting techniques or editorial inputs for the confirmation of the script. Director B’s remark may summarize and clarify the desirable approach for the educator who would support the new leader.

He was a good adviser especially when I was finalizing the script. Even when I rejected his opinions, he would understand and approve of my idea when I explained the reasons. This continued during our discussion on directions. I did not feel the sense of being imposed and that is why I could flexibly change my plan according to his suggestions too. However, I have seen him being rather stubborn when he was approached with an idea without having enough reasoning. There were also incidents where members were afraid to communicate

with him, especially through emails. Although he was an approachable teacher in person, his writings tended to be a bit cold.

The preferable approach to nurturing new leaders is to create an environment where they can feel safe to articulate their voices. Furthermore, the comment implies the effect of face-to-face communication rather than online, because it is claimed that the educator's voice is often misunderstood when delivered through written words.

The method of leading others in the group was divided into two: work ethic and smooth communication. The former was stressed by Directors A, E, and G, who have the knowledge of theater and acting, learned through the module or on other occasions. The latter was mentioned by Directors B, F, and H. Especially Directors F and H did not have much former experience on stage nor attended classes on drama. This might have led them to extract good quality from the rest of the participants of the project rather than taking initiative during the process. As a result, they formed a collaborative environment, but the others also remarked that they appreciated the voices of everyone. However, Directors B, F, and H focused on the collaborative side more than the other directors, which was expressed through the comment of Director F:

I tried my best to be positive in front of other members so that they can benefit from something after joining the production. I also tried to contact everybody individually so that we can move at a comfortable pace for all of the members, as much as possible.

Changes to Directors' Identities as Leaders

When it comes to their acknowledgement of the change, from passive to active, from introvert to extrovert, the directors all agreed that taking responsibility influenced their personalities. The most prominent factor was that they seemed to gain confidence. Director H noted, "I think I generally grew as a person, became more confident, and I wanted to try out new things. I also wanted to help people in my circle and have fun together." If the educator succeeds in creating an environment where the prospective candidate can feel safe to raise their voice, and if the educator can support such voice not only by letting it be heard but also by creating it together accordingly, the process could give rise to a new leader with a strong democratic voice.

Discussion

To sum up the consideration of nurturing leadership, it is vital for educators to create a safe space where a mutual exchange of voices takes place. As it has been suggested through the analysis of the management of the seminar and theatre group, the environment with mutual interaction appears to be vital. In addition, when the selected individual is equipped with the knowledge and skills they gained through classroom study or their preconceived ideas about theatre practice, such a person is

likely to establish themselves as a leader. Director B reflected the attitude during the seminar as follows:

At first, I was definitely a passive viewer and enjoyed listening to the lectures. I never thought about standing up, speaking out, or even answering questions apart from the times when I was directly asked.

From the remark, it is obvious that Director B changed from a quiet listener to a representative of production in the theatre group. The cause for such transformation was the experience in the class and the group that positively affected their personality. Presently, the group has been slowly deflating its momentum for stable activity. As was introduced in the earlier part of this chapter, students currently studying at the university can be described as the victims of the global pandemic. They were the ones who experienced mental and emotional suffering during the state of emergency as they were deprived of the joys of becoming new college students. Since they immensely struggled at the beginning, unlike other members who founded the group in 2019, their personalities appeared to be different. Highly motivated students tended to focus on multiple activities to ensure that they could always be involved in something even though another lockdown was ordered. We prioritised coursework and relied mainly on the members' preferences. As a result, most of the current members belong to two or more student groups in the university or outside, marginalising the activities of the theatre group we have formed. Because the original students of the group were closely knit from the start, and most of their university years were clear from any sort of quarantine, it was natural for them to dedicate their enthusiasm to one established organization.

Another crucial factor in the group's decline was the lack of opportunity to transfer collective knowledge about how to run the theatre group. Up till Director F, several members of the creative team either attended the modules run by me or met each other before the global pandemic. Given the time constraints, most of those people have moved on to the next chapter of their lives in the Spring of 2022. Although the remaining members had the chance to interact with the graduates, it was very much restricted in the online environment or simply practising the scenes and not being socially connected. This situation did not provide an opportunity to pass on the knowledge sufficient enough to create a new stable leader.

Limitations

The present chapter solely deals with one specific student group and thus, the findings are not meant to be generalised. Since the interviews were descriptive and not composed of multiple choices, the responses may be viewed as subjective. It is possible that even those comments were made with conscious judgment towards me. All students understood that I was the one conducting the interviews. With all these

issues aside, this case study attempted to provide a different perspective on the application of leaderful pedagogy in a theatre group setting at a Japanese university which positively influenced students' leadership development during the global pandemic.

Conclusion

The present study mainly considered two steps that the students took before becoming responsible leaders of the theatre group. The first was their emergence through class activities and the second was their enrollment as directors for the theatric productions. In both cases, I did not take an active role to guide them but remained a facilitator who granted support when requested. In addition to this attitude, the students were provided with knowledge that was needed to find mental stability.

Although there are limitations to this approach because an ideal human relationship is difficult to establish. Such a notion has been proved by the current condition of the group. Moreover, this study should be examined with more versatility or with the distinction of diversity such as nationality and gender. However, the result of the present investigation should be a worthy steppingstone for future study and practice.

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Yu Umemiya Ph.D., is an Associate Lecturer at Seikei University, Tokyo, Japan. He was awarded the degree of Ph.D. with thesis in English Literature from Waseda University in 2021. His research focus ranges from textual studies of the Early Modern Dramas, their adaptation and translation in Japan, to present theatre and film representations. Dr Umemiya also serves as an artistic director at a students' theatre group in Tokyo, *Waseda Institute Players*.

Chapter 7

The Role of Learner-Initiated Questions as a Pedagogical Resource for Co-Learning: Development of Teacher Identity for Leaderful Classrooms



Seiko Harumi

Abstract This study explores ways in which learner-initiated questions in the second language (L2) Japanese classroom can function as a pedagogical resource for co-learning involving learners and teachers, one which also forges teacher identity within a leaderful classroom. Adopting a critical autoethnographic narrative, this study analyses the pedagogical direction of a Japanese language teacher as it homes in on the target of a leaderful classroom driven by self-reflection on the use of learner-initiated-questions. Based on reflective observation of an eight-hour video-recorded L2 classroom interaction in a group of adult post-beginners of Japanese in the UK, the contributing teacher's narrative suggests that learners play a key role as leaders of their L2 learning through self-initiated questions and the creation of opportunities for further discussing linguistic and cultural aspects of L2. This study demonstrates the significant role that the leaderful classroom can play at the micro level when learners initiate questions to enhance L2 interaction and emphasises the vital role that teachers' self-reflection on pedagogical practices plays in fostering teacher identity in action. This study suggests that a teacher's dialogical engagement with learner-initiated-questions as shared pedagogical practices and a teacher's continuous reflective practice used to promote a leaderful classroom can facilitate co-learning and collaborative leadership identity.

Keywords Leaderful classroom · Teacher-identity · Learner-initiated questions · Co-learning · Autoethnography

This study explores how learner-initiated-questions in an L2 classroom can function as a pedagogical resource for co-learning involving learners and teachers, one which also forges teacher identity within a leaderful classroom (Egitim, 2022). Learners'

S. Harumi (✉)
SOAS University of London, 10 Thornhaugh Street, London WC1H 0XG, England
e-mail: sh96@soas.ac.uk

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questions are traditionally considered a means to seek out experts' i.e., teachers,' linguistic or cultural knowledge of the target language (Brouwer, 2003). Teachers are also fully aware of the crucial role of questions in encouraging learners' engagement in L2 learning. However, having reflected on my teaching trajectories as an L2 teacher over 20 years, specifically when my teaching context shifted from monolingual to multilingual (Canagarajah, 2012; Park, 2014), I became acutely aware of the significant differences between L2 classroom dynamics in English as a foreign language (EFL) context at tertiary level in Japan and Japanese as a foreign language (JFL) context in the UK tertiary education and business sphere.

Like other studies in which teacher identity or pedagogical approach are renewed when transnationals cross borders lying between different socio-cultural and educational contexts (Solano-Campos, 2014), the focus of my investigation was drawn to the way classroom discourse was advanced by learner-initiated-questions in JFL contexts where learners' background are linguistically and culturally diverse. As an L2 teacher who previously had trouble eliciting verbal responses in Japanese EFL classes, where the principal role of the teacher as a knowledge provider was highly valued in society and learner silence was considered normative from a socio-cultural perspective (Harumi, 2011), my academic interests gradually shifted towards the role of learner-initiated-questions as a pedagogical resource. My observation and reflection on JFL classroom discourse motivated me to closely examine ways in which learner-initiated questions enhance L2 classroom learning.

Adopting a critical autoethnographic narrative (CAN) (Yazan, 2017), which facilitated self-reflection on my own pedagogy and teacher identity, the current study focusses on the way learner-initiated-questions function as a pedagogical resource in an adult post-beginner' JFL classroom in the UK. This study focusses on the role of learner-initiated-questions as a distinct component from questions initiated by teachers in the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) cycle (van Lier, 1984) traditionally seen as the norm.

The present study also considers learner-initiated-questions used to facilitate the reflection of the L2 teacher, myself, who is the subject of this study, on the following pedagogical approaches: (1) the ongoing co-constructed interactional process, (2) collaborative knowledge construction using and re-evaluating linguistic resources, and (3) L2 cultural repertoires as seen from learners' perspectives. This study aims to reveal how learner-initiated-questions and learners' involvement in the drive towards leaderful classrooms can play a significant role in enhancing L2 learning through the micro-analysis of classroom discourse adopting conversation analysis (CA) (Sacks et al., 1974) as a source of CAN. The contribution of teachers' self-reflection on their own pedagogical practices to the continuing development of teacher identity will also be discussed.

Literature Review

Critical Autoethnographic Narrative for Leaderful Classrooms

Referring to the nature of collaboration mediated through language use, Egitim (2022) considers that teachers' reflective practices, empathy, and collaboration with students are the key concepts for the development of collaborative leadership identity where both individual learners and the teacher share leaderful roles in L2 learning. When seeking this goal, how can one engage in self-reflection and improve pedagogy as an L2 teacher?

Yazan (2018) sees the engagement of one's own narrative as "a learning tool" for teacher development (p. 1). Yazan (2018) emphasises the significant role of critical autoethnographic narrative (CAN) as an analytical tool for teachers seeking to engage in such a valuable pedagogical practice to shape their own pedagogy, seeing the self as an agent able to articulate their own pedagogy through "ongoing engagement with narrative" (p. 8). Focussing on such reflective practices, other studies (Canagarajah, 2012; Farrell, 2018; Johnson, 2009; Park, 2014) also argued that self-reflective practices can provide valuable opportunities for teachers to engage in critical self-evaluation of their own pedagogy. Johnson (2009) specifically highlights teacher learning as "a long-term, complex, developmental process that is the result of participation in the social practices and contexts" (p. 10). Similarly, Golomek and Johnson (2004) argued that teacher learning can occur when teachers challenge, revisit, or remould their understanding of themselves as teachers through their own teaching practices. Further, Egitim (2022) stressed that teachers' awareness of their own "Fallibility and vulnerability as learners was essential" for their teacher development (p. 18). Teachers' openness to their own vulnerability (Noda & Hua, 2022) is also considered a facilitator for pedagogical improvement as it can function as a springboard for co-learning. Thus, self-reflective practice through CAN is considered a useful and powerful learning tool for L2 teachers and this study adopts this analytical lens to explore the way leaderful classrooms can be facilitated by learner-initiated questions from the perspective of the teacher as an agent.

Learning from Classroom Discourse and Learner Initiation in L2 Learning

Freeman and Johnson (1998) argued that "One must recognise that language teacher education is primarily concerned with teachers as learners of language teaching" (p. 407). To raise awareness of their own teaching beliefs and practices, Mann and Walsh (2017, p. 10) argued that data from a classroom can give an insight into how a data-led process can lead to new possibilities in practice. In recent years, CA studies exploring the learner-initiated interactional move in collaborative L2 interaction have increasingly included learners' use of culturally oriented topics

(Noda & Hua, 2022). However, the role of learner-initiated questions which facilitate pedagogy for leaderful classrooms from a wider perspective has been under-explored. For this reason, the current study aims to bridge a scholarly and pedagogical gap. To articulate my teaching practice promoting the leaderful classroom, the following section explores the role of learner-initiated questions in the L2 classroom drawing on my CAN.

The Study

Contexts and Methods

Adopting CAN, this paper focusses on analysing the way learner-initiated-questions in a JFL classroom function as a pedagogical resource to add a new perspective on the dynamics of classroom interaction and its role in the leaderful classroom. To establish a critical narrative, this study analyses selective reflective vignettes (Mann & Walsh, 2017) of classroom discourse from two classroom contexts: (1) the initial year of teaching trajectory (Harumi, 1999) and (2) recent practice. This study chose two groups of adult JFL learners studying in the UK as participants. These groups were selected as they were both post-beginners in similar group sizes and learning Japanese for pleasure. The eight British participants in the first context were learning Japanese at a language school. In the second context, the five British participants formed a group in a tailor-made Japanese class comprising museum employees who encountered Japanese visitors to the museum café, shop, and reception or conducted curatorial work about Japan. Four learners from the museum group had never studied Japanese, whereas a learner had self-studied for six months.

While analysing the use of learner-initiated-questions in two contexts in chronological order as a source of CAN, this study focusses on the use of learner-initiated-questions in the second context. Adopting CA (Sacks et al., 1974) as a methodological tool to analyse approximately eight hours of video-recorded classroom discourse as a data source, my CAN explores (1) ways the researcher perceives the role of questions in the L2 classroom as a teacher and (2) the teacher's changing perceptions of learner-initiated-questions seen as leaderful classroom facilitators which also coexist as pedagogical improvements in their identity development.

Analysis and Findings

Teaching Trajectories of a Teacher with Multiple Identities in L2 Teaching

My teaching trajectories as an L2 teacher spring from Japanese EFL contexts and later from the British JFL realm as well, in both the tertiary education and business sphere. Reflecting on earlier teaching trajectories and the learner's oral participation in Japanese EFL contexts, I became aware of the critical role teachers' questions played in scaffolding L2 learning. Further, my research on learner silence within Japanese EFL contexts heightened this awareness. This is largely because approximately 25 percent of the 197 Japanese EFL learners who responded to my questionnaire strongly expressed the pedagogical need to modify the teacher's questions (Harumi, 2011). While I still consider the role of teacher questions crucial in supporting L2 learners' engagement in the L2 classroom, I believe the role of questions in the L2 classroom has shifted gradually in three distinct areas: (1) in EFL contexts in Japan, (2) in the initial year of JFL contexts and (3) in current JFL contexts. Using metaphorical analysis of my emphasis on the role of questions (Farrell, 2018; Oxford et al., 1998) in the L2 classroom, my shifting outlook is summarised Table 7.1.

My metaphor of the role of questions in the L2 classroom from a teacher's viewpoint reflects my experience while adjusting pedagogy in response to situated educational contexts. This held true when I taught L2 as a cultural insider and as a first-language (L1) speaker of the target language. When I taught English in Japanese EFL contexts, I shared learners' cultural norms and was more acutely aware of the difficulties learners experienced when learning the target language. Further, it is undeniable that invisible macro-level social expectations on the principal role of the teacher as a knowledge provider in Japanese EFL contexts (Harumi, 2011) also influenced my sense of responsibility within the educational contexts when examining my metaphor for the use of questions.

Focussing on teaching trajectories in JFL contexts in the UK, where learners' sociocultural and linguistic backgrounds are diverse, this study examines my CAN through reflection on key snapshots of my classroom teaching in JFL contexts. One extract from an initial year will be presented first, together with a reflection on my teaching at that time, serving as a reflective vignette of key events (Mann & Walsh, 2017), followed by my current re-reflection. Mann and Walsh (2017) consider reflective vignettes as a key part of the data-led approach to self-reflection, consisting

Table 7.1 Metaphor of the role of questions in L2 classroom

Aspect	EFL	JFL (initial phase)	JFL (current)
The role of question in L2 class	Teacher-enhanced	Teacher-enhanced	Learner-led
	Teacher responsibility	Challenging	Curiosity
	Facilitative questions	Focus on providing accurate information	Focus on how to respond

of three characteristics; (1) “make clear important elements in the interactional contexts”; (2) “provide a piece of data or perspective on PR [reflective practice]”; and (3) “comment on key issues in the extract” (p. 2). Tsui’s (2009) concept of the Teacher maxim, universally accepted principles for efficient teaching, is another useful analytical lens, which can be used to examine the extent to which teachers’ beliefs and practice emphasise the following aspects of teaching (Tsui, 2009) at specific stages of teaching phases.

- The maxim of accuracy: work for accurate student output
- The maxim of efficiency: making the most efficient use of class time
- The maxim of empowerment: giving learners control
- The maxim of encouragement: seeking ways to encourage student learning
- The maxim of planning: plan your teaching and try to follow your plan
- The maxim of involvement: consider the learners’ interests to maintain student involvement

Context 1: Ensuring Accuracy

The video recording from context 1 was made at a language school in the UK. Learners were practicing a new grammatical expression learnt in class and were asked what they wanted to become during their childhood. The student in focus was student 3 (S3). At the time of the original study (Harumi, 1999), the focus of the analysis was a learner’s silence, so the reflection in the right column below focusses on the learners’ silent behaviour rather than the role of questions. However, the way I responded to S3’s silence and the way other questions were addressed in this extract also illustrate my pedagogical approach at the time of the recording. Re-reflection from my current perspective is also added below. For analytical purposes, the third person pronoun will be used in CA, while reflection is voiced as my own narrative.

Vignette 1

<u>Classroom interaction</u>	<u>Reflection after the lesson</u>
01 T: <i>Jya, Sonia san wa chiisai toki,</i> “Well, Sonia, when you were small, <i>nani ni naritakatta desu ka.</i> what you wanted to become?”	As a teacher, I interpreted S3’s silence in line 10 as a lack of understanding of the target structure (<i>naritakatta desu</i>). I
02 S1: <i>Keikan</i> “Police officer”	also interpreted his silence as his attempt to understand and
03 T: <i>Keikan?</i> <i>Sonia san wa keikan ni</i> “Police officer? Sonia wanted to <i>naritakatta desu ka? Alisu san wa?</i> become a police officer. How about Alice?”	construct the appropriate expression. This is because he checked his understanding in English after his 6.2-second

(continued)

(continued)

<p>04 S2: <i>Anō, baree dansā.</i> “Well, a ballet dancer.”</p> <p>05 T: <i>Aa, dansā ni naritakatta desu ka?</i> “I see, so you wanted to become a ballet dancer” <i>Jya, baree o naraimashita ka.</i> “Then, did you learn the ballet?”</p> <p>06 S2: Hai. “Yes”</p> <p>07 T: <i>Joe san wa?</i> “How about Joe?”</p> <p>08 S3: <i>Aa, yuumeina sakkā preiyā.</i> “well, famous football player”</p> <p>09 T: (.) <u>ni</u>? (.) <u>ni</u>? <i>naritakatta desu?</i> “to (.) to (.) wanted to become?”</p> <p>10→S3: °<i>naritakatta</i>° (6.2) “°wanted to become° (6.2)” What did I want to become?</p>	<p>silence and appeared to be thinking. So, I waited, and I also felt that he was not 100 per cent sure about the new structure’s concept and its use. I, therefore, explained its use by contextualizing both the present and past tense of the key sentence.</p>
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(Harumi, 1999, p. 266, modified)

Reflecting the way the classroom discourse developed within these simple turn exchanges, the teacher takes the first interactional move to allocate turns to individual students. The teacher’s question to S1 in line 01 functions as a key question to all and both S1 and S2 answer questions with a specific occupation using a single word, and in lines 03 and 05 further comments or questions were added by the teacher. Subsequently, when allocated the turn, S3 successfully answered the question in the same way as S1 and S2. However, turning to S3’s answer, the teacher tried to elicit this in a full sentence using a key grammar learnt in class. This demonstrates the teacher’s clear intention to ensure or check the students’ understanding of the new grammatical point although S3’s answer has no functional problem. The teacher’s prompt might have confused the student despite his answer in line 08. The teacher’s focus appears to be more to do with the maxims of accuracy and planning to ensure the use of grammar in a full sentence (Tsui, 2009).

Although this is only a part of classroom discourse, a re-examination of my own teaching practices suggests that teacher-led questions dominate classroom interaction, and the focus of these exchanges shows the teacher’s concern with form. This approach could also be seen in the teacher’s reflection after the class, explaining how S3’s silence and repeated utterances were received and how the explanation focussed

on a form-based approach. Students' continued discussion may also have been encouraged at that time, or alternatively may have been more related to interview-based tasks rather than immediately focussing on form. Turning to my metaphor of 'focus on providing accurate information' during the initial phase of JFL teaching (Table 7.1), this specific turn exchange illustrates the teacher's similar pedagogical focus on form rather than on facilitating interaction among students in L2 classes, as Tsui (2009) observed in Hong Kong ELT contexts.

Context 2: Shifting Towards the Leaderful Classroom

Vignettes 2 and 3 are extracts from a group in a post-beginner Japanese class in the second context. Using analysis of eight-hour video-recorded classroom discourse, types of learner-initiated-questions were categorised as follows; (1) administration-related questions (e.g., homework, learning resources), (2) questions focusing on the use of new grammatical expressions after the teacher's explanation, (3) clarification requests concerning unclear points and teacher's questions, (4) questions on the content of audio-visual or authentic materials. This study focuses on the learner-initiated-questions from the fourth category as these were not predicted by the teacher and mostly contributed to the further development of classroom interaction. In this study, two extracts as reflective vignettes (Mann & Walsh, 2017), highlight the key events, with detailed descriptions using CA and reflection through my narrative presented for further analysis as a pedagogical resource for leaderful classrooms. These examples demonstrate how my teacher leadership identity transformed from a sole facilitator role to one in which I was a collaborative leader in an L2 class. My observation of learner-initiated questions contributed to the development of collaborative classroom interaction and guided me as I sought to further assist students' L2 learning.

Learning Social Practices of Politeness

This is an example of learner-initiated questions after watching a short video clip which includes the expression, "*dochira ni irasshaimasu ka?*" (Honorific form of where they are located. Honorific expressions in Japanese show respect for the person referred to.) and this expression has become the focus of a student's question.

Vignette 2

<u>Classroom interaction</u>	<u>Reflection after the lesson</u>
[video clip shown]	
01→S1: Can I ask a question?	After learners watched a short video clip which contains the expression in line 02, S1 immediately asked the meaning of the question. As a teacher, I thought that it was good that a student was able to pick up this specific expression in line 02. As they already learnt this expression, I added the prompt “ <i>dochira ni</i> ” in line 03. Then, in line 04, a student refers to the concept of honorifics in Japanese and other students also suggest the possible meaning in less formal ways. Going back to the video content, they remember the people in the video have just met and identify their relationship and use of the formal expression. After my explanation, in lines 14 and 16, students asked further questions using specific expressions describing relationships. Reflecting, I felt that learners’ questions urged me to discuss the use of honorifics further.
02 What is ‘ <i>dochira ni irasshai masu ka?</i> ’	
03 T: ((T writes ‘ <i>dochira ni</i> ’ in Japanese on the board)) Anybody can guess the meaning of this expression?	
04→S2: (.) Is this a <i>keigo</i> ? (Honorific expressions)	
05 T: Yes, it is. If you would like to make it less formal, what would you say?	
07→S3: [Doko ni imasu ka?	
08→S4: [Doko ni imasu ka?	
09 T: <Sou desu ne>. “Yes, it is.” This is equivalent to what you heard on the video. From the video, do you think they are already good friends?	
10 S2: It seems like they’ve just met recently.	
11 T: <Sou desu ne>. “Yes, it is.” So, the use of <i>keigo</i> is interesting. It is a useful way to show the politeness and respect to others. But if you keep using the polite form too long among friends, it can show a bit of distance. So, the use of <i>keigo</i> is very interesting.	
14→S3: <i>Sumimasen</i> “excuse me”, how do you know the transition when to use polite to less formal?	
15 T: <i>uhm</i> , it depends on the relationship. But it can be also reflected in the way the other person addresses you.	
16→S4: Then, if somebody speaks in casual Japanese, can I also respond in the same way?	
17 T: It depends on who you are talking to such as senior people. But among friends, it can be a sign that your friendship is established.	

From this turn exchanges, which started from a simple learner-initiated-question as a response to the content of the video clip regarding a frequently used expression in Japanese, “*Dochira ni irasshai masu ka?*”, after the teacher’s prompt with the word “*dochira ni*” in writing, S2 volunteered to refer to the concept of ‘politeness/honorifics’ in line 04. After the teacher’s explanation, the focus shifted to the use of *keigo* in the context of relationships among the interactants. Then in lines 14 and 16, other students raised further questions about its use in situated contexts. Learners’ series of questions guided the teacher to explore the type of information they are seeking concerning the use of politeness and the way the teacher answers their questions. A simple question raised by S1 in line 02 functions effectively to promote classroom interaction as a whole and prompts the teacher to provide information according to learners’ needs and from their perspectives.

L2 Cultural Repertoires Seen from L2 Learners’ Perspectives

This final vignette comes from a translation exercise using authentic material in Japanese, with a photo image from the Japan Broadcasting Corporation (Nippon Hōsō Kyōkai (NHK) easy web news (NHK, 2021). This vignette includes a story about the winner of a golf tournament and his caddie, in which S1 struggled to understand the context and asked a question. On purpose, the visual image of the caddie’s bowing (Zack, 2021) was not presented before the translation activity to see learners’ ability to understand the text.

Vignette 3

<u>Classroom interaction</u>	<u>Reflection after the class</u>
<p>Topic of focus: “<i>Yuushou ga kimatta ato, Matsuyama san no caddī no Hayafuji Shouta san wa, boushi o totte, shiai o shita gorufu-jo ni ojigi o shimasita</i>” (Refer to the translation within the following exchanges, bold is the key information)</p> <p>01→ S1: After the win was decided, °cadɾʔ? [...]</p> <p>02 T: The caddie is the person helping the player carrying a golfer’s clubs.</p> <p>03 S1: I see, then, he took his hat and in the place golf was happening, he bowed [...]</p> <p>04 T: <i>Sou desu.</i> He <bowed to> [...]? “Yes, it is.”</p>	<p>This text was part of a news article, with content, which is absorbing on a sociocultural level, about a caddie who bows after a golf tournament. As a teacher, I believed that translating this sentence without the visual image would be challenging because a modified noun phrase was included, and the behaviour of the caddie was unique, as bowing is mainly observed in Japanese contexts.</p> <p>In line 01, a student asked for the</p>

(continued)

(continued)

<p>05→S1: <to::>(.) <i>Hayafuji san?</i></p> <p>06 T: (.) no, he is the subject of the sentence</p> <p>07 to whom did he bow?</p> <p>08→S1: <i>Matsuyama san?</i></p> <p>09 T: The clue is here. (pointing out the phrase)</p> <p>10 <i>gorufu-ryo ni ojigi o shimasita</i></p> <p>11→S1: OK, so he bowed to the crowds? in front of everyone?</p> <p>12 T: (10.2) Actually, he bowed to the golf course.</p> <p>13→S1: The golf course, not to the crowds? Then it must be something to do with <i>Shintoism</i>, thanking gods who exist in the nature.</p> <p>14 T: That is an interesting point.</p> <p>15 <i>Mina san no kuni demo, boushi o totte ojigi o shimasu ka.</i> “In your own country, do people take off hats and bow [like this]?”</p> <p>16 S2: Maybe in the theatre after the performance.</p> <p>17 S1: Not to the golf course!</p> <p>Note: <i>After the winner was decided, Matsuyama’s caddie, Shota Hayafuji took his hat off and bowed to the golf field where Matsuyama competed the match. (Translation)</i></p>	<p>meaning of a word, ‘cad⁷’, written in Japanese syllabi, <i>Katakana</i> (primary used for words of foreign origin), to describe the foreign word, then goes on to translate but faces a difficulty in line 03, wondering to whom or what the caddie bows. Due to a complication in the sentence structure and to schematic awareness that bowing is usually a gesture towards a person rather than a place, students suggest various possible options in their responses in lines 05 and 08. After further attention to the specific phrase is prompted in line 10, S1 again seeks the correct answer, but without success. It is difficult for the students to ascertain who or what the caddie is bowing to and explain the key point. What surprised me was S1’s interpretation that the caddie was bowing to the field. S1’s knowledge of Shintoism, which worships anything in the natural world and affords people protection was instantly connected to this context. S1’s perspective on his interpretation of this cultural behaviour taught me how specific, simple behaviour such as bowing in situated contexts can open the door not only to L2 learning but also to the cultural norms attached to it.</p>
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From this classroom interaction, this authentic text from a news article not only became a springboard for the student to explore the content of news but also provided

an opportunity for S1 to express views on this specific cultural behaviour by referring to *Shintoism* after many attempts to understand the content. This specific classroom interaction also enabled me to see Japanese culture from the perspective of a learner (S1) and guided me, as a teacher, to explore ways in which certain cultural aspects or knowledge of L2 learning can be presented, shared, and activated, based on learners' cultural knowledge and previous experiences.

Although the session ended with a translation exercise, after the lesson, this classroom interaction led me to search more relevant articles including the quotation from the caddie, Mr. Hayafuji, "I bowed to the course mainly because I was thankful. I was not thinking about doing it and it just happened-like an instinct" and others praised Mr. Hayafuji's "sign of respect" (Dethier, 2021). Further, 100,000 *Twitter* responses to Sean Zak's original comment (6 August 2021) on this episode included various interpretations of Mr. Hayafuji's bowing, which was a fascinating learning resource for students.

There are some comments indirectly referring to *Shintoism* in the *Twitter* conversation and this is a perfect opportunity for students to compare and exchange ideas on their own interpretations of Japanese cultural norms and values alongside their given sociocultural resources, as S2 did at the end of this classroom interaction. This vignette not only offered me renewed perspectives on Japanese culture through the learner's eyes but guided me as a teacher to further explore extra learning resources and widen my perspectives on how cultural resources can be discussed and shared by learners.

Discussion and Pedagogical Implications

Having engaged in CAN on one specific aspect of L2 interaction, the role of learner-initiated-questions in JFL classrooms, I have observed the gradual change in my perception of the role of questions in the L2 classroom vis-à-vis the concept of the leaderful classroom and who can facilitate classroom interaction. Further, as a teacher, my identity gradually shifted towards a more collaborative pedagogical approach over 20 years. Referring to Tsui's (2009) concept of Teacher Maxim, my priority in L2 classroom interaction changed as follows (Fig. 7.1).

Based on a contrastive analysis of teaching practice in the initial year of JFL teaching and current practices in JFL contexts where learner-initiated-questions are

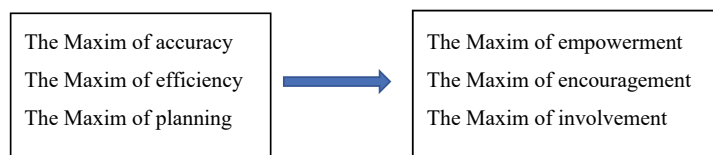


Fig. 7.1 Shift of the teacher maxim

commonplace, CAN led me to raise my awareness, as an L2 teacher, of the nature of collaborative learning, leaderful pedagogy, and identity shift in terms of (1) the maxim of empowerment, (2) the maxim of encouragement and (3) the maxim of involvement. Vignettes 2 and 3 illustrate how unexpected learner-initiated questions which demonstrate learners' perspectives on specific linguistic and cultural aspects of L2 function as facilitative pedagogical resources for the development of classroom discourse across multiple turn exchanges and L2 learning involving other students.

Learner-initiated questions also guided me as a teacher to respond to learners' interests, reminding me of key aspects of L2 use in situated contexts and even providing insights into further pedagogical approaches in terms of the use of authentic materials. In relation to this, my reflective analysis of classroom discourse also suggests that learners frequently initiated questions in response to the content of audio/visual or authentic materials, creating opportunities for further collaborative discussion on linguistic and cultural topics in L2. These findings also highlighted the facilitative role audio-visual or authentic materials play in L2 learning. Finally, this study illustrates the significant role the leaderful classroom can play at the micro level, demonstrating how learner-initiated questions function as mediational pedagogical resources in class and simultaneously support a teacher's continuing identity exploration by enhancing critical insights on the role of questions in L2 contexts.

The critical reflection outlined in this study heightened my awareness of the teacher's societal role as a solely responsible facilitator in Japanese EFL contexts and was one of the reasons for my decision to focus on the effective use of teacher-initiated questions to promote learner interaction in L2 classes. However, on another level, this teacher-led approach actually limited my perspective on the role of learners as collaborative leaders in L2 learning. The gradual transformation of my leadership identity was enhanced by JFL learners' self-initiated questions which served as self-directed learning, and by their collaborative participatory interactional style, stemming from their curiosity and unique perspective on the use of L2 and its cultural practices.

Conclusion

The engagement of CAN as an agent to articulate my own past and ongoing teaching experiences offered me valuable opportunities to explore new insights into the role of questions in L2 classrooms. While individual educational practices across different socio-cultural contexts require teachers to explore sensitive ways to encourage learner engagement in situated classrooms, from my personal viewpoint, critical insights on learner-initiated-questions widened my pedagogical perspectives on classroom dynamics integral to leaderful classrooms. Learning to share responsibilities with L2 learners to enrich their L2 learning experiences became a part of my teaching practices as I simultaneously negotiated my ongoing "in-between [teacher] identities" (Canagarajah, 2012, p. 258). This dialogical engagement with my own pedagogical

practices significantly widened my perspectives on dynamic and evolving teacher identity in action across different educational contexts.

Appendix. Transcript notations

[]	Simultaneous talk, overlap
Yeah:::h	Lengthening of sound
(.)	A noticeably short pause or micro-pause
(1.5)	The length of the silence in relation to the surrounding talk
< >	slower speech
> <	faster speech
[...]	omitted speech
◦ ◦	soft voice
Italics	original language (Japanese)
“ ”	translation in English
(())	Description of action
Line	higher volume

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Seiko Harumi Seiko Harumi (PhD, University of London) is a Lecturer in Japanese and Applied Linguistics (Education) at SOAS University of London. Her academic interests lie in classroom silence, classroom discourse, pragmatics, translanguaging and learner-centred reflective approaches in second language learning and language pedagogy. She has co-edited a book (2020), *East Asian Perspectives on silence in English Language Education*.

Chapter 8

Classroom Interactions in a Chinese Language Class: Focusing on Teacher Talk



Ming Qu

Abstract The study investigates classroom interactions with a focus on teacher talk and how it is influenced by a teacher's leadership identity in a Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) class in Japan. The classroom interaction analysis is based on the Foreign Language Interaction (FLINT) system. It was conducted qualitatively through a case study involving a Chinese teacher who works at a Japanese university. The data were collected through two procedures consisting of video observation, and an interview section. The result revealed that from 12 teacher talk categories in the FLINT system, 9 categories were used by the teacher. The teacher talk time was considerably longer than the student talk time, and the amount of direct influence teacher talk (DITT) was far greater than her indirect influence teacher talk (IITT). Of the IITT categories, providing information and giving corrections were the most frequent ones. In addition, the use of jokes and students' ideas comprised the least amount of IITT. As a result of the interview with the teacher, it became clear why, despite knowing in her mind the value of student-centered strategies for foreign language education, she still resorted to teacher-centered instruction. This study is expected to provide a new reference, especially for Chinese language teachers, for using teacher talk to encourage students to participate in the teaching and learning process.

Keywords Teacher talk · Teacher leadership identity · Classroom interaction · Video-Observation

M. Qu (✉)
Muroran Institute of Technology, Hokkaido, Japan
e-mail: quming@muroran-it.ac.jp

Classroom Interactions in a Chinese Language Class: Focusing on Teacher Talk

In Japan, *active learning* is a keyword in the new curriculum guidelines of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT). In the said guidelines, *active learning* is defined as an independent and collaborative learning process that largely depends on how well teachers build interactions with students in the classrooms by acting as a coach or a facilitator (Yanita et al., 2016). Under these circumstances, modern curricula in the university where the research subject works have been shifting from teacher-centered to learner-centered instruction. As part of this process, teacher talk time is reduced in favor of student talk time. However, there has been little research on what kind of interactions occur in the classroom, and how teachers' leadership identity influences their classroom teaching, particularly in the field of Chinese language teaching. The present chapter describes classroom interaction focusing on a teacher's leadership identity and the way it influenced their teacher talk in a Chinese language classroom at the university. Data were collected through video observation and a semi-structured interview. The discourse from the teacher talk was transcribed and analyzed objectively. The author identified problems in teaching and discussed how teacher talk can be utilized to establish a more learner-centered environment. Furthermore, possible constraints and recommendations for promoting active learning in a language classroom in Japan were also discussed.

Literature Review

Collaborative Leadership in the Classroom

In recent decades, the traditional view of the teacher leader as the primary actor responsible for improving student outcomes has been challenged through the application of collaborative leadership practices in the classroom (Egitim, 2021; Woods, 2021). Collaborative leadership is perceived as a collective and co-constructed act of leading where everyone involved has the freedom and safe space to lead in the classroom (Woods, 2021). Since it is an open and dynamic leadership approach, active learning forms its premise. Teachers practicing this type of leadership take a facilitative role and hold learners accountable for their leadership (Rubin, 2002).

In Asia, the traditional educational philosophy of Confucianism has emphasized for thousands of years that a teacher should be a person who can spread the doctrine, impart professional knowledge, and resolve doubts (Paramore, 2016). Meanwhile, Confucianism also emphasized the dignity of the teacher and the obedience of the student. Therefore, in countries influenced by Confucianism, the teacher is seen as the main source of knowledge and authority, while the students are passive recipients and should be obedient to the teacher (Egitim, 2021; Matsuyama et al., 2019). Undoubtedly, these traditional educational philosophies influenced the leadership

identity of many CFL teachers and, consequently, their pedagogical and classroom management ideas. In Japan, as mentioned above, active learning has been advocated in various educational settings. Language teaching and learning should also be a collaborative process where students and teachers work together, share leadership roles, and make decisions together to accomplish the needs and aspirations of the classroom. However, there is little research on how teachers specifically behave in the classroom and what kind of interaction takes place between teachers and students, especially in the field of Chinese language education.

Teacher Talk in Language Classrooms

Teacher talk is considered an important aspect of foreign language classroom interactions as it assists teachers to build collaborative teaching–learning activities. According to Sinclair and Brazil (1982), teacher talk refers to the language produced by teachers addressed to the students in classroom interaction. It is applied by teachers to manage learning activities in the classroom including giving directions, defining activities, and checking students' comprehension. According to Moskowitz (1971), teacher talk has 12 categories, and this chapter is interested in discovering which teacher talk category is most often used in CFL teaching–learning activities, how teachers perceive their talk, and why they adopt such teaching strategies. We hope that this article can become a reference for research on teacher talk in the field of Chinese language education.

FLINT System

Analysis and observation of classroom interactions and teacher talk have been conducted since the 1970s, the Foreign Language Interaction (FLINT) system was developed as a coding category instrument by Moskowitz in 1971. It gives objective feedback about classroom interaction to foreign language teachers and helps set a learning climate for collaborative learning (Brown, 2001). The FLINT system has two categories of speech behavior: teacher talk and student talk. Due to limited space, the present chapter only focuses on the former.

Teacher Talk Categories

According to the FLINT system, teacher talk has 12 categories, they are divided into two types of speech: indirect influence teacher talk (IITT) and direct influence teacher talk (DITT). IITT leads learners to a warm classroom atmosphere and encourages

students to participate and learn through classroom interaction (Brown, 2001). The IITT is described as follows:

- (1) Deals with feelings: in a non-threatening way, accepting, and agreeing with students' feelings, understanding the past, present, or future of students' feelings.
- (2) Praises and encouragement: praising and giving confidence to students. Encouraging students to continue and telling students what they have said or done is valued.
- (3) Jokes: providing jokes without anyone's expense. Make intentional joking, kidding.
- (4) Uses students' ideas: accept the students' ideas, including clarifying, using, interpreting, and summarizing the ideas.
- (5) Repeats student responses verbatim: repeating the specific words from students after they participate.
- (6) Asks questions: asking questions to the students about the material being learned in which the answer is anticipated.

The DITT aims to involve students directly in the teaching and learning activity, it is a kind of teacher-led talk (Brown, 2001). The categories are described as follows:

- (1) Gives information: giving information, ideas, and facts about the material being learned.
- (2) Corrects without rejection: revising students' mistakes or errors with positive responses.
- (3) Gives directions: giving directions, requests, or commands that students are expected to follow.
- (4) Direct pattern drills: giving statements in which students are expected to repeat precisely or to make substitutions (substitution drills). Giving statements in which students are expected to change from one form to another (transformation drills).
- (5) Criticizes student behavior: rejecting the behavior of students.
- (6) Criticizes student response: telling the student his or her response is not correct or acceptable.

The FLINT system considers that good teacher talk is characterized by the following specific points: less teacher-led DITT; IITT is often used to encourage students to participate in the teaching and learning process; the atmosphere in the classroom is warm and the teacher often smiles and jokes and finally that the teacher skillfully uses students' ideas and responses verbatim (Moskowitz & Hayman, 1976). This model helps not only set a learning climate for a student-centered approach, but also helps develop interactive language teaching since it gives researchers and teachers a framework for observing classes, evaluating, and improving the teaching (Brown, 2001; Putri, 2015).

Empirical Findings of Previous Studies

In the field of language education, to evaluate whether teaching is successful or not, it is becoming increasingly important not only to evaluate teaching effectiveness but also to conduct research that empirically observes and analyses actual teacher and student interactions to find out what is happening in the classroom (Howe et al., 2019; Koike, 1994). Among the interactions, teacher talk is particularly important for organizing and managing the classroom. Through teacher talk, teachers may either succeed or fail in implementing their teaching plans. Therefore, teacher talk is even regarded as a decisive factor in success or failure in classroom teaching (Xing & Yun, 2002).

The studies on teacher talk started in the 1970s. Concerning the amount of teacher talk, research has established that teachers tend to do most of the classroom talk. According to research results in some classrooms, teacher talk makes up over 70% of the total talk (Chaudron, 1988; Cook, 2000; Kostadinovska et al., 2019; Nasir et al., 2019; Xiaohong, 1998). However, it is evident that if teachers devote large amounts of time to explanations or management instructions, student talk will be restricted, and they will have little opportunity to develop their language proficiency. The amount of teacher talk varies according to the content of the class and the students' language proficiency. No standard defines the acceptable amount of talk time for a particular type of class. Therefore, it is not only the amount of teacher talk but also important to investigate what kind of teacher talk was given in the classroom.

Regarding the type of teacher talk in the classroom, pioneered by Flanders (1970) and Moskowitz (1971), many scholars across the world have conducted research on types of teacher talk. Their studies discussed the interaction pattern in English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms and investigated teacher talk from a broader perspective (Mitani, 2002; Nisa, 2014; Sundari et al., 2017; Walsh, 2011; Yanfen & Yuqin, 2010). In the above-mentioned previous studies, Nisa (2014) investigated the interaction type in EFL-speaking classrooms at the university level. The results showed that the reason for a large amount of teacher talk is because of the mass use of given information in the classroom. It indicates that the teacher spent most of the time lecturing. Sundari et al. (2017) also analyzed interaction patterns in an EFL classroom, and the results showed that the categories of asking questions and giving directions were frequently used by the teacher. Mitani (2002) analyzed her classes using the FLINT system, and the results showed that the amount of teacher talk was observed to be higher than the amount of student talk. Interactions were dominated by the teacher who delivered information through question-and-answer activities. She stated that to increase student talk time, it is necessary to incorporate student interaction and shorten the explanations of sentence structure items.

As previous studies have shown, teacher talk plays a major role in making classes teacher-centered and lecture-based. This raises the questions of why teachers use such teaching strategies and what role teachers' leadership identities play, and how they perceive their own talk time in relation to their position in the classroom (Egitim, 2022). Egitim (2021) showed that the formation of teachers' collaborative leadership

is not easy, requiring teachers to recognize their own mistakes and self-reflection, but this self-reflection is what will help them grow. By investigating why teachers tend to lecture and how teacher talk influences their classroom practices and student performances, we hope to encourage teachers to understand themselves and reflect on their own leadership identity, which will ultimately lead to improved teaching and learning outcomes. Heretofore, regarding teacher talk and teacher identities, there is no related published research that has taken place in the field of CFL teaching. There may be external factors that influence teacher talk in a different context, therefore, studying further the use of teacher talk by Chinese teachers in a CFL classroom interaction can be considered beneficial research setting.

Research Questions

There are two research questions to be addressed in this research:

1. What are the characteristics (time length and types of talk) of teacher talk in a CFL class?
2. What is the teacher's perception of her talk?

Method

Participants and Class Overview

The research was undertaken at a Japanese university. Based on the internal regulations of the university, the educational goal of the university's foreign language program is to develop students' global and intercultural competence through foreign language education with an emphasis on fostering students' independent and autonomous learning skills. To fulfill the said objectives, the university promotes active learning, through various educational initiatives such as student-centered instruction. Hence, language teachers are required to state explicitly what active learning methods are used in the syllabuses of the subjects they are responsible for.

The subject of this analysis, Chinese as a second foreign language class, was an elective compulsory class. In this university, the second foreign language class is compulsory, however, students can choose either Chinese or German. Every year, approximately 350 students take these classes. These students are divided into seven classes, with each class having approximately 50 students. These Chinese classes are for beginners to learn Chinese from zero, therefore, the teaching language used by the teacher is almost exclusively Japanese. The course is offered in both spring and autumn terms and lasts 15 weeks each. The lesson recorded in this study was the sixth-week lesson of the beginner class, and the teaching content was a review of the Chinese Romanization system (Pinyin) and the study of indicative

pronouns. The observed class consisted of 49 students who studied CFL as their second foreign language. The observed teacher was a female, native Chinese teacher who taught Chinese in Japanese universities for more than 20 years. Despite the teacher's attempts to promote active learning practices through a student-centered approach based on the university's educational objectives, the process has proven to be difficult.

This study was conducted as part of the university's efforts to develop and improve teaching practices in the classroom. Before the class was video recorded, the purpose of the study was explained to the teacher. Following this process, informed consent forms were signed by the teacher. The participants were also given the freedom to withdraw from the study at any given time. Upon analyzing the data, the video recordings were destroyed as part of the Human Subjects Protections Act based on the university's ethics code.

Data Analysis

The present study was designed qualitatively in the form of a case study by Yin (2018). A 90-min Chinese language class was video-recorded and then transcribed. The analysis was carried out according to Knoblauch et al. (2013), as follows. Specifically, the videotape was played back, and phenomena were categorized every three seconds in turn. The transcripts were coded by the author using the 12 categories of teacher talk based on the FLINT system. The frequency and time length of each category of teacher talk was calculated. Although the class lasted 90 min, there were approximately 19 min of time when neither the teacher nor the students spoke (e.g., the time dedicated to their writing practice), hence, the data analysis for that period was omitted. In addition, there were also teacher utterances outside the teacher talk categories of the FLINT system during the actual interaction in the class. For example, the teacher talked a little about herself saying, "My eyesight has been getting worse lately", which was not related to the content of the class, and thus, the analysis of that part of speech was also omitted.

To strengthen the data from the video observation, the researcher also conducted an unstructured interview with the Chinese teacher, and the narrative analysis method was used to analyze this interview. Questions were given to the teacher related to the teacher talk categories which were most frequently and most rarely applied during the teaching and learning process. The interview section lasted approximately 30 min. The interview was conducted in Chinese and then transcribed into English by the author.

Table 8.1 Frequency and Time Length of the Teacher talk

Participants	Frequency	Time length (seconds)
Teacher (1)	267	2,981
Students (49)	233	1,288
Total	500	4,269

Note. The frequency values indicate the number of times teachers directly engaged in the discourses listed in the table. The time length values indicate the seconds spend during the DITT.

Results

Classroom Observations

The total frequency and time length of teacher and student talk were 650 times and 4,269 s (around 71 min) respectively. The teacher spoke 34 more utterances than the students and the time length of teacher talk was 1,693 s (around 28 min) more than the students' talk as a whole in terms of time. It was clear that the class was a teacher-led class.

Frequency and time length of the teacher talk are presented below in Table 8.1.

Direct Influence Teacher Talk and Indirect Influence Teacher Talk

To find out whether the teacher talk was more DITT or IITT, the classifying results were specified in Table 8.2 according to the categories of the FLINT system.

The results showed the frequency of DITT was 32 utterances more than IITT. The time length of DITT was about 989 s (around 16 min) longer than IITT. It was found that the teacher used more DITT in the classroom.

Table 8.2 DITT and IITT

Teacher Talk	Frequency	Time length (seconds)
DITT	148	1,985
IITT	116	996

Categories of Direct Influence Teacher Talk and Indirect Influence Teacher Talk

Following the FLINT system, the teacher's direct and indirect speech behaviors were further broken down, the details of which are shown in Tables 8.3 and 8.4.

According to the DITT categories from Table 8.3, the most time-consuming category was providing information, and corrections. This was followed by giving directions and directing pattern practice. Giving direction was the most frequent category in terms of frequency. The teacher did not use criticizing student behavior or criticizing student response.

In terms of frequency, the teacher used praising or encouragement most frequently and this was followed by asking questions, repeating students verbatim, dealing with feelings, and using ideas of students. In terms of time length, the teacher used dealing with feelings and using ideas of students least frequently. The teacher did not tell jokes.

Table 8.3 Categories of Teacher's DITT

DITT	Frequency	Time length (seconds)
Providing information	26	704
Giving Corrections	48	477
Giving direction	50	198
Directing pattern drills	24	98
Criticizing student behavior	0	0
Criticizing student response	0	0

Table 8.4 Categories of IITT

IITT	Frequency	Time length (seconds)
Dealing with feelings	5	73
Praising or encouragement	43	99
Using ideas of students	4	44
Repeating students verbatim	26	173
Asking questions	38	319
Telling Jokes	0	0

The Interview with the Teacher

The analysis of the teacher talk revealed that the time length and frequency of teacher talk were considerably more than the student talk with more DITT than IITT. That means the teacher dominated the classroom and involved students directly in the teaching and learning. In response to this point, the teacher said, “I know, I should talk less, and allow the students chances to talk more. The teaching and learning process should be student-centered, I know it. These ideas are always in my mind. I didn’t realize I talked so much more than the students.”

The most frequently used category of DITT was giving information and making corrections. These steps were followed by giving directions. The teacher explained the reasons as follows, “I feel a sense of responsibility as a teacher in this regard. I want to explain things clearly, and I think that if I present students the information directly, they will be able to learn and master knowledge without taking détours. I want them to absorb what I say by correcting them, so they can master the knowledge faster.” In addition, she added:

This may be a special story of Chinese language class, Chinese is particularly difficult to pronounce, because it is a tonal language, there are four tones, and there are also the so-called warped tongue sounds, which are pronounced by curling the tongue tip. As these sounds are not found in the Japanese phonetics system, they are difficult for Japanese students and take time to learn. You have to correct their tonal pronunciation over and over again to help them learn these sounds. We have a large classroom with around 50 students, so correcting their pronunciation individually took a lot of time.

When the teacher was asked why she didn’t do more group work and let the students do their own problem-solving, she answered:

Yes, I have tried to do group work to shorten the time I used to correct them one by one, however, for pronunciation practice, sometimes, group work cannot solve the problem, because nobody knows how to pronounce the correct sound. In such a case, even if I asked students to do group work, sometimes they wouldn’t know how to act in a group, because nobody knows how to pronounce the sound, and remained silent all the time. And to be honest, at the stage of learning Chinese pronunciation, some problems can be solved in group activities (only students) and there are also a lot of problems that cannot be solved in group activities. But again, the more group activities you do, the more student-centered the learning becomes. I understand it.

Regarding the IITT, the results revealed that the teacher used a lot of praise and encouragement to motivate the students. The least used categories were telling jokes, using the students’ ideas, and dealing with feelings. For this point, the teacher said, “The same with the group work, I always tell myself to praise students and give them positive feedback, yes, this is always in my mind. On the other hand, I am certainly not a fun person, I have no sense of humor.” As a teacher, she always compliments her students and always seems to make an effort to respond positively. However, she did not tell jokes and rarely dealt with feelings. The reason for this is her personal character, but also the objective conditions of a large classroom with a lot of students do not seem to allow it. Therefore, she added:

I also want to understand the past, present, or future of the students' feelings, and positively communicate with them but I found that 90 minutes is too short to deal with 50 students, and I even cannot remember all these students' names, so to deal with individual feelings is not an option.

Discussion

The teacher talk analysis revealed that this class was more teacher-centered than learner-centered one. The teacher was the center of the teaching and learning process, and the students' participation was minimal. Within the teacher talk, the time length and frequency of the DITT were both greater than those of the IITT. This result revealed that the teacher used teacher-led interaction, through teaching and correcting students thus having a direct influence, rather than talking indirectly, and encouraging students to participate in the learning process. She was mainly giving information, explaining, and giving corrections. She was more of a knowledge provider than a facilitator. The teacher made no jokes and used few of the ideas brought in by the students.

As discussed in the FLINT system section, according to Moskowitz and Hayman (1976), the FLINT system considers that good teacher talk is characterized by the following specific points: less DITT and IITT are often used to encourage students to participate in learning. The atmosphere in the classroom should be warm and the teacher is encouraged to smile and tell jokes. These smiles and jokes can function as an icebreaker and help the teacher skillfully use student talk (Moskowitz et al., 1976). According to the FLINT system model, the teacher talk in this study has room for improvement.

As the teacher mentioned in the interview, she also wants to create a student-centered environment by engaging students in group work. However, she felt a sense of responsibility as a teacher and her urge made her believe that spoon-feeding information to students can let the students take fewer detours. This revealed that the teacher was aware of the objectives of the student-centered approach, however, she viewed herself as the main knowledge source, and thus failed to recognize the value of sharing her power and authority with the students.

The result of the interview suggested that the teacher knew the principles, yet, when it comes to practice, it was difficult to follow the action. Teacher-centered instruction is a longstanding habit and belief. Egitim (2021) explained that for teachers to overcome the feeling of being stripped of power and authority, they need to change themselves through an introspective process that involves constant critical self-examination and critical self-reflection by revisiting their underlying values, beliefs, and assumptions about language education.

Changing teachers' beliefs seems unlikely to happen in a short period of time. Constant critical self-examination and critical self-reflection are necessary to recognize the limitations, possible biases, and the privileged position they have in the classroom (Egitim, 2022). In a truly student-centered classroom, it is imperative that

the power is handed over from the teacher to the students. In line with the recommendations of Egitim (2021) and Anastasiia et al. (2022), the more students are empowered to make decisions about their learning, the more they will be encouraged to be active learners. Lifelong learning and the ability to think independently cannot be developed in a passive educational environment. Instead of a one-way flow of information transmitted by teachers, there is a need to move towards active learning, where learners can engage and learn proactively. Therefore, it is necessary for the teacher to transfer power to the students through learning activities such as discovery learning, problem-solving learning, experiential learning, investigative learning, and group work. However, because teachers are accustomed to the way they teach and the classroom activities they use, it is difficult to recognize the need for reform of their own teaching without conducting their own reflections.

For beginner students, as the teacher said in the interview, handing students the power to make learning decisions may not work at first. Especially in the case of Chinese learning, for Japanese university students, it is a language that is learned from scratch. Students may be surprised (they do not know what to do and how to do it) if they are suddenly given the power to decide everything, as the pronunciation phase of learning that the teacher mentioned in her interview. In such cases, it would be necessary to provide some scaffolding and structure until the students feel psychologically safe, then gradually withdraw from the process, and give them leadership responsibilities. Therefore, for this teacher, the first step would be to gradually eliminate the power distance with the students, it can be done in stages, step by step.

With regard to telling jokes, the teacher mentioned that she was not a fun person. They may be influenced by traditional notions of the teacher's position in the classroom. For teachers in such a social context, keeping order is more important than being humorous in the classroom. According to Kawamura and Musashi (2008), enjoyment and quoting students' statements are considered to be related to the retention rate of learning. In classes where strong bonds and trust between teachers and students are established, students tend to enjoy their learning experience, and thus, their motivation and knowledge retention increase (Kawamura & Musashi, 2008). Furthermore, research shows that student satisfaction increases when teachers use or reinforce students' words to arouse students' interest in lessons (Kawamura et al., 2015). Whether you have a sense of humor or not, being a teacher requires you to make an effort to understand your students, sometimes quote what they say, use their ideas, make pleasant comments, and intentionally create a relaxed classroom environment. A relaxed environment will stimulate students' willingness to talk, participate, and motivate them to learn.

Administrative Issues

As discussed in the previous section, constant critical self-examination and critical self-reflection are necessary to improve teaching, however, it is not sufficient. Large class size and workload are also challenges to teachers' use of effective instructional

strategies. The teacher said that she wanted to listen to and correct the pronunciation of 50 students one by one, but as she dealt with each student individually, the 90-min class quickly came to an end and the lesson content became very monotonous. To implement successful collaborative learning, pedagogy change must take place at various levels, a 50-student class is not appropriate in the pronunciation stage for Chinese language learning. Changing this situation in the short term is not easy. If this situation cannot be changed, it will be necessary to rethink instruction strategies and class activities. For example, there is a need to design more interactions between the students and the learning materials, such as video recordings, learning websites and so on. The use of online materials for pronunciation learning will be essential. In this modern age, it is becoming more and more important to use Information and Communication Technology to engage students in learning outside the classroom. However, managing technological tools outside the classroom is not an easy endeavor. Therefore, necessary instructions should be provided in teacher training manuals to show how these tools can be effectively used outside the classroom.

As the teacher said she tried to do a lot of group work in her class, but her attempts would fail due to logistical reasons. For group work, the first important step is to develop tasks that match the students' language proficiency. If a task is beyond students' ability, it will naturally result in the group being unable to solve the problem. As mentioned in the previous section, teachers were asked include active learning elements when they write their syllabuses. Most teachers rushed to incorporate group and pair work activities into their classes without actually knowing what active learning actually means. Active learning does not automatically start once groups or pairs are formed. It requires teachers to create a psychologically safe learning environment by providing structure and scaffolding. As a result, students would gradually feel comfortable participating in activities.

The major of this Chinese teacher is literature; for the teachers who do not major in pedagogy, they may not be equipped with the knowledge of educational theory and pedagogy. For those teachers, whether it is task-making, or the development of online learning materials discussed in the previous section, it is sometimes difficult for a single teacher to do so. Educational training and teacher training within universities are necessary.

Conclusion

The study examined both teacher talk and teacher leadership identity in a CFL classroom in Japan. The problems in this class are by no means an individual phenomenon, but rather a phenomenon that is probably common in many CFL classrooms. To improve the teaching in these classrooms, teachers' constant critical self-examination and critical self-reflection, and ongoing action-based research that allows for an objective view of teaching are necessary. Focusing on continuous feedback that targets problems can be a tool for curriculum development. At the same time, conducting this kind of action research can provide a deep understanding

of teachers' teaching styles and an awareness of how they will grow toward greater effectiveness as teachers. Moreover, systematic faculty development within universities would also be necessary to address the problems perceived by teachers. Not only is there a perception that the teacher is the authority in the classroom, but the students are also used to teacher-centered teaching, therefore, it will take time and effort to change this situation. The findings of the research are expected to be beneficial and contribute to the improvement and effectiveness of the CFL teaching and learning process. The author recognizes that this study only investigated the talk of one native CFL teacher in one class meeting. Accordingly, future researchers should include more participants such as those with different gender, teaching experiences, cultures, and educational levels to attain richer data.

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Ming Qu is a professor in the liberal arts group at Muroran Institute of Technology in Japan. She has worked in Japanese universities for around 20 years and is a board member of the Association for Modernization of Chinese Language Education. Her interests are in pedagogy, language

testing, and intercultural communication. She has published over 20 articles, with the most recent ones focusing on teaching methodologies, speaking tests, and intercultural communication.

Chapter 9

The Evolution of Leaderful Practice in the High School Mathematics Classroom: Using Project-Based Learning to Create an Inclusive, Participatory Learning Environment



Monica Housen

Abstract Driven by high-stakes testing, math classes in the United States often focus on teacher-led procedural instruction that undermines contextual understanding. The result is mathematically disaffected students who do not see the connection between math and their lived experiences. Though many math teachers understand the value of student-centered learning, they receive little professional development in these approaches. Three high school math teachers formed a professional learning community (PLC) to provide their own support in working toward a student-centered classroom. Teachers' adoption of project-based learning (PBL) coupled with collaborative and reflective practice developed into a leaderful pedagogy. Benefits included improved collaborative engagement for both students and teachers and produced a shift in teachers' identities as educators. Growth in leaderful practice follows an evolutionary track through Novice, Emergent, and Skilled stages but is not without tension. Challenging their privilege in the classroom opens space for teachers to share decision-making with students. The resulting inclusive, democratic practices offer implications for administrators' leaderful practice in schools.

Keywords Leaderful classroom practices · Project-based learning · Professional learning community · Collaboration · Reflection · Teacher identity · Mathematical disaffection

Over more than 20 years teaching high school math, my most persistent concerns have been students' understanding of the value of mathematics and that teacher's attempts to make math relevant seem to have little effect on students. The students who worried me most were those in Math Themes, the lowest level mainstreamed class offered at my school. While most of these seniors could solve Algebra 1 equations with

M. Housen (✉)
Ridgefield High School, Ridgefield, CT, USA
e-mail: mhousen@ridgefieldps.net

support, others had difficulty reading a ruler or understanding that moving a decimal to the left meant division by ten. Year after year, I retaught material students hadn't previously mastered, with misgivings about what they would retain. Try as I might, they—and I—were disengaged. While I wanted to overhaul the pedagogy of Math Themes, it was a task too huge for me alone. When our department chairperson assigned Talya and Joe to join me, we decided to put our heads together and make some changes.

To disrupt our students' math disaffection and improve class engagement, our cohort of three teachers changed our instructional practice. This study illuminated our personal experiences negotiating this collaborative process of change, from initial experimentation to skillful implementation of leaderful practice.

This retrospective case study sought to answer the following research questions:

1. How do high school math teachers at a suburban school in the Northeastern United States describe their experiences in a professional learning community aimed at implementing new approaches to math pedagogy?
2. How do high school students describe their mathematical experiences resulting from these teachers' efforts as opposed to their previous experiences in math class?
3. How do changes to mathematics instructional practice impact students' motivation, engagement, and participation as perceived by the students and teachers?

Findings offer insight into the evolution of leaderful practice in the high school math classroom, highlighting teachers' successes and struggles. Evidence suggests that project-based learning offers an avenue to the development of leaderful practice. Including students as co-creators of their learning experiences was emergent, requiring committed mutual support, reflection, and time. The efforts resulted in enhanced creativity among both students and teachers and changes to teachers' perceptions of themselves as educators.

Literature Review

Students' Mathematical Disaffection

High school students (grades 9–12) in the United States are underperforming in math (Organization for Economic Cooperation & Development, 2019) with 40% of U.S. 12th graders unsuccessful at solving math problems in familiar real-world settings (U.S. Department of Education, 2019). One cause of this low performance is disaffection (Lewis, 2013), often a result of the focus on procedural rather than conceptual mathematical understanding (Boaler, 2000). In a race to cover content and prepare students for their next course or college entrance exam, teachers often feel restricted in curriculum design (Larmer et al., 2015). Many math teachers rely on skill-and-drill procedural teaching (Boaler, 2000), providing isolated instruction in a

teacher-centered approach rather than offering opportunities for deeper connections. As students see less connection between math instruction and their lived experiences, they become alienated from the content (Boaler, 2000).

Math has traditionally been taught in a gradual release of responsibility model (Fisher & Frey, 2008) whereby students copy the teacher's methods for solving problems. This procedural learning limits student autonomy and leads to passive learning habits (Egitim, 2022), posits the teacher as the holder of knowledge, and does not align with the need for innovation, critical thinking, and other 21st-century goals (Battelle for Kids, 2019).

Alternative Pedagogy: Project-Based Learning

Project-based learning (PBL) is an alternative pedagogy involving students' extended investigation and response to an authentic and complex problem (Buck Institute for Education (BIE), n.d.) that can enhance engagement and disrupt mathematical disaffection. In this constructivist approach, students develop both content and 21st-century skills such as communication, collaboration, creativity, flexibility, and accountability (Battelle for Kids, 2019). These projects differ from traditional end-of-unit projects in that they drive learning, focus on both product and process, rely on teacher-student collaboration, have real-world context, offer student choice, involve reflective practice, and result in a product shared to a public audience (BIE, n.d.). Benefits of PBL for students include gains in self-reliance, critical thinking, content skills, and attitudes toward learning (El Bakkali, 2020). More active involvement in their educational structure develops students' leadership capacity for learning.

The teachers' responsibilities in PBL include planning the driving project aligned to the standards, building a classroom culture that supports student independence and inquiry, working alongside students to co-manage activities, and incorporating student self- and peer-assessments (BIE, 2019). Teachers attend to student ideas, growth, and changes in thinking (El Bakkali, 2020). Focusing on student thinking can cause teachers to see students as unique individuals rather than as fitting categories based on ability (Wilson et al., 2017). The teacher's new role has been described as catalyst, instructional manager (Keller, 2018), or activator deeply engaged with and connected to their students (Mergendoller, 2016). Additional terms include mentor, facilitator, and coach. However described, the position shifts from delivering answers to fueling inquiry.

Though teachers report greater satisfaction in their role compared to in a traditional classroom (El Bakkali, 2020), transforming into a PBL environment comes with challenges. Teachers may experience difficulty with class management as they monitor students (Qi, 2021), have concerns about time to plan and cover curriculum (El Bakkali, 2020; Ertmer & Glazewski, 2015), and even revert to former comfortable practices (Lewis, 2014). Teachers need support while undergoing such dramatic change in the classroom (Ertmer & Glazewski, 2015; Qi, 2021). Uprooting teachers'

responsibilities can alter teachers' identities in a socially entangled process that both influences and is influenced by pedagogical decisions (Egitim, 2022; Keller, 2018).

It takes sustained dedication to adjust from teacher-centered practices (BIE, 2019). The largest adjustment is giving up some degree of control and putting their trust in their students (Larmer et al., 2015). Furthermore, teachers need to build the skills necessary for successful PBL implementation, such as creativity, self-efficiency, and risk-taking, for both their students and themselves (Qi, 2021). Perhaps most importantly, collaboration with colleagues becomes a key element for teachers as they navigate these changes (El Bakkali, 2020; Qi, 2021).

Collaboration in Professional Learning Communities

Compared to district-led professional development, which may feel disjointed, isolated, and compliance-based (DeWitt, 2018), a professional learning community (PLC) allows members to work collaboratively to achieve a shared vision, using active inquiry to develop collective knowledge and implement new pedagogy (DuFour, 2004). When that collective action is a shared, systematic, and synergetic process geared to support student learning, Jappinen et al. (2016) refer to it as "collaborativeness." PLCs allow teachers to direct their own learning in a targeted, effective, and immediately applicable way. Learning in a PLC is sustained, job-embedded, (DuFour, 2004), and safeguards teacher autonomy (Kelly & Cherkowski, 2015).

Stoll et al. (2006) claim six essential concepts in their definition of a PLC as "a group of people sharing and critically interrogating their practice in an ongoing, reflective, collaborative, inclusive, learning-oriented, growth-promoting way" (p. 223) in order to "enhance teacher effectiveness as professionals for students' ultimate benefit" (p. 229). The PLC opens a space for teachers to take responsibility for their own and their students' learning. Much like the components of PBL learning, Kelly and Cherkowski (2015) cite collaboration, trust, caring, and support for risk-taking as key elements of a PLC. These elements contribute to a shift in teachers' views on the meaning of teaching, from isolated actions to collective reflection (Kelly & Cherkowski, 2015).

Role of Reflective Practice

Inquiry-based instruction such as PBL provides students with opportunities for critical in-depth thinking and mathematical discourse (Gningue et al., 2014). By viewing students as active participants in their own learning, teachers strive to develop practices aligning with their beliefs and promoting student agency (Solis & Gordon, 2020). Moving to a student-centered instructional approach requires a shift in teachers' mindsets, facilitated by reflective practice (Aldahmash et al., 2021; Gningue et al., 2014; Keller, 2018; Ratminingsih et al., 2017; Solis & Gordon, 2020).

Effective reflection is an iterative process of asking questions to better understand problems, designing and implementing changes to praxis, then analyzing the impact of those changes (Gningue et al., 2014). The cycle includes collaboration with colleagues, willingness to consider multiple perspectives, and a deep look at the context of the problem (Aldahmash et al., 2021). Reflection should challenge thought processes and interrogate the reason for instructional decisions, extending beyond a review of actions in the classroom to the meaning and purpose of instruction (Gningue et al., 2014). Through examination of current thinking, procedures, and culture, teachers become aware of their assumptions and habits, opening the door for exploring new ways of thinking and teaching. Collaboration among teachers is a key component of reflective practice (Aldahmash et al., 2021). Reflective practice is an effective means of teacher professional development (Aldahmash et al., 2021; Kelly & Cherkowski, 2015) that some have deemed essential (Solis & Gordon, 2020). Further aligning with the tenet of sustained professional development, reflective inquiry is a complex action requiring a long-term commitment to firmly establish (Solis & Gordon, 2020).

Culmination in Leaderful Practice

As teachers move from a procedural approach in leading the class to carefully supporting students' transition toward autonomy, they waive their privileged position, which requires teachers' trust in themselves, their students, and their joint pedagogical decisions. By acknowledging the power differential in the traditional teacher-student relationship, teachers understand their responsibility to create a more caring and inclusive participatory classroom (Egitim, 2022). Engaging in reflective practice to develop empathy, intertwined with collaborative systems, sets the foundation for leaderful pedagogy (Egitim, 2022).

Leaderful pedagogy emerges from the leadership-as-practice framework first introduced by Raelin (2011). In this framework, leadership is not a series of traits inherent in an individual, but a set of relationships and actions. Raelin describes leaderful practice as being concurrent, collective, collaborative, and compassionate. Translating these components to education, leaderful classroom pedagogy involves teachers and students collaborating on instructional decisions, taking collective and concurrent responsibility for classroom management, and compassionately recognizing the value and contributions of all group members (Egitim, 2022). Leadership in the classroom springs from the daily interactions of all stakeholders joined in collaborative agency willing to be changed by new learning and engage in active listening (Raelin, 2016).

The development of leaderful pedagogy requires teachers' ongoing reflection as they challenge their awareness of their actions, how they learn, and their identities (Egitim, 2022). Teachers' self-reflection on their role as teacher-leader brings about student development of similar skills and thus greater leadership in their own

education. The collective commitment to shared responsibility for learning undergirds leaderful classroom practice and produces the reflective and collaborative problem-solvers of the future (Aldahmash et al., 2021).

Methods

This study sought to reveal students' and teachers' descriptions of changes to pedagogy, the collaborativeness (Jappinen et al., 2016) of the teachers, and the impact of these processes. I wanted clarity on how teachers described their experiences in their PLC, how students described their experiences in this math class, and how students' engagement changed during this process. To capture the various decisions, actions, and changes, a single, intrinsic, retrospective case study (Stake, 2008) was used, aligning with the constructivist approach that knowledge is situated, entangled in power relations, and socially made (Schwandt & Gates, 2017).

Participants

Teachers

The three teacher-participants were selected because they were assigned to teach Math Themes. I was one of the teacher participants. My role as a researcher enmeshed in the context of the case strengthened my depth of understanding of the views, behaviors, and processes of this social endeavor. Both Talya and I had previously taught the Math Themes class; this was Joe's first year with the course. We taught five sections of the course, enrolling 58 students. Data about the teacher-participants are summarized in Table 9.1.

Table 9.1 Teacher participants

Teacher	Age	Years teaching	Years at our school	Class section	Students enrolled
Joe	56	34	19	1	10
				2	12
Monica	49	23	15	3	15
				4	12
Talya	30	8	8	5	9

Students

Students enrolled in Math Themes were all seniors (grade 12) between the ages of 16 and 18. Ours is a public school district in an affluent, suburban community within a two-hour commute from New York City. Stakeholders have high expectations for student acceptance into elite universities. The district's student body is 84.2% White, 6.4% Hispanic or Latinx, 6.1% Asian, and 0.6% Black or African American, with 2.3% of students eligible for free or reduced-price lunch. All 58 students taking Math Themes were invited to this study via a recruitment letter and students self-selected to participate. Both student and parental consent was required, and either party could opt to withdraw the student from the study at any time. Seventeen students consented to participate, 13 of whom were interviewed. The remaining four shared their written work only.

Data Collection

To illuminate the case from multiple angles (Stake, 2008), primary data in the form of two teacher and four student focus groups of semi-structured interviews were supplemented with secondary data and artifact review. All interviews were in-person, recorded, and transcribed.

Primary Data Sources

Teacher Focus Groups. The first teacher focus group was 120 minutes long. Questions focused on teachers' and students' actions; what, why, and how changes were made to practice; teachers' perceptions of the impact of these changes; and teachers' perceptions of their learning. The second teacher focus group was held at the end of the year and lasted 70 minutes. The purpose was to learn how the teachers' actions impacted their perceptions of their identities as math teachers, as well as their reflections on the merits of their pedagogical changes and on the collaborative process.

Student Focus Groups. My goals with the 60-minute student focus groups were to learn how students experienced these pedagogical changes, how these changes impacted their perception of math in the present, and their view on the role of math in their future. I wanted to understand how the practices of the Math Themes course influenced their views. Focus groups helped lessen the power difference between the interviewer (me) and the student participants.

Secondary Data Sources

Secondary data consisted of artifacts including the researcher's journal, lesson plan books, and student work.

Journal. Serving as field notes to document and reflect on ideas, observations, conversations, outcomes, and setbacks, my journal also served as a timeline of progress in PBL and leaderful practice.

Lesson Plans. Teachers' individual lesson plan books were collected at the end of the year to inform the scope and sequence, timing, and pacing of units and projects.

Student Work. Students' projects, assessments, and reflections enriched my understanding of students' experiences and gauged their motivation and participation levels.

Analysis

The data was analyzed thematically by research question in three steps.

The first step was an analysis of the primary data relevant to each research question to develop themes. This involved first-cycle coding while keeping detailed analytic memos, then code mapping to look for preliminary themes, followed by second-cycle coding to consolidate categories into emergent themes.

The second step of the analysis was a review of the secondary data to confirm and enrich those themes. If secondary data challenged the emergent themes from the primary data, the new categories were used to guide another cycle of coding of the primary data sources, returning to the first step of the analysis.

The third step was a reexamination of the focus group transcripts to confirm the themes or explore new themes if refuted by the secondary data. Characteristics and dimensions of categories, relationships between categories, and overarching themes were finalized.

Findings

Presentation of Findings

In these findings, narratives and situational descriptions (Stake, 2008) are used to illustrate the process of change undertaken by these teachers on their journey toward leaderful practice. In alignment with the gradual, lengthy time required to make effective changes to practice (El Bakkali, 2020; Ertmer & Glazewski, 2015; Solis & Gordon, 2020) the narrative arc begins at the start of the year, addressing teachers' and students' initial negotiations with classroom decisions, attempts at reflective practice, and efforts in collaboration, the tenets of leaderful classroom pedagogy (Egitim,

2022). I refer to this as the Novice stage. Following an emergent track, teachers gained confidence in inviting students into the process of learning and expanded collective decision-making in the Emergent stage. By the end of the year in what I have named the Skilled stage, teachers and students developed a true democratic partnership, relying on feedback and reflection to steer collaboration, learning, and leadership. This chronological presentation of findings illustrates the evolutionary nature of the intertwined facets of leaderful practice.

Stages of Leaderful Practice

Novice Stage

Teachers' prior experiences and identities undergirded the start to the year, and in the Novice stage teachers held firm to constructing class rules. Reflective practice and effective collaboration were yet to be fully established.

Teacher Identity and Pedagogical Decisions

Joe summarized his early thinking about how to be a good math teacher. "Teaching Algebra II meant the teacher stood at the board and did as many Algebra II problems as possible. Gave out homework. The bell would ring and then you'd do it again the next day." However, we recognized the teacher-centered focus of this traditional approach and that the students in Math Themes had not enjoyed much prior success in math. "I'm not going to make these kids miserable because of me," Joe shared. "They don't need another bad experience with math. They're not bad kids, they just want someone to care about them a little bit." Talya emphasized that the students had struggled with math and wouldn't "buy into the content" without a teacher who showed that they care. Hence, we aimed to create a caring, student-centered class. However, our identities, rooted in traditional teacher-centered pedagogy, framed our initial approach which emphasized rules and procedures.

Open Notes and Partner Assessments. To reward careful attention in class, we allowed open-note quizzes. Students reported that they paid more attention in class and took better notes because they could refer to them on assessments. A student remarked that the class was "much more realistic in how it applies to the real world" since students had access to their resources. Students also said that allowing collaboration on assessments made them feel respected as young adults.

No phones. That feeling of respect ended when we requested that students stow their phones upon entering the room. Although everyone agreed that phones were a distraction, students resisted. We maintained that minimizing their access demonstrated our care for their learning. A student later said, "I really disliked that you took our phones at the beginning of the year, but now that we've gone through the whole year, I get it and I'm glad that you did," but we missed an early opportunity to include our students in this decision-making process.

No answers. Though we did not attend to our students' responses to our no-phone rule, ironically, we felt that students needed to improve their listening skills. We began by not revealing the answers to the math problems, instead asking students to rely on each other. At first, students were confused without the confirmation of their approaches. Our goal was for students to collaborate and converse. Students "shouldn't only be listening to the words out of the teacher's mouth. They have to realize that the teacher isn't the only one saying good stuff," Talya said. Since discussion was an important, transferable skill, we modeled how to expand on previous statements from classmates.

Reflection

In the Novice stage, both student and teacher reflection was limited.

Student Reflection. Though we felt student reflection was important, implementation began as somewhat forced and did not connect to overall growth. When we reviewed students' peer feedback, we felt that it was often vague and not constructive: "I liked this part," or "It seemed like you didn't really understand your own work." Student partners wrote basic reflections about their perceived strengths and weaknesses in executing their project.

Teacher Reflection. Teacher reflection focused on how to adapt current material into PBL projects. We felt overwhelmed making changes to existing projects, trying to hit all the elements of PBL. We didn't quite know what to do with our new learning about implementing PBL; most shared articles and videos were lost in the mass of emails, and even if we had time to review them, we did not discuss them during collaboration time. Instead, we focused on what to do day-to-day in our classrooms. Likewise, we noted students' weak peer-feedback but were unsure how to move our students to offer more. Our reflections centered class management and pacing, featuring questions on how we should teach, lead our classes, or apply new ideas.

Collaboration

Challenging our established teaching practices involved risk, necessitating trust and compassion in our PLC. We shared our successes and failures, listening attentively and offering deeply considered feedback. Our vulnerability empowered change. As Joe said, "When something goes well in that class, I think all three of us can't wait to tell each other. And [if] it was really bad, we're not afraid to go right [to one another]." We instituted a caring, empathetic environment in our PLC.

While we enjoyed good teacher-teacher collaboration, we were missing opportunities for collaboration with students. When I discussed how to improve the first project with my class, one student asked, "Have you thought about having us make our own videos?" Though excited by this feedback, Talya, Joe, and I did not know how to edit a video, let alone use it as a learning tool. Thinking we needed these skills first to be able to help our students, we never tried this idea. We were still in a teacher-centered mindset, not including students in leadership roles in their own learning. These missed opportunities occurred on several occasions. Lack of experience and a perceived time pressure contributed to our exclusion of our students.

Emergent Stage

About a third of the way into the school year, we looked ahead to the midterm exam and made some changes to practice with significant effects in the Emergent Stage.

Teacher Identity and Pedagogical Decisions

Our identities as educators had been heavily impacted by a perceived need to cover material to give tests to assign grades. Now, we challenged this position, and began to use more active listening skills, opening the possibility to displace the teacher-student power dynamic.

Grading and Assessments. As we continued working to center our students, we questioned how the structure of assessments and schedules factored in to who we were in the classroom. Specifically, the midterm exam was approaching. Traditionally, this is a standardized exam, which means all students must learn the same material, but a two-hour, multiple-choice test did not support our mission as a PLC. I felt that “the way we assess is driving how/what we teach,” limiting flexibility and responsiveness to students’ interests. Giving a common test to our students was “in direct opposition to a more forward pedagogy and giving choice,” I reflected. We proposed that students apply their learning in this unit to research the costs of buying, financing, and leasing a vehicle of their choice and showcase their work as the exam. Our department chairperson and other administrators enthusiastically supported this plan, but reminded us to keep to the two-hour scheduled block of time for presentations.

Dialogue and Listening. In our drive to create a class environment to center our students, we had been doing what *we* thought was best, but did not include the students. We started having more informal talks with our students to build understanding through active listening. Talya reported that students “regularly mention how valuable the discussion is.” Her class spent an entire period talking about an upcoming student-organized school walkout. She explained, “That’s something going on right now and I realized that’s not in the context of Math Themes, but it is getting them to develop a comfort in dialogue” which she knew would transfer to more mathematical discussions. She mentioned that the open curriculum of Math Themes provided time for us to engage in these conversations. Joe shared that building relationships allowed him to learn more about his students. “I found out a boy recently lost his father. When you look at them, you think everything’s fine, but it’s not. You don’t learn that unless you talk.” We let ourselves stray from a content-driven agenda to relate to our students on topics that mattered to them.

Disaffection as Situational. Because of these conversations, we learned more about our students’ lives than in our other classes. “They were telling me stuff that was important to them that I never thought of because I only saw them as students in my class,” Joe reflected. Our time together was limited to a 42-minute period that had previously revealed little more than students’ mathematical weaknesses. We began to see their disaffection as situational and to accept responsibility for disrupting it. “I did this too late,” Joe admitted. “I learned so much from them. I’m going to do it at the beginning of the year,” he said, already planning ahead.

Role of Reflection

Student Reflection. After students presented their midterm projects, they once again offered each other written commendations and suggestions. We wanted students to make more sense of feedback and better integrate it into their reflections, so this time we guided students to code their feedback. Students categorized similar comments then added their own agreement or disagreement and evidence in a written reflection. Students made more connections and deepened their understanding of their growth and areas in need of improvement.

Teacher Reflection. It wasn't until we drafted reflective prompts for students for the midterm that we decided to ask students to give feedback to *us*. To make a significant change, we needed feedback just as our students did. By asking, "How was this midterm experience compared to past exams? How could we make the process more meaningful?" we experienced an overhaul to our thinking. From this point, we incorporated student feedback into all subsequent projects, beginning to democratize our classrooms. When students reported that they needed more guidance to keep on track, we scheduled regular sessions to discuss their progress. When they shared that project options were too similar, we increased the variety. Student ideas became an integral part of the design of future projects with an unpredicted result: When students' voices were finally heard, the quality of their comments improved. Our responsiveness to students' needs motivated their genuine desire to work with us to elevate their experiences. Their contributions likewise fueled our enthusiasm. Students became part of the process of change.

Collaboration

Our reflection opened channels for collaboration, but not all progress was smooth.

Within our Classrooms. Though pleased that most students were participating more in class, we were frustrated by the disengagement of others. It was easy for students to go off task, and we felt a constant tug to revert to traditional teaching roles with a more controlled management style. Student absenteeism was high, indicating a level of disconnection from class. We also continued to struggle with how to support students' ideas. After learning about the costs of car ownership, students joined in an animated debate about the school parking system, fees, and possible uses for those collected funds. Despite students' interest and the real-world application, we never got the project off the ground. We heard students' passion, but found ourselves stuck in old ways. "I'll divide my class into two groups of five," to tackle this new project, Joe planned. "Why not let them decide?" Talya countered. But, we didn't ask the students what they needed from us.

Within our PLC. Our past few months' experience with PBL gave us a foundation to better incorporate new learning from shared literature, TED Talks, blogs, and webinars into our classrooms. Our PLC exchanged more information and ideas than any other collaborative group I have ever worked with. After I shared one particular article about the essential elements of PBL, Joe created a presentation for the students highlighting some of the elements that we had not yet integrated into our projects.

Joe then visited my and Talya's classes as a guest speaker, prompting discussion among both teachers and students about the overlooked PLB elements such as project

organization and time management. Joe's presentation launched more student voice in our next project and marked a second big change: We started to take collective responsibility for all of our students. Having talked extensively in our PLC, we felt as if we knew each other's students. We began to enter one another's rooms more often; Joe told stories about Archimedes and Plato and their contributions to geometry and I guided Joe's and Talya's classes in discovering the mathematics of origami (the Japanese art of paper folding). We joined one another's rooms to observe, mingle with the students, or just say hello. As Joe said, "You've been in my class many times. I've been in your class several times. I don't do that with the other teachers. I do it only with you guys. It's the nature of this class." Our students witnessed collaboration in action. I have never guest-taught a lesson in any other course.

Skilled Stage

Teacher Identity

By the end of the year, we had grown professionally and undergone transformative changes to practice and to our identities.

Talya. Talya learned the merits of maintaining flexibility as students increased their leadership capacity. We had to be prepared to adapt. "There's so much creativity and flexibility involved...I am a very type-A person (personality associated with high achievement, competitiveness, and impatience) and that was very difficult for me at first," she said. She added that she didn't think she had any creative ideas at the beginning of the year, but by the end she had many new thoughts and was eager to test them. "I want to build on that [exchange of ideas] for us and for the kids. It makes us feel like we're doing something meaningful." This comment revealed Talya's progression to leaderful practice and the level of engagement and purpose she felt in reflecting on and disrupting previous praxis.

Researcher. I learned to release control in my classroom and have students rely on each other. By decentering myself, I welcomed students into designing projects and rubrics. I tried to talk less in every lesson to make space for students' voices. I also noted that as we all developed proficiency with PBL, both students' and teachers' ideas started to flow faster and more easily. "Does creativity grow exponentially?" I wrote in my journal. "Like, once you start experiencing it, you get better at it?" I felt my role shift from delivering content to supporting students in structuring their own learning. The content was the means to teach students how to learn. My practice evolved into a leaderful one as I graduated from reading about PBL to enacting it.

Joe. Perhaps Joe underwent the largest transformation in identity. He contrasted who he was at the beginning of the year with whom he felt he had become. "I can chalk and talk with the best of them. I could stand at the board and off the top of my head, I could teach for an hour. But it would be all me," he said, explaining how his prior teaching centered himself.

I don't do that in my other classes now. I make my students do more and more of the work; I know how to do it now. I used to be afraid to do it. Now, I might introduce something and just say, 'You kids figure it out. I'll help you a little bit.' I just have them doing more and

me doing less--but I'm not doing less because I'm paying attention, you know? Sometimes being a teacher is talking less and listening more.

Joe highlighted the shift in his role as a teacher to more actively listening, engaging with his students, and creating successful PBL projects. Joe summarized, "Teaching this class has made me a better teacher in my other classes." His identity shift carried across his entire professional persona, affecting all of his students.

Adjusting his way of teaching impacted the feedback that Joe got on his practice as well. He described a recent evaluation he received from the assistant principal. "It was freaking fantastic. I've never gotten four *distinguisheds* (teacher evaluation rating). She saw the kids doing stuff and me allowing the kids to do stuff and me doing things at the right time and the kids collaborating." Joe credited his collaborative work in the PLC for this change.

Role of Reflection

Teacher reflection focused on the power of reflection itself. Joe shared that frequent in-class student reflection impacted his own practice.

I think the thing I got out of it most is asking the kids to reflect. [After] every unit we do, I ask them to take out a piece of paper and reflect upon what they do. I think that's great for the kids and it's really taught me to reflect on what I do. I think the reflection part of it really helped me as a teacher this year because you really think about what you have to do to make things go well.

Our reflections encompassed larger educational issues that impacted how well we incorporated leaderful practice. Talya felt that the controlled content in our other math classes and "the curriculum pacing that we need to get through" contributed to her prior draw to a more teacher-centered approach. Elevating student leaders in a system that reinforces a teacher-student hierarchy requires "a bigger global shift, and I don't know how to make that happen." She added that "It's hard to shift that at high school," where students may have experienced a passive role in education for nearly a decade. We all felt that increasing students' capacity for a leadership role in their own learning was time intensive. We discussed our small class sizes this year and the importance of our support for each other. As Joe remarked, "I'm being very reflective about this because there were times I did not enjoy this class, but you two guys saved me. I enjoy working with you." Talya added, "I think as a team we made it something that we would enjoy, and that allowed the kids to enjoy it." I appreciated our openness to new pedagogy, our willingness to learn from each other, and our commitment to bringing our students into the process of learning.

Collaboration

With Students. Growing more confident in PBL, we designed the next project to be the driver of student learning instead of introducing the unit with teacher direction. We incorporated the missing elements of PBL that had interested the students when Joe visited the class. Teachers offered guidance and instruction on advanced concepts such as mathematical limits, but students were in charge of their collaborative learning. The final demonstration of learning was to be a website, even though

we did not know how to make one. Students did not know, either. Joe told his class that he didn't grow up with computers so, "This stuff is all new to me. I need *you* to teach *me*." We positioned students as problem solvers and learned alongside them. They synthesized their mathematical knowledge while also mastering basic website building. I realized that we had crossed into more leaderful practice when I showed a video to the class about fractals, the topic of this unit. In years past, students found this video to be interesting, connecting many disciplines through mathematics. However, this year students were bored and asked to return to creating their websites. They had already independently discovered these connections through their own research. Students' self-direction was more evident and they preferred their roles as active directors of learning.

We turned our attention to grading: If students were directing their own learning, we felt that they should have a voice in evaluation. We asked students to organize their ideas for grading in an array on the board under the headings of Product, Process, and Presentation. Criteria of creativity, design, and effort topped their lists with no reference to mathematical learning. Teachers insisted on the addition of this essential element. Teacher oversight and involvement were still necessary for this collaborative process. Talya suggested that students grade themselves, setting students free to create the rubric. They jumped at the task. "I'm not doing anything; they're doing it all!" Talya observed.

The summit of our year was the final project designed by Joe based on a conversation with his students. "I've explained what is needed from you for project-based learning," he began. "I want you to be engaged and interested. So, if you could work on an individual project, remembering that this is a math class, what would it be?" A student cried out, "I've been *waiting* for you to ask this!" Reporting this conversation back to us in our PLC, Joe confided that he worked hard to just listen, even biting on a pencil to not interject. He added that even after all this time getting to know his students, "all the ideas I had come up with: music, aviation, dance, gambling, sports, medicine, maps...they didn't mention one of them. Not one," highlighting how vital it is to honor student voice.

In their final project, students applied the skills they'd been practicing all year and discovered mathematics in their everyday world. They taught us about the mathematics of sleep, why a pole-vaulter's pole breaks into three pieces, and the finances of owning a pet shop. We struck a careful balance between teacher facilitation and student creativity while we listened to their ideas, offered guidance, and redirected when students drifted off-task. A more democratic, inclusive environment had been created.

With Teachers. Collaboration was the critical piece of our PLC that drove the changes that we made. Talya said, "Being collaborative is really necessary to be successful. It really helps not to be in it alone." She also reflected on why we made more time to collaborate in our PLC than in groups for our other courses. "It might be because it's requiring us to be more creative, so we need that more time, but I think we are also more excited. It's fun to collaborate on something new." She felt that our focus on reflecting and sharing "happens a lot more than in the traditional

classes where you're looking at a list of curriculum items that you have to hit," again referring to a standardized curriculum.

The nature of our collaboration was different from our work with other colleagues. Joe said, "We have to be so much more creative; you have to have ideas. I think we have to set the kids up to go anywhere. It's almost like there are no right or wrong answers in this class." We already knew where the curriculum was heading and how to get there in our other classes. Joe remarked that collaboration outside our PLC was often focused on exchanging worksheets and materials. In contrast, establishing PBL and negotiating leadership in conjunction with students was "new and it's open-ended and it does take more time." Our aim for a student-centered classroom necessitated a different style of collaboration, focused on exchanging ideas, because we were building something from scratch.

Limitations

The findings of this research are limited to its setting: Our large, high-performing school is in a suburban New England town where most students enjoy a high socioeconomic standing and 98% of graduates attend college. Math Themes offered flexibility in pedagogical decisions that we felt enabled us to be more responsive to our students. The teachers in this study felt that leaderful practice would be more difficult to accomplish in classes that serve as prerequisites to more advanced math courses. The class sizes this year in Math Themes were small, averaging 11.6 students per class. Lastly, we had district support from our department chairperson who granted us additional time to meet as a group, and from our central office administration who consented to this study.

Discussion

Four main points emerge from the findings. First, the transformation to leaderful classrooms emerged from the application of PBL. Second, this trajectory encompassed a non-linear evolution with periods of growth countered with missed opportunities for student engagement as leaders. Third, teachers reported that the collaboration in their PLC offered a supportive structure from which to take risks integrating leaderful practice. Lastly, teachers' reflections about their identities and roles in the classroom are an integral part of this change to leaderful praxis.

PBL Provides Access to Leaderful Pedagogy

Our trio of teachers purposefully planned to disrupt our pedagogy, choosing PBL as the means to enhance student engagement, integrate 21st-century skills, and make the math content more relatable to students. PBL as a means to counter student disaffection is not a new idea: Over one hundred years ago, the Bureau of Education (1920) advocated “introductory mathematics...should be given in connection with the solving of problems and the executing of projects in fields where the pupils already have both knowledge and interest” (p. 17). The impact of modern PBL elevates students into leaderful roles in the mathematics classroom.

Leaderful pedagogy was not our initial aim. However, we engaged in reflective practice, elevated students’ choice and voice through dialogue and purposeful listening, and collaborated in alignment with the components of PBL (BIE, 2019). These practices mirror the tenets of leaderful classroom pedagogy in which teachers’ reflection stimulates empathy for students and reveals the teachers’ responsibility to create inclusive practices (Egitim, 2022). This study illuminates that compassion grows not only from reflection but also from empathic listening, which “fosters a humanizing empathy and builds a sense of emotional connection among people” (Andolina & Conklin, 2021, p. 394). Empathic listening can amplify the voices of the marginalized in democratic education (Andolina & Conklin, 2021) and heighten work engagement when utilized by supervisors (Jonsdottir & Kristinsson, 2020). Indeed, student engagement improved with teachers’ use of empathic listening.

Open dialogue and reflection improved trust and facilitated the building of a supportive classroom environment for risk-taking (Qi, 2021). As students saw their feedback incorporated into future projects, they grew more willing to collaborate on project design and grading protocols. The disruption of the privileged position of the teacher (Egitim, 2022) from an authority figure to an activator in PBL (Mergendoller, 2016) produced a more inclusive, democratic practice where students gained skills in self-directed learning.

Leaderful Practice in an Evolutionary Process

This study revealed the gradual, organic growth experienced by both teachers and students over the course of this year. It took initiative to commit to our goal of creating a student-centered classroom and recommit every time we encountered difficulty. Students were absent, didn’t share the work equally, and weren’t all engaged. But seeing small, meaningful change in our classrooms encouraged us to intentionally look for more opportunities to improve. We grew in our inclusive practices, our abilities to apply what we learned from the literature, and our capacity to act on student-generated ideas thereby elevating students into positions of leadership. The stages of this growth, which I have called Novice, Emergent, and Skilled, corresponded to our experience.

Evolution of Teacher Identities

Our identities at the beginning of the year were stuck in a power differential with students, focused on classroom rules and procedures. We chose these policies with purpose and care, but without consulting students. The process of letting go of control (Larmer et al., 2015) allowed us to start seeing ourselves as facilitators of learning, needing to “do less and listen more.”

Evolution of Reflective Practices

Our reflective practices evolved from thinking about *how* to change practice and *how* to get students more involved to noticing the *impact* that changes had on our practice, our students, and ourselves. We more carefully considered both our own and our students’ capabilities within the constraints of content coverage, planning time, school support, standardization, grading, and scheduling, and how they impact what happens in the classroom.

Evolution of Collaboration

In the domain of collaboration, we moved from focusing on how to get our students to effectively work together (student–student collaboration) in the Novice stage, to tighter collaboration within our PLC as we took collective responsibility for our classes (teacher-teacher collaboration) in the Emergent stage, which culminated in more democratic, joint collaboration (teacher-student collaboration) on classroom decisions in the Skilled stage. The student-created grading rubric that eschewed mathematical learning illustrates the need for teachers’ involvement and the delicate balance of democratic practice between students and teachers.

Larmer et al. (2015) suggest that in switching to PBL, teachers must navigate how to decrease their control and increase trust in the classroom. We identified plenty of missed opportunities to include our students as leaders as we navigated this process. Just as it takes times to evolve any practice (El Bakkali, 2020; Ertmer & Glazewski, 2015; Solis & Gordon, 2020), developing PBL takes ongoing commitment (BIE, 2019). Developing greater compassion for our students as learners, adopting more egalitarian approaches, and reflecting on our progress were gradual, continuous efforts. As our understanding grew, we saw that students could showcase their strengths *if we let them*.

PLCs Support Teachers’ Collective Collaboration

We experienced tension as we released control to students. We felt pressure to move to new content and a pull toward traditional grading. We worried about having time

to plan projects and creating opportunities to showcase students as leaders, findings supported by Ertmer and Glazewski (2015). Teachers need support as they take risks, employ new classroom management strategies, solicit and provide guidance and feedback, and adapt to their new roles as facilitators (Ertmer & Glazewski, 2015). When district-led PD is isolated and offers little guidance or follow-up (DeWitt, 2018), that support comes in the form of a PLC: A sustained, job-embedded approach to PD (DuFour, 2004). It is well documented that collaboration is an important support as teachers implement new pedagogy (El Bakkali, 2020; Qi, 2021).

DuFour (2004) emphasizes that PLCs must be results-oriented and keep the reason for change in focus. We were clear on our goal to disrupt pedagogy because students' performance, retention, and engagement were low. We created a trusting, caring culture (Kelly & Cherkowski, 2015), made time to share our successes and challenges, centered ideas, and took a shared responsibility for all of our students. We exchanged more emails, texts, and phone calls than any other collaborative group I have joined, and became skilled at putting our new learning from literature and webinars into action. Each success compounded our energy, creativity, and dedication in a synergistic process of collaborativeness (Jappinen et al., 2016) as we became skilled at learning from our students (Wilson et al., 2017). This level of harmony is vital for the collective, collaborative, concurrent, and compassionate elements (Raelin, 2011) of leaderful practice.

Reflection is Essential to Leaderful Practice

From the beginning, we asked students to connect their mathematical learning to each unit of study through reflection. We deepened these reflective practices for students as the year progressed, utilizing peer feedback. Ratminingsih et al. (2017) explain the need to incorporate peer- and self-assessment in reflective teaching practices in traditional settings where teachers assign grades and students accept the teachers' judgment. This imbalance of power strips students of the opportunity to reflect and assess their own work.

As we noted missed opportunities for students to take leadership roles in our classes, we finally solicited feedback from students on the class climate, content, and our instructional methods. This inclusion of students was essential to changing our praxis and shaped our view of our role as teachers. Ertmer and Glazewski (2015) agree that when transitioning students into more active roles in the classroom, teachers must navigate changes to their own responsibilities and identities.

We came to understand our new roles as offering instruction *with* students, not teaching *at* them. In alignment with findings from Wilson et al. (2017), as we shifted to seeing students as active participants in their own process of education, we changed our narrative about them to offer greater opportunity for meaningful learning for students and professional development for us. Seeing students' disaffection as situational provided space for us to learn how to better elicit and utilize their mathematical thinking and ideas (Wilson et al., 2017).

While students gained responsibility in leading their own learning, teacher guidance was still necessary. Our own expertise was redefined; in addition to fluency with the content, we worked to gain comfort with shared leadership (Larmer et al., 2015). We saw the value of flexibility and decentring ourselves to guide students through their learning. As Joe shared, “I think us three as teachers learned more than the kids did... I learned how I have to start the class, the things I have to put in place for making project-based learning successful.” By more effectively implementing project-based learning next year, we could proceed to leaderful practice sooner, opening opportunities for students and us to further strengthen our collaborative agency (Raelin, 2016). As Gningeu et al. (2014) emphasize, powerful reflection must focus on purpose, not only on classroom activities. Our own reflections evolved from thinking about actions (how to get our students to do something) to purpose and meaning (how to assess learning, the role of grades, and collective interaction).

It took time for our caring environment to develop in our classrooms, but with purposeful decisions, like not sharing answers early in the year, students—and teachers—were less afraid to take risks later. Raelin (2016) points out additional components of collaborative agency: the practice is open-ended in that participants cannot anticipate the outcome, and the result can either “reproduce or transform the very structure that shapes it” (p. 138). We undertook this process without knowing where it would go. We had no agenda and were not tied to any method or project. Our receptiveness to change and new ideas led to true collaborative agency. Students noticed and appreciated this shift toward emancipatory practice; ten of the 13 student participants in this study rated this year of math as the best in their Kindergarten through grade 12 span.

Conclusion

Navigating to a leaderful classroom requires teacher vulnerability in exposing their beliefs about their roles and responsibilities. Teachers challenge assumptions about themselves and their teaching through the process of reflection, open dialogue, and empathic listening to their students. As empathy and compassion grow, teachers understand their responsibility to invite students into a collaborative environment and elevate students’ voices. Though leaderful practice takes time to develop, math teachers can access this classroom pedagogy through the constructivist approach of project-based learning.

Project-based learning organically centers students as learners and offers promise as an emancipatory process for teachers. Leaderful classroom pedagogy breaks from traditional teacher-student power dynamics and leads to greater student autonomy for the benefit of all stakeholders. Likewise, PLCs offer teachers autonomy in their professional development and robust support for pedagogical change. Teachers create a leaderful classroom through collaborativeness (Jappinen et al., 2016) with their students; when administrators lean into reflective practice and collective collaboration with teachers, they can build a democratic and inclusive leaderful school.

Teachers take risks implementing leaderful pedagogy, requiring the support of their administration in the form of resources, time, and a voice in decision-making (Qi, 2021), the same things our students need from us.

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Monica Housen teaches high school mathematics in Connecticut, U.S.A. Committed to showcasing collaborative practices, Dr. Housen brings a practitioner's lens to leadership development and teacher empowerment through professional learning communities. She is passionate about project and experiential learning, highlighted by bicycling across America with students in a summer classroom-on-wheels. Two Fulbright grants to Latvia and Hungary culminated in her co-authored autoethnography, *Our International Education: Stories of Living, Teaching, and Parenting Abroad* (Sense, 2016).

Part III
Leaderful Intercultural Education

Chapter 10

Intercultural Language Education Through Leaderful Pedagogy: A Collaborative Autoethnographic Approach



Soyhan Egitim and Roxana Sandu

Abstract Rapid globalization has transformed academic institutions around the world. A growing number of universities have embraced internationalization and adopted open and inclusive policies. As a result, expectations from students have also changed. Currently, an increasing number of programs require students not only to be able to communicate across cultures but also to develop intercultural sensitivity and tolerance toward differences. However, in Japan, there appears to be a lack of practical guidelines to help students meet these requirements. Especially, there is a tendency to treat language education and intercultural competence as two separate entities within the Japanese context. Diversity brings both opportunities and challenges in classrooms. When students engage in cross-cultural interactions, they likely encounter tension and conflict arising from misunderstandings and cultural blunders. The present chapter explores two university teachers' experiences of teaching intercultural competence in English as a foreign language (EFL) courses by utilizing a collaborative autoethnographic approach. Both teachers reflect on their evolution as collaborative leaders and the ways their leadership identities shaped their pedagogical practices. Their autoethnographic accounts reveal that engaging students in building the scaffolding and structure, which treat the English language and intercultural competence as a single, integrated process, can raise students' understanding of why they need to develop intercultural flexibility when they engage in cross-cultural contact. Furthermore, as students recognize that their voices matter for pedagogical decisions, they may show a deeper appreciation of why intercultural competence matters for language education and how it can be utilized effectively in language classrooms.

Keywords Intercultural competence · Language education · Leaderful pedagogy · Internationalization

S. Egitim (✉) · R. Sandu
Toyo University, Tokyo, Japan
e-mail: soyhanegitim@gmail.com

Intercultural Language Education Through Leaderful Pedagogy: A Collaborative Autoethnographic Approach

In 2014, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) announced internationalization reforms in response to the shifting global trends emphasizing global and intercultural competence in language classrooms (Rose & McKinley, 2017). The main objectives of the reforms were to increase the number of international students studying at Japanese universities, and the number of Japanese students participating in study abroad programs so that English communication opportunities would be expanded for all students through English Medium Instruction (EMI) courses across Japanese universities (Ota, 2018). Universities in Japan followed the reform plans and welcomed an increasing number of international students (Inaba, 2020). The increase in EMI courses also led to the expansion of international faculty at Japanese universities (Egitim, 2022b). The goal was to promote students' intercultural competence through active learning in foreign language classes (Inaba, 2020; Ota, 2018; Saiki et al., 2011).

Diversity offers both opportunities and challenges in classrooms. Challenges often arise from unpredictable circumstances that diversity brings. In this dynamic, foreign language teachers naturally assume the responsibility of turning challenges into opportunities by maximizing what each student has to offer in increasingly diverse classroom environments (Sakamoto, 2022). The question that comes to mind here is what kind of leadership approach is needed to recognize individual differences in learning needs, and expectations, which can help teacher leaders maximize their students' potential. We believe that empathy plays a critical role in teachers' leadership identity transformation. Teacher leaders need to engage in regular self-reflection to develop an empathetic lens. Through reflective practice, they can look inward, and recognize their own limitations and biases, as well as their privileged position in the classroom. This perspective should allow "teachers to evolve as collaborative leaders who gain power from empowering others" (Egitim, 2022a, p. 26).

The present chapter explores two university teachers' experiences in English as a foreign language (EFL) communication classrooms through their self-narratives. The teachers are also the co-authors of this chapter. They both work at the same private university and teach classes with a focus on raising students' intercultural competence. The chapter explores the teachers' evolution into the leaders they are at present and how their leadership identities have influenced their classroom practices.

Literature Review

Intercultural Competence Development in Foreign Language Classes

In the past, foreign language education focused primarily on linguistic competency development. More recently, with the rise of globalization and increased student mobility, intercultural competence development in the foreign language classroom has gained momentum (Fritz & Sandu, 2020; Ngai et al., 2020). Hence, more and more university programs worldwide require students not only to be able to communicate across cultures but also to be culturally sensitive, accepting of different values, and understanding of various worldviews.

Nevertheless, incorporating cultural aspects into the foreign language classroom has not been an easy task, and more often than not, culture is taught as simple dos and don'ts, undeniably leading to stereotyping instead of developing students' intercultural selves. Liddicoat and Scarino called this simplistic approach "culture as mere information—a set of learnable rules that can be mastered by students" (2013, p. 22). It is important to understand that intercultural learning does not involve only cultural knowledge, but it encourages an internal transformation of self by adopting new cultural perspectives.

This approach to language teaching was described as learners' genuine engagement in the learning process (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013). According to Liddicoat and Scarino (2013), "A cultural perspective implies the development of knowledge about a culture, which remains external to the learner and is not intended to confront or transform the learner's existing identity, practices, values, attitudes, beliefs, and worldview" while an intercultural perspective assumes, "The goal of learning is to decenter learners from their preexisting assumptions and practices and to develop an intercultural identity through engagement with an additional culture" (pp. 28–29).

This transformation is not easily attainable in English language classrooms in Japan, as English is viewed as an academic subject, which leads to highly standardized and outcome-based language education (Egitim & Garcia, 2021). Therefore, a language teacher in Japan whose goal is to guide their students beyond the English language could feel overwhelmed by the double-edged pressure. While they may struggle to shape their students' intercultural mindsets and provide opportunities that will allow students to find their own voices, breaking through the ingrained habits of passive learning and unassertive involvement in their language learning process may cause a setback to intercultural competence building. For that reason, a question that arises is how language teachers in Japan can move beyond these deeply ingrained learning habits, and reveal the importance of an intercultural mindset in today's cosmopolitan societies.

Intercultural Language Education Through Leaderful Pedagogy

As Fritz and Sandu (2020) emphasized, a lack of practical guidelines to promote intercultural communication in foreign language classrooms results in a gap between policy and practice. Hence, what goes on in the classroom is oftentimes different than what is aimed for with the current policies in place. In order to bridge the gap, there needs to be a structure that would treat intercultural communication and English language education as a single, integrated process (Shaules, 2019). When it comes to the classroom environment, the teacher has the knowledge and expertise to establish the foundation for an autonomous learning environment. However, involving students in building the structure and scaffolding would potentially make the process more meaningful and give students a clear understanding of what they are learning and why they are learning it (Cook-Sather et al., 2014; Dam, 2018; Rutherford, 2020).

In this regard, Soyhan, the first author of this chapter, developed a pedagogical framework, *Leaderful Classroom Practices*. The framework is premised on teachers' reflecting on their leadership identity, understanding, and recognizing their privileged position in the classroom, and hence, developing an empathetic lens that would not only allow them to create psychologically safe learning environments but also eliminate the pre-conceived power distance between themselves and students (Egitim, 2021, 2022a). The next step of this framework involves engaging students in leadership responsibilities in the classroom by giving them a voice in pedagogical decisions. When students recognize that their voices matter for class instruction and management, and they regularly take ownership of what they do in class, they can have a deeper sense of appreciation of why intercultural learning matters and how it can be utilized for effective communication.

Furthermore, when intercultural activities are performed collectively in foreign language classes, students are naturally exposed to diverse perspectives. As a result, they can have the opportunity to engage in critical reflection which is the final step of the leaderful classroom framework. Through self-reflection, students can gradually develop an empathetic lens which would not only allow them to see issues through the lenses of others from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds but also help them gain intercultural sensitivity. This process requires the active involvement of the teacher and students. There is no one-size-fits-all formula for developing intercultural sensitivity through English language education. However, it is possible to establish an open, dynamic, and participatory learning environment through the collective efforts of the teacher and students. As a result, "Students can find deeper meaning in what they are learning and why they are learning it" (Egitim, 2022a, p. 71) (Fig. 10.1).

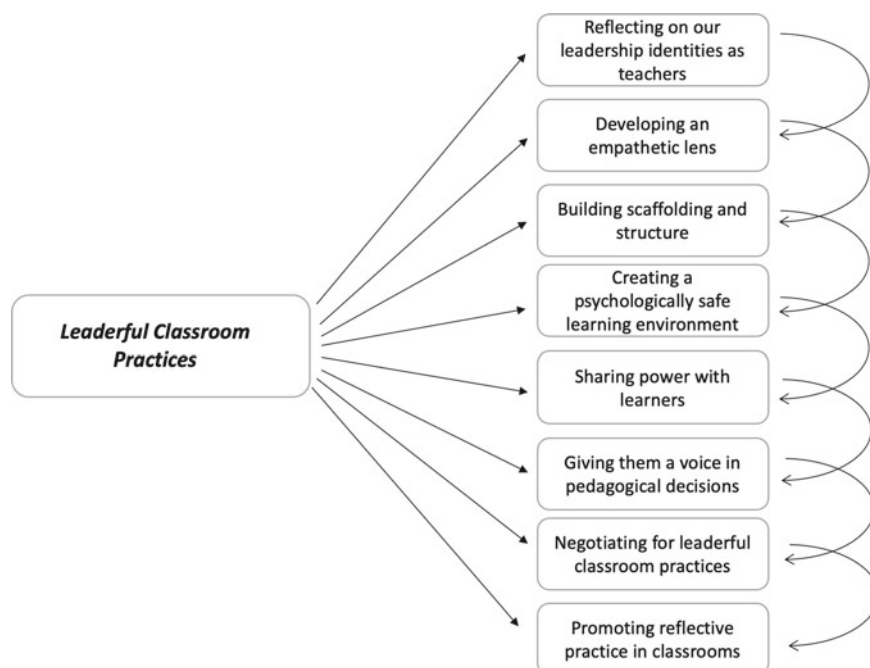


Fig. 10.1 Leaderful classroom practices. The figure is adapted from the book by Egitim (2022a)

Method

Collaborative Autoethnography

We used collaborative autoethnography which is a qualitative research method that creates a richer pool of data by bringing in self-reflective narratives from different sources such as memory work, self-reflection, self-analysis, interviews, and contemplations to collect and generate our autobiographical data (Chang et al., 2016). We reflected on our personal experiences and stories of how *Leaderful Classroom Practices* can be implemented to promote intercultural learning.

Since autoethnography is not only a retelling of personal narratives, it requires carefully organized research design and systematically collected and analyzed data (Roy & Uekusa, 2020). Therefore, we adopted the narrative interview technique where we shared our stories and expanded through personal reflections through dialogue. We designed the interview questions to engage in self-reflection and elicit details on our professional backgrounds, leadership identities, and how our leadership identities influenced our classroom practices when we integrated intercultural activities into foreign language classrooms.

Data Collection and Analysis

The interview questions were approved by the International Review Committee of Northeastern University and validated by two additional experts before performing the interviews. The first step involved answering the interview questions in writing. We both shared detailed personal stories and reflections in *Word* files just before meeting on *Zoom*. During our *Zoom* meetings, we reflected on each question which led to the emergence of new details from our narratives. This process paved the way for rich and authentic data (Hokkanen, 2017). We employed introspective analysis in this collaborative autoethnographic research in which we zoomed in on our personal, embodied experiences and zoomed out on wider concepts. As a result, we were able to understand, examine, and theorize our fundamentally experiential and subjective perspectives and experiences (Xue & Desmet, 2019).

Findings

We examined the data and made interpretations based on how we made sense of our own lived experiences. During this process, we identified certain repeated patterns and clustered them as emergent themes:

- Reflecting on our Leadership Identities
- Evolving as Collaborative Leaders
- Pedagogical Framework for Intercultural Competence Building
- Engaging Students in Leadership Roles in the Classroom

In the following section, we delve deeper into each emergent theme through our self-reflective narratives to connect with our readership in a genuine and authentic way.

Reflecting on Our Teacher Leader Identities

In order to understand what pedagogical approaches we employed in EFL classes, we felt that it was important to reflect on our own leadership identities which we believed were directly influential in our pedagogical practices. Therefore, we both shared our individual perspectives to demonstrate the characteristics of our leadership identities.

Soyhan reflects on his teacher identity:

I identify as an educator who likes to engage others in taking initiative and leading. I believe that self-reflection played a key role in my evolution into the teacher leader I am now. To me, self-reflection means unpacking my backpack including my personal experiences, and personal baggage such as my gender, nationality, religion, education, and the choices I have made in life. I take a step back and try to observe who I am in light of my experiences and my personal baggage which in turn, helps me recognize my shortcomings, flaws as well as

privileges. Adapting self-reflection as a habit allows me to develop an empathetic lens which is why I focus on empowering others and it oftentimes results in self-empowerment.

Next, Roxana is sharing her story of how she evolved into the teacher she is today.

Since most of my education was done in a very traditional way - the teacher was the authoritative figure and students must not question what the teacher was saying - I tried to mimic the same pattern in my classes when I started to teach many years ago. While doing so, I realized that is not the kind of teacher I wanted to become and I tried as hard as I could to switch my teaching approach to one that would be less intimidating for my students. Getting rid of old habits has been a very long process of trial and error, and I am still working on becoming the type of teacher who learns along with the students guiding them when necessary. I do this by creating an environment where everyone feels equal and comfortable interacting regardless of their linguistic proficiency. I strongly believe that teachers must understand that they are still learners and they will always be. It is only with this simple realization that their approach to teaching and establishing a relationship with their students takes a different turn.

Our narratives show that we both engage in regular self-reflection to understand ourselves in relation to our external environment. As we look inward, we can recognize our limitations, biases, and the privileged position we are granted in the classroom. This in return helps us make sense of the challenges our students are experiencing and develop an empathetic lens that can foster our desire to create a collaborative teaching and learning environment.

Teachers as Collaborative Leaders in the Classroom

Leadership development is an ongoing and dynamic process. Therefore, everything we experience in our social and professional environment has a potential impact on our leadership identity and the way we continue to evolve as leaders. Adopting collaborative leadership practices is an educational choice for those who embrace a shared vision and objectives with their students. Demonstrating this notion to students should lead to shared ownership and responsibility for everything done in the classroom.

Soyhan reflects on his classroom practices below:

I view leadership as a collaborative endeavor where anyone can take the initiative based on their knowledge and expertise. Self-reflection plays a key role in this dynamic. Therefore, I adopted self-reflection as a habit, which allows me to think about my own leadership practices before I walk into my next class. I ask myself 'What kind of leadership did I exhibit in my previous class? Did I control my students too much? Or was I too loose with them and hence, avoided taking leadership when needed?' Answering questions as such helps me develop an empathetic lens and see the issues through my students' perspectives.

I have the desire to eliminate the preconceived power distance with students to create a psychologically safe learning environment. However, this is not a linear process. It takes time and patience for students to embrace this idea. One of the key steps I take is to show my own fallibility by speaking Japanese. That way, they can realize that I am prone to making mistakes. Gradually, students feel psychologically safe which makes it easier to build rapport and trust with them. The next step is to engage them in leadership roles by giving them a

voice in pedagogical decisions. However, this doesn't necessarily mean they make all the decisions. As I said, this is a process of building their confidence and encouraging them to take ownership of their learning as well as others in the classroom.

Roxana reflects on her teaching practice and how it has changed over the years, thanks to regular self-reflection.

Reflection on my own practice came more or less naturally, by teaching and always looking for feedback from my students. Being an avid learner, I have an insatiable desire to do better, and I tried to improve by reflecting on my own practice while paying close attention to students' reactions when different teaching approaches were used. The moment I decided to switch my approach from leading a teacher-centered class to a more student-centered class, my pedagogical practices had undergone a complete transformation. Instead of me doing all the talking, I started involving my students in the learning process through constant dialogue - asking questions, asking for opinions, asking them to explain words and phrases, etc. This way, we were constantly interacting with each other and discovering the content discussed together, which gave both parties the satisfaction of being part of the teaching/learning process without that power distance relationship that is central to the teacher-centered approach.

After the first phase of data collection, we reflected on our written narratives and engaged in genuine dialog based on empathetic listening. It was during one of those sessions that Roxana mentioned how she has never considered herself a leader even though she was in leadership roles on numerous occasions. On the other hand, Soyhan's personal stories suggest that the emphasis was on his leadership identity as a teacher and its importance in his own practice. At the same time, both teachers underwent this introspective process to create a psychologically safe learning environment for students to step out of their comfort zone and take the initiative in the classroom.

Pedagogical Approaches for Intercultural Competence Development

One of our goals in EFL classrooms is to help develop students' intercultural competence. For that, Soyhan uses a pedagogical approach premised on the following four components: Language, Culture, Attitude, and Values. He elaborates on the framework by reflecting on his classroom practices and personal stories:

In recent years, MEXT has introduced new internationalization reform plans in response to dynamic global trends. One of the goals was to foster globally competent students through the expansion of English Medium Instruction (EMI) programs. Therefore, universities emphasized raising students' global knowledge and understanding through content and language-integrated learning (CLIL) activities in their EMI course curricula. In CLIL-based EMI courses, students are exposed to various topics to raise their cultural knowledge and understanding. Research shows that simultaneous exposure to language and culture helps students develop global competence to a certain extent, yet students may still struggle to express themselves effectively in the English language. Developing intercultural competence also requires adopting the appropriate communication style and embracing values beyond our horizon. Let me illustrate what I mean by adopting the appropriate communication style.

One day, I was sitting on the train and observing two Japanese people standing side by side, speaking with each other without making eye contact or using hand gestures in the Japanese language (L1). When one of them was speaking, the other one was nodding and both of them were facing the train window. Also, they were speaking so quietly to the point that it was almost impossible to hear what was being said. This non-verbal communication style appears to be effective in helping Japanese people convey their messages in the L1. However, more often than not, it compromises their ability to effectively communicate their ideas in the English language (L2) despite having the necessary language proficiency and cultural input. Avoidance of eye contact when speaking the L2 may be perceived as a lack of interest in the conversation or not using hand gestures and speaking softly during a presentation may give the impression that the presenter lacks confidence in their ability to present their ideas. However, it is important to clarify that there is nothing wrong with the Japanese communication style when it is used in the L1. I believe that adopting an appropriate communication style for the language we speak is an integral part of intercultural competence development.

Adopting a globally recognized communication style in English is critical as it is the most widely spoken foreign language in the world. Hence, when we have group discussions or presentations in the L2, I teach students a more assertive communication style based on maintaining eye contact with the listeners, using hand gestures, and speaking loudly with a brisk tone. Using these non-verbal communication tools in an assertive manner would show their intent to communicate their ideas more effectively while also keeping the listeners' attention on them. However, adopting an assertive communication style requires regular practice supported by guidance and feedback from the teacher and peers. Hence, it is critical for the teacher to have students practice this more assertive communication style during the first few weeks by providing them with scaffolding and structure. Once all students get accustomed to the new communication style, they can gradually take control of their own learning and use it more effectively. Furthermore, I encourage students to take the initiative and give each other feedback on their use of this communication style. I believe that this pedagogical approach also helps them develop their leadership skills.

Needless to say, gaining language proficiency and cultural knowledge goes a long way. Also, adopting the right communication style helps us express ourselves more effectively during intercultural encounters. However, we also need to learn, recognize, and adopt values beyond our own horizon if we are to show our commitment to global vision and understanding. When we start living in a new cultural environment, we all face adaptation challenges. More often than not, these challenges are unpredictable and thus, hard to prepare for in advance. To illustrate this, I will share an anecdote from a study abroad trip I chaperoned in 2018. When my colleagues and I took students to Thompson Rivers University in Canada, the students encountered challenges that none of us had anticipated. During that time, I often observed the students to make sure everyone was comfortable and enjoying their time in Canada.

One day, as we were having lunch, one of the students told us an interesting story, which showed the importance of recognizing values beyond our cultural horizon to gain global competence. When the student was taking a shower at night, her host mother started banging on the bathroom door. The student was shocked to the point that she had to cut her shower short. Later, when she ran into her host mother in the living room, she was told that she had been in the shower for too long and wasting water. After hearing her story, I told all the students the concept of taking a shower in Canada is different than in Japan where people view it as a leisure activity to relax at night. So, there is no perception of wasting water when it comes to taking a shower in Japan. However, the more fundamental point that I wanted the students to grasp was the difference in the values. Here is what I told the students, 'In Canada, people like to speak their minds directly. So, if you would like to have an easier time communicating with Canadians, you may want to embrace this value.'

Needless to say, it is difficult for Japanese students to grasp this value immediately. For one thing, they are raised with the values of *Honne*, which refers to the person's true feelings, and *Tatemae*, what is expected by society based on one's position and circumstances. So, using *Tatemae* in Canada would almost never work as people often exclusively prefer to express their true feelings directly. I told the students I use *Tatemae* when I am with my Japanese friends and colleagues to contribute to the harmony within the group while I use *Honne* when I am with my foreign friends as I can express my true feelings directly. In this way, both groups appreciate my presence. I added, 'So, from now on, when we have a problem, let's try to communicate our needs and desires more directly in Canada.'

A few days later, when I met the students, I asked them how they were doing. Some students began to complain about their lunches. They said that they were tired of eating sandwiches every day. I asked, 'Am I making your sandwiches?' The students chuckled and said 'No.' Next, I asked, 'Who is making your sandwiches?' One student said, 'My host mother.' Then I asked them the final question, 'Do you remember what we need to do when we run into a problem in Canada?' The students said, "We need to speak our minds directly.' Some students decided to speak their minds. So, I taught them several polite expressions to avoid offending anyone when they expressed their feelings directly. The next day, some students came up to me and said finally, they were provided with warm meals. From that point forth, those students started to express their needs and desires more directly. They learned an important Western value, self-expression, through a bitter experience while studying. They recognized the importance of this value, and then finally, they adopted it which in turn helped them with their adaptation to their new cultural environment.

In order for one to develop global competence, all four components are equally important. While the English language and culture provide the essential input for effective communication, adopting the right communication style and values can help develop effective communication strategies that can be used in different cultural settings and thus, lead to cross-cultural adaptation.

Needless to say, it can be difficult to bring intercultural learning into the classroom due to preconceived notions which treat English and intercultural communication as two separate academic subjects and the resulting lack of structured guidelines to foster students' intercultural competence in language classrooms. However, Roxana shares some of her own ways to incorporate intercultural learning into the language classroom.

Encouraging students to develop their intercultural selves or at least to start exploring their own selves is never an easy task. As a believer in the fact that foreign language learning is transformational, I always encourage my students to go out of their comfort zone beyond their preconceived ideas and stereotypical views. It is very common to hear Japanese students making generalizations when it comes to people from certain cultures or even foreigners in general - 'Foreigners don't take off their shoes in their homes' or 'Foreigners don't take baths (they only shower)'. Stereotyping or simple generalizations such as these ones can come across as discriminating against people who are not used to Japanese students' somewhat naive views of the world. In order to raise their awareness about 'othering' and how unpleasant it could be to many, one type of exercise I do is to ask them to define foreigners when they start their sentence with "Foreigners do or don't...". I then ask them to think and compare their sentences with the most common stereotypes regarding Japanese - "All Japanese are anime otaku." or "All Japanese love cosplay." Through these comparisons, they understand that generalizations should be avoided and that within each culture there is so much variability as it is within their own. It is small realizations like this that could lead students to become more aware of their own prejudices.

Raising students' intercultural awareness constitutes a stepping stone in their intercultural self-development journeys. At the risk of generalizing, I would say most Japanese students are not used to raising their hands or speaking up in class, making eye contact, or taking the initiative - what some may think constitutes the Western way of classroom interaction. I think these behaviors are crucial to master if they ever want to study abroad or just make friends and chat with people from other countries. All these behaviors are related to the way people communicate in Japan versus the way people communicate in other countries, hence a chance to explain communication styles. After a short demonstration of a Japanese conversation (where each person is waiting for their turn to speak while nodding respectfully to signal they are listening), I demonstrate the way Romanians communicate (lots of gestures, facial expressions, interruptions, and people talking at the same time). I then explain the importance of clarity and directness when communicating in English as Japanese is well-known for its 'aimai' (vagueness). Through all these examples, students become more aware of how important non-verbal communication is and certain social and pragmatic norms. A short demonstration of speaking perfect Japanese but using lots of gestures, and facial expressions, while interrupting each other, should make for a clearer image.

Another common stereotype among Japanese students is that 'Foreigners are loud and noisy', especially on public transportation, where the local rule is not to use your mobile phone or speak in a loud voice. Therefore, in order to demonstrate the importance of gaining or having more than one perspective about things, I do the following exercise. I start by asking them how they feel when they hear foreigners chatting in trains or public spaces - and usually, the answer is 'noisy' and 'loud'. I use this opportunity to teach them about other languages' tones (the Chinese language might sound aggressive to some because of the different tones) or gestures and facial expressions that usually accompany words of excitement that could sound angry and terrifying to someone who does not understand the language. I then ask them to imagine they are foreigners on a train in Japan and they sit next to a group of gyaru - a Japanese fashion and social sub-culture of girls who follow a certain style of clothes, hair, makeup, and activities) - put yourself in the other person's shoes. Sometimes, large groups of girls can be rather loud with very distinct high-pitched voices, which is considered rather rude. This type of exercise could show them the importance of looking at intercultural situations from more than one perspective.

The commonality between our approaches is that students are encouraged to self-reflect and confront their biases when they are engaged in intercultural communication. Through reflective practice, students can learn to break their mental habits and think beyond deep-rooted preconceived ideas and norms. By examining their own cultural identity through a critical lens, students can learn to be receptive to different cultural values and norms which will not only help them develop the necessary intercultural understanding but also give them the tools to thrive in uncharted territories.

Engaging Students in Leadership Roles in the Classroom

Engaging students in leadership roles shows them that their voices matter. When students are made aware of their power in this dynamic, they can feel encouraged to take initiative both for themselves and other students in class. Taking leadership roles should enhance students' motivation, confidence, and commitment to intercultural language education.

Soyhan elaborates on how he engages his students in leadership roles in the classroom:

It goes without saying that Leaderful Classroom Practices are still at an experimental stage, meaning it may not be feasible to implement them in all EFL classes due to inadequate English language proficiency of students and prescriptive language education imposed by school administrations.

Let's unpack this a little. The majority of Japanese universities standardized their EFL curricula where language teachers are expected to follow prescriptive syllabi for their assigned courses. Also, it is likely many students develop passive learning habits before they enter university due to the standardized and exam-oriented language education in elementary and secondary public schools. Therefore, it would be unrealistic to expect students to embrace leaderful classroom practices from the get-go. Students need structure and scaffolding to grasp the value of taking the initiative for themselves as well as others. It is also possible that some students may never embrace the idea of taking the initiative.

Let me also talk about how I use Leaderful Classroom Practices in a typical class with a prescribed syllabus. First, I take control and set the tone from day one. I may come across as hypocritical here because taking control aligns with top-down leadership. I really have no choice here but to take control here to establish structure and scaffolding. For instance, I usually emphasize making eye contact, using hand gestures, and speaking with a brisk tone during group activities in which students frequently participate. Once we are on week four, students get accustomed to the routine meaning they grasp the ideas and fundamental expectations and perform them without further guidance. Hence, I gradually let go of control. I am still partially in control to keep the ship afloat. This gives them the psychological safety to take the initiative in group activities. Once students gain confidence, I gradually start sharing my power by giving them a voice in class management to the extent that the prescribed system permits. Our success here depends on several factors, such as students' English language proficiency, major, and personality traits. Students' major matters because whether they can use English in their future jobs affects their motivation.

If they have no use for English, they may view the classes as an unnecessary component of their university journey. That is another case where the right conditions are not available for student empowerment; hence, a lot of handholding is needed. I've had cases where I managed to change students' perspectives, but it is a work in progress and the path is filled with pitfalls. I believe that Leaderful Classroom Practices are promising, and I have had some of my most fulfilling teaching experiences using the pedagogical framework. I've had classes where I was granted the power to decide all aspects of the syllabi. When the circumstances become favorable, it is entirely possible to give students a voice in class instruction, engage them in decisions, and let them recognize their full potential as leaders.

Next, Roxana explains her ways of assigning leadership roles to her students.

In an environment where students passively listen to the teacher, there is likely to be little expectation for them to develop certain skills, such as critical thinking, cooperation, collaboration, and negotiation. On the other hand, in an environment where the teacher constantly engages students and actively encourages participation, students may feel more comfortable sharing their opinions, as well as questioning certain things by learning how to negotiate and collaborate with their peers and teachers. The first thing I do is to introduce myself and tell my students to call me by my first name. Most students do not, but I feel that calling someone by their first name, by dropping all the titles, creates a safer space and an idea of equality, since I also call my students by their first names. Whenever I teach, I walk around the classroom and constantly interact with my students, involving them in the lecture. I rarely sit in the front of the classroom lecturing, as I strongly believe that creates an invisible line between me and them.

Although I am the one making the major decisions, as in choosing the materials for the course and deciding on the type of assignments, as well as the type of assessments throughout the course, etc. I usually allow students to take responsibility for their own approach to preparing for a discussion, presentation, project, etc. For example, in a project class, I allow students to discuss and decide for themselves the structure of their presentations and also their own roles within a project. The only thing I stress is that all roles must be divided equally among all members of the group and none of them should talk/prepare more than another. This way students have the freedom to choose their roles within their assigned groups based on their strengths, without me forcing certain roles on them which could make some students uncomfortable. This way, they also learn how to speak up for themselves and negotiate their roles with the other group members.

During group discussions, I usually give them two different topics to choose from - one that is usually easier than the other. This way, students have to discuss and decide which topic fits better their group's existing knowledge and skills, allowing them the freedom to either choose a topic that interests all of them or that fits their group's level of proficiency.

If I teach a year-long course, at the beginning of the fall term, I have a class discussion about things they liked/disliked about how the course was taught in the spring term, as well as things they would like to improve/change, which provides both me and the students with the opportunity to self-reflect on my teaching approach and their learning process. I divide them into groups and let them discuss these points without interfering. At the end of the task, each group writes their answers on a piece of paper anonymously, and I read them all in front of everyone and explain each point that needs detailed explanations. For example, many students ask to change the way I spontaneously ask them questions during our classes. One reason for this is that they would like time to think and write down their answers so that they avoid situations when they cannot answer questions and they feel embarrassed in front of the entire class. This is for me an opportunity to explain why I do this, by pointing out that in real-life situations they will not have the time to think and write down their answers - hence I use this method to prepare them for those situations where answering spontaneously to random questions is the norm. I think allowing students to share with each other what they think about the course, but also have their voices heard by me, gives them a sense of involvement in the decision-making. Of course, I try to listen carefully to all their suggestions, and where feasible I incorporate their ideas into my teaching approach.

I think many students in Japan are not used to being involved in any decisions regarding the course (how and what is taught), as most classes are teacher-centered, with the teacher sitting in front of the classroom lecturing. Therefore, my teaching approach may actually allow them to realize what it takes to be in a position where they make the decisions. I often hear students say they don't like studying, but when learning happens by talking with classmates, listening to different points of view, and making friends in the process, learning (and studying) becomes an enjoyable activity where collaboration is the key.

Discussion and Conclusion

In this chapter, we looked at two teachers' evolution as the leaders they are today and the way their leadership identities influenced their practices in EFL classes. We employed the collaborative autoethnographic approach that allowed us to reflect deeply on our experiences and took the opportunity to share and further discuss those experiences while trying to make sense of our own journeys as teacher leaders. In this collaborative autoethnography, we, two teachers of English originally from non-native English-speaking countries and coming from entirely different cultural

and educational backgrounds, delved into our lived experiences as EFL teachers in Japan. We considered how our specific shared teaching context shaped our leadership identities in an attempt to bring intercultural learning into EFL classrooms. As shown in the results, four common themes emerged from the analysis of the narratives: (1) reflecting on our teacher leader identities, (2) teachers' evolution as collaborative leaders, (3) pedagogical approaches to incorporate intercultural learning in their classes, as well as (4) teachers' approaches to engaging students in leadership roles.

The analysis of the written narratives has shown how our evolution as teacher leaders has directed us towards similar goals despite our different starting points and experiences. Through the self-narratives, one can observe how reflective practice has played a critical role in Soyhan's leadership identity development. By engaging in regular self-reflection, he recognized his limitations, biases, and prejudices which made him evolve as an empathetic leader and gave him the perspective to view issues through the students' lens. This empathetic lens, in turn, promotes his desire to share power with students, give them a voice in pedagogical decisions, and create a leaderful learning environment. However, he also recognizes that *Leaderful Classroom Practices* originate from reflective practice. Hence, it forms the basis of his educational philosophy.

Although Roxana's self-narratives show no prior knowledge of leaderful pedagogy, through this collaborative autoethnography, it was apparent that her pedagogical approaches were based on the elements discussed in Soyhan's framework despite their vastly different cultural and educational experiences. As emphasized by Fritz and Sandu (2020), owing to the lack of practical guidelines due to the preconceived view of English language education and intercultural communication as two separate entities, the need for a pedagogical framework is evident. We both believe that engaging students in building the structure and scaffolding, which should treat intercultural and English language education as a single, integrated process, can give students a clear understanding of what they are learning and why they are learning it (Cook-Sather et al., 2014; Dam, 2018; Rutherford, 2020). As students recognize that their voices matter for pedagogical decisions, and they regularly take ownership of what they do in class, they can have a deeper appreciation of why intercultural communication matters and how it can be utilized for effective language education (Egitim, 2022a).

We believe that our collaborative autoethnography offers a valuable example of the social construction of reality and knowledge. In this collaborative process, as we seek to delve deeper and perhaps understand better what lies under our teaching approaches, and move beyond our biases, we wonder how and if people will utilize and build upon this method in the future. Collaborative autoethnography has its limitations as a research method, in the sense that it lacks the objectivity researchers are accustomed to, as well as the type of results that could lead to more rigorously formed generalizations regarding the concepts discussed. However, for our purpose, it was the most appropriate choice as our reflective self-narratives offered us a chance to carefully examine and rationalize our experiences, and better understand our decision-making in our teaching practices.

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Soyhan Egitim, EdD, is an Associate Professor in the Faculty of Global and Regional Studies at Toyo University in Japan. He completed his Doctor of Education degree at Northeastern University, with a focus on organizational culture and leadership practices in higher education institutions. Recently, Dr. Egitim developed a new pedagogical framework, *Leaderful Classroom Practices* premised on the core values of liberty, equity, and social justice which forms the premise of this edited collection.

Roxana Sandu (Ph.D., Tohoku University, Japan) is currently a Lecturer in the Faculty of International Tourism Management at Toyo University in Japan. Her earlier research focused on Japanese pragmatics and discourse analysis, while more recent research interests include the development of intercultural competence in an EFL setting. Her latest project aims to determine how English language learners verbally communicate emotions when using English as a lingua franca in an intercultural setting.

Chapter 11

Leadership and Global Agency Development in Collaborative Online International Learning: Faculty Leaderful Strategies for Pedagogical Preparation, and Progression in Supporting Students' Learning Outcomes



Miki Yamashita and Christine M. Cress

Abstract Professors at Reitaku University (Japan) and Portland State University (U.S.A.), who collaborate to teach Collaborative On-Line International Learning (COIL) investigated leaderful pedagogy and service-learning elements associated with the facilitation of student leadership skills and global agency development. Using a participatory case study methodology focused on educational design processes and teaching activities, quantitative and qualitative data were collected from four-course years (2019–2022; $n = 60$) in order to identify theory-to-practice instructional strategies supporting student learning outcomes. Results culminated into a tripartite pedagogical framework (preparation, praxis, and progression) consistent with leaderful classrooms that emphasize social, relational, and dynamic interactions as a part of collaborative and participatory learning environments. Specifically, the leaderful strategy outcomes in this study were: (1) forming inclusive learning communities; (2) facilitating critical consciousness through layered reflection; and (3) focusing on collaborative change for the common good. Implications across academic disciplines and institutional types are discussed.

Keywords Leadership · Service-learning · COIL · Global agency · Cross-cultural competence; pedagogy; international partnerships

M. Yamashita (✉)
Reitaku University, Chiba, Japan
e-mail: myamas13@reitaku-u.ac.jp

C. M. Cress
Portland State University, Portland, OR, USA
e-mail: cressc@pdx.edu

Leadership and Global Efficacy Development in Collaborative Online International Learning: Faculty Leaderful Strategies for Pedagogical Preparation, Praxis, and Progression in Supporting Students' Learning Outcomes

Internationalization is deemed essential for educating students in order to problem-solve global challenges. International and intercultural contact with differences, virtual or physical, is “binding each of us into an interconnected world community” (Murphy, 2011, p. 1), and being able to function effectively cross-culturally is a necessary skill in the global workforce (Van Cleave & Cartwright, 2017).

Van Gaalen and Gielesen (2016) posit that the goal of creating internationally and interculturally competent graduates can be best achieved if institutions consciously create intercultural collaboration through inclusive education that facilitates students' global awareness and consciousness. Scholars assert that higher education institutions have an imperative role to build equity of access to global learning as a form of inclusive internationalization (De Wit & Jones, 2018). Indeed, new forms of pedagogy that focus on equitable interactions across cultures must be designed to support global, international, and intercultural competence (Islam & Stamp, 2020).

One such educational approach is Virtual Exchange and Collaborative On-line International Learning (COIL) courses that utilize technology to connect college classrooms located in a different country or cultural setting (O'Dowd, 2018; O'Dowd & Lewis, 2016). In COIL courses (often used synonymously with Virtual Exchange), students, faculty, and, sometimes community partners, collaborate to apply academic disciplinary knowledge to vexing societal issues through experiential, problem-based, service-learning, and community-based research techniques. For example, DePaul University in Chicago and the University of Uyo in Nigeria worked with community groups to develop environmental mitigation and humanitarian response strategies. Drexel University, Philadelphia, PA, and Politecnico di Milano, Italy, brought students together virtually to discuss how designers and engineers can use a new paradigm for the creation of built environments that promote human health and well-being (Rubin & Guth, 2022).

Ideally, COIL courses are culturally equitable shared transformational experiences for students and faculty alike where academic and intercultural exchange results in mutually transformed perspectives and capacity-building. Previous data indicate that as a result of COIL course experiences, students have increased intercultural competence, critical thinking skills, and academic knowledge (Cress & Van Cleave, 2020; Mudiamu, 2020; Nicolaou, 2019; O'Dowd, 2021; Yamashita, 2021). However, like any new curricular endeavor, faculty must be concerned that the latest international educational trend does not become another form of colonialism (Marmolejo & Egron-Polak, 2017). Higher education institutions have a critical responsibility in framing and initiating international engagement that deconstructs assumptions of normative paradigms for learning and community change (Shahjahan & Kezar, 2013; Van Cleave & Cartwright, 2017).

To address this challenge, the researchers (Yamashita & Cress) sought to investigate the research question: What are the best COIL pedagogical practices in supporting students understanding of the concepts of social-change-focused leadership and global agency development? This inquiry is consistent with Egitim's (2022) call for teachers to leaderfully address the psychological safety needs of diverse students in intercultural classrooms in order to recognize the unique qualities each student can contribute to open, participatory, and democratic classroom environments. Specifically, Yamashita, at Reitaku University (Japan), and Cress, at Portland State University (U.S.A.), collaborated to teach and research student outcomes in their COIL course. The goal was to facilitate and investigate student development of social-change-focused leadership and global agency (awareness of and appreciation for cultural diversity; Cress & Van Cleave, 2020) through service-learning activities focused on equity and universal design (the creation of environments and products that are accessible, useable, and inclusive; Cress et al., 2023). As explicated below, this multi-year study drew from the prevailing scholarly literature on leaderful classrooms (Egitim, 2021, 2022) and critical theoretical methodologies for teaching and researching equity-centered service-learning and COIL courses (Cress et al., 2023).

Literature Review

The concepts of global consciousness and global citizenship education have been evolving (Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2020; Landoff et al., 2018). While there is not yet a singular definition, there are some regularly agreed upon themes which include “the ideas of [global] awareness, responsibility, and participation” (Schattle, 2009, p. 17). Similarly, McIntosh (2005) contends that the true markers of global citizenship should emphasize respect, care, and concern for the well-being of others. To that end, Ogden (2010) developed a tripartite description of global citizenship more inclusive of affective and experiential dimensions of engaged learning: social responsibility, global competency, and global civic engagement.

Van Cleave (2013) found that faculty who teach international service-learning courses strived for student learning outcomes in five independent and interrelated competency dimensions: academic, professional, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and intercultural. Emerging from the dynamic intersection of these five dimensions was a new culminating learning outcome, global agency (see Fig. 11.1). The global agency is a form of transformational learning; learning that transforms students' existing perceptions of the world into new forms of consciousness (academic and professional) and critically-informed action (interpersonal, intrapersonal, and intercultural) (Cress & Van Cleave, 2020). The development of global agency requires openness and adaptability in the midst of differences in people, events, and situations.

In essence, global agency is the skills and knowledge needed to engage meaningfully with others from dissimilar cultural backgrounds especially those from different international contexts. As described above, Virtual Exchange and COIL courses (Collaborative On-line International Learning) connect college classrooms located

Fig. 11.1 Global agency development dimensions. *Note* This figure is adapted from Van Cleave’s global agency development dimensions (Van Cleave, 2013)



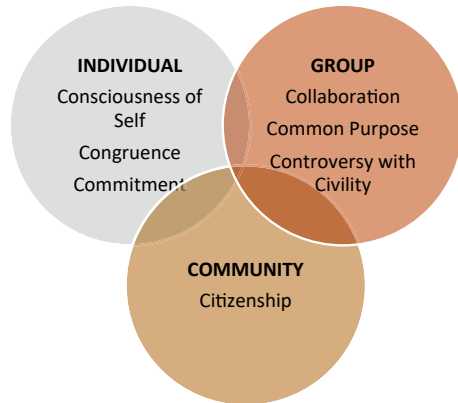
in a different country or cultural setting. The COIL model creates equitable team-taught learning environments where faculty from at least two cultures work together to develop a shared syllabus, emphasizing experiential and collaborative student learning using online and virtual technology toward the realization of student global agency.

Notably, the concept of global agency as a set of skills, knowledge, and motivation for collaborative action is fully consistent with contemporary definitions of social-change-focused leadership. As opposed to traditional notions of leadership as hierarchical, top-down, and driven by privileged socially venerated individuals, college students are now more likely to define social-change-focused leadership as collective efforts to create the meaningful systems of change necessary to move toward “a world that is increasingly peaceful, compassionate, just, inclusive, and verdant” (Clayton et al., 2014, p. 6).

In fact, contemporary conceptualizations of social-change-focused leadership tend to align with equity-centered principles of *epistemic justice* (everyone has a voice and equal opportunity to contribute to decision-making), *critical solidarity* (everyone is a stakeholder in the common vision and process for a change), and *methodological integrity* (everyone has a critical role in working toward equitable transformation) (Cress et al., 2023).

A powerful model for representing constructs of contemporary leadership among student learning, group interactions, and critical engagement is the *Social Change Model of Leadership Development* (Astin & Astin, 1996). Each dimension of leadership informs the others; that is, individuals impact group dynamics and processes, and that dynamic and process affect each individual. The group works in concert to effect positive change in the community, which in turn then affects the group and each individual involved. As such, a key principle of the Social Change Model is that leadership lies within all of us, and its attendant skills are revealed and enhanced in the midst of community engagement (see Fig. 11.2). “Change, in other words, is

Fig. 11.2 Social change model of leadership development. *Note* This figure is adapted from Astin and Astin’s social change model of leadership development (Astin & Astin, 1996)



the ultimate goal of the creative process of leadership—to make a better world and a better society for the self and others” (Astin & Astin, 1996, p. 21).

Social Change Leadership as both a process (pedagogical) and product (student outcome) is congruent with collaborative leadership and leaderful classrooms. Collaborative leadership is a “collective, concurrent, collaborative, and compassionate” endeavor (Raelin, 2021, p. 283) that is based on the premise of sharing leadership with others through the humanistic values of liberty, equity, and justice (Egitim, 2022). Leaderful classrooms are facilitated by teachers who dispense with traditional instructional identities as all-knowing authorities and instead create psychologically-safe learning communities that empathetically promote shared power, inclusive contributions, and reflective practice amongst students (Egitim, 2021).

Leaderful classrooms provide the learning environment for student development of both global agency and social-change-focused leadership. Toward those outcomes, professors at Reitaku University in Japan and Portland State University in Oregon, U.S.A., collaborated to teach COIL. The goal was to facilitate and investigate student social change leadership and global agency development through leaderful classroom pedagogies where service-learning activities helped focus educational processes and products using the concepts of community equity and inclusive universal design. (Universal design considers a broad range of personal characteristics in the inclusive design of educational products and environments including gender, race and ethnicity, age, stature, disability, and learning style as a way to pragmatically realize aspects of individual, social, and community equity; Burgstahler, 2020).

Ideally, COIL and service-learning courses operationalize the principles and pedagogy of leaderful classrooms (Egitim, 2022) by shifting the educational paradigm from the teacher as the sole source of knowledge and expertise to a shared sense of contributory leadership by students and community alike. These social and relational dynamics create a participatory learning environment where teachers, students, and community members can meaningfully co-construct learning engagement experiences and collectively take leadership in equity-centered knowledge creation.

In particular, such leaderful classroom approaches engage students in complex community challenges that promote the acquisition of course content, enhanced intellectual development, and a shared sense of responsibility for the democratic welfare of others (Jacoby, 2015). Moreover, learning communities focused on equity-centered community engagement support student efficacy through civic identity development (Guram et al., 2020) and a fundamental student transformational shift from involvement to influence (Mansperger et al., 2020) through shared decision-making and negotiation regarding the class structure, learning activities, reflective processes, and developmental outcomes (Egitim, 2021).

Importantly, distinctive pedagogical differences between traditional classrooms, leaderful classrooms, and COIL courses must be considered concerning experiential and problem-based learning, team, and group collaboration, sharing of instructional space and educational privileges, cultural and gender-related interaction expectations, technological access and expertise across classrooms, colleges, and countries. Therefore, having a framework to drive discussions and decision-making in COIL design and to return to as a curricular guide if issues arise is a critical educational strategy for mediating cultural differences, cultivating critical reciprocity between COIL partnerships, and facilitating equity-centered student outcomes such as social change leadership and global agency (Cress et al., 2023).

Thus, the professors collaboratively utilized a tripartite educational framework, Pedagogical and Epistemological Model for Global Agency Development (Cress & Van Cleave, 2020), for designing and teaching their COIL course as a way to embrace and explicate leaderful classrooms in trying to promote student development of global agency and social change leadership. Specifically, the pedagogical framework for the COIL course included three dynamic educational dimensions that are explained below: Preparation, Praxis, and Progression (see Fig. 11.3).

The first pedagogical dimension, Preparation (initial COIL course construction), involved the creation of learning objectives under the larger outcomes of social-change-focused leadership and global agency. As well, Bloom et al.'s (1956) taxonomy and other constructivist learning theories (e.g., Kegan, 2000; Kolb, 1984; Mezirow, 2003; Vygotsky, 1978) informed faculty selection of course content and class activities to align with course objectives that were inclusive of the domains of cognitive, affective, and psychomotor skills that progressed from relatively simplistic to more complex in scaffolding student sophistication of knowledge and skill development. For example, readings and short lectures (during the synchronous class meetings) exposed students to issues of equity, universal design, and community solidarity within service-learning contexts.

Importantly, the concepts of critical service-learning (Mitchell, 2008) and learner-centered instruction (Benson & Voller, 2014; Cress, 2004) were the key educational principles in course preparation which guided the professors in leaderful decision-making (Egitim, 2022) in COIL design. Critical service learning is characterized by a social-justice orientation, redistribution of traditional power, and development of authentic relationships. This includes a critique of society and culture in order to reveal and challenge inequities and offer potential leverage points for collective change. For example, students engaged in large and small group discussions about

Fig. 11.3 Pedagogical and epistemological model for global agency development. *Note* This figure is adapted from Cress and Van Cleave’s pedagogical and epistemological model for global agency development (Cress & Van Cleave, 2020)



experiences of inequity, access, universal design, and discrimination issues (either the self or others) based on perceptions of ability and disability.

Learner-centered instruction is fostered through the teacher’s willingness to let go of power while providing scaffolding and structure to learners (Benson & Voller, 2014; Cress et al., 2013a, 2013b). Interactive, relational, and collaborative processes that encourage genuine engagement of followers as initiators as opposed to passive recipients (Laal, 2013) shift the teacher from knowledge provider to learning facilitator. Socio-cultural learning theories emphasize the importance of instructional scaffolding where academic guidance from teachers and interactions with peers (classmates) support learners in developing increasingly complex knowledge and skills (Bloom et al., 1956). Vygotsky (1978) asserted that metacognitive learning is best facilitated through group and peer interactions that bring into reality abstract concepts and ideas. In this case for each class, students were divided by the professors into intercultural teams of 4–5 individuals that balanced English language levels, gender, and cultural backgrounds. The teams were provided discussion prompts (e.g., share about a previous volunteer experience) and activity prompts (e.g., use the online discussion board to brainstorm possible community engagement activities), but team autonomy in the separate *Zoom* break-out rooms allowed for the identification of collective talents and shared common purposes consistent with the Social Change Model of Leadership (Astin & Astin, 1996).

The second pedagogical dimension, Praxis (applying theory to activities), focused on instructional strategies for operationalizing the course theoretical frameworks in further supporting individual student growth and realization of class and community outcomes; namely, socially-focused leadership and global agency. Praxis pedagogical principles and activities were identified and extracted from key educational

resources in the service-learning field (Cress et al., 2013a, 2013b, 2023; Yamashita et al., 2021). For example, students were educated on the four conceptual phases of small-group development (forming, storming, norming, performing; Collier & Voegele, 2013) which were paired with reflective and experiential activities (e.g., sharing with a group a cultural artifact of personal meaning) to facilitate the creation of cross-cultural COIL community engagement teams, identification of the teams' equity and universal design community engagement projects (e.g., translating emergency signage in public spaces from Japanese to English), and collaborative strategies for engaging and completing the projects (e.g., using universal design concepts to create hotel room floor plans to increase wheelchair user accessibility).

The third pedagogical dimension, Progression, is about making meaning of the experience—how are things, including individuals, different or not? In other words, what was learned? What changes and revisions need to be made? And, what can be leveraged in the future to create more leaderful cross-cultural class collaborations? Formative assessment involved the review of student written feedback on current class and team processes. For example, students wrote a “minute paper” during class about their what they had learned, what was confusing or disconcerting, and what they hoped/suggested for future classes. The minute paper allowed professors to make, as needed, weekly adjustments to course content and activities (such as including additional content explanations in universal design concepts). These actions are congruent with leaderful classroom assessment practices such as “action logs” (Murphey, 2021); a reflective practice which provides students with an open platform to evaluate class activities. The student comments create an opportunity for reflection allowing teachers to view students through an empathetic lens in order to respond to their needs more effectively (Egitim, 2022). For example, the professors were able to generally assess whether students were equally contributing and sharing leadership responsibility within their intercultural teams, if there was any personality conflict or intercultural misunderstanding, and then intervene, if needed, with individuals or teams.

Summative assessment (end of course) involved the collection of quantitative and qualitative data from students about the course processes and student outcomes. This allowed professors to consider larger course revisions for subsequent terms and is the basis for this specific research inquiry.

Method

This study sought to address: What theory-to-practice leaderful instructional strategies appear to best support students' development of social-change-focused leadership and global agency? As explicated above, professors at Reitaku University in Japan and Portland State University in Oregon, U.S.A., collaborated to design and teach COIL using *Leaderful Classroom Practices* (Egitim, 2022). This investigation focused on leaderful pedagogical and service-learning elements associated with the facilitation of student leadership skills and global agency development using

a participatory case study methodology. The participatory case study methodology explored how professors from the participating universities and students experienced the program. The participatory case study, a combination of case study and participatory research, is an innovative method for studying participants' perspectives in all phases of a research process in community-based courses.

As such, this is not a traditional research inquiry. While quantitative survey data were prepared as descriptive statistics, qualitative data were not strictly condensed and codified into discrete thematic categories for analytical purposes. Moreover, the inquiry was not intended to serve as an exemplar of evidence-based theory testing. Rather, as a comprehensive scholarly methodology, the purpose was to conjoin multiple data points and conceptual research paradigms that align with specific ethnographic and phenomenological experiences for a particular program (Cress & Van Cleave, 2020).

Indeed, the methodological and epistemological point is to break free from traditional positivist boundaries of research in order to identify innovative, but evidence-based frameworks for community engagement. This approach is concurrent with self-identified "community engagement practitioner-scholars;" educators involved in pedagogical forms of experiential and service-learning who utilize various research, conceptual, and theoretical approaches in crafting their courses and programs for specific outcomes in learning, leadership, and community impact (Dostilio, 2017; Militello, et al., 2017; Post, et al., 2016). Moreover, this approach emulates leaderful classroom assessment (Egitim, 2022) which serves to empower students by openly soliciting feedback to identify necessary iterative changes for improving teaching, learning, and engagement experiences.

Specifically, quantitative and qualitative data were collected from four academic course years (2019, 2020, 2021, and 2022). The total number of students ($n = 60$) represented: 38 women and 22 men; 18 American students, 33 Japanese students, and 8 students from other Asian and European countries enrolled at Reitaku University as international students. Quantitative data included Likert-type course surveys that queried students about learning outcome gains on leadership and global agency development as well as effectiveness rating of pedagogical activities. Qualitative data included students' written weekly reflections and comments on the end-of-course surveys, group presentations (PowerPoint slides), ongoing observations of student group interactions in the weekly *Zoom* meeting, and instructor reflections and notes.

Finally, as a participatory case study, the data collection and analysis process reinforced professorial reciprocity; a value central to leaderful practices in co-constructed and co-taught courses. O'Meara and Rice (2005) define reciprocity as a genuine collaboration that is multidirectional in the sharing of expertise and benefits. Reciprocity implies a mutuality of common goals, shared accountability, equality of leadership and voice, and realization of beneficial outcomes (Clayton et al., 2010; Cress et al., 2015). Additionally, Torres (2000), outlined three stages in developing reciprocal partnerships: Designing the Partnership; Building the Collaborative Relationship; and Sustaining the Partnership. Specifically, the professors first independently reviewed and analyzed the collective quantitative and qualitative dataset in

the identification of *Leaderful Classroom Practices* associated with facilitation of student leadership skills and global agency development. Next, they collaboratively compared their own pedagogical thematic analysis with one another. Following, they analyzed their collective pedagogical strategies in comparison with the principles and pedagogy of leaderful classrooms (Egitim, 2022). Thus, the methodology allowed for collaborative analysis, authentic dialogue, and co-constructed thematic categorization of the results.

Results

Two sets of results emerged from the multi-year analysis of COIL courses in investigating the relationship between leaderful classroom strategies and student outcomes. First, the data demonstrated that the COIL courses facilitated student development of social-change-focused leadership and global agency. Second, the data revealed three pedagogical strategies consistent with leaderful classrooms that served to support those student learning outcomes.

Quantitative (Likert-type survey) and qualitative (short written responses) data demonstrated clear evidence that the COIL courses facilitate student development of the two key learning outcomes: Social-Change-Focused Leadership and Global Agency. As explicated earlier, the concept of social-change-focused leadership draws from the literature on “collaborative leadership” (Egitim, 2022; Raelin, 2021) in terms of the principles of liberty, equity, and justice as a process of shared leadership and from a model of “social change leadership” (Astin & Astin, 1996) that is based on democratic individual and group knowledge and skill contributions for larger community goals. The concept of global agency is defined as new forms of civic and community consciousness that lead to critically informed action on behalf of equity and social justice (Cress et al., 2023).

Specifically, 95% of all students agreed on the end of course survey that as a result of participating in the COIL course, their social-change-focused leadership knowledge and skills were enhanced. (While the data were not anonymous, they were analyzed following grade posting.)

As an illustration of this leadership outcome, students’ written comments included:

I learned that leadership and communication styles differ across cultures and this affects how we work individually and in teams. I had to reflect on myself about when to initiate and when to step back in order to support the productivity of the team and also to support each individual’s unique contribution to the larger community goals. The experience changed my life perspectives on what it means to lead and work in a diverse team. (Japanese student)

The learning community and teamwork gave me the chance to speak out, describe my ideas, and feel respect from others for my proposals. When we shared ideas together, I improved my teamwork leadership skills. I learned to listen to other people’s ideas and collaborate to make good decisions. (Japanese student)

There was an environment of trust where people worked together to have common goals, create opportunities for reflection, engage in dialogue, and were accountable for results. The scope of the learning community allowed for a wide range of leadership roles and skill-building opportunities. (American student)

Additionally, 90% of the students agreed that the COIL course enhanced the development of their global agency:

I would like to participate in society as a global agent. I would like to do something similar to what I did for the theme of this project. It is not just about regional development, but I would like to connect it overseas and engage in creative activities that can revitalize each other's regions and cities. (Japanese student)

I want to be a person who can contribute to society by working with people around the world as a global human resource. Being a person who can contribute to society is about creating the most equitable environment for people to live in. (European international student)

The second set of findings from this study revealed three critical pedagogical strategies that supported student development of social-change-focused leadership and global agency. Namely: (1) forming inclusive learning communities; (2) facilitating critical consciousness through layered reflection; and (3) focusing on collaborative change for the common good. As will be discussed, these educational approaches align with and extend the original pedagogical dimensions of preparation, praxis, and progression utilized by the faculty to develop the COIL course. Importantly, these best-practice instructional techniques mirror and operationalize the characteristics and strategies of leaderful classrooms (Egitim, 2022).

Discussion

The data analysis revealed three critical pedagogical strategies that supported student development of social-change-focused leadership and global agency: (1) forming inclusive learning communities; (2) facilitating critical consciousness through praxis and layered reflection; and (3) focusing on collaborative change for the common good. While the inquiry was not intended as model testing, the thematic COIL pedagogical strategies and related teaching and learning activities explicated below coalesce into a pragmatic illustration that can guide future leaderful classroom design and educational processes (see Fig. 11.4).

Forming Inclusive Learning Communities

The first pedagogical strategy is central to class preparatory design and course initiation process (Cress & Van Cleave, 2020). *Forming inclusive learning communities*

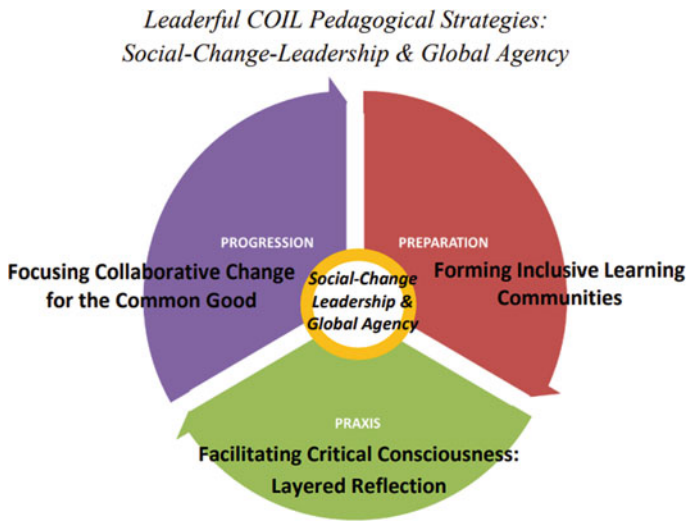


Fig. 11.4 Leaderful COIL pedagogical strategies: social-change-leadership and global agency

is dependent upon leaderful classrooms that create psychologically-safe and empathetic learning environments including the recognition and (as possible) elimination of personal power differentials (Egitim, 2022). This is the educational basis for creating inclusive learning environments that support students' developmental outcomes.

In this case, each COIL team included a combination of PSU students (who were enrolled in a master's level Service-Learning for Educational Leadership class) and Reitaku University students (who were enrolled in an undergraduate level Intercultural Communications class). Importantly, Reitaku University students were not only Japanese, but included international students from European and other Asian countries. PSU students were ethnically diverse American students.

During the first COIL class meeting, students (and the professors) showed and explained a "cultural artifact;" an object that was personally meaningful and could be used to describe a cultural tradition, norm, or belief. For example, a Reitaku University student showed and shared about *onigiri*, Japanese rice balls, that he eats to energize himself during tennis tournaments. A Portland State University student showed and shared about her star of David necklace that represents her Jewish family and religious community.

Each subsequent COIL class meeting included a *cultural check-in activity* to increase cultural understanding and unity. These types of educational activities are known to support international students' academic engagement and satisfaction since they provide direct opportunities for contributing one's sense of self to the learning process (Ammigan, 2019; Stewart & Kim, 2021). Narrative exchanges act on cognition and behavior starting from feeling states which become the basis for emotional exchange and promotion of mutual understanding, respect, and the fostering of

empathy (Bennett & Bennett, 2004; Yamashita, 2022). In fact, three-fourths (75%) of the students later indicated on the end of course survey that these activities enhanced their sense of cultural understanding and lessened their psych-social distance from others so that they felt more comfortable interacting with their teammates.

Bennett (1998) argues that empathy, not sympathy, is the key to intercultural understanding. Sympathy is compassion based on how we would think and feel if we were in another person's position or situation, while empathy is how we imagine another person's thoughts and feelings from their perspective (Wispe, 1968). Empathy is the ability to read emotions and is a basic skill for building good relationships and teaching altruism (Fukuda, 2008). In other words, by nurturing intercultural empathy, a caring heart is more likely to take active approaches on behalf of others which, in turn, fosters social-change-focused leadership skills for the common good.

Specifically, consistent with leaderful classrooms that build epistemological engagement from a foundation of empathetic learning, student teams brainstormed projects that can support individuals with disabilities in the community including analysis of cultural, physical, and policy barriers that impede access, universal design, and equal opportunity. For example, students demonstrated empathetic learning in describing to the class their assessment of train platform accessibility through a universal design lens regarding physical challenges for people who are blind or in wheelchairs. The teams then worked collaboratively and inclusively to outline the necessary structural, organizational, educational, programmatic, health, and resource components needed for their projects and/or interventions.

COIL assignments and activities also scrutinized constructs of charity and volunteerism and contrasted these with examples of empathy and equity-centered critical reciprocity and solidarity from the service-learning literature and instructor-selected YouTube video content. Pedagogically, this strategy had a multiplier effect as teams sought critical reciprocity with each other individually, within teams, within the COIL course, and with individuals in the larger community both on and off campus. For instance, one team interviewed student wheelchair users about their college experiences and collaboratively engaged them in assessing classroom desks, meal and food service operations, and library resources access.

Indeed, students came to learn that relational trust was a critical factor in supporting team innovation and effectiveness in creating universal design interventions for addressing community mobility inequalities. Specifically, teams demonstrated empathetic praxis by conceiving projects to support wheelchair users and visually-impaired individuals with utilizing public restrooms; having access to universal design-based hotel rooms; and pictogram public signage that could be read and understood across cultures and physical impairment. In summary, fostering inclusive learning communities created an open, democratic, and participatory learning environment (Egitim, 2022) as the foundation for developing social-change-leadership and global efficacy in the COIL leaderful classrooms.

Facilitating Critical Consciousness Through Layered Reflection

The second pedagogical strategy that nurtures social change-focused-leadership and global agency development is a transformational learning shift from students as knowledge receivers to students as knowledge co-constructors (Freire, 1970). Dewey (1938) argued that facilitating critical reflection, or reflective thinking, is the key to whether an experience is educative and creates learning. The premise of reflective practice requires active and conscious processing of thoughts, feelings, and beliefs including analysis, synthesis, and metacognition (thinking about your thinking), in order to gain deeper insights that lead to action (Merriam et al., 2020). Daloz Parks (2000) describes this transformational examination of individual and group critical consciousness as a distinctive mode of meaning-making where students “become critically aware of one’s own composing of reality” (p. 6).

Importantly, failing to provide students with a critical analysis of power and inequalities primarily benefits students at the expense of the communities with which they engage (Butin, 2010). Critical awareness of the political and cultural positioning of community engagement is crucial to non-exploitative educational practice (Asghar & Rowe, 2016).

Eyler et al. (1996), identified four characteristics of reflection that enhance critical consciousness: Continuous; Connected; Challenging; and Contextualized. The professors engaged students in multiple modalities of layered reflection each week and across the COIL course including discussion, reflective writing, and short video creation. The reflection activities were also designed to mirror Van Cleave’s (2013) five competency dimensions of global agency (academic, professional, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and intercultural).

For example, after reviewing course content, students were asked to respond in writing and then share their thoughts verbally to reflective prompts: The Japanese word *Fujiyuu* includes the following words in English: inconvenience, disability, discomfort, and destitution. Perhaps you have experienced discrimination based on your perceived ability or maybe you have a family member or friend who faces access or equity issues. What have your own experiences been like in your culture with issues of disability and universal design? Thus, layered critical reflection facilitated the key outcomes in operationalizing a leaderful classroom inclusive of reflective practice (Egitim, 2022).

Focusing on Collaborative Change for the Common Good

The third pedagogical strategy further codified learning as an iterative collective experience and provided students with opportunities for communally negotiating *Leaderful Classroom Practices* that can affect community improvement. As noted above, formative assessment is a continual improvement process in aligning learning

goals, pedagogy, feedback, and outcomes. When learners receive timely feedback on their performance and progress, students are empowered to adjust their learning processes, maintain their motivation and engagement, and are more likely to achieve individual and class objectives and learning outcomes (Acheson et al., 2021).

Moreover, formative assessment check-ins with students modeled instructional empathy as part of leaderful classrooms and became an effective factor in individual and team support. As Himichi (2016) indicated, “Empathy is one of the most important concepts in social life because it helps us understand the emotional and mental states of others and encourages us to act accordingly” (p. 38). For example, one student confessed in a minute paper that they felt uneasy about how to contribute their ideas to the team and the project. The professors were able to address in the next class session general (and anonymous) student feelings of cross-cultural anxiety, disappointment, and apathy that could potential undermine individual and team performance. Indeed, briefly addressing students’ fears highlighted in the minute papers helped to normalize cross-cultural anxiety and supported their courage to speak when language competence was a concern. Thus, formative assessment processes allowed for communal empathy of experiences as well as adaptation of assignments and individual and team assistance with progression toward projects.

Summative assessment is usually described as a methodological technique that focuses on the end products or outcomes of such experiences. For example, having students rate themselves on a Likert scale regarding perceived growth in leadership skills or global agency development. Significantly, however, is that in addition to capturing outcomes data, summative processes can further the progression of learning outcomes since students must reflect upon what they did and what they learned. Essentially, summative (as well as formative) assessment can further leverage critical consciousness about strategies for navigating cultural differences.

For instance, team final presentations (as a summation of their learning processes and explanation of their project intervention) required critical analysis of community and organizational elements that would be necessary if the interventions were actually implemented. As another example, Professor Yamashita at the end of the course invited students to pick from a selection of 200 photos of images of people, nature, objects, and living things that metaphorically represented students’ individual knowledge, experience, or state of mind before and after the COIL activity in order to illustrate their self-described transformation from the COIL experiences. In addition to articulating growth in intercultural communication, critical consciousness, and global agency, students highlighted their motivations and leadership intentions for involving themselves again in community improvement efforts including future aims to participate in initiatives that help people around the world. Thus, focusing on collaborative change for the common good operationalized the values of leaderful classrooms (liberty, equity, and justice; Egitim, 2022) in supporting students’ social change leadership and global agency.

Conclusion

A multiplicity of logistical, educational, and cultural challenges can deter any well-intentioned COIL effort, but the hope is that the pedagogical strategies offered here will prove fruitful for other COIL faculty looking for ideas to cultivate student development of cognitive, affective, and behavioral skills no matter than institutional type, academic discipline, or cultural community. Essentially, course elements must be informed by the epistemological processes of learning; that is, how are students making meaning of their intercultural experiences (Lee & Williams, 2017)? In summary, for COIL classes to become leaderful catalysts for students' transformed global agency and the development of social-focused leadership skills, courses must intentionally and appropriately: form inclusive learning communities; facilitate critical consciousness through layered reflection; and focus on collaborative change for the common good.

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Miki Yamashita, EdD, is a Professor in the Faculty of Global Studies at Reitaku University in Chiba, Japan. Her scholarship focuses on leadership studies and intercultural communication. Using forms of service-learning and virtual exchange in small groups, such as narrative exchange in a Human Library, she listens to people with various experiences and backgrounds and seeks to create connections between them.

Christine Cress, Ph.D., is a Professor of Educational Leadership and Service Learning at Portland State University in Portland, Oregon, USA. Her scholarship focuses on pedagogical strategies, intercultural communication, and using forms of problem-based, virtual exchange, and service-learning to facilitate student knowledge and skill development, and create community capacity-building.

Chapter 12

Towards a ‘Leaderful’ Sustainable Development: An Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis of Japanese Education



Travis H. Past and Michael D. Smith

Abstract Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) represents a key feature of the United Nations’ Sustainable Development Goals. Indeed, Japan, ESD’s country of origin, positions itself as a forerunner for embedding sustainability within pedagogy; yet, these efforts remain stifled by a cultural adherence to ‘transmissive’ hierarchical practice. Against this background, leaderful classroom pedagogy’s emphasis on collaboration shared responsibility, and empathy emerges as a viable alternative to top-down leadership models, particularly within the context of ESD. Accordingly, an interpretative phenomenological analysis was undertaken with Japanese university students attending a global studies program. Through semi-structured interviewing, participants shared and reflected on their lived experiences of leadership and sustainability, with findings indicating that hierarchical leadership structures hinder the egalitarian, student-orientated approach deemed prototypical to ESD and, thus, opportunities to inhabit *meaningful* leadership roles. While leaderful practitioners face considerable challenges when attempting to uproot leadership models firmly ingrained in the teacher-leader student-follower duology, we posit that the relationship between ESD and leaderful classroom pedagogy is mutually beneficial. ESD requires the transformative essence of leaderful practice, and leaderful practice, perhaps, needs the altruism of sustainability to supplant dominant power structures.

Keywords Education for sustainable development · Sustainable development goals · Leaderful pedagogy · Sustainability · Japan

T. H. Past (✉)
Kyoto Sangyo University, Kyoto, Japan
e-mail: thpast@cc.kyoto-su.ac.jp

M. D. Smith
Kobe University, Kobe, Japan
e-mail: Michael.dean.smith@people.kobe-u.ac.jp

Nagata (2017) depicts Japan as an exemplar of incorporating education for sustainable development (ESD) within mainstream policy. Nomura and Abe (2010), too, describe the robust promotion of sustainability within higher education settings. Yet, discrepancies between Japanese ESD and its interdisciplinary models of best practice remain. Jodojin (2020), for instance, calls for a democratic *student-centered* approach, one that, in keeping with the cognitive skills necessary for real-world problem-solving, promotes critical thinking and “strengthening self-reliance and self-direction in the learning process” (Barth et al., 2007, p. 420). Additionally, ESD necessitates a shift from ‘transmissive’ learning environments to ones with a communicative, experiential focus (Jodojin, 2020). However, the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology’s (MEXT) reliance on Confucian pedagogic norms, exemplified by its emphasis on “power distance and hierarchy between superiors and subordinates” (Egitim, 2021, p. 3), serves to dilute the learner-orientated dynamism prototypical to ESD. Indeed, a United Nations (UN) evaluative report noted that, despite Japan’s position at the forefront of ESD advocacy, the nation “is not further advanced in its practice of adopting progressive methodologies or holistic ESD approaches” (Didham & Ofei-Manu, 2012, p. 33).

It may be argued that while Japan demonstrates a willingness to invest in ESD, its pedagogic norms, by their very nature, hinder dynamic leadership amongst learners. This shallow ESD necessitates not only a critical exploration of student experience but, if meaningful progress towards deep ESD is to be made, an alternative paradigm—one correlating directly with ESD’s baseline for student-orientated practice. In this regard, *Leaderful Classroom Pedagogy’s* empathetic lens, whereby safe and responsive learning environments inspire learner voice and introspection, emerges as a viable alternative to Japan’s teacher-centric model (Didham & Ofei-Manu, 2012). *Leaderful Classroom Practices* begin with teachers critically re-evaluating their leadership identities and recognizing how they impact classroom practices. Such self-examination enables practitioners to build deeper empathy for their students and begets meaningful sharing of power and leadership roles with students (Egitim, 2021). Indeed, the collaborative essence of leaderful pedagogy, drawing on a “shared vision and values, interdependence and shared responsibility, mutual respect, empathy, and willingness to be vulnerable, ambiguity, effective communication, and synergy” (Lawrence, 2018, p. 91), positions leadership not as the dominion of a sole, transmissive educator, but of the *collective*. Thus, by incorporating dialectical practice and a shared “ideology of democratic participation by all involved actors” (Raelin, 2021, p. 388) more directly within ESD, we believe leaderful classroom pedagogy offers, perhaps, the most authentic means of inducing sustainability’s demand for shared action.

Building on exploratory research by Past (2022), this inquiry proposes an idiographic examination of college-level Japanese students’ leadership experiences in sustainability. Specifically, we draw on *interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA)* to chart the lived cultural, societal, and historical conditions embedded within Japanese efforts at ESD and education more broadly. Consistent with the mission of this volume, we also seek to understand *how* our learners receive leadership. By considering lived experiences of ESD, we hope to engage the next generation

of Japanese graduates in progressive actions that may be taken with them in their future endeavors. In this sense, the mobilization of leadership as a collective agency remains fundamental to sustainability and a more open and progressive society in general. With this intent in view, we seek to answer calls by By (2021) and Raelin (2021) to raise consciousness regarding the possibilities of pluralistic leadership practice in ESD. Additionally, in assessing our learners’ presumptive leadership roles, we seek to critically appraise Japanese leadership dynamics as part of a dual-hermeneutic process, highlighting opportunities for more equitable power-sharing among educators and students.

Background

Education for Sustainable Development as a Means of Enacting Collaborative Leadership Practice

The value of ESD to collaborative leadership is, at this stage, well substantiated. Echoing the open, democratic, and participatory framework scaffolding this volume, Akiyama et al. (2012) note an obligatory recognition of learner perspective if educators are to embed effectual leadership practices within ESD. Notwithstanding Japan’s promotion of sustainability (Jodoin, 2020), the culture’s long-held association with Confucianism’s top-down educational doctrine impedes its ability to engender leaderful pedagogy (Egitim, 2022). MEXT (2016a) provides an official guide for promoting ESD, incorporating leadership as its foundational principle, yet, its focus on “strong leadership *on the part of teachers*¹” (p. 10) remains telling. Nomura and Abe (2010), too, suggest “encouraging leadership development for sustainability amongst university executive staff members” (p. 120)—but what of the *learner*? Truthfully, MEXT (2016b) routinely communicates a policy-level dedication to training the “next generation of leaders and innovators” (p. 9) through an intersection of ESD and global HE (Smith, 2022). However, there is scant literature (whether in Japanese or English) communicating *how* the State seeks to realize this ambition. MEXT rhetoric proposing leadership development in Japanese adolescents thereby faces persistent criticism for its ambiguity (Smith & Samuell, 2022).

Consequently, there exists a striking gap between Japanese ESD policy and practice, one that we believe leaderful pedagogy holds the potential to bridge. By (2021) and Raelin (2021) outline the potential of ESD in this regard, with the latter calling for “enabling structures that support democratic and emancipatory processes that spur the reflexivity of any practice to preserve a sustainable future” (Raelin, 2021, p. 388). By (2021), meanwhile, notes how, in contrast to leadership securing individual power, the concept should be reframed in terms of its synergistic contribution to an internal (or common) good—’ exemplified by sustainable development as

¹ Emphasis added.

operationalized through the UN's SDGs' (By, 2021, p. 35). Certainly, if Japanese graduates are to emerge as global leaders (MEXT, 2016b), it follows that university students in the here and now orientate their worldviews not only toward collaborative efforts for sustainability, but the egalitarian practices required to realize this goal. From this perspective, leadership in ESD is not the responsibility of a privileged few educators, but the many learners positioned to engage in future collective action. We believe that minimizing power differences and engendering learner agency, collaboration, and introspection through leaderful classroom practice will be central to this process.

Methodology

Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis

Following this study's idiographic focus, IPA explores subjective lived experiences and, more pertinently, meaning-making resulting from said experiences. In this sense, IPA understands social actors as "actively engaged in interpreting the events, objects and people in their lives" (Smith & Eatough, 2012, p. 441). Drawing on Husserlian phenomenological reduction, IPA necessitates a stripping away of researcher judgment through *bracketing* or efforts to suspend preconceptions through reflection. Yet, in doing so, IPA also recognizes the inevitability of bias, viewing it not as an impediment to interpretation but in keeping with the Gadamerian hermeneutic extension of phenomenology, something that may be engaged with "fruitfully for the purpose of understanding" (Eatough & Smith, 2017, p. 195). For Gadamer, such interpretation presents as a fundamental condition for *Being*; engagement with texts allows us to understand how lived experience comes to be understood within the socio-historical context in which it is located. Thus, in attempting to make sense of a participant's meaning-making, researchers engage in a two-stage interpretative process, or *double hermeneutic*. Ultimately, this two-fold structure of IPA proposes that "without the phenomenology, there would be nothing to interpret; without the hermeneutics, the phenomenon would not be seen" (Smith et al., 2009, p. 37).

Sampling and Participants

IPA inquiries draw on homogenous samples wherein participants share closely-defined characteristics (Smith et al., 2009). Consequently, IPA studies are generally conducted on limited sample sizes, with the final number of participants determined by the broader goals of the research. By its idiographic nature, IPA is not *necessarily* concerned with transferable findings. Smith (1999) argues that it is more important "to find levels of analysis which enable us to see patterns across

Table 12.1 Participant Demographic Information

Name	Gender	Age	Years of ESD	Public/private high school
1 Takuto	Male	22	3	Public
2 Miki	Female	21	6	Private
3 Akane	Female	20	6	Private
4 Junna	Female	20	2	Public
5 Shota	Male	21	1	Public
6 Nanae	Female	21	6	Private

Note. All participants are referred to using pseudonyms.

case studies while still recognizing the particularities of the individual lives from which those patterns emerge” (p. 424). Saturation is achieved when meaningful points of comparison and contrast between participant accounts are identified; thus, given IPA’s focus on shared phenomena, participants must be selected purposively rather than through probability (Smith et al., 2009). IPA holds no preference for a minimum number of interviewees, simply a concern that each account undergoes sufficient scrutiny (Smith & Eatough, 2012). In the present context, the researchers drew on their business English classes to source Japanese university students with experience in ESD, specifically third-and-fourth-year international studies majors studying at a private university in Western Japan. Learners in these sessions demonstrated English proficiency to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) standard of B2–C1 (upper-intermediate to advanced), a guideline commonly used to estimate foreign language aptitude within higher education locally (see: Giordano, 2021). Additionally, participants had, at this stage, participated in ESD—whether in their secondary or tertiary education and/or as an extra-curricular activity. Participants in these sessions demonstrated English proficiency to a CEFR standard of B2–C1 (upper-intermediate to advanced) and had, at this stage, participated in ESD—whether in their secondary or tertiary education and/or as an extra-curricular activity. To emphasize meaning-making and a commitment to IPA’s dual phenomenological-hermeneutic basis, a mix of six male and female participants were drawn from the faculty’s seven business English classes, with each learner belonging to a different group in an attempt to ensure epistemic diversity in participant perspective and experience (Egitim, 2021). Participant demographic data is presented below in Table 12.1.

Interview Protocols

Before interviewing, verbal and written informed consent was secured from each participant, who was reassured that any reply would have no bearing on their ongoing education and that all responses would be treated as anonymous and confidential. To

provide participants with the opportunity to be fully informed of the nature and implications of the project, all information, consent, and interview documents were multi-lingual Japanese-English. To further ensure ethical human subject protocol, interviewees could withdraw at any phase before data analysis and, in an attempt to disrupt the hegemonic educator-student dynamic, were encouraged to set the language, locations, and times of all sessions. Additionally, to protect their identity, learners were referred to by pseudonyms in all research notes, analyses, and writing. Once safeguarding criteria were fulfilled, face-to-face interviewing followed the semi-structured format deemed exemplary of IPA (Eatough & Smith, 2017). These audio-recorded sessions lasted for 60–90 min and employed non-directive techniques to invoke a natural style that encouraged open communication; this included employing a flexible interview guide, minimal note-taking, and a preference for organic conversation and non-dichotomous questions. Here, the researchers took a maieutic stance, minimizing disruptions to conversational flow unless necessary.

Data Analysis

This inquiry employed Smith et al.'s (2009) adapted seven-step methodological framework for IPA (Fig. 12.1). Crucial to effective IPA practice is the verbatim transcription of each learner's audio-recorded account, which, ideally, allows "The words of the participants to become alive and lead the inductive and iterative process" (Bartoli, 2020, p. 1012). Before proceeding to step 1, each "semantic record" (Smith et al., 2009, p. 78) was returned to its respective participant to confirm its accuracy. Following verification, data analysis observed the process detailed below in Fig. 12.1, which involved the researchers immersing themselves in individual transcripts ahead of coding and analysis. Seeking to honor the individuality of each case, the researchers repeated steps 1–4 (Fig. 12.1) for all transcripts, being cautious to bracket previously-identified themes when doing so. Only then was it possible to identify patterns of shared and idiosyncratic higher-order qualities across cases and, in turn, deepen the analysis by connecting findings to the existing literature. Finally, all conclusions drawn from the interview transcripts were shared with their respective participants for validation.

Results

This study sought to investigate the general state of ESD in Japan and the potential of leaderful classroom pedagogy for occasioning more meaningful practice. Upon completing the IPA steps detailed above, the primary and secondary themes depicted in Fig. 12.2 emerged, reflecting participant experiences of leadership and ESD, as conveyed in their testimonies.

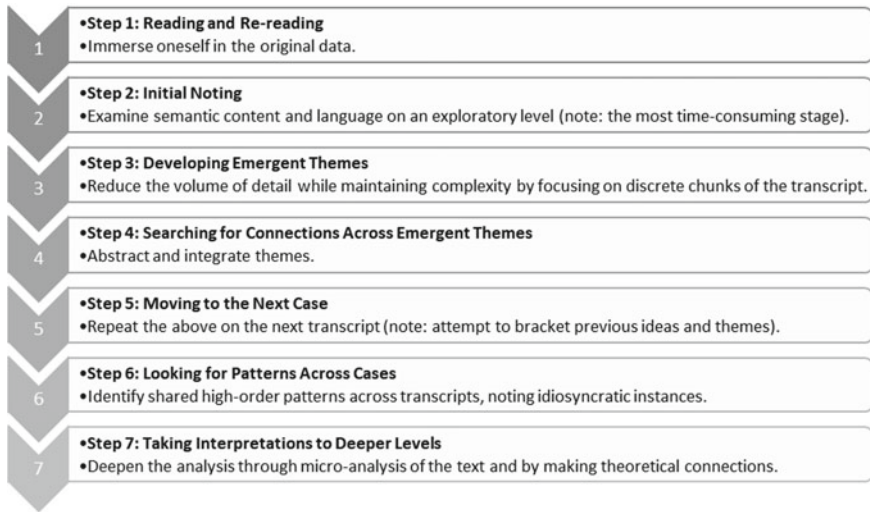


Fig. 12.1 The seven steps of IPA. Note Adapted from Smith et al. (2009)

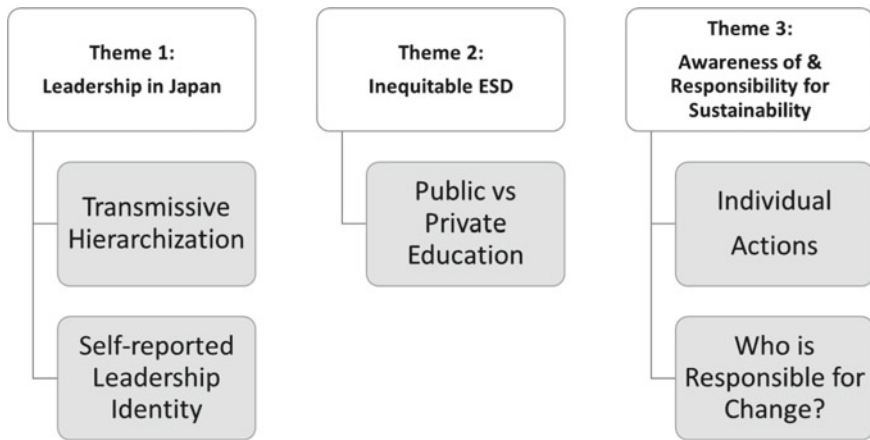


Fig. 12.2 Illustration of emergent themes. Note Consistent with the seven steps of IPA, emergent themes were developed by consulting interview transcripts and, in turn, integrated on the principal and secondary levels

Theme 1: Leadership in Japan

The initial theme emerging from the data was the participants’ generalized view of leadership practices in Japan. Specifically, participants drew from their experiences in classrooms, clubs, part-time jobs, and internships to shed light on the power-sharing culture locally. Under the umbrella of leadership in Japan, two secondary themes

emerged: transmissive hierarchization, wherein students reflected on leaders who both do and do not fit the mould of the hierarchical leadership valued in Confucian society and self-reported leadership identity, where students considered personal experiences and leadership identities.

Transmissive Hierarchization

When speaking on their experiences of leadership in Japan, respondents described Japanese leadership culture as hierarchical, wherein power “transmits” from those in positions of authority. Participants also concurred that the ability to communicate one’s stance effectively represents the central facet of effective leadership. Several interviewees called upon “transmissive” terminology, including “follow directions” and “follow strict rules,” when reflecting on their school and work lives. However, in stark contrast to these norms, participants *also* believed that effective leaders are not afraid to make exceptions when meeting the needs of subordinates. Miki highlighted this divergence when discussing her favorite teacher, commenting how this young practitioner possessed “freedom in thinking” and “broke rules and gave experience.” Akane, too, shared an impactful anecdote about falling ill on a class trip to Cambodia, wherein her principal took care of her and saw to her needs. She explained that, while “He is the most *erai* [highest position]; he’s very kind and talked to us very much. Yes, he was very kind.” Indeed, participants agreed that the most influential leaders are those who listen to the opinions of their followers and respond to group needs. Takuto shared his belief that such openness engenders a higher level of performance from followers, “Good leaders often listen to coworkers or listen to the employee’s idea or opinion because they should ... know what the employees are thinking to make the productivity maximize.”

It follows that ineffectual leaders remain unwilling to consider the perspectives of subordinates. Akane recalled an occasion when a class leader ‘rejected all of the other people’s opinions and so, other people did nothing. [Then] the leader was angry. Similarly, Nanae shared an experience where she felt rejected by a club leader: “When I did ... different things from my leader, though, the leader didn’t respect my actions.” This continued denial of Nanae’s agency was one factor that ultimately led to her quitting the club. This fear of not being recognized or, worse yet, outright rejected deters many participants from voicing their opinions. Japan is the prototypical society where *the nail that sticks out gets hammered down*; Shota legitimized this proverb by sharing that Japanese are often unwilling to speak out or take an action that will disrupt in-group harmony, noting:

Japanese people, I think me, too, has sense and is too careful about the emotion of other people. So, Japanese people, it is said ... can *kizuku* [sense/perceive]. It is too careful about other people.

He expanded that many Japanese are reticent to disrupt pre-existing hierarchies to the point where there often exists no space to express ideas and opinions freely. “Too serious, yes, and they can’t say things; tell the boss their words clearly.”

Self-reported Leadership Identity

While a consensus on effectual leadership qualities emerged from interviews, there remained a clear divide between participants who viewed *themselves* as possessing these traits and those who did not. Takuto, Miki, and Nanae immediately self-identified as leaders and contextualized their experiences accordingly. Takuto, when reflecting on his time as a captain of the track and field team in high school, noted some of the challenges and sacrifices he had to overcome as a leader, explaining:

It was very tough to listen to their opinions or ideas and try to improve them. Because there was a team race at that time. So, we have to win with all of us. I couldn't practice and train myself; I have to gather them and try to maximize their skills as well. So it was very hard for me, but I learned a lot from this experience, such as how to communicate with other people or how to scold people, and learned how important to build a good relationship. ... So, I thought I learned how important teamwork is.

Miki, too, considered her experiences as a high school class leader, explaining how she mediated conflicts between classmates. She noted that, as a peer leader, she could view the situation more equitably than her teacher, commenting:

In the morning and after school, the students... we talked with many classmates and understand the character of them and also if there was trouble... I talked between both sides and connected a solution. Yeah, students have controversial situation. And the teacher... teacher talks to only one side. So, other sides students are very angry. And, so, I heard the opinion on both sides, so I stayed between them. So, it was hard for me.

Distance between teachers and students presented in several sessions. Nanae, for instance, noted: "It's good... not too close, but not to, like... have a distance to students.' She further shared a belief that younger teachers demonstrating less distance are more effective leaders as they 'know better about students more than, like... older teacher."

Akane, Junna, and Shota, meanwhile, stressed that they were unsuited to leadership. Typical reasons included a "lack of confidence" coupled with an inability to state "my opinion clearly." Akane explained that communicating and "thinking about what I can do for the group is very difficult." However, while sometimes uncomfortable classifying it as such, each participant *could* recall an episode where they adopted a leadership position. Shota explained how, despite serving as vice-captain on his high school soccer team, he did not consider it a leadership experience, noting: "I follow [the] Captain leader... so I help the leader." Junna, when reflecting on group work in class, admitted that although she "does not like [being a] leader," she *reluctantly* takes on such roles: "always I am a leader because I try to do it well and give instructions for my team." Akane shared that she does not voluntarily place herself in such positions but feels "a sense of accomplishment" when she leads group work assignments. Accordingly, participants reported that leadership identity—and opinions on effective leadership qualities—impact their participation in classroom activities. Nanae, who self-identified as a "leader facilitator," believed that leadership is something anyone can attain: "But, you know that, like... talent, like talent is born ... but a leader... leadership can be learned.' In contrast, Takuto, who views leaders

as ‘motivators’ and ‘people who have the power to change society,’ contended that authentic leaders rise to those positions due to innate talent. From his perspective, foisting authority creates negative experiences for all parties. He recalls one episode where his teacher ineffectively designated an unwilling classmate as a leader:

I don’t think that’s a good idea, too, because leaders should be... should be motivated by themselves. So leaders have to motivate other people. So if they don’t have motivation, they can’t give energy to other people.

Theme 2: Inequitable ESD

The second theme emerged as interviewees recalled their direct experiences of ESD. Students reported varying levels of exposure to and knowledge of sustainability, which notably correlated with their respective attendance at public or private (and, hence, *fee-paying*) secondary schools.

Public Versus Private Education

While each participant reported varying levels of exposure to ESD, their attendance at public or private schools presented a striking gatekeeping mechanism. Takuto and Shota attended public schools for both their primary and secondary education. Shota, a third-year university student, recalled initially hearing the term *sustainable development* upon entering university, and only in his previous semester had he begun to learn about SDGs. Similarly, Takuto recalled: “When I was an elementary or high school student, I hadn’t studied about SDGs. So I think they are not a focus. They don’t focus on the SDGs at all.” In comparison, participants graduating from private high schools shared a heightened awareness of global issues and associated initiatives, including sustainability. Nanae recounted her introduction to SDGs before they became widely discussed in Japan, explaining:

He [her teacher] said SDGs are gonna be very important in our life in the future. So, we should learn more about SDGs. And it’s before, like... so... SDGs is very famous now, but he’s, he taught me, like... way before.

Akane, too, recalled extra-curricular ESD activities in a high school global leadership program (GLP), highlighting how privately-educated learners were provided with additional opportunities to inhabit leadership roles when aiding developing communities voluntarily, noting:

People who want to join GLP study world problems after school. I joined it because I wanted to join a Cambodia trip, so I joined that group from first grade, and I studied about SDGs there.

While reflecting upon her experiences overseas, Akane expressed hesitancy over the positive impact of such ventures, reporting that she “couldn’t help.” Miki, too, had

the opportunity to travel abroad as part of a private high school global issues program, assisting Phillipino schools during her stay. She recalled, "I want to help them, and I want to take action for them." and how, upon returning to Japan, she took the initiative to collect and send donations and school supplies to the communities she visited. These experiences demonstrate how leadership and SDG experiences impacted her life and how, in her future career, she intends to secure employment where she is "proud of her working" and is "useful to other people." Nanae also describes ESD and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) as altering the intended trajectory of her future. She recently secured an internship with a Japanese multinational corporation *expressly* because of their contributions to sustainability. When asked what she values in a prospective workplace, she replied: "CSR, totally CSR."

Theme 3: Awareness of and Responsibility for Sustainability

The final theme arising from interviews was awareness of and responsibility for sustainability, wherein participants shared their opinions and experiences concerning the attempts to create a more equitable future. From this primary theme, participants spoke on their respective actions, predicted the extent to which sustainability will impact their futures, and who or what bears the responsibility for fulfilling this mission.

Individual Actions

Notwithstanding the emergence of theme 2, not *all* privately-educated interviewees connected sustainability to their projected careers. Despite participating in her high school's GLP club, Akane, who seeks a career in a municipal social welfare office, affirmed that "no," she cannot meaningfully connect her intended career to her experiences of ESD. Moreover, doubt regarding the efficacy of current sustainability practices constitutes a shared thread among responses. Most interviewees reported that their actions amounted to "separat[ing] trash and plastic" and "bring[ing] my shopping bag." Junna explained how "many people try to reduce plastic bags or wooden chopsticks, but I think this is a very small attempt. So, I think it's *imiganai* [meaningless]."

Conversely, Nanae takes an active role in leading sustainable efforts in her community, describing her current membership in a university club dedicated to teaching SDGs and global issues to high school students. She explains, "My circle is like, like... talking about... thinking about SDGs." Through this club, Nanae and her peers facilitate discussions, encouraging junior members to voice their opinions on sustainability: "You can say anything. It's... there's no, like... right and wrong. So just speak, just speak up!" One reason she felt compelled to join this club is her conviction that, even in private education, Japan is not doing enough to raise awareness of these issues, stating: "I think Japan's education is still not good enough." While

acknowledging that, in comparison to other countries, “Yeah, Japanese education is very good, and everyone can get an education,” she contends that ESD “contents and teachers are sometimes not...” Akane shared a similar sentiment, noting that “students know about SDGs, but they only know SDGs. Only a word. They don’t know the contents.” Indeed, many of the participants agreed that schools must do more to promote ESD *meaningfully*. Shota, who did not report substantive exposure to ESD before entering university, contends:

It is good... making it an opportunity to study SDGs in weekly curriculum. [But] not only in university but in high school, junior high school. Every school.

Takuto provided the only discordant view, describing many of the topics he studied in school as “useless” and “not applicable to life outside of school.” Furthermore, he felt that subjects like SDGs are better suited to extra-curricular activities (such as those described by Nanae), where students may pursue and lead ESD at their prerogative, explaining, “There are some people who want to study themselves. So, I think it’s not the job of a university.”

Who Is Responsible for Change?

Participants held conflicting viewpoints concerning the responsabilization for sustainable education and practices. As previously noted, most interviewees believed schools must foster awareness of SDG issues, yet, interviewees reported that social institutions *at large* have a role to play. Many pointed to “the Government” or “companies” as possessing the broadest reach and, thus, responsibility. However, while participants were aware of corporate missions in sustainability, they remained unaware of the finer details or results of said initiatives. Shota, for instance, described the anchoring of sustainability to commercialization, noting:

So, Coca-Cola’s CM’s SDGs logo? Yes. I often saw that logo in various companies’ commercials. Coca-Cola, Adidas, ... I don’t know the details. So, I don’t know many things about the SDGs of a company. But, I understand companies work for SDGs when I see the logo.

Takuto, meanwhile, feels that companies remain primarily “interested in maximizing profits” and that change will only occur if states enforce regulations, noting: “I think governments should take the responsibility because they lead the country.” He identified economically powerful countries, like the “US and China,” as holding the greatest responsibility for pioneering environmental change and “reducing emissions.” Many participants shared the view of governments as the ultimate authority for sustainability. Miki, however, emphasized the role of younger generations, albeit within a transmissive context: “Of course, the Government leads us to solve problems, and the young people have to change their mind about it. So, to change their mind, the adult or the teacher has to teach SDGs.” Nanae echoed this sentiment while reflecting on the status of intergenerational power-sharing in Japan, explaining that the young must initiate change. At the same time, the privileged older generations must *allow* it:

It's young, young people. Always. So, old people are almost useless, you know? Grandpa and Grandma are going to go to heaven soon. So, young people are the only people that can take action for the environment, and, like... senior is also responsible for allowing the action, you know, maybe like senior people have, like... stereotype? Maybe they don't, like... start doing new things? They have some rejection, I think. [But] trying to do new things for the environment is important for seniors, too. Yeah, the senior has the power to decide something. Everything. So...

Discussion and Conclusion

Analysis reveals that leadership in Japan firmly adheres to Confucian norms. Chiefly, there remains an incontrovertible leaders-follower power distance within educational institutions and Japanese society more broadly (Egitim, 2021). As such, participants framed their ESD experiences within a transmissive context, whereby (usually older) teachers held power and authority in the class. In contrast, the educational leaders who left the most significant impact were those (typically younger) educators who actively sought to bridge the power divide. Indeed, listening emerged as a key leadership quality for participants; this, however, highlights the clash between culturally embedded pedagogic norms and learner expectations. How can a leader listen when followers do not have a voice to speak? If students are conditioned to receive knowledge passively, they are, in turn, deprived of the capacity to express dissenting opinions *freely*.

By its very definition, leaderful classroom pedagogy remains at odds with the transmissive norms of Japanese education. Within a top-down hierarchy, practitioners face challenges fostering a bottom-up environment of shared responsibility, respect, empathy, vulnerability, ambiguity, and synergy (Lawrence, 2018). Indeed, as reported here, an ingrained follow-the-leader duology may hamper leaderful practice; thus, ESD practitioners must embody the critical self-reflective principles of leaderful classroom pedagogy in order to demonstrate and emphasize collaboration and open communication irrespective of their culturally entrenched position, status, or identity. Once educators integrate a classroom culture of synergistic reflection, learners may, in turn, reconstruct *their* identity and, perhaps more pertinently, build the skills and confidence required to spearhead a more equitable, sustainable future transcending the corporatized, seemingly *imiganaï* actions reported by our learners.

Indeed, by advancing policy, transforming learning environments, building capacities as educators, empowering and mobilizing youth, and accelerating local level actions as part of its recently revized commitment to ESD, MEXT (2021) has, perhaps, acknowledged the gap between its policy and practice. Yet, the question remains, *by what means will this evolution take place?* By its very nature, the renouncement of hierarchy necessitates recognizing and confronting the entrenched social structures upholding it in the first place; empowering and mobilizing youth, while fundamental to leaderful pedagogy, requires youth voice and agency (Raelin, 2021). This common good may emerge in the classroom but must extend outside

the confines of education and permeate Japanese culture, lest said empowerment be stripped from future global leaders (MEXT, 2016b) upon entering the workforce at the lowest rung. Certainly, there exists sufficient academic (i.e., Jodoin, 2020; Nagata, 2017; Past, 2022) and policy-level (i.e., MEXT, 2016a, 2016b, 2021) literature to suggest that Japanese education remains primed for such change; yet, words are hollow, it is our deeds that echo loudest.

This is not to say that meaningful change in ESD remains beyond the reach of MEXT or Japanese practitioners. Indeed, the testimonies recorded here suggest that junior teachers, regardless of subject, are only too willing to break the rules and facilitate leaderful activities, placing learners at the heart of their educational journeys. From this perspective, individuality, agency, and expression are not nails to be hammered down in the interest of in-group harmony but opportunities for experimentation, growth, and discovery—in other words, the very foundations of progressive education. It should also be noted, however, that such instances typically occur in *fee-paying* educational institutions. Of course, the risk here is that ESD follows other globally-focused educational initiatives, including English language learning and study abroad, in remaining out of reach of Japan's economically disadvantaged (Smith, 2022). That every participant exposed to pre-university ESD did so at a private high school presents a worrying trend, one that MEXT would be wise to address lest ESD emerges as a mechanism to be exploited by the wealthy in their efforts to reinforce socioeconomic hegemony (Smith & Samuel, 2022). Indeed, that privately educated Miki and Nanae not only self-identify as leaders but actively seek leadership roles and future careers in high-level corporations dedicated to sustainable practices may, from a critical perspective, evidence this reproductive process.

In closing, this study contends that the marriage of leaderful pedagogy to ESD represents a powerful tool for achieving a more sustainable future. Despite a State-level commitment to sustainability, ESD remains broadly shallow. Japanese education fails to achieve the profound transformation called for by Nagata (2017), focusing on surface-level learning rather than cultivating the perspectives and identities that may engender a more sustainable society. As such, it is little wonder that participants who reported meaningful and *equitable* experiences in ESD connect social responsibility and sustainability to leadership. We contend that Japanese ESD will fail if not grounded in leaderful practices that uproot traditional norms and hierarchies. In short: ESD requires leaderful pedagogy, with outdated leadership models remaining incompatible with the needs and issues facing current (and, no doubt, future) drives for sustainability. Reflecting By (2021), ESD must place leadership as the responsibility of many, with the collective, agentive pursuit of delivering this purpose guided by a common good. Likewise, leaderful pedagogy may benefit by anchoring to altruistic projects during its mission to supplant longstanding educational norms. Without such an urgent goal, society may be reluctant to accept any change in dominant power structures. Rather, it may outright reject it.

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Travis H. Past (M.S. Ed.) is an Assistant Professor at Kyoto Sangyo University in Kyoto, Japan. His current research interests include education for sustainable development, leadership, computer-assisted language learning, storytelling in EFL, and extensive reading. He has been living and teaching in Japan since 2011.

Michael D. Smith is an Associate Professor at Kobe University, Graduate School of Intercultural Studies, Japan. A doctoral candidate at the University of Bath, he holds a postgraduate teaching license specialising in adult education, an MA in Applied Linguistics, and is an alumnus of the University College London Institute of Education, where he gained an MA with distinction in Technology and Education. Michael's research interests include the sociology of education, language policy, neoliberal governmentality, and the social and pedagogical implications of educational technologies.

Chapter 13

Multicultural University Students Learn Collaborative Leadership in Hawaii Beyond the Classroom: A Qualitative Case Study



Clifford H. Clarke

Abstract University students in the social sciences primarily have learned theories and concepts but rarely have received guidance in personalizing the knowledge or applying knowledge in ways that develop new skills that enable them to contribute to society upon graduation. Students have been seeking to learn by engaging with interesting subject matter and skills applicable in today's world. University professors have not adequately responded to student preferences for more engaged learning that relates to their future careers. More models are needed that respond to the gap between student preferences, teacher deliverables, and society's labor needs. This paper presents one such model that engaged collaborative leaderful practices with 25 upper-class multicultural students in intercultural communication classrooms at a Hawaiian university. The class was designed with learning activities for students in small team research projects to examine organizational cultures, leadership, and teamwork. Within such a framework the students applied classroom theories into an actual workplace. The teacher's engagement in the preparation, implementation, and evaluation of the projects was led collaboratively with the students and their off-campus organizational representative leaders. These team research projects utilized ethnographic methods to investigate a company's artifacts, observations, and interviews for data to analyze its culture, leadership, and teams. The course design enabled the concurrent study of the effects of collaborative leaderful practices and processes. The data source for this study was the students' personal essays which were processed by content-analysis. Student findings were presented herein in five themes: (a) collaborative leadership practices; (b) organization culture research processes; (c) integrating theories and practice; (d) Hawaiian learning style; and (e) personal confidence for leadership roles in society. The study's results found that theory-grounded collaborative community projects can enhance students' motivation for learning about team and leadership development to strengthen their career opportunities. Student benefits included gains in motivation for learning, increased enthusiasm, and deeper engagement in learning processes. The results further demonstrated

C. H. Clarke (✉)
University of Hawaii at Manoa, Honolulu, HI, USA
e-mail: chclarke@me.com

that collaborative teaching practices that engaged students with community leaders in their workplaces can enhance teachers' effectiveness in collaborative student-teacher engagement. Teacher benefits included learning from multicultural students how to improve teaching practices. This model and the study's findings contribute to educators an innovative way of integrating social science theories with classroom practices and community projects, which benefit teachers in responding to student needs, students in learning that prepares them for their careers, and universities by improving relationships with local communities.

Keywords Collaborative · Leadership · Engagement · Learning · Pedagogy · Multicultural · Hawaii · University

Learning styles reflect students' cultures and to demonstrate respect for the diversities of cultures it is important to incorporate preferred classroom learning styles for optimum learning. I learned from the Fuji-Xerox Learning Institute in 1983 Tokyo that their Japanese trainees preferred to learn English in a Japanese learning style, which we then practiced. But along the way, trainers transitioned trainees toward a more western communication style in order for them to be understandable to other English speakers. Was conversation with other English speakers the trainees' objective or was it to pass a certain certification test? If teachers presume there can be one universal style of teaching that best serves all students' best interests, then the result will be a practice that ignores culturally influenced learning styles. But, for example, is engagement a desired method of learning across cultures or is it a fear-inducing situation where face could be lost? Could trust in the teacher be lost when the teacher fails to teach as expected by the student? When I once asked a small group of mostly Japanese adult students to brainstorm with me, one man slammed his notebook down in protest with "You are the leader! You should tell us the answer that you must already know. Why waste our time with brainstorming?" Perhaps the solution to this ongoing pedagogical issue is embedded in each educational context. The strategic question about pedagogy for multicultural students remains unresolved.

This paper examined the consequences of a mixed pedagogical approach to teaching multicultural students that varies with each student's culturally influenced learning style in three learning contexts, the classroom, in small working teams, and in researching an organizational culture in the city of Honolulu, Hawaii. This case study illustrated one model for integrating theory into practice inside the classroom and into the community in exploring collaborative leadership and teamwork.

Purpose of the Study

The study illustrated processes and outcomes of one university class engaging multicultural students and local business leaders in collaborative team research projects to assess corporate culture and offer theory-based changes to enhance their organization's productivity. The purpose of this study was to discover how teaching pedagogy and learning practices on and off campus influenced the learning outcomes of the students and the teacher in an intercultural organizational communication course in Hawaii. This objective was explored by the integration of the core theories addressed by the teacher who identified as a collaborative and engaged facilitative leader. The study assessed student self-reflections on the outcomes of learning in these conditions.

The multicultural teamwork in the classroom and the local community provided the integrated dynamics for constructive collaborative learning for students and teacher. Student teams' community intervention was to collaboratively design, prepare, execute, and analyze the results of each team's research project that would serve local community client organizations by reviewing, refining, and strengthening their organizational cultures. The second intervention was the collaborative and facilitative engagement of their teacher with each student in their teamwork and research projects. These two interventions occurred in an integrated alternating process between classroom teamwork and community organizational ethnographic research projects. This case study was designed to explore two research questions, to which students' reflections directly spoke in the two sets of Findings below.

1. Can theory-grounded collaborative community projects enhance student's motivation for learning about team and leadership development to strengthen their career opportunities?
2. Can collaborative teaching practices that engage students with community leaders in their workplaces enhance teachers' effectiveness in collaborative student-teacher engagement?

There were three distinctly cultural contexts that contributed to the dynamics of this case study, its method, and its results. These three were, (1) the cultural context of the Hawaiian Islands, (2) the cultural context of a collaboratively created democratic classroom learning environment, and (3) the cultural context of engaging with an individual collaborative leader referred to as teacher/leader, coach, facilitator, and counselor. I was fortunate to have the opportunity to facilitate the learning processes in this case study as these were roles for which I had been trained in academic study and experienced in four distinct professional capacities. Without that specific training and background experiences the student-teacher relationships may have evolved in a completely different way.

Native Hawaiian teaching and learning styles historically provided a culture-based learning model for the local Hawaiian population, however, Hawaii's 1.4 million residents mostly migrated to the islands from around the world. For at least a century, intercultural marriages have produced a large percentage of multicultural children. Heritages often include two to five or more cultures. Teaching

students from diverse cultural backgrounds in Hawaii with collaborative leadership practices brought similar benefits compared to Hawaiian traditional teaching and learning practices. According to Fulkerson et al. (2013), in grades 4–6, students in low-income schools, where he taught a U.S. Department of Education-sponsored culture-based curriculum with Hawaiian-style teaching methods, teachers work with individual students, parents at home, teams in class, and whole classes in highly interactive processes that challenged students with trial-and-error learning, discussions about culturally appropriate technology, and team projects for teaching their parents. Students were encouraged to solve their problems by understanding concepts in team projects. Such a learning process enabled students to develop skills for working in Hawaii’s multicultural society. However, with strong influences from mostly Asian cultures in Hawaii, university teachers still found it difficult to engage multicultural students in classroom discussions. Complicating that factor, as one U.S. mainland student explained, was that mainlanders change their interactive classroom behavior when in Hawaii to adapt to local multicultural classroom norms and be accepted by their local peers.

The pedagogical context of the present book and case study was the collaborative leadership theory and practices in a classroom of students with multicultural learning styles. In teaching with collaborative leadership theory and leaderful practices I engaged in students’ varying degrees of readiness to take responsibility for their own learning, to participate in sharing information, decision-making, assessing learning activities, modifying learning processes, and evaluating outcomes in ways that strengthened their motivation to learn interactively. I facilitated opportunities for deeper introspection and reflection by coaching students to think creatively, for example, in creating the culture of their research project teams. They were free to set their teams’ values, principles, roles, and style as a team, and to determine together how they would share information, make decisions, resolve problems and conflicts, keep turn-taking balanced (Clarke & Kanatani, 1979) and handle other team tasks and relationships.

The third context of engaging with a collaborative teaching style is determined by the student’s choice of a particular classroom teacher. That student–teacher relationship is central to the success of the engagement, hence the importance of including this third cultural context. Egitim (2021) suggested the journey toward identifying as a collaborative leaderful teacher goes “through an introspective process that involves critical self-examination and critical self-reflection by revisiting underlying values, beliefs, and assumptions . . .” (p. 2). Hence, my personal journey through pedagogical transitions is important to illustrate an integrated set of skills and characteristics with which students engaged in this case study. This is my brief journey to my *tachiba*, or “the place on which I stand” in teaching with collaborative leaderful practices with multicultural university students in Hawaii. I believed that students could be inspired to learn exponentially beyond the classroom in trial-and-error processes while engaged in theory-based team research projects in community organizations integrated with classroom learning activities. This belief was nurtured from living in Hawaii for three elementary school years before moving to Japan where I lived through the eleventh year of high school in Kyoto.

From academic studies in the USA in the world's religions and philosophies, I graduated into counselor training for my first career in counseling foreign students and facilitating intercultural communication workshops utilizing person-centered counseling principles with respect, and empathy, while instinctively valuing diversity. I encouraged students' personal growth in collaborative explorations of the impact of their cultural transitions toward integrating cultural differences into more inclusive identities. I subsequently engaged in a career of teaching intercultural communication theory and training in which I relied on teacher-centered learning practices, but simultaneously founded a professional development institute for the intercultural field to engage colleagues in collaborative leadership processes based on establishing equal status between group leaders and their culturally diverse participants. After ten years I shifted careers again to engage in intercultural management consulting. I engaged in collaborative leadership of my multicultural firm in global business consulting. We studied clients' corporate culture in order to customize designs and implement programs collaboratively with clients in building synergistic organizational cultures to increase productivity in their bi-national operations. Intense long-term engagements required an assumption of collaborative leadership with clients (Clarke, 1998, 2023 in press; Clarke & Takashiro, 2019, 2020). I ultimately returned to the role of teaching university students in Hawaii, where I completed my journey by integrating counseling, facilitating, training, and coaching to engage students in collaborative leadership learning processes in and beyond the classroom in projects wherein theories could be put into practice. The theoretical framework below directly reflects the foundations of the collaborative learning practices with which I engaged students in the multicultural learning environments as this case study represents, particularly with regard to the research projects in the business and community organizations.

Theoretical Framework

The present study is grounded in intercultural communication competencies, collaborative teaching strategies and practices, effective teamwork, and leadership engagement theories. Amir's (1969) conditions for effective intergroup relations have evolved over decades as one foundation for IC competency research. It focused on the characteristics and conditions that facilitated groups having constructive communications between its multicultural members. These were (a) member status equality, (b) common goals, (c) interaction intensity, (d) cooperative-pleasurable activities, (e) a supportive organization, and (f) facilitative leadership.

Rubén and Kealey's (1979) IC competency theory gave students an early grounding in another foundation of intercultural competency research that focused on behavioral manifestations of communications across cultures rather than just their cognitive and affective counterparts. The components of this foundation were (a) displaying respect, (b) displaying nonjudgmentalness, (c) expressing a personalized interpretation of knowledge, (d) displaying empathy, (e) demonstrating role flexibility, (f) displaying reciprocal concern, and (g) displaying tolerance for ambiguity.

These competencies have been utilized successfully in IC training for decades in education and multicultural business organizations by IC professionals.

Lawrence (2017) identified the practices of collaborative leadership as ‘shared vision and values, interdependence and shared responsibility, mutual respect, empathy, and willingness to be vulnerable, ambiguity, effective communication, and synergy’ (p. 91). Egitim (2022) added that “when all members embrace these traits, leadership becomes the property of the group rather than individuals. When the teacher and students embrace *Leaderful Classroom Practices*, everyone can contribute to decision-making, goal setting, progress-monitoring, assessment, and feedback” (p. 22). Teachers can rely on their humility to establish a classroom culture of openness, mutual respect, trust, and empathy, which can help ease learner anxiety through the support of the teacher and student peers. Empowering students in the classroom enables their motivation, engagement, and commitment with enthusiasm. It also contributes to students’ self-confidence in performance. These concepts were applied in my collaborative leadership strategies and practices in this case study. They also reflected and strengthened earlier foundations from intercultural researchers, Amir (1969) and Ruben and Kealey (1979).

Haas and Mortensen’s (2016) team effectiveness theory incorporates three of Hackman’s (2002) conditions: a compelling direction, a strong structure, and a supportive context. The two things to guard against are us versus them thinking and incomplete information. The most essential ingredient is a shared mindset (p. 2). To these conditions, Hackman (2002) added an expert teamwork coach, e.g., a facilitative leader (Amir, 1969). Also, outcome improvement, task mastery, and group process, i.e., communication, information-sharing, decision-making, problem-solving (Goltz et al., 2008), and conflict resolution (Edmondson et al., 2007) are important teamwork functions. In small group processes, behavioral analyses find differences of culture, as in between speakers’ pause time (Clarke & Kanatani, 1979), which plays a role in building or destroying team effectiveness. Expectations and assumptions require exploration and revelation in order not to exacerbate each problematic situation or critical incident (Flanagan, 1954) that might occur (Clarke & Lipp, 1998; Clarke & Takashiro, 2020).

Schaufeli (2021) defined engaging leadership as leadership behavior that facilitates, strengthens, connects, and inspires employees to increase their work engagement enthusiastically. Leadership engagement is based on self-determination theory in which basic need satisfaction mediates the relationship between engaging leadership and work engagement. Leadership engagement significantly improves motivation and involvement and enables teams to pursue their common goals successfully (Mazzetti & Schaufeli, 2022). Leadership engagement practices apply to the educational classroom as well. Fifty-five percent of today’s students indicate they have difficulty staying engaged or interested in their studies (Wiley Network, 2022). Additionally, one-fourth of the students said they would be more invested in their courses if they learned in a way that emulated their future careers (Alonso, 2023). The team’s projects in this case study illustrate learning in such ways in multiple industries in Honolulu. Collaborative leadership means that teacher and student work together toward building students’ autonomy, self-determination, competence, and

self-confidence, by sharing responsibility for processes and results with students in classrooms and in off-campus projects. Individualized consideration that is grounded in coaching and counseling principles and practices offers students a role model, coaching, support, and advice. Theoretically grounded off-campus team projects offered students opportunities to engage in new learning pedagogies and in ways that prepare them for their futures. Eighty-one percent of students feel that it's important or very important for schools to offer real company-led projects (Wiley Network, 2022). These four theories are mutually supportive and are effective when integrated as foundations for students' active learning tasks in class teams and on team projects in local organizations.

Methods

Ethnographic Research

Upon reviewing the intercultural communication (IC) concepts from the prerequisite course in IC theory that included Amir (1969) and Ruben and Kealey (1979), I introduced the students to the four stages of ethnographic research, (1) gathering artifacts, (2) participant observations, (3) spiral interviewing, and (4) triangulating survey (I identified this as optional and in its place suggested Project Champion (PC) authenticating interviews, to understand how the client leader interpreted our preliminary findings). For the 1st stage students brainstormed over a dozen artifacts that could represent products of an organization's culture, i.e., new-hire manuals, guidelines for team roles and processes, management manuals, recorded CEO presentations, employee work rules, and more.

For the 2nd stage, students brainstormed gathering spots, e.g., dining halls, libraries, and coffee shops, where they would visit to record observations on checklists they created. For the 3rd stage students discussed the purposes and procedures for hour-long interviews of representative samples of organizations' employees from multiple levels and divisions of a client organization (CO) that would be engaged to provide a team's services. For the 4th stage students discussed the purpose of interviewing their PC to further authenticate their findings through triangulation (Merriam, 2009). Spradley's two texts (2016a, 2016b) on observing and interviewing were drawn upon as resources in ethnographic research methodology.

We then engaged in learning by practicing these methods of ethnographic research, primarily by observing students on-campus and practicing spiral interviewing techniques in roleplays with each other and me playing a PC of their CO. The sequencing of the four research stages was important because artifacts informed planning for observations, observations informed questions for interviews, and PC interviews informed the design of each team's report. Teams wrote draft reports for the class following each research stage as well as gave oral presentations to class members to assure cross-team learning and constructive open peer feedback for each team.

Student Participants

Twenty-five junior and senior year college students, 16 females, and 9 males, with multicultural backgrounds, enrolled in a multicultural organizational communications class at a university in Hawaii, in the spring semester of 2009. Of the 20 courses I taught there, this case study was on one of five courses I taught on multicultural organizational communications. My typical classes averaged 30 students. I chose to study the fourth class because it was the smallest and 25 students could be assigned to five teams with five students in each. By the fourth semester, the course was well developed, and the students were all well informed by students' peers about the course prior to registering for it. The students were largely seniors anticipating graduation immediately after this class from the School of Communications. Students from Hawaii (18) were as discussed earlier from very mixed cultural heritages. In addition, students were from the Mainland USA (5) and from Asian (2) countries. For the purpose of this study, I did not intend to analyze class results with the country of origin or gender variables.

Project Description

Student Teams

Five-membered student teams were assigned with the goal of maximizing diversity in each for the purpose of encouraging intercultural interactions outside of peer groups that would otherwise self-select in each team. Teams were to work together in class and on research projects throughout the semester. I attempted to provide teams with Amir's (1969) six conditions for success and challenged members to demonstrate Ruben and Kealey's (1979) skills for IC effectiveness or competency. Teams discussed their desired cultural characteristics and decided on team names. From the IC, team effectiveness, and engaged leadership literature I provided research-based team roles and functions, facilitated mutual understanding, and students chose their individual team functions and roles within their teams, which rotated among members per research stage.

Client Organizations and Project Champions

Early in the course, students engaged in securing their team's client organization for their research project. Each team's first task was to select, initiate, and secure a public or private organization in town from a brainstormed list of over twenty types of organizations commonly known by the students, i.e., NPO, corporations, and agencies, which would support the student teams' proposal for a research project in their workplace. Teams secured their own client organizations (CO) and the teams'

project champions (PC) in an organization. I supported student teams in their drafting of client introduction letters as supported by the university and the teams' introduction and proposal letters. These explained the strategies and practices of organizational culture ethnographic research through its four stages that could be accomplished in four separate days in the client's place of work.

Research Focus and Stages

Teams chose teamwork effectiveness and leadership style from a variety of cultural aspects of organizations from their classroom readings and their personal interests. Teams prepared materials to execute and monitor each research stage. Teams collaborated on determining (a) the number and types of artifacts to collect, i.e., manuals for new hires, communicating with their research client, and assessing their team's progress (b) places, processes, and checklists for focused observations of intercultural interactions in the workplace, (c) open-ended spiraling questions for interviewing multilevel client representatives of observed events, and (d) a structured process for an exchange with their business client's project champion (PC) to authenticate the team's findings. Teams designed an interviewee selection process collaboratively with the PC to assure a representative selection of interviewees. Teams also designed the process of consulting with their PC toward achieving their mutual goals. Final reports summarizing all four research stages with a section on recommendations for improving each team client organization were presented to each of the five PC with appreciation for the opportunity. One of the students in the class was accepted for fulltime employment by a client upon graduation, which illustrates the relationship between students learning and future careers.

Role Clarifications

The PC's roles were to authorize the research, set the parameters of access within their organizations, solved any scheduling issues, assisted in interviewee selection, and assessed the final reports of the student's team they championed. The PC were also the students' role models for organizational leadership characteristics, values, and behaviors. My role with the PC was to provide mediation, clarification, and assurance of the purpose of the projects designed to present a professional consulting report for the organization that may serve to review, analyze, and strengthen the desired characteristics of organizational culture particularly focused on effective teamwork in a multicultural workforce and effective collaborative leadership. In addition to providing a regularly updated class website with resources throughout the course, my role was to engage to students' regular requests for my coaching support from my experience of consulting with organizations executing cultural analyses and organizational change projects. My personal coaching throughout the semester was offered on-call by phone, in-person on two scheduled class days, and anytime by email for individualized coaching for every student on any subject of their choice. I supported

students in ways that assured cultural equity, democratic decision-making, collaborative assessments, IC effectiveness, facilitated teamwork, and engaged collaborative leadership with humility, patience, respect, and empathy. These characteristics were grounded in my training in four careers of counseling, teaching, facilitating, and coaching with research foundations in interdisciplinary studies in the social sciences.

Team Project Assessments

Teamwork and presentation assessment formats were discussed, developed, and employed by students for their convenience. Student teams utilized a standard teamwork assessment form from the class website on strategy, goal achievement, communication and information sharing, meeting productivity, decision-making, problem-solving, team member relations, and cultural synergy, to support them in assessing eight factors within their own teamwork. Each team's assessment was shared with the other four teams. For the final reports each team engaged in integrating their findings from the four stages into one final paper report, which was presented orally to the class for peer assessment. Teams finalized their reports and delivered them to their clients' PC with letters of appreciation.

Team Project Limitations

The class' five team research projects were one-semester projects developed for students' learning in that abbreviated timeframe. The limitation of four-month projects was compensated by the opportunity to learn from all five research projects in the course's multiple reflection times for each team to learn from the other four teams' experiences. My professional consulting projects were of much longer durations and inclusive of up to fifty cultural pressure points in multicultural organizations including teamwork and leadership (Clarke, 2023 in press; Clarke & Takashiro, 2019, 2020).

Qualitative Analysis

The qualitative autoethnographic method of analysis was utilized. Proponents of the method define autoethnography as a qualitative method that uses researchers' autobiographical experiences as primary data to analyze and interpret sociocultural and social-psychological meanings of experiences (Chang, 2016). To clarify the word, autoethnographic, *auto* refers to describing and interpreting, *graphy* are the cultural texts, experiences, beliefs, and practices, and *ethno* (Adams et al., 2017). This autoethnographic method allowed the teacher and the students to account for personal experiences that inform the research and interpretations of incidents in ways

that reveal communication processes with students in class and on team projects. It is not possible to exclude subjective analysis and interpretation.

I understand and acknowledge my biases as a participant in the learning processes with sixteen prior long-term complex organizational culture studies. Nevertheless, I took steps to reduce possible biases in question formulation, establishing a low-risk environment for students, collecting student data from multiple peer and self-assessments, and by asking for a manuscript assessment from another researcher.

Students' reflections on their personal learning experiences in their teams with collaborative leadership practices and with their organizational culture research projects in the community were written in their final class essays. Those final essays provided this study with the data for analysis. Throughout the course multilayered analytical processes were conducted to meet individual students and teams' learning objectives. The teams' community projects and my role as a collaborative facilitator were the two interventions that were assessed by the students in their final essays. The essays were guided by the two purposes and questions of this case study:

1. Can theory-grounded collaborative community projects enhance students' motivation for learning about team and leadership development to strengthen their career opportunities?
2. Can collaborative teaching practices that engage students with community leaders in their workplaces enhance teachers' effectiveness in collaborative student-teacher engagement?

In discussing the final assessment form, the students shared their experiences of participating in a collaborative leaderful classroom and their team's project through which they achieved their personal learning objectives. These discussions provided the structure of the final essay. The final student essays were summaries of their thoughts concerning key learnings from the team projects as informed by the theories identified in the course and their assessment of the processes of the collaborative leaderful classroom. Those theories were from the four areas in the literature review above: IC competencies, collaborative teaching pedagogy, multicultural teamwork effectiveness, and leadership engagement. These theories are reflected in the themes presented in the Findings below. Stress was minimized by encouraging their thoughtful reflections with the assurance that there would be no grading of their essays. Open-ended questions and extended time to respond gave the students greater comfort. I would respond only with appreciation and personal supportive comments. The questions for the final essay were, (a) Discuss your personal key learnings from your project work with your team and client organization. Give illustrations of how those learnings will influence your approach in selecting the position or role that you will pursue after your graduation. (b) Identify which of the concepts, principles, and theories in this semester's course most provided you with insight into researching cultures, teamwork, and leadership in organizations and give illustrations with regard to how it helped you this semester and could in future employment. The data was analytically coded into four contextual topics and listed. The author re-read the data multiple times to be familiar with the data and then sorted the data according to emerging themes, which revealed deeper interpretations of student

findings as expressed in their organizational research project reports in class. More than five or more student mentions of key themes were identified as most salient to each of the four identified learning contexts. Quotations to represent themes within the four contexts were then selected and presented in brief form (Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 2009). Pseudonyms were given to each quotation to protect the students in representing their personal reflections.

Findings

There were four contextual topics with nine sub-themes that emerged from the students’ reflections. The sub-themes presented here are illustrated by shortened quotations with pseudonyms of their authors (Table 13.1).

Collaborative Leadership Practices

These were students’ perceptions of their experience in collaborative learning with others. Students felt the practices researched by Lawrence (2017) and Egitim (2021) contributed to strengthening their motivation to learn. Their learning went beyond the classroom into stimulating discoveries in their team research. It is actually through the latter that students found empowerment they had lacked in classroom-based courses. Students appreciated person-centered learning, engagement with teachers, safe learning environments, and democratic responsibilities, with guidance and coaching by the teacher.

Table 13.1 Student findings

Contexts	Themes
Collaborative leadership practices	Collaborative team learning
	Teaching style
	Personal confidence gained by leading
Organizational culture research process	Experiential learning
	Personal skill benefits
Integrating class theories into practice	Cultural insights
	Communication processes
Hawaiian learning style	Teamwork and leadership
	Personal strengths for leadership

Collaborative Team Learning

Students “enjoyed an academic process that gave me experience and helped me grow intellectually” (Char). One regretfully wrote, “I wish the teacher had spent more time in teams at the beginning.” (Ed). He said that the team may have gotten through some of their difficulties in less time. He ultimately became his team’s problem solver.

Teaching Style

Students shared their appreciation frequently. Students “enjoyed the knowledge, passion, and experience of teacher that made learning easier for students” (Sue) and “I benefitted from teacher’s knowledge and commitment to students” (Carl). Students “appreciated all the timely feedback and the help on making successful projects” (Cat) and “being understood without penalties for making mistakes” (Nan).

Personal Confidence Gained by Leading

Students felt classroom practices “stimulated understanding and enthusiastic sharing [of] thoughts in class” (Alice) and “gained self-confidence through trial-and-error process” (Jo). Students “learned about intercultural communication and found my career choice” (Beth) and “I had a knowledge and skills growth spurt in class this semester” (José).

Students were inspired to grow through these learning experiences, particularly in self-confidence. Findings illustrated the Hawaiian importance of role models. Students were impressed by their project champions in each client organization. Some of the clients’ leaders impressed the students by completely integrating themselves into the workplace with equity of responsibilities. Students observed a lot of cordiality, backslapping, sharing lunchtime together, and sharing tasks together. Leaders spent time asking questions and listening closely to their members’ responses. Students interpreted these findings as enabling the employees to be comfortable in their workplace through egalitarian relationships. They felt that such comfortability would be an ideal environment in which to work. Through their experiential research projects, students grew with confidence in their abilities to be future leaders.

Organization Culture Research Process

Students’ experience in projects engaged them in learning by practice and exposed the dynamics in leadership and teamwork in organizational cultures. Students benefited greatly from Spradley’s (2016a, 2016b) ethnographic methods as practiced in class before being applied in research projects. Leaping from the comfort of classroom

interactive learning into the experiences of executing research projects in locally operating organizations increased students' experience of risk and uncertainty. However, due to the preparations and practicing every stage in class, they found experiential learning out-of-class had great rewards in personal growth and confidence in their capabilities to be effective communicators, researchers, leaders, and team members. The risk and uncertainty felt initially was from moving from class practices into real-time workplaces with a heavy sense of responsibility in taking their clients' busy time. For most of the students, there was anxiety associated particularly with the interviewing process of their clients. Students took very seriously their role to provide a service to their client that would bring them benefits by identifying and recommending some solutions to intercultural communication issues.

Experiential Learning

Students perceived that "learning organizational culture hands-on was most effective, just like on-the-job training." (Bob). They "learned that triangulation of data (Merriam, 2009) is essential to gathering valid data," (Sally). They "identified problems in the inconsistency of leaderships' manual of rules versus their actual practice" (Glen) and "found a key analytical skill in differentiating espoused versus practiced culture" (Jo). This analysis led the team to recommend an alignment process that could close this gap, which was creating a disregard for the company's rules in the workplace on which all had been trained. Students experienced the consequences of periodic confusion among staff in the workplace.

Personal Skill Benefits

Students "developed organization-analysis skills and resolving conflict skills for when needed" (Carl) and found that "creating a respectful atmosphere at work is important in multicultural organizations" (José). Some discovered that "modification of communication skills to meet the customer's situation is important" (Jen) and "I found clear benefits of organizational analysis for my career" (Kealoha).

Integrating Class Theories into Practice

Students focused primarily on intercultural communication theories, ethnographic research methods, teamwork, and leadership theories. Classroom practice enabled deeper learning from the team by applying concepts, such as, withholding judgment, tolerating ambiguities, and exploring alternative interpretations within their project experiences. Cultural insights about the broader meanings of culture in diverse organizations were gained by interacting with classmates and the employees of client companies. When communications extended beyond sharing thoughts and opinions

to include feelings and reflections on behaviors in off-campus projects, the results were new insights to intercultural communication theory. Students learned to interpret cultural influences on communication styles and how teamwork behaviors can differ according to the culture created by each team or business department within a client company.

Culture Insights

Students indicated that the “sequencing of four research stages was the foundation of getting good results” (Toshi), with insights about the diversities of corporate cultures, in particular how policies and practices play out in teamwork and leadership roles. Another added, “My interpretation of culture [is now] pervasive and existing within all of us,” ... “I gained a new perception in seeing subcultures as dominant and resilient cultures” (Ellen), in that every person can contribute to solving problems creatively from varieties of life’s experiences with influential groups and individuals.

Communication Processes

From students’ research interviewing experiences, they “learned that seeing from other’s eyes requires patience and suspending personal judgment” (Marty) and “that being more open-minded will help my career” (Marg). She also learned the differences between intentions and perceptions through the interviewing process with her client’s managers and observing leadership styles in workplace activities.

Hawaiian’s Learning Style

Many students were educated in the Hawaiian school system. The Hawaiian teaching or leading style was mentioned by students from the observation research stage onward. Hawaiian teaching style was sustained throughout this case study, especially when engaged in team problem-solving, trial and error learning, and research projects in companies. Students observed clients’ teamwork and leadership styles as strengths, and they interpreted them as being manifestations of Hawaiian culture. Perhaps, from growing up in Fulkerson’s (2013) Hawaii, students naturally identified inclusive respect for all cultures as essential for peaceful interactions in productive workplaces. In particular, they noticed that “In Hawaii coexisting with diversity is of great importance” (Kealoha) and “Hawaiians have the ability to communicate with many cultures” (Kimo). Perceptions such as these two served to inspire confidence in the young Hawaiians.

Teamwork and Leadership

Students identified that “within the organizational culture in Hawaii the highest value is effective teamwork” (Ruby) and “Having common goals enables effective outcomes in teamwork” (Liz). As for leadership, “Great leaders release authority [delegate] and create equity without social hierarchy” (Kimo). Students reflected on their experiences with their PC that “a great leader helps others to achieve goals together” (Kealoha) and the “leadership mentality of adapting to differences with sensitivity is important” (Saori). The clients’ PCs became great leadership role models for the students through the semester’s contact with them. They were always present with their people, listened deeply to each other without judgment, demonstrated respect with equitable input in dialogue, and expressed their appreciation for all contributions to their team’s research projects.

Personal Strengths for Leadership

One student “gained a willingness to volunteer leadership in the future” (Chen), and another wrote, “I believe that I am on my way to becoming a great leader!” (Kimo). Overall, the student data confirms that theories learned in class and reinforced in practice were effective, productive on the projects, and beneficial for students who expressed their feelings about the class as motivating, stimulating, exciting, and inspiring confidence in their graduating with new knowledge and skills for contributing to society in leadership roles. This experience was unique to the students, as follows: (a) Integration of collaborative leadership theories with intercultural communication in teamwork, (b) leadership theories applied in researching organization culture, and (c) alternating learning interactively in-class and in research projects in off-campus organizations, encouraged a fast-learning curve for students. The coaching and guidance from the teacher and from each PC were comparable to team teaching and the training for students contributed to their learning pace and quality in class and on projects.

Most students were inspired to grow through these learning experiences, particularly in self-confidence. Findings illustrated the Hawaiian importance of role models. Students were impressed by their project champions in each client organization. Some of the clients’ leaders impressed the students by integrating themselves into the workplace by sharing responsibilities equitably. Students interpreted that finding as enabling the employees to be comfortable in their workplace. They felt that such comfortability would be an ideal environment in which to work. Because of their research project experiences informed by classroom preparations students grew with confidence in their abilities to be future leaders beyond the classroom.

As the teacher, I also reflected upon two themes of learning from the students’ feedback regarding their experience with my collaborative leadership practices. These themes were exposed during the course and summarized in students’ final essays in response to my open request for feedback. I learned from these comments how I could improve the course to better accommodate students’ learning preferences from

Table 13.2 Teacher findings

Themes	Practices
The challenge of changing learning styles	Traditional hierarchical to collaborative
The facilitation of teamwork processes	Student independence to teacher collaboration

different cultures. Hearing these situations during the class allowed me to respond in class and to improve future classes (Table 13.2).

The Challenge of Changing Learning Styles

Students had changed their initial attitudes about learning in an interactive democratic classroom but early in the course some students, Asian and Hawaiian, expressed personal and cultural barriers to engaging in active-learning processes based on the fear of risking self-exposure or being disrespectful of the teacher or peers. These students were hesitant due to cultural norms that authority and responsibility were the roles of the teacher, and that they should not be responsible for leadership aspects of classroom practices. In addition, American students from the mainland USA hesitated to speak out to the teacher due to their wanting to fit in with the model demonstrated by the students from Hawaii and Asia.

I learned to approach multicultural students in class with greater sensitivity to cultural and personal barriers to democratized learning practices. I attempted to demonstrate equal respect to students who preferred either learning style by openness to students who chose to assume personal responsibility for participating in team activities. In cultural adaptations, peer pressure and a sense of shame for not contributing can influence greater self-regulated learning (Matsuyama et al., 2019; Yamazaki, 2005). My explanations and expectations of students' enthusiasm needed to be more realistic, and I needed to practice more patience and personalize my explanations with especially the more hesitant students. A different balance of teaching and leadership practices may be necessary in some classes, in order to be respectful of all students. Primary distinctions of learning styles between cultures that value equalitarian independence of individuals and cultures that value hierarchical interdependence with traditional roles between teacher and student, in terms of degrees of initiative and leadership responsibilities students will assume in a classroom. No degree of a teacher's efforts to reduce risk factors for students will convince a traditional interdependent student to behave in a manner considered rude toward a teacher in front of other students. Approaching such students requires a deeper understanding and acceptance of hidden values and how they affect learning styles while patiently building a relationship that will enable a blossoming without forcing change.

The Facilitation of Teamwork Processes

Several students experienced challenges within their teams because of contrasts between those who initially took responsibility for results and those who initially would not. This situation resulted in student expectations for the teacher to play a more frequent role in team process facilitation, especially of multicultural teams, as advocated by Amir (1969), Hackman (2002), and Hass and Mortensen (2016).

The teacher learned not to assume that student team members would welcome the opportunity of controlling the direction or pace of their team's work. If there are parameters or guidelines that teams should follow, the teacher could jump in as a facilitator in teams lacking progress, especially when no team member demonstrates facilitation skills. A closer following of teams' effectiveness and jumping in to assist in facilitation would help some teams. The teacher serving in that capacity may further be a role model for the team members.

Discussion

This study's research purpose was to discover how teaching pedagogy and learning practices on and off campus influence learning and teaching outcomes for students and teachers in an organizational intercultural communication course in Hawaii. My efforts to withhold the provision of too much intervention in teamwork processes were challenged by a student who desired stronger facilitation from me to push his team's pace of achievement on tasks. In groups of students, there are naturally various degrees of willingness to accept responsibility for managing the learning process. The empathetic teacher will feel the struggling of students and direct attention to each one to offer support and guidance when appropriate. Despite struggling with this continual need to adjust the balance of roles differentially by student, the students ultimately indicated that they experienced personal growth from this engagement in collaborative leaderful practices. Despite my long association with collaborative leadership in practice, I found that there's always more to learn in each new classroom.

There were four contexts in which student reflections on their personal learning were identified in this study: (a) collaborative leadership practices, (b) organization culture research processes, (c) integrating theories from class into practice, and (d) Hawaiian's learning style.

Collaborative Leadership Practices

Teachers should be encouraged to exhibit counseling or coaching roles in supportive learner-centered ways (Benson & Voller, 2014). Students in this study wrote of

their appreciation for this kind of support. However, not all teachers have counselor trained. Therefore, elemental training in coaching and counseling could be an element in teacher education or continuing education. As for the collaborative leadership practices represented by Lawrence (2017) and Egitim (2021), this study's results were consistent with their results, with one exception of the Asian students in this teamwork-based and research project-based learning environment. The students of Asian heritage in this study suggested that in applying collaborative leadership theory and practices, sharing responsibilities in classroom learning processes, and expressing a teacher's humility will challenge some students' values, which they attributed to their traditional assumptions about authority in education and respect for authority. Teachers are advised to be cautious in that such changes in student-teacher relationships could force students from traditional cultures to violate their cultural norms and values (Yamazaki, 2005). Such challenges could also have ethical concerns for the teacher.

Organization Culture Research Processes

With the framework of Amir (1969) and Ruben and Kealey (1979), students were prepared to recognize elements of these conditions and competencies that were missing in their client organizations. They consistently referred to it as a difference between principles and practices. Their findings were supported by theories in intercultural competency research. The findings of Davidson and Katopodis (2022) that active learning and engagement (Mazzetti & Schaufeli, 2022) are rigorous, empowering, effective, accessible, and equitable were consistent with this study's findings with the exception that their subjects were employees, not students. All students in this study did not assume responsibilities equally due to different attitudes toward new challenges and higher risks perceived in interactions with organizations outside the classroom. Further, university-community relationships may suffer if teachers engage community leaders in ways that stretch their time limitations or harm their operations by taking too much of their employee's time. These situations suggest that the process of negotiating joint projects between town and gown requires sensitivity and advanced planning.

Integrating Class Theories into Practice

Students practiced some of Reuben and Kealey's (1979) communication competencies of withholding judgment and remaining open to insights from other cultures in dialogue in class and on the projects. Students found consistency with Haas and Mortensen (2016) in that they strived to avoid the 'us versus them' attitude in their teams. Instead, they strived to develop a shared mindset through teamwork. In this

vein, students were consistent with Amir (1969) in expressing their need for an expert team coach or facilitator to assist with team communications.

Students' findings were also consistent across teams with Mazzetti and Schaufeli, (2022) and Schaufeli's (2021) perspectives on how influential engaging leaders can be on employee productivity. One team was the exception because of the leader's inconsistent application of the company's manuals of policies and practices. Students also demonstrated in their projects Ruben and Kealey's (1979) intercultural competency skills, which positively affected their leadership behavior and contributed to team effectiveness in meaningful ways. Particularly, students practiced (a) displaying respect toward their interviewees, (b) withholding their personal judgments assuming their first impressions may have been biased, (c) displaying empathy with their project champion, (d) demonstrating role flexibility in each stage of research, and (e) displaying tolerance for ambiguity in relying on triangulation in their data gathering.

Hawaiian's Learning Style

Fulkerson's (2013) learning model for Hawaiian public-school students was applicable to university students, after initially struggling in a few cases with transitions from the teacher-centered pedagogy. The students from Hawaii all represented the Hawaiian culture as a multicultural safe place contrary to the data Rohrer (2008) and Okamura (2008) discussed. Contrarily, Okamura (2008) found that Hawaii was actually not a place of safety due to evidence of many ethnic conflicts, not racial in nature and that some of them resulted from resentment against outsiders due to ethnic differences. Perhaps the students felt more idealistically about their homeland. The tourism industry certainly places great emphasis on the idealized imagery of paradise, despite the number of scholars in Hawaii disputing it. This inconsistency was not brought to the attention of the students because I was quite sure that they were already aware of these perspectives since they live with them. The indigenous students in Hawaii were attracted to collaborative leaderful practices, which they found to be similar to their own Hawaiian learning style with culture-based curricula. Students discovered that self-actualization motivated them to engage in interactive learning in and out of the classroom that inspired enthusiastic self-confidence in achieving their goals after graduation.

Limitations

The principal limitation exposed to the author by the students about the class was that the teacher did not delve as deeply into working inside the teams as students desired. My effort to find the right balance of disengagement and engagement with student project teams will be modified or more closely assessed in future classes. In addition, the focus on the analysis of individual students' perceptions of the experience grouped

by three student demographic variables, age, origin, and project team could have been an alternative path to the investigation of the total group of 25 students. Increasing the study to include all five years of this course could have gathered a subject group of over 140 students to give more power to the study results.

Implications

Intercultural communication scholars who practice in the field are ideally suited for integrating theory and practice in their classrooms and outside in town-gown projects such as those of the present study if they can gain familiarity with their surrounding communities to create off-campus learning experiences that benefit their students and their communities. Teacher training programs in social sciences could incorporate collaborative leadership pedagogy. Universities could argue for increasing development of courses that integrate classroom learning with external practical projects that apply theories to students' lives and train them with skills that directly benefit them in approaching their career opportunities, thereby increasing their motivation and engagement with their opportunities to learn.

Further, the findings suggest that teachers would benefit from learning other cultures' learning styles to reach larger proportions of multicultural classrooms. Finally, future qualitative and quantitative research utilizing mixed methods could be engaged to add value to integrating team research projects into a classroom learning process. The field could benefit from both the knowledge and the new skills of building projects for the students and the communities.

Conclusion

This was a study that researched the influence of collaborative teaching practices upon students' learning in classroom activities and team research projects with businesses in the Honolulu, Hawaii community. By leading projects in the community, students found increased confidence and skill with which to enter the workplace compared to learning in classrooms alone. They benefitted from engagement in the learning processes in the classroom and in their corporate research project in town.

The present study extended the literature by finding that pedagogical and classroom management strategies with out-of-class practical experiences can enhance students' motivation, confidence, and commitment to learning in positive directions. The leaderful teaching practices can further nurture teachers' collaborative leadership identities and teachers can learn how to improve their practices. The teacher's integration of theories from multiple disciplines in classroom interactions and the students' engagement in actual work experiences and learning through team research projects in town, strengthened students' enthusiasm for learning and their confidence in volunteering for leadership roles after graduation.

Increases in confidence and learning motivation were the most significant outcomes of the study, and enhanced students' growth and development beyond their expectations. This curriculum design served to heighten the quality and increase the pace of students' learning as well as my own as the teacher. These interactive learning processes of teaching with greater personal engagement in applying theory into practice inspired personal growth and enthusiastic experimentation among multicultural students. These findings further illustrate the possibilities of guiding multicultural students into greater commitment to personal learning and achievement of personal goals. Academic success is possible across cultures in multicultural classrooms with this study's model combination of learning opportunities inside and team projects outside the classroom. I would be happy to share digitally the tools used in coaching the students through this model of integrated learning with anyone who has an interest in greater details of the case study processes.

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Clifford H. Clarke was raised in Japan through high school. He completed his Master's in counseling across cultures at Duke University (M.Div.) and was ABD in interdisciplinary studies in the social sciences at Stanford. He served many years in five careers of student counseling at Cornell and Stanford, teaching intercultural communication at Stanford and Hawaii, and consulting in intercultural management in over 300 US-Japan business. Clarke has published 28 journal articles and book chapters and given 45 professional presentations. Since 2016 he has been living in Kyoto, Japan where he is engaged in writing.

Part IV
Leaderful English Language Education
Through Global Perspectives

Chapter 14

EFL Teachers' Leadership Practices in Classroom Management: A Study of Higher Education Classrooms



Burcu Gokgoz-Kurt and Figen Karaferye

Abstract The examination of teacher leadership within the context of language teaching and learning has been mostly limited, despite growing interest in the concept of leadership, particularly in the previous decade. This is likely attributable to insufficient understanding and awareness of the potential benefits of teacher leadership practices in advancing language learning. Further investigation is warranted to examine the role of teacher leadership and its implications for shaping the language learning environment. Thus, the current study aims to examine the perceptions of tertiary-level English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers regarding their self-efficacy and leadership roles in classroom management and discipline. The secondary aim of the research is to investigate the types of reflective practices language teachers utilize to foster better classroom management. To this end, EFL instructors employed at Turkish higher education institutions were invited to participate in a survey that comprised an EFL teacher leadership self-efficacy scale, background questions, and two open-ended questions. The findings of the study revealed that Turkish EFL teachers generally reported high leadership self-efficacy, which was influenced by their teaching experience and prior institutional leadership/administrative positions. Furthermore, the qualitative analysis of the open-ended questions shed light on how teachers perceived their leadership roles in managing classroom discipline and what reflective practices they employed in ensuring a leaderful EFL classroom climate.

Keywords Classroom management and discipline · EFL classroom · EFL teacher leadership self-efficacy · Leaderful classroom · Leadership styles · Reflective practices

B. Gokgoz-Kurt (✉) · F. Karaferye
Kutahya Dumlupinar University, Kütahya, Türkiye
e-mail: burcu.gkurt@dpu.edu.tr

F. Karaferye
e-mail: figen.karaferye@dpu.edu.tr

EFL Teachers' Leadership Practices in Classroom Management: A Study of Higher Education Classrooms

Teachers have a significant influence on student learning and achievement. Yet, they have challenging roles to play in managing the complexities and dynamics of classrooms, which leads to a persistent interest in teachers as the subject of various studies in educational research for years (Liu et al., 2021; Mangin & Stoelinga, 2008). Particularly, teacher effectiveness in relation to classroom management and leadership has attracted considerable attention from scholars (Darling-Hammond, 2000). However, despite the increased interest in the concept of leadership in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), especially in the last decade (Christison & Murray, 2009; Raza & Chua, 2022; Shah, 2017), research on teacher leadership in the context of language teaching and learning has been mostly limited (Khany & Ghasemi, 2021). This is likely due to the lack of recognition and knowledge of the potential of leadership and “leaderful practices” (Egitim, 2021; Raelin, 2011) in language classrooms. In the field of education, leadership in schools is mostly covered within upper organizational management at the school management level; however, research (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009; Erdel & Takkaç, 2020) also shows that studying relevant leadership theories in classroom settings can impact teaching effectiveness (in a positive way, i.e., teachers’ leadership roles/styles/practices in classroom management).

Teacher leadership comprises influence as a leadership skill in classroom management and beyond (York-Barr & Duke, 2004) and leads to continuous growth and job-embedded professional development (Poekert, 2012). Effective teachers with specific leadership skills demonstrate transformational and transactional leadership styles in classroom management to some extent (Khany & Ghasemi, 2021; Pounder, 2008a) particularly in university/higher education settings (Pounder, 2008b). Narrowing it down to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classes in higher education settings, “leadership practices between the leader and followers” (Spillane et al., 2004, p. 11) become more significant since specific classroom-related, teacher-related, and learner-related issues (e.g., promoting individual and collaborative autonomy) are of great importance in language acquisition research (Benson, 2007; Egitim, 2021; Erdel & Takkaç, 2019). Moreover, when teacher leadership in language classroom management is perceived as a collaborative and collective act, the term “leaderful practices” emphasizes the exercise of fulfilling learners’ different needs and aspirations in teaching and learning processes (Egitim, 2021; Raelin, 2011).

Specifically, a number of studies have explored teachers’ cognition of leadership using various qualitative (e.g., Egitim, 2021; Whitehead & Greenier, 2019) and quantitative (DeDeyn, 2021) methods to explain its role in language teaching and learning. A recent study by Khany and Ghasemi (2021) differs from previous studies in that it developed a new scale specifically aimed at understanding EFL teachers’ leadership styles. However, further research is needed to better understand the predictors of language teachers’ leadership styles in the classroom. Therefore, the present study aims to examine how EFL teachers’ leadership styles relate to their

perceived self-efficacy in classroom management and discipline by seeking answers to the following research questions:

- RQ1: How do Turkish EFL instructors perceive their classroom leadership self-efficacy?
 - What individual background variables predict their self-reported ratings of classroom leadership self-efficacy?
- RQ2: How do Turkish EFL instructors describe their leadership roles and practices in classroom management?
- RQ3: Do Turkish EFL instructors engage in reflective activities to improve their classroom leadership and management? Then, what kind of reflective activities do they engage in?

To this end, in the current study, EFL instructors at Turkish higher education institutions completed the EFL teacher leadership style scale (Khany & Ghasemi, 2021), along with two additional open-ended questions asking participants about their leadership roles and practices in classroom management and their reflective practices as part of their leaderful activities.

Theoretical Background

Leadership in EFL classroom management has attracted many scholars focusing on the issue from diverse perspectives (Burkett, 2011; Egitim, 2021; Greenier & Whitehead, 2016; Khany & Ghasemi, 2021; Sadat, 2022). With proactive and sustainable measures, it is fundamental to build and sustain a positive classroom climate for effective teaching and learning processes—a climate in which learners feel safe, engaged, and supported. Moreover, it involves students who are clear about their roles and goals and have a voice in the classroom (Beaty-O'Ferrall et al., 2010; Morrow et al., 2006).

Effective classroom management itself already includes an emphasis on interpersonal communication processes in the classroom as continuous and healthy interactions between teachers and students, and it refers to the actions that teachers take to create a supportive environment for students' both academic and social-emotional learning (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006; Korpershoek et al., 2016). From the organizational perspective, schools and, on a lower level, classrooms are small systems in which there is a leader (teacher) who demonstrates various leadership skills to influence the followers (students) through situations/practices (Spillane et al., 2004).

As to the focus of the present study, it is theoretically grounded upon the EFL context applying transformational-transactional leadership theories in classroom management based on several widely accepted studies in the education field (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009; Khany & Ghasemi, 2021; Pounder, 2008b). The transformational-transactional leadership theories (full-range notion) involve the

whole spectrum of transformational and transactional leadership characteristics. The characteristics can be summarized as follows (Table 14.1).

As the table depicts, transformational leadership focuses on transforming individuals and producing the desired results with a more distributive, empowering, and loosely coupled perspective whereas transactional leadership has a more tightly coupled and status quo-oriented perspective. However, both leadership practices have been found to be applicable with promising effects not only in classroom management and school management in a general sense but also in English language teaching and program management in several studies (Erdel & Takkaç, 2019; Hallinger, 2003; Khany & Ghasemi, 2021; Li & Liu, 2022; Tahir, 2018). Teachers' transactional leadership practices in EFL classrooms are establishing rules, setting expectations, monitoring behavior, and giving feedback/praise while maintaining the teacher's status as manager of the classroom. Yet, transformational leadership in EFL classrooms involves processes in which learners are transformed and empowered. Those processes include recognizing each and every learner's involvement in teaching

Table 14.1 Transformational and transactional leadership characteristics

	Dimensions	Explanation/Example of the transformational leader behavior
Transformational leadership	(1) Idealized influence or charisma	Leaders create an alignment around a shared purpose; provide a sense of mission, and model exemplary behavior
	(2) Inspirational motivation	Leaders act as models communicating a vision in an appealing way; communicating mutual understanding; talking optimistically and providing encouragement
	(3) Individual consideration	Leaders coach and mentor, and provide continuous feedback paying attention to individuals' different needs and desires
	(4) Intellectual stimulation	Leaders help individuals to think of old problems in new ways; seeking creative solutions and tolerating mistakes
Transactional leadership	(1) Contingent reinforcement or contingent reward	Leaders reward followers on the basis of the achievement of priorly specified performance levels; clarifying expectations; exchanging promises and resources
	(2) Active management by exception	Leaders monitor followers' behavior and enforce rules to avoid mistakes and correct followers' performance
	(3) Passive management by exception	Leaders do not seek out deviations from desired performance; they only interfere upon the occurrence of serious problems

Note. The leadership characteristics were adapted into the table from the source Pounder (2008b, pp. 116–117).

and learning, motivating, mentoring, and coaching for learners' improvement and empowerment (Christison & Murray, 2009).

EFL classroom management, within its own context, requires a participatory and collaborative environment in which learners' voices are heard, and their active involvement as a whole (i.e. social-emotional, cognitive, etc.) is promoted in language teaching and learning processes (Egitim, 2022; Miller, 2011; Murray, 2009). All in all, those processes involve constructing/deconstructing what is known in the interaction of the new language and culture and the existing ones (i.e., through social interactions in learning), as the language ecology theory suggests (Kramsch, 2008; Murray, 2009). That is, language teachers need to lead the teaching and learning environment with the active involvement of all agents to form/sustain the necessary social relations and interactions responsively (Murray, 2009). The concept of "leaderful practices" of teachers can be applied here to elaborate on teacher identity/leadership roles and collaborative practices in classroom management.

The concept of leaderful practices was first defined by Raelin (2011) with an emphasis on transforming social relations among agents based on shared meaning, goals, and democratic values. Egitim (2022) elaborated and expanded the concept in the context of EFL focusing on the flexibility, freedom, and collaboration it suggests for learner-centered language classroom management. The concept of leaderful practices in EFL classroom management emphasizes self-regulated active learners and innovative EFL teachers with an understanding of continuous improvement and self-reflection. Moreover, the concept re-frames or contextualizes a teacher's leadership identity as a collaborative leader in teaching and learning processes, which can be seen as being close to transformational leadership, as in its very essence, it transforms the social realities of classroom management with its motto of "Everybody is a leader" in learning (Egitim, 2022) referring to empowering each learner with increased awareness in the classroom.

Method

Design

The present study employs a questionnaire with both multiple-choice and open-ended questions to investigate teachers' roles and practices regarding classroom leadership and management. Therefore, using a mixed-methods, parallel convergent survey design, the study utilizes quantitative data collected through multiple-choice questions to support the answers given to the open-ended questions for further understanding and "embellish[ing]" of the quantitative findings (Creswell & Clark, 2018, p. 73).

Table 14.2 Participants profiles (N = 72)

Variable	Descriptor	<i>f</i>	%
Gender	Female	49	68
	Male	23	32
Age	22–39	37	54
	39 and above	35	46
Teaching experience	Up to 10 years	22	31
	11–20 years	41	57
	21 and more years	12	13
B.A. degree program	ELT	52	72
	Ame./Eng. language literature/culture	18	25
	English translation and interpreting	2	3
Highest degree held	B.A.	9	13
	M.A.	42	58
	Ph.D.	21	29
Classroom management courses	Yes	57	79
	No	15	21
Current or prior administrative position	Yes	50	69
	No	22	31

Note. *f* = Frequency.

Participants

The study involved EFL instructors who are primarily responsible for teaching various EFL classes at higher education institutions in Türkiye. The participants were recruited through convenience and random criterion sampling. Table 14.2 provides a summary of participant profiles.

Instrument

The instrument used in this study was the EFL Teacher Classroom Leadership Scale developed by Khany and Ghasemi (2021). The scale comprises 32 items with a seven-factor structure and uses a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Under transformational leadership, there are four factors which were called idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation. Three other factors under transactional leadership were called contingent reward, active management, and passive management. Detailed measurements including validity, latent variables, and composite reliability were also performed in the development of the scale (for details, see Khany & Ghasemi,

2021). In the qualitative part of the study, two open-ended optional questions, which were designed in light of Farrell (2018), asked the participants (a) how they perceived their classroom leadership roles and (b) what kind of reflective practices they were engaged in with regard to leadership and classroom management.

Data Collection Procedure

For data collection, approximately 650 individual invitation emails were sent out to the institutional email addresses of eligible participants through random criterion sampling, with a rough return rate of 8%. The ethical clearance was obtained in November 2022 from the authors' institution, and the participants' online written consent was obtained by asking them to mark a checkbox if they agreed to participate. They were informed that confidentiality was assured and that they were allowed to withdraw anytime. The participants were asked to complete various background questions to collect descriptive data, multiple-choice questions, and two open-ended questions presented in English within a single instrument.

Data Analysis

For analyzing the quantitative data obtained from the survey, descriptive and inferential statistics were performed using mean scores and percentages as well as t-tests and analysis of variance (ANOVA) to compare the different mean scores of the participants within the sample to see the effects of individual variables. To qualitatively analyze the responses given to the two open-ended questions, a four-step, deductive content analysis was employed, which entailed developing a framework, coding and categorizing the data, developing themes, and interpreting the findings (Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2017). In content analysis, inferences are drawn from texts, other meaningful matters, or their contexts to make reproducible and meaningful conclusions usually with pre-determined research questions (Krippendorff, 2018). For identifying recurrent themes, Taguette (Rampin & Rampin, 2021), an open-source tool for qualitative data coding, was used. The data was initially coded by the first author, cross-checked by the second author for reliability, and any conflicts were resolved through negotiation.

Findings

Quantitative Findings

The primary research question sought to examine EFL instructors’ self-perceived degree of classroom leadership efficacy. The reliability statistics of the sub-dimension under transformational leadership were 0.75 for idealized influence, 0.69 for inspirational motivation, 0.67 for individual consideration, and 0.68 for individual consideration. Reliability measures for the sub-dimensions under transactional leadership were 0.77, 0.80, and 0.50 for contingent reward, active management, and passive management, respectively. Finally, Cronbach’s alpha values were found to be high for the transformational dimension (0.88), transactional dimension (0.82), and overall scale (0.92). A descriptive analysis of the data revealed some key indicators regarding various components of the measurement scale (Table 14.3).

The findings showed that EFL instructors are mostly positive in their responses, which may be interpreted as high self-perceived efficacy in classroom leadership. Their mean average for “idealized influence” was found to be the highest, followed

Table 14.3 Descriptive statistics for EFL teacher self-perceived classroom leadership self-efficacy

Constructs	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.	Max.	Sk	Kurt
<i>Transformational leadership</i>							
Idealized influence	72	4.49	0.41	3.8	5.0	-0.21	-1.39
Inspirational motivation	72	4.16	0.52	3.0	5.0	-0.01	-0.75
Individual consideration	72	4.24	0.42	3.0	5.0	-0.20	0.79
Intellectual stimulation	72	4.19	0.48	2.6	5.0	-0.21	0.44
Total	72	4.28	0.38	3.37	5.0	-0.11	-0.23
<i>Transactional leadership</i>							
Contingent reward	72	3.99	0.58	2.8	5.0	0.02	-0.72
Active management	72	4.06	0.56	2.4	5.0	-0.60	0.99
Passive management	72	3.51	0.70	2.0	5.0	0.50	0.00
Total	72	3.91	0.46	2.92	5.0	0.26	-0.26
Overall scale	72	4.13	0.39	3.19	5.0	0.01	-0.32

Note. *N* = Total number of participants in the sample, *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation, Min. = Minimum, Max = Maximum, Sk = Skewness, Kurt = Kurtosis.

by the “individual consideration” dimension. Some sample scale items representative of the constructs are as follows: “I explain the importance of being committed toward learning in class” (idealized influence); “I give timely and appropriate both negative and positive feedback to my students” (individual consideration). Both of these constructs are presented under transformational leadership, and they contribute to the overall average score of the corresponding theory (see Table 14.3).

The data further indicated that the lowest scores were observed in the construct of “passive management,” an example statement for which is “I can control my class only when important learning problems occur.” The next lowest scores among all factors were found to be the ones that belong to transactional leadership. The overall mean average for transactional leadership was found to be 0.37 points lower than the mean for the transformational leadership construct.

Further analyses on the teacher background variables were conducted to see whether and how they helped predict the findings. To determine the impact of age, educational attainment, field of study for a bachelor's degree, teaching experience, completion of a course on classroom management and leadership, and administrative experience, ANOVA and t-tests were used following the fulfillment of certain assumptions. As a result of the analyses, two primary effects of several variables were found to have a significant effect on the self-efficacy scores. First, EFL instructors' amount of teaching experience was shown to have a determining effect on their self-reported degree of transformational leadership. EFL instructors with teaching experience of 16 years and more scored higher ($n = 27$, $M = 4.15$, $SD = 0.38$) than those with experience of 15 years or less ($n = 45$, $M = 4.35$, $SD = 0.36$) with a medium effect size (Cohen, 1988) as illustrated in Table 14.4.

Whether EFL instructors had held any administrative positions or not also affected their self-reported teacher classroom leadership self-efficacy specifically in the transactional leadership dimension. Instructors who had been in an administrative position in their departments (i.e., head of the department), scored higher on the transactional leadership dimension of the scale ($p = 0.02$) with a medium effect size (Cohen, 1988) (Table 14.5).

Table 14.4 The effect of teaching experience on EFL instructors' self-perceived leadership self-efficacy

	Experience	n	M	SD	SE	t	p	Cohen's d
Transformational leadership	15 years or less	45	4.35	0.36	0.05	2.19	0.03	0.53

Note. n = The number of participants in the sample subgroup, M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation, SE = Standard Error, t = a type of inferential statistic used to study the difference between the means of two groups, p = probability value, Cohen's d = a standardized effect size for measuring the difference between two group means.

Table 14.5 The effect of administrative position on EFL instructors’ leadership self-efficacy

	Experience	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Cohen’s <i>d</i>
Transactional leadership	Administrative experience	36	3.78	0.51	0.09	2.42	0.02	0.57
	No administrative experience	36	4.04	0.38	0.06			

Qualitative Findings

The purpose of this section is to complement and confirm the quantitative findings of the study by elaborating on EFL instructors’ views and practices with regard to leadership in classroom management. The first open-ended question on the questionnaire was “How do you describe your classroom leadership roles and practices in EFL classroom management?” The resulting themes, sub-themes, and frequency of codes as revealed by the content analysis are presented in Table 14.6.

Relevant codes were created and later merged into themes iteratively to describe and interpret the data, which revealed that EFL instructors vary in their perceptions of their roles as classroom leaders. The themes generated may loosely correspond to transactional and transformational leadership. A closer look at the first theme reveals that some EFL instructors believe that the teacher figure represents the source of knowledge and authority. One instructor (Teacher, henceforth T, 16) stated that “A teacher should be the disciplinary figure; however, the students should not feel intimidated” proposing that they should be aware of the rules because otherwise there will

Table 14.6 Themes under EFL instructors’ leadership roles in classroom management

Themes	Codes	<i>f</i>
Teachers as transactional leaders	A disciplinary figure	5
	A dominant figure	5
	A control mechanism	2
	The power of knowledge	2
	A good planner of the class period	2
Teachers as transformational leaders	Establishing good rapport and positive atmosphere	11
	Student-centered teaching and learning	10
	A facilitator	8
	Providing freedom and tolerance	7
	Valuing respect	6
	A collaborator	3
	Inclusive	3
Shared responsibilities	3	

Note. *f* = Frequency.

be disrespect in the classroom. Similarly, by emphasizing the importance of planning on classroom management and leadership, T17 indicated that "Having a good plan throughout the lesson makes my leadership roles more effective, and it becomes easier to control the class." Regarding freedom in classroom management, one instructor (T33) maintained that "I believe when we give students too much freedom, they may completely go out of control, and misbehaviors or other undesired acts start to show up." As demonstrated by the quotations, instructors usually preferred to present a dominating or authority figure mainly because they felt that they would have to "control the class" to prevent potentially disrespectful behavior and to create an environment conducive to learning. The following quotation is representative of such an approach:

I haven't encountered many disrespectful behaviors over the years, and I believe it's because of how I teach. I maintain control by becoming a dominant figure who is dominating the classroom management but not the lesson flow or learning. (T39)

The number of instructors who followed or supported a more transformational leadership approach in the classroom is higher as revealed by the frequency of codes in Table 14.6. Instructors believed in the power of sharing leadership and freedom in the classroom. They thought they did not have to be the disciplinary figure in the classroom, stating that they "feel more like a part of a community of students rather than an authority, like a moderator" (T2), and "consider [themselves] a facilitator rather than an authority that tries to discipline the learners" (T49). Most instructors further mentioned that they did not have rules, but they did not act like an authority in the classroom, either. Furthermore, a majority of them emphasized the importance of listening to students and getting to know their interests and needs as a way to establish rapport with them, which they considered essential for an ideal classroom atmosphere:

I pay attention to creating a safe atmosphere for each student. They have a say in class rules. I put it clear that I welcome their mistakes and they are really vital to learning. I try to be visible and accessible. (T27)

I can build a good rapport with students just from the beginning, and I can create a warm, sincere, caring classroom environment so that all the students (no matter what their socio-economic situation, gender, race, etc.) can feel welcomed and accepted. When they feel secure and trust me as their teacher, they let me lead the class easily (T30)

I believe in the presence of free will in the classroom. My students can do what they want as long as they follow the activities and do not disturb me and others. To give an example, a student can listen to music while doing a worksheet activity. (T12)

As shown in these quotations, EFL instructors see their role as someone who is facilitating learning in the classroom by way of creating a free and warm learning atmosphere conducive to learning and establishing a good rapport with students, which in their opinion, will automatically lead to a leaderful classroom. The following quotation may be considered a summary of those teachers who believe in the power of sharing leadership:

In a post-modern world, the authority a teacher exerts in a classroom has changed. Although a teacher was considered to be an authority figure and knowledge possessor in a traditional

classroom, post-modern approaches necessitate sharing leadership roles and practices with students. (T50)

The second open-ended question asked EFL instructors whether and what kind of reflective activities/practices they had been involved in to improve their classroom management and leadership. In order to provide relevant prompts for them to discuss, examples of reflective practices were provided such as *teaching journals* and *critical friends*. The resulting themes, codes, and frequencies for the second question are provided in Table 14.7, supported by their empirical indicators further below.

As revealed by the content analysis, EFL instructors reported having been engaged in a variety of reflective teaching practices with only three stating that they were not involved in any such activities. One said, “I haven’t had a chance to take part in any reflective practice specifically focusing on classroom management and leadership” (T23), and another one said that such activities “haven’t been obligatory in [their] workplaces” (T33). Other than those, all teachers were shown to be engaged in various reflective activities such as observation (observing and being observed), partnerships, and professional development courses and webinars.

The following quotation is important in showing how responding to a survey question on reflective teaching practices may help teachers to reflect on their practices:

Thank you so much for giving me the opportunity to think over my teaching after so many years of experience. Sometimes teachers can lose track of time doing many things and forget to stop for a while to think about what they have been doing. (T30)

Table 14.7 Themes under EFL instructors’ reflective practices

Themes	Codes	<i>f</i>
Observation	Observing classrooms (not specified)	20
	Observing classrooms (as a higher authority)	4
	Being observed	5
	Being filmed	2
Partnerships	Peer support	19
	Mentorship	10
	Critical friends	4
Professional development	Courses during graduate studies	3
	Short-term online courses	3
	Certification (e.g., DELTA, CELTA)	3
	Webinars, seminars workshops, social media	8
Written reflections	Writing self-reflections (letters, journals) in classes	5
	Students’ reflections on classes	4
Research	Action research	6
	Researching and reading new research	4

Note. *f* = Frequency.

Qualitative data in this study corroborate the quantitative findings. The leadership roles and the amount and type of reflective teaching practices reported by EFL instructors demonstrate the prevalence of transformational leadership among instructors.

Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to investigate (a) university-level EFL teachers' / instructors' perceptions of self-efficacy in classroom leadership, (b) how they describe their leadership roles and practices in classroom management, and (c) what reflective practices they are or have been involved in to improve their classroom management.

The findings of the first research question indicated that EFL teachers in the present study self-reported themselves as high in classroom leadership self-efficacy, and their scores in transformational leadership were comparatively higher than their self-ratings in transactional leadership. The fact that teachers rated themselves higher on transformational leadership corroborates the findings of some previous research reporting EFL teacher leadership styles. In their study, Erdel and Takkaç (2019) looked at the ratings of four EFL writing instructors by 300 English-major students in terms of their leadership. The findings showed that students rated their teachers higher on transformational leadership as opposed to transactional leadership. It is noteworthy that Turkish EFL instructors show transformational leadership profiles, and this is promising for the future of English language teaching in Turkish higher education classrooms. Transformational leadership has been shown to be an effective style of leadership and a predictor of an increased sense of responsibility in teachers, both of which support students' learning and the achievement of their academic objectives (DeDeyn, 2021; Khany & Ghoreishi, 2014). Furthermore, an analysis of the background variables in predicting EFL teachers' self-reported ratings of self-efficacy in classroom leadership showed that teaching experience and experience in an administrative position positively affected teachers' ratings in classroom leadership.

Previous studies, however, did not completely support these findings. A study by Aliakbari and Darabi (2013) looked at the relationship between teaching experience and leadership among English teachers and reported no significant relationship. This surely needs further investigation as it may help understand the leadership tendencies of recent graduates of EFL teacher training programs. Regarding the role of administrative duties in positively affecting EFL teachers' ratings of self-efficacy in classroom management, to the best of our knowledge, there are no studies directly supporting such a relationship as their primary purpose, which requires further research.

The second research question explored the leadership roles in classroom management as perceived by EFL teachers. The qualitative findings corroborated the quantitative findings in that teachers considered their leadership as either being the primary

authority in the classroom or as someone sharing responsibility with the students. However, it should be noted that a majority of the EFL teachers supported the latter in describing their leadership roles. Since sharing leadership and responsibility, valuing rapport and student-centered learning/teaching, and viewing themselves as facilitators and collaborators are considered components of transformational leadership, the EFL teachers in this study can be described as transformational leaders in the classroom, as defined by previous research (DeDeyn, 2021; Erdel & Takkaç, 2019).

On the other hand, although the proportion of the teachers' responses that revealed a transactional leadership role in the classroom was relatively lower, teachers who identified themselves as transformative sometimes described themselves as the disciplinary or dominant figure with a control mechanism based on their knowledge and planning skills. This finding echoes that of Ekiaka Nzai et al.'s (2012), who found that teachers with a transactional leadership style were shown to be more concerned about maintaining the "status quo" in the classroom and were also observed to display similar practices in the classroom to those of transactional teachers in this study. This indicates that although teachers self-reported a prevalent type of leadership they associated themselves with, they also described themselves as displaying a number of characteristics that are linked to the other leadership type. Many reasons may contribute to this, including the teachers' previous leadership experiences as students, or the EFL learner profiles in the Turkish context, who are generally described as lacking autonomy, intrinsic motivation, and engagement. (e.g., Genc & Aydin, 2017; Ozer & Yukselir, 2021). Former students, now teachers, who were exposed to transactional leadership practices when there were learner-related issues in the classrooms might be struggling to completely leave behind those experiences in their own leadership practices.

The third research question asked teachers to mention whether and what kind of reflective practices they took part in for improving their classroom management and leadership. Teachers mentioned observation the most, followed by partnerships such as peer support and mentorship. Certifications, short-term courses, self- and student reflections, and action research were some of the other ways teachers reflected on their classroom management and leadership practices. It should be noted that reflective practices and activities are crucial for maintaining a leaderful classroom (Egitim, 2022), and a more comprehensive understanding of teachers' implementations in the classroom (Clarke, 1995). Reflective practices are also very important for helping EFL teachers to be aware of and recognize their potential to improve their teaching methods, empower themselves, and understand the power of continuous professional development (Fakazli & Kuru Gönen, 2017), all of which pave the way for better classroom learning and teaching practices.

The present study has various limitations. First, although the participants were from a variety of university teaching contexts, the sample size was limited. Therefore, the findings should not be generalized. Also, the quantitative findings were based on self-reported ratings and thus should be supported through observations of actual practices. Similarly, the analysis of the qualitative data analysis may have been influenced by subjective evaluations and researcher bias and should be interpreted with caution. Yet, despite these limitations, the present study contributes to

previous research by offering some implications for emphasizing reflective practices in EFL teacher leadership. This study shows that awareness-raising about leadership is crucial for in-service and pre-service EFL teachers. Once teachers recognize the role of leadership in maintaining a learning environment more conducive to learning and teaching, they are more likely to exert effort in demonstrating the characteristics of transformational leadership in the EFL classroom. Although classroom management courses exist in Turkish teacher training programs, they are limited in terms of the number of hours and the priority they receive. Given its crucial role in shaping the classroom climate and rapport, training teachers in classroom management and leadership is essential. In this vein, reflective practices support teachers in improving their leadership and ensuring leaderful classrooms, and thus should similarly be encouraged.

Conclusion

The present study examined leadership self-efficacy, perception of leadership roles, and reflective teaching practices of Turkish EFL instructors. The findings revealed that most teachers rated themselves higher on the transformational leadership component overall, and more commonly reported characteristics of transformational leadership styles in classroom management. The EFL teachers were also shown to have participated in various reflective teaching activities. Although the findings of the present study cannot be generalized, it calls for action initially by teacher training curriculum designers to review their curricula in the ways that they train teachers as future classroom leaders, and similarly by other stakeholders who prepare in-service teacher training for EFL teachers.

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Burcu Gokgoz-Kurt (Ph.D., U of South Carolina, 2016) is a Fulbright alumna working as a faculty member at Kutahya Dumlupinar University in Türkiye. Her research and teaching focus on applied linguistics and TESOL, specifically, L2 pronunciation instruction and speech perception and cognitive bases of L2 processing. Teaching undergraduate-level and graduate-level applied linguistics and translation classes at her current institution, she has extensive experience teaching English in the United States and Türkiye.

Figen Karaferye (Ph.D. in Educational Management and Leadership), works as a faculty member at Kutahya Dumlupinar University in Türkiye. With her background which brings pedagogies, foreign language teaching, and educational management & leadership together, she has designed and led Professional Development programs for academicians in universities; taken active roles in PD programs (hybrid and in-person) for school managers and English language teachers in K-12 schools in country-wide projects of the Ministry of National Education.

Chapter 15

Landscaping and Sustaining Well-Becoming in Learning Partnerships: Concrete Steps to “Communities Full of Leaders”



Daniel Hooper and Tim Murphey

Abstract This chapter addresses the challenges of creating an equitable classroom where all participants’ voices are valued, and student leaders are nurtured. Although institutional policies may perpetuate traditional top-down power dynamics, teachers must prioritize this goal. In addition, teachers must address deficit beliefs, such as native-speakerism and the infallibility of teachers that learners may have internalized. The authors, who are two language educator-researchers based in Japan, explore a variety of methods they have used to restructure the classroom to promote learning partnerships that foster empathetic and humanistic behavior and individual/group empowerment. Drawing on research in sociology, motivation, positive psychology, and applied linguistics, the authors discuss a philosophy of partnership and “well becoming” based on agentic, prosocial action that promotes well-being for oneself and others. The authors then offer several pedagogical interventions, including action logging, near-peer role modeling, and social testing, as examples of leaderful practices that can create a more welcoming learning environment. This chapter acts as a resource for teachers seeking to establish inclusive and empowering learning environments by reshaping traditional power dynamics and promoting partnerships with students.

Keywords Community · Democracy · Egalitarianism · Humanism · Partnership · Power dynamics · Prosociality · Well-being · Well-becoming

Creating an egalitarian classroom where the voices of all participants are respected, and student leaders are fostered is a challenging endeavor. However, this should be one of the most sought-after goals of teachers. In addition to institutional policies

D. Hooper (✉)
Tokyo Kasei University, Tokyo, Japan
e-mail: hooper-d@tokyo-kasei.ac.jp

T. Murphey
Freelance Educator, Lostine, Oregon, United States

that may reinforce traditional top-down power dynamics, educators may also need to address deficit beliefs such as native-speakerism (the belief that language learning should be based on a “native” standard and is, therefore, best taught by “native speakers” of the language (Lowe, 2020; Moussu & Llorca, 2008)) or the infallibility of teachers that learners have internalized as “common sense.”

In this chapter, two Japan-based language “pracademics” (Posner, 2009) will examine a range of different methods that they have utilized to relevel or *landscape* the classroom. These landscaping techniques are designed to foster learning partnerships with students that catalyze a continuing cycle of empathetic and humanistic behavior and individual/group empowerment. Firstly, drawing upon extant literature in the fields of sociology, motivation, positive psychology, and applied linguistics, we will discuss a philosophy of partnership (Eisler, 2002) and “well-becoming” (Hiro-sawa & Murphey, 2023) based upon agentic, prosocial action leading to the creation of wellbeing for ourselves and others around us.

We subsequently provide a number of pedagogical interventions (action logging, near-peer role modeling, social testing) from a range of empirical studies that act as concrete examples of leaderful practices that can landscape a more invitational learning environment. Action logging—using student feedback forms to shape classroom practice—is an expression of democratic leadership (Goleman, 2000) that encourages students to actively contribute to the management of their own learning environments. By attending to the students’ insights contained in their action logs, a teacher shows that the inside knowledge and experience that students bring with them to the classroom is as respected as the formal external knowledge that teachers have acquired from formal qualifications or training.

Consequently, through action logging, students are presented with evidence that they are active partners in the learning process rather than dominated subjects within the regime of the teacher. Near-peer role modeling—affording opportunities for learners to connect with relatable and attainable role models—satisfies students’ basic psychological need for competence (Ryan & Deci, 2017) as the successful language user becomes someone like them rather than a distant figure like the “native speaker” (Murphey, 1998). Near-peer role modeling is also closely connected to a rejection of mythical notions of perfection in the learning process. By rejecting the notion of infallibility in both language learner and teacher by translanguaging, challenging notions relating to nativeness, and sharing stories of our own mistakes, we landscape the classroom further and create a liminal space (Turner, 1967) in which common-sense beliefs or power dynamics that alienate learners are malleable or even discardable.

Finally, social testing refers to students democratically and collaboratively creating assessment materials based on what they have learned in a given course. Each learner contributes questions to a test which is later compiled by the teacher and finally completed both individually and in cooperation with others. Viewed through a community of practice (CoP) lens (Wenger, 1998), this type of test represents a shared artifact of the classroom CoP that reifies their equal and empowered status within it. In sum, this chapter frames both research findings and practical classroom management techniques in relation to a coherent humanistic educational philosophy

of partnership. The link to gardening in terms of the landscaping metaphor we draw upon in this chapter is apt. We argue that by shaping the topography of our learning environment towards partnership and well-becoming, we are co-creating favorable conditions for student leaders to bloom.

Liaison Relationships of Sharing and Caring: Tim's Story

My father (born 1913) was a little old to be a frontline soldier (they thought) in WWII and so he first was sent to train WACs (women army core) where he met and married my mother. Later in the war he was front-lined in the South Pacific and then became a liaison officer in occupied Japan and learned a bit of Japanese when stationed in Japan with his wife and 3 kids, with the 4th to be born in Japan. I was born in the US in 1953 when he was relocated to teach military science at a university in Georgia. Then he was sent to Germany in 1955 to be a liaison officer there because he spoke French and German, and we all went with him. Finally, he retired after 20 years in the army and found a job as the Civil Defense Director of north Florida (my mom's home state).

In both the homes in Florida that I grew up in, he built fallout shelters (this was the era of the Cuban Missile Crisis) and was constantly preparing everyday people for disastrous hurricanes. I tell his story because I believe his choices and travels and duties seem to have directed him toward ever more egalitarian and trusting relationships often in times of extreme panic and turmoil. I seem to have followed in his footsteps somewhat while doing my Ph.D. in Switzerland (which has the best civil defense in the world) and then coming to Japan to learn more about intercultural respect and equitable liaison. This seems to come full circle to Universal Sharing and Caring Advising which I am presently writing about and investigating with my Turkish colleagues.

A Goal Worth Their Time: Dan's Story

Since my first day as a language teacher, my supposed superiority over my students and even some of my peers based on my "native speaker" status has been framed as a common-sense assumption. More curious to me was that the native-dominant system was fiercely advocated for not only by those, like myself, who benefited from it, but also by the non-native learners it consigned to inferiority. Over the years in a wide range of different classrooms, I saw a similar pattern unfold. Learners striving to become English users were forced to take part in a rigged game. Success in the game and identity of competence was inextricably tied to something alien and disempowering—the mythical image of the native speaker. Time and time again, I saw learners strive to attain that elusive "native" status, only to experience crushing identity threats and disappointment when it became clear that they would always fall

short. Spurred by this disturbing trend, I constantly thought about ways in which I could even the odds for my students and perhaps shine a light on other goals that may actually be worthy of their effort and humanity. In order to level out or landscape the classroom power dynamic, I tried to foreground my vulnerability and challenge the supposed infallibility of the native speaker. By positioning myself as a fellow language learner and collaborating with like-minded educators such as Tim, I was able to diversify my landscaping toolbox. We discuss in this chapter some examples of these tools—means of prying open spaces of possibility in the social fabric of the classroom from which student ownership and leadership can emerge.

Partnering and Well-Becoming

The anthropologist Riane Eisler has presented her enlightening cultural model of domineering versus partnering in a series of publications from 1984 to the present day (Eisler, 1987). She has also made it particularly relevant to education with several other publications (Eisler, 2002; Eisler & Fry, 2019). Partnering has become a catchword for many people in many fields who have realized that the somewhat violent and unequal ways of disrespectful domineering hurt not only otherwise democratic systems but also families, athletic and business teams, and various other business and social communities. Mentally imagining a moment of times when you have felt dominated and times when you have felt partnered can usually help you realize how your students might feel in more collaborative environments. Below we look more closely at how certain educational processes might shift classrooms into a more egalitarian landscape of partnership. Hirosawa and Murphey (2023) looked at the development of the term “well-becoming” over the years and noted that Carl Rogers (1961) was inspired by Kierkegaard (Hong & Hong, 2000) who described the world as continually in a process of *vel bekomme* (Danish/German), thus inspired Rogers to write about becoming a person which turned out to be his book title.

Both Kierkegaard and Rogers emphasized in their writing that healthy people always seem to be becoming and developing. In the 1990s well-being became a new way of describing positive psychology processes and goals. Later, Murphey thought he coined the term well-becoming and used it in several publications (Murphey, 2014, 2016) and later discovered many other authors, like Kierkegaard and Rogers, who also used the term positively (see Hirosawa & Murphey, 2023 for a full list). Well-being seems to be somewhat of an endpoint, whereas well-becoming implies *continual becoming* which indeed has often been used in the literature. The well-being of course inspired many actions as well and will probably remain a key term in positive psychology and our everyday languaging (Swain et al., 2015).

We prefer well-becoming because of its seemingly ongoing, and never-ending, process in progress which Rogers especially made us aware of with his unconditional positive regard which he advised advisors when interacting with students, clients, and other advisees to show immediate respect so that they could relax and communicate more safely and heal themselves through well-becoming relationships. We hope

to help our fellow teachers to explore ways that they can more easily create well-becoming partnerships with their students.

Resonant Leadership

We can also observe parallels with Eisler's concepts of *domination* and *partnership* in the existing literature on effective leadership practices. Building upon earlier research by Goleman (2000) into leadership styles, Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2013) foregrounded the importance of emotional climate—"how individuals think the majority of others are feeling in the group's current situation" (De Rivera & Páez, 2007, p. 234)—within a group and how this is shaped in no small part by leadership practices. Emotions, and positive emotions in particular, are contagious (Hatfield et al., 1994). Consequently, by contributing to a positive emotional climate, we can set an energizing and self-sustaining cycle of positive group dynamics in motion. So how does this relate to domination or partnership? Goleman et al. (2013) illustrated how different leadership styles were found to be either *resonant*—emphasizing emotional connection and fostering a positive emotional climate—or *dissonant*—eroding emotional well-being and connection.

One key point to note here is that the term *resonance* is commonly defined as synchronicity with another element such as sound. Goleman et al. (2013) extended this concept to the feeling of the group and highlighted the crucial role of attuning self to group members' voices and feelings. From research drawing upon data from over 3,800 executives around the world, Goleman (2000) identified four resonant leadership styles that were found to have had a positive impact on emotional climate: (1) visionary/authoritative, (2) coaching, (3) affiliative, and (4) democratic. Of these leadership styles, visionary/authoritative and democratic leadership had the highest correlation with positive group climate. Conversely, two leadership styles—(1) pacesetter and (2) commanding/coercive—were found to be dissonant, with commanding/coercive leadership being least correlated with positive emotional climate (see Table 15.1).

One look at the descriptors for both the resonant and dissonant leadership styles and it is not difficult to detect a clear parallel between the broader concepts of partnership and domination that Eisler discussed. Goleman et al. (2013) took this one step further by showing not only how emotional climate is enhanced by partnership-oriented leadership, but also how such a climate benefitted group performance. In terms of how leaders can become more resonant, emotional intelligence and reflexivity are hugely important in resonant leadership and creating a positive emotional climate. Indeed, Goleman et al. (2013) argued that reflection is crucial for developing the self-awareness necessary to develop the "conviction and authenticity that resonance requires" (p. 44). Although individual reflection can certainly be valuable, it is clear, in line with Kato and Mynard's (2016) innovative work in learner advising, that collaboration and reflective dialogue can foster far deeper self-discovery and transformative change. This claim is echoed in Mann and Walsh's (2017) sociocultural

Table 15.1 Examples of resonant and dissonant leadership styles

Leadership style	Correlation with positive emotional climate	Description
Visionary/authoritative (resonant)	0.54	Inspires members towards shared goals while affording them the autonomy to decide how to reach them
Democratic (resonant)	0.43	Values members' ideas and opinions in decision making. Ensures buy-in through building trust and respecting all voices
Commanding/coercive (dissonant)	-0.26	Top-down leadership conducted through "carrot-stick" motivational approaches. Requires compliance and denies ownership

(Adapted from Goleman, 2000)

perspective on teacher professional development where they state that “new understandings emerge through conversations with other professionals, through experience and reflection on that experience” (p. 12). Therefore, we argue that ongoing reflection in collaboration with others (peers, students, teachers, etc.) is the foundation for resonant “leaderful classroom practices” (Egitim, 2022) to take place.

In this chapter, we use the metaphor of landscaping to illustrate how we can use partnership practices to shape the power and interpersonal topography of a classroom which then affords grassroots expressions of student leadership, prosociality, and a self-sustaining climate of well-becoming. In the following sections, we will present three concrete pedagogical approaches—action logging, near-peer role modeling, and social testing—that we have found to be valuable tools in our landscaping repertoire.

Action Logging

Action logging is the practice of using short feedback forms to collect students' ideas, reflections, and evaluations relating to each class they participate in. These forms are often compiled physically (e.g., pasted into a notebook) or digitally in a similar manner to a ship's log—a way to reflect upon students' learning journeys (Hooper, 2020). The format of an action log will vary based on the needs of a particular class, but in general, action logs will include sections where students can rate class activities, set goals for themselves, and leave free comments for teachers about the lesson or any other pertinent issues (see Fig. 15.1). Action logs are typically collected at the end of each class by the teacher who then checks them before the next class. Some teachers prefer to keep the action logs as a private dialogue between them

Date:

My English target for class:

How much English I used

Today we:

1) _____

(I)nteresting (D)ifficult (U)seful

2) _____

(I)nteresting (D)ifficult (U)seful

3) _____

(I)nteresting (D)ifficult (U)seful

4) _____

(I)nteresting (D)ifficult (U)seful

Comments about class:

What did you learn in class today?

What you want to do better next time:

New vocabulary:

Fig. 15.1 Example action log template

and the students where they can safely share any issues they may be experiencing inside or outside the classroom. Other teachers elect to make action logging a more collaborative endeavor by encouraging students to share and discuss their action log comments at the start of class.

The practice of action logging can be traced back to an article in which Tim asked the question, “Why don’t Teachers Learn What Learners Learn?” (Murphey, 1993). Tim’s article was a reaction to Allwright’s (1984), “Why Don’t Learners Learn What Teachers Teach?” and represented a key step towards the classroom landscaping that we discuss in this chapter. Tim proposed that action logging confers a wide range of benefits to both teachers and students including opportunities for reflection on and review of lesson content, fostering deeper student–teacher relationships, and providing teachers with valuable insight into what activities are or are not effective.

More relevant to this chapter, however, is Tim’s assertion that action logs are a tool for dialogic communication between student and teacher that facilitates a co-construction of the learning environment. Placing student voice via action log feedback at the center of the lesson planning and teaching process facilitates a landscaping of the classroom where student and teacher perspectives are more equally weighted, and the traditional teacher-student power gap can be reduced. One specific instance of this landscaping in action is observable in Dan’s year-long study of action log use in a university EFL reading class (Hooper, 2020) in which he documented the ways

in which his students’ action logs shaped the development of his teaching practice and identity. Most germane to the notion of action logs as a mediator of dialogue was how students’ action logs invited a negotiation of expectations in terms of the class policies towards the use of the students’ mother tongue (Japanese). While Dan had a markedly positive view towards translanguaging and aversion to English-only policies due to his research interests and teaching history, students’ action log comments indicated that they believed a stricter policy including measures to dissuade the use of Japanese would benefit their development.

This led to a discussion in class where both Dan and his students decided on a compromise that would be resonant with their beliefs and expectations. This critical incident shows how by combining action logs with respectful in-class discussion, points of divergence within a class can be identified, explored, and ultimately resolved in a satisfactory way. Furthermore, the explicit recognition of student perspectives that diverge from the teacher’s and the willingness to actively negotiate a shared response to that divergence of beliefs symbolizes a landscaping of the power dynamic and shows students through action that they possess agency and authority within a class. Miyake-Warkentin et al. (2020) extended this concept further as they show how student feedback can even influence the format of the action log itself according to the needs of their class. Thus, an action log comes to represent a tangible reification of the landscaped classroom—a concrete object students can hold in their hands representing the power and responsibility they have in the learning process. This process is a “continuous growth cycle” (Miyake-Warkentin et al., 2020, p. 346) (see Fig. 15.2) that facilitates the active involvement of students in the development of effective physical (action logs) and social (teacher, peers) resources that they can draw upon in their learning journeys.

By looking again at action logging through Eisler’s domination/partnership distinction and Goleman’s notion of resonant leadership, we can better understand

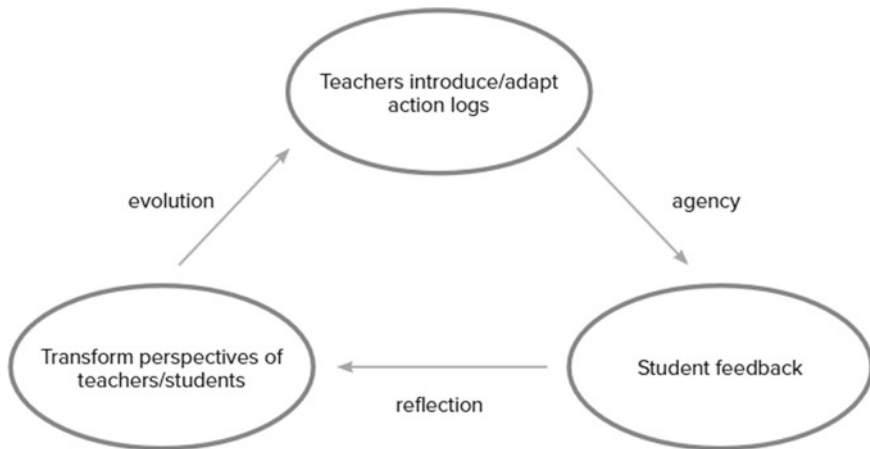


Fig. 15.2 The action log cycle (Miyake-Warkentin et al., 2020, p. 346)

how using action logs as part of one's teaching repertoire contributes to the fostering of student empowerment and leadership. The rejection of dominant thinking and the embracing of a partnering approach that action logs represent should be fairly evident. The dialogue between teacher and student that action logging promotes is a challenge to a prevalent top-down factory model of education (Callahan, 1962) where students are beholden to coercive leadership practices based on behaviorist conditioning (grades, punishments, etc.). Action logs extend a hand to students, proving to them through discussion, action, and tangible products that they have agency in the classroom. This is, of course, also congruent with Goleman's democratic leadership style, grounding decision-making in negotiation and group consensus rather than a top-down fiat. Moreover, action logs can be taken one step further through the publishing of anonymous student comments in class newsletters (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003; Kindt & Murphey, 2000) (see Fig. 15.3).

When these newsletters are shared with all class members, we can enhance our learners' basic psychological needs of competence and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2017) and foster a greater sense of belonging and group identity. By reading each other's comments, learners can understand that they are all experiencing the same struggles, anxieties, and doubts, thus leading to an increased sense of empathy within the group. In addition, by sharing their enthusiasm, goals for the course, and positive expressions of determination, students can take on the role of visionary peer leaders contributing to a broader sense of collective efficacy (Donohoo et al., 2018).

1. I understood what Dan said about Warm-up game! Also I didn't talk Japanese too much. I tried to speak English all the time. Class newsletter gave me good impetus. I want to write like those. My best newsletter comment is "I want to talk with my classmates in English. Also, I want to help my group members in English when someone is in trouble." I could hear what Dan said today. I'll do my best this week!
2. I was so happy today!!!! It's because one group chose my comment. However, I don't know why because my comment is not a big deal;) Anyway thank you for showing us our comments! It was a very good resource and helpful! and Warm Up Two truth and lie game was so much fun! Of course your game is always fun but I think this is amazing!
3. Today, we talked about the class newsletter. I found what we ourselves wanted to do, what you were feeling in the first week and so on. I'd like to use the class meaningfully, so everyone shouldn't feel stressed by studying. We have to make a good environment to cooperate with each other. I want to remember my classmate's names quickly as a first step. Thank you for a good lesson.
4. I think discussing the class newsletter is good because I'm relieved to know that I have the same opinion as my classmates.
5. Two truths and a lie was very interesting and useful because we could learn about each other, like what she likes to do or what he doesn't like and so on. Also, the Newsletter was very useful. I can find someone who feels the same things as me and I was relieved to hear that. Thank you for sharing our comments and feelings.
6. It was difficult in this class. I used "well" or "hmm". I want to speak English more and I want to be able to express what I want to say in English. I learned new words. I was glad.
7. "You know" is so useful. I learned how to use "you know...". I had four classes and I have got so many assignments. My eyes are so tired, so I need to go to bed early.
8. It is interesting to use English with a fun game. I love to join this lesson. But sometimes, the conversation finishes very fast and we talk in Japanese but I don't want to. So I am going to find a good way to keep using English!

Fig. 15.3 Example class newsletter

Near-Peer Role Modeling

One pernicious form of domination relations that can exist in language classrooms is the ideology of native-speakerism. In Tim and Dan’s teaching context of Japan, “common-sense” beliefs and pedagogy based on the preeminence of “native English” exist at practically every level of ELT (Lowe, 2020). This in turn reinforces a hierarchical system that consigns learners to a “non-native” identity. Consequently, many learners come to frame themselves in deficit terms and regard anything but the mythical “native” standard as falling short of the mark (Honna & Takeshita, 1998). In order to disrupt the undermining effects of native-speakerism and foster a sense of self-efficacy in the learners we work with, both of us spend a great deal of effort encouraging students to focus on near-peers rather than the distant image of the “native speaker.”

A near-peer role model (NPRM) is someone we can look up to and learn from “who might be “near” to us in several ways: age, ethnicity, gender, interests, past or present experiences, and also in proximity and in the frequency of social contact” (Murphey and Arao, 2001, p. 1). Near-peer role modeling is theoretically congruent with Bandura’s (1997) work on self-efficacy in that it represents *vicarious experience*—the idea that if one sees someone similar to them succeed in a given task, they are more likely to believe that their own success is also possible. Furthermore, in a practical sense, within an EFL context like Japan where contact with English users is less common, near-peer role modeling encourages learners to view peers as learning resources and exposes them to different language learning strategies.

Existing research has revealed that NPRM-based interventions in language classrooms have led to learners’ increased feelings of self-efficacy (Walters, 2020), improved self-beliefs and motivation (Brown, 2008; Lingley, 2015; Murphey & Arao, 2001; Murphey & Murakami, 1998), and a stronger vision of a future L2 self (Wang, 2020a, 2020b). Hooper (2016) also discovered a number of instances where NPRM videos shown to students, in which the NPRMs discussed their language learning histories, acted as “myth busters” (Muir, 2018, p. 11) as they disrupted several prevalent inhibitive beliefs about language learning.

Everyone seems to be stuck with the idea that they have to speak English with perfect grammar, and lots of people think that they can’t speak English because of it. People in the video were great (Hooper, 2016, p. 16).

As to how one can promote near-peer role modeling in the classroom, Murphey and Murakami (1998) suggested three simple steps to identify and promote NPRMs in a given educational setting. Firstly, decide (ideally through collaboration with learners) some positive characteristics of learners that others should mirror. Then, find students within your class/school that exhibit those characteristics. Finally, focus on and promote those examples to your class so that students can model them. The NPRM could be selected based on their communicative ability, adoption of positive learning habits/strategies, or success in overcoming learning obstacles (Muir, 2018). Muir (2018) also suggested that highlighting the strengths of quieter students or those lacking in confidence and positioning them as NPRMs could contribute considerably

to the self-efficacy of individuals and the group as a whole. In addition, Egitim (2022) provided an example of how not only students, but even teachers, can act as NPRMs by sharing their own language learning challenges, anxieties, or strategies and revealing their own fallibility through their imperfect use of their students' L1.

As previously discussed, the ideology of native-speakerism within TESOL contributes to a domination model that ideologically positions our learners in deficit identities in relation to idealized “native speakers.” However, the blame for dominance-oriented language education in Japan cannot be solely laid at the feet of native-speakerism. Arguably, one must also take into account the influence of local power structures such as *jouge kankei* (seniority-based hierarchies) (Wang, 2020a, 2020b) and teacher-centered “technical cultures” in schools (Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004, p. 798) stemming in part from historical roots in Confucianism (Egitim, 2022). That being said, we have observed on countless occasions how the looming presence of native-centric standards in our field often serves to deny our learners of agency and self-actualization. Redirecting their attention to NPRMs rather than to vague and often problematic concepts of the “native speaker” creates a space where learners can realize their own potential to step into leadership identities. Within such a learning environment, NPRMs represent concrete and relatable examples of visionary leadership that encourage others to persist in their learning journeys buoyed by the possibility of success and of even being the next generation of NPRM. Below is an example of how watching an NPRM in a student-managed learning community called the LC impacted one learner, Sara, who would eventually go on to become the community's next leader and inspire future generations of LC members.

I thought, “Ah, this much, by one's own efforts, you can build this much confidence, and I felt I could do it.” Because of that, I gradually got more and more into the LC. (translated from Japanese) (Sara in Hooper, 2023)

In this sense, our landscaped classrooms represent liminal (in-between) spaces partially detached from wider dominant power structures within TESOL and the wider world. Within this landscaped liminality, new possibilities can emerge, and “common-sense” beliefs about what English represents and who owns it become questionable and malleable. This, of course, does not mean that learners or teachers simply leave their baggage of assumptions and beliefs at the door, but rather that through partnering actions like near-peer role modeling, we are able to reveal “cracks in the concrete” (Hooper, 2023, p. 273) of broader power structures that may disempower us.

Classroom Time Sharing with Mutual Aid

Many teachers and students sometimes assume that teachers are the source of knowledge and thus should dominate the time devoted to learning when in fact, as we saw with the NPRMs above, students can actually learn better when interacting with people closer to their ability levels. Thus, more informed teachers usually allow

a significant amount of positively directed interaction time among students themselves. This time trying to make themselves understood in a foreign language with relatively equal peers has been found to be one of the best linguistic nutrients available for language learning motivation. When asked if they wish to speak with a native speaker or another student at their approximate level, most students intuitively choose their peers, and rightly so, because someone at your approximate level still has slightly different vocabulary and expressions but they are embedded in a much more understandable landscape than that of a native speaker. Tim would much rather speak Japanese with Dan than a Japanese native speaker because Dan intuitively knows the problems Tim will be facing and has met a good number of them in his own learning landscape. In sports, we do not match elementary school kids up with professional athletes to learn soccer, baseball, or basketball; they learn most from playing with each other, with those who are at their relative levels.

The biologist Peter Kropotkin first published *Mutual Aid* in 1902 in which he was describing how different species of animals helped each other survive and prosper in many ways, especially among ants and bees, and birds and mammals. In later chapters, he showed how “savages” and “barbarians” have changed in the past to provide egalitarian societies that allowed more landscapes of mutual aid among ourselves. Creating a more egalitarian classroom in which teachers partner students and share class time with their interests and their mutual interactions is crucial to creating better learning, leading, and living (Murphey, 1990).

Social Testing

Tim has been experimenting with social testing for several years now (1989–2020). Social testing asks students to give themselves a first grade after a certain amount of time doing a test alone (circa 15–20 min) and then allows them to ask others for help with questions they could not answer. With face-to-face classes, students write the first part in pencil and the second in ink to see the differences. Online, they can write answers in lowercase at first, and then in CAPITALS during the social part (in breakout rooms) so they can see the difference between working alone and working with others.

Tim recently asked himself basically how would it be if students heard and understood: “You will be on the test . . . your generosity, your helpfulness, your creativity, your humanity, your willingness to be with someone else, your communication with others intertwined with the information for this class. And your ability to self-evaluate.” We think that is what social testing does in the end. It is not so much about a certain field, it is about how the field interacts with a group’s humanity, their humanistic landscape, which we hope will carry over into their work landscapes when they leave our classrooms. One student hit it on the head when she/he said in response to the social testing that “This is exactly what we will do in our work. When we get jobs, we won’t be taking tests anymore, but we will need to learn to

ask people for help with things we do not understand. If we don't ask, we won't be able to do our jobs well.”

Self-evaluation is another area that students need experience in. In most work areas, the workers evaluate themselves more than others evaluate them, and they need to acquire skills to do so. Self-grading with quizzes and tests are small steps toward a better understanding of the real-world landscapes where workplace evaluations are more personal.

While some teachers suspect that students will stop studying if they know they will give themselves their own grades, we think this is actually quite rare. What seems to be the bigger motivation is the ability to help others when they have questions. Students have again and again said that they wanted to help their classmates and that made them want to study and understand the content more. Those who did not study enough often admit remorse after the test, not for their own low grade but for not being able to help their classmates enough. Thus, we are cultivating landscapes of mutual aid and communities full of leaders.

Concluding

Biologically, cooperation is also being described as a great advantage for not only people and animals, but even our cells as with Lipton (2008) below:

... today's understanding of cooperation in nature goes much deeper than the easily observable relationships. “Biologists are becoming increasingly aware that animals have coevolved and continue to coexist, with diverse assemblages of microorganisms that are required for normal health and development,” according to a recent article in *Science* called “We Get By With A Little Help from Our (little) Friends” (Ruby et al., 2004). The study of these relationships is now a rapidly growing field called “Systems Biology.” (p. 13 Lipton, *Biology of Belief*).

Thus, our cells themselves are communities full of leaders, collaborating and continually adjusting. Lipton goes on in the same book:

The point is that single-celled organisms actually live in a community when they share their “awareness” and coordinate their behaviors by releasing “signal” molecules into the environment (p. 100).

Contrary to Darwinism as early as 1902, Kropotkin proposed “mutual aid” as a much more useful way of seeing our planet:

... if we resort to an indirect test, and ask Nature: “Who are the fittest: those who are continually at war with each other, or those who support one another?” We at once see that those animals which acquire habits of mutual aid are undoubtedly the fittest. They have more chances to survive, and they attain, in their respective classes, the highest development of intelligence and bodily organization (Kropotkin, 1902, p. 5).

Partnering is an egalitarian landscape inviting everyone to be a communicative leader (even if only for a short time in the cellular mode). We have seen above that

this can be approached in education through action logging, near peer role modeling, class-time sharing, invitational leadership, and social testing. We have also seen that this is how nature has organized us even at the cellular level (Lipton, 2008). But it seems that beings of more complex landscapes and abilities can dangerously threaten life itself by over-consuming, over-wasting, and violence in our ecological jungle which when otherwise left alone seems to find its own ecological communicative peace.

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Daniel Hooper (Ph.D., Nagoya University of Foreign Studies) is an associate professor in the Department of English Communication at Tokyo Kasei University. He has taught in Japan for 17 years, predominantly in higher education and English conversation schools. His doctoral thesis was an ethnographic case study of a student-led learning community in a Japanese university self-access center. His research interests include learner and teacher identity, communities of practice, and the English conversation school industry.

Tim Murphey a TESOL educator for 20 years in universities in Switzerland and 30 in Asia, has written books for Oxford, Cambridge, Candlin & Mynard, Longman, Peter Lang, Perceptia, and was a book series editor for TESOL in the US. He has published over 50 book chapters and now is semi-retired working on his sister's horse ranch, River Quest Horse Adventures, in Lostine, Oregon. He also is an online collaborator at Ankara Yildirim Beyazit University (Türkiye).

Chapter 16

Reflective Practice and Rethinking Teacher Leadership Identity in Telecollaborative Environments



Sandra Healy and Olivia Kennedy

Abstract This chapter explores how teacher leadership identity changed during the integration of telecollaborative programs in Japanese university English as a Foreign Language (EFL) courses over a period of two years. In telecollaboration, learners in different geographical locations interact online in a formally structured manner for mutual benefit (O’Dowd, 2013). This chapter examines how integrating such telecollaborative programs has impacted one of the authors’ leadership identities and helped establish a more collaborative and participatory learning environment in her classrooms. It focuses on a two-year period, beginning in April 2020, and combines two types of reflective practice. The first, termed *Cooperative Development* (Edge, 1992) uses structured dialogue undertaken in pairs. Here one author’s journey, referred to as the *Speaker*, is presented through the supportive lens of her *Understander*, the second author of this chapter. The second type of reflective practice used is the *framework for reflecting on practice for TESOL teachers* by Farrell (2015) which guides reflective practitioners through five different stages of reflection: Philosophy; Principles; Theory; Practice; and Beyond Practice. Analysis of the data produced through the use of these frameworks found that the introduction of telecollaborative projects had engendered changes in the learning environment leading to increased levels of collaboration, trust and power-sharing between teacher and students, as well as the development of students’ self-directed learning and engagement.

Keywords Leaderful classroom practices · Collaborative leadership · Teacher identity · Teacher well-being · Reflective practice · Reflective dialogue · Virtual exchange · Intercultural education

S. Healy (✉)

Kyoto Institute of Technology, Matsugasaki, Sakyo ku, Kyoto, Japan
e-mail: healy@kit.ac.jp

O. Kennedy

Nagahama Institute of Bio-Science and Technology, Nagahama, Shiga, Japan

Reflective Practice and Rethinking Teacher Leadership Identity in Telecollaborative Environments

In recent years, technological developments such as the use of individual learner devices in the classroom, instructor usage of presentation software to structure and teach lessons, and overarching learning management systems have caused rapid changes for both teachers and learners, and reflective practice has provided an important way for many to process and manage these changes. This chapter explores reflective work done by a cooperative dyad of teachers undertaking the integration of telecollaboration programs which are based on such technology into first-year Japanese university English as a foreign language (EFL) communication courses.

In telecollaboration, learners in different geographical locations interact online in a formally structured manner for mutual benefit (O'Dowd, 2013). Through analysis of data produced during reflective practice based on structured dialogue and written tasks, the chapter examines how these telecollaborative programs have impacted on the teacher's leadership identity and helped establish a more collaborative and participatory learning environment for both teacher and students. It focuses on a two-year period, beginning in April 2020. This data collection method "bring[s] together a range of work, ideas, and strategies on ways of knowing, telling and enacting caring relationships" (McCallum & Price, 2010, p. 25). Here one teacher's journey is presented.

Background and Context

The exploration of classroom roles undertaken in this chapter was conducted in Japan, and, as such, it is important to understand not only the educational background and needs of the students, but also their cultural approach to the classroom. Japan follows a Confucian philosophy of education which encapsulates a hierarchical relationship between teachers and students (Egitim, 2022; Matsuyama et al., 2019). English language education in Japan has also generally followed this teacher-centered approach using the grammar-translation method (Sato et al., 2019), which encourages passive learning habits (Loucky & Ware, 2016). As Japanese teachers have themselves been educated in this atmosphere, it seems that many practice the same methodology when they enter the teaching profession (Sato et al., 2019).

Another reason is that because receptive skills are tested in the university entrance examinations, school EFL lessons tend to focus on them, meaning that this teaching pedagogy is seen to be appropriate (Egitim, 2022). As learners move into university, and beyond, however, productive and communicative skills become more important, and language programs seek to balance learners' skills. While it is still common for Japanese teachers to employ traditional pedagogy in the university context even as they are expected to use more English in their teaching, foreign teachers in Japanese

schools and universities are now often expected to use more communicative and interactive teaching methodologies (Reed, 2020; Thompson & Woodman, 2019).

This is problematic for several reasons. When first-year students find that they are to be taught by a non-Japanese teacher, they must suddenly change their ways of being in the classroom which limits their active participation in learning. By establishing open and participatory learning environments through collaborative leadership classroom practices (Egitim, 2022), teachers can help students overcome these difficulties and become more active, effective learners. To enact these changes, teachers need to examine their own leadership identity through reflective practice (Egitim, 2022).

Literature Review

Traditional classrooms worldwide have historically developed particular interaction orders or social arrangements in which actions and discourse are embedded (Scollon et al., 2004). The development of teacher identity, including teacher leadership identity, is a part of this process. In traditional classrooms, teachers often have a central, authoritative role. The introduction of telecollaboration can be described as both disruptive and transformative, and can lead to the redefinition of traditional teacher-student roles through a change in the way that interaction is organized (Ensor et al., 2017) with students collaborating independently using what once were considered to be informal methods of communication, for example, social media. Reflection is vital in this process of change.

Egitim (2021) suggested a new kind of pedagogical framework, *Leaderful Classroom Practices* which support teachers to establish a more open, democratic and participatory learning environment in their classrooms. His process suggests practitioners: reflect on their leadership identity as teachers, develop an empathetic lens, build scaffolding and structure, create a psychologically safe learning environment, share power with learners, give them a voice in pedagogical decisions, negotiate for *Leaderful Classroom Practices*, and promote reflective practices in the classroom (Egitim, 2021).

By changing expectations surrounding the interaction between the people involved, leadership can become increasingly shared. Raelin (2021), writing about human resource development described four tenets of leadership: collective, concurrent, collaborative, and compassionate, which will lead to a more “dynamic co-constructed democratic process” (p. 2). *Collective* leadership sees all members as able to function in any role, and, importantly, that the group does not rely upon any one person. *Concurrent* leadership is when there are several people leading at any one time. *Collaborative* leadership sees people working together towards mutual goals that are set together. Finally, *compassionate* leadership ensures that all are treated with dignity and respect.

Reflective practice was first explored by Dewey, who suggested that teachers could better support the learners in their care by thinking about their teaching and its effects (Dewey, 1933). Since then there have been many additions, particularly notable

Schön's (1983), which was more intuitive and focused on experiential knowledge. He described *reflection-in-action*, in which teachers work to become aware of their teaching in the moment, and *reflection-on-action*, in which teachers think about events after they have occurred.

Killion and Todnem (1991) built on this, focusing on *reflection-for-action*, sometimes called *reflection-as-repair*, which aimed to find ways to improve future teaching. Much of this work, however, focused on improving either the learning experience or its efficacy and did not address more holistic issues such as the teacher's experience of the classroom or their personal well-being. Acton and Glasgow (2015) defined professional well-being as "fulfillment, satisfaction, [and] purposefulness" (p. 102), which Farrell (2015) noted can be achieved through reflective practice.

Farrell (2015) described an integrated, evidence-based reflective model that recognized the personal, spiritual, and emotional aspects of reflection called the *framework for reflecting on practice for TESOL teachers*. The framework guides reflective practitioners through five different stages of reflection: Philosophy; Principles; Theory; Practice; and Beyond Practice. In Philosophy, teachers explore how their own life experiences have contributed to who they are in the classroom. In Principles, teachers think about their own assumptions about teaching and learning, their approaches and the decisions that they make in the classroom. In Theory, teachers reflect on what they feel to be ideal pedagogy. In the Practice stage, teachers take the reflective process into the classroom with them to explore how effectively they engage in their personal theory in practice. In the final stage, Beyond Practice, teachers consider the wider implications of their teaching choices because of the multi-dimensional nature of language teaching.

In this chapter, Farrell's framework was used as it recognizes that teachers must understand who they are as "human beings first" (Farrell, 2015, p. 25), before they can consciously develop into professionals who are not only effective at delivering learning objectives but also happy and confident in their practice. It is important that the whole person is considered, not only their efficacy in the classroom. Learners, too, must be recognized in this way, as human beings first.

Julian Edge's work, detailed in his book *Cooperative Development* (1992), encourages peers to work together to better understand their own situation while being enriched by the experiences, thoughts and ideas of others. He writes, "Sometimes it is exactly when I am trying to formulate my ideas that I see properly for the first time just exactly how they do fit together: by exploring my thoughts, I discover something new" (Edge, 1992, p. 7). Through attempting to express ourselves we merge our intellectual knowledge with our experiential knowledge.

As such, the Cooperative Development method emphasizes the importance of cooperation between colleagues, and "depends totally on the idea of an agreement between two people to work together for a certain period of time according to the rules that they both understand and agree on" (Edge, 1992, p. 11). In this method, the Speaker and Understander have clearly defined roles in the reflective process. The Understander's role is to help "develop the Speaker's own ideas by clarifying and following them where they lead" (Edge, 1992, p. 7). This process may seem simply like the actions of a helpful friend or colleague, but in practice goes much further: "the

Understander deliberately sets out to make as much space as possible for the Speaker while at the same time actively working to help the Speaker use that space creatively” (Edge, 1992, p. 10). With discovery being the aim of all reflective interaction between the partners, any argument or adversarial elements are abandoned. Respect, empathy and honesty are also very important principles that are necessary for both parties to commit to in order for effective Cooperative Development to take place.

These practices underlie many of the choices that we, the authors of this chapter, have made throughout our teaching careers, and we have also worked to introduce elements of reflection to our students. The ways that we incorporate reflective journaling into intercultural literature courses are introduced in Kennedy (2019). Our efforts to guide the teaching staff whom we mentor towards better support of students with learning differences are outlined in Kennedy (in press). It was a natural step, therefore, to blend our reflective practices and the affinity that we have as friends creating the foundation of our new reflective dyad.

Methodology

The authors of this chapter are both full-time university professors and work together at a science-focused university in Western Japan. They both originally come from English-speaking countries and have been teaching for 30 years and 20 years respectively in various educational settings in the Japanese context. As noted above, one of the authors is referred to throughout this chapter as the *Speaker* and the other as her *Understander*, terms introduced by Edge (1992).

The 72 students were all first-year undergraduates at the national university in Japan where both of the authors work. All first-year students at the university take two types of EFL classes each week. One, taught by Japanese teachers, focuses on receptive skills. The other, taught by non-Japanese teachers including us, the authors of this article, is designed to improve students’ productive EFL and intercultural communication skills. Teachers design their courses in line with their own philosophy and interests, following course guidelines and focusing on the development of 21st-century skills, defined here as the four learning skills (critical thinking, creativity, collaboration, and communication), the three literacy skills (information, media and technology), and the five life skills (flexibility, leadership, initiative, productivity, and social skills) (van Laar et al., 2020).

The teacher described here has been using telecollaboration for many years to connect Japanese learners with students in various countries including Burundi, Belgium, Malaysia, China, Columbia, and the Philippines. These programs aim to improve students’ English and intercultural understanding. This chapter focuses on changes in teacher leadership during four such telecollaborative projects.

Reflective tasks were undertaken to create opportunities for the Speaker to reflect upon and, in doing so, to better understand the ways that her classroom practices impacted the learners in her care. Written reflective tasks were undertaken monthly over a two-year period from 2020 to 2022 in a Google Doc file shared between

the two participants. Twenty four texts were produced with entries ranging from approximately 250–3000 words. Twenty dialogic tasks were undertaken either online or in person depending on COVID-19 restrictions in either of our offices, and lasted between 18 and 87 min. All dialogic sessions were recorded using the Voice Record application on our smartphones and digitally transcribed using Otter.ai.

Open coding (Cohen et al., 2011) was then used to process both data sets, and recurrent codes pertaining to leadership were established as themes. Open coding “is composed of pithy, descriptive restatements of issues taking place in the data. Open codes are usually written as gerunds to focus on the words of informants at face value, and their observable actions,” (Hadley, 2019, p. 267). Each piece of data, written or audio, was coded and reflected on in chronological order, before moving to the next one for consideration. After coding 10 items, we looked back and found the emerging patterns and were then able to make groups and label them. For example, when establishing the theme of *teacher well-being*, a statement regarding the impact of the support of teaching peers would be coded as *supportive colleagues*, which would be further subsumed under the category of *workplace support*.

Finally, aspects of thematic analysis (Clarke et al., 2015) were then used. Thematic analysis (TA) is a tool for analyzing qualitative data by identifying, interpreting, and organizing patterns of meaning (themes) without being tied to a particular methodology. It emphasizes an organic approach to coding and theme development and the active role of the researcher. TA provides accessible and systematic procedures for generating codes and, later, themes from data. “TA can be used to identify patterns within and across data in relation to participants’ lived experience, views and perspectives, and behaviour and practices; ‘experiential’ research which seeks to understand what participants think, feel and do” (Clarke et al., 2015, p. 2). These processes allowed us to make sense of the findings, and directed understanding of the research question:

How did implementing telecollaborative programs impact teacher leadership practices during the two-year period of this study?

Results

The results pertaining to the four themes that emerged from the data: *Change*, *Trust*, *Community*, and *Well-being* are set forth here. The results reported in this section will be explored, explained, and contextualized in the discussion section.

Change

The theme of change was noted in many different aspects of the telecollaborations, including course content and assessment, when and where classes were conducted,

who was present, and what their roles were. These changes also brought about transformations for both the teacher and the learners.

“What we do, where we do it, and how we do it are all changed.”

“The traditional timetable in which class times are dictated becomes blurred especially if large time differences are involved. Students need to contact their partners outside of the designated class times and often have to work at home in order to engage in synchronous meetings.”

“[T]he teacher is no longer the focal point of the teaching and learning environment.”

“They [the students] cannot rely on me for support during their online interactions and have to develop some level of independence.”

“It is a pleasure to see the changes in the students as they develop good relationships with each other and increase their independence, autonomy, and confidence in their learning.”

Trust

Trust was another concept that the Speaker returned to many times in both reflective written and dialogic tasks. She described the importance of building trustful relationships between the members of her classroom communities, and in the telecollaborative process itself, and reflected on how such trust then allows learners greater autonomy.

“We spend a lot of time at the beginning getting to know each other. I set up activities in which they can share information together, changing partners and groups often.”

“The students often say at the end of a course that they made a lot of friends in this class.”

“We do reflective activities regularly so we can all see how the course is going.”

Team-building activities “were even more important to create a foundation for successful collaboration with the students.”

“Letting the students do more Zoom activities as they had asked increased the level of trust and was an example of collaborative leadership that changed the design of the course making it more meaningful for everyone involved.”

“It is really by participating in the collaborative leadership of their classrooms that learners take the reins of their own learning journeys.”

“The students really direct the course of their own learning and because of that, assignment topics become more flexible, and their interpretation open to more and more imagination and creativity.”

“The students will do their best. Of course, some will look for the easy way out, but I think the majority don’t, and want to work with the teacher and their friends to get better at English and intercultural communication.”

“In the telecollaborations, I can’t see the communication that takes place between the students and their international partners and so I just have to trust that they are committed to the process and that they are getting on with what they are supposed to be doing.”

“It [trust] comes from the relationship I have built with the students and the structure provided in the course itself. I’ve supported them initially so that they know how to go about the tasks. They’ve practiced lots with their partners here in the classroom, so they know how to go about the next steps.”

Community

The data analysis showed that both the physical and online classroom communities provided active learning spaces where both teachers and students could learn from each other. The Speaker was willing to learn from students and was committed to fostering a sense of community by putting in extra effort outside of class time. All members of the communities were considered important and their contributions were valuable to the learning experience.

[The physical and online classroom communities are] *“active learning spaces for us all, in which we can all learn from each other.”*

“I have learned a lot from the students and the way they use technology. We often learn from each other to find the best ways to use the tech. For example, they prefer to use Instagram videos and so I have learned how to do that too.”

“I can’t ask them to work outside the classroom, if I am not willing to do the same so I am active in the LINE group even in the evening or on the weekend.”

“We have all become communities interwoven together like cloth with the teacher as only one of the threads, no more or less important than any other.”

Well-Being

Professional well-being was another theme that ran through much of the data. As the learners’ autonomy developed and confidence grew, so did the Speakers’ professional well-being, leading her to recognize that the two were deeply interconnected.

“I really like the teaching part and feel joy and happiness when I’m in the classroom.”

“The students have a lot of passive knowledge which they now need to learn how to use. It is so important for their linguistic and social development.”

“I have an enormous amount of freedom to do whatever I like, which is fantastic. The negative side of that is that there is a kind of lack of interest in what I do and I am pretty much on my own doing this.”

“I think one of the key issues is learner autonomy and freedom, which up until now the students haven’t had much of. But I think if they are going to go further they need to have more freedom and create their own learning paths.”

“When COVID-19 removed opportunities to study abroad, ... it was seen [by the institution] that telecollaboration could provide a viable alternative.”

“It feels good to have my work recognized.”

Discussion

In this context, the introduction of telecollaborative projects engendered changes in the learning environment leading to changes in teacher leadership with increased levels of collaboration, trust, and power-sharing between the teacher and students,

as well as the development of students' self-directed learning and engagement. Designed to improve the linguistic and intercultural proficiency of students, the programs had unforeseen, far-reaching impacts on the relationships and teaching and learning methodologies of all the people involved. Here, the interplay between how the teacher's leadership identity influenced her pedagogical beliefs, decisions, and practices, and how those practices in turn reshaped her leadership identity, is explored through each of the four themes that emerged through analysis of the data: change, trust, community and well-being.

Change

Farrell (2013) stated that "Over their careers, teachers tacitly construct and reconstruct a conceptual sense of who they are (their self-image) and what they do (their professional role identity)" (p. 91). This interplay between a sense of ourselves and the activities we engage in is seen in the context described here. Reflective dialogue allows practitioners to more easily identify changes in themselves and their teaching practice, and how these changes impact their teacher leadership identity. "What we do, where we do it, and how we do it are all changed," the Speaker said, referring to how these changes had moved the classroom towards a space of concurrent collaborative leadership, fostered learners moving towards the autonomy and skills necessary for this to be possible, and allowed her to share leadership and undertake the role of facilitator.

The first change that the Speaker described relates to course parameters. In a reflective task in the Practice stage (Farrell, 2015), she wrote:

The traditional timetable in which class times are dictated becomes blurred especially if large time differences are involved. Students need to contact their partners outside of the designated class times and often have to work at home in order to engage in synchronous meetings.

She did not have access to the students' online interactions as they took place either in direct messaging or in closed online groups, so her usual means of overview and guidance were removed. "They cannot rely on me for support during their online interactions and have to develop some level of independence." This role of the teacher as a facilitator was also seen in the physical classroom, where the students worked together in small groups, supporting each other with their various tasks. Collaboratively accomplishing tasks with peers was a move away from the traditional teacher-centered classes to which the students were accustomed and positioned the students into a more central, active, and participatory role. They could no longer be passive, but needed to collaborate and create with their new communities. English, studied as a foreign rather than a second or additional language, previously only spoken in the classroom during class time, suddenly moved into the students' personal spaces, and learners felt a new sense of ownership.

Whilst these changes could be seen as disconcerting for both learners and teachers, the Speaker found them to be positive for both herself and for the students, saying, “It is a pleasure to see the changes in the students as they develop good relationships with each other and increase their independence, autonomy, and confidence in their learning.”

It is clear that implementing the telecollaborative programs positively impacted teacher leadership practices. By moving learning activities from a standard timetabled classroom course undertaken by the students of one university to a telecollaboration and project-based interaction with learners in other geographical locations, the teacher was able to *facilitate* rather than *direct* learning. The students in her classes were then able to step into more active roles, and leadership became more collaborative and concurrent.

Trust

Another theme that emerged from the data concerns trust, not only between teacher and students, but also between learners in the classroom, and in telecollaboration itself. Trust is at the foundation of positive relationships, which are in turn at the heart of collaborative classroom practices. Research suggests that positive relationships between teachers and learners are based on closeness, liking, warmth, support, and trust (Roorda et al., 2017), and that students view teachers whom they feel care about them more positively (Lavy & Naama-Ghanayim, 2020). Many of these concepts are interwoven, and it seems that improving one will have a positive effect on others. For example, throughout many of her reflections, the Speaker recognized how spending time getting to know her students as people and also where they are on their learning journeys had allowed her to build positive relationships both with and between them. “We spend a lot of time at the beginning getting to know each other. I set up activities in which they can share information together, changing partners and groups often.” These team-building activities are vital in telecollaborative spaces where the usual social cues are absent and students need to create an online social presence (D’Angelo & Schneider, 2021). The Speaker concluded, “These steps were even more important to create a foundation for successful collaboration with the students.”

As online meeting programs, specifically *Zoom* in this study, became increasingly normalized, students requested to meet up more often synchronously as a class so they could get to know one another better. The teacher’s acting on this request “increased the level of trust and was an example of collaborative leadership that changed the design of the course making it more meaningful for everyone involved.”

Trust is also important for learners to feel safe in their role so as to be able to invest fully in learning activities. By sharing knowledge and skills, learners gradually build their own and one another’s abilities. As Egitim (2022) states, “What really brings out the best in each individual is an open, participatory, and democratic classroom environment where all the members are given psychological safety and freedom

to take the initiative” (p. 66). Egitim recognizes that learners’ academic learning needs must be met alongside the need for their voices to be heard. The Speaker also acknowledges that, “It is really by participating in the collaborative leadership of their classrooms that learners take the reins of their own learning journeys.”

Nguyen et al. (2019) noted that “teacher leadership is exercised on the basis of reciprocal collaboration and trust” (p. 66). Where teachers trust their students to work independently towards course goals, they also feel confident to allow them to develop autonomy. In the context described here, the Speaker described how students “direct the course of their own learning and because of that, assignment topics become more flexible, and their interpretation open to more and more imagination and creativity.” As she gradually relaxed control, the students accepted more responsibility for their own learning.

In a reflective writing task focused on Farrell’s (2015) concept of Principles, the Speaker uncovered her belief that “The students will do their best. Of course, some will look for the easy way out, but I think the majority don’t, and want to work with the teacher and their friends to get better at English and intercultural communication.” Later in a dialogue connecting this Principle to her Practice (Farrell, 2015), she described how:

In the telecollaborations, I can’t see the communication that takes place between the students and their international partners and so I just have to trust that they are committed to the process and that they are getting on with what they are supposed to be doing.

A high level of trust is required for this to be possible. Exploring this more deeply, the Speaker continued, explaining that “It comes from the relationship I have built with the students and the structure provided in the course itself. I’ve supported them initially so that they know how to go about the tasks. They’ve practiced lots with their partners here in the classroom, so they know how to go about the next steps.” The Speaker’s faith in the solid structure of the course that she has designed allows her to trust that her students will undertake their work in a diligent manner. Her students’ similar understanding of the course structure and goals allows them to approach each task with confidence, safe in the knowledge that it will move them further toward the competencies that they are hoping to achieve.

Implementing telecollaborative programs brought increased trust, which in turn allowed students to work independently outside of the traditional classroom parameters to complete learning tasks. As they became increasingly comfortable with one another, the course tools and expectations, and with their teacher, the students stepped into more active roles resulting in a more collaborative learning environment with leadership shared concurrently.

Community

Another theme that was common in both written and dialogic reflections was that of community. In this context, the teacher facilitates the development of communities by setting up various ways for the students to interact with partners in other countries, and with Japanese peers within the physical classroom. These classroom-based communities and safe online spaces are vital to the success of telecollaborative experiences which can otherwise be, as the Speaker described, “anxiety-inducing” for learners.

As such, the teacher supports students through the gradually more unfamiliar tasks, from the first meeting and interacting with Japanese peers in the physical classroom to engaging with their international peers online. The Speaker described both the physical and online classroom communities as “active learning spaces for us all, in which we can all learn from each other,” including herself as a learner here. In the physical and virtual spaces, the students commonly use multiple devices while they are learning how to use various applications such as *Miro*, an online visual collaboration tool, *Flip*, a video discussion and sharing application *Padlet*, a platform where users can share content in virtual bulletin boards and *Canva*, an online graphic designing tool, often using two or more devices simultaneously. They also bring in their own digital tools to share which can be incorporated into the resources for everyone to use, including the teacher. A shared *Padlet* allows everyone to add tips on things related to the class including technological resources. The Speaker reflected on the learners’ growing independence, autonomy, and freedom as well as their increased sense of trust and community, saying, “I have learned a lot from the students and the way they use technology. We often learn from each other to find the best ways to use the tech. For example, they prefer to use Instagram videos and so I have learned how to do that too.”

Learners were also supported when they are not in the physical classroom by an online component. At the beginning of the courses, the teacher set up a group on *Line*, a social networking service popular in Japan, where students could quickly communicate whenever they needed help. The Speaker reflected, “I can’t ask them to work outside the classroom, if I am not willing to do the same” and so made herself available to her students whenever reasonably possible. Learners typically asked and resolved problems amongst themselves, prefacing their messages with “*Sensei* (the Japanese word for teacher) please help” when their peers could not provide workable solutions or information, or writing privately if they felt it was necessary.

A virtual community was also developed with the students’ online partners in other countries. While many choose to use *Instagram*, the students were free to choose any social networking service to communicate and were required to contact one another regularly outside of class hours to work on tasks together. Such contact was particularly necessary when the exchanges took place with countries that have a large time difference because shared class time was minimal. The active and participatory nature of the telecollaborative spaces encouraged the creation of these

new, supportive communities through which language and culture become an “integrated, embodied, experimental and transformational” (Shaules, 2019, p. 132) experience for students. The Speaker reflected that instead of there being only one physical classroom community, multiple physical and virtual communities overlapped creating a complex change in the traditional roles of teacher and student resulting in “communities interwoven together like cloth with the teacher as only one of the threads.”

Implementing the telecollaborative programs impacted directly on the Speaker’s leadership practices and the development of communities by creating psychologically safe spaces in the physical classroom, which laid the foundation for the successful development of virtual learning environments. Learning to use different digital tools together created a strong sense of collaboration and community. The use of these new communicative tools created new ways to interact, allowing the Speaker and the students to negotiate pedagogical decisions and participate in a more equal and collaborative learning environment. The students could choose the tools they preferred and introduce new tools that better suited their needs thus personalizing their own learning experiences whilst at the same time strengthening their communities.

Well-Being

Teacher well-being, and its importance in creating collaborative teaching and learning spaces, was another dominant thread. Defined as “an individual sense of personal professional fulfillment, satisfaction, purposefulness and happiness constructed in a collaborative process with colleagues and students” (Acton & Glasgow, 2015, p. 102), “teaching and learning are done by human beings, whose well-being is not an optional or superfluous consideration but central to the whole process” (MacIntyre & Ayers-Glassey, 2020, p. 70). In both written and dialogic reflection, the Speaker made connections between changes in her own level of professional well-being and the extent to which she has been able to foster collaborative leadership with the learners in her classroom.

Many times during this project the Speaker mentioned that she “really like[s] the teaching part and feel[s] joy and happiness when [she is] in the classroom.” This positive feeling is one of the factors that allowed her teaching to focus directly on her students’ needs. Teachers who feel positive about teaching and towards their students are more able to adapt their pedagogy to the students in their classes (Trigwell, 2012). Research has also shown that when students achieve course goals, teachers are more aware of the efficacy of their teaching, which in turn leads to higher levels of well-being (Zee & Koomen, 2016).

In Farrell’s (2015) framework in the stage called Principles, teachers think about their own assumptions about teaching and learning and one of the Speaker’s assumptions was that students needed to be active in the classroom if they were to improve their productive language skills. “The students have a lot of passive knowledge which they now need to learn how to use. It is so important for their linguistic and social

development.” As students displayed more active attitudes in the classroom and submitted their shared efforts, she recognized that students on both sides of the exchange were benefitting from the project and found her own sense of achievement growing. All were building their well-being “in a collaborative process with colleagues and students” (Acton & Glasgow, 2015, p.102).

Many studies have also shown that having a supportive working environment influences teacher well-being levels, with positive relationships between management, colleagues, and administrative staff shown to be particularly significant (Dewaele et al., 2019; Toropova et al., 2021). In the context described here, while departmental colleagues were positive, with one instrumental in providing technological assistance, and the relationships that developed with international teaching peers a source of eudemonia, a lack of institutional recognition and support sometimes resulted in feelings of isolation. “I have an enormous amount of freedom to do whatever I like, which is fantastic. The negative side of that is that there is a kind of lack of interest in what I do and I am pretty much on my own doing this.” The Speaker recognized that it was this lack of interest that initially gave her the freedom to set up telecollaborations and thereby teach a curriculum reflecting her Principles (Farrell, 2015). It should be noted here that the Speaker felt that freedom for herself, but also for the learners is central to leaderful practice, and that telecollaborative pedagogy allows for this. “I think one of the key issues is learner autonomy and freedom, which up until now the students haven’t had much of. But I think if they are going to go further they need to have more freedom and create their own learning paths.”

Whereas previously the telecollaborations were seen to be collaborative efforts between individual teachers and appeared to be undervalued as a sound pedagogical method at the institutional level, “When COVID-19 removed opportunities to study abroad, and it was seen that telecollaboration could provide a viable alternative,” the level of institutional recognition changed. Recent efforts by the Japanese educational ministry to promote active, project-based learning (MEXT, 2018) have also led to validation at both the national and institutional levels. The Speaker noted her lifting well-being: “[i]t feels good to have my work recognized.” This institutional recognition also meant that there was more acceptance of this pedagogy from the students, increasing levels of confidence in both herself, and in the methodology.

The implementation of telecollaborative programs in this educational setting had a significant impact on teacher leadership practices. By shifting a standard classroom course to one based on online projects, the teacher was able to facilitate more collaborative learning with leadership shared between members concurrently. It was found that this pedagogical approach relied on trust and encouraged students to take on more active roles in their own learning experiences. The introduction of new technological tools and online communities also contributed to the more personalized and collaborative learning environment. Additionally, the Speaker incorporated the reflective practice she and the Understander undertook together into her classroom practice which in turn amplified the students’ voices and allowed her to proactively share leadership with them. These changes in teacher leadership practices led to increased well-being for both the teacher and students.

The reflective tasks undertaken during the two-year period allowed the Speaker and the Understander to better understand the impact of introducing telecollaboration into the classroom and how it transformed the interactional patterns and teacher leadership identity. In the future, increased normalization of technology in education will require teachers to re-examine their roles and to do this successfully they will need support from their colleagues and institutions. Whilst this study is longitudinal, it is small and therefore generalizations are difficult to make. It is hoped, however, that in the future critical reflection becomes a larger part of teacher education and the process of examining teacher leadership identity so that we can gain a greater understanding of the multiple influences and experiences which create who we are.

Conclusion

This chapter describes how structured dialogic reflective practice was used to examine the impact of telecollaborative programs on one teacher's leadership identity, and how engaging in telecollaboration has allowed her to develop a more collaborative and participatory learning environment in her classroom. Four themes emerged from the data: Trust, Community, Change, and Well-being as core elements of teacher leadership identity.

Overall, telecollaboration has the potential to greatly impact the leadership practices of teachers by providing them with new ways to connect with colleagues and students. It can enable teachers to stay current with the latest trends in education, build stronger relationships with their students, and deliver lessons and support in new and innovative ways, thereby increasing the levels of participation and democracy in their classrooms.

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Sandra Healy is a Professor at Kyoto Institute of Technology in Japan. Her research interests include applied linguistics with a focus on diversity and inclusion, and using technology in education to improve intercultural communication and learning outcomes.

Olivia Kennedy teaches at Nagahama Institute of Bio-Science and Technology in Shiga, and at Kyoto Institute of Technology. She is passionate about improving student experiences of learning, and researches the uptake, usage, and acceptance of technology to support language learning.

Chapter 17

Leadership Identity in Higher Education: Exploring Its Impact on Pedagogical Decisions and Faculty Development



Sanae Ejjebli

Abstract This study examines the factors that shape educators' leadership identity and their impact on pedagogical decisions, and faculty development. Using a mixed-methods research design, data were collected from 43 ESL/EFL professors from six different Moroccan higher education institutions through a survey instrument and a semi-structured interview protocol. The study identifies five internal identity aspects that contribute to educators' leadership identity development and highlights the importance of continuous professional development, the socioeconomic and cultural context, understanding implicit bias in self-evaluation, and institutional support. The study also outlines five key leadership practices that professors can develop to enhance their leadership skills, along with several internal challenges hindering the effective development of leadership skills in higher education. The findings suggest that educators can improve their leadership skills by adopting a collaborative approach to leadership identity development and positioning leadership at the center of top-down leadership structures. The chapter concludes with suggestions for prospective research and practice in the field of higher education leadership.

Keywords Leadership · Higher education · Identity · Educator's perceptions · Leaderful pedagogy

Introduction

The role of leadership in shaping pedagogical approaches in higher education has been the subject of growing attention in research recently. The traditional association of leadership in top-down decision-making has been contested highlighting the importance of understanding the deeper connection between leadership identity and pedagogical approaches in educational contexts (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009).

S. Ejjebli (✉)
Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences, Oujda, Morocco
e-mail: s.ejjebli@ump.ac.ma

However, addressing such links can be a challenging endeavor, including difficulties in defining the concept, the psychological aspects, and power relations. The role of reflection and assessment along with the influence of contextual factors are all equally decisive and hence, shape educators' leadership identity and their pedagogical and professional development. Accordingly, significant questions are raised concerning leadership characteristics, styles, and roles and the way they are shaped by educators' personal experiences, implicit bias, contextual factors, and their impact on pedagogical decisions.

One of the challenges facing higher education institutions is the need to place leadership at the center amid top-down leadership structures, given that educators often prefer a more collaborative approach to decision-making processes (Jones et al., 2012). According to Jones et al. (2012), pedagogical approaches that result from top-down leadership decisions run the risk of lacking innovation and creativity in education, as educators are often left disconnected from executive processes. Conversely, a more collaborative approach takes educators' leadership identity into account in developing and improving pedagogical practices and student outcomes (Murphy, 2002). A collaborative approach to leadership in education involves engaging educators in decision-making processes, recognizing their unique perspectives and experiences, and fostering a sense of shared ownership over pedagogical practices and student outcomes. This approach takes into account educators' leadership identity, which can help to align their values and goals with those of the institution, leading to improved collaboration, and innovation (Murphy, 2002). Hence, this chapter examines the concept of leadership identity and its impact on pedagogical decision-making among ESL/EFL educators in Moroccan higher education institutions. The study aims to shed light on the different leadership characteristics and behaviors exhibited by educators, influenced by their leadership identity and shaped by contextual factors. By understanding the impact of leadership identity on pedagogical decision-making, this study contributes to the development of effective leadership training programs and supports the integration of active learning strategies and student-centered instruction in higher education.

The relationship between leadership identity and pedagogical practice in higher education is complex and multifaceted (Rowley & Sherman, 2003). Professors exercise leadership within their educational space and institutions, and their identity as leaders is closely tied to their role. Effective professors often demonstrate leadership through their ability to inspire and engage students, facilitate meaningful learning experiences, and create a positive and inclusive learning environment. In the book, *Collaborative Leadership through leaderful classroom practices: Everybody Is a Leader*, Egitim (2022) emphasizes the establishment of open, democratic, and participatory learning environments for all learners as a major leadership responsibility of teachers. Additionally, the book highlights the significant impact of language teachers' leadership identity on their pedagogical and class management choices.

Egitim (2022) also underscores that *Leaderful Classroom Practices* can be established through social, relational, and dynamic interactions between the teacher and students, and establishing an open, democratic, and participatory learning environment for all learners is a major leadership responsibility of teachers. Egitim (2020,

2021) recommends that teacher-leaders consciously engage with their inner world and revisit their underlying values, beliefs, and assumptions about language teaching and learning. This recommendation highlights the importance of “reflective practice and self-awareness in developing effective teacher leadership” (Egitim, 2021, p. 14).

Accordingly, a professor’s leadership skills and style can be influenced by their identity, as well as the institutional and cultural context in which they work. The previously mentioned research contributions in the field suggest that the leadership of professors and other educators can have a significant impact on the effectiveness of higher education institutions and students’ success. Professors who exhibit strong leadership behavior are more likely to generate a constructive learning environment that contributes to student achievements. In turn, effective leadership ultimately leads to better classroom management, self-satisfaction, and continuous restored energy. Thus, the leadership identity of professors and other members of higher education is an important factor that determines the quality of higher education.

This chapter explores the interplay between leadership and identity in higher education, specifically focusing on educators’ perceptions of their leadership identity and the pedagogical practices of English as a Second/Foreign Language (ESL/EFL) professors in Moroccan higher educational institutions. Traditional top-down leadership approaches in education are limited, and more collaborative approaches are needed to engage educators in decision-making processes. These approaches prioritize the voices and perspectives of educators, creating opportunities for them to contribute to the development of effective teaching and learning practices that benefit learners.

Literature Review

The literature review delves into the concept of leadership identity and its impact on pedagogical decision-making. Factors such as personal experiences, professional development, and implicit biases shape educators’ leadership styles and roles, as well as the cultural context in which educators operate. The review highlights the importance of understanding the impact of leadership identity on pedagogical decision-making and promoting a leadership style that values collaboration, innovation, and student-centered instruction. Additionally, the role of active learning strategies in promoting effective pedagogical practices and improving student outcomes is explored. The literature review provides a foundation for the study’s analysis of the impact of leadership identity on pedagogical decision-making among ESL/EFL professors in Moroccan higher education institutions.

The literature on effective leadership in higher education highlights the importance of adaptability to changing circumstances, a comprehensive framework of leadership capabilities, and a transformational or transactional leadership style (Egitim, 2021, 2022). Black (2015) and Delener (2013) also emphasize the need for higher education leaders to be able to adapt and transform their institutions to be more flexible and responsive to social needs. Smith and Hughey (2006) noted that leadership in

higher education is similar to but distinct from, leadership in the private sector due to its unique goals, values, and stakeholders. In higher education, leaders must balance the academic mission of the institution with the needs of students, faculty, staff, and other stakeholders, creating a complex leadership landscape that requires specialized leadership skills and knowledge. Academic leaders face significant challenges in keeping higher education responsive to the needs of business and industry and these challenges can have implications at the classroom level, as educators navigate competing demands for academic rigor, workforce preparation, and student learning outcomes.

In terms of specific competencies, Spendlove underscores the importance of academic credibility, knowledge, experience, as well as strong communication skills, for effective leadership in higher education. A range of skills and positive attributes, including the ability to reflect, provide constructive feedback, and strong vision are all vital skills in higher education (Hoff, 1999). However, leaders' identification and leadership development are critical issues, with Bisbee pointing out that the process is often inadequate or late. Therefore, calling for research on current practices and the development of training programs to better meet the challenges of leadership development is required. In short, the literature suggests that effective leadership in higher education involves a combination of effective identification, collaboration and training, adaptability, and a range of specific competencies and skills. Leadership in higher education has long been recognized as a crucial factor that determines the successful performance of academic institutions.

Leadership Identity Development

Leadership identity development is a multi-faceted process that is influenced by various factors, including past experiences, present beliefs, and future practices. According to Zheng and Muir (2015), leader identity development encompasses three key elements expanding boundaries, recognizing interdependences, and discerning purpose. These elements co-evolve and lead to a more salient leader identity. Seemiller and Priest (2015) used a narrative approach to capture the life experiences of individuals who educate teachers for leadership roles and found that leadership education is a process of development for both teachers and students. Clapp-Smith et al. (2018) proposed a multi-domain approach to leadership development, which can be used to develop four components of leader identity: meaning, strength, levels (personal, relational, and collective), and the integration of domain-specific sub-identities which refer to the different roles and contexts in which leadership is practiced. An example of a sub-identity in the education domain could be a teacher's identity as a mentor or a coach, which focuses on their ability to provide guidance and support to students in their academic and personal development. Komives et al. (2009) proposed that a leadership identity is a personal and relational process that is connected to various developmental influences, such as one's experiences, values, beliefs, and relationships with others.

Leadership in higher education is a multilayered and complicated phenomenon that requires a range of skills and leadership capabilities possessed and exhibited by educators, staff, students, and administrators. It is often shaped by the institutional context and can be approached differently depending on the dominance of either top-down structures, a focus on collaboration and collective decision-making, or a combination of both (Black, 2015). Moreover, it involves the ability to navigate the complexities and uncertainties of disruptive change, as well as full possession of a range of specific competencies and skills (Rowley & Sherman, 2003).

This chapter aims to examine the complex and multifaceted nature of ESL/EFL educators' identities and pedagogical approaches and their influence on their professional development within the context of Moroccan higher educational institutions. Moroccan higher educational institutions face challenges linked to the quality and employability of graduates, with proficiency in the English language being critical for success in the job market and ultimately for the country's economic growth. Understanding the impact of leadership identity on pedagogical decision-making among ESL/EFL professors can contribute to the development of effective teaching and learning practices that benefit learners and address the challenges faced by Moroccan higher educational institutions.

To achieve this purpose, I utilize the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) tool as a means of gaining insight into educators' self-perceived leadership qualities and actions they can take to improve the use of the five practices, which have been proven to make for more effective leaders consistently in various studies. The LPI survey was developed by James Kouzes and Barry Posner in 1983 and has been widely used in leadership research. Their research showed that the LPI is a valid and reliable measure of leadership practices. Other studies by Groves (2007) and Kouzes and Posner (2012) proposed best practices for integrating leadership development and succession planning with the leadership challenge and demonstrated the effectiveness of the five practices in improving leadership performance.

Research Questions

1. What are the key characteristics of effective leaders in higher education classrooms, and how do they contribute to student success?
2. How does teachers' leadership identity influence their teaching practices in the classroom, and what are the implications for student learning outcomes?
3. What are the main challenges facing ESL/EFL educators' leadership role development?
4. What are effective strategies to address challenges facing educators' leadership identity development in higher education?

Methodology

Data Collection

The following study involved 43 participants who were professors, PhD holders, and faculty staff members in Moroccan higher education institutions. To assess their leadership practices, I utilized the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) survey developed by James Kouzes and Barry Posner (1983) which measures five exemplary leadership practices: (1) modeling the way, (2) inspiring a shared vision, (3) challenging the process, (4) enabling others to act, and (5) encouraging the heart. The LPI survey rated the frequency of 30 specific leadership behaviors on a 10-point scale, which was simplified to a seven-point scale for this study, with six behavioral statements for each of the five practices. Participants used this scale to rate how frequently they engaged in each behavior. The study included a mix of males and females (49% male, 51% female) at all levels from different types of Moroccan higher education institutions, including the Humanities, Sciences and Law Faculties and National Schools that specialize in applied sciences, economics, and management. The National Schools are specialized institutions of higher education in Morocco that provide advanced training in specific fields. These institutions are similar to universities, but they focus more narrowly on their respective areas of expertise. These are all institutions of higher education in Morocco.

To analyze the data, each participant was classified into one of four participant types based on their experience level: new professionals (NP), emerging professionals (EP), seasoned professionals (SP), and career professionals (CP). Each participant was assigned a number for analysis and reporting. Participant information is outlined in Table 17.1.

A mixed-methods research design was used, including both qualitative and quantitative data collection in three phases, to provide a holistic understanding of the complex relationship between leadership identity and pedagogical decision-making among EFL/ESL professors in Moroccan higher education institutions.

Table 17.1 Participant demographics (N = 43)

Participants type	Criteria	Number	Age range	Number
New professional (NP)	0–2 years of experience	5	30–40	11
Emerging professional (EP)	3–7 years of experience	15	24–30	10
Seasoned professional (SP)	8–10 years of experience	7	40–up	22
Career professional (CP)	11 or more years of experience	16		

Note. The table displays the number of participants categorized by their criteria and their age.

Quantitative Phase

The first phase of the study was quantitative and included a survey with three sections: (1) the LPI survey, section included closed-ended questions and was analyzed quantitatively, which is only a part of the quantitative data. (2) a multiple-choice section for ‘leaders’ global characteristics’, where participants were asked to select the top seven most desirable leaders’ characteristics from 20 attributes. (3) an open-ended question section provided in-depth insights into the participants’ leadership practices and characteristics. The closed-ended questions were analyzed quantitatively using descriptive and inferential statistics, while the open-ended questions were analyzed qualitatively using content and thematic analysis.

Qualitative Phase

The second qualitative phase of the study included semi-structured interviews with 43 participants who were selected through purposive sampling to ensure the reliability and competence of the participants. The technique, also known as judgment sampling, is the deliberate choice of an informant due to their knowledge and experience (Tongco, 2007).

The interview guide included open-ended questions designed to explore the participants’ experiences and perspectives on the study topic. Each interview was approximately 10–15 min long, and the total time for interviewing participants ranged from approximately 7–10 h. The interviews were conducted over one week (online and face-to-face) and the questions were designed to explore the participants’ leadership identity and its impact on their teaching practices and classroom effectiveness. The interviews were held in a private setting, and the protocol involved obtaining informed consent, ensuring confidentiality, and recording the interviews for accuracy and later analysis.

The interviews in English were audio-recorded and transcribed precisely. The transcripts were then analyzed using thematic analysis to identify patterns and themes in the data. The thematic analysis performed in this study was an inductive approach, where themes and patterns were derived from the data itself without pre-existing theoretical constructs (Alhojailan & Ibrahim, 2012). This approach was chosen to allow for an open exploration of participants’ experiences and perspectives on the study topic, without imposing a preconceived framework. Initial codes were generated to identify meaningful segments of data that captured the essence of the participant’s responses. The codes were then organized into potential themes, which were reviewed and refined through multiple iterations of analysis. The final themes represented patterns in the data that captured the essence of the participants’ experiences and perspectives.

All qualitative data sets were analyzed separately in *NVivo*. The analysis of the questionnaire’s open-ended responses and the interview data were joined. The data

Table 17.2 Participant information (N = 43)



Group participants	Age Groups	(Mean percentage of interview data)
PhD Graduates	24-30	23%
Staff	30-40	26%
Professors	40-up	51%

for the questionnaire’s open-ended responses were coded separately, codes for the qualitative data were developed, and a thematic framework for each participant group in each data set. Additionally, when analyzing the emerging themes, an individual participant was focused on as an example for each group category. Participant information is outlined in Table 17.2.

Data Integration

Data integration is a common technique in mixed-methods research design, which involves the merging of qualitative and quantitative data to provide a comprehensive understanding of the research problem. This approach aims to use the results of one phase to inform and contextualize the results of the other phase (Bryman, 2006). This technique has been encouraged in previous studies, including seminal works on mixed-methods research design (Fetters et al., 2013). Integrating data allows for a more nuanced understanding of the research problem by triangulating different sources of data and allowing for the exploration of complex relationships between variables (Sandelowski, 2000). The results of the qualitative and quantitative phases were integrated into the qualitative findings and discussion section of the chapter. The findings from the quantitative phase were used to confirm and extend the themes identified in the qualitative phase to offer a more holistic understanding of the experiences and perspectives of higher education leaders.

Results

Quantitative Data Results

The bar graph summarizes the LPI responses for each leadership practice. For all leadership practices, the bar graph provides a graphic representation of the numerical data. By practice, it shows the total responses and the average total for each category ranked with a 7 Likert-point scale ranging from (1-almost never to 7-almost always). The data set contains responses to 30 Likert scale questions, with

each question having a total of 43 respondents. The responses are presented in 7 different options, namely *Almost Never*, *Rarely*, *Occasionally*, *Fairly Often*, *Usually*, *Very Frequently*, and *Almost Always*. The set of questions were affirmative, positive leadership statements (Fig. 17.1).

Note: The leadership practice inventory bar graph presents a summary of responses to the leadership practice inventory (LPI) survey 30 statements (Appendix). The survey responses were analyzed to determine the frequency of positive leadership behaviors displayed by participants. Results show that very few respondents (less than 7%) engaged in disregard for positive leadership behaviors, with only two responses for the *Almost Never* option across the 30 questions. A small number of respondents (less than 10%) rarely displayed positive leadership traits, with 0–1 responses for the *Rarely* option. Some respondents (less than 20%) occasionally displayed such behaviors in agreement with the statement, with 0–4 responses for the *Occasionally* option. A moderate number of respondents (less than 50%) fairly often behaved in that manner in agreement with the statements, with 1–9 responses for the *Fairly Often* option, for practices such as the statement 7 (“Takes calculated risks and encourages innovation”) and S8 (“Creates a positive and supportive work environment”). A significant number of participants (more than 50%) displayed positive leadership behaviors by choosing the *Usually* option, for practices such as S5 (“Demonstrates empathy and emotional intelligence”), and S6 (“Holds self and others accountable”). Those who engaged in effective leadership behaviors in agreement with the statements, with 10–21 responses for the *Very Frequently* option, were on the highest-ranking scale, for practices such as S1 (“Encourages and inspires others”), S2 (Fosters collaboration and teamwork), and S9 (Models ethical and professional behavior) as well as S10 (Communicates clearly and effectively) which are observed very frequently, on the seven-point scale. Finally, a moderate number of respondents

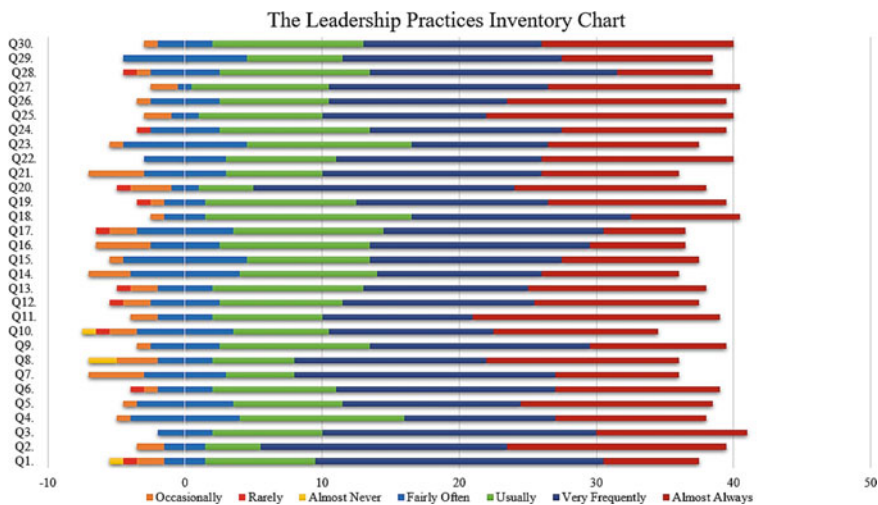


Fig. 17.1 The leadership practices inventory chart

(less than 50%) affirmed possession of positive leadership qualities in agreement with the statements, with 6–18 selections for the Almost Always option, for practices such as S3 (Provides clear direction and goals) and S4 (Recognizes and acknowledges others’ contributions).

The LPI survey revealed that the majority of respondents described themselves as having positive leadership attributes. They perceived themselves as engaging in positive leadership behaviors fairly often/regularly, with a moderate number of respondents displaying such behaviors usually or occasionally. The low percentages in the *Almost Never* and *Rarely* options can be seen as an indication of a positive self-perception, as it suggests that very few respondents perceived themselves as displaying disregard for positive leadership behaviors. Additionally, the high percentages in the *Fairly Often* and *Almost Always* options also suggested that the majority of the respondents perceived themselves as aware of and prioritizing positive leadership traits.

The findings have significant implications for *Leaderful Classroom Practices*. The (LPI) survey assessment can be used by educators to reflect on their leadership practices and behaviors and identify areas of improvement. By displaying positive leadership behaviors such as encouraging and inspiring others, fostering collaboration and teamwork, and modeling ethical and professional behavior, educators can use the survey for continuous self-evaluation. Furthermore, teachers can integrate leadership development into their curriculum, promoting positive leadership behaviors and providing opportunities for students to develop their leadership skills. In doing so, teachers can empower their students to become leaders in their own right, in both academic and non-academic settings (Fig. 17.2).

Note: The five leadership practices bar graph displays the results of a survey that assessed five key leadership practices. In these bar graphs, one set for each leadership practice, provides a graphic representation of the numerical data recorded of The Five Practices. By Practice, it shows the total responses and the average total for each category of the 30 questions and adds up the response score (ranging from



Fig. 17.2 The five leadership practices

1-almost never to 7-almost always) for each of the six behavioral statements related to that practice.

Among the five leadership practices evaluated in the study, *Inspire a Shared Vision* was the most highly rated. Nearly all participants (98%) selected *Very Frequently* as their response, indicating that articulating a shared vision and inspiring others is a powerful motivator that strengthens a sense of purpose and helps to achieve common goals. This was followed by *Model the Way* with (93%) of participants selecting *Very Frequently* as their response, indicating that setting a model of good behavior and work ethics is vital for effective leadership. Modeling good leadership fosters a culture of trust, respect, and mutual accountability. *Challenge the Process* was the third top-rated leadership practice, with 90% of respondents selecting *Very Frequently*, indicating that challenging the status quo and continuously improving processes and systems helps create a culture of continuous learning and improvement, which is essential for the thriving of institutions in today's fast-paced technologically advanced environment. In both categories *Enable Others to Act* and *Encourage the Heart* 83% of the respondents chose *Very Frequently*. These two categories focus on building effective relationships with *Enable Others to Act* focusing on granting team members and students the support and resources needed to take effective actions and take ownership of their learning and feel confident in their ability to succeed, which is a key aspect of effective leadership. The category *Encourage the Heart* shows that recognizing individual contributions, celebrating achievements, and building good relationships with team members are effective ways to create a positive and energizing work environment.

In the context of Moroccan higher educational institutions, the LPI categories are relevant for assessing the leadership practices of academic leaders. For example, modeling the way involves academic leaders setting an example by following ethical and professional behaviors, which could positively impact the behavior of their colleagues and students. Enabling others to act involves empowering colleagues and students to take ownership of their work and make decisions, which could lead to a more dynamic and participatory learning environment. Encouraging the heart involves academic leaders recognizing the achievements of their colleagues and students, fostering positive relationships, and creating a supportive environment that encourages growth and development. Overall, the LPI categories provide a framework for understanding effective leadership practices in the context of Moroccan higher educational institutions. In addition, they can be used to guide the development of academic leaders and improve the quality of education.

The study asked participants to select the seven most important characteristics in a leader from a list of twenty attributes. The results show the percentages of respondents who chose each characteristic as one of their top seven choices. Interestingly, the top seven characteristics are not all equally represented, with some standing out as particularly significant to respondents: *Competent, Cooperative, Ambitious, Inspiring, Dependable, Honest, and Determined* (Fig. 17.3).

Note: Characteristics of an admired leader bar graph identified the 7 most admired leader attributes out of a list of 20. The graph displays the frequency of each chosen attribute by survey respondents. At the top of the list of Characteristics of an admired

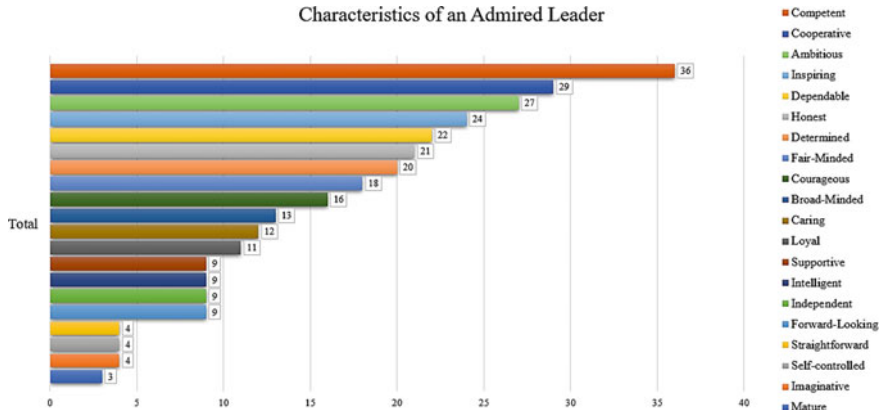


Fig. 17.3 Characteristics of an admired leader

leader is *Competent*, with 12% of respondents selecting it as one of their top seven choices. This suggests that a large percentage of respondents valued leaders who possess the skills and expertise to lead effectively. Next was *Cooperative*, with 10% of respondents indicating that they value leaders who can work effectively in teams and collaborate with others. This emphasizes the importance of teamwork in achieving pedagogical goals. *Ambitious* ranks third, with 9% of respondents valuing leaders who have a clear vision and are driven to achieve their goals. This highlights the importance of having a sense of direction and purpose in leadership. The fourth most important characteristic was *Inspiring*, with 8% of respondents valuing leaders who can motivate and inspire others. This suggests that leaders who can ignite a sense of passion and purpose in their team are highly regarded. *Dependable* follows closely, with seven percent of respondents valuing leaders who can be trusted to follow through on their commitments and promises. This underscores the importance of reliability and consistency in leadership. Another 7% of respondents selected *Honesty* as an essential characteristic, highlighting the importance of leaders who are truthful and transparent in their actions and decisions. Lastly, *Determined* also received 7% of respondents' selections, emphasizing the importance of leaders who are persistent and committed to achieving their goals, even in the face of adversity. As for the other characteristics, *Fair-Minded* was the next highest-ranking characteristic with 6% of respondents selecting it as one of their top 7 choices. Then, *Courageous* with 5% of respondents, followed by *Broad-Minded*, *Caring*, and *Loyal* with 4% of respondents. The lowest ranking characteristics were *Mature*, *Imaginative*, *Self-controlled*, and *Straightforward* each with 1% of respondents. From the data set, we can see that the most admired leaders possess a mix of competencies and personal characteristics, including the ability to inspire, collaborate, and lead with purpose and determination.

Table 17.3 explores the relationship between an educator’s leadership identity, the factors that shape it, and its impact on teaching practices and classroom effectiveness in higher education.

It can be deduced from the findings organized in Table 17.3 that an educator’s leadership identity-shaping factors have a significant impact on their teaching practices and classroom effectiveness. According to participants, an educator who incorporates various forms of technology and continuously updates their teaching strategies based on current research is likely to have improved teaching practices and effectiveness. Similarly, an educator who is aware of and addresses disparities and cultural differences among students is likely to have increased cultural competency and diversity in their classroom, leading to improved student engagement and motivation. Several participants emphasized that the factors that shape an educator’s leadership identity include personal experiences and background, “My leadership identity was shaped by my experiences as a student, and I strive to create a classroom environment that is inclusive and supportive of all learners.” as well as their understanding of how implicit bias and stereotypes in teaching influence how they approach teaching and learning, “I make an effort to understand and address cultural differences in my classroom because I believe it leads to a more positive and inclusive learning environment.” In addition to staying up-to-date with current research, the use of technology and other resources “I believe that staying up-to-date on the latest teaching strategies

Table 17.3 Educator’s leadership identity influence on teaching practices in higher education

Educator’s leadership identity		
Educator’s leadership identity-shaping factors	Impact on teaching practices	Impact on classroom effectiveness
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal experiences and background • Professional development and training • Use of technology and other resources • Socioeconomic and cultural context • An understanding of implicit bias and stereotypes in teaching • Active scholarship/up to date with current research and trends in higher education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shape the way they approach teaching and learning • Use of active learning strategies and student-centered instruction • Incorporation of various forms of technology • Understanding, and addressing disparities among students • Evaluating teaching practices based on feedback and student outcomes • Incorporate various perspectives and cultures in teaching • Continues updates to teaching strategies and practices based on current research 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A student-centered approach to teaching versus the importance of research and scholarship • Enhanced critical thinking ability • Improved student engagement and motivation • Increased cultural competency and diversity • Improved teaching practices and effectiveness • Improved cultural sensitivity and ability to connect with students from diverse backgrounds • Improved student achievement and learning outcomes

Note. Thematic framework for open-ended questionnaire responses + interviews (Appendix).

and incorporating technology into my lessons is crucial for engaging students and promoting their learning.” Remaining informed about the current state of scholarship and current research and trends in higher education was considered to be an essential requirement for participants and professors in higher education in general, which directly impacts the quality of education, enhancing critical thinking abilities, striving for excellence with a focus on student achievement. In connection with the findings (Flores & Day, 2006) work supports the importance of staying informed about current scholarship and research in higher education as they emphasize the importance of educators engaging in critical reflection and ongoing learning to improve their teaching practices and enhance student learning outcomes.

Based on the findings, it can be deduced that an educator’s leadership identity can form the way they approach teaching and learning, leading them to use active learning strategies and student-centered instruction, “As a teacher, I believe it’s important to be a role model for my students and to show them what it means to be a leader through perseverance. Using active learning strategies that engage them in the learning process and allowing them to take ownership of their learning.” In addition, addressing and deeply understanding language needs disparities and cultural differences among students was also stressed by various participants:

I think it’s crucial to understand the unique needs of each student and to recognize the different language abilities and socioeconomic differences that can impact their learning. As a leader in the classroom, it’s my responsibility to create an inclusive environment where all students feel heard and supported.

Highlighting the importance of continuous self-assessment and reflection:

Being a leader in education means continually evaluating and reflecting on my teaching practices. It’s not enough to just go through the same content and teach the same way year after year. By assessing what works and what doesn’t, and making changes based on feedback and student outcomes, I improve my effectiveness as a teacher and a leader.

These findings align with the results of Bolkan and Goodboy’s study, which found that educators with a strong leadership identity are more inclined to use active learning strategies, incorporate technology, and prioritize student-centered instruction. The study also revealed that educators who regularly evaluate their leadership behaviors, seek feedback, and make changes based on student outcomes can improve student engagement and motivation, cultural competency, teaching effectiveness, responsiveness to different leadership styles, and ultimately student achievement (Bolkan & Goodboy, 2009). Table 17.4 illustrates the key concepts, challenges, and contributing factors related to the development of leadership identity in higher education.

The findings in Table 17.4 reveal the contributing factors and essential requirements necessary for identifying, developing, and exhibiting effective leadership identity. Effective leaders should possess various skills and characteristics, such as communication, collaboration, adaptability, inclusivity, and a strong vision. Possessing these qualities promotes open communication, transparency, and teamwork, and supports the needs of individual learners with different language abilities. However, lack of time, institutional support, and development opportunities were reported as major obstacles hindering the effective development of leadership skills

Table 17.4 Leadership identity in higher education

Leadership identity in higher education			
Effective leaders characteristics	Educator’s leadership skills development	Internal challenges	Addressing the challenges
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Effective communication Skills • Collaboration and teamwork • Adaptability and flexibility • Inclusivity and commitment to diversity • Strong vision 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leadership development and training programs • Mentorship and coaching • Speakers and experts sharing their knowledge • Promoting a growth mindset culture • Service learning • Networking professional growth • Safe and inclusive learning environment • Developing differentiated instruction strategies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of time and experience • Limited opportunities for leadership development • Conflicting expectations and resistance to change • Student motivation • Lack of support • Inadequate training • Classroom management with diverse learners • Different individual learners needs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Professional development opportunities for self-evaluation practices • Mentoring and coaching relationship • Open communication and transparency • Addressing the needs of different learners with different language abilities • Supportive leadership • Collaboration and teamwork • Providing resources and support • Emphasizing accountability and responsibility

Note. The thematic framework for open-ended questions Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4+ interviews (Appendix).

in higher education. To address these challenges, participants listed communication, transparency, and collaboration approaches to leadership identity development and pedagogical decision-making processes, and institutions should provide opportunities for educators to develop their leadership skills. This would better support individual learners who respond differently to various approaches and address internal challenges such as conflicting expectations, resistance to change, and inadequate training. Therefore, continuous evaluation and development of leadership skills with the help of institutional support and informed pedagogical decisions are crucial. These findings are consistent with Crowther et al.’s (2009) work, which highlights the need for educator’s leadership skills development to create a positive and productive learning environment that caters to the needs of diverse learners, enhances student motivation, and improves overall academic performance.

Discussion

Based on the research questions, the following themes emerged from the study's findings on factors shaping educators' leadership identity and their impact on teaching practices, classroom effectiveness, and faculty development. Internal Identity aspects, Understanding of Implicit Bias in self-evaluation, professional development and training, socioeconomic and cultural context, transformational leadership, self-reflection and feedback acquisition, institutional support, use of technology and resources.

There are several internal identity aspects that contribute to educators' leadership identity development. These aspects include beliefs, values, motivations, and the observer effect, among others. Previous research has also found that these factors impact the way educators approach teaching and learning (Posner & Kouzes, 1988). Individuals come to know their attitudes and internal states partially by inferring them from observations of their overt behavior and/or the circumstances in which this behavior occurs and is accounted for by others (Bem, 1972). Therefore, an understanding of implicit bias in self-evaluation is crucial. With increased self-awareness, and continuous self-assessment and evaluation, educators are highly likely to be successful in mastering a variety of leadership roles, able to navigate through changing circumstances, and work effectively in collaboration with others, creating an engaging learning environment for students. Accordingly, continuous self-assessment, self-reflection, and feedback acquisition are vital for a transformational leadership identity in education. Linked to previous studies, Runhaar et al. (2010) found that occupational self-efficacy and learning goal orientation were positively related to reflective feedback.

It is important to note that self-perception is just one aspect of leadership development and that it is essential to take into account other factors such as skills development, social context, and institutional support to the development of effective leadership skills and leadership development training programs. Based on the findings in Table 17.4, a participant may have a strong self-perception of their leadership abilities, but their social or institutional context may present challenges to effective leadership. Accordingly, the socioeconomic and cultural context in which educators work also influences their leadership identity. The institutional environment sometimes lacks a culture of collaboration and trust, making it difficult for educators to implement positive leadership behaviors such as fostering teamwork and communication. Therefore, institutions are required to provide leadership development programs for professional development and training taking into account the social context of participants and providing strategies for navigating these challenges, modeling positive behaviors, and advocating for change.

The study also identified five key leadership practices including, role modeling and mentoring, visioning and inspiring shared goals, creating a positive learning environment, fostering collaboration and teamwork, and encouraging and promoting creativity and innovation. Professors are not just subject matter experts, but mentors, coaches, and role models for their students. They set the tone for the subject matter

and are masters of creating positive learning environments that foster engagement and critical thinking. These practices can be developed by educators to further enhance their leadership skills through self-assessment, reflection, and professional development opportunities. These five leadership practices in higher education can pave the way for educators to build more credibility and trust with their students and colleagues and create a culture of accountability and excellence in their academic environment. Furthermore, the study found that the top seven admired leader characteristics among respondents were competence, cooperation, collaboration, ambition, inspiration, dependability, honesty, and integrity. These characteristics are essential for building trust and credibility with students and colleagues, creating a stable and reliable learning environment, and maintaining positive relationships in the institution.

Connected to the findings, several studies revealed that educators develop different leadership styles depending on the particular approach adopted. Educators who value student-centered approaches to teaching adopt a transformational leadership style, that focuses on inspiring and motivating students to reach their full potential (Hallinger, 2003). Such educators incorporate interactive activities and group work into their classrooms, as well as provide opportunities for student self-directed learning. In a study conducted by Bedenlier et al. (2020), it was found that educators who incorporated active learning strategies, and student-centered instruction, tended to have improved student engagement, motivation, and achievement. On the other hand, Ryan et al. (2017) found that an educator who values the importance of research and scholarship adopts a transactional leadership style which focuses on incorporating research-based practices into their teaching, such as using evidence-based teaching methods. This encourages students to engage in scholarly activities such as research projects or independent studies. Moreover, as highlighted in a study by Walker and Dimmock (2005) teachers' leadership identity can also influence their classroom management and relationships with students. An educator who values inclusivity and diversity adopts a democratic leadership style, which focuses on involving students in decision-making and creating a welcoming and supportive classroom environment. In contrast, an educator who values a structured and disciplined approach to learning prefers an autocratic leadership style, which places much importance on structured learning (Walker & Dimmock, 2005).

In conclusion, the findings of the study suggest that multiple factors shape educators' leadership identity, including internal individual identity aspects, and external institutional socioeconomic aspects. The study highlights the importance of continuous self-assessment, transformational leadership, self-reflection, as well as institutional support for the effective development of leadership identity in higher education.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The chapter shed light on the factors that shape educators' leadership identity and its impact on their pedagogical decision-making and faculty development. The study highlights the importance of self-assessment in leadership development and emphasizes the role of professors in shaping the academic environment and creating a culture of growth, and excellence in academia. To effectively address the internal challenges hindering the development of leadership skills in higher education, there is a need to prioritize both top-down leadership structures and a collaborative approach to leadership identity development. This requires creating opportunities for more educators to be involved in decision-making processes and supporting their leadership skills development through a collaborative approach. Accordingly, several areas for future research could further explore the relationship between educators' identity and leadership development in higher education by examining the relationship in different cultural and socioeconomic contexts and looking at how educators from diverse backgrounds navigate the higher education system.

Ethics and Limitations

Ethics and Limitations to the Quantitative Results

The study obtained informed consent from all participants before their participation. To ensure confidentiality and anonymity, participants' names were not required. The study relied on self-reported data, which could be subject to biases and inaccuracies. The study was conducted in a specific context, and the sample size was relatively small, which may limit the generalizability of the findings. Most survey questions had pre-determined options, which may not have fully captured participants' perspectives or experiences.

Ethics and Limitations to the Qualitative Results

Consent was sought and obtained from the participants and they were allowed to withdraw at any stage, as well as being offered a copy of the results. Anonymity has been provided for the participants. Further limitations include the fact that the study was only conducted in Morocco, although it is hoped that the qualitative findings will provide sufficient detail to allow other researchers to find instantiations of them in their own professional experience' and respective contexts. There were concerns over the social desirability (or prestige) bias and the observer effect where participants provide the desired/acceptable answer (Bergen & Labonté, 2019).

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Sanae Ejebli is a doctoral student in the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences, University Mohamed I, Morocco. She is a member of the Languages, Culture, and Communication research group and Applied Communication in Context Laboratory with extensive experience in communication and its applications. With an MA in Communication, Culture, and Translation, she has worked as a supplementary teacher at the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences and the Faculty of Applied Sciences. Her research interests include cross-cultural psychology, cognitive neuroscience, and cultural anthropology. Her chapter offers valuable insights into the crucial aspects of teaching and faculty development.

Chapter 18

Leaderful Peer-Review Activity for Academic Writing Classes



Kushal Kireeti

Abstract This chapter looks at leaderful peer review as a collaborative activity for an English academic writing class at a Japanese university. This study explores the influences leading to the use of the activity, the setup and method employed, the results of a student survey, and the implications. Eleven students participated in the survey, which was conducted as an online qualitative questionnaire. I compiled the answers to each question, interpreted them using thematic analysis and arrived at several implications. The analysis of the findings indicates that students found the activity useful to make improvements to their writing, while also realizing that collaboration can be an effective approach. Thus, leaderful peer review is worth introducing into the classroom, while modifying the activity to suit the level of the group.

Keywords Leaderful peer review · Collaborative leadership · Academic writing · Japanese university context · EFL

Leaderful Peer-Review Activity for Academic Writing Classes

In recent times education and pedagogy have evolved beyond the mere passing of information from teacher to student. However, in practice, the traditional format of teaching still prevails in foreign language classrooms in Japan, where the teacher is an authority figure, while students are passive learners (Kireeti, 2018). In Japanese secondary English education, for example, students are accustomed to the *grammar-translation* method (Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004). A direct teaching approach as such prevents students from becoming active learners and deprives them of taking control of their own learning. Oscar Wilde once said, “Education is an admirable thing, but it is well to remember from time to time that nothing that is worth knowing can be

K. Kireeti (✉)
Tokyo University of Science, Chiba, Japan
e-mail: kushalks007@gmail.com

taught” (*A quote by Oscar Wilde, n.d.*). In this quote, he hinted at the idea of students taking responsibility for their learning. This could be said to include leadership and autonomy as well as collaboration with fellow students and teachers. Both modern scholarly recommendations and my educational background have inspired me to adopt these principles.

In this chapter, I explore leaderful peer review as a collaborative activity for an academic writing class, using a qualitative student survey to find both strengths and shortcomings of the task. The research question the study attempts to answer is whether leaderful peer review is an effective way to refine learners’ writing. I set up a framework through a collaborative discussion, followed by the review process, and finally a qualitative student survey for reflection. While the first two parts aided in setting up the activity, I used the results of the survey as data for the analysis. Overall, findings from the survey indicate that students were satisfied with the task as an effective method to improve their writing despite having to take on the responsibility.

Guiding Principles

Over the last few decades, ideas in education have been evolving. One well-known educator who has influenced the industry greatly is Sir Ken Robinson. Robinson (2001) advocates for a change in thinking in education from an industrial supply and demand view of society to encouraging creativity among learners. He explains that students must be equipped to deal with the changing society and environment, and not just one particular job skill. An apparent example of such change would be the state of the work environment following the pandemic. Many scholars have been predicting a shift to a more virtual and dynamic work environment where roles become less clear. Mangla (2021) for example, explains the same and finds from her study that communication and collaboration are among the most important factors for success moving forward.

Egitim (2022) in his book *Collaborative Leadership through Leaderful Classroom Practices: Everybody is a Leader* discussed the importance of giving students leadership roles through the fundamental principles of collaborative leadership in language classes. He also suggested activities to apply this approach and presented a framework that could be applied by any teacher (Fig. 18.1).

The first steps involved the teacher reflecting on their own leadership identity to develop empathy, followed by building scaffolding and a psychologically safe environment in the classroom. The next step is the actual sharing of power, by involving students in decisions and negotiating classroom practices. Finally, promoting reflection among students brings the process full circle.

Peer review, sometimes referred to as peer feedback or peer response has been discussed for several years in the EFL community. In the past, the teacher was the sole source of feedback for students in writing classes, but gradually feedback from classmates became a core part of process-oriented instruction (Hu, 2005). Essentially, students check a classmate’s composition and return it with suggestions for

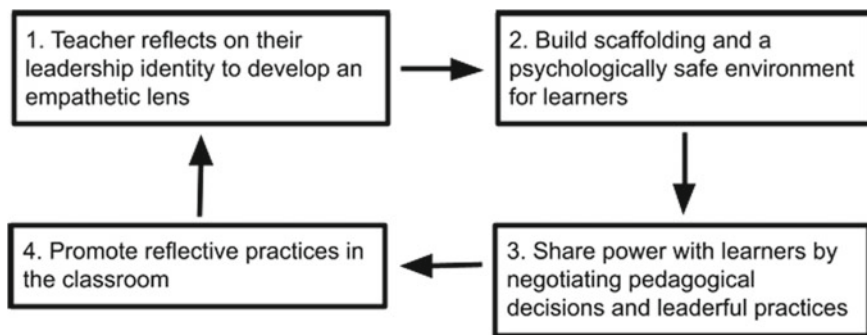


Fig. 18.1 Leaderful classroom practices. *Note* Figure was developed based on the premises laid out in the book, *Collaborative Leadership through Leaderful Classroom Practices: Everybody is a Leader* (Egitim, 2022)

improvement. In a study in Taiwan, Min (2006) highlights the need for trained peer reviewing to positively impact writing revisions. Detailed instructions and a deeper understanding of the structure of writing may be necessary for students to provide “actionable feedback” (Egitim, 2022, p. 38), or feedback that allows the writer to make immediate and significant revisions. Therefore, scaffolding must be built by negotiating a writing structure with the students, thereby providing clarity and understanding. The teacher sharing power and the students actively participating in the process create a psychologically safe environment, where peer review evolves into leaderful peer review.

Another important idea that led me to test leaderful peer review was the development of learner autonomy. Learner autonomy can be viewed as either learning independently outside a classroom setting, or as giving control of the learning process to the student (Benson, 2016). While the former is widely discussed, the latter idea is often more relevant to language learning environments. In a classroom setting, the prevalent approach of “promoting the fundamental, and desirable, pedagogical development of learner responsibility” (Holec, 2009, p. 43) is generally applicable. Shifting power from the teacher to the students is a way to develop that responsibility in learners. According to Little et al. (2017), autonomy involves proactive and reflective learning, which in turn, influences identity, knowledge, and experience.

Learners must become leaders in the classroom and develop a habit of reflecting on their learner identities as part of the learning process. As Najeeb (2013) points out, autonomy is key for language learner development with minimal intervention from the teacher. Learner autonomy can start within the classroom if the teacher shares power with students and allows them to get accustomed to the new environment. Additionally, it can extend outside the classroom if students gain the motivation to improve. Benson (2007) highlights the positive correlation between intrinsic motivation and a sense of autonomy among learners, which is echoed by many related studies. For example, Ma and Ma (2012) found that negotiating classroom practices and giving students a level of independence affected their motivation positively.

Developing independent learning skills is particularly important in the Japanese context. Japanese secondary school students are put through language classes with the tendency to use direct teaching methods such as grammar translation despite the Ministry of Education recommending learner-centered methods such as communicative language teaching to help promote English ability (Kireeti, 2018). Additionally, my observation is that since Japanese students are not immersed in an English-speaking environment, the development of English communication tends to be slow. Thus, learners must take control of their own learning by developing the ability to take on leadership roles. Teachers must also be willing to relinquish some of their power to allow students to take on the responsibility.

These approaches and ideas as well as my early educational background (explained in the following section) helped to shape my teaching style and try collaborative activities such as peer reviewing and student evaluation. Peer review in EFL writing classes has been tested out by teachers and scholars in the past. Similar studies seem to have yielded positive results. For example, Hu and Lam (2010) concluded that their Chinese students in a foreign language writing class deemed peer review a useful and appropriate activity. Similarly, Harutyunyan and Poveda (2018) found that their students at a university in Ecuador saw the benefits of the activity following a questionnaire with open-ended questions. In this study, I added the element of leadership as a further evolution of the activity.

Background

As a child, beginning from a Montessori-style kindergarten, I grew up in Bengaluru, India exposed to alternative learning environments. Subsequently, I went through 12 years of education in a school founded by the famous philosopher J. Krishnamurthi, known for his alternative approach to education. Freedom of exploration was encouraged, while strict and rigid methods including testing were limited. Krishnamurthi in his book *Life Ahead: On Learning and the Search for Meaning* (2014) explains that learning is not merely acquiring information, but a cultivation of the mind as a whole. He goes on to state that the process of learning requires teachers to create a more wholesome learning environment. Through my decade and a half in such environments, I developed some specific interests without being inhibited by fixed molds and ideas. To this day, I am very thankful that I got the opportunity to explore and take responsibility for my own learning while being guided by my teachers without being forced.

When I moved into teaching in Japan nearly a decade ago, these principles stayed with me, and I naturally applied them to my own classes. Over the years, I have particularly leaned towards giving students more space to learn for themselves, create interaction amongst themselves, and act as a facilitator in the background. As far back as the early nineteen hundreds the famous Soviet philosopher Lev S. Vygotsky advocated for it saying, “The teacher must adopt the role of facilitator, not a content provider” (*Thought-provoking quotes by Lev Vygotsky.*, n.d.). Initially, as an assistant

language teacher at the junior high school level, I observed Japanese teachers use top-down teaching methods, forcing students into passive learning roles and making their language output mechanical.

Personally, I felt that as a leader it was my duty to give students the opportunity to practice English more freely, by providing them with scaffolding. Pondering my active learning experiences as a student and reflecting on my leadership identity as a teacher, I introduced classroom tasks that involved students by giving them certain leadership roles such as *leader* and *note-taker* in group activities. Overall, the tasks were well received, and students' language output became more fluid. Continuing with this approach, I began developing activities for various English subjects at the university level. One such activity for writing classes was leaderful peer review. As mentioned previously, this study attempts to find whether leaderful peer review is an effective method to enhance students' writing, with an eye on the strengths and shortcomings of implementing the activity.

Method

Participants

I conducted the present study with a small class of upper level second-year academic writing students ($n = 11$). The students majored in interdisciplinary studies in the Faculty of International Liberal Arts at a private university in Japan. They were taking part in a second-year basic academic writing course. The goal of the course was to write and refine one academic paper at least one thousand words long.

Procedures

With the goal in mind, the students began by exploring three themes and related articles in the assigned textbook. In this case, the themes were risking change, globalization, and technology. Next, they each came up with potential research topics based on the themes. Finally, each student chose a topic from the whole pool of topics generated by the class. The students then proceeded to a step-by-step process of collecting information, planning and writing different parts of the paper throughout the semester. The process involved the use of articles in the textbook as well as independent research online and at the university library. The peer review process took place after the submission of the first draft and once more after the second draft. I conducted this study after the first peer review, using the first draft of their papers.

In the first part of the activity, I allowed the students to discuss the most important parts of an academic paper and the aspects that need to be checked and asked them to make a list. Although these aspects had been discussed in previous classes, they

were covered separately and in parts. This was a good chance to sum it all up, without giving the framework away directly. Once the discussion time of about ten minutes was completed, I asked students to give me some suggestions, based on which I made a structured list on the whiteboard. Finally, I revealed my own prepared list of points to check (Fig. 18.2).

Students could then check the missing aspects on their lists and fill them out. This first section of the activity was an attempt at making the preparation collaborative and allowing students to think about the important parts of their papers. As advocated

1. *A relevant title (highlights the main idea and purpose of the paper)*
2. *Introduction*
 - a. *Interesting beginning, engaging your reader (the hook)*
 - b. *State your purpose for choosing the topic (include details/ background information)*
 - c. *Thesis Statement*
3. *Body*
 - a. *One paragraph for each main point*
 - b. *Structure: Topic sentence, support, explanation of support, concluding sentence*
 - c. *Sufficient in-text citations for support*
4. *Conclusion*
 - a. *Analysis of your main points/ideas*
 - b. *Interesting ending that inspires the reader*
5. *Reference list in APA style*
6. *General corrections*
 - a. *Spelling*
 - b. *Grammar*
 - c. *Casual writing style (should be academic)*
 - c. *Should anything be added or removed?*

Fig. 18.2 Review checklist

by Egitim (2022), the sharing of power to build the scaffolding was fundamental in making it a leaderful activity.

The main part of the activity was the actual review. I asked the class ($n = 11$) to make pairs (and one group of three). Before checking, I negotiated the importance of giving detailed feedback for each point rather than a simple “good” or “okay” remark that some students tend to write. Other discussion points included communicating with their partner if something was unclear and checking the paper at a slow pace. From my perspective, the clarification of details about effectively reviewing a paper added another collaborative and leaderful element. They went on to exchange their writing and began checking others’ papers (the group of three passed on their writing in a circular pattern). Most students took a considerable amount of time (thirty minutes to an hour) to complete the review due to the length of the papers (a minimum of 1000 words). Since it was done in person in the classroom, they had the opportunity to ask their partner if something was unclear. Once they completed writing the remarks, they handed them back to each other.

The final part of the activity involved students checking the feedback from their partners and making changes to their writing. Once again, this is best done in person to allow them to clarify any doubts related to the feedback comments. This part did not take up much time, allowing the whole process to be completed within the single one-hundred-minute class.

Instrument

After the peer review, I asked the students to complete a qualitative questionnaire in English related to the activity. The survey consisted of five open-ended questions about various aspects of their experience. I formed the questions based on the goal of this study to find out the effectiveness of leaderful peer review. To that end, the questions attempted to discover whether the activity progressed smoothly, how students felt about taking and giving responsibility, what advice students received from their classmates and thoughts on ways to improve the activity. I compiled the qualitative results, analyzed them and arrived at several implications. The findings are divided into parts, tackling several survey topics separately.

Analysis

Thematic analysis in qualitative research is the method of identifying and organizing qualitative data sets by identifying common patterns or themes and analyzing the points that are relevant to the research question (Braun & Clarke, 2012). The analysis is meant to provide an answer to the research question by identifying meaningful and important patterns in relation to the topic of the study. Due to the nature of the data used, however, the process is more flexible than quantitative analyses. The flexibility

of thematic analysis extends to the way the data is handled: *inductive* or *deductive* approach and *semantic* or *latent* focus (Terry et al., 2017). The inductive approach is bottom-up, where codes and themes are formed based on the data. On the other hand, the deductive approach is top-down, where themes and ideas are pre-planned. The researcher can also decide to focus on the data semantically by capturing explicit meaning or latently by capturing implicit meaning.

In this study, I used structured qualitative questions for students to reflect on after the peer review activity. Thus, the approach was deductive, where the questions themselves were the pre-planned themes. In my experience, students who are not accustomed to reflection require some amount of structure, leading me to choose a top-down approach. Furthermore, due to the direct nature of the research question, I largely interpreted the data semantically. Although I used a deductive approach initially, I organized the data inductively within each theme. I compiled *codes* or mini-themes based on the patterns generated by the answers.

I sent the qualitative questions, students' answers and the compiled codes to an expert in the field to have them checked for reliability. Revisions to the themes were made based on the expert's feedback. This included the names of the themes and the organization of data from the answers. Due to the students answering questions in a foreign language, some of the answers were grammatically incorrect. Thus, I paraphrased the data in each before explaining my interpretation of it.

Findings

The Activity Flow

The first open-ended question asked the students how smooth the peer review went. Most students said that the activity went smoothly overall. Many of them expressed that they had clarity on what exactly to check and how much detail to include in their feedback. One student felt it was easy to do the review in person while another one said that they were already familiar with their partner's paper from the previous review. A couple of students found the length of the paper challenging, but one of them enjoyed reading through the writing regardless. However, another student expressed their difficulty to understand their partner's intentions. The general format of the activity appeared to be effective for a majority of the students. Discussions and negotiations prior to the review seemed to have helped clarify the important areas to look out for while checking a paper. Thus, the discussion stage is crucial to the flow of the activity.

Taking on Leadership

The second question asked the students how they felt about checking their classmate's work and taking on that responsibility. A majority of students felt that by checking another's paper, they could improve their own writing. A few felt that it was hard work taking on that leadership and were unsure about their ability to do the evaluation. One student also mentioned that the process was positive for their motivation. The overarching takeaway is that most students felt that by looking through specific areas of a classmate's writing, they themselves could learn and figure out ways to improve their paper. This learning might also have motivated them to refine their writing and make parts of the paper comparable with their partner's work. There might have been students who were overwhelmed by the responsibility or not confident with their ability to discern good and bad writing. Doing the activity more frequently or making the framework more detailed could be simple solutions.

Being Reviewed

The third question asked the students their feelings about others checking their work. Many of the students expressed that their classmates could point out mistakes or shortcomings that they might not notice themselves. While some seem to have become more confident through positive praise from their partner, a few others were left disappointed by the lack of suggestions or positive comments. One student noticed that since the writing process was the same for everyone, it is easy to check each other's papers. Some concerns among participants included a potential inability to be frank about their friend's mistakes, discomfort at being corrected by a classmate due to embarrassment, and a potential lack of confidence or ability to analyze someone else's work.

The general impression on the positive side is that their partner tended to notice mistakes or shortcomings that they themselves could not, and this is an important reason to have an external point of view. The shared writing process and writing themes also make the activity more cohesive. Possibilities for dealing with the negative elements could include requesting students to comment on both the pros and cons of the paper. Other negative aspects such as friend biases and a lack of confidence could be minimized through a repetition of the activity and modification of the framework.

Feedback

The fourth question asked the students about useful feedback that they received. The participants received a variety of suggestions from how to improve their thesis

statement and structure to writing the references correctly according to APA format. General corrections related to grammar and word choice were also given. It is clear that the activity was productive in relation to its main goal of improving upon the first draft of the paper using external suggestions. The variety of suggestions also shows that students were able to pinpoint shortcomings related to different aspects of the paper and not limited to a few specific areas. The successful output of suggestions validates them as effective reviewers in this particular context.

Reflections on Further Improvements

The fifth question asked students how the activity could be improved. Most participants thought that more detailed feedback would be useful. One student suggested doing the activity multiple times to improve the writing, while another proposed pairing up with different classmates to remove biases. The use of colors to highlight different kinds of mistakes and corrections was also suggested by a student. All of the suggestions for improvement can be easily tested in most classes.

Discussion and Implications

In the process of conducting the leaderful peer review, reflection and development of empathy influenced my decision to bring a collaborative activity into my classrooms. The discussion prior to the activity worked as a primer to build structure and a safe classroom environment. The peer review itself worked as a medium to share power with the students, while the questionnaire worked as a way to reflect, as well as negotiate pedagogical strategies and classroom practices in the future. The flow of the activity clearly relates to Egitim's (2021, 2022) framework mentioned earlier. My reflection to develop the activity, building scaffolding, sharing power within the activity and finally promoting reflective practices through the questionnaire.

Based on the results, the students found the activity both useful and intuitive. Although some of them were nervous to either be corrected by or to correct their classmates, they expressed their delight in receiving useful and actionable feedback. From my observation, students were not only highly involved in the activity, but also appeared to be surprised at the number of improvements they could make. I could act as a facilitator, while the students were the focal point of the task. I also observed impromptu discussions and clarifications between pairs and groups of students to clarify various points. Overall, there was a sense that checking a classmate's writing in this manner was an appropriate step to take before writing the next draft. As mentioned previously, similar notions were observed in related studies in the past (Harutyunyan & Poveda, 2018; Hu & Lam, 2010). In the end, students seem to have recognized the advantages of taking up leadership roles, while also understanding

the responsibilities that come with the position. Thus, I view the result a success in the process of building an empathetic lens in future teachers and leaders.

There are, however, shortcomings and ways that the process could be improved or adjusted. The student writers' intentions could be included in the discussion prior to the review, more detailed feedback can be emphasized, and a repetition of the activity could be conducted based on the comfort level of the students. Smaller improvements such as changing partners to remove biases and adjusting the review framework to the level of the students might also be necessary. Finally, since the students are learners of English, it might be necessary for some amount of teacher input before the final submission of their writing.

This study discussed one instance of leaderful peer review as a collaborative activity focusing on student opinions of one particular writing class. Thus, it is limited to a small sample size throughout a short time period. Furthermore, the students in question are considered to be of relatively high English ability. Students with lower English ability would likely have different experiences even if the activity is modified to suit their level. Finally, since the data used is purely qualitative, the addition of quantitative data might help make results clearer. A more extensive, long-term study using this activity would likely help back up the claims presented here. Looking at the bigger picture, leaderful peer review fits into the overall framework of collaborative leadership as a leaderful classroom activity.

By implementing leaderful peer review as a writing activity, this chapter builds upon various studies in the past, adding the element of collaborative leadership by actively involving students in the setup of the activity in addition to the review itself comprising collaboration. Finally, students recognizing the steps involved in taking up responsibility, will likely build empathy. Thus, leaderful peer review is presented as an evolution, focusing on further sharing power with students and unlocking their potential as leaders. Further studies could explore leaderful peer review for lower student-levels and non-academic writing classes as variations.

Conclusion

This paper began by exploring the ideas that helped to develop my teaching style, followed by influences from my experience as a student. Next, the background and method of this study were explained, including the context and how the activity was set up. After that, the results of the questionnaire were laid out and the answers to each question were analyzed. Finally, the implications including the shortcomings were discussed. The findings show that students consider leaderful peer review a beneficial activity, and when adopted effectively, can be a productive and collaborative experience where learners are given a high degree of responsibility.

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Kushal Kireeti works at Tokyo University of Science in Japan. He completed his Master of Arts at the University of Sunderland, focusing on English language education. He has taught a variety of English learners in Japan, developed modern teaching approaches along the way.

Chapter 19

The Development of an Elementary English Teacher Identity: Reflections on a Telecollaborative Exchange Between Pre-service English Teachers in Japan and Germany



Motoko Abe and Raphaëlle Beecroft

Abstract The development of a leaderful teaching style is a primordial component of foreign language teacher education. Moreover, considering the developmental stage of primary level pupils, developing an equal partnership between teachers and pupils for collaborative teaching and learning may pose a challenge for which pre-service teachers must be equipped. Tasks which include peer-reflection, discussion, counselling, and feedback from pre-service teachers from another cultural context may prove helpful in aiding teachers to take on a new perspective and may provide them with the confidence they are lacking for both taking and promoting leadership in the primary classroom. Against this backdrop, the following chapter relates the concept of leaderful practice (Raelin, 2010) to the primary English as a foreign language (EFL) context and gathers perspectives from pre-service primary English teachers from Japan and Germany. The data collected is based on two telecollaborative sessions in which the Japanese and German students jointly reflected on their perception of leaderful teaching in the primary English classroom and devised a lesson that fostered leaderful teaching and learning for early EFL learners. The groups then recorded a presentation of their leaderful lessons and shared them on *flip.com*, which enabled comments from the other participants. The telecollaborative sessions were framed by a pre-and post-session questionnaire. A post-session interview was conducted with the Japanese students. Results demonstrate that whilst all participants sought to implement leaderful teaching practice in their lessons, personal experiences regarding leaderful teaching along with the sociocultural context in each country influences the participants' perceptions and attitudes as well as their practice.

M. Abe (✉)
Tokyo Gakugei University, Tokyo, Japan
e-mail: mabe2015@u-gakugei.ac.jp

R. Beecroft
Karlsruhe University of Education, Karlsruhe, Germany

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“Children can always do more than we think they can; they have huge learning potential, and the foreign language classroom does them a disservice if we do not exploit that potential” (Cameron, 2001, p. 7). There is a misleading assumption that young children learning a foreign language are considered targets to be trained. There are also some primary English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers who tend to regard their essential role as pouring water (knowledge and skills) into an empty glass. As the quote of Plutarch, “Education is not the filling of a pail, but the lighting of a fire”, but still for some pupils the notion to consider pupils as “pails” cannot be abandoned. This deceptive notion may compel especially novice primary EFL teachers to feel a burden that they are the only ones who “will/can lead” their class.

However, young children are in fact active thinkers, social networkers as well as curious explorers who are both emotionally and intellectually motivated for learning new things even in a foreign language. Cameron (2001) says, “[C]hildren are more often enthusiastic and lively as learners. [...] They will have a go at an activity even when they don’t quite understand why or how. However, they also lose interest more quickly and are less able to keep themselves motivated on tasks they find difficult” (p. 1). Cameron (2001) also claims that heterogeneity is one of the features to be addressed in primary classrooms. This requires teachers to pay more attention to the diversified characteristics, learning styles, interests, as well as cultural/linguistic backgrounds of primary school children. Thus, it is assumed that being given leadership roles and appropriate tasks to collaborate in the classroom, they would be able to gain their ownership of their learning, and eventually become autonomous learners by effectively applying their own learning styles/strategies while feeling secure and welcomed. To develop this learning environment in the EFL classroom for primary pupils, teachers should alter the perceptions of their leadership by inviting their learners to share “*collaborative leadership*” in class (Egitim, 2022).

The following chapter relates the concept of *leaderful practice* (Raelin, 2010) to the primary EFL context and gathers perspectives on this approach from pre-service primary English teachers from Japan and Germany. The data collected is based on two 75-min telecollaborative sessions in which the Japanese and German students jointly reflected on their perception of *leaderful* teaching in the primary English classroom and devised a lesson that fostered *leaderful* teaching and learning for third and fourth EFL learners, incorporating perspectives and experiences from their respective sociocultural contexts.

The groups then recorded a presentation of their *leaderful* lessons and uploaded the videos to a shared online site, *Flip*, a video sharing and discussion tool, where they could watch each other’s videos and make comments on the planned lessons. The telecollaborative sessions were framed by a pre-and post-session questionnaire for all the students and post-sessions interviews for the Japanese students. In the questionnaire, the participants were asked about their previous teacher-student relationships at

school, and their perceptions about *Leaderful Classroom Practices* in their primary EFL classes before and after the telecollaborative sessions. The follow-up semi-structured interviews focused on how they collaboratively created their lesson plans negotiating various perspectives on the leadership of pupils and teachers. Results demonstrate that whilst all participants recognised and sought to implement *leaderful* teaching practices in their lessons and further teaching in the future, personal experiences regarding *leaderful* teaching differed greatly, and according to the sociocultural context in each country, influencing the pre-service teachers' attitudes towards it.

Literature Review

Primary EFL Education in Japan and Germany

In Japan, English became a compulsory subject for grades five and six in April 2011, however, English was not considered a subject but rather an area of study in this revision of the Course of Study. The allocated time for English was 45 min per week and there were 35 lessons per year. Before this implementation English was taught as part of international understanding which was not compulsory. As English was not a proper curricular subject, no formal assessment was expected and its main aim was to allow children to become familiar with English, and its primary focus was placed on developing pupils' listening and speaking skills (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology, hereafter MEXT, 2008; Rixon, 2013). This situation allowed regional boards of education as well as individual schools high flexibility to decide their own EFL curriculum, content, and teaching materials as well as teaching styles (i.e. taught by a general homeroom teacher alone or the homeroom teacher with an Assistant Language Teacher who is a native speaker of English in most cases) appropriate for their local conditions.

Primary school EFL education in Japan entered a new phase in 2020 starting with a transitional period in 2017. It became a compulsory English subject with a proper evaluation system using the MEXT-authorized textbooks for grades five and six. Moreover, the foreign language activities class, not a subject but an area of study, was extended to grades three and four (MEXT, 2017). The allocation of time for grades five and six increased to two 45-min classes per week, 70 lessons per year in total, whilst 35 lessons per year were allocated for grades three and four. This drastic shift urgently increased the demand for developing teacher training systems to teach primary English at national and regional levels both for in-service and pre-service elementary school general teachers who are not officially qualified for English language teaching.

Butler (2019) considers one of the most serious concerns of introducing English in primary schools in Japan the lack of sufficient professional knowledge and pedagogical skills of teachers who are supposed to teach communicative English. To meet this demand, partially but not comprehensively, the Core Curriculum for English

language teaching at elementary and secondary schools was proposed by MEXT in 2017 (Tokyo Gakugei University, 2017), however, its applicability to improve pedagogical skills of English teachers in practice still needs to be inspected (Tokyo Gakugei University, 2021). Thus, primary school EFL in Japan is a relatively new arena where a lack of systematic and effective teacher training and pedagogical resources are still unsolved and so there is a shortage of trained personnel with sufficient experience and skills.

Primary EFL in Germany is influenced by a European trend that has promoted early language learning programs since the 1990s (Enever, 2005). This trend appeared, as in the case of Japanese English language education, in accordance with the opening of borders and the drastic increase in economic and cultural exchanges across Europe. In Germany, the federal education system has its own freedom in various sectors which resulted in a variety of different state government educational programs on the basis of its individual theoretical assumptions and curricula (Legutke et al., 2014). Thus, the starting year of learning English and its teacher qualification system differ from federal state to federal state. In spite of the fact that the total hours per year officially allocated to English in primary school differs largely between federal states and from year to year, it can be said that the average allocation would be two lessons of 45 min per week, 40 weeks per year. Specific teacher training courses for the primary level (e.g. <https://en.ph-karlsruhe.de/academics>) are offered at many institutions, focussing on an action- and learner-oriented teaching methodology, with the objective, in English language pedagogy, being the development of the learners' (intercultural) communicative competence.

Creating a Leaderful Classroom in Primary EFL

In this study, a *leaderful* classroom environment was analysed using the Four Cs model developed by Raelin (2010) appropriately modified for this age group. It is considered that *leaderful* practice according to this model can call on leaders to be *concurrent*, *collective*, *collaborative*, and *compassionate* (Table 19.1).

The following features are suggested for this study to adapt the Four Cs model fit to EFL classroom practice referring to the previous studies on *leaderful* classroom practice (Egitim, 2021, 2022) and teachers' collaboration with students (Murphy, 2019;

Table 19.1 The four Cs of leaderful practice

Traditional	Leaderful
Serial	Concurrent
Individual	Collective
Controlling	Collaborative
Dispassionate	Compassionate

Raelin (2010, p.18)

Note. The letters are highlighted in red by the authors.

Villa et al., 2010). In EFL classrooms, *concurrent* leadership can be realised where both teachers and learners share power and responsibilities either at the same time or alternately, providing learners with a sense of ownership for their learning. *Collective* leadership can be shared between a teacher and their students or among students by setting a comfortable environment for all to work together toward a common goal. This will allow them to explore new perspectives and reconstruct their own ideas by experiencing a novel meaning-making process collectively. In order to make the *leaderful* practice *collaborative*, a safe atmosphere in which various perspectives are equally valued is necessary in order to encourage learners to contribute honestly and sincerely to the class. This engagement in a public dialogue with open-mindedness will become the foundation for effective collaboration. Lastly, by being *compassionate*, a *leaderful* classroom considers “the stance of a learner who sees the adaptability of the organisation (a classroom) as dependent upon the contributions of others (students and other stakeholders)” (Raelin, 2010, p. 20).

In this study, these four Cs are used as a framework to investigate the *leaderful* practices of pre-service primary school EFL teachers. Thus, at the elementary level, concurrent leadership can be achieved if the children are provided with step-by-step scaffolding to become confident enough to exercise their leadership. For this, it is necessary for a teacher to demonstrate a model of a leader who creates a collaborative as well as compassionate atmosphere for all whilst acting as a role model for the children. If this atmosphere is set successfully, the children will be able to contribute to their class work collaboratively with appropriate occasional support and eventually feel a sense of accomplishment by sharing leadership together with their peers and teachers. Collective leadership may pose a subtle challenge for children in this age group, it is, however, possible to encourage them by setting a structure and a clear common goal to work together and having them engage in public dialogue where individual opinions and preferences are valued.

Leaderful Practice in Primary EFL Teacher-Training

Creating an atmosphere in which collective leadership can be nurtured may, however, pose a challenge to pre-service teachers who may still be developing their own teacher identity. Pre-service teachers may not yet feel that they already have the linguistic proficiency in English to perform this *leaderful* persona as well as facilitate the children’s taking on leadership whilst also modelling the different roles required of an English teacher (Deters-Philipp, 2018). Kluth and Goddard (2010) suggest that pre-service teachers are reluctant to take the initiative to craft solutions both for their pedagogical problems as well as those to the problems in their daily lives.

As such, it was judged of interest to elicit the voices of pre-service elementary school teachers on both their perceptions of their own *leaderful* identity as well as their perspectives on the possibility of *leaderful* teaching in the elementary classroom. Of further interest for the study were the potential differences in perspectives based

on the differing geo-political contexts and concurring educational foci of the pre-service teachers—one group being based within the German context and the other group within the Japanese context.

Virtual Exchange to Nurture Pre-service Teachers’ “Leaderfulness”

O’Dowd (2018) defines virtual exchange as in the following.

Virtual exchange is an umbrella term used to refer to “the engagement of groups of learners [...] (in online language and) intercultural interaction and collaboration with partners from other cultural contexts or geographical locations as an integrated part of course work, and under the guidance of educators and/or expert facilitators (p. 5)”.

The term virtual exchange is often used in a wide range of context instead of *telecollaboration*, however, O’Dowd indicates that *telecollaboration* has been frequently used in the field of foreign language education by those who took initiatives of the activities and the adjective *telecollaborative*, compared to *virtual*, describes more accurately this kind of exchange and thus it is used in this study (Fig. 19.1).

In telecollaboration, the form of virtual exchange chosen for the study at hand, the emphasis is, alongside language development, on inter/transcultural experiences. This includes fostering intercultural communicative competence whilst engendering

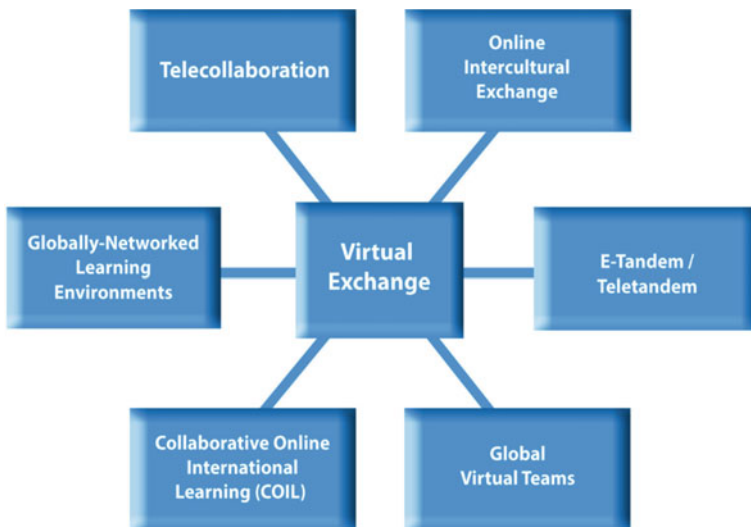


Fig. 19.1 An overview of virtual exchange initiatives (O’Dowd, 2018, p. 4)

a reflection on partners' as well as their own multiple identities. The telecollaboration provides an in-between space for the students to perceive and perform the multicultural dimensions of their identities through interacting in English as a Lingua Franca where negotiation and collaboration are placed as an integral part of learning. Furthermore, this helps participants to discover the complexity of relationships away from the *us* and *them* binary which may appear to be given through the structure of the exchange itself (Gutierrez & O'Dowd, 2021; O'Dowd, 2021). The telecollaborative sessions also provide opportunities to develop foreign language communication skills in a meaningful and relevant context which may contribute to reducing participants' language anxiety. Especially in Japanese primary EFL teacher training, it is said that this language anxiety stems mainly from the lack of communicative English proficiency of elementary school teachers (Machida, 2015).

Pedagogical Approaches to Engage Pupils in Leadership Roles in Primary EFL

As Egitim (2022) points out, there are several essential pedagogical features required to be addressed to create *leaderful* language classrooms. For its foundation, it is important to secure "an open, participatory, and equitable educational environment" and "(to) encourage learners to take initiative like leaders [...] (which should be realised) through the teacher's gradual withdrawal from the process" (p. 44). This is especially true in the primary EFL context where pupils are likely to be influenced by other factors such as the atmosphere of the classroom and how a teacher's intervention occurs.

The teacher may want to provide an overall structure and appropriate learning objectives clear for the target pupils considering their developmental characteristics, however, the interventions should be gradually withdrawn in order for the pupils to get aware of their ownership in learning which will scaffold them to take leadership eventually. Egitim (2022) also proposes a *Leaderful Classroom Practices* framework that focuses on teacher self-reflection, including recognition of their limitations and biases as well as power positioning, which leads teachers to have empathy toward their pupils. This self-reflection also encourages teachers to invite children's voices into their classroom, also suggested by Butler (2019), as well as to collaborate with their pupils as co-teachers. Villa et al. (2010) claims that it is essential to establish a cooperative learning structure in the classroom so that the students can become co-teachers by increasing their engagement and as a result effective learning outcomes.

In the *Learning Together* approach Johnson and Johnson (1989, cited in Villa, et al., 2010) suggest the following five factors: Positive interdependence, Individual accountability, Group processing, Social skills, and Face-to-face interaction (PIGS Face). These specific pedagogical approaches, especially individual accountability and group processing may not be widely diffused yet in primary EFL due to the teachers' notion that children who have not fully developed their literacy skills even in

their L1 should be taught or trained. However, they are actually more capable than we expect as Cameron (2001) suggests. The authors believe that investigating pre-service teachers' perspectives on their teacher leadership as well as increasing their pedagogical knowledge by gaining new perspectives through intercultural experiences may present a new approach to primary EFL teacher training.

In order to address the issues described above, the following research questions were formulated:

RQ1: What are the pre-service teachers' perceptions of a *Leaderful Classroom Practices* in primary EFL before the telecollaborative sessions?

RQ2: How are their perceptions of a *leaderful* classroom in primary EFL developed through international telecollaborative team discussions?

Method

In order to investigate the above-mentioned research questions, ten undergraduate students at Karlsruhe University of Education (KUE hereafter) in Germany and 22 undergraduate students from Tokyo Gakugei University (TGU hereafter) in Japan (see Table 19.2) were chosen to have over a year-long virtual exchange in 2021. Both cohorts were taking primary EFL courses sharing similar interests in the field of education. The data for this study was collected based on two 75-min telecollaborative sessions (see the section below for more detail) in which the KUE and TGU students jointly reflected on their perception of *leaderful* teaching in the primary English classroom. This reflective process is suggested as an initial step of the *leaderful* classroom practice framework by Egitim (2022) as well as by Villa et al. (2010). We collaboratively devised a lesson that fostered *leaderful* teaching and learning for third and fourth-grade EFL learners in seven intercultural teams. Following that, they recorded a presentation of their *leaderful* lesson as a group and uploaded it online to *Flip*, a video-sharing and discussion platform where they could comment on each other's ideas.

Pre- and post-session questionnaires were set for both the TGU and KUE participants, and follow-up semi-structured interviews were conducted for the TGU students

Table 19.2 Participants' backgrounds

	Year		Participants who have experience of practicum	Participants who have experience to interact with 9–10 years old children
Karlsruhe University of Education (5 in total)	2nd year	2	3	5
	3rd year	3		
Tokyo Gakugei University (15 in total)	2nd year	15	0	10
	2nd year	0		

focusing on how they collaboratively created their lesson plans by negotiating the various perspectives on the leadership of pupils and teachers. Table 19.2 shows the participants' backgrounds. Only the data of the participants from whom consent was obtained in a written format was employed for analysis.

Pre- and Post-questionnaires and Follow-Up Interviews

The pre-session questionnaire consists of the following five questions:

- (1) How did you experience (as a learner) teacher-pre-service teachers' relationships at school?
- (2) How do the experiences shape your concept of leadership as a teacher?
- (3) How does your concept of leadership affect your way of managing your classroom?
- (4) How do you want to create safe and mutually respectful relations with your students?
- (5) How should a teacher enact leadership in the primary EFL classroom?

The following three questions were set for the post-session reflection:

- (1) How do you consider yourself a *leaderful* teacher now?
- (2) How do you think the telecollaborative sessions contributed to developing your leadership identity?
- (3) Were you able to gain different perspectives on leadership identity through the telecollaborative sessions?

Three participants from TGU were interviewed about the procedure of planning and designing the lesson as well as what they learned from the telecollaborative sessions. The sampling of the interviewees was based on their active participation as well as changes that appeared through the telecollaborative sessions. The number of data obtained from each source is shown in Table 19.3.

Table 19.3 Data obtained through each source

	Pre-session questionnaire	Telecollaborative sessions/lesson planning	Post-session questionnaire	Semi-structured interviews
Karlsruhe University of Education	5	10	5	0
Tokyo Gakugei University	20	22	12	3

Intervention: Telecollaborative Sessions as a Virtual Exchange Format

The next section will provide details of the two telecollaborative sessions carried out between the KUE and the TGU students who majored in primary EFL. The 75-min telecollaborative sessions (Gutiérrez & O’Dowd, 2021; O’Dowd, 2018) were carried out in November 2022, a week apart from each other. The sessions were framed by the pre- and post-session questionnaires on the pre-service teachers’ perception of *leaderful* teaching practice described above and were preceded by an introduction on the field of *leaderful* classroom pedagogy.

The students were divided by the authors into groups consisting of one to two KUE students and two to three TGU students. The first part of the first session served as a space for the participants to introduce themselves and ask each other questions about their courses of study as well as primary school English pedagogy in their respective contexts. Furthermore, they were asked to discuss the pre-session questions together. The second part of the session was dedicated to the joint planning of a lesson for third or fourth graders on a topic of the groups’ choice in which the different characteristics of *leaderful* classroom pedagogy would be facilitated.

A further planning meeting via *Zoom* between the two sessions was recommended. For the second session, the groups were provided with a lesson plan template and asked to fill in the template according to their planned lesson. In the second half of the session, the students then recorded a short presentation outlining their planned lesson, which they then uploaded to *Flip*. All participants in the telecollaborative session had access to the *Flip* platform, meaning that the groups could watch and comment on each other’s video presentations freely.

Results

All the descriptive data obtained from the pre- and post-session questionnaires as well as the follow-up interviews were coded in a qualitative manner (Flick, 2018). Considering the data amount for this study, an analysis using *NVivo* was not performed, however, the emerging themes were coded and agreed on by the authors for triangulation. The emerged themes (codes) referring to the 4Cs framework (Raelin, 2010) were employed after the codes and the data were saturated (Kinoshita, 2007) when the codes had become stable enough to be fully consistent with the data. In order to provide an overview of the results, the authors used quantitative indicators, however, this is not intended to illustrate its statistically significant differences between the results of pre- and post- questionnaires or any other suggestions in a manner of quantitative research.

Pre-service Teachers' Perceptions of Teacher Leadership (Result of the Pre-session Questionnaire)

The first question asked the participants to reflect on their own experiences as students (How did you experience (as a learner) teacher-pre-service teachers' relationship at school?) which helps the pre-service teachers to comprehend the theoretical and practical features of collaboration with their students (Villa et al., 2010). The result shows that 48% of the pre-service teachers felt they experienced traditional top-down leadership as learners at school, while 16% emphasised their experience of a *leaderful* classroom where students were allowed to, for example, have the freedom to choose lesson content according to their interests or to participate in the decision-making process of class structure.

36 % mentioned both experiences and most of them pointed out that traditional top-down relations with teachers are more likely to be found at the primary level. However, leadership was judged to become more collaborative between teachers and students or among students if the students made decisions by themselves without direct consultation by their teachers, especially when planning school events or club activities. It should be noted that one of the TGU pre-service teachers considered that his top-down relationship with his teacher ("*like a boss*" in his word) did not influence him negatively, and he even felt supported to overcome difficulties through his teachers' strong, one-directional leadership.

Question 2 (How does this experience shape your concept of leadership as a teacher?) illuminates the pre-service teachers' perceptions toward teacher leadership. 20% felt that their experience of traditional relationships with their teachers shaped their image of a strong and dominant teacher who keeps their distance from their students. 8% claimed a neutral position, noting that a teacher can lead his/her class in different ways, for example one participant said, "*A teacher can be more of a friend or very strict or something in between*" depending on the conditions of individual classes. Over 70% of the participants, however, considered the traditional relationship as a model not to follow and stated their preference toward *Leaderful Classroom Practices*. Their answers about teachers' roles reflect the Four Cs framework (Raelin, 2010), which are summarised in Table 19.4.

The answers to Question 3 (How does your concept of leadership affect your way of managing your classroom?) show that although two could not come up with actual ways of managing their classroom due to the lack of practical experience and four of them expressed their suggestions for a traditional (their wording) approach as well as a neutral position (i.e. "both approaches have pros and cons"), a variety of ways to manage one's *leaderful* classroom were mentioned as can be seen in Table 19.5.

Regarding Question 4 (How do you want to create safe and mutually respectful relations with your students?), two participants mentioned their traditional view ("by keeping an appropriate distance, guiding Ss in the right direction"), but the remainder preferred more *leaderful* manners. Fourteen participants prioritised dialogues with their students in order to cater to their needs and interests followed by building mutual respect as well as trust (eight participants). This is further explained by their

Table 19.4 Summary of the pre-service teachers' concept of leadership for a leaderful classroom: various teachers' roles

4Cs	Codes	N	Examples
Collaborate	Create an environment where Ss be active and share ideas	5	I want students to always express their opinions in class and to share ideas with classmates
Compassionate	Secure Ss' freedom	3	I want to give my students some choices so that they can work on what they are interested in
	Support Ss	3	Teacher(s) give some advice and support students
	Build mutual respect/trust with Ss	3	The most important in my opinion is that you're always respectful towards the students
	Accommodate various needs/desires of Ss	3	It is important for teachers that they put themselves in students' shoes
	Learn with Ss	1	A teacher's role is not only teaching, but also learning with students
	Consider developmental characteristics	1	9–10 year-old children want to try too difficult or easy things. Thus, teachers have to make (give) some choices that are appropriate

Note. N = 18. Multiple answers were allowed.

answers to Question 5 (How should a teacher enact leadership in a primary school classroom?). In addition to being “compassionate” to the students' interests, needs, and personalities, six of the participants pointed out that it is important for teachers to set a frame (structure) for a class (i.e. theme, appropriate activities, lesson sequences, key phrases, and vocabulary) as part of their teacher leadership role.

Teacher identity traits such as being kind, cheerful, and interactive, as well as finding appropriate strictness were mentioned. Other teacher roles such as motivating pupils and being a role model were considered important as well. One interesting comment was “I think a teacher should enact it (leadership) secretly, not overtly, not let students know they are being led.” This may reflect one of the characteristics of the target age group to be taken into consideration in the primary EFL where the authority of a teacher is likely to be more obvious than in a class with older students without the teacher's intention. It is important for an primary EFL teacher to be aware of such authority in order to build an equal partnership with their students.

Leaderfulness of Lesson Plans for Third and Fourth Graders

Table 19.6 shows the details of the group structures and presentations of the telecollaborative sessions as uploaded to the *flip.com* platform.

The elements of *leaderful* pedagogy that featured in the intercultural groups' lesson plans include the following:

- giving opportunities for students to interact in pairs/groups (G1, 2, 3, 5, 6)

Table 19.5 Summary of the pre-service teachers' suggestions of practical ways to manage a leaderful classroom

4Cs	Codes	N	Examples
Concurrent	Valuing active participation/ autonomy of students	4	(Teachers) let the students discuss, and let them practise on their own
Compassionate	Learn more about students	3	(Teachers) have to listen to their students
Compassionate	Giving options to Ss	3	A teacher gives them some options (for students)—to achieve their goals
Collective/ concurrent	Involving Ss in decision making process	3	I want to decide the activity we do in English class with students
Compassionate	Valuing respect	2	I think that it is good to respect students
Compassionate	Valuing Ss' interests/ideas	2	If we value the interests of children,—children would be able to learn many things according to their interests
Concurrent	Balancing Ss' leadership and T's leadership	2	I think students should have leadership in classrooms. However, when they have some trouble teachers should have leadership to solve the problems
Collaborative	Encouraging Ss to learn from each other	2	When teachers respect students' ideas, students may also share and learn from each other well
Compassionate	Ts should learn with students	1	I'm a teacher but also a learner. I should learn something new from what they think, feel and act in class
Compassionate	Valuing honesty and humour	1	I try to be a bit of a funny teacher, to show the children that I'm 'on their side'

Note. N = 19. Multiple answers were allowed.

- step-by-step scaffolding with a teacher's model (G1, 2, 3, 6, 7)
- having students try hands-on activities in pairs/groups using physical movements, the five senses, or their imagination (G1, 2, 4, 7)
- having students create artwork/posters for presentation together in pairs/groups (G 3, 5, 6)
- using students' work as teaching materials (G3, 4, 6)
- giving students choices (G1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7)
- having students take on the role of the teacher (G1, 2, 3, 7)

These features reflect the 4Cs for a *leaderful* practice framing the study. *Collaborative* leadership can be found among students in activities such as pair/group work (making quizzes and posters). Furthermore, using students' work as teaching materials can be a *leaderful* approach that invites students' collaboration in the teaching process. Having students take on the teacher's role will give a sense of *concurrent* leadership to students. Switching roles between a teacher and students may give

Table 19.6 Details of group structure and presentation

G#	KUE	TGU	Lesson theme	Length of presentation	Number of comments
1	1	3	Colours of things around you	7'01''	16
2	2	4	Animals in a zoo	5'26''	17
3	1	3	Let's make Christmas ornaments	9'56''	15
4	1	3	Let's go out and find many colours	4'07''	16
5	(1)	3(1)	Endangered animals	7'09''	14
6	3	2	Let's meet animals in a zoo	7'46''	13
7	3	2	Colours of fruits and more	8'01''	15

Note. Table 19.7 shows the *leaderful* features of each group lesson as described in the video presentation.

Table 19.7 Leaderful features of the lesson plans

G#	Leaderful features
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Students in Group A shout a colour to Group B and students in B will touch things in that colour in the classroom * A teacher shows black and white pictures of fruits/vegetables/animals and encourages students to imagine what colours they are
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * In "Which animal am I?" game, students take the role of a teacher using picture cards * Student A calls a friend's name and says "Please come next to me as (a/an animal)". The called student pretends to be the animal with their body movement
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * A teacher asks Student A to take the role of a teacher to ask classmates' favourite colours and use their favourite colours as teaching materials * A teacher has students make their two original Christmas trees in pairs by asking each other their favourite colours for the Christmas ornaments
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * A teacher takes students outside to have them find various colours on things around them * A teacher then uses the sketches the students drew to learn colours and other vocabulary
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Students work in groups to make their chosen endangered animal posters. (name, picture, habitat, the number of the species, etc.)
6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * A teacher scaffolds students step-by-step so that they can make a presentation about their favourite animals * Students make <i>Who am I?</i> quizzes by themselves and answer each other * Students research their favourite animals on their own * A teacher has students use English in an authentic context (e.g. visit a zoo)
7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Students take the role of a teacher by asking other classmates to touch a colour of objects in the classroom

them confidence and will lead them to build equal partnerships. A teacher or classmates can be *compassionate* leaders by catering to the interests and preferences of individual children. Opportunities to explore the children's neighbourhood or a zoo will stimulate their interests and motivate them to express their preferences. Activities that enhance physical movement, multisensory expressions, and imagination will prove effective in encouraging this age group to enjoy taking on leadership in the classroom. Setting a common goal for group work such as creating a poster and presenting it to the class may encourage their *collective* leadership. However, considering the learners' developmental stage, this may require a teacher to scaffold the students' actions when carrying out a task until they are confident enough to take leadership themselves.

New Perspectives on a Leaderful Teacher (Result of the Post-session Reflective Questionnaire)

Tables 19.8 and 19.9 show the results of the qualitative content analysis of the pre-service teachers' responses to the post-session reflective questionnaire. The questions include: (1) How do you consider yourself as a *leaderful* teacher now? (2) How do you think the telecollaborative sessions contributed to developing your leadership identity? and (3) Were you able to gain different perspectives on leadership identity through the telecollaborative sessions? Since there were no significant differences between the two groups, the results were combined for analysis.

80% of the answers indicated that the pre-service teachers gained new perspectives on becoming a *leaderful* teacher regarding a *leaderful* teacher's actions (e.g.

Table 19.8 Summary of the participants' perspectives as a "Leaderful" teacher

Codes	Examples	N (%)
New perspectives as a leaderful teacher	I learned that a teacher should accommodate students' willingness/interests I think it is important to create an atmosphere to reduce student anxiety (for them to become leaders) I think this multicultural exchange helped me reconsider what a leaderful teacher is I think a leaderful teacher should have appropriate and enough skills and knowledge	16 (80)
Balance between T's and Ss' leadership	I think students can be a leader, but they still need a teacher's leadership to support them	1 (5)
Plan versus Practice	I feel confident now but how I'd act in a primary classroom may be different	1 (5)
No difference	I can't feel any difference after the sessions	2 (10)

Note. N = 17.

Table 19.9 Summary of their development of leaderful identity through the telecollaborative sessions

Codes	Examples	N (%)
They provided different perspectives to consider leadership identity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I gained a concrete idea about leadership • It was a great opportunity to think outside of my own perspective • I learned good ideas that I've never come up with 	13 (48)
They helped me gain pedagogical knowledge	I learned important points/teaching methods for a leaderful class	8 (30)
Sharing on <i>Flip</i> was more helpful	Not the session but sharing our presentations on <i>Flip</i> helped	3 (7)
They did not help me develop leadership identity	It didn't help me develop my leadership identity within the limited time	4 (15)

Note. $N = 27$. Multiple answers were allowed.

accommodate students' interests, reduce students' anxiety) and qualifications and experience (e.g. sufficient knowledge and skills). There are also seemingly negative answers which show the pre-service teachers' insecurity regarding *leaderful* practice in the classroom (e.g. "how I'd act in a primary classroom may be different") as well as dissatisfaction (e.g. "The session was too short").

The results for Question 2 (How do you think the telecollaborative sessions contributed to developing your leadership identity?) also reveal the fact that about half of the answers claimed that the sessions helped them to gain new perspectives towards developing their leadership identity. This result corresponds with the result of Question 3 (Were you able to gain different perspectives on leadership identity through the telecollaborative sessions?), which shows that 12 (70%) of the students thought that they were able to gain different perspectives on leadership identity through the sessions.

The new perspectives include both theoretical (e.g. concrete ideas about leadership) as well as practical aspects (e.g. new teaching ideas for the European context) concerning leadership. One of the pre-service teachers mentioned that the different attitudes of her group members regarding participation in the multicultural session made her realise the importance of active participation. This was something that she valued as a quality not only for a teacher but also for an individual in a broader sense. On the other hand, three students (7%) pointed out that sharing on *Flip* was more helpful than the sessions themselves and four (15%) argued that the sessions were not sufficient to develop their leadership identity. Thus, for some students, the three hour-telecollaborative sessions did not provide enough scope for discussing the topic to an appropriate degree.

Negotiation Through Various Perspectives (Result of the Semi-structured Follow-Up Interviews)

This section will investigate the process of how their *leaderful* lesson plans collaboratively emerged through negotiation among the KUE and the TGU students from three TGU students' perspectives. The first interview participant reported that their group started with sharing their backgrounds in order to integrate their strengths into the lesson idea. They ended up taking an interdisciplinary approach to integrated English, art, science, and math. Their plan involved taking children outside to sketch things that would be used as learning materials in class to learn colours and the names of living things. The TGU student was surprised to know how *leaderful* the ideas from a KUE student already were and mentioned that the KUE students developed *leaderful* ideas "very naturally," while the TGU students tried to think deeply since the approach was not familiar to them. The TGU student was very nervous about the rare opportunity to be able to encounter their peers in Germany and speak in English, but after the session, she was "greatly moved" by this cross-cultural experience in which new cultural facts stimulated her very much.

The second interview participant's group first discussed the definition of *leaderful* practice. Due to the fact that they found this difficult to explain and grasp, the group decided to set up an online chat platform to continue their discussion after the first telecollaborative session. After sharing their definition, a KUE student brought a state English curriculum for the appropriate age group in Germany which seemed to the interviewee to be very challenging for pupils in Japan in terms of its high level of English. Then the TGU students suggested alternative activities to modify the original plan by introducing new vocabulary as a warm-up and negotiating ideas with each other. The interviewee was mostly impressed by the high English proficiency of the KUE students which motivated him to further his English study. He also thought that different pedagogical considerations should be made in Japan since the pupils in Japan need step-by-step scaffolding as a foundation of their English learning, considering its more monolingual local context. The interviewee discovered that learning English can be seen not just as a subject to be learned (frequently found in Japan) but also as a means of communication (which was indicated by the KUE students' ideas).

In the third interviewee group, the TGU students initiated creating the lesson plan and had the KUE student as a supervisor to give feedback about the plan, in particular for the parts introducing the target vocabulary which was more typical in the Japanese school context. The TGU students held an independent discussion on *Zoom* before the second session to prepare the lesson plan which they had developed with the KUE student because of the limited time allowed. The interviewee emphasised the importance of non-verbal communicative conventions. In the first session, no members put on their cameras which made their discussion extremely difficult, whereas, in the second session, the group made more effort to communicate using their facial expressions as well as gestures with their cameras on. The sessions made her feel happy to be able to communicate with people using their common second

language, English, and motivated her to further her English learning. This opportunity also gave her a sense of achievement by discussing a specific topic as well as writing emails in English.

Discussion

The data presented above demonstrates that it is possible to enable pre-service teachers to reflect and plan *leaderful* teaching practice through the provision of opportunities for formulating personal perspectives (the questionnaires) and for collaborating on creating *leaderful* teaching situations. This, in turn, contributed to developing not only the pre-service teachers' pedagogical insights to promote collaborative leadership with their students (Egitim, 2021, 2022; Villa et al., 2010) but also their intercultural attitudes (O'Dowd, 2018, 2021). Furthermore, the qualitative content analysis of the planned lessons shows that the pre-service teachers recognised and implemented characteristics of *leaderful* practice according to Raelin's 4Cs model (Raelin, 2010) after negotiating their various views on what a *leaderful* classroom should be. The telecollaborative sessions however demonstrated that the sociocultural context of the planning and implementation of the lessons plays a large role in how *leaderful* practice can be implemented, with one Japanese student remarking in the interview that the German students reported that many of the characteristics of *leaderful* practice are already inherent to primary English language pedagogy in their everyday teaching practice. This calls for, in the authors' opinions, the introduction of a fifth C, namely *Context sensitivity* to Raelin's model. The inclusion of 'Context sensitivity' would emphasise the need for *leaderful* teachers to reflect on the effect of socioculturally-influenced pedagogical practice on their students' readiness to exercise their leadership and to take measures to integrate *leaderful* practice within the framework of the existing teaching context. This would entail the teachers' assessing their own positionality, their teacher education background as well as their existing pedagogical principles against the backdrop of the resources available in their local context as well as in international comparison, as took place in the telecollaborative lesson planning sessions.

Limitations and Future Implications

Planning a lesson in multicultural and multilingual teams within the telecollaborative context provided opportunities for the participants to reconsider teachers' as well as students' leadership in order to collaboratively create a plan for a *leaderful* classroom. However, the lessons could not be implemented in practice. Enabling the participants to execute the planned lessons in their respective local contexts and reflecting on their practice together would, however, provide another cross-cultural learning opportunity and would allow them to reconsider their local contexts at individual and societal

levels. This would, in turn, expose the students to different experiences of practice which they could then consider for implementation in their own spheres of action. This would enable their local teaching practice to be enriched by a collaborative, transcultural dimension gained through telecollaborative exchange with peers from diverging sociocultural backgrounds.

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Motoko Abe is an Associate Professor at Tokyo Gakugei University, Japan where she works as a teacher educator for both pre-service and in-service teachers of primary English. Her research interests include global citizenship education through primary EFL as well as development of ICC and competences for democratic culture. She furthermore works on curriculum development and teacher training in the field. She is also a teacher-researcher at a private elementary school in Yamanashi, Japan where she has been implementing her curriculum and conducting action research for over a decade.

Raphaëlle Beecroft Dr. Raphaëlle Beecroft is an Interim Professor and a Researcher in English Language Pedagogy at Karlsruhe University of Education, Germany. Her research interests include the further development of ICC and competences for democratic culture, translation, virtual exchange and drama methods in foreign language pedagogy, informal second language learning and digitalization, teacher personality professionalisation as well as the decolonialisation and diversification of English language teaching, especially in the field of primary language education.